

CURRENT DEBATES ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

9

ZEYNEL KARACAGIL



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Critical Approaches to Theoretical Basis of Neoliberal Financial Liberalization Policies

Ömer Demir¹

Introduction

Until the mid-1970s, financial policies implemented all over the world and especially in emerging market economies, with the influence of the Keynesian economic approach, followed a protectionist and interventionist course. Government regulations were common during this period. However, in the late 1970s, the protectionist and interventionist policies implemented by nation-states were seen as the source of macroeconomic imbalances and financial crises in many countries. Policies implemented on the basis of these realities caused serious criticism. In the next period, emphasis was placed on the free market system, the reduction or removal of state restrictions, and economic liberalization policies (Kara & Kar, 2005: 96).

The concept of financial liberalization refers to the determination of financial facts by market forces, not state forces, for the efficient allocation of scarce resources. Financial liberalization can be defined as a process consisting of six stages. First, all credit restrictions are lifted to ensure the free movement of financial assets. Second, interest rates should be freely determined by market forces, in accordance with the principle of the free market system. Third, all government restrictions and impositions in the financial system (financial markets and financial institutions) are removed. Fourth, banks are made autonomous. Fifth, the principle of private ownership for banks and the private sector should be operated. Sixth, all controls on international capital flows are removed (Mahar & Williamson, 2002: 15-16). Financial liberalization is a two-stage process, internal and external financial liberalization. Logically, after internal financial liberalization has been achieved, external financial liberalization should be started.

The internal financial liberalization phase includes the liberation of national financial markets from government control and pressure. The first step to be taken in this context is to ensure that nominal interest rates should be determined by market powers and are not controlled by state power. Determining the interest rates through the market mechanism is aimed to facilitate entry into financial markets and provide diversity in financial instruments. Because, in the financial system, keeping interest rates under pressure prevents savings from turning to the financial system and financing efficient investments. The pressure on interest rates is lifted with the internal financial liberalization phase. In this case, economic growth is realized by increasing total national savings and investments. However, in order to achieve this goal, a low inflation rate and budget deficits must be at a controllable level (Akgün, 1993: 78).

External financial liberalization covers the process of directing international resources to the national economic system. This process ensures the integration of national financial markets with international financial markets. External financial liberalization takes place in three steps. The

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first is to allow residents to borrow from abroad for international financial transactions and to lend non-residents freely to domestic markets. Second, all obstacles to financial transactions by residents and non-residents should be removed. Third, residents should be allowed to use foreign currencies in their financial transactions (Akyüz, 1991: 21).

Theoretical Basis of Neoliberal Financial Liberalization Policies

Financial liberalization theory was put forward by McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) within the framework of the Neo-Classical approach, which constitutes the new form of the classical school. This theory contains two assumptions. First, financial liberalization will ensure an efficient allocation of savings across the world and thus equalize interest rates between countries. Second, the removal of financial pressure will lead to financial deepening and thus economic growth will be accelerated by ensuring the efficient allocation of resources. On the basis of the Neo-Classical approach, McKinnon and Shaw's analysis of financial liberalization was expressed as the McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis by M. Fry. The McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis was developed by Kapur, Galbis, and Mathieson.

The theory of financial pressure refers to the existence of authority-determined interest rates, high reserve rates, regulated lending, restriction of entry and exit from banking activities, restriction of foreign exchange transactions, and directed ceilings in an economy. In a nutshell, it is a situation where the government gains control over financial sector activities and leads to a decline in savings, hindering investment and a lack of investment in an economy leads to delayed economic growth. Financial liberalization has been the way forward, especially for an emerging economy. This thesis has attracted great attention as many emerging economies have liberalized their financial sectors in line with the Bretton Woods institutions and the principles of the Washington Consensus (Orji, Ogbuabor, & Anthony-Orji, 2015: 1).

The McKinnon-Shaw approach predicts that the interest rates released with the financial liberalization process will rise in the first place and become an important variable that provides the savings and investment balance, and thus gains the quality of an indicator that carries all the information about the financial markets. Depending on the rise in interest rates, it becomes attractive for savings to shift to bank deposits. This, in turn, accelerates economic growth by increasing the resources that can be invested. In addition, the increase in savings as a result of the increase in the free interest rates has a reducing effect on consumption and thus inflationary pressures are eliminated. In addition, with the increase in liberalized interest rates, savings will be directed to more productive areas and thus, efficiency in resource allocation will be ensured (Eser, 1993: 23).

The neo-classical financial approach argues that when domestic savings are insufficient, foreign savings constitute an important source for domestic investments and, accordingly, economic growth. Financial liberalization policies and liberalization of international capital flow cause savings in developed countries to turn to developing countries that suffer from capital shortages. Accordingly, interest rates will rise in developing countries through financial liberalization policies, and thus funds will be transferred from developed countries with surplus savings to developing countries with savings deficits. This process will be completed when the interest rates of developing countries and international interest rates are equalized. The speed of operation of this process depends on the sensitivity of international savings rates to interest rates (Yentürk, 1997: 136).

The Kapur Model was developed by B. Kapur to complement the monetary aspect of the McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis. According to this model, financial liberalization policies accelerate economic growth by increasing the level of investment in developing countries. In the model, he emphasized the relationship between the structural problems caused by the atmosphere of financial liberalization and the nominal interest rates and money supply. The basic assumption of the Kapur model is that the instability created by financial liberalization policies in real and financial areas of economies can be eliminated in the short run with the volume of monetary expansion (Kapur, 1992). According to the Kapur model, in order to solve the stability problem, the banking sector should be opened to competition and interest ceilings should be removed within the scope of financial liberalization policies (Fry, 1988: 33).

The Galbis Model emphasizes the importance of financial intermediation in the development of underdeveloped countries but argues that both the financial deepening approach and real interest rates do not clarify the relationship between financial intermediation and real development. In his theoretical analysis, Galbis found that high real interest rates stimulate growth even if total real savings are not interest rate sensitive because this leads to an improvement in the quality of the capital stock in a well-defined sense. According to Galbis, an increase in interest rates will discourage consumption and thus increase the resources that can be invested, which will increase the capital accumulation rate and alleviate inflationary pressures (Galbis, 1977: 58).

The Mathieson Model is based on the thesis that financial reform policies will provide financial liberalization and economic stability. According to the model, while the level of savings is increased with financial reform policies, the level of investment, export volume, and growth rate increase, but the rate of increase in inflation decreases. Accordingly, it is aimed to reduce high inflation by increasing deposit and loan interest rates in developing economies where financial liberalization and economic stability policies are implemented simultaneously. In the model, decreasing the rate of monetary expansion by increasing the deposit and loan interests and realizing the expected nominal devaluation target will increase the rate of economic growth. However, with financial liberalization, while high-interest rates decrease over time, the local currency appreciates (Mathieson, 1979: 451-458).

Critical Approaches to The Theoretical Basis of Financial Liberalization Policies

The classical school assumes that financial markets operate within the framework of the “Effective Market Hypothesis” (Savaş, 2012: 81). According to the efficient market hypothesis, the prices of active values traded in the market are always and everywhere correct prices. In other words, today's market prices not only show the real values that assets will have under current economic conditions but also reflect the best estimate of the direction in which current economic conditions will change in the future (Cooper, 2008: 9). Financial liberalization theories developed within the framework of the Neo-Classical school predict that financial markets work perfectly. The theory of financial liberalization, developed by R. McKinnon and E. S. Shaw in 1973, was presented to developing countries as a program of financial reform and economic stability by international institutions (IMF and WB). However, the basic assumptions of the Neo-Classical financial approach have not been confirmed in developing countries, especially in these financial liberalization programs. Because the social, political, and economic structures and financial systems of developing countries are quite different from those of developed countries.

The Marxist approach is at the forefront of critical approaches to the theory and practice of neoliberal financial liberalization. Neoliberal financial liberalization policies deepen financial globalization. Increasing international capital flows leads to an increase in global liquidity and thus facilitates access to funds needed on a global scale. Along with the opportunities offered by the financial liberalization process, it brings with it more specialized global market players. However, when the system signals a crisis or financial failure occurs, a slowdown, a sudden stop or a reversal occurs in international capital flows, and in short, the large-volume capital flight starts. Large-volume and volatile international capital flows inflows or outflows are one of the important sources of macroeconomic and financial instability in peripheral countries. Capital controls policies, which are seen as a measure that can prevent the losses of international capital flows and manage the volume and volatility of capital flight, can not correct the basic fragility of the system, even if it gives effective results in some cases, but can reduce the intensity of economic and financial crises. Capital flow forms such as foreign direct investments or portfolio investments, which have grown in volume as a result of financial liberalization policies, can replace debt after the debt crisis in the peripheral countries. The reason for this situation is that neoliberal financial liberalization policies make peripheral economies prone to financial crises and at the same time force them to enter a deflation environment. This environment affects economic growth and development (human development) negatively. One of the most important consequences of this environment is that it causes the seizure of national economic and financial assets by foreigners at bargain prices (Chandrasekhar, 2005: 298-319). As a result, the liberalization of international capital flows in the context of neoliberal financial liberalization policies distracts developing countries from their economic goals. Thus, the transfer of value from the peripheral countries to the capitalist-imperialist countries deepens. This impoverishes the peripheral countries in favor of the capitalist-imperialist core countries (Başkaya, 2004: 161).

The origin of the Neo-Structuralist approach, which is critical of financial liberalization theories developed on the neo-Classical basis, is based on the Structuralist school that emerged in the 1950s. The structuralist approach argued that developing countries differ from developed countries with their unique characteristics and that the economic policies to be implemented should be in accordance with this distinction. Neo-Structuralists stated that instead of Neo-Classical policies based on Neoliberal ideology applied in developed countries, policies based on state intervention and protection would be more appropriate for developing countries. In this context, it should be noted that the most systematic criticism of the McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis was developed by the Neo-Structuralist approach pioneered by Van Wijnbergen (1982) and L. Taylor (1983). The neo-Structuralist approach predicts that the increase in interest rates due to financial liberalization policies leads to economic stagnation (Wijnbergen, 1982; Taylor, 1983).

The neo-Structuralist approach directs radical criticism to the practices of financial liberalization theory developed by McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973). The focus of structural criticism is the failure of planned economic policies in developing countries. Unlike the arguments in the financial liberalization theory developed by McKinnon-Shaw, the neo-Structuralist approach has five aspects. First, one of the important determinants of wages is class conflict. Second, inflation is determined by the relative power between the owners of capital and labor. Third, the source of savings is profits, not wages. Fourth, the price level is determined by fixed markings on labor costs, imports, and working capital financing. Fifth, developing countries are import-dependent on raw materials, capital equipment, and intermediate goods (Fry, 1995).

In the context of financial liberalization, the Neo-Classical and Neo-Structuralist schools fundamentally differ from each other in terms of the role assigned to the informal financial sector. The neo-Structuralist approach assumes that the diversion of funds from the informal sector to the favored sector due to increased interest rates as a result of financial liberalization policies and increased reserve requirements of banks may cause a decrease in the total loan supply to the private sector. However, the validity of this assumption largely depends on the relative size of the informal sector in the economy (Odhiambo, 2010: 324).

The neo-Structuralist approach proposes that market forms in developing countries are based on markup pricing. This requires interest costs to be added to the cost of working capital. Financial liberalization creates supply and demand side effects on the economy. With the increase in the interest rates released by financial liberalization policies, production costs increase and this increase causes an inflationary effect as it is reflected in the prices with the mark-up pricing method. On the other hand, the decrease in total demand as a result of the decrease in real wages and the increase in borrowing costs brings about a decrease in production. Considering other problems, especially the low elasticity of supply in developing countries, it can be determined that the supply-side deflationary effects of high borrowing costs outweigh the demand-side inflationary effects. This situation produces a stagflation process. Neo-structuralists argue that the increase in interest rates in the process of financial liberalization has an accelerating effect on inflation. As mentioned earlier, it is accepted that there are two types of markets in developing countries, formal and informal. Therefore, savers and investors use both the official banking system and the informal market while supplying and demanding funds. As the interest rates released as a result of financial liberalization increase, the deposits collected in the official banking sector increase, while the funds collected in the informal financial sector decrease. In other words, there is a flow of funds from the informal market to the banking system. As a result, the resources that can be converted into investments collected in both systems decrease, and the growth rate decreases (Eser, 1993: 90-91).

The Keynesian school recognizes that low-interest rates increase investment and income, thereby generating more savings. The Keynesian approach and the Neo-classical approach fundamentally differ from each other in the transmission mechanism between interest rates and economic growth. While the Keynesian approach focuses on "pre-investment", the Neo-Classical approach focuses on "previous savings". Keynes (1936) made it clear that previous savings tend not to spend more than to release available funds for investment. As a result, the Keynesian school argues that a policy with high-interest rates hinders savings by negatively affecting investment and income. The McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis, which represents the classical school, assumes that high-interest rates increase savings, investment, and income (Odhiambo, 2010: 324).

The neo-Keynesian approach, which is a micro-based approach, claims that an asymmetric information problem arises when interest rates rise as a result of financial liberalization policies. Accordingly, borrowers have full knowledge of the expected return and risk of the loan, while lenders do not. In this case, the average quality of loan applications may decrease as a result of the increase in interest rates. In this environment, the opportunity of realizing projects with low return and risk expectations decreases with high borrowing costs. Due to asymmetric information, lenders are forced to choose randomly from the negative debtor pool when they cannot distinguish between low and high-risk projects. In addition, financial liberalization can cause a spread of

interest rates on short and long-term loans. Thus, the financial system is increasingly becoming the domain of speculative activities (Grabel, 1995: 130-132).

According to the neo-Keynesian approach, the vulnerability that emerges in financial markets has different effects on two different financial systems in emerging market economies. In a capital market-based financial system, the financing of investments is largely sensitive to fluctuations in the secondary market, as firms issue securities for their own financing needs. In a credit-based financial system, firms want to increase their indebtedness levels due to the increase in investments. For this reason, a stable interest rate is of great importance in order to ensure financial stability. Monetary authorities prefer relatively stable interest rates to avoid financial instability, as the credit-based financial system is more developed in emerging market economies (Eser, 1996: 25-26).

The post-Keynesian approach, which is a macro-based economic approach, has made very rich theoretical expansions on financial-based factual structures and mechanisms that emerged especially after the 1970s. The fact that the Post-Keynesian school showed the existence of unequal power relations in the economic structure, especially through historical time, uncertainty, and income distribution with Kalecki, caused an important break for the balance-oriented analysis of Neo-Classical and IS-LM Keynesian analysis in general. The theoretical orientation that they drew on monetary/financial relations in the economy includes a number of positive potentials. Analyzing money by looking at the reason and source of existence rather than the circulation process has brought to the agenda the emphasis that money is not neutral in the economic process, it affects the economic processes, and another important fact is that the money supply is internal (Ercan, 1997: 240).

The post-Keynesian approach is based on the thesis that the expectations of economic agents positioned on the supply and demand sides of financial markets are formed internally. In this approach, the internal formation of expectations is related to the uncertainty of the present and future risks of investment projects. According to the post-Keynesian approach, rising real interest rates after the implementation of financial liberalization policies create budget deficits in the public sector and fragility in the national financial system in general. According to post-Keynesians, financial liberalization policies have negative effects on effective demand (Burkett & Dutt, 1991; Dutt, 1991; Studart, 1993; Grabel, 1995). Financial liberalization processes increase the marginal propensity to save, causing a decrease in effective demand (Yülek, 1998: 3).

From a post-Keynesian point of view, the increase in deposit interest rates in a local financial system where financial liberalization programs are implemented within the scope of developing countries can have two opposite effects on the real economic structure. According to the first effect, after the financial liberalization process, the increase in deposit and loan supply decreases interest rates and increases consumption expenditures and total production. According to the second effect, the increase in deposit interest rates along with the financial liberalization process accelerates the savings tendency and decreases the total demand. On the other hand, according to the savings paradox, an increase in savings reduces expenditures with the effect of income and decreases aggregate demand. As a result, the tendency to decrease in total demand caused by the increase in saving rates is stronger than the first effect. Accordingly, financial liberalization policies have the effect of reducing effective demand (Gibson & Tsakalotos, 1994: 606-607). Therefore, according to the first effect, financial liberalization can lead to economic

growth by increasing aggregate demand. However, according to the second effect, financial liberalization may cause economic contraction by reducing aggregate demand.

Conclusion

Financial globalization is one of the main dynamics of the multidimensional phenomenon of globalization. Financial globalization, which has deep repercussions on the economy and politics on a global scale, is the result of financial liberalization policies. In this study, alternative critical views developed against neoliberal financial liberalization policies are evaluated by going down to the theoretical origins of financial liberalization policies. The theoretical framework of financial liberalization policies produced within the framework of neoliberalism, which expresses the new form of liberal ideology, is the neoclassical McKinnon-Shaw hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, financial liberalization policies implemented in developing countries will accelerate economic growth by increasing savings and investments. However, the fact that financial liberalization policies have led to financial crises in developing countries has prepared the environment for the production of critical approaches against the financial liberalization theory. The critical approaches discussed in this study are limited to the Marxist approach, the Structuralist approach, the Neo-Keynesian approach, and the Post-Keynesian approach. According to critical approaches, financial liberalization policies implemented in developing countries will slow economic growth by reducing savings and investments and triggering inflation. As a result of the theoretical analysis, it can be argued that a new financial liberalization paradigm is needed within the framework of the concept of economic liberalization as an alternative to neoliberal financial liberalization theories and practices in world economies that financialized and financially integrated in the era of financial capitalism.

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History of Turkish Straits Problem

Ahmet Yusuf YILMAZ¹

1. The Turkish Straits in the 18th Century

Istanbul and Dardanelles Straits have strategic military importance. The Turkish Straits problem has also led to conflicts among European countries. It continued to be a problem both during the establishment of the Republic and in the following periods, and it still continues. Until the end of the 18th century, the Ottoman State had an unconditional sovereignty over the straits. At this time, Russia had begun to seize the northern shores of the Black Sea. The ambition to dominate the Black Sea and the Turkish Straits, which started with Peter the Great in Russia, became the Tsarina II. It was realized with the Treaty of Küçük Kaynarca (1774) signed during the time of Catherine. With this treaty, Russian merchant ships were granted the right of free passage through the straits. In fact, Russian warships had entered the Dardanelles Strait in 1770. In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt and then set his sights on Istanbul. At that time, the fear of Napoleon gripped all of Europe, including Russia (Karal, 1962, c.5 s. 21).

On December 23, 1798, because of Napoleon's invasion of Egypt and the threat of the straits, Russia and the Ottoman State signed a mutual assistance treaty. For the first time in the treaty, the passage of Russian warships through the Straits came to the fore. In fact, before the negotiations were over, a war fleet of Russia entered the Bosphorus and anchored in Büyükdere on August 31, 1798. According to the Ottoman-Russian Treaty of Alliance, the Straits were closed to the warships of all third states. But Russian warships were given free passage. According to this treaty, the Black Sea will be closed to all foreign warships. Violation of this rule will be considered a cause of war and warships will be sent jointly against to infringing countries (Kurat, 1970, s.43-46).

The Ottoman State signed a defense agreement with United Kingdom on January 5, 1799, parallel to the Ottoman-Russian Treaty (Erim, 1953, c. 1 s.201). With this treaty, the Ottoman State also ensured that Britain would help to remove the French from Egypt. In 1805, the treaty between the Ottoman State and Russia was renewed. However, this agreement did not last long. Because on December 2, 1805, France defeated Russia and Austria, who formed an alliance against itself, at the Battle of Austerlitz. Again, Russia is organizing the Greeks around the Islands and Peloponnese, Russia has continued to impose the idea of independence and its own expansion policy (Eren, 1964, s.63-65).

France did not withdraw his troops from the seven islands, but also took Wallachia and Moldavia. Under pressure from France, the Ottoman State canceled the 1805 Mutual Defense Agreement on 22 December 1806 and declared war on Russia. While the war was going on, a war fleet of United Kingdom, which declared that it joined the war on the side of Russia, entered the Sea of Marmara from the Dardanelles Strait on February 19, 1807 and came in front of Istanbul. Thus, for the first time in the Ottoman State, an enemy fleet came in front of the capital and threatened the city. United Kingdom withdrew on March 2, 1807, as the people made active defense preparations. Although France promised to help the Ottoman State in this war, it did not

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keep it. On the contrary, France pressured the Ottoman State for a ceasefire in the Treaty of Tilsit signed with Prussia and Russia on July 9, 1807. If the Ottoman State did not accept this treaty, France and Russia envisaged to attack and divide the Ottoman State together (Eren, 1964, s.63).

During this war, when the Russians brought their navy into the Black Sea via Strait, the Ottoman State made a treaty with United Kingdom. With the Kala-i Sultaniye (Çanakkale) Treaty signed with United Kingdom on January 5, 1809, the rule known as the "old rule of the Ottoman State", that is, the rule that prohibits the passage of all foreign warships unless there is a decree of the Sultan, was officially recognized (Tukin, 1947, s. 108-118). The Ottoman-Russian War ended with the Treaty of Bucharest on 16 May 1812 (Erim, 1953, c. 1 s.245).

In 1821, the Greek revolt first started in Romania under the leadership of Alexander Ipsilanti. When no results could be obtained in Romania, the rebellion continued in the Peloponnese. The governor of Yanya, Tepedelenli Ali Pasha, suppressed the revolt of the Greeks with harsh measures. But with palace intrigues, II. Halet Efendi, the seal of Mahmud, misled the sultan and Ali Pasha from Tepedelen was considered a rebel (Baysun, 1965, c. I, s. 343). When the governor of Egypt, Kavalalı M. Ali Pasha, said that he could suppress the rebellion in return for giving him the governorships of Mora and Crete, the sultan accepted this offer. In 1824, M. Ali Pasha went to Morea with 60 ships and 16,000 soldiers under the command of his son İbrahim Pasha and, together with the Ottoman navy, took Athens, which had been captured by the rebels, starting from Mora and suppressed the rebellion in 1825.

The European states supported the Greek rebellion together with Russia. Western writers and thinkers, such as Byron, Victor Hugo, Goethe, wrote articles against the Turks and in favor of the Greeks (Kula, 2011, c. I-II). In fact, a joint British, French, Russian (Crusader) navy burned the Ottoman navy in Navarin on 20 October 1827 with a sudden raid. Thus, the Ottomans remained without a navy and the Turkish Straits were left unprotected (Danişmend, 1972, c. IV, s.112).

Russia attacked the Ottoman lands from the Balkans and the Caucasus on April 14, 1828. Westerners supported this attack. Western States demanded the establishment of a Greek state in Morea to be accepted with a note they gave to the Ottoman State. When the Ottoman State did not accept this, the Russians came as far as Edirne in the west and Erzurum in the east. After the fall of Edirne on 20 August 1829, the Ottoman State had to ask for peace. The Edirne Treaty was signed on 14 September 1829. As a result, the existence of the Greek state was accepted. The Straits were once again opened to the free passage of Russian merchant ships. On April 24, 1830, Greece was officially established (Armaoğlu, 1973, s.107).

2. 1833 Hünkâr İskelesi Agreement

Russia got its most important rights on the Straits as a result of the rebellion of Kavalalı Mehmet Ali Pasha in Egypt in 1832 (Altundağ, 1970, c. VII). Russia helped the Ottoman State in this rebellion. 8 July 1833 Hünkâr İskelesi was signed (Erim, 1953, c. 1 s.297). According to this agreement, Russia demanded that the Dardanelles Strait be closed to foreign-flagged warships. This meant that Russia had control of the Straits.

3. 1840 London Straits Treaty

London wanted another treaty to be made for United Kingdom to replace the Hünkâr İskelesi Treaty. This opportunity again emerged with the new revolt of Mehmet Ali Pasha in Egypt. However, this time a "Trade Treaty" was made with United Kingdom in Baltalimanı on 16 August 1838 in return for helping in suppressing the uprising (Kütükoğlu, 1974, c. I s.92). Despite this, the army of Mehmet Ali Pasha under the command of his son İbrahim Pasha defeated the Ottoman Army in the Battle of Nizip (Von Moltke, 1967). Chief Admiral Ahmet Fevzi Pasha handed over the Ottoman navy to Egypt. European powers wanted the Egyptian army to return. The London Agreement was signed on 15 July 1840. Accordingly, Egyptian army would withdraw, but governorship of Egypt would pass from father to son (Kara, 1962, c. V, s. 201-202).

4. 1841 London Straits Treaty

It is the "London Straits Convention" signed on 13 July 1841 with the participation of United Kingdom, France, Russia, Austria, Prussia and the Ottoman State. With this agreement, for the first time, the Turkish Straits were regulated by a multilateral agreement. The era of bilateral agreements was over. This treaty stipulated that the straits would be closed to all warships except the Ottomans during peacetime (Tukin, 1947, s. 227).

5. The Crimean War and the Paris Peace Treaty of 1856

Russia invaded Wallachia Moldavia in 1853 on the pretext of protecting the rights of the Orthodox people. This outburst of Russia disturbed the European States, especially Britain, who did not want Russia to go down to the warm seas. From 1854 onwards, intense diplomatic negotiations were held between United Kingdom, France and Austria-Hungary. United Kingdom and France considered this a threat to itself. They sent warships from the Turkish Straits to the Black Sea. Russia, on the other hand, considered the passage of these ships through the Straits a violation of the 1841 "Straits Convention" and used it as a pretext for the Crimean War. Russia was given the "Four Notes" ultimatum prepared by Austria. The Crimean War resulted in the French occupation of Sevastopol in March 1856 and the defeat of Russia. The importance of the Crimean War for the Turkish Straits is that it was the last war in which the European Powers collectively protected the Ottoman State. In February, all parties came together in Paris and the Paris Convention of 1856 was signed (Hayri, 1988, s.17).

6. 1870 "Black Sea Conference" and 1871 "London Agreement"

Russia, which was left in a difficult situation with the Paris Peace Treaty of 1856, tried to break the alliance against itself in order to eliminate the provisions of this treaty. In 1870, Russia informed the states that Russia would not comply with the provisions of the 1856 Treaty. Between 1870, the balance of power in Europe began to change, and perhaps most importantly, Britain's policy regarding the Ottoman State changed. Bismarck wanted the Bosphorus problem to be discussed in a conference to be held in London, and thus the London Conference was convened. Since the Crimean War with United Kingdom, which did not sympathize with the Ottoman State, it gained the support of Balkan and Slavic nationalists and became stronger. Tsarist Russia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire, which took care of its own interests, blocked the Ottoman State. The trajectory of this balance of power is the Turkish Straits. Russia wanted both the demilitarization of the Black Sea and the opening of the Turkish Straits to foreign warships. However, United Kingdom and Austria were against it. The conference, which started with the participation of Russia, France, Germany, Italy and Austria, resulted in the London Straits Treaty (13 March 1871). With this treaty, the Paris Treaty of 1856; Russia's ban on keeping warships and establishing shipyards in the Black Sea has been lifted. However, the old rule of the Ottoman State regarding the passage through the Straits was confirmed. The Ottoman State was able to open the Straits to the warships of "friendly or allied" forces when necessary for its own security (Baltalı, 1973, s.5).

7. World War I and the Agreement of Sèvres

Germany, which industrialized late and could not get enough share in the colonial invasion, aimed to form a military union by making an alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy. Germany aimed to break the circle formed around himself. This was called the "Triple Alliance". Against this alliance, Russia, United Kingdom and France formed what they called the "Triple Entente". Italy then changes sides and enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente in 1915. It is inevitable that trump cards will be shared in the political environment of that period.

The Germans in the two German battleships Goben and Breslau, who escaped from the Allied navy and took refuge in the neutral country Ottoman ports, were dressed in Ottoman clothes and sent to the Black Sea. But these ships bombarded Russian ports in the Black Sea. Thus, the Ottoman State entered the First World War. During the war, the Dardanelles Strait War

experienced the bloodiest battles of the Turkish history, which have always been geostrategically important throughout history.

There are two main reasons for this war, in which nearly half a million people were lost in total, and the Ottoman State lost almost a generation:

The fact that the Ottomans closed the Straits to all ships imprisoned Russia in the Black Sea and left it in a difficult situation. Although the British were allied with Russia, they were skeptical of the possibility that the Russians would seize the Turkish Straits and never leave again. This region is so strategically important to long-term interests that Russia should not seize this region, even if it is an ally in this war. The British even worried about Russia's withdrawal from the war by making an agreement with the Germans after taking the Turkish Straits and capturing Istanbul (Renovin, 1969, c. I, s. 214).

After Ottoman State defeated in the First World War, Ottoman State had to sign the Treaty of Sèvres. The provisions of the Treaty of Sèvres regarding the Straits 37-61. It is in the articles. In summary, these items include:

1. The passage through the Dardanelles and Bosphorus Straits, including the Marmara, shall be open to all war and commercial vessels, regardless of state, in peace and war.

2. In order to ensure this freedom, the Ottoman State will leave the control of the Straits to a Straits Commission with wide powers, and the commission will have an independent flag and budget. The members of the commission are: United Kingdom, France, Italy and Japan. Russia, Türkiye, Greece and Bulgaria will also be able to join the Commission if they become members of the League of Nations.

3. The Chairman of the Commission will alternate between the four major states every two years (Türkiye cannot be the Chairman of the Commission).

4. France, United Kingdom and Italy may jointly hold troops in the demilitarized zone around the Turkish Straits (Meray & Olcay, 1977, s.5).

8. Treaty of Lausanne

Although the British had the last Ottoman sultan, Mehmet Vahiduddin, who was helpless in occupied Istanbul, sign the Agreement, the Turkish Grand National Assembly established in Ankara drew the borders of the National Pact and declared to the whole world that it did not recognize Sèvres. Afterwards, the young Republic of Türkiye, which successfully emerged from the War of Independence, succeeded in signing the Treaty of Lausanne, only 3 years after Sèvres, in place of Sèvres, which was never implemented.

Pursuant to Article 23 of the Lausanne Treaty; this Agreement; It is stipulated that it will be accepted as if it were within the Lausanne Agreement. Russia and Bulgaria, which were not parties to the Lausanne Treaty, also signed the Lausanne Straits Convention. The Straits Convention, annexed to Lausanne, can be summarized with the following articles:

1. Merchant ships and aircraft have the freedom of passage through the Turkish Straits in peacetime.

2. Warships and aircraft have freedom of passage through the Straits in peacetime; however, there is a limitation for warships in the transition to the Black Sea direction.

3. Wartime; If Türkiye is not a belligerent party, it cannot use its neutrality rights in a way that prevents passage; If Türkiye is the warring party; merchant ships of neutral states may pass if they are not bringing aid to the enemy; Türkiye can use all its rights against the ships of the state it is at war with.

4. A certain strip around the Straits has been demilitarized.

5. Compliance with the order stipulated by the Treaty will be supervised by a commission headed by a Turk.

Lausanne significantly limited Türkiye's sovereign right in and around the Turkish Straits. With the demilitarization of the Straits Region, the question of how to defend this region remained unanswered. With the 1923 "Lausanne Straits Convention", the Straits region was left to Türkiye's sovereignty. But Türkiye could not arm this region. Although it envisaged a Straits Commission under the presidency of Türkiye, the status of this commission was very different from that in Sèvres. With the contract, all warships were granted freedom of passage through the straits. Therefore, in terms of the security of the Black Sea; There was also an important problem in terms of Türkiye's security (Pazarıcı, 2003, c.2 s.348). This problem could only be solved with the Montreaux Straits Convention.

9. Montreux Straits Convention

According to Sèvres treaty, the security of Türkiye in the region was guaranteed by the League of Nations, especially United Kingdom, France, Italy and Japan. The first three states were the states that occupied Türkiye and the problems with United Kingdom were still continuing. The issue beyond security was sovereignty. Türkiye has obtained permission from other states whether or not it can keep soldiers in a part of its territory. This situation resulted in the absence of soldiers. Such a situation was unacceptable for any state that attaches importance to its National Sovereignty.

The Black Sea countries, especially the USSR, did not want the Straits to be used in a possible attack on a European country. Therefore, it has taken its side with Türkiye in imposing restrictions on passage through the Bosphorus. According to the contract, which was shaped as a result of these concerns, if Türkiye is neutral or out of war in a war, the warships of the warring parties will not be able to pass through the Straits. Again, Ottoman State has entered a war. Or, if Ottoman State feels the threat of war, Ottoman State will be able to use his discretion in the passage of warships of other states. Despite the troubles in Ankara, Türkiye waited for the period when the international conjuncture allowed a peaceful solution to regulate the Straits regime. Türkiye tried not to use force, in a sense, Türkiye played on the balance of power. In this sense, the Montreux Convention on the Straits also showed that Atatürk gave importance to peaceful methods in his foreign policy, his realistic stance, and his ability to calculate the balances in diplomacy very well.

The fact that the guarantees of the League of Nations in various fields did not work until this period, and that the members of the League of Nations, who were expected to be guarantors, violated Türkiye's reasons. The way Türkiye followed regarding its demands was to apply to the relevant states and persuade them for a new conference. Following these demands, a conference was held in Montreux on June 22, 1936 (Soysal, 1965, s.98-110). and the Montreux Straits Convention was signed on July 20, 1936. In accordance with the protocol provisions annexed to the contract, thirty thousand Turkish soldiers entered the Straits region at midnight on the same day. The Montreux Straits Convention, which is still valid today, is in practice; It is the most important document for the Turkish Straits. This contract consists of 29 articles. 22 of these 29 Articles related to military ships and military matters, only 7 articles regulate the passage of merchant ships. If we try to summarize the Montreux Convention briefly;

The Straits Commission was abolished and its powers were transferred to the Turkish Government. (United Kingdom objected to this provision during the Montreux negotiations. The greatest support for Türkiye in this regard came from Romania.) It can be said that the Montreux Straits Convention adopts the following basic principles (Duman, 2011):

1. Türkiye's Security
2. Security of the Black Sea
3. Freedom of Transition

4. Maintaining the Black Sea-Mediterranean balance

The Convention also includes restrictions on warships in the Mediterranean-Black Sea crossings (Pazarıcı, 2003, c.2 s.351).

The Convention has provided Türkiye with gains that cannot be compared with the previous regulations. First of all, Türkiye has the right to arm the region for its own security. In this way, Türkiye has become more important in the international balance of power by other powers, especially the United Kingdom and the USSR. Türkiye has been able to turn this importance into gains in her later diplomatic maneuvers. Although there is absolute freedom of passage for merchant ships, Türkiye, as the sovereign power of the region, of course has some rights regarding the safe passage through sea routes, and these rights actually give Türkiye the opportunity to regulate transits much more strongly in practice.

Current Problem of the Straits

Today, due to the rich oil resources and the intensity of transportation in the Caspian Sea region, or the so-called 2nd Persian Gulf, the Montreux Convention is being discussed again. The method used for this; It is often expressed as an extremely innocent aim, "Today, freedom of passage does not suit Türkiye, let's talk about Montreux again". Again, the duration of the Montreux Convention is limited to 20 years and is implicitly assumed to be extended after 1956. The Montreux Convention prohibits the passage of aircraft carriers through the Straits. Therefore, the continuation of this part of the Montreux Convention, which is for the benefit of the Black Sea countries and Türkiye, will be in Türkiye's interest on the one hand. Nevertheless, the strategies and games played on the Black Sea and its gate, the Turkish Straits, whose strategic importance did not decrease after the cold war, on the contrary increased even more, did not end throughout history and will continue after today.

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An Overview of Composers that Contributed to the French Horn Repertoire and Their Important Works

Burak HOŞSES

Introduction

The aim of this research is to analyze the works that are frequently played in the music departments of the State Conservatories that provide vocational music education among the works in the french horn repertoire and to give information about the composers of the works in chronological order. According to the researches, the number of composers who gave solo works to the french horn repertoire is 172. All of these composers undoubtedly contributed to the horn repertoire. However, since it is suitable for the purpose of the study, the works in the repertoire of the music departments of the conservatories were selected in this study. For this reason, the works of 23 composers are mentioned in the research. This research, which is conducted with the literature review model, which is one of the qualitative research methods, can be described as a compilation study. In addition to the compilation, general information about the works was given by analyzing the works.

1681-1767 Telemann, Georg Philipp

Name of Work: Horn Concerto, TWV 51:D8,

Known as the most prolific German composer of all time, Telemann is a contemporary of Johann Sebastian Bach and a close friend of Georg Friedrich Handel. While Bach is considered a greater composer today, Telemann was a more recognized composer during his lifetime due to his musical talents. The composer is also known for his concertos for unusual instrument combinations such as multiple violins or trumpets. He also held many important musical duties. From 1720 until his death in 1767, he was the music director of the five largest churches in Hamburg.

At the time this horn concerto was written, the valve horn, the forerunner of today's French horn, had not yet been developed and the player had to insert pipes of different lengths to play different notes and open and close his right hand in the bell to play notes that are not in the harmonic series. Considering this, although it is very difficult to play this piece with a modern horn instrument today, it requires mastery since the valve horn was not invented at the time this piece was written.

1737-1806 Haydn, Franz Joseph

Name of Work: Horn Concerto in D major

Haydn's creativity spans nearly 50 years. He is one of the three leading figures in the Viennese classical style. (Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven). Haydn's first style in music has its origins in Austrian and German baroque music.

In 1761 he got a job with the Esterházy family and spent more than 30 years of his life serving this noble family. His job here is to compose music that suits their wants and needs. He

composed about 100 symphonies, numerous concertos, chamber music works, 40 sonatas, songs and oratorios. In the last years of his life, he settled in Vienna and composed works such as the Oratorio of Creation and the Oratorio of the Seasons for choir and orchestra.

Only one signed manuscript of Haydn's horn concerto, dated 1762, has survived. Although he probably wrote this work for the principal horn in his orchestra in Esterháza, some scholars suggest that it may have been written for his friend Joseph Leutgeb. This concerto is sometimes called Haydn's Horn Concerto No. 1 because Haydn's Horn Concerto No. There is also another concerto in D major, called 2.

1746-1803 Punto, Giovanni

Name of Works: Horn Concertos

Giovanni Punto (aka Jan Václav Stich, Johann Wenzel Stich) was known as a virtuoso cor basse player who toured much of Europe as a soloist and court musician. He composed many original works to demonstrate his unique virtuosity. Punto, who is also an excellent violinist, has served as a concert conductor in various orchestras. Punto was born Jan Václav Stich in Zehušice, Bohemia, the son of a serf in the estate of Count Joseph Johann von Thun. Growing up, he was taught singing, violin and horn. Count Thun then sent him to work with composers in Prague with Joseph Matiegka, in Munich with Jan Schindelarz and in Dresden with A. J. Hampel. He learned the hand stopped technique for the horn from Hampel, which he later developed and expanded. Punto worked with Germany's Prince of Hechingen orchestra, then with the Mainz palace orchestra, and then participated in concerts in Europe and England as a soloist. Like many soloists of the period, Punto made a name for himself by composing works that showcase his talents and virtuosity. The works composed by and for him show how adept he is with fast arpeggios and gradual transitions. Punto is acclaimed as a virtuoso of the highest order and is considered the greatest horn player to date, and perhaps of all time. His works include 16 horn concertos (nos. 9, 12, 13, 15 and 16 lost), a clarinet concerto, a horn sexte, 21 horn quartets, 47 horn trios and 103 horn duos. Punto has also reviewed Hampel's horn instructor's guide and has written a book on daily exercises for the horn.

1750-1792 Rosetti, Antoni)

Name of Work: Horn Concerto in E-flat major, M.C40, M.C48, M.C 49

Rosetti ranks as a bohemian composer and a contemporary of great composers such as Mozart and Haydn. He left his hometown in 1733 and joined Prince von Öttingen-Wallerstein's Hofkapelle, where he served for sixteen years. During this assignment, he met two of the best horn virtuosos of the Wallerstein court. (Joseph Nagel and Franz Zwierzina). He composed many horn concertos.

Rosetti has written more than 400 compositions, primarily instrumental music, including many widely published symphonies and concertos. Rosetti also composed a significant number of vocal and choral works, especially in the last few years of his life.

1756-1791 Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus

Name of Work: Horn Concerto No. 4 K.495

Austrian composer Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791) has more than 600 compositions, symphonies, concertos, chamber music, piano works, works considered as the pinnacles of opera and choral music. Mozart is one of the most enduringly popular among classical composers, and many of his works have become part of the standard concert repertoire.

<https://www.eclassical.com/mozart-wolfgang-amadeus/>

The horn, which existed in the 18th century, is known as a limited instrument in pitch range. Until reliable valves were invented in 1814, brass instruments contained only notes that a player could make out with his lips, meaning that certain movements essential to other instruments or, for example, a scale, were nearly impossible. Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart was a big fan of innovation, and he also added passages that pushed the musician to his limits. Therefore, Mozart's composition of four concertos for Joseph Leutgeb, the most famous horn player of that period, is known as a sign of his respect. Of the four concertos Mozart wrote for Leutgeb, the Second and Fourth Concertos are especially known as his most important horn works. It contains more virtuosity than others with higher notes.

The Adagio part of the piece was written by the composer as a part that is harmonically rich, connected with the horn, and melodically rich and full. Written for the horn, this part, which is long-winded and not very easy to play in terms of technical continuity, is a work designed and written in such a way as to support the bass parts of the left hand of the piano, in which the upper registrars can be heard as well as the deep voices.

Then it enters the Allegro section with *attaca*. This part is seen as a fast, fluent and lively part for both the horn part and the piano part. The theme, which started with the trilogy, covers a not so easy introduction to the horn, especially from a technical point of view. Motifs consisting of these trilogies are heard until the tonal change in the episode and the new lyrical theme. The tonal change in the section is presented with a calm and serene theme like in Adagio, which is mostly announced by playing the enriched version of the piano part, the theme played by the horn before. Immediately after this short theme, the theme in Allegro is returned to, and the piece is concluded with a part that tastes like a coda even though it is not written, faster than the main tempo and very ostentatious.

This work also took its place in the history of music as the first important work and composer written on the valve system horn.

The second part is Andante; The second part has a slow tempo and is titled Romance. In general, Mozart used this term for the slower parts of his horn concertos. Written in B flat major, in 3/4 tense. The first violins supported the solo horn in this section. They play many passages with the performer. In this section, there are passages written to reveal the musical identity of the musician. The episode begins with the horn and first violins announcing the A theme. The same passage appears on the first violin, viola and oboe as the horn finishes the A theme. This passage leads to the bridge connecting theme A and B. The B theme begins with a horn solo in F major. String instruments accompany the horn with eighth notes. Although theme B is a repetitive theme, the second part has undergone some changes. Since the B theme is in Rondo form after the vocalization of the B theme, there is a return bridge for the A theme to be heard again. Immediately after the return bridge, the A theme is again announced by the horn in B-flat major. After the bridge, a brand-new theme emerges, which is the presentation of the C theme in G minor. In this theme, the performer has reached the most magnificent part of the second part and shows all his musicality. After the C theme, the A theme comes again and goes to coda and then the section ends.

Third part; The fast and lively 'Allegro Vivace' is written in tempo, 6/8 time in E flat major and in A-B-A-C-A-B-A Rondo form. Mozart also assigns the solo horn the task of playing

the unison with the other two horns of the orchestra. It contains more technical difficulties than other sections with its high-pitched sounds and fast passages, which are quite difficult.

The section begins with a solo horn and strings accompanies it with quarter notes. Theme A consists of two similar steps. After the horn leaves the theme, the first and second violins and viola play the same theme again. After the repetition of the A theme of the violins, the B theme comes immediately. The B theme begins with a horn in E flat major. After the B contact, we encounter episodes with syncope and arpeggio. A new theme follows theme A. The C theme begins with a horn in C minor. The theme A comes back in an E flat major tone. Towards the end of the chapter, changes have occurred on the themes. The first step of the B theme, following the A theme, is in E flat major and the second step is in E flat minor.

This time, not only the horns and violins, but also all orchestra performers play the theme A at the same time, and at the end, the whole orchestra plays together and the section is concluded.

1760-1842 Cherubini, Luigi

Name of Works: 2 Sonatas

Luigi Cherubini was an Italian Classical and Romantic composer. His most important compositions stand out as operas and sacred music. Beethoven considers Cherubini the greatest of his contemporaries. His operas have been widely praised and interpreted by Rossini. His first major success was *Lodoïska* (1791), who was admired for his realistic heroism. This was followed by *Elisa* (1794), set in the Swiss Alps, and *Médée* (1797), Cherubini's best-known work'.

These Sonatas are also called Concert Studies, implying that they are technical works that are interesting enough from a musical point of view to form part of the performance repertoire.

The 2nd Sonata for horn by Luigi Cherubini was first published in 1804 and consisted of two parts: a slow introduction, *Largo*, and a flamboyant technical fast part, *Allegro Moderato*. There are two cadences showing the technical side of the instrument in the piece.

1763-1826 Danzi, Franz

Name of Works: Sonata for Horn and Piano, Op.28, Sonata for Horn and Piano, Op.44

Franz Danzi (1763-1826) was born and raised near Mannheim. Danzi studied cello with his father and composing with Abt Vogler before joining the Elector's famous Mannheim orchestra in 1778. His career covers the transition from late Classical styles to early Romantic styles. Danzi got to know Mozart and mentored Carl Maria von Weber. In 1783, Danzi succeeded his father as one of the conductors of the Elector's orchestra. He eventually rose to the position of Kapellmeister at the palaces in Munich and later Stuttgart. He is a prolific composer who has written works of almost all genres. Danzi's chamber music includes six, quintet, quartet and trio work, some for string instruments, some for wind instruments, and some for a combination of the two. These works are often in a style that reflects his own early experiences in Mannheim.

Although there are many concertos for horn and orchestra, there is only one example of a sonata for horn and piano before Danzi tried to compose his first composition in 1804. Most of the composers, apart from Beethoven, did not adopt to write such works because they found it very difficult to conduct two instruments together. It is known that Beethoven's 1801 Horn Sonata was both the inspiration and model of Danzi. When it was published and premiered in 1805, it was highly praised for its technique and compelling melodies. The first section begins with an *Adagio* introduction that leads to the main section, the Mozartean *Allegro*. The middle part is a fascinating and lyrical *Larghetto*. The beautiful and very effective finale once again brings Mozart to mind.

1770-1827 Beethoven, Ludwig van

Name of Work: Horn Sonata, Op.17

Ludwig van Beethoven is a German composer and pianist. Beethoven is one of the most inspiring composers in the history of Western music. His works, which are among the most performed in the classical music repertoire, cover the transition from the classical period to the Romantic period in classical music.

No composer has had such a deep and lasting influence on the next generations as Beethoven, and his influence has survived to the present day. His instrumental music, especially his symphonies, served as the cornerstone for symphonic composition throughout the nineteenth century. The extraordinarily high standard of his music and his relative independence as an independent composer have led to him being described as the greatest composer of all time.

Beethoven composed his Sonata for Piano and Horn on April 18, 1800 for a concert given by the most famous horn player of the time, Giovanni Punto (Johann Wenzel Stich), at the Hofburg Theater in Vienna. The solo section is designed to give Punto an opportunity to showcase his special talent. As a result, Punto was one of the few professional virtuosos at that time who could perform it on the natural horn. The first edition, and the only surviving source, was published by March 1801.

Ludwig van Beethoven bir Alman besteci ve piyanisttir. Beethoven, Batı müziği tarihinin en ilham veren bestecilerinden biridir. Klasik müzik repertuarının en çok icra edilenleri arasında yer alan eserleri, klasik müzikte klasik dönemden Romantik döneme geçişi kapsamaktadır.

1786-1826 Weber, Carl Maria von

Name of Work: Horn Concertino in E minor, Op.45

One of the most important German opera composers before Wagner, a proponent of German opera with his own production and writing. Its reputation is based on "Der Freischütz", which is definitely considered a German nationalist opera. His instrumental works (orchestral pieces, solo concertos, chamber music, piano works) are largely based on Classical models.

Concerto in E minor for Horn and Orchestra, J188 (Op. 45), composed in 1806 for the Karlsruhe artist Dautrevaux and revised by Carl Maria von Weber for the Munich virtuoso Rauch. It is very difficult to play on the natural horn or modern valve horn. The soloist is accompanied by a small orchestra. Among other achievements, the player must actually produce a four-note chord using the interaction between hum and the sound from the instrument, a technique known as multiphonic.

1801-1866 Kalliwoda, Johann Wenzel

Name of Work: Introduction et rondeau, Op.51

Kalliwoda was born in Prague in 1801 and began studying violin and composition at the Prague Conservatory as early as 1811. He made his debut as a violinist at the age of 14. After completing his education, he became a member of the Prague Opera Orchestra. In his diploma from the conservatory, he was shown as "an excellent performer in solo or orchestra, a great talent in composition"

Kalliwoda stands out as a prolific composer. His published works reach 243 work numbers and he has about 50 more works without a work number. He left at least this amount of musical piece in manuscript form. His music was widely played throughout his life. A choral piece called Das Deutsche Lied remained firmly entrenched in the repertoire in Germany until the 1930s.

Introduction et Rondeau, written by the composer as a horn piece, is technically advanced. At the entrance of the piece, the orchestra stops after the first chord and the performer continues his solo here. His work includes lyrical solos and arpeggios. There are both breath-taking passages and bass and treble sounds of the performer.

1810-1856 Schumann, Robert

Name of Works: Adagio and Allegro, Op.70

Robert Schumann is known as a German composer, pianist and influential music critic. He is considered one of the greatest composers of the Romantic era.

1849 is considered to be Schumann's most productive year in terms of the number of compositions, but it is also seen as an extremely rich year in terms of the variety of works, including choral pieces, songs, piano pieces, works for soloist(s) and orchestra, and various chamber works. He also continued to be productive for solo instrument and piano. The composer is famous for rearranging a piece he wrote especially for members of the wind instrument family so that it can be played by another member of the wind instrument family. Or, he has arranged his chamber music works, as well as alternative versions for any solo instrument, again for piano and solo. Like Op.73 'Three Pieces' Clarinet, Op. 70 'Adagio und Allegro' was also composed in 1849 and various instrument versions such as Op.73 were made. Op.70 was written with accompaniment for violin, cello, oboe-piano, but is now arranged to be played in orchestral version by Ernest Anseret. But the original of the piece was written for horn and piano. The composer's fondness for horn sonority can also be seen from the 'Concert Pieces' he wrote for four horns and orchestra, and how he uses the horn in the piece.

In some of these works he used relatively new valve horns, which began to appear in orchestras in the 1830s. It is known that one of Schumann's goals at the time was to create important music that amateurs could use to further their skills in their instruments with what is called Hausmusik. Adagio & Allegro for horn and piano, Op. 70 is one such work, but actually providing the technical requirements of the piece requires a highly skilled professional player. Adagio is based on a melody that takes advantage of the valve horn's ability to play delicate chromatic notes. The Rondo-shaped Allegro consists of a bright, powerful main section that uses the full spectrum of the horn in its swift and fiery figures, alternating with more poetic sections that share melodic and rhythmic motifs with the Adagio.

The Adagio part of the piece was written by the composer as a part that is harmonically rich, connected with the horn, and melodically rich and full. Written for the horn, this part, which is long-winded and not very easy to play in terms of technical continuity, is a work designed and written in such a way as to support the bass parts of the left hand of the piano, in which the upper registrars can be heard as well as the deep voices.

Then it enters the Allegro section with *attaca*. This part is seen as a fast, fluent and lively part for both the horn part and the piano part. The theme, which started with a triplet, covers a not so easy introduction to the horn, especially from a technical point of view. Motifs consisting of these trilogies are heard until the tonal change in the episode and the new lyrical theme. The tonal change in the section is presented with a calm and serene theme like in Adagio, which is mostly announced by playing the enriched version of the piano part, the theme played by the horn before. Immediately after this short theme, the theme in Allegro is returned to, and the piece is concluded with a part that tastes like a coda even though it is not written, faster than the main tempo and very ostentatious. This work also took its place in the history of music as the first important work and composer written on the valve system horn.

1822-1905 Strauss, Franz

Name of Work: Nocturno, Op.7

Born in Parkenstein, Bavaria, after studying music with his uncles Johann Georg Walter and Franz Michael Walter, where he learned to play the clarinet, guitar and all woodwind instruments, he was accepted for a job in Bavaria as a guitarist in the service of Duke Maximilian at the age of 15. He continued his studies on the horn and continued his education with his main instrument being the horn. He joined the Bavarian palace orchestra in 1847 and remained in this position until his retirement in 1889. Franz Strauss was also professor at the Munich Academy of Music from 1871 to 1896 and amateur conductor from 1875 to 1896.

Nocturno, Op. 7 for horn and piano, published in 1904. This lyric piece in A-B-A form is in easy medium difficulty. Its wide dynamic range, elegant notes and spins require some elaborate practice. The rhythmic elements of the work are quite simple, but careful attention should be paid to the difference between eighth notes, trebles, and sixteenth notes. Overall, it has taken its place in the repertoire as a beautiful, lyrical piece that has become a standard in the horn repertoire. The composer shows us his ideal musical ideas very clearly, especially in this work. Literally, the work consists of elegant piano accompaniment, breathtaking and singable melodies, a three-part form with clearly written three parts, and satisfying cadences.

The piece begins with the piano's introduction in D flat major, and then the horn is included in the piano with a lyrical, connected and expressive motif. The horn part plays two long sentences with the slow tempo sixteenth notes of the piano, but the second one sounds a little different. After the horn's theme, the piano plays a lyrical, connected melody, and the rise of a melodic motif at the end to the forte prepares the horn for the lively and accented theme it will play next. In this part, the soloist plays very flamboyant motifs with a wide range of regist and nuance use. Then, with the piano playing the theme again, the melodic and long-winded sentence is returned to the beginning. In the last part, a small Coda is heard, which leads to the end of the work. The bass notes written on the horn in the last 5 bars accompanies the piano part and the piece ends by accompanying the chord written in the left key of the piano, like the bass note to be played in the left hand, with the D flat sound, the last finishing sound of the horn descending one octave lower.

1835-1921 Saint-Saëns, Camille

Name of Works: Morceau de concert, Op.94, Romance, Op.36, Op.67

Morceau de concert op. 94 was composed by Camille Saint-Saëns (1835 - 1921) in successive horn and piano or horn and orchestra versions in 1887. The manuscript piano section is dated October 1887, while the completion date of the orchestral version is 2 November 1887. The piece was originally played as a fantasy section.

Camille Saint-Saëns composed the two Romances for two of the most respected French horn players of the time. Opus 67 in E major from 1866 is dedicated to Henri Chaussier. Opus 36 in F major, dated 1874, was written for Henri Garigue. They are short "wordless songs" that fully enjoy the typical romantic sound of the horn, as the romantic term suggests. Besides the orchestral version, Saint-Saëns has prepared a piano accompaniment for chamber music performances. Romances are also suitable for advanced learners as they are not overly technically demanding.

When we look at the piano version of the piece, it is seen that it has a cruder and sketchier writing. The orchestral version, on the other hand, shows a subtler, thoughtful writing style. But the generally played version of the piece is the piano and horn version written by the composer.

One of the important features of the work is that it was first written for the 'Omnitonic Horn', that is, a multi-tone natural horn. Henri Chaussier invented the omnitonic horn, and Saint-Saëns wrote and dedicated this piece for his playing.

The work was written in the form of theme and variation. It starts with the 5th degree of the piano's F minor tone and continues with the introduction of the horn's sharp and powerful contact, which gives the feeling of anthem, where it turns to the 1st degree. The same theme is performed twice by the horn with piano accompaniment. The second theme, which can be called the B theme, is heard to be a music with softer and connected motifs. But there is not a very long B theme, and right after that, theme A, the main theme, is performed again in a slightly different form. As in the beginning, the repetition of the theme A is played for the second time, this time only with the piano. Because a small break is needed for the musician to listen to the A theme at the place where it is played. The first variation is performed in triplets, then twice in sixteenth notes. Especially the hexadecimal variant stands out as a technically difficult but flamboyant variation. In the continuation, theme B is repeated with variations. This time, the B theme is not as short as the first, but longer and more melodic.

The cantabile part goes to the end with the performing of the motifs of the main theme in the form of variation, again in F major tone, and the work is finished in F major with a flamboyant way. The general musical writing of Saint-Saëns can be heard very clearly in the work. There is a structure created by combining lyrical, musical short themes.

841-1894 Emmanuel Chabrier

Name of Work: Larghetto

Emmanuel Chabrier lived between 1841-1894 and inspired many important composers who came after him, among them composers such as Debussy, Ravel, Richard Strauss, Erik Satie, Igor Stravinski can be given as examples. The French Romantic period composer is well known for his two orchestral works, 'España' and 'Joyeuse marche', but also composed operas, piano music and songs.

Discovered after the composer's death, 'Larghetto' is a work written for the horn but invested with the mood of an operatic aria by the composer. The piece reminds the listener of a mournful lament sung by an alto or tenor. In fact, it was a matter of curiosity whether the composer had a special theme in mind while writing this piece. The piece is a piece that can be played with both piano and orchestra accompaniments. Especially when the piece is listened to with the orchestral version, the richness used in harmonic terms can be clearly heard. It is necessary to mention the long-term, expressive themes that are difficult for the horn. The transition from the sad passage in the last section to a happier passage is shown.

The repetition of the main theme in the piece, first by the cello and then by the clarinet, can be shown as a good support for the horn's dialogue with the orchestra. Most likely, this work can be considered as the last work of the composer and perhaps a farewell to his own life.

1864-1949 Strauss, Richard

Name of Work: Horn Concerto No.1

Richard Strauss, literally Richard Georg Strauss (11 June 1864, Munich, Germany - 8 September 1949, Garmisch-Partenkirchen) was an outstanding German Romantic composer of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. His symphonic poems in the 1890s and the operas he wrote in

the next decade remained an essential feature of the standard repertoire. E flat Major No. 1 Horn Concerto is the first concerto written by German composer Richard Strauss for orchestra and horn.

Between 1882 and 1883, Strauss composed his first horn concerto in E flat major so that it can be played in two versions. With the horn part being the same in both versions, the piece was arranged as one with piano accompaniment and one with orchestra accompaniment. The work is 19th century. It has become the most frequently played concerto. The first performance of the piece was performed in Munich in 1883 with the piano version. In 1885, the orchestral version was performed in Meiningen.

Since his father, Franz Strauss, was a horn player, the horn sound was not a foreign sound to Strauss. In this way, the composer had a very strong potential to write both solo and orchestral works. The composer wrote two etudes for the horn in 1873, just before he wrote a major work for the horn. (TrV 15). In this way, there was an important reason for him to write a concerto for the horn.

The version with orchestral accompaniment, written as 'Waldhornkonzert', is intended to be played with a natural horn. Although the composer's father wanted the concerto to be played with the horn in F, as the name suggests, it is an important detail that it was written for the natural horn like the original.

While it is technically possible to play the E flat major concerto on the natural horn, in practice it has been impossible to provide a convincing performance. Strauss' sister Johanna told British horn player Dennis Brain; He stated that although his father used the B-flat pipe while playing the solo party, he had obvious problems and that it was a dangerous but courageous move in terms of playing the thin B-flat sound during the concert.

When we look at the modern period CD records, the piece is played with the horn in F/B flat, which was developed in the 19th century. But there is also a version of the concerto written for the natural horn.

Looking at the general structure of the concerto

It consists of three parts. The first part is Allegro, the second part is Andante and the last part is 3rd part Allegro. The concerto reflects typical Strauss features, namely a Romantic style. Instrument use of the orchestral version of the piece;

He has a staff consisting of 2 Flutes, 2 Oboes, 2 Clarinets, 2 Bassoons, 2 Horns, 2 Trumpets, Timpani and string instruments.

The first part is Allegro; Although the episode starts with a forte, piano nuances are also seen in it. The second theme includes difficult passages depending on the long-winded ability of the performer. Written in piano nuance, connected themes are written within 2 octaves. These long lines are supported by crescendo and appear to progress towards the A flat major tone. The completely homogeneous rhythm up to this part suddenly changes and the work progresses towards the beginning of the development part. It then transitions to G major, then B flat major, and then E flat major. Again, the main theme is announced in the main tone and the episode ends in a flamboyant way.

Second part; Written in Andante tempo, in 3/8 meter, it is included in the first part of the work as a section that begins with the piano or orchestra's party continuing without interruption after the horn part is over. Although the section is written in 3/8, it gives a feeling of 3/4 to the

player and listener due to the tempo. It continues with the addition of the horn after the piano's two-bar introduction. The horn party is a section that has very long motifs and is fully equipped with very melodic lines.

The composer modulated the original E flat major tone to A flat minor. In the following accompaniment, the composer uses a triple chord to switch from minor to major. Thus, the transition from A flat minor to B major is provided. The pianissimo nuance, which generally continues in the episode, goes towards the fortissimo, which helps to turn the sad theme in the minor tone into a very joyful theme. Again, after the long-term themes are announced, the composer returns to the main theme tone of the section, namely A flat minor. A short repetition of the main theme is made and the composer does something unexpected, when the last 4 bars of the section are reached, he switches from B major with its anharmonic form and indicates that the concerto has reached the main tone.

Third part; Again, there is no waiting in the transition from the first section to the second section, and there is no waiting in the transition to the last section. The section consists of the composer's use of the main theme used in the first section as the main theme of this section in 6/8. The time unit and the description of the style of the section used by the composer at the beginning of this section can be understood a little more by looking at the last section of the Mozart Concerto. The entrance to the third part of the horn alone must be presented as a very cool and balanced 3-beat time unit, which is 6/8. After a short introduction to the horn, the piano plays the main theme again. The second theme is played as a long legato theme, but the composer presents this theme in a completely different tone. The third and eighth notes in the accompaniment part slow down the solo part a bit with dotted half and dotted quarter notes in a rhythmic beat. Since the rhythm of the section is Allegro, sentences consisting of 4 bars have been increased to 8 bars and 12 bars. In this section, due to the long-winded sentences of the player, a good breath control is needed. It returns to the second theme, but is presented in E flat major. The use of a tone in this way helps the work to return to the main theme. Strauss makes a sudden transition and presents the very joyous theme with a simple timed rhythm within two octaves.

Before transitioning to the coda part, it is seen that the piano comes with a slow tempo and prepares for the horn party. Because this part of the work, namely the coda, takes place at a really fast pace. The composer goes towards the end of the piece, using all the techniques that can be difficult on the horn, in small passages, and ends the work in a fortissimo way, with the use of arpeggio in a very ostentatious way.

1865-1935 Paul Abraham Dukas

Name of Work: Villanelle

The French composer, who lived between 1865 and 1935, continued his life as a composer and music critic after graduating from the Paris conservatory. His appointment to the composition and orchestration professorship of the Paris Conservatory in 1928 caused him to train and guide many composers like himself. Modernist composers such as Olivier Messiaen, Joaquín Rodrigo, Maurice Duruflé, Carlos Chávez, Georges Hugon can be cited as the most important of these composers. The composer destroyed all the works he had prepared for the public, as he had an extremely critical nature even to himself. For this reason, very few of his works remain today. One of his works, 'Villanelle', is a test piece that he wrote at the request of the horn class while he was at the Paris Conservatory in 1906. His work, 16th century. He thought in a cheerful, traditional vocal genre of Italian origin, and when the piece is listened to, it is seen that he is not in a dry etude

mood. In addition to some technical difficulties in the piece, notes played with *sourdine*, fast scales, passages that can be played using the natural horn technique without a valve system, this technique is applied on the modern horn and has made it one of the most popular performance pieces for the horn. The piece begins with the entrance of the piano and after two bars the horn enters. The horn entrance is accented and it is seen that the same theme is announced again in the form of echo. The piece is written with a strong expression and a structure in which seventh chords are frequently used harmonically. After long, connected, expressive and repetitive sentences, the piano quickly enters the second part. The second part imitates the original melody but is faster in rhythm. In the second part, on the tremolo part of the piano, the melodic motif is played by the horn with wide triplets. The continuation continues with the motif in the second fast part being played one after the other in various tones and in the form of bickering with the piano. The final passage of the piece consists of a difficult part for the horn, which becomes more difficult with the tempo. As a nuance, the double forte continues until the end and the work is finished in a flamboyant way.

1865-1936 Glazunov, Alexander

Name of Work: *Rêverie*, Op.24

Alexander Konstantinovich Glazunov is known as a Russian composer, music teacher and conductor of the late Russian Romantic period. He was director of the Saint Petersburg Conservatory from 1905 to 1928 and was instrumental in reorganizing the Petrograd Conservatory into the Leningrad Conservatory following the Bolshevik Revolution. Although he left the Soviet Union in 1928 and did not return, he continued as the head of the Conservatory until 1930.

As a composer, Alexander Glazunov excelled in chamber music forms as well as in the late romantic symphony. Their shorter solo pieces are impressive for their captivating melodies and attention to detail. Although Glazunov himself is known as a good horn player, it is known that he took part in several orchestras as a young student. It was at this time that Glazunov composed this highly romantic piece, in which the melodic qualities of this instrument are best displayed. It is an influential recital piece even for advanced learners, and is published for the first time as an Urtext edition.

1875-1956 Glière, Reinhold

Name of Work: *Horn Concerto*, Op.91

Glière was born a Russian in Kiev to a family of musicians and wind instrument manufacturers. He went to Moscow Conservatory where he studied violin, composition and music theory from important composers such as Sergey Taneyev, Anton Arensky and Mikhail Ippolitov Ivanov and graduated in 1900. From 1905 to 1907 he studied conducting in Berlin. Glière taught at the Kyiv Conservatory and was appointed principal in 1914. He returned to Moscow in 1920 and taught at the conservatory there.

Glière's *Horn Concerto* is an exuberant and brilliant piece of music. Major tones and bright orchestral nuances dominate. The composer took on the task of demonstrating that the horn, one of the ancient instruments and predominantly used in the orchestra, is perfectly suited to function as a solo instrument.

The concerto consists of three parts. *Andante* is *Andante Moderato* and *Allegro vivace*. The first one turns into an anthem at the end of the episode with determined, brave, march-like rhythmic figures. Overall, the second part reflects the melodicness of a romance for horn and orchestra. Its main subject is similar to the Russian lyric song. In the finale, as with his two previous instrumental concertos, Glière evokes a painting of a popular festival. Hoarse sounds reminiscent of the dancers' footsteps are heard at the entrance, and clarinets and bassoons echo. The melody

entrusted to the solo horn also has a dance character. Gradually the rhythm of the dance accelerates, the emotional tension builds up, and the festive, cheerful music flows like a broad wave. The concert ends with a bright, cheerful coda.

1895-1963 Hindemith, Paul

Name of Work: Horn Concerto

Hindemith was born in Hanau, near Frankfurt, the eldest child of Robert Hindemith, a painter and decorator from Lower Silesia, and his wife, Marie Hindemith, née Warnecke. He was taught the violin as a child. He studied violin with Adolf Rebner, conducting and composition with Arnold Mendelssohn and Bernhard Sekles. in Frankfurt. He entered the Hoch's Conservatory. He previously made a living by playing in dance ensembles and musical comedy groups. He became vice-president of the Frankfurt Opera Orchestra in 1914 and was promoted to concert conductor in 1916. He was second violinist in the Rebner String Quartet from 1914. Until the Second World War began, he took part in various orchestras and continued to write his compositions.

The Nazis' relationship to Hindemith's music is known to be complex. Hindemith was at odds with the National Socialists from 1933, and the Nazi regime denounced him as a "Corrupt Artist". He moved to Switzerland in 1938 and then settled in the USA in 1940. The horn concerto was written in 1949 and premiered at Yale University under the leading of vocalist Dennis Brain and Hindemith. The first two chapters are short and fast. However, the third part is the darkest and very slow. This work by Hindemith for the horn can be shown as the work that best expresses the Neo Baroque style and maturity period of the composer. The composer used a rich contrapuntal writing, especially in the first part of the work. Although it is a lively and rhythmically repulsive expression, its harmonic palette is seen as tonal. The main work belongs to the horn player, and requires a virtuosity style. Likewise, the difficulty of the piano party is seriously striking. It is possible to talk about an exuberant, joyful broader form rather than a compact sonata, that is, a dramatic temperament.

The second part is heard as a more expressive part. The section contains a fluent, expressive style consisting of three large parts, and the trilogy played in the swing of the piano accompanies the horn part.

The final section is an ingeniously constructed mix of Rondo and sonata with repulsive rhythmic motifs. Hindemith's works combine in a sonorous course and a clever, witty, playful form. Hindemith wrote a short poem and included it in this final chapter. The horn player is instructed to play the meter and pitches of the poem as "a recital without words" throughout this passage.

1897-1967 Neuling, Hermann

Name of Work: Bagatelle

Hermann Neuling (1897 – 1967) was a bass player for the Staatsoper Unter den Linden in Berlin. He later joined the Berlin State Opera orchestra and taught at the Izmir State Conservatory. He was also a member of the Bayreuth Wagner Festival orchestra between 1931 and 1964. Despite being an active performer, he gained recognition as an obscure composer in the early twentieth century, with little influence outside the world of horn. He wrote four work and study books, a cadenza for Mozart Concerto K.447, and a Horn Concerto that did not survive the bombing of Berlin in World War II.

The difference with the Bagatelle is that the horn uses an extremely low pitch, bringing that pitch into the common nomenclature expected by today's modern horn players. The horn develops athletically from start to finish with dazzling passages, while the piano part appears mournful and sad, mimicking early silent soundtracks and then abruptly changing an identity to

match the horn. This piece is known as a piece which is exciting, unexpected and keeping the listener always alert.

1899-1963 Poulenc, Francis

Name of Work: *Élégie*, FP 168

Francis Jean Marcel Poulenc (January 7, 1899 - January 30, 1963) was a French composer and pianist. His compositions include songs, solo piano works, chamber music, choral pieces, operas, ballets and orchestral concert music. Among the best known are the piano suite *Trois mouvements perpétuels* (1919), the ballet *Les biches* (1923), the *Concert champêtre* for harpsichord and orchestra (1928), the *Organ Concerto* (1938), the opera *Dialogues des Carmélites* (1957).

Elegie typically lasts between nine and ten minutes in performance. This piece was composed by Poulenc for the English horn player Dennis Brain in 1957, shortly after his death. Dennis Brain was a close friend of the composer and many of his family members were also known as horn players. In post-war England, especially these family members made great efforts to popularize and promote this instrument professionally. Poulenc, Hindemith and Britten also composed many works for this horn player. When we look at the music that Poulenc has written especially for the wind instrument family, the late period music gives a very solid and serious feeling compared to the later works. The works that Poulenc wrote using simple folk melodies stand out as an indication of his natural talent. While he influenced Bartok very much in this respect, his individual writing style also deeply influenced Stravinsky and Eric Satie. During these times when he met Schoenberg, he liked the composer's 12-tone music writing style like many other composers, and he used some features of this writing style compared to the composers who used the features of 12-tone music in their works at that time.

The piece, which consists of small sections, starts with a very slow tempo, with an initial theme of 2/4, consisting of 12 voices and written in accordance with the 12-tone writing. Immediately after, a theme begins with a slightly restless but hasty lively attitude, accentuated in two forte nuances of 4/4. In the sequel, another 3/4 theme is announced, which is quite slow as in the beginning. The wide array of often peculiar phrasing mentioned in the solo horn section is written as in the initial tonal line, without any suggestions or definitions. Later, after a momentary reminder of the theme in *Agitato*, he unexpectedly begins to raise the music and carry it to the climax by smoothing out the harmonic irregularities. The last entry of the horn is unrelated to the 12-tone scale, but the basic harmonic note sequence in the following C major is again tuned to the 12-tone scale.

1925-2002 Bertold Hummel

Name of Work: *Sonatine für Horn und Piano*

Bertold Hummel is a German composer born in Baden in 1925. Between 1941 and 1954 he studied at the Freiburg Academy of Music, studying composition with Harald Genzmer and cello with Atis Teichmanis. While conducting the Freiburg choir between 1956 and 1963, he began to teach at the Würzburg state conservatory. After assuming the honorary presidency of the conservatory, where he taught in the course of his career, he performed many studies and gave concerts in Europe, Canada, and America all over the world, both as an instrumentalist and as a conductor. He died in Würzburg in 2002. The works he wrote for the copper wind instrument family are recorded on CD by many famous musicians today. The variety of works has made a great contribution especially to the 'modern period classical music'. The German composer also wrote short rites on form methods that determined how to perform theatrical, film and public

religious services and rites. The composer has written music for Paraphrase for four horns, a suite, a sonatina, horn and orchestra.

Hummel's Op.75a piece for Horn and Piano in 1981 was commissioned to be written by an avid horn player as a piece that could create the feel of a musical and intriguing concert piece. When we look at the work, we see a structure that technically supports musical creativity and offers enough opportunities to present it.

Part 1 of the work; It bears the name 'Maestoso', meaning glorious, and it is possible to hear the idea while playing. A Neo-Classical approach is used to the thematic development in the first chapter. In other words, in the 20th century, the composer used tonal and atonal melodicism by combining tonal and atonal melodicism in the form understanding of the Baroque period, more clearly and distinctly, against the atonal and extreme music before him. Two motifs are seen in the initial theme between the horn and the piano, and it constantly announces itself with the development of these two motifs in the first part. The full quartet interval heard in the piece can be defined as the harmonic structure that provides the most important binding and continuity element in the formation of the section.

Part 2 of the work; With the general definition of 'Ballade', this section, which really expresses the poem's adaptation to music, got rid of the directing of the strict and obvious motif in the first section and formed a unity with the piano again. In Piu Mosso, the theme finds the opportunity to make a canon that is partly hectic, like the semi-improvisation that can be done on a natural hunting horn. Finally, the opening theme concludes with an idyllic spin.

Part 3 of the work; Finale 'Presto', as the name suggests, is a chapter written in a fast and active tempo. It is called a Rondo with mixed measures, that is, a cheerful turbulence in which serious and funny content are used together. While the first theme creates a more rushed atmosphere than usual, the second theme provides a cuter but quality contrast, which helps to add a playful and cheerful air to the player. When it comes to coda the main theme of the first chapter is presented and the work is finished with a flamboyant style.

1920-2013 Bernhard Krol

Name of Work: Laudatio

German composer and horn player who lived between 1920 and 2013, worked in the Berlin Philharmonic and Stuttgart Radio Symphony orchestras between 1945-1967. He was a student of Schoenberg and Josef Rufer in Vienna. Although he studied with a student of one of the 20th century composers, he preferred to write music in the tonal system, like Krol, Reger, and Hindemith.

To define the composer's musical character a little, samples such as a fresh and lively musical structure, distinctive and characterized rhythms are shown.

Although there are solo, accompaniment and chamber music works written by the composer for many instruments, there are many solo, piano accompaniment, orchestra accompaniment and chamber music works that he wrote for the brass instrument family as he is also a horn player.

Bernhard Krol wrote this solo piece "Laudatio" for the famous horn player Hermann Baumann. The Latin meaning of the title of the work, 'Laudation', can be described as praise, but

also as a Christian Anthem (a simple religious hymn). The opening line of the text of the church liturgy is included in the work. In this case, the work represents a sacred theme.

A question theme is presented at the beginning of the work. In the sequel, there is a theme of supplication. After this theme, which was announced twice, comes the question theme at the beginning again and is repeated in split form. The following authentic cadence overflows the response part that will be heard for the last time.

For many horn students, the piece is depicted as a complete competition and concert piece for professional players to play and practice without accompaniment.

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The Experience of The Ethical for David Wood

Cihan CAMCI

Introduction

David Wood thinks, the concepts we use for ethical judgments, like justice, rights, duty, virtue, good, responsibility and obligation, are also dangerous because of their threat to render responsibility, sense of justice and good calculable. In so far as the calculation of the ethical has been done by means of these concepts, the openness to the incalculable is gone.

Heidegger was a turning point by his revision of ethics as ethos, as dwelling. In *Letter on Humanism*, Heidegger refers to Heraclites' location of Gods in his heart. That is an example of "the preservation of the unfamiliar in the familiar..."¹ The subject, throughout the tradition of philosophy of subject, has been the central of understanding and calculation of the external world. Thus, Heidegger's displacement of the pivotal location of subject-hood in *Poetry, Language and Thought* can be seen as a transformation of human beings' dwelling in relation to language. Heidegger says, it is the language that speaks. Man's speaking is his response to language. What is crucial here according to Heidegger, rather than establishing a new theory of language, is to learn to live in the speaking of language. Heidegger says, to do so, we need to examine constantly if we are capable or not responding to the language. If we are, then to what extent are we able to examine? According to Wood, Heidegger considers authenticity in terms of an openness (or responsiveness) of the subject to an otherness (language). So, the activity of subject is not a dominating activity as the subject of calculation, but rather a subject of responsiveness. The significance of language is its supply, giving the ways of thinking, seeing and being. Wood says, it is important to note that we do not individually invent but create from these ways of thinking, seeing and being. We create from what we must pursue further: the speaking of language. David Wood summarizes the responsiveness of the subject to the speaking of language, which provides the ways of being. "To live in the speaking of language suggests maintaining the tension between given form and appropriating response."² He says it is important that Heidegger says we examine constantly how far we reach the standard of the challenge of the relation to the speaking of language. What we can understand from the tension mentioned above is Kierkegaard's conception of subject, which is "constantly involved in relating itself to itself."³ In order to understand this relationship of the subject to itself we have to recognize a constitutive role of a term=*power*. The role of such a power is key to understand, according to Kierkegaard, in *Sickness Unto Death*, the despair, the hopelessness in which we do not give up but carry on. The experience that we undergo is possible by means of certain transcendental conditions. These transcendental conditions for the possibility of experience in this sense, the despair in which we carry on, can be understood as a role of deep structure of relatedness. For Heidegger, the despair is not at work but there is the tension (as another breakdown) of being unable to find the right word, says Wood. Wittgenstein, in similar to Heidegger, is to be taken into consideration in this respect.

Wittgenstein

¹ Wood David, *Questioning Ethics, Contemporary Debates in Philosophy*, page 105

² Ibid, page 106

³ Ibid, page 106

Wittgenstein mentions of a feeling that shows our dependency on something alien to us it is an alien will. That on which we feel we are dependent; we can call God. (Wittgenstein, 1961). What we can call God, since it depends on a certain sense of dependence is related to an experience. To say that “we can call God” means that it is not necessarily God. We can name it fate or chance. But according to Wood, it is not important what we call it. Heidegger would, he says, call this experience of dependency in our relation to language. In order to point to Wittgenstein’s remark to a specific experience and this remark’s relation to responsiveness, dependence and essential relationality, Wood quotes Wittgenstein:

I can readily think what Heidegger means by Being and Dread. Man has the impulse to run up against the limits of language. Think, for example, of the astonishment cannot be expressed in the form of a question, and there is also no answer to it. Everything, which we feel like saying, can a priori be nonsense. Nevertheless, we do run up against the limits of language. This running up against Kierkegaard also recognized, and even designated in a quite similar way (as running up against paradox). This running up against the limits of language is *ethics*.

Heidegger’s main aim was to question the sense of the subject of cogito that prevails on the external world and sustained by the habitual grammatical structures. His putting man in a responsive position towards the speaking language is understandable within this context. Wood says, there are “essentially creative distortions of language.” The point of these distortions was ethical, and Wittgenstein was aware of this point, which means that he was aware of Heidegger’s effort of describing the indescribable, of describing an experience of openness, passivity and responsiveness. What Heidegger is after is described as the astonishment of that things exist by Wittgenstein.

According to Wood, the ethical if there is any in phenomenology is this patience with experience.⁵ Experience is central not only as mediating many paths between philosophy and other disciplines like politics, religion, literature, science, but also a condition of this mediation between what is philosophy and what outside to it. That is also to say, if one follows the way from phenomenology and deconstruction, this mediation also works in a disturbing, confusing, and blurring the demarcations between philosophy and non-philosophy. Within these areas, literature and art are more important for Wood. Why? It is the real challenge, says Wood, that which is not limited and can be reduced to provide natural knowledge. It is a real challenge for philosophy to get over with the complexity of an aesthetic experience. The concern to distinguish between what is provided by the experienced object and what is provided by the experiencing subject was established by Kant towards this challenge. Due to the Hegelian understanding of this differentiation, the missing dimension of culture and language was added to the Kantian account. The dimension of culture and language, the conditions of possibility of our experience through the shared social practices was the key for the crisis of modernism according to Wood. It is this Hegelian and post-Hegelian key conceptualization of not only the experience of art but also the relation with the other and others that gave rise to the criticism of modernity and problem of nihilism. In other words, things would be easy; there would be no problematic aspects of discussing validity claims, ideal speech community, scientific explanations of religious consensus etc. It is the recognition of the third dimension of experience –language- that led to these problems by means of presupposing a certain form of life. This form of life can be actual or ideal, but the point is it has been a challenge to experience’s transcendental conditions of possibilities. The experience, understood in the sense that depends up on the transcendental conditions of possibility then, undergoing the challenge of the social, political, symbolic, and linguistic, may have disappeared. However, it is not the case for Wood.

Why is it not the case?

⁵ Ibid, page 108

According to David Wood, deconstruction by means of its approach towards experience as a problematic has been growing in the movement of Derrida's writings. Particularly the concept of responsibility and deconstruction itself are the means that can be understood as attempts towards regaining responsibility. Wood claims that it is not a true reading to elaborate Derrida's first texts as works that identify experience with (self) presence and the concept of experience thus belongs to the history of metaphysics. We can use the concept of experience only under erasure. The later Derrida, however, does not focus on the necessary relation between experience and presence. Instead, he uses the term experience without "under erasure". He uses the terms like, "the experience of aporia", "an interminable experience", "the impossible experience of death", and "the experience of mourning". According to Wood, his usage of these terms are evidences of the "suppression of difference" which means the consciousness of speech or in Derridean words "auto-affection" which also means the self-presence. Thus, Wood argues, later Derrida emphasizes the continuity by means of his usage the word experience. Wood says, "If speech or our consciousness of speech is, as he claimed, the 'suppression of difference' that it is so is not merely a truth discovered by theory, by reflection. Rather it is testified to by 'the experience of writing' 'the experience of mourning' 'the experience of the impossible'"⁶ So, the real challenge to philosophy come to stage with these risky usages of experience. Wood refers to Blanchot's usage of "suffering" as an example of attempting to suspense the "I" of the experience. Blanchot says: "There is suffering, there would be suffering, but no longer any 'I' suffering and this suffering does not make itself known in the present (still less is it experienced in the present)"⁷ The suspension of the 'I' means that the 'I' is not the 'I' of thinking, synthesizing and thus an example of suspending the consciousness as self-presence by means of opening it to responsiveness, a passivity, a submission of the "life" that we depend on. The usage of the subject and experience in Blanchot and Derrida, according to Wood is itself is not a radical rupture with the traditional metaphysical thought. The usage, which is an abyssal alternative to dialectic, is not in a sense of incompleteness and instability independent from dialectic. Wood says there can be no independent abyssal realm. The abyss is possible if there is an impossibility of a certain closure of the completeness, determination of meaning. Thus, the abyss is both differentiated and dependent on the experience of the tradition of metaphysical thought. The closure that determines the limits of the experience of the metaphysical should be undermined, blurred for such an abyss be. David Wood, emphasizing the dependency of the abyss on the experience that it undermines says the abyssal thinking is both differentiated and hence dependent on "that recuperative negation which it refuses"⁸ That is to say, recognizing the limits of recuperation, this abyssal thought becomes tied up with that recuperative negation it refuses.

What David Wood says in short is, there is line of ethical starting from Kierkegaard. Kierkegaard was special for Wood so as to make the religious, which is transformed into subjectivity and thus into the ways of being and acting in the world. How is this possible? For Kierkegaard the objective thought focuses on *what* whereas the subjective focuses on *how*. Wood summarizes how religious turns out to be "ultimately ethical by emphasizing Kierkegaard's "knight of faith": "The knight of faith is a man (or woman) who returns to the finite-but always gets the infinite out of it. The ground structure of his dispositions changed. Kierkegaard translates religious belief in to complexly mediated and motivated ways of being and acting in the world."⁹ There is a kind of responsiveness in infinite, in a Heideggerian sense one can say, which is related to action and thought like Heidegger's response to language. So, the ethical line of thought, following the path from mystical or religious to the symbolic and social or "life" as ethos, as the dwelling of the unfamiliar keeps challenging philosophy. Derridean responsibility, which is necessarily infinite, re-

⁶ Ibid, page 112

⁷ Ibid, page 113

⁸ Ibid, page 114

⁹ Ibid, page 115

inscribes the Heideggerian ethos, goes in this way both undermining and being recuperated by the limits of the experience.

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A Case Study of Political Communication in Turkey: Turkish Parliament Television Channel

Çağlar EZİKOĞLU¹

Introduction

Political organizations or leaders, due to the nature of political communication, are obliged to convey their political activities or messages to citizens. How or in what way these messages should be conveyed has been one of the main fields of activity of political communication for centuries. When viewed from a general perspective, politics is a phenomenon that occurs in every field in daily life without any limitation. However, when examined specifically, it is seen that some places come to the fore, and parliaments are the leading ones. The main subject of this study is to show the reader how the political parties' messages are conveyed to citizens in political communication in one of these places, parliaments. The most important channel of this transmission is the Parliament televisions. In this study, first of all, it is shown to the reader what political communication is in the most general terms, and then the historical processes that public service broadcasting has gone through from a universal perspective.

In the continuation of the study, the parliamentary televisions, which are the main focus of this research, are examined in detail. Following of this, it focuses directly on Parliament television in Turkey. Here, especially the development of Grand National Assembly of Turkey TV (*Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi Televizyonu*, TBMM TV) in the historical process and the legal regulations that determine its current legal status are explained.

In the studies conducted on the literature, it was found remarkable that the number of studies on the importance of TBMM TV in terms of political communication is quite low. Except for the studies that Asker (1997) and Yıldız (2012) directly focus on TBMM TV, there is no study in the literature that examines TBMM TV. These studies focus on the history of TBMM TV in general, and there is no study that handles TBMM TV from the perspective of political communication. This article aims to fill this gap in the literature and differentiates itself from other academic studies by taking TBMM TV from the perspective of political communication. In this regard, it is necessary to explain the concept of political communication in general.

Public Service Broadcasting

Television, along with being part of a new political communication a discussion of future in 20th century. A public service television broadcasting conceptualizes the essence of this debate is not pursued as public service broadcasting was located. In fact, the establishment of television, although if a significant step in terms of political communication in, these televisions are not seen in the presence of a private enterprise that period sufficient to convert the point to a

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broadcast tool. Television broadcasting has been seen as a public service in various countries, especially in the United States and United Kingdom (UK), and it has been stated that broadcasting has the duties of educating, informing and entertaining citizens (Keane, 1992). In line with this, British Broadcasting Company (BBC) was established in UK to perform television broadcasting as a non-profit and public company whose finances are covered by taxes. Kaya (2016: 111) summarizes the basic principles of public service broadcasting specific to the BBC as follows:

i- “ In the radio-television broadcasting to be made with the understanding of public service broadcasting, the broadcaster is obliged to fulfil the basic functions of informing, educating and entertaining its listeners / audience.

ii- Political news and programs should be created on the basis of a balanced representation of neutral and different currents of thought and political formations.

iii- Sources of income should be freed from political power and the establishment of special economic interest groups.

iv- Broadcasting service should be provided to everyone equally and for a single usage fee.

v- The broadcast area should be determined to cover the widest possible part of the country's geography.”

The basic framework of the concept of public service broadcasting, had become a major issue in terms of political communication in Turkey after the 1960's. Actually, especially the written press in Turkey is based on much older. In the political campaign during elections and political developments taking place since the early Republican period, with limited use of newspapers and magazines. Only 4 years after the foundation of the Republic, in 1927, the radio was added to these political communication tools (Devran, 2011: 11-13). 'Turkey's Voice Radio' which was established in 1938, were the only news source in World War II, it has turned into a vital communication tool (Aziz, 2019: 78). Transition to multi-party life in Turkey after World War II and the political conflict between Republican People's Party (CHP-*Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi*) and Democrat Party (DP-*Demokrat Parti*) in terms of radio programmes, has led to their use of radio as an important indicator for political communication.

The initiation of public service broadcasting in Turkey was discussed after 1960. The 1961 Constitution stipulated that radio and television broadcasts should be guaranteed by the 1961 Constitution. The creation of an autonomous structure was envisaged the establishment of a state-owned enterprise according to Constitution. Later, these substances in 1964 in accordance with 'Turkish Radio and Television Corporation' (TRT-*Türkiye Radyo ve Televizyon Kurumu*) would be created with the name of an institution begin radio and television broadcasts (Yıldız, 2012: 9-10).

Parliamentary Televisions in the World

The development of parliamentary televisions around the world has become more visible especially in the second half of the 20th century. England is one of the most well-known examples in this regard. In fact, the demand for the establishment of parliamentary televisions in the UK goes back a bit. The possibility of broadcasting parliamentary talks was first brought up in the early days of radios in the 1920s. In 1923, the BBC's first Director General John Reith, attempted to broadcast of the King's short talk to the Parliament; however, the requested permission on this matter was denied (Franks and Vandermark, 1995, p.57-60). In the coming years, Reith has continued to campaign for the broadcasting of parliamentary works (Ryle, 1991: 185-190).

Although the discussion about this issue was raised periodically over the next few decades, it was not until the 1960s that pressure grew in favor of broadcasting the proceedings of the House. The first experiment in sound broadcasting took place in April and May 1968 (on a closed-circuit network). “However, although the House of Commons Services Committee recommended in its review that sound broadcasting should be permitted, it was later announced that the necessary financial support would not be made available” (Franks and Vandermark, 1995: 60-65).

With the second half of the 1970s, this process would begin to increase its momentum. “By July 1977 it was agreed in principle to authorize the BBC and Independent Broadcasting Authority to record sound proceedings in both the Chamber and the Committees. Detailed arrangements were then discussed with the House authorities. By February 1978 both the House of Commons and the House of Lords agreed to allow the BBC to undertake to provide a sound signal from the Parliament” (Ryle, 1991). In the 1980s, different dimensions would be discussed in terms of television broadcasting. In 1989, with the decision of the relevant Committees, it was decided to make a weekly trial broadcast for 4.5 hours to convey the work of the Assembly and Committees to the audience (Asker, 1997: 82). The House of Commons Broadcasting Union Company (HOCBUL) was established by the BBC and ITV televisions to maintain these broadcasts. Following the successful continuation of the trial publications, the necessary legal regulations were adopted in 1991. (Asker, 1997: 82-83).

United States of America (USA) is another country that has carried out important works on the broadcasting of parliamentary works together with the UK. Towards the end of the 1970s, there was an attempt to publish the works of Congress in America as well as in the UK. As a result, a private non-profit cable television named 'Cable Satellite Public Affairs Network ' (C-SPAN) would be established. It would broadcast many of the work of the federal government of the United States, as well as other public affairs programs. The C-SPAN network broadcast on 3 different channels: C-SPAN (focusing on the US House of Representatives), C-SPAN2 (focusing on the US Senate) and C-SPAN3 (broadcasting other government work and related programs) (Frantzich,1996).

C-SPAN is a private non-profit organization funded by its cable and satellite partners and does not advertise on any of its networks, radio stations or websites, and does not ask for donations or commitments. Accordingly, the sessions in both wings of the Assembly are broadcast live and at the same time broadcasts from the White House are displayed via C-SPAN (Asker, 1997: 83-84).

Today, apart from the United States and the UK, mechanisms for broadcasting parliamentary work through television still exist in other European countries. In France, for example, Assembly sessions are recorded by cameras placed inside the building and controlled by remote control. These recorded images, on the other hand, can be transferred free of charge to all television organizations that request. In Sweden a similar way, all the speeches of the speakers in parliament are recorded and are archived by radio broadcasts. In addition, general assembly works are televised by the non-profit cable television named Öppna Kanalen (Asker, 1997: 85).

On television in the parliamentary process of the publication Speaking countries in the world place in this way, the debate began in the 1950s in the historical process in Turkey has brought Parliament to set up the TV in the 90s.

Parliament TV in Turkey: TBMM TV

The concept of public broadcasting in Turkey was noted in the first part of the study being discussed by the establishment of Turkish Radio and Television Corporation in the 1960s. However, the debates on the public announcement of the work of the Assembly coincide with the period of the Democrat Party.

Republic of Turkey in the years subsequent to 1920 the establishment was partially met by radio and broadcast radio though the meeting would take place citizens. However, at that time, both the limited broadcast hours of the radio and the existence of the single-party rule did not make radio broadcasts very important in terms of political communication. With the establishment of the Democrat Party in 1946, the transition to multi-party life and the subsequent Democrat Party's rise to power in 1950, these discussions would have entered a different dimension.

Turkey's two political parties began into a political competition with each other during this period. In such an atmosphere, radio broadcasts also became important in terms of political communication. Especially the Republican People's Party have many harsh criticisms against Democrat Party in question brought the neutrality of radio broadcasts (Devran, 2011: 36). As a matter of fact, CHP deputy Bülent Ecevit expressed his expectations from the radio by stating that "the Assembly is a supreme body and therefore its activities are so important" (*TBMM Tutanak Dergisi*, 27.12.1958, D.11, T. 1, Vol.2 : 1081). Ecevit, who could not see the sensitivity he expected from the radio, expressed his astonishment by saying, "We gave up broadcasting our works by the radio, state radios are unaware even that there is a CHP in the parliament " (Devran, 2011: 37).

Especially in the 1950s, the program, which announced the work of the Assembly to the public via radio, was carried out under the name of 'Parliament Hour'. In the evening of the days when the Assembly meetings were held, the Assembly activities of that day were conveyed to those who listened to the radio through this program (Devran,2011, p.37). The opposition claimed that these programs directly related to Democrat Party's propaganda and it criticized due to the neutrality of state radio broadcasts. For example, Turkish Peasant Party member, Cezmi Türk discussed these programs in a relevant parliamentary question;

“ 1. Which authority determines and controls on the state's radio broadcasts of parliamentary works?

2. Is the Presidential Board of the Parliament related to these radio programmes?

3. Does it follow the bulletins read among these programmes? Is there any officer in charge of this job?

4. What serious measures will the government take to prevent the broadcasting of the Assembly negotiations at its own will, and from reflecting the statements of the consenting, dissenting or independent deputies on various issues unilaterally, inversely or incompletely, and when will this work be started? (*TBMM Tutanak Dergisi* , D.9, T.2, C.12 , p.16).

Again, CHP's MP Bülent Ecevit, in another speech he made in the Turkish Grand National Assembly; “... Although the Democratic Party gives news of the group meeting calls, it does not publish our calls even as paid advertisements, let alone news. In the middle of the summer, when the Assembly was called to an extraordinary meeting by the CHP group, the announcement of a rushed group meeting was rejected by the state radio (Devran, 2011: 46)”.

As can be seen, from the 1950s on, radio broadcasting began to become an important campaign tool for political parties in the perspective of political communication. In this case the television in Turkey after the 1960 meeting and would return with a wider scope with the start to the TRT's broadcasts. Both the ruling and opposition parties of the period would express their opinions on the impartiality of TRT's broadcasts and at the same time, there would be harsh discussions between these parties over TRT broadcasts.

At that time, there was no direct demand or idea for the live broadcast of the Assembly's work. The conditions that prepared this environment emerged thanks to the developments experienced especially after September 12, 1980 which stopped civic politics. Following of this military coup, there was the first elections in 1983 and Motherland Party under Turgut Özal's

leadership successfully come out of power. This victory had led to increase the importance of the political communication in Turkish politics. Yıldız explains this phenomenon as below;

“The program named as *İcraatın İçinden*’, which was televised on the basis of Article 19 of the TRT Law No. 2954, prepared for the private sector and conveyed as a periodic summary of the ANAP government's work. It is a new "visual" in politics as a first in political communication and propaganda activities. Due to its auditory and visual advantages, the effective use of television as a political propaganda and political communication tool continued with the help of the ANAP's staff. The television and video devices carried by the party members, with the transfer of Özal's speeches, messages and promises to the citizens (Yıldız, 2012: 11-12).

This importance for the concept of political communication made the different views between the government and the opposition regarding the broadcasting of the Assembly's work as in previous years. For example, one of the parties entering parliament after the 12 September 1980 military coup, Nationalist Democracy Party (MDP- *Milliyetçi Demokrasi Partisi*) member, Dogan Kasaroglu said; “the Nationalist Democracy Party worked on the overall negotiations about the customs. However, the 20:30 bulletin did not mention, that neither the Nationalist Democracy Party's works, nor that our spokespeople had spoken on this issue, and the meeting was only given and passed away with the speech of the Minister” (Devran, 2011: 153).

In 1987, with acceptance of the referendum on the abolition of the political ban, other parties at this dose of criticism with finding places in Parliament would be further increased. For example, in 1988, True Path Party (DYP-*Doğru Yol Partisi*) member, Murat Sökmenoğlu asked the following questions regarding the issue:

“1-What is the purpose of TRT, which does not give the names of the opposition deputies or the content of their speeches?

2-What do you do about those responsible who longing for a single-party rule and who have an understanding of journalism? Or is this understanding of journalism by the suggestion of the government?

3-Why TRT only brings the ministers to the screen in the news given within the parliament? (Devran, 2011: 171)”

On the other hand, Kemal Anadol, one of the Social Democratic Populist Party (SHP-*Sosyal Demokrat Halkçı Partisi*) deputies of the period, said that the radio broadcasting of the Parliament's broadcasts was an inadequate way for this issue.

“TRT Institution, based on the word 'radio' in article 21, gives the General Assembly meetings only on the radio; Turkey Grand National Assembly, radio calls during the night coincided with the combination are summarized. TRT, which does not put the parliamentary meetings on the television by taking shelter in the word "radio" in article 21, can broadcast the oath and opening ceremonies on the television when it comes to work; However, television is closed to the Assembly Time stipulated by law. On the nights when the Assembly Time is broadcast on the radio, the entire population watches television, excluding the bus passengers. In short, there is no difference between broadcasting Assembly Time on the radio and not being broadcast; television broadcasts are important” (Devran, 2011: 178).

State Minister of the time Adnan Kahveci, on the other hand, opposed these criticisms and defended his views as follows;

“ ... If the television will broadcast all sessions of the general assembly live, in fact, television can stop all its investments from today, all it will do is place three or four cameras in the general assembly, pay the severance payments of all its personnel or pay the retirement bonuses and put them in front of the door” (Devran, 2011: 175).

In the light of these developments, while this issue continued to be discussed, there was a development that would further fuel the tension between the political parties. Star TV, March 1, 1989, named by Magic Box in Turkey's first private television as a channel tested broadcasting in 1990, and on August 4, 1990 regular broadcast started. Magic Box owners Cem Uzan, owner of Rumeli Holding; Yapı ve Ticaret A.Ş. The owner of İmar Bankası and Adabank was his father Kemal Uzan and Turgut Özal's eldest son Ahmet Özal (Yıldız, 2012, p.12). As can see, Turkey's first private television's one of the owners is the Prime Minister's son. As a result of this, criticisms against ANAP were increased.

Speaking on behalf of SHP at the 1990 Parliamentary Budget Meetings, Ayhan Arifoğlu conveys these criticisms as follows:

“... the Turkish people, Turkey is willing to closely monitor the activities of Parliament. Our people demand that these desires come true live on television. TBMM works 3 days a week; it works a total of twelve hours a week. On television, which broadcasts three channels, ten to twelve hours a week can easily be allocated to the parliament. What is happening in the Turkish Grand National Assembly will have reached our people in the most accurate way. Our people will get the right news. Our people will increase their belief and confidence in democracy by seeing their own problems spoken at the TBMM. The Turkish people will believe by seeing that their parliament works for their own benefit, and they will embrace the democratic parliamentary regime stronger”(Asker, 1997: 86).

In the 1991 elections, with the coming to power of two political parties, SHP and DYP, which were critical of the government on this issue, by forming a coalition, the process on broadcasting the Parliamentary works would accelerate. Deputy Chairman of Parliament during the budget negotiations in 1992, Yıldırım Avcı said; “... the General Assembly of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey and the work of the commission, to be published directly on TRT channel is in the final stages of our work. We are about to overcome financial difficulties. I present this in your presence” (Asker, 1997: 89).

With the protocols signed between TBMM and TRT in 1993 and trial broadcasts that started in 1994, it was determined that the establishment of TBMM TV at the final stage. During the 1995 budget negotiations, live broadcasting has started. The Deputy Speaker of the Assembly, Yasin Hatiboğlu, who led the budget session, said; “Dear MPs, the cameras are broadcasting live sir; Today is just the beginning of the live broadcast, I guess you are not aware of it; 60 million citizens are watching us” (Yıldız, 2012: 16).

Upon the start of the broadcasting of TBMM TV, Hüsamettin Cindoruk, the Speaker of the Parliament at the time, announced that the parliamentary work will now be done in a way that the public can watch:

“...The right to information is one of the fundamental freedoms. Communication facilities and new tools have made it possible to obtain information continuously. Technological development has made it useless or impossible to prohibit this human right. International values and publications cross borders, embracing the world and settling down. Turkey is experiencing this transformation today cannot remain outside this transformation in parliament. It has to renew itself. Parliamentary work has passed the written report until today. Today, the Supreme Assembly's works recorded visually... Our people can watch us in their village, in their office or home during the parliamentary session. Parliamentary work in modern democracies is done openly with the people” (Asker, 1997: 99).

The Legal Structure of TBMM TV

In this study, it is also necessary to reveal legal bases of TBMM TV. As mentioned, TBMM TV started broadcasting in 1995. The protocol dated 03.01.1995, which was prepared within the

framework of the "Law on the Establishment and Broadcasts of Radio and Television Broadcasts" dated 1994 and numbered 3984, and signed between the Presidency of the Turkish Grand National Assembly and the General Directorate of TRT. It was stated that the protocol was prepared in accordance with the principles of Article 17 of the Law No. 3984. Article 17 also noted that; "National channel and frequency band frequency planning and channel in the band one in four will be allocated to Turkey Radio and Television Corporation. The number of channels cannot be less than three and the number of frequency bands cannot be less than four. This is one of the channels of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey activities are reflected"(Yıldız, 2012, p.18). In the second article titled broadcast time of the protocol signed by the President of the Parliament Hüsamettin Cindoruk and the General Director of TRT Tayfun Akgüner and it is said that; "TRT has allocated a broadcast time between 14.00-19.00 hours three days a week on the meeting days of the Turkish Grand National Assembly to the chairmanship of the Turkish Grand National Assembly in order to reflect the activities of the Turkish Grand National Assembly to the public" (Yıldız, 2012, p. 19).

As can be seen, with the protocol arranged on the basis of the relevant article in the law, TBMM TV started broadcasting. Furthermore, 'Grand National Assembly of Turkey Television Services Directive' has been published and filed on legal regulations regarding the Parliamentary TV in June 1996. (Asker, 1997, p.104).

In the 2000s, both technological innovations and the introduction of the internet into our lives, TBMM TV has adopted with these innovations. The screen design and logo of TBMM TV were renewed and 2 editing sets and a camera were purchased for the transition to digital environment. Apart from the General Assembly broadcasts, new programs in different concepts were presented to the audience, especially during the breaks of the sessions. (Yıldız, 2018, p.20).

Parallel to all these developments, important regulations determining the current legal status of TBMM TV were implemented in 2008. The law named as, 'Grand National Assembly of Turkey and Open Education Publications Teaching with Purpose Publications and other publications' published in June 2008 and Article 21 of this law noted that;

"One of the allocated channels through is the TRT 3 TV and Parliamentary activities are televised by this channel. Grand National Assembly of Turkey with the General Directorate of Radio and Television Corporation determined the protocol will be prepared together in order to broadcast which the activities of TBMM. No fee is charged for these publications."

With this provision, the text of the law that is the basis for the 1995 protocol and 1996 regulation has been removed. In this regard, a new protocol between TRT and TBMM on 31 May 2008, the 'TBMM TV Directive' came into force on publication in the Official Gazette. According to this regulation, the duties of TBMM TV are as follows:

a) Posting the work of the General Assembly; broadcasting political party group meetings in live or on tape according to the decision of the Editorial Advisory Board,

b) Presidency's activities, Executive Board meetings, group of political parties or the president, group vice president, general secretary and deputy chairman of the parliament of Turkey's Grand National Press in Assembly meetings, standing committees, parliamentary inquiries and commissions of inquiry, to monitor the work of international groups and commissions, to prepare for broadcast, to make live broadcasts if deemed necessary by the Board,

c) To provide the necessary broadcasting and technical assistance in accordance with the Television Services Fee Schedule, in the event that General Assembly studies and political party group meetings are requested to be broadcast partially or completely by other television organizations on tape or live,

d) The Law about Radio and Television Enterprises and Their Broadcasts conforms to specified broadcast principles and fundamentals and to make political, economic, social, cultural roundtables, news, panel discussions, chat, forums, documentaries, trailers, interviews; to prepare comment and spot programs, or to purchase and publish them if the Board decides,

d) Conducting public opinion surveys to measure the effectiveness of television broadcasts,

e) Fulfilling technical broadcasting and production requests of other broadcasters such as studios, montages, and cameras according to the Television Services Fee Schedule,

f) Establishing the TV broadcasting archive of TBMM activities, ensuring that archive materials are stored with modern and technical methods,

g) To reproduce TBMM TV live broadcast and archive footage for the fee specified in the Television Services Fee Schedule to public and private broadcasting organizations and their parliamentarians,

ğ) To perform similar duties assigned by the Chairman, the Board and the Presidential Board.

With this regulation, the legal basis of TBMM TV has been clearly established. When this study examines both the historical process and the legislation process, it is an undeniable reality how TBMM TV plays an important role as a political communication tool.

Conclusion

Since the second half of the 20th century, the relationship of visual media with politics has gained a new dimension by intensifying even more. In order to understand this dimension, the new policies implemented by many political institutions or organizations in the world at the point of political communication can be shown as examples.

From the past to the present in Turkish political history, there has been an intense rivalry and conflict between the opposition and ruling parties, especially under the title of public broadcasting. As stated in the study, this conflict started with the transition to multi-party life and continues without losing momentum today. Of course, one of these conflict areas is on parliamentary broadcasting. There are harsh criticisms of the CHP against the Democrat Party in the 1950s, the DYP or SHP against the ANAP in the 80s and 90s, and today's other opposition parties against the ruling party, especially for the public broadcasting of parliamentary works. To be dealt with much more comprehensive study of this criticisms are quite essential. However, this study focuses the role of TBMM TV in the areas of political communication in Turkish politics and aims to fill the gap in the literature on these issues.

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A Paradigm Shift in Learning - from Social Constructivism to Connectivism

Ecem EKINCI¹

Introduction

With the influence of globalization and advancements in technology, the approaches toward learning have shifted all around the world. Researchers and educators have begun to employ up-to-date paradigms in order to explain the learning process and shed light on the new trends in education. As a result, there is a need for these most influential learning paradigms to be identified, detailed and compared, considering their approaches toward learning practice, learners and teachers. To this end, the way that roads to connectivism from social constructivism, two of the mostly applied learning paradigms today, was enlightened by the researcher in this study.

Social Constructivism as a Learning Paradigm

The theory of social constructivism holds that learning takes place through social interaction and the assistance of other people, most frequently in a group setting. According to this school of thought, learning is synonymous with the process of deriving meaning from one's experiences (Bednar et al., 1991). According to the social constructivist view, the reality is created via human action, and each person interprets their environment in their own unique manner. As a result, collectively, the individuals of society form the characteristics of the world and give it meaning via their interactions with one another and the environment's objects. According to Kukla (2000), human effort creates reality, and society as a whole creates the characteristics of the world. This is the reason why social constructivism's primary tenets are teamwork, shared experiences, and communication.

Although constructivism and social constructivism possess similarities in terms of identifying the source of learning, their approaches toward knowledge differ concretely. An active student interacting with a range of materials and building his or her own understanding through a combination of experimentation, experience, and expert assistance are critical components of the constructivist philosophy (Edelson, Pea, and Gomez, 1996). However, according to social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1962), knowledge is created via social contact and is retained in the minds of those with whom we engage. The notion that learning is located in the context of events, actions, or cultures is also addressed by social constructivism. What is known to depend on many people's cooperation and interaction, as well as on the individual (Vygotsky, 1978). Similarly, learning may occur when students engage in socio-cultural activities and learn various lessons (Veletsianos, 2012).

Social constructivism is an approach that has implications for learning. It offers a linguistic and psychological rationale for the success of interactive instructional practices. Social constructivism, as proposed by Myles, Hooper, and Mitchell (1998), places emphasis on learning's socio-cultural context and views students as active builders of their own educational experiences. In addition, according to Vygotsky (1978), learning happens through interaction between a material and its reader as well as between a student and a teacher. As a result, it can be concluded that

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learning is interactive in two ways: first, in the sense that students must engage with sources of ideas and knowledge in social contexts; second, in the sense that students must actively participate in the reconstruction of ideas and knowledge within their own minds. As stated by Yang and Wilson (2006), in contrast to forcing a teacher's interpretation of meaning upon students, the social constructivist approach emphasizes that students need to be encouraged to generate their own meaning from text. In other words, learning happens more effectively in an environment where students feel safe and are empowered to take charge of their own education.

The notion of scaffolding is another core element in social constructivism. Vygotsky (1978) defined scaffolding as the assistance given by parents, friends, instructors, or reference books like dictionaries that enables students to perform better. In education, scaffolding is a term used to describe a process in which a teacher provides help to a student in order to improve learning and assist in the mastering of tasks. The teacher does this by methodically constructing the experiences and knowledge of the students as they pick up new abilities. The input must be difficult for a student to increase his capacity for learning. According to Yang and Wilson (2006), students may grow bored and perhaps uninspired if the input is not demanding enough, while they will feel frustrated and possibly quit if the input is too complex. For this reason, determining the tasks' and exercises' ideal degree of difficulty has tremendous importance. Students may obtain excellent learning outcomes when the instructor is able to give them the necessary scaffolding.

Social constructivism as an approach toward learning has been administered in the teaching and learning practices of students, teachers, researchers and other stakeholders of the education system for years. It was employed as a means of assisting and reinforcing learning in theory and practice. However, with the easy accessibility of information through online or virtual worlds, people have experienced a change in human relations and their approach toward learning. It is an undeniable fact that this rapid flow of the new age has brought the necessity of contemporary explanations to fulfill learning needs (Ekinci, Ekinci & Şanverdi, 2021). Thus, connectivism, as an alternative approach to learning, became a favored domain in the 21st century.

Adoption of Connectivism as an Alternative Learning Paradigm

Connectivism is a relatively recent philosophy of learning that emphasizes the practical application of students' ability to integrate various pieces of knowledge and information. Knowledge is a product of these connections rather than just what is in the learner's mind. Thus, technology that encourages connections between people and information resources should improve learning (Evans, 2014). It recognizes the importance of technology in education and the fact that being constantly connected empowers us to manage our own education. People currently have access to more information resources than ever before, including computers, mobile phones, and the internet, according to Ekinci and Şanverdi (2021). Students now learn differently in and outside of the classroom because of technology. As a result, modern technology and widespread internet connection provide people access to all the information they could ever desire to know. In order to provide an appropriate environment for learning, connectivism attempts to incorporate technology into education.

The idea of transformation is one of connectivism's key qualities. Connectivism is compared by Siemens (2005) to a seismic change from an individualistic to a computerized society. The connectivist approach emphasizes people's capacity to have skills like fostering, preserving, traversing network connections, and utilizing specialized information sources just-in-time, rather than how well they can make sense of their prior knowledge (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016). In other words, in order for the learners to acquire the desired information, they will be expected to make use of and connect a variety of different learning abilities.

The connectivist approach towards learning is based on eight principles, as identified by Siemens (2005) below.

- Learning is a process of connecting.
- Learning may reside in non-human appliances.
- Learning is more critical than knowing.
- Nurturing and maintaining connections are needed for continual learning.
- The ability to see connections between fields, ideas, and concepts is a core skill.
- Accurate, up-to-date knowledge is the aim of all connectivist learning.
- Decision-making is a learning process. What we know today might change tomorrow. (p. 8)

As it is clear from the principles identified by Siemens and Downes (2008), learning and connecting are the main focus of connectivism. To this end, a learner must have the ability to identify the connections between ideas and perceptions. In addition, the learners have to adapt themselves to an atmosphere in which constant alterations may occur as a result of the changes in social life and technological environments.

As it is evident from the information provided in this section of the study, connectivism, as a new and popular approach to learning, dominates the modern learning mentality in the 21st century. It claims that technology is one of the key components of the learning process and that being constantly connected allows students to make decisions about their learning. Additionally, connectivism encourages group conversation and cooperation, which facilitates decision-making, problem-solving, and information interpretation. As suggested by Bell (2011), it calls for a richness where discussion and negotiation take place, course material is developed and shared with others, and experience is enlarged via dialogue.

Conclusion

The present study demonstrated that there is a severe alteration in the way the learning process is described by the researchers and other members of educational institutions. With the highly globalized world and increasingly developed technological means, the learning process has begun to be explained and examined via its relation to technological devices and internet sources. The best paradigm that determines this connection is reported to be connectivism by prominent researchers such as Goldie (2016) and Duke, Harper and Johnston (2013). As a contemporary approach to learning, connectivism emphasizes change, technology integration, collaboration and connection as the primary premises of learning.

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Ahi Evran Wali and Professional Ethics in the Akhism

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Introduction

In *Diwan Lughat al-Turk*, the word “Ahi” is used to mean “generous,” while it means “fellow” in Arabic (Kaşgarlı, 1970, s. 70; Yüksel, 2019:500). Although there are different interpretations about the establishment of the Ahi-Union, according to the common opinion, the Akhism is a moral-based social and economic organization that was founded in the 13th century in the pioneership of Nasîruddin Ahî Evran-ı Wali, formed in Kırşehir and spread to the surrounding provinces and all throughout Anatolia, the Balkans and the Crimea (Bayram, 1991). Having a very systematic organization, this union spread not only in cities but also in towns and villages (Aslan, 2013: 665). However, Claude Cohen claimed that the first Ahis were seen with the same name in Iran in the 11th century, that they lived before Ahî Evran, and that the Ahi Turk, who should be considered the real ancestor of the Turkish Akhi, also lived in the Urmia region of Iran (Cahen, 1986: 561; Ocak, “Fütüvvet,” XIII, 263; Uludağ, 1996:263).

According to Çağatay (2012:5), the Ahi organization is an institution whose foundation was laid in ancient Turkish civilizations, especially the Gokturks and Uyghurs. It is seen that the foundation of this unity system, which was formed on the basis of social solidarity and moral principles, was formed by the Futuwwa Organisation (Demirez, 2003). Although the Ahi organization is thought of as a professional organization, considering the beginning years of its establishment by Ahi Evran, it looks like an 'ethics school based on being a good person and aiming to bring basic moral principles to its members. The association has created a serious internal control mechanism to ensure ethical principles (Yüksel, 2019:500). The first aim of the Akhism in the beginning is defined as creating a new area for its own arts and commerce in the new geography where the people who come from their homeland, other languages are spoken, other religions are believed, and there are different traditions and customs. While doing this, certain moral and economic principles were developed under the leadership of Ahi Evran (Çağatay, 1989: 213). In line with these principles, the Ahi community, which grew and developed over time among tradesmen and craftspersons, ceased to be a political power since the Fatih era and continued its existence as an institution that regulates the administrative affairs of tradesmen's unions (Maraş, 2018:308) and started to dissolve and collapse in the 17th century (Anadol, 1991:116). In this study, Ahi Evran's life, Fütüvvetnames and the unity of Akhism as a moral school are discussed.

1. Nasiruddin Ahi Evran-i Wali's

Known as the founder of the Ahi order, the real name of Ahi Evran is Sheikh Nasîruddin Mahmud Ahi Evran bin Abbas. It is estimated that he was born in 1171 in the town of Khoy, located on the West Azerbaijan side of Iran, although his date is uncertain. At that time, the town of Hoy had been a Turkmen settlement since the Great Seljuk ruler Tugrul Bey. It is claimed that Ahi Evran spent his childhood here and completed his primary education here. Simultaneously, he worked as an apprentice in a blacksmith's workshop for a short time and then turned to leather

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processing and rose to the rank of journeyman in this field. Afterward, he went to the Khorasan and Transoxiana regions and received education from important teachers in the madrasahs there. In one of his letters to Sadreddin Konevi (d.673-1274), he states that he was in the service of Fahrettin Razi (d.606-1210). Based on this information, it is concluded that Razi attended his classes and learned rational and narrative sciences from him (Bayram, 1991:80; Bayram, 1995:16-18; Köksal, 2005:84). The pamphlets of İhvanu's-Safa also had significant effects on his ideas and approaches (Bayram, 1991: 143).

Ahi Evran, who is known to have received his first Sufi education from the masters of the Yeseviyya order, went to Baghdad, where Sufi people from different regions came together at that time. **Although it is not known how long he stayed in Baghdad, he was affiliated with Evhaddu'd-din Kirmani (d.635/1237), one of Fahreddin Razi's students.** Upon the advice of his sheikh, he met the Abbasid caliph Nasır li-Dinillâh (d.622-1225) and joined the futuwwa organization. During these years, he was educated in many fields, such as Tafsir, Hadith, Kalam, Fiqh, Sufism, Medicine and Philosophy. After his education in Baghdad, he came to Anatolia with his teacher Evhaddü'd-din Kirmani during the reign of Seljuk Sultan Gıyaseddin Keyhüsrev I. He traveled to various cities with his teacher, settled in Kayseri, which is considered the center of trade and married his teacher's daughter, Fatma Bacı (Bayram, 1991: 81; Köksal, 2005: 89).

Based on the concept of futuwwa that he learned in Baghdad, Ahi Evran founded the Ahi organization after visiting various cities in Anatolia. The first headquarters of the organization were in the Debbâğlar district of Kayseri. Ahi Evran, who was engaged in the leather business here, also gave religious, moral and vocational training to the members of the Ahi organization in the zawiya located in his bazaar. During his years in Kayseri, the "Bacıyân-ı Rum" (Anatolian Sisters) organization was established through his wife. The members of this organization mostly dealt with art branches, such as knitting and weaving and making carpets and rugs. Information about its founder, Fatma Ana, can also be found in Hacı Bektaş's Velayet-nâme with the names Fatma Bacı, Kadıncık Ana, Kadıncık (Bayram, 1991:82-83; Bayram, 2008:27-48; Köksal, 2005:84-89).

Ahi Evran left Kayseri and settled in Konya at the request of the Seljuk Sultan Alaattin Keykubat I. He resided in Konya for a while, and with the support of the sultan, he performed both his art and scientific activities here. Following the murder of Sultan Aladdin I. as a result of the assassination plotted by his son, Gıyaseddin, in 1237, while many Ahis were punished, Ahi Evran was also imprisoned. However, Ahis resisted Gıyaseddin Keyhusrev and Vizer Sa'd al-Din Kobek and rebelled against the administration of the period (Babailer Revolt 1239–1240). With the defeat of Gıyaseddin, the Mongol army entered Anatolia and continued its advance there (Aslan, 2013:54). Although the Ahis defended the city against the Mongols who came to Kayseri for 15 days, the Mongols captured the city and destroyed the houses and workplaces of the Ahis. While many Ahis were killed, a significant number of them were taken prisoner. Thus, the Ahi organization in Kayseri faced disintegration, and Ahi Evran, who was imprisoned in Konya at that time, got rid of the massacre (Ayış, 2019: 93–95; Bayram, 1991:84).

After the death of II. Gıyaseddin Keyhüsrev, Celaleddin Karatay became the regent and released the notables of the Ahi. Ahi Evran stayed in Denizli for a while after he was released from prison. **Ascending to the throne after Karatay, Izzeddin II got Ahi Evran, formerly sent to Denizli by Sadreddin Konevi, back to Konya.** Shortly after Ahi Evran came to Konya, Şems-i Tabriz was killed. **Thereupon,** Ahi Evran settled in Kırşehir with Alaeddin Celebi, son of Mevlana and continued his activities there. Meanwhile, in the Seljuk State, IV. Rukneddin Kılıcarşlan came to power. This new administration, which was pro-Mongol, did not give comfort to the Ahi and Turkmen, and the Ahi and Turkmen in many parts of Anatolia revolted against this new administration. In the conflict that broke out because of these uprisings, Kırşehir city was besieged by the Mongolian forces under the command of Nureddin Caca. It has been claimed that Ahi Evran and Mevlana's son Alaattin Çelebi were killed during this massacre, and the dates 1261 or

1262 are given for this event. His grave is located next to the mosque named after him in Kırşehir (Bayram, 1991: 85–88; Erken, 2008: 48–49; Köksal, 2005; Ayış, 2019:93-95).

While Ahi Evran was practicing his profession, he both extended his art to the society and gathered people belonging to all branches of art into the Ahi organization. He was interested in the religious education and training of apprentices, journeymen and masters working in these art centers as a wise and scholar. He also wrote **works** that could be understood by the public. **His book ‘Menahic’i-Seyfi’ is known as the first catechism to be copyrighted in Anatolia.** With this work, he is accepted as the initiator of the tradition of writing the catechism in Anatolia (Ayış, 2019: 97–98). Some other works belonging to Ahi Evran include *Metaliu'l-İman*, *Menahic-i Seyfi*, *Risale-i Arş*, *Medb-i Fakr u Zemm-i Dünya*, *Yezdan-Şinabt*, *Murşidu'l-Kıfaye* (Erken, 2008: 52).

Ahi Evran, the master of leather makers and the leader of 32 kinds of tradesmen and craftspersons, is also known as Ebu'l-Hakayık. Ahi Evran was contemporary with both Haji Bektash Veli and Mevlânâ Celâleddîn-i Rûmî (Özsaray, 2020:166-167). Especially in the Haji Bektash Veli’s work *Vilayetname*, his closeness to Haji Bektash Veli is described. In the mathnawi written by Gülşehri on Ahi Evran, he is mentioned as a Sufi dervish (Şahin, 1988: 529–530). Gökalp discussed/dealt with the "miracle" and "visit" of Ahi Evran Wali, which is also the basis of the Wali cult. Based on the legends in *Keramat-ı Ahi Evran*, *Vilayet-name*, *Seyahatname* and other written sources, the thirteen miracles of Ahi Evran are gathered into four main groups in his article. These are (1) Miracles Occurring on Animals, (2) Miracles Occurring in the Body of the Guardian (3) Miracles Concerning Sacred Persons and Beings (4) Miracles Occurring on Natural Assets and Things (Gökalp, 2005: 25–36). The mythical stories also indicate that Ahi Evran has assumed an epic character among the people.

It has also been mentioned in the sources that Ahi Evran was also a physician. Indeed, all the doctors, surgeons, and other therapeutic professionals in the Ottoman period were included in the artisan organizational structure, which was an extension of the Akhism organization. The works of Ahi Evran Şeyh Nasîrüddin Mahmud that may be important in terms of medical history are shown as *Letâif-i Geyâsiyye*, *Müsâri’ü'l-Müsâri*, *Tercüme-i Nefsü'n-Nâtuka*, *İlmü't-Teşrîb*. Snake and venom were important in medicine at that time. It is claimed that Ahi Evran was among the famous doctors of his time and produced antidotes from snakes throughout his life. Mikail Bayram, who has performed significant studies on Ahi Evran, writes that Ahi Evran tells how he made antidotes from poisonous snakes in his work *Tabsiratü'l-Mübtedi ve Tezkiratü'l-Müntehi*. It is claimed that it took the name 'Evran' which means 'big snake' in this way. Another claim is that he was called Evran, based on the legendary rumors that he was a tanner and made belts and whips out of snakeskin. Erdem Aydın also states in his book *World and Turkish Medical History* that Ahi Evran was among the physicians of the Anatolian Seljuk period and that he was a surgeon by making inferences from his works (Köken and Örnek Büken, 2018: 56–66; Bayram, 2005:12; Bayram, 2015:17).

2. Futuwatnames

Futuwat, whose origin is based on the religion of Islam, is shown as the most important element that constitutes the ideological infrastructure of the Akhism (Yüksel, 2019:502). The word originates from Fetâ, “young, valiant, generous”; Futuwat means “youth, heroism, generosity.” In particular, the Sufis have made the concept of fetâ, which is used in the sense of certain types of qualities and habits, a mystical term. The words fatâ and futuwat mean the moral qualities of a Sufi, such as self-sacrifice, altruism, goodness, helping, philanthropy, tolerance and self-control. Since such qualities are also found in a true Sufi, the Sufi was also considered a fatâ. According to the Sufis, futuwwa is a lifestyle that consists of the sum of good behaviors within the framework of the ideal of the perfect human being. This lifestyle has been described as the high qualifications of the Prophets and Islamic elders. Although the emergence of the idea of futuwwa as a moral value

is based on the Arab-Islamic world, its emergence as a social unity (formation) occurred in the Turkish and Iranian regions (Demirpolat and Akca, 2004: 356–358). According to Uludağ, the Sufis developed their unique humanist thoughts within the framework of the concept of futuwwa (Uludağ, 1996:261). Some historians have also interpreted the first forms of futuwwa as a knightly community, due to its meanings expressing generosity, hospitality, courage and valor in its early days. Thereafter, the futuwwa unions took on a cult-like identity under the influence of Islamic mysticism (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 360). The most famous is the Ikhwan-i Safa community, which made the city of Basra a city of science and art and made its members adopt the morality of futuwwa according to the ancient Greek education principles (Demirez, 2003). Akhism is likened to the Ikhwan-i Safa group, a sect that believes in the immortality of the human soul and that souls can be saved through mutual aid and education. As a matter of fact, this sect, under the influence of the Neoplatonic view, argues that the moral principle keeps people away from evil and temporary tendencies (Çağatay, 1997:52).

The period when Akhism spread in Anatolia is a period in which sects played an important role in the social structure. In this sense, in the period when Akhism emerged, its sect characteristic was more evident. The Islamic motifs in the entrance and promotion ceremonies show how Islamic morality is trying to be acquired. The ahi, who was responsible for education, primarily aimed to reach a certain maturity in the individual with religious knowledge and practice. The fact that the etiquette and manners of the ahi-order members are mentioned in the futuvvetnames rather than the economic issues strengthens the claim that these unions are structures organized around a certain ideology (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 370–371). According to Saruhan, the main purpose of Futuwwa and Akhism is for the individual to meet the desire for immortality despite the shocking effect of death and to create longer-lasting organizations. Futuwwa and Akhism are one of the most concrete examples of moral dialectics from theory to practice, from practice to theory. The Ahi organization, which can be seen as schools of morality and mysticism, are active centers that prioritize work, production and sharing based on morality, beyond the prejudices of "one bite and one cardigan" where the worldly is despised (Saruhan, 2019:15).

The ideal of a "perfect human," which is essential in the understanding of futuwwa, has been defined with the qualities of all great prophets, starting with Adam. However, from the moment that the concept of futuwwa started to express a certain organization, it is seen that some epic narrations were based on Ali, especially in the Akhism Futuvvetnames, and in the tradition of futuwwa. Ali has become a symbol in the ideal "fetâ" identity, and a special place has been given to him in the futuvvetnames (Ocak, 1996: 264–265). In the studies on futuwwa groups in other Islamic countries, although there are elements of esoteric-Shiite character, it is stated that since Sunnism is dominant in Anatolia, the Ahi order that developed here also has a Sunni character (Demirci, 1992:84). However, in the tradition of Akhism, Hz. Ali has an important place. Çağatay draws attention to the emphasis on Hasan and Hüseyin in the prayers recited while tying the sed to the waist of the disciple. He states that these elements, which can be considered opposition to the ahli-sunnah understanding and belief, entered the Futuvvetnames later with Bektashism. According to him, there are no such details in the Futuvvetnames of the times when the first concept of futuwwa emerged (Çağatay, 1952:84).

According to Ocak, Futuvvetnames can be divided into three types in chronological order. These are 1. Sufi Futuvvetnames 2. Futuvvetnames of Futuwwa Organization 3. Futuvvetnames of Ahi Guilds. Süleymi's work called *Futuwwa in Sufism*, which is connected to Khorasan melamity, is known as the oldest source written on Futuwwa (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004:356-358; Selvi, 2016:1). The ideals and values recommended being followed regarding feta and futuwwa in this work were repeated in many futuwvatnames written afterward. Sources indicate that the idea father of the futuwwa organization, which turned into Akhism in Anatolia, was Ömer Sühreverdi (1144–1235) (Özsaray, 2020:170). It is seen that the principles and rules of the Futuvvetname, which

includes the principles of Akhism, and the work called Avarifü'l-Maarif by Sühreverdi, one of the Sufi scholars, are similar (Demirci, 1992: 83–84).

Apart from Sühreverdi's *Risâletü'l-Fütüvve*, Çobanoğlu/Burgazi Futuvvetname and Radavi Futuvvetname are the first ones that come to mind regarding Ahi Futuvvetnames (Ünsür, 2017:92). The Ahis took the Fütüvvetnames as a **statute** with minor changes and additions. The difference between Ahi futuvvetnames and previous ones is that a person must have an art or a profession to become an Ahi. Fütüvvet morality does not contain such a requirement (Çağatay, 1989: 213). In addition, Ocak claims that when Akhism futuvvetnames are examined, at some points, the effects of mystical cultures in the Turkish, Middle Eastern and Iranian regions before Islam and some communities and institutions within these cultures are seen (Ocak, 1996:264-265).

3. Akhism as Ethics and Vocational School

In Akhism, people went through a training process to gain moral qualities such as reliability, honesty, not interfering with the rights of others, not deceiving people, satisfaction with the few, etc. At the end of a long education process, those who reached both professional and moral maturity were allowed to open businesses. In this sense, an internal audit mechanism was established, and professional ethics standards were established (Yüksel, 2019:500-501). When Ahi zawiya also functioned as training centers to gain the moral principles they aimed at, the apprentice needed to have literacy qualifications in these zawiyas. As a matter of fact, since it was accepted that an illiterate person could not be included in the futuwwa, there could be no Ahi who were illiterate (Demirpolat and Akca, 2004: 368). It is seen that there are four training departments in the Ahi organization system: 12–30 years old, 30–40 years old, 40–50 years old and over 50 years old (Çağatay, 1997:52-3). It is understood from this that the expected capacity from each age group is different, and the expected characteristics differ according to the age groups.

Business and moral education in Ahis was based on the technique of "development of skills" and "learning by doing," both theoretically and practically. In these organizations, education has been seen not only as individual or work-oriented but also as a holistic content to ensure social development and development. For this reason, individuals were given not only professional knowledge but also religious, moral, military, artistic and social knowledge in the Ahi Organization. In Akhism, major significance was attributed to raising morally elevated people. In this direction, the Ahis would work during the day and gather at night in the zawiya established by a notable of the union and participate in conversations involving knowledge, wisdom, and some entertainment (Durak and Yücel, 2010). **At the beginning of the training, which was given to the persons both in the workplace and in the chat rooms, it was to show the individual the self-knowledge.** Trying to raise moral people meant taking the human being as a whole and conveying information to him not only from the professional perspective but also from the religious, moral, and social aspects and to try giving a lifelong education (Ekinçi, 1991: 84-85).

With the principle of "the one who knows holds the hand of the one who does not know" Akhism taught its members both to know and to practice together. Education in Akhism has generally been handled in two ways. The first is the education given on the principles of religion and worship in zawiya or similar places. The second is the moral and vocational education given in the workplace. Here, it is the aim not only to have a profession but also to learn and teach this profession following moral rules (Ayış, 2019: 103–105).

The Ahi community aimed to direct the youth to spend their energies **on welfare society** and to raise them as productive and responsible individuals. Ahi organizations aimed to transform young people into individuals who were successful in their jobs, did their best in their art and had high goals (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 366–367).

In the understanding of Akhism, a person should know how to use his mind, mind, emotions and organs in accordance with the purpose of creation and only in this way could an individual become a mature person. Here, too, individuals were taught which characteristics they should have as a priority. Ahi organizations use different methods to give people moral understanding in their education system. They used methods such as "giving advice," "avoiding evil," and especially "showing exemplary personalities as role models," (Ayış, 2019: 103–105).

4. Basic Ethical Principles of Akhism

Moral principles, such as personal and business ethics can be deduced from Ahi Futuvvetnames. The basic moral principles of Akhism are also included in ahi secerename(s) and icazetname(s), apart from Futuvvetnames. Denying oneself, being good-natured, obeying Allah's orders, avoiding His prohibitions, courage, benevolence, generosity, hospitality, and avoiding deception/lying are prominent moral principles for Ahis. These principles, which are accepted as ethical, are the statutes of society to ensure personal and social stability. All these moral principles of Akhism are also interpreted as the results of Farabi's goal of "building a perfect and prosperous society" in his work *Medinetü'l-Fazıla* (Erken, 2008; Büyük and Keskin, 2013:4) Ahi Evran gives the following advice in his work *Letaif-i Hikmet*, a book on politics:

God has created human beings with a civilized nature. This means that Allah has created humans in need of many such things as eating, drinking, getting married, and having a home. No one can meet these needs on their own. When this is the case, many people are needed to conduct various professions such as blacksmithing and carpentry. In this respect, it is essential to keep all the branches of art necessary for human beings alive and to direct enough people to this work. (Bayram, 2008:64).

Ahi Evran, who is also aware of the conflicts of interest in social life, also wrote about what needs to be done to prevent the following in *Letaif-i Hikmet*:

Working together can cause competition and debate among co-workers. Because when each of them turns to their own needs, a conflict of interest arises. When there is no mutual tolerance and forgiveness, dispute and conflict arise. Therefore, it is necessary to enact laws to settle the conflict between these people... (Bayram, 2008:83).

To understand and make sense of Akhi morality, the principles in the Futuvvetnames have been examined and various classifications have been made. According to Demirez (2003), who divides Akhi morality into two formal and informal, formal moral principles are the behavior exhibited by Ahis in society. Formal principles consist of six implicit, external commandments. These are as follows: (1) Waist, closed to the honor of others; (2) Hand, closed to tyranny and evil practices, (3) Tongue, closed to lies and slanders; (4) Eyes, closed to the vices and follies of the others; (5) Stomach, closed to worldly pleasures; (6) Ears, closed to gossip. Informal principles, on the other hand, are internal and openly composed of six commandments. Accordingly, the internal moral principles expected from an Ahi are as follows: (1) Generosity (2) Humility (3) Being compassionate and open to forgiveness (4) Humility (5) Being away from selfishness (6) Realism (Demirez, 2003).

The duality (moral dichotomy) in moral classification in Akhism is explained using the metaphor of linking and dissolving. In the Ahi community, it has a symbolic meaning to fasten and untie the belt seven times during the belt-tying ceremony. Each act of binding represents closing the door to bad behavior; every act of solving represents opening the door to good behavior (Büyük and Keskin, 2013:7).

It is seen that the Ahi-order system, which is based on morality, established a social control mechanism to ensure the continuation of the order it has established. Accordingly, they punish

people who are within their own body and violate the moral rules they have determined, in different ways such as condemning, condemning, not cooperating and leaving them alone (Maraş, 2018:308).

4.1 Akhism and Work Ethics

Çağatay states that Akhism is different from the sects that use the sacred feelings of the people. Because the most basic moral principle in Akhism is to earn a living through hard work. It is self-sufficient, self-confident, and gaining the ability to live without gratitude to others (Çağatay, 1989: 213). Morality in Akhism is characterized by doing one's job well. The most basic moral rule is that everyone must have a profession. Working and producing in the spirit of Akhism and winning with sweat come first. A person builds his own existence by producing and working. The spirit of Akhism does not tolerate laziness and unproductivity; it expects working, producing and being an entrepreneur. According to Ahis, working is a form of worship in addition to religious worship. In other words, every positive behavior performed for the benefit of the individual and society has religious and spiritual importance. **Since working and producing is an action for the benefit of society, workplaces are places of worship for Ahis and it is essential to respect and work sincerely** (Selvi, 2016:30).

The interaction between economic events and religion is generally discussed through how mentality and values shape economic morals. **Max Weber evaluated how mentality and values affect economic development and material production through Protestant ethics in his work *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism***. Accordingly, the Protestant ethic, with its motives of saving and hoarding, was influential in the birth of capitalism. The main feature of modern capitalism is that work is a duty and it is organized in disciplined and rational ways (Çelik, 2003).

Similar to the Protestant ethics, in the professional ethics of the Akhism, the work performed was considered sacred and understood as a pastime reflecting the spirit of the artist. Therefore, production in Akhism was not in the form of competition or the production of more goods, but in the form of creating more perfect works. In other words, the work carried out was perceived as an art and the product of slower and slower maturation, not a rapid production with the artist's spirit and genius. The art/work dealt with has been accepted as a development process that will be overcome with patience and caution, all the steps from the bottom to the top. The work/art should be presented without haste, based on rules and procedures that transcend generations. What matters is not quantity and abundance, but excellence and quality (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 373).

In the Ahi-order system, perseverance at work, avoiding work, changing jobs frequently, abusing the job given to him in the workplace was seen as immoral and a culture that respected work was created (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 373). Morality derives from hard work and the burden of society should be carried. Since the Ahi community is also a professional organization, it is impossible to become an ahi by not having a job, wandering around or living on the backs of others, and not doing the job well is the reason for being removed from the ahi order (Burgazi Fütüvvetnamesi cited in Doğan, 2006:57).

Among the elements that make up the social structure, instead of prioritizing a dominant class, such as the nobility, bourgeois, bureaucrats and clergy, the Ahis prioritized a segment based on social strata based on productivity (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 366). The belief that "the real owner of the property is only Allah" in the Ahi organization led its members to the principle of "sharing what they have and taking care of the poor." Belief in the hereafter, reminding the transience of the material world, provides constant self-control but also does not allow them to ignore this world. In contrast, laziness was condemned and working and producing were accepted as basic moral principles. The aims of the Ahi organization, which aims at the socio-economic order of society, are summarized as follows: (1) to educate people to make them productive and beneficial to the society, (2) to provide and protect a moral working environment, (3) to establish

a socio-economic balance in society with an understanding of solidarity based on trust (Büyük and Keskin, 2013).

Stating that the moral function of the Ahi associations comes first and that they are a school of morality, Güllülü divides Ahi morality into two formal and informal morality. While formal morality can be found in almost all the Fütüvvetnames, informal ahi morals are behavioral patterns derived from the necessity of professional ethics and solidarity (Güllülü, 1977: 93–100). These behavioral patterns **were determined by customary authority**. The general principles in the regulation of work ethics are as follows:

An Ahi must have a job, especially an art, to evaluate his labor.

An Ahi should deal not with a few jobs or arts, but with a single job or art that best suits his abilities.

An Ahi should be honest and should not transgress to earn more than he deserves with his efforts.

An Ahi should be deeply committed to all elders, from the traditional masters of his craft or art to his own master and should take them as an example in his art and behavior.

An Ahi should help the poor and the unemployed with the remainder of his income (Güllülü, 1977: 92–108).

Separate Futuvvetnames are available for each profession and they contain the principles of that profession and the rules of professional ethics. **First of all, Ahi must earn halal, have modesty and have self-control**. The matters prohibited in the trade ethics of the Ahis are as follows: 1. You shall not sell fraudulent and rotten goods. 2. You will not get more money from the customer. 3. You shall not imitate someone else's property. 4. You shall not use broken scales. 5. You will not produce fake and poor-quality goods (Selvi, 2016:28). These rules were demanded to be followed meticulously, and those who did not abide by them were punished **if they were detected**.

Also, some personal characteristics prevent being an Ahi in advance. People with these characteristics are listed as follows: Those who are not good and right in every place and in every business (2) Those who do not help others, who are a burden to them. (3) Unbelievers, fortune tellers and magicians, liars, hunters who hunt during the breeding period of animals, thieves, swindlers, ruthless, show-offs, black marketers, **and those** who put their interests ahead of the public's.

'iddihar', which means **to accumulate** wealth/money, was also condemned among the Ahis. According to this, each ahi could not keep **idle** more than 18 silver coins after meeting their own needs. He would give more than this money to the **common/mutual chest**. The money accumulated in this ballot box **was used** for providing capital to professionals, marriage, illness, death, etc. It was used for social charity in times of need (Demirez, 2003). Thus, a social security environment was provided to persons through **the common/mutual chest**. **By providing financial and moral support to the person in cases of disability, death, natural disasters, and difficulties in starting a business and learning a job, they saved the person from loneliness, provided moral support with an atmosphere of solidarity, and thus performed a social service task that contributed to the welfare of the individual and the society** (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004: 367).

4.2 Cooperation Dynamics Against Conflicts

Maintaining peace and order in a society is also a matter of morality. It is impossible to talk about harmony and peace in a society where each individual prioritizes himself and where economic interests' conflict. In this sense, the Ahi community **tried to establish** the social and economic order and the awareness of duty and responsibility (Demirpolat and Akça, 2004:371-

372). It has the appearance of an institution that teaches, develops and, when appropriate, supervises this sense of duty and responsibility.

There is no discrimination between people in Ahi morality. Ahi culture recommends treating everyone fairly, regardless of religion, language, ethnic identity, skin color, or gender. The violation of these principles is punishable by sanctions. For example, sellers who defraud Christians and Greeks and over-price counterfeit goods are punished (Büyük and Keskin, 2013:7). However, it is impossible for non-Muslims to join the union. The discrimination mentioned here is the absence of segregationism in service delivery.

The Ahi organization brought general morality and business ethics to the Turkmen masses while providing them a profession in the Anatolian geography they had just come from. They have experienced living together with different religious and ethnic groups, especially in the society, they have just come from. Such characteristics as “tolerance toward the people due to their Creator, behaving morally even toward those committing evil deeds, abstaining from evil words and practices, lack of discrimination in practice and benevolence, avoiding flattery to the rich people due to their wealth and spending time together with the poor” (Ünsür, 2017:93) are recommended for human beings in the Ahi Futuwatnames. These merits indicate the positive effects of the Ahi culture on harmonious life with the “outsiders” who are not considered as an integral part of the society.

Conclusion

Futuvvetnames includes moral teachings written by virtuous and knowledgeable people to ensure social order and trust, and to guide individuals on the way to becoming a perfect human being.

Ahi Evran came to Anatolia as a representative of the futuwwa organization. He applied good manners and virtues, the rules of morality revealed by the Fütüvvet tradition, to professional life and in all areas of life. In the work ethics of the Ahi community, the profession has been accepted as a moral issue and an economic one. Akhism emerged during the Islamisation process in Anatolia, at a time when sects were common. Although it emerged in the form of a closed sect, it played an important role in the Turkmens, who had just settled in Anatolian geography at the time of its emergence, both in transitioning to a settled life and in having a profession and work ethic. The main goal of moral education in the Ahi order was to raise good people and to provide them with a profession.

While Ahi Evran was establishing Akhism, three important features of him came to the fore apart from the organizational dimension. The first of these is the scientific aspect. The second is the professional or educational aspect, and the third is the philosophical/wisdom aspect. Ahi Evran's rationality stands out against the intuitionism of his contemporary Mevlana (Bayram, 1991). Akhism, which cares about using its resources rationally, has accepted not working and laziness as immoral within the framework of this principle and has made it a life philosophy to earn money without being a burden to others by applying the principle that everyone should have a profession. Because, in the understanding of Akhism, the way to be a good person is not only to have knowledge but also to apply what you know. Akhism, founded by Ahi Evran, differs from other sects of its time in that it sees work discipline and work ethics as religious responsibility and worships. As a result, the Ahi community is accepted as a community that has economic goals based on social responsibility and morality.

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Monetary Policy and Output Gap in Turkish Economy

Gökhan Oruç ÖNALAN¹

Introduction

According to the result reached through the aggregate demand – aggregate supply (ad-as) model, money is biased in the short run and neutral in the long run. In that case, while a possible monetary change affects the output level and employment capacity of the economy in the short term, it also raises the inflation rate, while it does not affect the output level and employment capacity in the long run, it only causes an increase in the inflation rate (impartiality of money).

Contrary to the short-term economy, there is no trade-off between the output level - employment capacity and the inflation rate in the long-term balance. While the level of output is determined by aggregate demand (money supply) in the short run, it remains at the potential level in the long run. potential revenue; labor is determined by capital and the total factor productivity (level of technology) that transforms labor and capital input into output.

The short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers. However, in the long run, the ultimate determinant of the inflation rate is the excessive increase in money supply (total demand). Therefore, the increase in money supply not only determines inflation (quantity theory of money), but also results in an increase in the nominal interest rate (fisher effect).

In the long-term balance, monetary policy makers are compelled to slow down the increase in money supply in order to combat inflationary trends. In other words, whether the inflation rate will be allowed to rise or whether the inflation rate will be kept at a low level is determined by the monetary policy actions carried out by the central banks.

Central Banks control the short-term nominal interest rate (the average cost of the short-term funds they provide to the banks through various channels within the scope of the system's funding needs) within the scope of the interest rate targeting, which was first implemented by the New Zealand central bank in 1990 due to the negativities brought about by the monetary targeting framework in monetary policy management. They try to control the expected real interest rate, thereby controlling aggregate demand (credit growth) and ultimately the economy's long-run inflation rate.

The modern phillips curve (dynamic aggregate supply) equation reveals that the short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers. The most striking of these variables is the output gap. In the capitalist economic system, there is always full employment of an economy. In this respect, the level of real gross domestic product (real GDP) in an economy when full employment (unemployment equals natural unemployment), that is, long-term balance is in question, is referred to as potential real gross domestic product (potential GDP), or in short, full employment product. The difference between

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the real output level of the current period and the potential real output is defined as the output gap (output gap). In the literature of the study, domestic and foreign sources were used.

METHOD

First of all, as a social science, economics tries to find a balanced response between the economic demands of people and the resources that serve to meet these demands. For this purpose, he makes many observations on economic decision units, and as a result of his observations, he determines that economic actors exhibit similar behaviors in the face of similar events and sets out some economic laws within the framework of economic theory. However, these laws, which are revealed within the framework of the observations and determinations of the science of economics, indicate the existence and direction of the economic relations of the decision units, while keeping quantitative measurements out of the analysis. As a result of this, it is reached the fact that the economic theory examines the ongoing connections between economic variables and the economic framework laws covering these connections in general terms, rather than expressing them precisely by means of numbers, and in summary, it cannot reveal anything other than the economic tendency (Gökçen & Tatođlu, 2016).

Of course, it is also possible to express in a mathematical form the economic determinations for the decision units that are put forward by observation within the framework of economic theory. In this context, the establishment and formulation of a model in accordance with economic theory is called mathematical economics. In that case, although the science of mathematical economics is not fundamentally different from the theory of economics, it differs in the context of showing verbal expressions by means of mathematical symbols. In other words, the verbal explanations of economic theory are made by using mathematical expressions and symbols in mathematical economics. It is understood from all these that the science of mathematical economics, which expresses the demonstration of economic theory by means of mathematical patterns, is also a discipline that does not apply to quantitative measurements. In order to say something about the strength of the economic relations, that is, the quantitative size of the model parameters, the data belonging to the mathematical model should be collected by statistical methods and the variables of the model should be expressed in numbers. Thus, by means of econometric estimation methods, the coefficients reflecting the relationships between the variables that can be expressed using numbers in the form of a model can be estimated (Tatođlu, 2020).

The summary of what has been said so far, that is, the verbal expression of the economic theory by means of mathematical methods and numbers - the branch of science used is called quantitative economics. So quantitative economics; It puts the science of economics into a mathematical framework by using the branches of statistics, mathematics and econometrics, and tests the numerical values of the parameters that reflect the relationships between the variables in the model, so that the severity and direction of the relationships between the variables can be measured in a quantitative context.

However, despite all these positive features, the quantitative economic model cannot be fully accepted as an economic policy model. The economic policy has some pre-determined goals, which in order to reach these goals, it is researching which instruments to use and at what level. In other words, it is the targets that determine the instruments. Therefore, quantitative economic models, in which instruments are predetermined and set targets, differ from quantitative economic policy models within this framework. In quantitative economic policy models, the existence of one or more alternative targets may be in question. In this framework, the relationships between the targets and tools in the model as measurable values are handled within the framework of the mathematical model, and the influencing and affected elements are designed as two separate variable groups. The main structure that constitutes the relationship between the variables of

quantitative economic policy models is expressed as equations or a system of equations, and statistics, mathematics and econometrics sciences are used in model estimation.

The last issue to be addressed in the framework of quantitative research is balance analysis. Within the framework of the equilibrium mechanism, which is called the fact that the economic variables do not have a spontaneous tendency to change in order to change the situation, if some variables affecting an economic event are considered constant, partial equilibrium analysis is performed, and if all variables are considered constant, general equilibrium analysis is performed.

In this study, progress was made within the framework of the quantitative economics discipline, and the effect of demand conditions on the determinants of inflation in the Turkish Economy was observed by using the Hodrick-Prescott Filter method, one of the econometric modeling methods, for the $\Lambda=100$ value.

1. Potential Output

In a capitalist economic system, there is always full employment of an economy. In this respect, the level of real gross domestic product (real GDP) in an economy when full employment (unemployment equals natural unemployment), that is, long-term balance is in question, is referred to as potential real gross domestic product (potential GDP), or in short, full employment product. The difference between the real output level of the current period and the potential real output is defined as the output gap (output gap).

2. The AD-AS Model

The ultimate determinant of the inflation rate in an economy in the long run is the excessive increase in money supply (total demand). The analytical tool of this framework in the context of fluctuation theory is the aggregate demand and aggregate supply model. The static aggregate demand - aggregate supply model, which examines whether there is a trade-off between inflation and unemployment rate, that is, the course of the effect of a possible monetary change on inflation and unemployment rate, has three important assumptions. The first assumption of the model; adopting the general price level approach instead of the inflation rate. The second assumption of the model is that a possible monetary change by central banks, that is, monetary policy governance, will be made through monetary targeting rather than interest rate targeting. In this context, it is accepted that by controlling the nominal money supply, the central bank tries to determine the course of the inflation rate, which ultimately takes place in the long run, in aggregate demand. The third assumption of the model is that the realized and thus expected inflation rate is at such a low level that it can be neglected. In that case, the real interest rate, the expected real interest rate, and the nominal interest rate are approximately equal to each other.

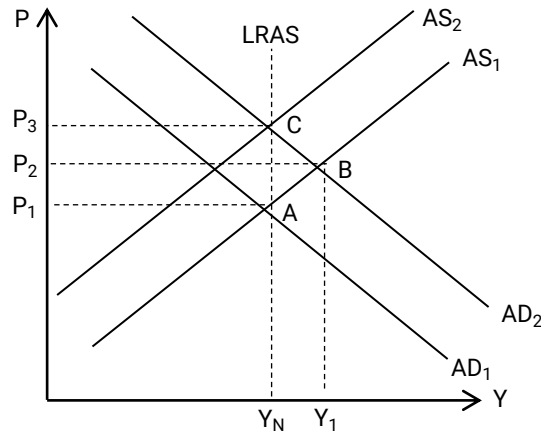
$$r_t = i_t - \pi_t \rightarrow r_t^e = i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} \rightarrow \pi_t \text{ ve } E_t \pi_{t+1} \text{ neglected} \rightarrow r_t = r_t^e = i_t$$

Therefore, in the model, it is accepted that investment expenditure varies depending on the nominal interest rate. The aggregate demand curve in the context of the static aggregate demand - aggregate supply model is negatively sloped, like the individual demand curve. But the idea behind the individual demand curve is the substitution and income effect. On the other hand, the reason for the negative aggregate demand curve is that the change in the general price level affects the real money supply, thus affecting the nominal interest rate, and adversely affects the planned investment expenditure (Dornbusch & Stanley Fischer, 2001).

The short-run aggregate supply curve has a positive slope. The reason why the short-run aggregate supply curve is positively sloping is that when the expected general price level is constant, the real wage rate is smaller than the targeted real wage rate as a result of the increase in the general price level, thus increasing the demand for labor, employment and output. Within the Sticky Wage Model developed by Stanley Fisher, one of the founders of the New Keynesian School of

Economics, in 1977, it is accepted that the nominal wage rate is determined in the collective bargaining agreements signed between workers and companies and is fixed throughout the contract period (between 2-3 years) (Balino, 1985).

Figure 1 - Short Term Price Performance



Accordingly, in the sticky wage model, nominal wages can rise/fall by adapting to changing economic conditions (changes in supply-demand conditions), but only in the long run. The nominal wage rate is sticky in the short run and perfectly elastic in the long run. On the other hand, companies and workers who agree on the nominal wage rate determined during the period of collective bargaining agreements do not know how the inflation rate will progress in the future during the signing of this agreement, and they make a prediction about the future inflation rate. Therefore, at this stage, workers and firms that do not have a money dream can actually agree on a certain nominal wage rate, and in fact, the expected inflation (π^e) will reach the targeted real wage (w_T) thinks they will reach it .

$$w_T = \frac{W}{\pi^e}$$

After the determination of the nominal wage limit with the collective bargaining agreement, the companies learn the actual inflation " π ". As a result, the real wage for firms can be expressed as follows.

$$\frac{W}{\pi} = w_T \times \frac{\pi^e}{\pi}$$

According to the equation, the difference between expected and actual inflation will allow real wages to differ from the targeted real wages. When the actual inflation rate is greater than the expected inflation rate, the real wage rate is smaller than the targeted real wage rate, and when the actual inflation rate is lower than the expected inflation rate, the real wage rate is greater than the targeted real wage rate (Blanchard, 2006).

It is accepted that only nominal wages are determined within the scope of collective bargaining agreements within the sticky wage model and that the unions will supply as much labor as the firms want at this nominal wage rate, that is, the employment level is determined by the firms. In that case, the inflation realized as a result of the increase in the inflation rate will be greater than the expected inflation. Because nominal wages are expected to be sticky in the short run, which means that the inflation rate is fixed in the short run. When actual inflation is greater than expected inflation, the real wage rate will be less than the targeted real wage rate. Thus, firms will

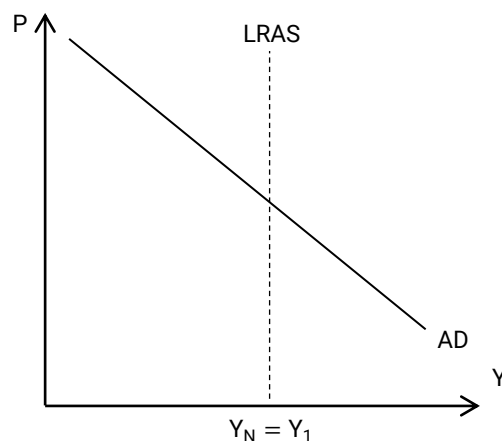
employ more individuals and the level of output will increase. Consequently, the short-run aggregate supply curve has a positive slope (Parkin, 2011).

The economy is initially in equilibrium at point "A" where the curves AD_1 - $SRAS_1$ intersect. The current real product level is equal to the potential real product level and the underemployment rate is equal to the natural underemployment rate. Let it be assumed that an increase in the aggregate demand level occurred within the first period and the aggregate demand curve shifted to the right from its current position (AD_1) to its new position (AD_2). The increase in demand will cause the elastic price level in the goods market to rise from P_1 to P_2 . Thus, over the nominal wage rates of W_0 signed between enterprises and workers and fixed throughout the contract period, the real wage is W_0/P_1 from the level $\frac{W_0}{P_2}$ (Lucas, 1972).

The existence of this situation leads to an increase in the number of personnel that the companies want to employ until the next contract period, thus increasing the level of employment and output. Because at this stage, the level of economic activity is Y_1 at the point "B" where the AD_2 - $SRAS_1$ curves intersect. The underemployment rate at point "B" is smaller than the natural rate of underemployment. (Fischer, Long-Term Contracts, Rational Expectations, and the Optimal Money Supply Rule, 1977)

Since the signed collective bargaining agreements are fixed for two or three years on average, the workers who act in accordance with the rational expectations hypothesis will sign a contract at the nominal wage rate of W_1 at the end of the period. Thus, the short-run aggregate supply curve $SRAS_2$ shifts to the point "C", where the economic AD_2 - $SRAS_2$ curves intersect with the $LRAS$ long-run aggregate supply curve. On the "C" point, the potential revenue will reach Y_N size again and will operate in the capacity of natural underemployment. Here, an important result mentioned at the beginning will become public again. Employment and output are dependent on prices (the general level of prices) in the short run but independent of prices in the long run (Parkin, 2011).

Figure 2 - Long Term Price Performance



Thus, the long-run aggregate supply curve will also be vertical. Thus, the ultimate determinant of inflation in an economy in the long run is excessive increases in the money supply (total demand).

3. The Quantity Theory of Money

The short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers. However, in the long run, the ultimate determinant of

the inflation rate is the excessive increase in the money supply (total demand), and the analytical tool of this causality is called the quantity theory of money (Mankiw, Macroeconomics, 2016).

$$MV \equiv PQ$$

The term M on the left side of this identity, which is also called the equation of exchange, indicates the amount of money available in the market as of a certain year. The term V, which is called the velocity of money, shows how many times the amount of money (M) available in the market for a given year is used in the relevant year to buy the nominal revenue of that year. The velocity of money is then equal to nominal output divided by the money supply.

$$V = \frac{\text{Nominal Output}}{\text{Money Supply}}$$

Looking at identity from this perspective, it will be seen that the right-hand side of the exchange equation is equal to nominal output. Such that, while the term P indicates the price level in a certain period, the term Q expresses the amount of final goods and services produced, and as a result, the product of the price level in a certain period with the amount of final goods and services produced in that period gives the nominal gross domestic product.

$$PQ \equiv \text{GDP}$$

Since the equation of change is an identity, it is always true. Accordingly, it cannot be falsified. For this reason, as it should be noted, the equivalence symbol is used instead of the equality symbol in the notation. Therefore, it does not contain any causal relationship (Ünsal, 2017).

$$MV \equiv PQ$$

In the equation of exchange, there is no distinction between dependent and independent variables. Then, when some additional assumptions are added on the framework of the equation of exchange, the quantity theory of money will be obtained. First, the rate of circulation of money (term v) is fixed as it is determined by the practice of payment, economic regulations, and institutional factors such as the cost and return of holding money in place of other assets, etc. Since the economy operates at full employment output (potential output) in the long-run equilibrium, the amount of final goods and services produced is also fixed here (European Central Bank, 2019).

$$V = V_0 \quad \rightarrow \quad Q = Q_0$$

After these assumptions, two variables whose value is not constant will remain, and the third assumption adopted during the transition from the equation of exchange to the quantity theory of money is the causality aspect of these variables. Then the cause-effect relationship is from the amount of money to the price level. With the demonstration of these three basic assumptions on the equation of exchange notation, the quantity theory of money is obtained.

$$M V_0 = P Q_0$$

The money supply determines the price level, if the money supply increases at a certain rate; price level rises at the same rate. (Money growth rate " $m=\pi$ ")

4. Fisher Qquation

The short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers. However, in the long run, the ultimate determinant of the inflation rate is the excessive increase in money supply (total demand). Thus, the increase in money supply not only determines inflation (quantity theory of money), but also results in an increase in the nominal interest rate (fisher effect) (Burda & Wyplosz, 2001).

Since money is an insignificant tool in marginalist economic thought, it is not included in its basic principles. On the other hand, neoclassical economists Johan Gustaf Knut Wicksell, Irving Fisher and Ralph George Hawtrey drew attention to the role of money in the economic framework and integrated monetary analysis into economic theory. Therefore, to understand the Fisher effect, which was put forward by one of the neoclassical economists, Irving Fisher, is to write the formula for the expected real interest rate (Fisher, 1930).

On the other hand, when the economy reaches long-run equilibrium, the actual inflation rate is equal to the expected inflation rate ($\pi^e = \pi$). In that case, the expected real interest rate in the long-run equilibrium is; It will be equal to the difference between the nominal interest rate (i) and the actual inflation (" π "), as well as the realized real interest rate (r) (Colander & Gamber, 2002).

$$r^e = i - \pi^e \quad \rightarrow \quad r^e = i - \pi^e = r$$

Since the economy operates at the potential output level when the economy is in long-term equilibrium, the real interest rate will return to the level of the real interest rate (" r " - " N "), that is, the long-term neutral real interest rate, which ensures that the economy is at its potential and will remain constant at this level.

$$r_N = i - \pi, \quad i = \overline{r}_N + \pi$$

On the other hand, as it is revealed within the framework of the quantity theory of money, in the long-run equilibrium of the economy, the inflation rate is equal to the nominal money supply growth rate. (" $m = \pi$ ")

$$i = \overline{r}_N + m$$

So, the nominal interest rate in an economy operating in long-term equilibrium, where the real interest rate is constant at the level of the real interest rate (long-term neutral real interest), which ensures that the economy is at its potential; will change exactly with the rate of inflation (nominal money supply). Accordingly, when there is a 20% change in the rate of inflation, the nominal interest rate will increase by 20%, which is called the "fisher effect" (Mishkin F. S., 2013).

5. Monetary Policy

Central Banks control the short-term nominal interest rate (the average cost of the short-term funds they provide to the banks through various channels within the scope of the system's funding need) within the scope of the interest rate targeting, which was first implemented by the New Zealand central bank in 1990 due to the negativities brought about by the monetary targeting framework in monetary policy management. They try to control the expected real interest rate, thereby controlling aggregate demand (credit growth) and ultimately the long-run inflation rate of the economy (TCMB, 2013).

In the interest rate targeting regime, in case of any deterioration in the inflation outlook, the Central Banks tighten the policy by raising the short-term nominal policy interest rate, and the tightening monetary policy slows down the economic activity by reducing the total demand capacity in the short run (Romer, Keynesian Macroeconomics without the LM Curve, 2000).

On the other hand, implementing a tightening monetary policy targeting price stability can also reduce the long-term nominal interest rate by reducing future inflation expectations and the risk premium of the economy, depending on the credibility of the policy move. In that case, since savings and investment decisions mostly depend on the long-term interest rate, the production capacity of the economy will eventually increase, as price stability will provide a low and predictable investment atmosphere with the establishment of a permanent decrease in inflation in the long run. In summary, such a step taken within the framework of monetary policy can be evaluated as an "expansive tightening" (Davidson, 2011).

The opposite of this scenario can also be considered. Accordingly, in the interest rate targeting regime, if the Central Banks do not tighten the policy by not raising the short-term nominal policy interest rate in case of any deterioration in the inflation outlook, or if they go for policy expansion by lowering the short-term nominal interest rate, such a policy step will increase the aggregate demand capacity in the short run. accelerates economic activity (Hoggarth, 1996).

On the other hand, implementing an expansionary monetary policy that breaks with price stability will also increase the long-term nominal interest rate by increasing future inflation expectations and the risk premium of the economy due to the lack of credibility of the policy move. In that case, since savings and investment decisions mostly depend on the long-term interest rate, the production capacity of the economy will eventually decrease, as inflation will reach an even higher level in the long run, and price stability will fall away from a low and predictable investment atmosphere. To sum up, such a step taken within the framework of monetary policy can be considered as a "constrictive expansion" (Barro, 1997).

So, the nominal interest rate in an economy operating in long-term equilibrium, where the real interest rate is constant at the level of the real interest rate (long-term neutral real interest), which ensures that the economy is at its potential; will change exactly with the rate of inflation (nominal money supply). Accordingly, when there is a 5% change in the inflation rate, the nominal interest rate will also increase by 5%. This framework, called the "fisher effect", has been detailed under its own heading. Banks benefit from the savings of domestic and foreign residents in order to allocate loans, which is their main function, and pay a deposit interest in return for the deposits they collect. The most important item in determining the deposit interest rate is the realization of inflation (Mishkin, Monetary Policy Strategy, 2009). In this case, banks have to pay an interest at least as much as inflation in order to withdraw the resources of the savers so that the purchasing power of the savers does not melt. When inflation rises, deposit rates; When deposit rates begin to rise, loan rates begin to rise. Ultimately, the nominal interest rate closely follows the changes in the inflation rate (Fischer, Price Stability, Financial Systems and the Role of the Central Bank, 2003).

The liquidity conditions of the financial system may fluctuate periodically depending on both global and local factors, and the system may have excess liquidity, and it is also possible for the system to fall into a liquidity deficit. So much so that even if there is a heterogeneous structure among banks in terms of their liquidity needs, it is a known fact that there is a net liquidity gap when the banking system is approached in a holistic framework. The liquidity provided by the central bank in order to close the net liquidity deficit of the banking sector is called the funding requirement of the system (SFI). The table shows the funding requirement framework of the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey (CBRT) system. Accordingly, the funding requirement of the system is affected by the monetary policy transactions that are due, the change in the monetary base, and the Turkish lira equivalents of the central bank and the public sector (Kara, Küresel Kriz Sonrası Para Politikası, Çalışma Tebliđi, 2012).

The CBRT meets the system's funding needs through net open market operations and Turkish lira swap transactions against foreign currency and gold. While the Bank meets the funding needs of the system through open market operations, it benefits from one-week repo auctions and overnight lending in Borsa Istanbul Repo-Reverse Repo Market as a policy intermediary. The interest rate applied by the bank in these transactions is called the one-week repo rate and the marginal funding rate, respectively. The net api size is reached when the total sterilization is deducted from the total funding made using open market operations (Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası (TCMB), 2018).

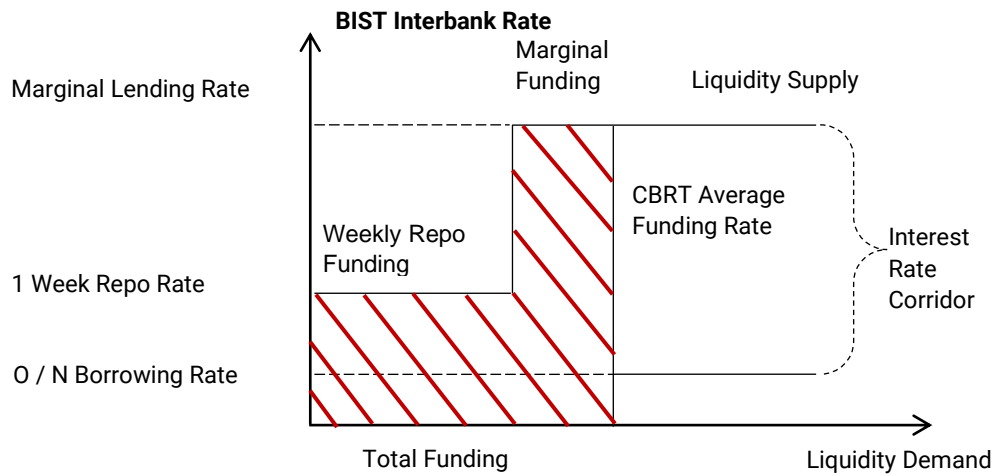
Table 1 – Funding Need of the System

Operation	Turkish Lira Liquidity	FNS
Due Monetary Policy Operations		
Due repo transactions	(-)	(+)
Due reverse repo sales transactions	(+)	(-)
Liquidity bond issuance / redemption	(-) / (+)	(+) / (-)
Due TL deposit purchase transactions	(+)	(-)
Due TL deposit sales transactions	(-)	(+)
Money Base (A)		
Currency in circulation increase / decrease	(-) / (+)	(+) / (-)
Free deposits increase / decrease	(-) / (+)	(+) / (-)
Transactions of the CBRT against the Turkish Lira		
Buying and selling foreign exchange	(+) / (-)	(-) / (+)
Interest payments / collections	(+) / (-)	(-) / (+)
Current expenditures	(+)	(-)
Rediscount credits	(+)	(-)
Buying / selling securities	(+) / (-)	(-) / (+)
Transactions of the Public against Turkish Lira		
TL security issuance difference (net)	(+) / (-)	(-) / (+)
Primary surplus / deficit	(-) / (+)	(+) / (-)
Customization and other operations	(-)	(+)

While the Bank meets the funding need of the system with Turkish lira swap transactions against foreign currency and gold, it utilizes weekly term gold and foreign currency Turkish lira quotation swap transactions, BIST swap market transactions and traditional method swap auctions as a policy intermediary. The CBRT adopts the one-week repo rate as the effective interest rate within the scope of swap funding (Kara, Küresel Kriz Sonrası Para Politikası, Çalışma Tebliđi No: 12/17, 2012).

In that case, the CBRT Average Funding Rate refers to the weighted average interest rate of the liquidity supplied to the market through net open market transactions (one-week repo and marginal funding) and swap funding, in other words, the average cost of short-term funds provided to banks by the CBRT within the scope of the system's funding needs. . In addition, banks and financial institutions can come together in the Borsa Istanbul Repo-Reverse Repo Market and exchange debt among themselves at an interest rate equal to the marginal funding rate realized by the CBRT in this market, except for the marginal funding provided by the CBRT in this market (Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası, 2016).

Figure 3 - Average Cost of Short-Term Funds



Thus, the BIST Overnight Rate is the weighted average interest rate of the liquidity given to the market over the debt transactions of the banks with each other and the marginal funding of the CBRT in this market, in other words, the marginal funding rate, in other words, the average cost of the short-term funds provided to the banks by the CBRT and banks within the scope of the system's funding need. means (Kara, Faiz Koridoru ve Para Politikası Duruşu, 2015).

Certain general facts about the average cost of the bank's short-term funds can be accessed through the statements made. Accordingly, if the CBRT meets all of the system's funding needs through one-week repo auctions, both the CBRT Average Funding Rate and the BIST Overnight Rate will be shaped around the one-week repo rate. As a matter of fact, since all interest rates will be at the level of one-week repo rate, the one-week repo rate will be referred to as the "policy rate". If the CBRT does not meet the entire funding need of the system with one-week repo auctions and also benefits from marginal funding, then the CBRT Average Funding Rate will be shaped according to the funding composition, while the BIST Overnight Rate will be shaped around the marginal funding rate (Kara, Küresel Kriz Sonrası Para Politikası, Çalışma Tebliđi, 2012).

Studies in the literature show that both the CBRT Average Funding Rate and the BIST Overnight Interest Rate have an impact on the monetary transmission mechanism by influencing the marginal loan cost of the banking sector, loan rates and loan growth in the monetary transmission mechanism in particular in the Turkish economy. In other words, the CBRT Average Funding Rate and BIST Overnight Rate reflect the average cost of short-term funds provided to the banking sector by the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey through various channels within the scope of the system's funding needs. Due to this reality, the bank aims to meet all of the system's funding needs with one-week repo auctions, and aims to shape the CBRT average funding rate and the BIST overnight rate around the "policy rate" as a one-week repo rate, thus providing banks within the scope of the system's funding needs in times of inflation. By raising the average cost of the short-term funds it provides, it plays a role in the transmission mechanism by influencing the marginal loan cost of banks, loan interests and loan growth over this cost, which is a reference. The CBRT uses reserve requirements as a supporting tool for the monetary transmission mechanism. The increase in the required reserve limit may limit the loan supply of banks and also affect the cost of resources. The characteristic of interest rate targeting can be emphasized within the framework of the Taylor principle and Taylor rule (Kara, Faiz Koridoru ve Para Politikası Duruşu, 2015).

6. Taylor Rule

Taylor's principle is that when the inflation rate increases by 1%, for example, the central bank increases the short-term nominal interest rate by more than 1%. Taylor's rule, which aims to explain how they react, is a prerequisite for price stability. Policy makers of a central bank adopting the Taylor rule, real output (Y) potential level Y_N ; When the current inflation rate (" π ") is also greater than the targeted inflation rate (" π^* ") it will raise the short-term nominal interest rate (i).

$$i = \pi + \beta [(Y - Y_N)/Y] + \delta (\pi - \pi^*) + r^*$$

$$i = \pi + \beta y + \delta (\pi - \pi^*) + r^*, \quad y = [(Y - Y_N)/Y]$$

$$i = (1 + \delta) \pi + \beta y + r^* - \delta \pi^*$$

In Taylor rule notation, the term i represents the short-term nominal interest rate and the term " r^* " represents the long-term neutral real interest rate. The " β " and " δ " parameters show how much the central bank changes the nominal interest rate when real output and actual inflation change. Studies in the macro literature show the long-term neutral real interest rate in the 2% band in the United States economy and reveal that each of the " β " - " δ " parameters is 0.5. Accordingly, the expression of the monetary policy rule in the United States economy will be as follows (Orhan & Erdođan, 2007).

Taylor kuralı, amerikan merkez bankasının (fed) takip ettiđi operasyonel hedeflerden bir tanesi olan kısa vadeli nominal faiz haddine iliřkin takip ettiđi politikayı anlamlı olarak yansıtmaktadır. Bařka bir deyiřle, $\delta > 0$ olduđu sürece Taylor kuralı, Taylor prensibine uyum sađlayacaktır.

7. The Determinants of Inflation in Turkish Economy

The short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers. However, in the long run, the ultimate determinant of the inflation rate is the excessive increase in money supply (total demand). Therefore, the increase in money supply not only determines inflation (quantity theory of money), but also results in an increase in the nominal interest rate (Fisher effect).

The modern Phillips curve (dynamic aggregate supply) equation reveals that the short-run determinants of inflation are aggregate demand, aggregate supply and expectations of economic decision-makers.

$$\pi_t = \pi^e + \phi (Y_t - \bar{Y}_t) + v_t$$

Basket exchange rate developments, food prices and the pricing behavior of the real sector within the framework of the determining actors of inflation are the main reasons for the structural inflation problem that has been observed in the Turkish Economy for many years. (Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası (TCMB), 2021).

The depreciation of the Turkish lira is the main actor of inflationary problems. Accordingly, the policy step that is believed to be necessary within the framework of orthodox economic policy in order to prevent the depreciation of the Turkish lira is to try to attract hot money from abroad through high real interest rates. Thus, it is believed that exchange rates will decrease, the Turkish lira will appreciate, and eventually inflationary tendencies will decrease.

Of course, this method is capable of giving results much faster in order to control the inflationary tendencies in the Turkish Economy, and at the same time, the general public will believe that the economy is improving due to the decrease in exchange rates as a result of this step. However, a policy step to be taken in this direction will only deepen and postpone the structural

inflation problem to another period, instead of solving it. The reasons for this negative situation can be detailed.

High real interest rates, thus, a policy framework to be implemented within the framework of a low exchange rate will make economic growth unsustainable and far from providing a permanent increase in welfare. The hot money that comes to the country to benefit from high interest income causes the foreign exchange supply to become abundant, leading to the overvaluation of the Turkish lira and an increase in import demand, causing a decrease in domestic value added (breaking the power of domestic production). So much so that the data obtained on the production form of the Turkish economy through the world input-output database reflects the intensity of imports, especially in the electronics, machinery and manufacturing industry sectors, in return for a thousand USD value added production.

On the other hand, while the foreign savings obtained are mainly used in the financing of imported consumer goods instead of fixed capital investments with relatively high efficiency; The real sector sector, too, thinks that the foreign savings flow will not come to an end, and acts comfortably, borrowing in foreign currency instead of Turkish lira due to the high interest rate applied, which increases the external debt stock faster than the nominal income.

The point reached greatly increases the sensitivity of the Turkish Economy to global liquidity conditions. In the context of this reality, what would happen if foreign investors stopped financing the economy's growing need for foreign savings (external debt)?

When such a possibility arises, exchange rates and naturally inflation rise, and on the condition of increasing real interest rates, foreign capital will be attracted and thus the exchange rates will be controlled. However, the increase in interest rates pushes the Turkish economy into recession and increases unemployment.

As an expected result, the current account deficit narrowed in this period. The improvement of the current account balance through high interest rates encourages foreign investors to lend to the Turkish Economy again, the Turkish lira appreciates with the increasing foreign exchange supply, import prices decrease, and the inflation rate declines with the positive reflection of the base effect. But later, the attainment of price stability at the local level mobilizes the domestic demand and puts the economy back into the cycle of foreign borrowing and the increase in the current account deficit.

Within the framework of macroeconomic stability, the policy step that will reduce the short-term external financing needs of the Turkish Economy as much as possible, thus causing a permanent surplus in the current account balance, is to implement a competitive exchange rate policy. In other words, the cause of the chronic current account deficit problem, which is the cause of macroeconomic instability in the economy, is the overvalued Turkish lira, which can only be prevented by allowing a competitive balance in the exchange rate.

According to the results estimated by the panel regression method using the data covering the years 1994-2012 in the working paper titled "An Empirical Analysis on the Import Coverage Ratio of Exports in Turkey" prepared by the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey, the real effective foreign exchange rate decreased by 1%, the export-import coverage ratio It increases in the band of 0.94% and 1.45%. Implementing a competitive exchange rate policy is not a policy step that will yield rapid results. Accordingly, as a reflection of the internal dynamics of the economy, due to the high level of the exchange rate in the transition and transformation period, the purchasing power of individuals will decrease and the consumption and saving habits of the society will change. However, it should not take a long time for the exchange rate to reach the competitive level and reach equilibrium. The fact that the rise in the exchange rate takes a long time and the volatility continue will make it difficult for the exporter sector to make cost and

pricing, and will reduce the social support for the economic model as it will continuously reduce the purchasing power of the households.

Finally, the capacity, supply, efficiency, etc. of the food sector. In addition to the steps to be taken within the framework of the policy, establishing competition and transparency in the markets are other important topics in the fight against inflation.

8. Output Gap in Turkish Economy

The current real product fluctuates over time, sometimes it exceeds the potential output (full employment real product), and sometimes it remains below the potential product. The highest level reached by the current real product over time is called the peak, while the lowest level is described as the bottom. Apart from this, the periods when the current real product tends to decrease; The periods in which it enters an upward trend are described as recovery. Within this framework, the two main factors that cause the current real product level to change over time are the change in the amount of production factors and the change in the utilization capacity of the production factors. The increase in the amount of production factors causes the economy to increase its economic activity capacity by producing more goods and services, thus causing the current real product to enter an increasing trend. However, even if the amount of production factors increases, these resources may not always be fully utilized. For example, the entire workforce cannot be utilized or machinery, equipment and factories cannot be operated at full capacity. In such a case, the current real product will decrease and remain below the potential revenue. In summary, while the amount of production factors increases, if the factors are fully used, the current real product will increase and on the contrary, it will decrease.

The difference between the annual current growth rate and the potential output (full employment real product) growth rate is called the output gap (output gap). Accordingly, if the annual current growth rate is greater than the potential output growth rate, the output gap will be positive. In periods when the output gap is positive, the labor force is employed above the full employment level, thus reducing the natural unemployment rate. At the same time, it is possible that the capital is operated above its full utilization capacity. Conversely, if the annual current growth rate is greater than the potential output growth rate, the output gap will be negative. In periods when the output gap is negative, the economy operates below the full employment level, so there is cyclical unemployment. At the same time, capital is employed below its full utilization capacity.

The economic activity capacity (production level) of the economy changes isochronously and simultaneously with the conjuncture waves. Employment capacity also changes isotropically and simultaneously with business cycles. The unemployment rate varies strongly with the business cycle. Since unemployment continues to increase even after the economy has hit its bottom level, a clear expression cannot be used in terms of timing. The money supply is isotropic in direction with the business cycle and is the leading variable in terms of timing. Accordingly, the inflation rate is a lagged variable in terms of timing isochronous in terms of business cycle waves. Nominal interest rate is the lagged leading variable in terms of timing isochronous in direction with business cycles (Bocutođlu, Makro İktisat, 2021).

In all economies where market capitalism is valid, conjuncture waves are experienced. In that case, because of the long-term full employment balance of the economy, the state should intervene in the economy by means of monetary and fiscal policy. The monetary policy carried out by the Central Banks is the steps taken to increase the production, income and employment level by controlling the money supply and to ensure price stability. There are three main instruments of monetary policy: open market operations, rediscount rate and reserve requirement ratio. Fiscal policy carried out by the government is the steps taken to increase production, income and

employment levels by controlling public expenditures, transfer payments and tax rate, as well as to ensure price stability.

To examine the long-term functioning of the economy, to examine the reasons for the emergence of economic growth, to search for policy proposals that can increase the rate of economic growth. However, as emphasized at the beginning of the chapter, the continuous increase in real output over time does not mean that the welfare level of each member of the society has increased steadily. From this point of view, the basis of the economic growth target is revised within the framework of the steady increase in the level of real product per capita over time.

Besides the deep disagreements of macroeconomists, there are four points on which they agree. Accordingly, money is biased in the short run and neutral in the long run. In that case, while a possible monetary change affects the output level and employment capacity of the economy in the short term, it also raises the inflation rate, while it does not affect the output level and employment capacity in the long run, it only causes an increase in the inflation rate (impartiality of money) (Moore, 1988).

Contrary to the short-term economy, there is no trade-off between the output level - employment capacity and the inflation rate in the long-term balance. While the level of output is determined by aggregate demand (money supply) in the short run, it remains at the potential level in the long run.

One of the approaches accepted within the scope of the process in the econometric literature is the approach that accepts the NAIRU level as a long-term trend and calculates it with the filtering method called Hodrick-Prescott.

Published in 1997 by Robert James Hodrick and Edward Prescott, (Hodrick & Prescott, 1997) they have proposed the approach in theory as the Hodrick-Prescott (HP) Filtering method in order to show the trend and cyclical components belonging to certain time series data and changing in a uniform form. The basic logic of this developed method is to solve the problem of minimizing the changes in the cyclical components within the scope of any time series data (Mills, 2003).

Within the scope of the Hodrick-Prescott (HP) Filtering method, under the assumption that the λ value is constant and the T value represents the number of observations in the analysis data, it is assumed that the y_t value is observed over the Y_t value ($Y_t = \mu_t$) the final form of the system of equations decomposed into stationary elements will be as follows;

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (y_t - \mu_t)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{T} \sum_{t=2}^{T-1} [(\mu_{t+1} - \mu_t) - (\mu_t - \mu_{t-1})]^2$$

Thus, it will become obvious that the most basic problem of the analysis to be made within the scope of the Hodrick-Prescott Filtering method is the selection of the μ_t trend series that will minimize the sum of squares. The obstacle to this situation is that the value of λ is constant. As a result, it becomes obvious that increases in the λ value will cause a flattening in the trend series. If the value of λ is equal to zero under all these realities, when the sum of squares is $y_t = \mu_t$, it will be at a minimum level and eventually the trend will be equal to the y_t level. In addition, in the probability that the λ value extends to infinity, the sum of the squares will only be found at the minimum level when the equality of $\mu_{t+1} - \mu_t = \mu_t - \mu_{t-1}$ is met. In such a situation, the change in the trend series will be constant and will exist in the form of a linear time series trend (Enders, 2009).

In the article content, which is the basis for this filtering method, the theoretical infrastructure of which was established as mentioned by Hodrick-Prescott, they declared that the λ value should be accepted as 1600 if the time series data under analysis covers quarterly periods, and the λ value

should be accepted as 100 if the analysis covers annual periods. . Because the smoothness of the filtered time series is shaped around the level being assigned to the value of λ (Ravn & Uhlig, 2002).

In this context, the Hodrick-Prescott filtering method was applied by using the values compiled from the Turkish Statistical Institute data set about the annual real product level of the Turkish economy between 1998 and 2020, through the EViews 11 program, in order to calculate the periodic variation of the output gap level in the Turkish economy. During the analysis of the Hodrick-Prescott filtering method, the λ value was accepted as 100, since the frequency of the data takes place annually. Results are shown in the table.

Table 2 – Output Gap in Turkish Economy

Term	Potential GDP	Output GAP
1998	646.529.975	64.227.363
1999	678.107.083	9.457.046
2000	710.326.465	24.908.133
2001	743.924.964	-50.966.403
2002	779.888.506	-42.249.903
2003	818.693.353	-38.543.118
2004	860.393.267	-3.820.011
2005	904.656.579	28.942.356
2006	951.113.419	47.351.859
2007	999.683.343	49.139.611
2008	1.050.759.424	6.611.694
2009	1.105.226.131	-98.853.649
2010	1.164.034.051	-72.853.510
2011	1.227.145.232	-13.751.264
2012	1.293.793.189	-22.295.940
2013	1.363.073.926	16.320.253
2014	1.433.860.483	13.671.840
2015	1.505.189.106	30.418.131
2016	1.576.232.759	10.404.000
2017	1.646.468.586	59.197.623

2018	1.715.477.772	41.015.332
2019	1.783.433.479	-11.314.874
2020	1.850.919.020	-47.016.556

By using the Hodrick-Prescott Filter method, one of the econometric modeling methods, for the $\Lambda=100$ value, the effect of demand conditions on the determinants of inflation in the Turkish Economy has been observed. Accordingly, with the exception of certain periods, it is observed that aggregate demand conditions put upward pressure on inflation in the 1998-2000 period. However, this reality does not necessitate ignoring the fact that the main determinant of inflationary trends is supply-side factors.

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The Impact of History Class on Making the High School Pupils Conscious of History¹

İlbey DÖLEK²

Introduction

Far beyond a class, History is an old discipline and scientific area, having a specific branch, yet it also attracts the attention of history lovers, thus, people fancy finding out history. The problems and teaching techniques of history have been discussed for years. In this study, it is debated if teaching of history makes the high school students conscious of learning it.

Teaching today is both complex and difficult. The diverse student populations in many schools, the disconnection between the ways that students use technology in and out of school, the urgent demand for public education that benefits all young people, and the explicit requirement for both higher standards and deeper learning combine to create a context for teaching that is unlike anything in the past (Willms, Friesen & Milton, 2009: 39). The fact that history lessons in Turkey are taught by a teacher without any active class participation causes students to consider it as a bunch of disjointed and sometimes unnecessary knowledge. While general knowledge of history covers comprehensive social events, local history refers to events which were experienced and felt, making students more interested in the subject (Akçalı& Arslan, 2007). Today's teachers are called upon to work with colleagues to design learning environments that promote deeper engagement in learning as a reciprocal process. Learning can no longer be understood as a one-way exchange where "we teach, they learn." (Willms, Friesen & Milton, 2009: 39).

History, as a term, refers not only to what happened in the past but also to the account of the past events, situations, and processes, etc. As one of the disciplines among social sciences, history represents accounts of multilayered and multifaceted human experiences across time and space (Yılmaz, 2008: 38). A well-prepared curriculum plays a very important role in the teaching of a course. The curriculum prepared by the Ministry of National Education for history classes expects students to gather historical data from numerous sources such as libraries, museums, collections, historical sites, historical photographs, newspapers, diaries, periodicals, documentaries, memoirs, results of population census, tax records, statistical compilations and economic indicators in order to improve research skills based on historical questioning (MEB, 2009). As can be seen above, the curriculum clearly suggests that students benefit from historical sites and ruins. However, the teacher who is going to apply the Curriculum plays a vital role here. A successful history teacher should revive history so that his/her students can visualize it. This is inarguably possible only when students examine historical ruins in immediate vicinity (Işık, 2010). Actually, it is required by the constructivist approach forming the basis of the student-oriented system which MNE put into practice in 2007. Secondary school curricula also attach importance to research and examinations on local history. In this respect, Curriculum of Social Studies for 6th and 7th grades gives the following information about Local History:

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It is important for children to learn their own history and that of their families. Students are excited when they understand that history encompasses the buildings and traces which they see on their way to school everyday. Our greatest source of information is the old within our society. Pictures, maps, published letters and diaries can also be used. More often than not, people in our society are willing to help others about local history. When children understand the materials belonging to the past, they develop ideas on their ancestors' social values, beliefs and life styles (MEB, 2005).

Method

In this study, it is debated if teaching of history makes the high school students conscious of learning it. This research was done in the city center of Kahramanmaraş during the 2013-2014 education year. In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data collection rates were used in accordance with the mixed method. Mixed methods research is viewed as the third methodological movement and as an approach it has much to offer for health and social science research. Its emergence was in response to the limitations of the sole use of quantitative or qualitative method and is now considered by many as a legitimate alternative to these two traditions (Louise, Anne-Marie and Gobnait, 2009: 175). Mixed methods may be defined as 'research in which the researcher collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study' (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007:4). The questions were asked to 166 high school pupils, studying at 4 different state schools, belonging to the Ministry of National Education. 93 of the students are male while 73 are female. Moreover, 9 history teachers working in these schools were interviewed, too. 25 questions were asked to the students. The outcome of the questionnaire was analyzed with the tables on the SPSS programme.

Findings

Do you like history classes? 121 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they liked history classes while 45 of them did not like. Students may often find historical topics and questions boring. Students will definitely find historical topics and problems interesting when they consider these as meaningful. Similarly, Bruner states that "There is no doubt that students will try to solve problems when they consider them as meaningful. However, most of the time, they are not ready or skilled enough to find problems and explore hypothetical aspects of their tasks." (Bruner, 1991). ***Why do not students like history lessons?*** Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 26 of them said that teachers were the main reason why they did not like history lessons. The rest of all 26 of them found themselves, 23 of them found exam anxiety, 26 of them found text books and 53 of them found education system responsible. Teacher behaviours are important in education. Effective teachers convey a warm and positive outlook such an extent that students feel at ease to approach them. The reason is that as a teacher, you serve as a parent in the school, and so you have to be approachable. When students like a teacher, they do very well in that teacher's subject, yet once you make yourself inapproachable, students lose interest in your subject (Boadu, 2015: 48). ***Do you think learning history is necessary?*** 152 out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey found learning history necessary while 14 of them thought that it is not. According to İlber Ortaylı pointing out that recent history is open to exploitation and manipulation, it is not possible to know recent history without having knowledge about ancient history. He was compared by commenting about recent history without knowledge about ancient history to giving a concert without knowledge of musical notes and argues that a real historian should know all aspects of history before they comment about it. Ortaylı has emphasized that by using different aspects of historical events you can create different histories and teaching wrong information about history can create big problems in a

society and can cause political crises in international relations.³ Similarly, history has a lot more to do with art than science in terms of the way the historian reconstructs or interprets historical events (Yılmaz, 2008:38).

Do you like reading history books? 80 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they liked history books while 86 of them said that they did not like. ***Do history textbooks make you like history?*** 142 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that history textbooks are insufficient while 24 of them found them sufficient. Textbooks are used as the main source in teaching the course. According to Kaymakçı (2017: 2165), history textbooks (35) took the first place among the subjects of theses prepared in the field of history teaching. As stated above, which explains this view: “Why do not students like history lessons?” 26 of them find text books out of 166 high school students. ***How often do you read history books?*** Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 9 of them read history books everyday, 18 of them once a week, 45 of them once a month, 49 of them twice a year and 16 of them read none.

Do you like visiting historical sites? Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 162 of them said that they like visiting historical sites. As far as local history is concerned, the students deal with their own ancestors' history, which excites them as positive or negative feelings are more dominant than neutral ones (Selçuk, 2009). Işık underlines the fact that academic success is higher when historical topics are associated with local history, and as a result, students' enthusiasm and interest, which cannot be measured in numbers, grow further. In addition, students who are interested in local history will show interest in their country's history as well (Işık, 2010), which makes them more sensitive to the preservation of historical elements. A study by Şahin has also suggested that studies on local history increase academic success and trigger student's interest in history classes (Şahin, 2011). Şahin also adds that students perform their tasks more successfully following a study on local history. ***Have you visited Germanicia mosaics which belong to Germanicia Mosaics in Kahramanmaraş?*** Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 38 of them visited mosaics belonging to Germanicia Mosaics while 128 of them said that they did not. If students' eagerness and interest are higher, they tend to succeed more in learning and remembering. Local history enables students to concretize various concepts mentioned in history classes and to understand their roles in daily life. Local history is where history gains a concrete identity and a visible appearance (Işık, 2008). Metin & Oran (2014) found similar results and stated that majority of teachers used local history teaching based activities in their classes. When richness of cultural and historical heritage environment in our country is considered, it is believed that history teachers can plan well and match these environments with purpose and gains of history class. According to Göksu and Somen's survey, history teachers were asked which activities can be organised under local history teaching in teaching process. History teachers stated that organising trips, project homework, research homework, model making, using libraries, exhibitions, museum visits, historical role playing can be organised under local history teaching (Göksu and Somen, 2019: 269). However, history teachers expressed some problems in education of local history, especially the curriculum, time constraints, crowded classes, finance, parent permission, etc. ***Have you visited Kahramanmaraş City Museum?*** Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 109 of them visited K.Maraş city museum while 57 of them said that they did not. According to Göksu and Sömen, history teachers should have sufficient data before museum visit. In order to benefit effectively from museums, which are of great importance for the teaching of social studies course as an out-of-school learning environment, teachers should have detailed information about such places, which would start from the pre-service period (2021: 1084). It is also important that official state institutions and non-governmental organizations support museum tours. Akçalı and Aslan list the limitations of local history education

³ “Recent History from Prof. Dr. İlber Ortaylı”, <https://yeditepe.edu.tr/en/recent-history-prof-dr-ilber-ortayli> (Erişim tarihi 18.11.2022)

as follows: local history requires developing new techniques, spending a considerable amount of time, a more skilled teacher, new measurement techniques and contributions of local organizations (Akçalı& Arslan, 2007). In the US, institutions such as National Register of Historic Places, which provides information as an archive center, National Park Service, which organizes sightseeing tours and activities with its 250.000 volunteers and National Trust For Historic Preservation, which pioneers organizations through directing and collaborating with teachers, help students to benefit from historical buildings as a part of extra-curricular education (Şimşek, 2003). However, similar activities are not sufficiently organized and effectively performed in Turkey. ***Have you visited Museum of Independence located in Kahramanmaraş Castle?*** Out of 166 high school students who participated in the survey, 113 of them visited Museum of Independence while 53 of them said that they did not. A study by Safran found out that only 3% of teachers were often held as sightseeing tours for history classes. Bal, similarly, states that only 7,4% of 94 history teachers visit a museum or a historical site with their students each semestre (Şimşek, 2009). These results suggest that history teachers do not often benefit from historical sites. Similarly, Safran and Ata state that extracurricular activities are only suggested by the Educational Board and left at the mercy of history teachers in Turkey due to the higher number of students and limited sources (Bal, 2008).

Do you think that Turkish people like history? 69 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that Turkish people like history while 97 of them said that they do not. ***Do you read biographies of historical figures?*** 87 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they read biographies of historical figures while 79 of them said that they do not. ***Do you watch historical films?*** 111 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they watch historical films while 55 of them said that they do not. ***Do you watch historical TV series?*** 115 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they watches historical TV series while 51 of them said that they do not. ***Do historical TV series make you like history?*** 83 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that historical TV series make them like history classes while 83 of them thought that they do not. ***Do historical TV series affect the society's view on history?*** 152 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that historical TV series affects the society's view on history while 14 of them said that they do not. In Öztaş's survey (2015: 17), history department students stated that the use of historical movies and TV series in the lessons made the lessons enjoyable. Stoddard (2012: 17) examines in his research the case study of teachers and students in two ninth-grade US that film can play a role as a "thoughtful" medium for teaching history. Historical films can play a role in the social studies classroom as a medium for teaching, learning, or even simply talking about history.

Are you willing to participate in historical studies/projects? 101 of 166 high school students who participated in the survey stated that they were willing to participate in historical studies while 65 of them were unwilling. ***Which historical age are you interested in?*** Out of 101 high school students who said yes to the question, 30 of them are interested in the Prehistoric Age, 24 of them in the Middle Age, 30 of them in the New Age and 17 of them in the Modern Age. ***In which historical period discipline would you like to be specialized?*** Out of 101 high school students who said yes to the question, 16 of them would like to be specialized in political history, 3 of them in the European history, 51 of them in the Turkish history, 28 of them in the world history and 3 of them in other ages.

Conclusion and Recommendations

As a result, it is clearly seen that the pupils have a prejudice to history, therefore it affects their behaviours negatively towards the lesson. It is observed that the present method and education system are insufficient for attracting the students' attention. Pupils are not interested in history due to the following reasons; education system, boring teaching technique, the negative effects of historical T.V series and movies, exam fear, subjective teaching technique, students not

being supported despite being keen on visiting historical places. It is necessary to talk about critical history as a new modern approach. As Güven stated (2018: 16), the more recent tradition is known as “critical history” and involves a different pedagogical approach and a different purpose of history as a school subject. Here, it is seen pupils in the role of active constructors of historical knowledge, through a combination of teacher instruction and various ways of working in the classroom. Historical knowledge is not simply passed on through memorization, but actively developed by pupils themselves through researching primary sources and questioning interpretations made by others. History teaching in the critical tradition aims at contributing to pupils’ historical identity and to their sense of history as an interpretative discipline. Also, Virtual Reality as a new technique can be used in history teaching. Dolek’s survey argues (2020) students' interest in the lesson and their desire for learning increased with the application of virtual reality. In accordance with the subject and purpose of the History of Religions course, it was seen that virtual reality glasses are appropriate and it would be beneficial to use virtual reality glasses the positive results in the processing of history courses have similar content.

Although 97,6% of the students stated that they liked visiting historical sites, 77,1% of these students did not visit Germanicia Mosaics, 34,3% did not visit Kahramanmaras City Museum and 31,9% did not visit Museum of Independence. These results indicate that students who like visiting historical sites do not actually visit those places very often. It is also evident that visiting historical sites (museum, ancient city, caves, etc.) within the scope of history classes is of vital importance.

Although 72,9% of students said that they liked history, the fact that many of them are not successful in history classes may be related to various problems in history education. Students may succeed more if history is taught with methods which will increase students' eagerness.

85.5% of the students thought that history textbooks do not make them like history classes. Survey results suggest that history textbooks are boring for students and do not trigger students' interest in history. 51 out of 101 students who are willing to participate in historical studies stated that they were interested in Turkish history. More information on this period can be added to history textbooks.

58.4% of all students who participated in the survey stated that Turkish people do not like history, which points to the existence of a general prejudice against history and can be directly associated with high school education that significantly influences one's adolescence. 31.9% of the students blamed education system for their disinterest in history.

66.9% of the students watch historical films while 69,3% of them do not watch historical TV series. 91.6% of the students thought that historical TV series affect the society's view on history. It is interesting that students like historical films, yet do not watch historical TV series. It is also evident that TV series have affected the people's view on history negatively. As a result, students are not interested in historical films, documentaries and books and find it boring to visit historical sites. 47% of the students who participated in the survey read a history book once a month or year while 9,6% do not read any history books.

91.6% of the students found history education necessary. However, interviews with the students indicate that they found history classes abstract, boring and far from visuality, which affects their success negatively. On the other hand, smart blackboards installed in some schools which participated in our survey have increased visuality in history lessons, and similarly, history teachers underlined that films, biographies of historical figures and excursions to historical sites are crucial in triggering interest in history classes and increasing students' success.

Students do not show interest in history lessons due to various reasons such as education system, boring classes, negative effects of historical films and TV series, exam anxiety, addresser's style and lack of objectivity, lack of activities in historical sites, prejudices against history and

complexity of the subject. Consequently, activities do not become sufficient and interest in history gradually decreases.

The following recommendations are presented based on the obtained results:

- We should give our historical figures as an example of a role model. We should be inspired by our own historical figures/heros.

- History should not be taught in a monotonous way and classes should be supported by various visual materials as well as active student participation. We recommend local archeological trips, museum visits, workshops and scientific education projects about local history teaching.

- Only those with a good rhetoric and knowledge of history should be history teachers. Since teacher-oriented classes lead to a disinterest on the part of students, they should be provided with research opportunities which will increase their knowledge and skills, they should perform presentations and they should be integrated into the course of classes.

- Reading or traveling? Dilemma should be removed as only reading will not be sufficient. Theoretical knowledge should be supported with visits to historical sites. An education model that reads while traveling is required nowadays.

- For a less boring and teacher-oriented class, classes may be performed in museums in accordance with the relevant topic. By using local history teaching in history classes, it can prevent classes can be prevented from being boring. Curriculum should support museum visits and using new techniques.

- More information of the Turkish history can be added to history textbooks. Oral history studies with local visuals and stories can be added to the textbooks.

- TV series which give unreliable information regarding the history should be abolished since they cause unfavourable opinions about history and create negative effects. On the contrary, movies and television series based on scientific facts are recommended.

- Students must be taught in places where historical events happened, which increases visibility. Students in vocational high schools cannot attach importance to social classes due to their heavy vocational curriculum. Therefore, the weight of social or cultural lessons must be increased in vocational high schools.

- History should not be taught in a cause-and-effect style and students must refrain from memorization. Theoretical knowledge should be supported by visual materials. Historical films and documentaries must be watched. Students should be provided with a sense of history rather than memorization. Films and TV series should make historical events more interesting.

- The way in which history classes are held in Turkey should change. Historical events must be narrated in the form of memories and stories instead of numerous details, which will help students get rid of a need for memorization. History teachers should be objective while addressing their students. They should not confuse students with their own ideas and should prevent students from adopting unreliable and incomplete ideas.

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Historicising the University: A Review of The University as an Institution and Idea

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Introduction

A university is not only an institution where the needs of individuals and society are produced and reproduced on the basis of information and knowledge but also, beyond this, it is a historical idea that changes from period to period and geography to geography. The re-interpretation of the university as a modern institution and idea reveals a vital framework to understand how on one hand, the image and role of the university have changed through time, and on the other, the power has used or misused it in accordance with the given agenda. The differentiation of the university in such an analytical manner creates a historical interpretation rather than a mere description of the same.

This chapter seeks to present the transformation of the university as a modern institution and idea from a historical point of view by applying process tracing. It aims to evaluate the changes in the university–state relations and its representation in three places, namely, France, Germany, and the United States. This section is divided into four subtopics, that is, the introduction and background of the university, history of the university, types of universities, and interpretation of the role of the university in society and politics. The paper further contains the discussion and conclusion. It is concluded that while mainstream debates and studies tend to address the university as an institution, this chapter claims that the university can be assessed as an idea shaped by its institutional usages within the historicity of power–education relations.

Most studies on the history of the university are centred on the institutional aspects of the subject and, most importantly, this mainstream approach tends to conceptualise the university without its link to power. However, this paper suggests that while the university, in an institutional sense, has changed through time in accordance with the social, political and economic climate of the given period, the idea of the university has been shaped by the shifts in the ruling power of the time. As it will be discussed in the following pages, the historicisation of the university in terms of administration and numbers of students and teachers suffers from the lack of considering the second aspect of the university, that is, the university may be considered as an idea rather than a set of buildings. This approach is significant in that the university and its role in society and politics have been an idea that either serves to build national identity and the national project or is apprehended by individuals as a source and mechanism of knowledge production with the new generations.

Based on this differentiation, the body of the study is divided into two sections, namely, the history and types of universities and institutions, and the role of the university as an idea. In the first section, I aim to present the history of the university by modelling it in the French, German and American moulds, considering their administration and function from a historical point of view. Following this, the role of the university and its mission given by power as well as how it has

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been used as an idea to modernise and nationalise the citizens is discussed. In conclusion, the university as an idea has been strictly influenced by the history of its institutional changes through time, and while the types of universities differ, it has been an idea that the power of a given time uses for personal gain.

Background: the university and state

The university as an institution has been at the centre of modern society and politics due to its ability to produce and reproduce societal needs. Although historically, the university goes back to the 11th and 12th centuries, the conception of the university in its modern form occurred in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. Like the nation-state and nationalism, the idea of the modern university is directly shaped by the historicity of modernisation. In this sense, the modern university and nation-state are both products of modernisation, and the histories of these two phenomena are not separable for various reasons. As a product of modernisation, the university is also a product of the rise of the nation-state, concerning national aspiration and civic culture (Campbell, 2014). As a social and political statecraft, the university has been implicit in the process of nation building through the production of knowledge. The idea of “singularity” of people in terms of language and culture on which the nation-state is built applies to the university as a centre where the history, language, consent and industrial needs are produced and constructed in accordance with the nation-building process. In addition to the needs of a nation, the university functions in symmetry with nationalisation by being identified as a tool for the creation of “good citizenship” in terms of moral obligation and loyalty to the state (Campbell, 2014).

The university formed by modernisation has manifested itself as the statecraft in the emergence of the new industrial economic order. It has been used in this new design to fulfil the industrial needs on the one hand, and been used by the state as a soul-craft, way to shape spiritual and mental beliefs, to provide values, morals and social bonding that are employed by the statecraft on the other hand (Wittrock, 1993). In this formulation, soul-craft can be understood as the education that produces the shared history, mutual obligation and socio-political needs in a given society. Hence, the evaluation of the university as a political instrument should be centred on the pragmatic relationship between industrialisation and nationalisation. In this interpretation, the university can be traced not only as a modern instrument but also as the institutionalisation of the national interests (Campbell, 2014).

The nation-state that has been at the heart of local and global politics in the sense of soul-craft has two main goals: national identity and the national project. The former, national identity refers to the loyalty and obligation towards the nation, and the creation of a sense of collective history as well as the common understanding of it (Campbell, 2014). It is vital to note that there is a close relationship between the national identity and national project. The former, however, may be understood with its link to the national project and, in fact, national identity is both the aim and reason of the national project. The common good and national identity are articulated within the national project. Similarly, both the national project and national identity provide contexts and tools to define national aspirations and common good, and how to grasp and pursue them. In other words, it can be argued that for the state, education through schools is the key to disseminate its policies and build social cohesion that aims to reach socio-economic development. The power, nation-state, has paid great attention to the university due to its capability to deal with social, ethnic and economic differences among society. It is worth arguing that pre-nation-state societies were mostly plural and horizontally unequal, where the differences and conflicts between ethnic groups were compounded by economic inequality. However, with the rise of nation-states, societies have been formed on the idea of singularity in terms of language and ethnicity. Contrary to the class differences based on the economy, in this new age, people are represented by the similarity that was produced and reproduced by the state. Shaped in this climate, the role of the university has

been translated into that of an apparatus that both produces the industrial needs as well as constructs the consent and respect towards the central symbols of the nation (Campbell, 2014).

The national project that uses the university as a tool for disseminating the sense of belonging has been implied for all nations across the globe to build and/or find the “grounded community” within its borders. Despite all the differences among nation-states, the university has been directly or indirectly defined as an institution that produces a sense of national belonging rooted in the history of nations at different scales in the last two centuries.

The history of the university in Europe: the medieval age and its universities

The organic relationship between the university and economy goes back to the late middle ages in Europe. The first and most well-known institutions in Europe, those in Paris and Bologna were directly influenced by mercantilism and bureaucratisation in the 12th century. During this time, the students were termed as “scholars”, and the professors and teaching staff were known as “masters”. It is also important to highlight that in this period, the universities had a close relationship with the church and state powers, and the priority of universities was teaching the young clerks in the wave of bureaucratisation (Scott, 2006). Despite the similarities, there were several differences between the universities of Paris and Bologna in terms of administration. At the University of Paris, the faculties were the main administrative entities. In the University of Bologna, on the other hand, the students led the administration, and this student governance approach lost its dominance by the late 1500s (Scott, 2006).

During the medieval age, the power, mostly the church, defined the mission and role of the universities. According to Chaplin, the mission of the medieval university was the pursuit of truth and learning in a power-driven area. In this environment, the university was supposed to produce doctors, judges and mediators of the political power, that is, the monarchs (Scott, 2006). The medieval universities had a different approach to the levels and subjects of higher education. In these universities, undergraduate students were required to study liberal arts, while the graduate students mostly studied law, medicine and theology (Scott, 2006). Similar to Paris and Bologna, the relationship between the powers and universities followed an identical pattern at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Both universities were chartered by the church and Pope and all forms of power, from the Pope to the dukes, and from the monarch to the local bishops influenced higher education (Scott, 2006). Even though the scholars and masters had clerical statuses as a result of being part of the church, especially in northern Europe, this did not necessarily indicate a strict control of the powers over the universities. Although the universities were a part of the religious authority, they also had the autonomy to decide their curriculum and drive the disciplinary rules. Most importantly, the universities had the right to strike (Burrige, 1970).

Despite the uncertain status of the universities and influence of the church during the medieval ages, they were, in fact, the roots of modernity. Haskins claims that “the medieval universities were the schools of the modern spirit” (Haskins, 1957, p. 25). To clarify his argument, it is important to keep the replacement of the scholastic philosophy with Aristotelian philosophy in mind. In contempt of the dominant power of the time, the church applied scholasticism in medieval European universities. Yet, these universities were also the centres of teaching and rational method that later turned into the intellectual centre of the Western Christendom, as in the case of the University of Paris (Scott, 2006).

The early modern age and its universities

The European universities, controlled by the church and monarchs for centuries, became tools in the hands of the nation-state starting from the early modern age. As the main power of high politics, the definition of the nation-state differs from scholar to scholar, and yet, by taking this difficulty into account, a nation-state may be defined as a “sovereign state with the defined

boundaries [that] includes people who share a common nationality” (Scott, 2006, p. 10). Here, it is significant that contrary to the pre-modern times, the people were not only classified by the religious and economic differences that existed for an undetermined duration but also a shared common history and identity. The idea of the nation-state that arose after the decline of the Pope’s influence and feudalism in the European continent created a shift among the power holders. Further, the exploration of the world, rise of nationalism, emphasis on individualism and, most importantly, the printing press strengthened the independent nation-state and its stronghold and authority. Although both the nation-state and university, in its modern sense, were the outcomes of modernisation, they were influenced by it in an asymmetrical pattern. Due to its dominance, the growth of modernisation created a more powerful state and at the same time, the strength of the state caused the loss of the semi-autonomy of European universities. The unequal development of the university and state followed the same pattern in several countries such as Spain, England, France and Italy, and more strikingly, the first German universities were launched by the secular powers. Later, these universities helped the German state to unify the German nation (Scott, 2006).

Shaped by such fundamental changes, the control of the state over universities had significant impacts on the mission of the European universities. The research, teaching and public service to serve the needs of the nation-state became more dominant in curriculums. In this climate, the relationship between the state and university was defined by the power in the 20th century. The university became an ideological tool in the hands of the power in Hitler’s Germany, Stalin’s Russia and Mussolini’s Italy. In the 20th century, the university became a place that not only served national needs but also was directly used by the state to win military conflicts, besides the role of nation-building. It should be kept in mind that the scientists who made atomic bombs and the chemical gas used to kill Jews and others were members of the universities at that time.

Going back to the early modern universities, it can be stated that while the medieval universities trained monarchical subjects, later, in the modern times, they trained republican citizens. Based on such interpretations, the state-protected university in the modern times safeguarded the state’s ideology and missions (Readings, 1996). Lastly, starting from the 15th century, the universities that led to the scientific revolution in the 17th century and enlightenment in the 18th century became the “ideological arm of the state” in the hands of the nation-states (Readings, 1996, p. 45).

Higher education in the 20th century

From the beginning of the 20th century, the relationship between the state and university was shaped by the ideological usage of the institution. Further, universities increased the popularity of the state among societies. The strength of nationalisation and race among nations in terms of industrialisation and modernisation led to a massive increase in the numbers of both the universities and students across the globe. At the beginning of the 1900s, the number of university students around the world was 500,000; by the late 1900s, it had reached over 100 million worldwide (Schofer, 2005). One of the main reasons behind such a rise in numbers was the institutionalisation of education, political changes and technological developments. Nonetheless, such changes were rooted in different bases. It is claimed that in third world countries, the reason for this surge was decolonisation; however, the influence of American democratisation and expansion of the universities were the main events that formed and led to the rise and institutionalisation of universities in Europe (Schofer, 2005).

After World War II, the political and social movements’ demands for civil liberties also included the right to higher education and the establishment of new institutions. This fact must also be mentioned as the reason for the expansion of the universities (Schofer, 2005). It also should be noted that national economic development, rationalisation and individual demands for specialised training and loyalty to the common culture that have been defined by Collins as

“traditional socio-economic functionalism” were the roots of the expansion of higher education in different parts of the world (Collins, 1971, p.48). It should be remembered that education is not only an ideological tool in the hands of power but also capital that directly impacts individual socio-economic statuses.

Bourdieu and Passeron argue that education became necessary in terms of social status and both groups and individuals competed vigorously to achieve and raise their social statuses through education (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). While the dominant classes in society strengthen and protect their position by educating their children, in societies where there is an ethnic competition among groups and individuals, such as Anglo-Saxons, Americans and immigrants, higher education expands more rapidly (Schofer & Evan, 2005). Unlike the pre-20th century in which the university was seen as a tool of nationalisation and industrialisation, the 20th century introduced a new use of the university, that is, scientification. In this period, while the university retained its role as an apparatus of ideology, it also twisted into a different mechanism that made the science of a given ideology.

Models of the university

It may be argued that historically, there have been three models of the university, namely, French, German and American that have been implied in one way or another in different parts of the world. Such a classification is based on the functions of the university and its relationship with the state concerning the administration, form of curriculum and mission given to the university as a modern institution. In this part of the study, these three models will be analysed and compared to demonstrate how the state–university interaction worked and shaped the university autonomy.

French model

As it has been pointed out, in Europe, there have been two primary models of the university in terms of the state–institution relations, namely, the French and German models. The French university model demonstrates the impact of the political changes in the nation’s history. It is claimed that this type of university can be defined as “centralised and hierarchical” (Picard 2012, p. 156). Both its centralisation and hierarchical formation may be conceptualised as the total control of the state over the university. Here, it is important that contrary to the German model that was founded on the idea of the “research university” and “greater autonomy” from the public authority, the French model was directly under the influence of the political authority (Picard 2012, p. 158). Though these two models co-existed in Europe during the 19th century, the history of the French university, however, can be traced to the foundation of the University of Paris in the 12th century.

Despite its long history in France, starting from the University of Paris in the 12th century that was directly shaped by the religious authorities and monarchs under the Napoleonic area with the centralisation of the state, the university was re-established in the 19th century. After the French Revolution, the leaders of the revolution thought that universities were conservative and religious institutions that must be re-designed (Picard, 2012). The revolutionary approach to the universities led to suppression by the political authority and 10 years after the revolution, there was no university in France. After a decade of closure under the rule of Napoleon I, the university was reorganised at the beginning of the 1800s. As a result of this reformation, subjects such as law and medicine were first introduced to the curriculum in the universities. Following the expansion and re-definition of the university by Napoleon I, higher education was delegated to the imperial university, and it covered more than 35 academies by 1808. The idea of the imperial university not only referred to higher education but also secondary and post-secondary schools. According to Picard, with the imperial university, education was put under the total control of the political authority, which meant the appointment of the professors, determination of the curriculum and opening and closing of the faculty sessions was based on national interest (Picard, 2012). As he

argues, during this time, the academic autonomy was in the hands of the political authority rather than academics and the university as a centre of higher education (Picard, 2012).

With the impact of the industrial revolution and colonisation, while the university stayed under the absolute control of the political power, dozens of new universities were established in France and some of them remained open until the 1950s. In the 19th century, the university that was supposed to fulfil the nation's needs splintered into different faculties that catered to different requirements and was controlled by the ministry of education. The ministry was given the power to decide the budget, each diploma had to be approved by the minister rather than the university itself, and the minister also had the right to launch a new position for professors and assistants (Picard, 2012).

Before the re-establishment of the university in the 19th century, there was a small difference between teachers and their upper-secondary school counterparts in France, especially in arts and sciences. By the turn of the 20th century, the gap and differences between the two groups increased. They were both considered as civil servants, yet university professors were able to establish a system of peer reviewing by the end of the 19th century. The teachers were responsible for hiring their practitioners through their ranks. However, the ministerial councils were responsible for changes in their statuses. It seems that during the 19th and 20th centuries, professors had more autonomy than the university did as an institution. Historians and mathematicians had more importance than professors. Despite the long history of the French university, the modern university became distinct after its re-establishment in the 19th century. During the Napoleonic era, the universities were places of discipline, catering to the state needs without autonomy (Picard, 2012).

The above evaluation shows the histories of the university and nation-state are not separable, and the French universities were and are not an exception to this. In other words, it can be argued that any historical investigation of the university in its modern sense should eventually look at the history of the nation-state. In France, with industrialisation and urbanisation, the number of students and universities increased. Further, even though the First and Second World Wars had significant impacts on French politics and universities, the situation concerning the link between political power and the institution remained unchanged until the 1960s.

The first indication of the changes in these asymmetrical relations was seen in the second half of the 20th century, in the 1968 student movements. As a result of the civil liberties claimed across the globe by the 68ers, the political power was forced to reconsider the role of the university in France. With the reform in 1968, the disciplines were regrouped and became smaller and more flexible. The larger universities branched into several different institutions according to their disciplines. However, these changes were decided on political and ideological grounds rather than scientific basis (Picard, 2012). Contrary to the 18th and 19th centuries during which the minister had control over the budget of the university, the university was given the right to negotiate and enter into a contract for the budget for four years with the ministry after the 1968 reforms.

Following such small changes in the relationship between the state and university, the real change took place through the legislation of the “University Freedom and Responsibility Act” in 2007 (Picard, 2012). The most significant aspect of this act was the state considered the university as a “whole system” rather than as a part of itself (Picard, 2012, p.7).

German model

The German model was founded by Wilhelm von Humboldt, who played a significant role in the foundation of the University of Berlin in 1809–1810. Similar to the French university model, the foundation of the German model was critically related to the political changes in Europe. After Prussia, the most powerful and dominant actor in German territories during the 1700s was defeated

by Napoleon, it embarked on the process of nation-building. Education became the most crucial entity of nation-building for Prussia. After their defeat, the Germans specifically focused on military education, so as not to face such a catastrophe again. Besides military education, the idea of public service and the needs of the German nation-state that was about to be born were given great importance by the Germans, through subjects such as law, medicine and industrial training. All these needs were ultimately related to the mission of nationalisation of the people and institutions in accordance with the aim of the grounded community (Scott, 2006).

Although there were several reasons for the foundation of the University of Berlin, two main ideas are quite significant to understand the German university type. The first reason was the motivation from the Prussian intellectuals and elites of enlightenment to establish a new university to pursue academic education in reaction to the stagnation that existed in German universities. The second factor was the defeat of Napoleon and closure of the German universities (Fallon, 1980). The foundation of the University of Berlin was supported by the government because for the government, a new university was the way to show the nationalistic, historical and literary culture of Germany (Ben-David, 1971) According to Humboldt, the university had three missions, namely, the unity of research, the requirement for teaching academics who conducted research to involve students in their research and the subsequent results of the research to be taught at the university, and the freedom of learning that developed into academic freedom or “lernfreiheit” (Fallon, 1980). He particularly argued that the students should have the right to choose what they want to learn from among different subjects and classes and advocated for the freedom of teaching. According to him, academics must also have the freedom to conduct research and decide what they want to teach in universities. In the Humboldt approach, the centrality of science and arts spans across several fields, ranging from history to philology and physics to medicine. The arts and research were given precedence in these subjects (Humboldt, as cited in Fallon, 1980).

Compared to the French model, the German university type may seem more suitable in terms of academic autonomy. However, the German model was not fully independent in its relationship with the state. For example, the professors at the University of Berlin were obligated to negotiate directly with the ministries for funding their institutions or research, and the state had the right to fund the university and organise it, while professors had freedom only in the internal activities such as teaching and research (Scott, 2006). Based on the formation of the University of Berlin and its relationship with the political authority, it can be claimed that historically, the German model has, in fact, been a state-organised or state-run university.

As has been shown, the Humboldt idea is based on three pillars, namely, the unity of science, research and pure connection between science and modern society. However, Habermas criticised this differentiation and claimed that instead of the unity of science, one should differentiate between empirical and philosophical sciences, and explore the connection between science and society (Eckhardt, 2013).

The German university model had a significant impact on the world’s university model, especially in terms of the research mission and its use as a laboratory. What is known as the German model has been built on Humboldt’s ideas that passed on an institutional legacy to German academia and the world. For almost two centuries, the debate on the German model among politicians and academics has been centred on the productivity of Humboldt’s ideas regarding the interaction of teaching and research, academic freedom, applied research and expanded curriculum.

American model

The United State of America (USA), known as the first democratic nation-state in history, was founded in 1776. As a former British colony, it gave significant importance to education, not only for building the nation but also strengthening its existence after breaking apart from England (Scott, 2006). As a federal nation-state, besides all its educational missions, the USA introduced a

new agenda for the university that may be formulated as the democratisation mission. Further, apart from the mission of democratisation that was inherent in the American system of higher education, it turned towards public service in 20th and 21st first centuries (Scott, 2006). During the 1800s, the mission of American universities was fulfilling the democratisation aim for individuals at the undergraduate level, borrowing from the German research university after the American Civil War. It is important that although the American model was based on the German type, it not only worked towards the research but also built on the idea of the democratisation of the research (Scott, 2006).

It is challenging to describe American democratisation, but Arthur M. Schlesinger argued that American democratisation was the primary product of American liberalism since Jefferson and Jackson, and it should be highlighted that these two presidents impacted the idea of democratisation. Even so, Jefferson was a slaveholder and Jackson promoted the Indian Removal Act (Scott, 2006). Additionally, in his book published in 1965, Veysey analysed the documents of “democracy” related to universities and academics between 1869 and the progressive era of the early 20th century. He classified five different meanings of democracy in the university and its relationship with the state and democratisation. These were the equality of fields and acceptance of new fields of study; equal treatment of the students, that is, not publicly printing the academic standing of classmates and abolishing the letter grades; equal access to education, dealing with the American underclass non-academic population; description of the university as the communicator of knowledge to the American society from agricultural to artistic skills; and lastly, the view the university reforms as the servant of the common good (Veysey, 1965).

Both in Europe and America, the number of universities multiplied and played a significant role in building a bridge between the population, education and states. For example, in the late 19th century, the relatively unknown “Chautauqua” movement led by John H. Wisconsin, the explicit articulator of modern adult education that focuses on lifelong education, took place. This movement aimed to democratise education and launch adult and life-learning education (Scott, 2006). His movement, known as the Wisconsin idea, impacted American universities regarding democratisation and administration (Scott, 1999). Based on the legacy of the mission of the democratisation, several movements in the latter half of the 20th century demanded fair housing and equal access to higher education. With the Wisconsin idea, public service became predominant among American colleges and impacted several countries as the mission of public service was forwarded as equivalent to teaching and research.

During the 20th century, significant changes that were rooted in the 19th century took place in the American university. In the 1950s, the number of female students reached 40.2% in post-secondary education (Scott, 1999). One of the primary results of the democratisation in American universities was the mission of public service. American higher education institutions focused on democracy during the 19th century. Further, the American Congress passed the Morrill Acts in 1862 and 1890 that expanded the teaching and research activities among colleges, which applied both to arts and science (Veysey, 1965). In the 19th century, the mainstream understanding of higher education was built on the mission of public service that was regarded as a national service. According to Veysey, public service regarding the university aimed to embrace undergraduate civic education. On the other hand, it also planned to lead the multicultural missions (Veysey, 1965).

The American model was shaped by public service, democratisation and industrialisation; though it democratised the education, it also put the university under the direct impact of industries rather than political power, as in the case of France and Germany. Veysey claimed that the public service mission held the relationship between businesses and industrial status quo together that strictly influenced the role of higher education in society, politics and economy (Veysey, 1965). Despite industrialisation’s impact on the university, higher education as a public service was

implemented by the reforms to deal with the members of the middle classes that aspired to attain the upper-class standard of living in the new American industrial society. In this sense, the university was used as a means to unify America in a direct way (Veysey, 1965).

Comparing the history of the American university and its relationship with power with the French imperial and German research universities, the former may be named as a “useful university”. This refers to the link between public service and higher education. According to Scott, by the 1900s, the universities had started to establish new fields of study such as business administration, engineering and physical education that naturally linked with the industrial needs rather than political needs (Scott, 1999).

During the 20th century, history recorded a large boost in the numbers of universities and students, both in America and other countries in Europe, and the rise of massive state funding given to the universities. Although the numbers and funding were appreciated by historians and the public, in some countries, this funding became a way to control the research and university and jeopardised academic freedom. In particular, in times of national and global crises in the 20th-century era, the relationship between industries, the state and the university became closer than ever. Before the First World War, the university was considered a place in which national and industrial needs were produced and reproduced for countries to catch up with their rivals. After the Second World War, the university turned into an institution that the great powers used to scientifically contest one another. The governments in different parts of the world such as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), USA, Japan and Germany used funding and their universities to contribute to making the atomic bomb and destructive weapons with the help of the scholars in laboratories. The foundation of the university that had been generally appreciated by the university and public transformed public service to political service. Even though the political service of the universities followed varied patterns in different countries, especially after the Cold War, with globalisation, the government shifted their funding more towards public service. The cycle of political–industrial–political pressure on the universities introduced commercial pressures over higher education that directly endangered the academic freedom and institutional autonomy by the end of the 20th century (Slaughter, 1998, p. 372).

With the globalisation and advancement in technology, the market became a more visible entity in this history of the university and its relationship with public and political power. The new fields of studies such as public relations, human resources and quality management became distinct departments that made the university responsible not only for the state but also market. The new responsibilities created the argument that universities, especially in Europe and America, were no longer social institutions, but rather industries and markets (Gumport, 2000). The globalised world boosted the similarities among people and nations, introducing new responsibilities and duties for the university. Further, and more crucially, it changed the nature of the relationship between power and universities. This relationship may be formulated as a cooperation (Gumport, 2000). In such a corporation, the university was replaced with a multiversity based on information instead of demand, capital or labour (Scott, 2006).

In the 19th century, the German model was in the leading position as an example of higher education; however, it was taken over by the USA after WWII. Instead of the German model that had been the base of the American type of research university, the American cooperative type, the multiversity, became a model for the rest of the world. The medieval university that had proposed the teaching mission disappeared in the pre-nation-state era, followed by the nationalisation of the university in Europe, while the American model democratised the universities.

The roles of the university

Based on the above discussion, both the history of the university and its models require a formulation of the missions that have been defined by societies and powers through historicity. In

the early ages, universities were controlled by the church and monarchs and played more duty-centred roles. However, in the 18th and 19th centuries, universities turned into tools that were shaped by political and industrial needs. The shift and fragmentation of power kept the university as a tool while forcing its roles within society from being oriented towards the needs of the classes to communal- and national-centred interpretations.

The transformation of the role of the university

The definition of the nation-state itself situated institutions for the purpose of strengthening national unity and identity, resulting in the nationalising of knowledge and academia (Neave, 2000). The nationalisation of the university and knowledge not only shaped the role of the university as an institution but also shifted the idea of the university from its own sake to that of the state and nation. In this sense, the university became a national tool that has since been used as the glue to produce national culture and unity, and further, maintain this unity through education. Even though the nature of unity differs from model to model (for instance, in France, political unity is enforced, while in Germany, the focus is on the unity of culture), the idea implemented in each type of university turned into a unity of knowledge.

Despite its long history as an institution that can be traced to the 11th and 12th centuries, it has a relatively short history as an idea. The idea of the university that has been discussed by several scholars such as Humboldt, Fichte, Schelling, and later Jaspers and Habermas is based mainly on its relationship with the state and society. Reading these arguments together, five central questions can be identified: These are how the state controls the university, what the role and place of academia in society is, whether the university carries the mission of stability or change, how and to what extent the academic freedom influences knowledge production, and finally, what the role of the university in the transmission of knowledge and leading the changes in society is (Neave, 2000). These questions have a common notion: they all presume that the university plays a vital role in the social and political life as an instrument that is, in one way or another, shaped by the power, that is, the nation-state. It is evident that the nation, state and society are not stable. They have been undergoing alterations constantly and the most recent understanding of these concepts has been recorded in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. During the 19th and 20th centuries, the new form of power, the nation-state, was the dominant agent of the politic. It held the monopoly of the changing and stabilising societies. However, with the strength of industrial development via advanced technology, the companies and corporations became the new agents in societal social and economic life. It is important that while the nation-state approached the university as a tool of stabilisation, these new agents shifted this understanding towards constant change. As Kwiek claimed, the industry, company and economy have more relationships than the state does with the university (Kwiek, 2006). The expansion of the agents in the economy and politics pushed the university into assuming different sets of responsibilities for the companies. At the same time, they also moved universities and higher education institutions towards bringing about more changes in society.

In the 19th and 20th centuries, the university was a castle of stability that was based on national interest. However, after the end of the Cold War, universities became the sites of change and the manner in which these changes were implemented in society (Kwiek, 2006).

The idea of the founder of the University of Berlin, Humboldt, deeply impacted not only European universities but also those in the USA and other continents. Humboldt's idea suggested that the place of the university is next to that of the state, and the higher education institutions and universities serve the purpose of truth as well as the needs of the nation (Kwiek, 2006). The universities based on this principle also contributed to national unity and produced national values. After the defeat of Napoleon, Humboldt believed that the university should play a foundational role in sustaining the struggle against the defence and development of Prussia. Based on these

suggestions that were named by him as “bildung”, which also means the cooperation and interaction between the university and state, the formulation of the conditions of building individual freedom became the central pillar of the state–university relations (Humboldt, as cited in Kwiek, 2006). According to Wittrock, “bildung” implied the recreation of national culture and national development. In Wittrock’s approach, the University of Berlin, as a form of the institutionalisation of “bildung”, was the first servant of the Prussian state and Humboldt’s ideas that became the capitulation of the intelligentsia of the Prussian state (Wittrock, 1993).

It is vital to note that despite the philosophical and historical differences between the nation-state and university, their modern histories are not separable. According to Wittrock, “universities form part and parcel of the very same process which manifests itself in the emergence of an industrial economic order and the national-state as the most important form of political organization” (Wittrock, 1993, p. 305). In Wittrock’s argumentation, the university is not an institution that was founded and implied by the new form of power but rather followed the same pattern during rapid modernisation. That is, a historical investigation of the university should pay attention to the rise of the nation and alter the impact of the organisations and market to diagnose its role in social, political and economic life.

Even though human beings have always had the need for knowledge throughout history, education and the university in particular became dominant tools in the hands of the power with the nationalisation of politics and societies. After the industrial revolution, education served the state as an apparatus in terms of “the production, transmission, and dissemination of knowledge” (Waghit, 2008, p. 19). Similarly, for society, the university played a key role in the process of cultivation of the democratic action and were named “publicly accountable” within society (Freedmen & Edigheji, 2006, p.25) As a tool and mechanism to “transform the world”, the university led to the transformation of the people within the nations on the one hand and played a key role in democratisation and liberalisation on the other (Freire, 1994). According to Delanty, the university became a primary agent in the public sphere due to its capability to initiate social change and serve several classes at once (Delanty, 2003). In the context of the change and transformation of society, it can be argued that the university has been used as a place of initiating changes to and solutions for new-born politics and society in modern times.

Iris Marion Young, one of the leading political theorists, stated that social justice requires dismantling structures of domination that show themselves in marginalisation, powerlessness, violence and cultural imperialism (Young, 1990). Applying her notion of social justice, the university is conceptualised as a place where the graduates are supposed to pay attention to deal with the dismantling of the social structures that sustain oppression (Waghit, 2008). The approach that put the university in the position of social responsibility mainly holds the belief that the university is not only an educational institution but also has the responsibility to expand opportunities for its students, for jobs as well as the cultural status and inclusion of political power to deal with inequality.

As it has been shown above, there is a consensus among the scholars regarding its role. They tend to formalise it as civic responsibility, and such a notion of public duty contributes to the process of democratisation by research activities. The civic task, metrology, relies on the idea the university is the key player of the transformation of society and its incorporation into a network of technoscience. Based on the belief of civic duty, it might be claimed that the university is to be a deliberate university, deliberate in the sense of intentional, conscious, fully considered in the sense of thinking carefully in deliberation with others.

Responsibility, university, and society

From Humboldt to contemporary scholars, the mission of the university has been discussed in several fields of social sciences. Further, even though the definition of the mission

previously changed from continent to continent, in recent times, the content of the mission can differ from university to university within the same country. According to Humboldt's, idea the mission of the university is to conduct research for its own sake, teaching and public service. These three factors are intricately linked to each other and can be named as the "unity of purpose" (Humboldt, as cited in Scott, 2006, p. 1).

The mission statement, used for the first time in the USA back in 1930, represents the identity of the university and its relationship with the state and society. However, the history of this mission statement that emerged in the 20th century goes back to the middle ages that can be understood by looking at its history, philosophy and the approaches taken by the power towards the university.

During the medieval age in Europe, the dominant approach of the university and its place within society formed scholasticism that was later replaced by humanism in the early modern times (Scott, 2006). The humanism that referred to individuals' free will and values, according to Humboldt, extended to research-based humanism in the neo-humanist German university. Wilhelm von Humboldt was not the only scholar to describe the research mission of the university. By the 20th century, the neo-humanist German idea had moved to labour- and profession-based education instead of research in the USA (Scott, 2006).

The role and so-called responsibility of the university have been a major topic of debate among politicians and academics since the 19th century. The mainstream belief is that while the individuals are responsible to society, society fulfils its responsibility to the individuals through modern institutions of education (Keynan, 2014). It seems that in such a setup, the idea is that knowledge should not stay within the university but serve the societal needs and aims. Looking at the 19th and especially the 20th centuries, history has demonstrated that nationalisation, democratisation and progress have been central to the mission of the university in different countries.

Since the 19th century, both in the USA and Europe, the university has been considered to serve the purpose of public service. This assumes that the university is supposed to deal with social problems, class differences and make predictions for the future. In a recently conducted research, it was argued that universities act in contrast to their traditional mission and, more importantly, become isolated institutions that do not deal with the pillars of its mission, namely, social responsibility, public organisation and serving the private sector (Keynan, 2014). In this regard, the mission of university, public service, can be understood as a service to the nation-state. In other words, it can be said that the relationship between the university and nation-state indicates that despite the differences in practice among nations, the central missions of the university can be identified as teaching, research and public service.

It is vital to note that the changes in the mission of the university have mostly been the outcomes of shifts in the form of power for centuries. Historically, from the 11th and 12th centuries, the mission of the university was dominated by the duty of teaching. In the early modern age, nationalisation brought the idea of serving the nation-state and humanism into the fold. In this period, with the rise of the nation-state, the needs of the state to build the nation and its citizenship were introduced to the university's mission. As an impact of American democratisation, the mission of higher education started to be considered not only to serve the nation-state but also its citizens. Nevertheless, though universities and their roles within society have been primarily shaped by the powers of a given period, it is also crucial to note that they, as places of mobilisation and enlightenment, have been institutions of resistance to the power (Delanty, 2003). The history of the 20th century significantly indicates that most national salvation movements, feminist movements and the 1968 generation were mobilised around the university and shaped by higher education.

Discussion

A university is not only a set of buildings from which students receive a diploma but also an abstract form of ideas and usages throughout history. The university's relationship with the state has been long discussed, and although higher education has been one of the constant topics of discussion among several fields of social sciences, the lack of interpretation of the university as a social system and idea has led us to mostly focus on its function as a modern institution. Even though the main conceptions of the university have been shaped on and around Humboldt's model and the American administration, it can be argued that the idea of the university as a social system is still an issue that must be explored. Burton Clark, who was among the founders of higher education as an academic field, claimed that despite all the theories in the literature, we must find what he calls "non-change" (Clark, 1978, p. 101). The strength of Humboldt's idea that has formed our current understanding of the university (one that refers both to change and continuity in the history of the university and its place in the nations) is vital to point out the necessity of interpreting the university as a system and idea.

The social system theory suggests that the university as an institution, similar to all kinds of organisations, is a living organism that interacts with its environment and requires the process of systems autopoiesis, which can be revised as recursive self-production (Lenartowicz, 2015). The term of "autopoiesis" was introduced by two system biologists, Humberto Maturana and Francisco Varela. For Luhnam, this indicates the basic operational principle that differentiates any kinds of living systems; further, it is also the principle of continuity and recursive self-production (Luhnam, as cited in Lenartowicz, 2016). According to Luhnam's theory, the biological system's self-production is based on the organisation's matter; however, the social systems' self-production is the basis of human interaction and communication that relays. He contended that such an interaction induces tensions between the old and new ones, including the process of deciding between the existing ones and further possibilities (Lenartowicz, 2015). Since changes and differences occur within the system and are shaped by the system's future and differences within it, an understanding of the system should be built through the autopoiesis (Lenartowicz, 2015).

In the debate on the university, the autopoiesis provides set tools that help not only to understand the historicity of the university and its relationship with power but also reveal an opportunity to interpret the university as an idea. In this framework, even though the university and higher education as social institutions are shaped by the climate of a given period, they still require further and broader exploration as an idea, to formulate how they have changed across time as abstract forms. An autopsy of the university from a historical point of view shows that it is an institution that has been used and shaped by power. However, as an idea, it has represented the relationship between education, the state and society. The idea of the university, particularly with the rise of one-nation-states that indoctrinate national identity, argues that projects can be classified into three analytical steps, namely, nationalisation, democratisation and industrialisation.

In the nationalisation phase, the university as an idea has represented the creation of identity and socio-political needs of society and the nation-state. Even though there are critical differences among the models of universities, the French, German and American universities were used as tools that either helped to unify nations or protect the ruling powers and their agenda. In the French model, this process was mostly shaped by the Neapolitan politics of centralisation based on the strict hierarchal implementation of education. The French idea of the university in this phase was based on the protection of Napoleon's regime. However, in the case of the German model, the idea of education and universities was based on the reactive process of building the national idea through research after the defeat of Napoleon. The American model adopted from the

German type was represented in the form of public service due to its foundation as a “democratic state”.

The nationalisation phase, followed by democratisation, was directly shaped by the political history of the 20th century. In the democratisation period, the idea of the university became centred on equality and the democratisation of politics. In this period, contrary to the 19th-century surge in modernisation, the debate moved from the problem of modernisation to democratisation, and the university as an idea represented the fundamental tool and site of democratisation.

Even though nationalisation and democratisation still affect the idea of the university, with globalisation and advanced technology that introduced the industry and market as a new entity of social, political and economic life, the idea has shifted to consider labour and industrial needs. In this period that included each country, the idea of the university started to be abstracted as a place where demands were shaped and met, and individuals who served the market were educated. Nationalisation made universities accountable to the state and society, and individuals and society re-defined the responsibility of universities as centres of market needs due to democratisation, industrialisation and marketisation. It is significant that these three forms of representation of the university as an idea do not have clear-cut differences. However, they create a climate for such an idea to take root to help us re-think the university and its place in our lives.

Conclusion

This research argued that a university is a place where the social, political and economic needs of individuals, societies and power are produced and re-produced through higher education. The history of the university spans across centuries. It has become a matter of academic discussions, particularly in the late 20th century. The mainstream approaches on the history and role of the university in human life have been assessed in terms of its institutional capacity and ability to educate the future generations while being implemented as an instrument of socialisation and production of values and needs, similar to any other kind of institution.

The power–university relations that have been formed and influenced by the political and economic mentality of a given period as well as geography show that three types of universities, namely, French, German and American, have been implemented by most countries. Nevertheless, these models are not only the indications of the national history of the university but also representations of the fundamental similarities and differences in the history of the university as an organisation and idea. A close look at these three models indicates that in the 11th and 12 centuries, the university was under the control of the religious authority and was directly shaped by mercantilism in France. In the early modern age in Europe, the university came to be under the influence of political powers, and contrary to the French model that was highly centralised, the German model was more research- and need-oriented. During the 18th and 19th centuries, with the industrial revolution, colonisation and need for nations to catch up with their rivals, most countries used the university as a place where national identity and the national project were built and the needs for rapid industrialisation fulfilled. Such a formulation of the university as an institution demonstrated its nationalisation that referred to the centrality of national needs. Following this, the American democratisation and civil rights movements alongside national salvation and decolonisation movements in several places kept the university under control of the state for the needs of society and industries on one hand and introduced the idea of the university as the democratisation of education and public service on the other. The democratising phase, particularly after the end of the Cold War, and the impacts of globalisation through the advancement of technology led to the marketisation phase. Although the nationalisation and democratisation representations of the university remained under the control of the political power, the marketisation of the university introduced a new form of responsibility, concerning the

economic needs, market and companies. In this stage, it became understood that the university was used for democratisation and nationalisation, and further, influenced by the needs of companies.

It is significant in the differentiation of the university as an organisation and idea that while the mainstream studies on the university–power relationship focus on the institutional aspect and its implementation within society and politics, the idea of the university helps us to track how our understanding of it and its link with power have changed across history. In the ongoing pandemic situation, the digital age seems to force us to understand and re-interpret the university, not only as a set of buildings but also as an idea that has been changed by our needs in a given period. It can be contended that contrary to the three phases, nationalisation, democratisation and marketisation, in which power, society or companies designated the mission of the university to serve a broader community, the idea of the university will be built on individuals in the digital age.

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Analysis of Turkey Insurance Sectors' Stocks in Terms of Beta Coefficient and Volatility Criteria During the Covid-19 Pandemic

Murat ACET¹

Introduction

Every investor is curious about the future value of his investment and wants to take precautions against possible risks. The uncertainty of risk and return in financial markets has encouraged important studies on this subject. One of the risks that securities investment instruments face is volatility. Measuring the volatility of financial instruments, especially in times of crisis, has thus become more important.

The Covid-19 pandemic, which has affected the world in many dimensions since the first quarter of 2020, has made it necessary to review the rules of the country's economies and the investment atmosphere and has redefined the sensitivities. After 1980, when the criteria used to measure volatility became widespread, studies on this subject increased and various measures were developed. Since volatility in the prices of financial instruments is an important risk criterion, many volatility indices have been developed in the USA and various European countries. The underlying reason for this situation is also related to the fact that the Modern Portfolio Theory explained the concept of risk in terms of volatility.

It is possible to subject the theories developed on the measurement of volatility to a dual distinction. While the first distinction accepts the stationarity of the variance, this distinction is not valid in the second group. In the first group of theories with date reference, constant variance criterion was taken as basis; Arch/Garch Models, Implicit Volatility Models and Stochastic Volatility Models, which are in the other group, made the analysis based on the variable variance assumption. (Poon and Granger, 2005).

Measuring volatility; It not only contributes to preliminary information about securities investments, but also helps the development of financial markets. In addition, Volatility Indices are important in that they are both tradable and underlying assets for derivative instruments. (Telçeken, 2014).

It is possible to say that it is a more common approach to deal with the subject with theories with varying variance approach while measuring the volatility in stocks within the body of BIST, the Organized Stock Exchange operating in Turkey.

Six stocks are traded within the scope of Insurance's main field of activity within the body of BIST. These are Ray Sigorta A.Ş. (RAYSG), Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. (ANSGR), Anadolu Emeklilik A.Ş. (ANHYT), Aksigorta A.Ş. (AKGRT), Türk Sigorta A.Ş. (TURSG) and AGESA Hayat ve Emeklilik A.Ş. (AGESA). All of these six stocks are covered by the BIST INSURANCE index. The field of activity of all companies issuing these stocks can be summarized as Financial Responsibility, Accident, Fire, Life, Pension.

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Within the scope of this study, these six stocks within the scope of BIST INSURANCE Index were measured using Beta coefficient and Volatility Indices. The date range of the study was selected from 11.03.2020, the date when the Covid-19 process officially declared the Pandemic by the World Health Organization, and the volatility of six stocks was examined. From Volatility Indices; This review was carried out using the criteria of Parkinson (1980), Garman & Klass(1980), Roger & Satchell (1991), and Yang & Zhang(2000).

Turkish Insurance Sector Stocks in BIST

Insurance sector companies operating in Turkey are among the important components of the Finance Sector. The stocks of six of these companies are traded in BIST. These companies are Ray Sigorta A.Ş. , Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. , Anadolu Emeklilik A.Ş., Aksigorta A.Ş. Türk Sigorta A.Ş. and AGESA Hayat ve Emeklilik A.Ş.

If we look at the financial status of six insurance sector representatives whose stocks are traded within the body of BIST, Anadolu Hayat Türk Sigorta A.Ş. and it is Agesa Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. It is possible to say that he followed closely. Ray Sigorta A.Ş. is the weakest of these six companies in terms of total asset size. We see the same ranking with the highest value in terms of short and long term liabilities. However, in terms of Equity size, Türkiye Sigorta A.Ş. ranked first, followed by Anadolu Sigorta A.Ş. and Anadolu Hayat Türk Sigorta A.Ş. is following.

Table1. Financial statements of the insurance industry (Summary)(19.11.2022) -I

	Current Assets	Non-current Assets	Total Assets
AGESA	9.870.469.908	61.401.973.766	71.272.443.674
AKSGR	10.073.857.747	424.305.362	10.498.163.109
ANSGR	22.124.132.006	1.074.450.509	23.198.582.515
ANHYT	72.721.599.889	303.783.866	73.025.383.755
RAYSG	3.149.905.863	236.288.188	3.386.194.051
TURSG	17.609.378.493	1.951.220.779	19.560.599.272

Table2. Financial statements of the insurance industry (Summary)(19.11.2022)-II

	Current Liabilities	Non-current Liabilities	Equity	Total Liabilities and Equity
AGESA	1.409.764.046	68.427.038	1.435.641.110	71.272.443.674
AKSGR	9.017.163.949	176.907.887	1.304.091.273	10.498.163.109
ANSGR	19.242.511.124	617.715.939	3.338.355.452	23.198.582.515
ANHYT	70.493.225.513	135.303.345	2.396.854.897	73.025.383.755
RAYSG	2.686.040.898	103.163.820	596.989.333	3.386.194.051
TURSG	14.891.406.001	275.764.366	4.393.428.905	19.560.599.272

Source: www.kap.gov.tr

According to Table1, AGESA Hayat ve Emeklilik A.Ş. While it increased its Current Assets by 84.8% in the first year of the pandemic process, this increase was 59.5% in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 42.9% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, this increase remained at 39.4% in the second year. There has been less than 50% increase in Total Assets for both years of the Pandemic. According to Table 2, while long-term liabilities were 54.2% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and short-term liabilities exceeded long-term liabilities. The company was able to

increase its Total Liability and Equity total by 47% in the first year of the Pandemic, and by 41.9% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 294,948,728 TL. In the second year of the pandemic, it increased its profit by approximately 50% to 451,813,551 TL and announced a profit of 668,740,808 TL in the 9-month period from the beginning of 2022.

Aksigorta A.S. In the Covid-19 process, while it increased its Current Assets by 30.7% at the end of 2020, this increase was 40.2% in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 65.3% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, this increase increased by 112.1% in the second year, showing an extraordinary increase. Total Assets increased by 31.5% in the first year and 42.1% in the second year. While long-term liabilities were 13.3% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and short-term liabilities became 45.6%. AKSIGORTA A.S. It was able to increase the total of Total Liability and Equity by 31.5% in the first year of the pandemic, and by 42.1% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 432,342,886 TL. In the second year of the pandemic, the profit decreased to 189,396,766 TL, with a decrease of approximately 50%, and for the period from the beginning of 2022 until today, the company announced a loss of 394,899,033 TL in a period of approximately 9 months.

While Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta Şirketi increased its Current Assets by 38.7% in the first year of the Pandemic period between 2020-2022, this increase was 44.7% in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 32.7% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, this increase remained at 28.5% in the second year. While there was a 38.4% increase in Total Assets in the first year of the Pandemic, it was 43.9% in the second year. While long-term liabilities increased by 21.3% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and short-term liabilities exceeded long-term liabilities. The company was able to increase its Total Liability and Equity total by 38.4% in the first year of the Pandemic, and 43.9% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 510,025,565 TL. In the second year of the pandemic, it increased at a very low rate to 589,834,604 TL, and the company announced a profit of 566,772,436 TL in a period of approximately 9 months from the beginning of 2022.

Anadolu Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. During the Covid-19 process; While it increased its Current Assets by 42.7% at the end of 2020, this increase was 42.5% at a similar rate in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 40.4% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, there was a 32.9% decrease in this item in the second year. There has been an increase of 42.7% in the total assets of the Pandemic in the first year and 41.8% in the second year. While long-term liabilities were 23.6% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and the increase in short-term liabilities was 42.4%. The company was able to increase its Total Liability and Equity total by 42.7% in the first year of the pandemic to 41.8% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 526,939,264 TL. Anadolu Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. has increased its profit to 699,988,065 TL in the second year of the pandemic and announced a profit of 784,417,689 TL in a period of approximately 9 months since the beginning of 2022.

While Ray Sigorta A.Ş. increased its Current Assets by 26.2% in the first year of the 2020-22 period, when the Covid-19 Pandemic was experienced, this increase was 48.7% in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 45% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, this increase was 45.4% in the second year. While there was a 27.4% increase in Total Assets in the first year of the Pandemic, it was 48.5% in the second year. While long-term liabilities increased by 45% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and short-term liabilities exceeded long-term liabilities with a rate of 53.4%. The company was able to increase its Total Liability and Equity total by 27.4% in the first year of the

Pandemic, and by 35.8% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 58,923,677 TL. In the second year of the pandemic, the company increased its profit at a very low rate to 68,315,828 TL and announced a profit of 85,737,721 TL in the 9-month period from the beginning of 2022 until today.

Turkey Insurance Inc. While it increased its Current Assets by 34.4% in the first year of the Pandemic period between 2020-2022, this increase was 40.8% in the second year of the pandemic. While there was a 29.4% increase in non-current assets in the first year of the pandemic, this increase was only 4% in the second year. While there was a 33.8% increase in Total Assets in the first year of the Pandemic, the increase was 36% in the second year. While long-term liabilities increased by 38.2% in the first year of the pandemic, this situation changed in the second year of the pandemic and short-term liabilities exceeded long-term liabilities by 50.2%. The company was able to increase its Total Liability and Equity total by 33.8% in the first year of the Pandemic, and by 36% in the second year. In the first year of the pandemic, the company profit is 1,161,457,615 TL. In the second year of the pandemic, it has announced a profit of 1,086,276,248 TL by decreasing it at a very low rate and 566,772,436 TL in a period of approximately 9 months from the beginning of 2022.

According to the report data published by IDC (International Data Corporation) in 2022, the digital investments of the insurance sector for the use of advanced technology and artificial intelligence in the world are around 37 billion dollars (IDC, 2022). This figure has nearly tripled after the pandemic. In the insurance field, investments such as artificial intelligence-based applications, virtual assistants, risk scaling and process automation are accelerated. Considering that the digital investments of the insurance sector in the world are approximately \$100 Billion and this figure will double by 2030, it makes us think what is the reason behind the acceleration of digital investments in the sector. Undoubtedly, it is clear that the Covid-19 Pandemic process is the main motivation for the industry to accelerate its digitalization investments. While the companies that allowed their technological infrastructure to continue their activities during the pandemic process continued their activities without slowing down, the situation of the companies that had deficiencies in this regard was adversely affected. This outlook in the world is also valid for Turkey on its own scale. Turkish Insurance Sector companies, which are in a better position compared to their competitors, especially in terms of technological investments and digitalization, have closed the Pandemic process with less loss.

Stock Performance of Insurance Companies

The annual share earnings of the six largest companies in the insurance industry traded within the BIST are shown in the Table.3 below. These calculations are analyzed using data sources shared over the Yahoo Finance internet and using the R Programming language Tidyquant package. This analysis was made with daily stock data from the date of the official announcement of the pandemic until September 2022.

In 2020, when the Covid-19 Pandemic was officially announced, the BIST 100 index closed this year with a loss of 98.54% and showed a very negative performance. However, it can be said that it has shown a positive progress in terms of compensating its losses in 2021. It showed a performance of 104.21% in 2022, when the effects of the pandemic gradually decreased and normalization steps were taken.

Table 3 .Insurance Sector Stock Returns (%)

	2020	2021	2022
XU100	-98.5	24.23	104.2
AGESA	40.29	18.57	58.48
AKGRT	59.69	14.46	-51
ANHYT	31.7	45.48	34.17
ANSGR	59.73	-10.8	46.38
RAYSG	427.3	-8.79	19.72
TURSG	209.8	-24.3	64.81

In 2020, AGESA Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. stocks followed a relatively more balanced trend compared to the stock performance of other insurance sector companies. During the pandemic process, stock performance has never gone into negative territory. While it closed 2020 with a performance of 40.29%, it diverged from the BIST100 index with a performance of 18.57% in 2021 and showed a relatively low stock performance while other companies in the sector recovered. The stock performance this year is 18.57%. The performance in 2022 is 58.48%. With this ratio, it can be said that there is a rapid recovery in stock performance with Normalization.

Aksigorta A.S. stocks started with a good stock performance during the Covid-19 pandemic process and showed a positive performance of approximately 60% annually in the first year of the pandemic. In the second year of the pandemic, there was a serious decrease in this performance, and the stock performance decreased to 14.46%. In terms of its performance in the first 9 months of 2022, which is the last period of the pandemic, Aksigorta A.Ş. It was recorded as the negative and lowest performing insurance sector representative with a share performance of -50,99%.

If the performance of the insurance sector representatives traded within the BIST is analyzed, it can be understood that Anadolu Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. is one of the most balanced stock performers. It has followed a stable line with an average success performance without falling into a negative performance on an annual basis. Anadolu Hayat Emeklilik A.Ş. It showed a stock performance of 31.7% in 2020, 45.48% in 2021 and 34.17% in the first 9-month period of 2022.

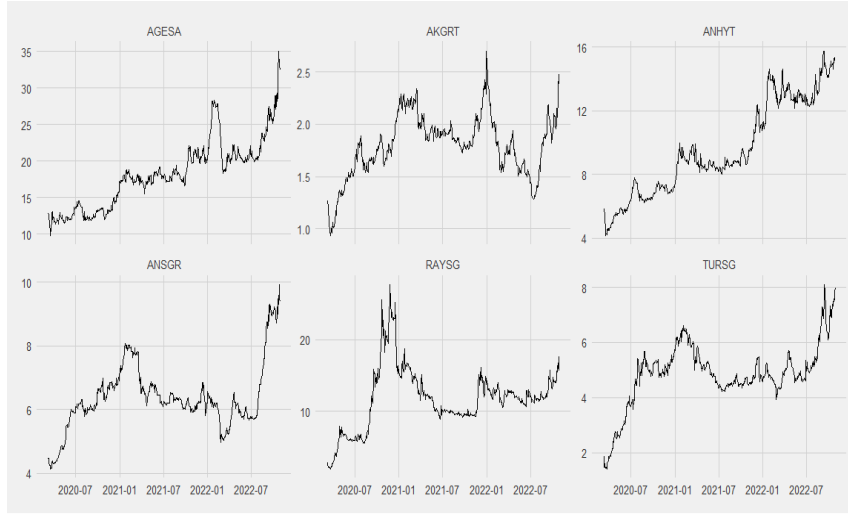
Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. If the stock performance during the pandemic is examined, it can be said that the BIST 100 performance is followed with a one-year delay. Although BIST 100 showed a serious negative stock performance in the first year of the pandemic, Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. stocks showed a positive performance of 59.73%. In the second year, it is seen that it exhibits a negative stock performance of -10,78%. In the first nine months of 2022, which is the last year, it has strengthened its position in the sector with a significant recovery of 46.38%.

Ray Sigorta A.Ş. In the first year of the Covid-19 Pandemic, it exhibited a remarkable and extraordinarily high stock performance. The stock performance for this period is 427.3%. However, the following year, this high stock performance indicator reversed and closed the year with a negative value. The stock performance in 2021 is -8.79%. The last period of the pandemic has now managed to turn the negative stock performance of 2022, which is the period when normalization accelerated, to positive and recorded a performance success of 19.72%.

In the first year of the pandemic, Türk Sigorta A.Ş. stock performance realized as 209.81%. This is Ray Sigorta A.Ş. It was recorded as the second most successful stock performance in the sector after the first year performance of the company. However, in 2021, the second year of the pandemic, this bright performance reversed the line, regressed to negative stock performance and closed the year as -24.27%. In terms of the performance of the last 9 months of 2022, the stock

performance of Ray Sigorta A.Ş. has succeeded to be the sector representative that has achieved the closest success to the BIST 100 performance with 64.81%.

Figure.1 . Insurance Sector Stock Returns (2020-2022)



In the table3 and Figure1 above, it is possible to see the closing prices of the stocks of the Insurance sector during the Covid -19 pandemic. The point that draws attention here is the non-homogeneous performance of 6 sector representatives. One aspect of this situation can be explained by the fact that the sector was caught in a heterogeneous and unprepared manner for the pandemic. However, it should not be overlooked that one dimension of such stock market fluctuations is due to speculative developments. However, despite all these issues, at least the trend of the daily closing price lines of stocks is expected to be similar. But what appears is different from that. For a healthier analysis of this situation, it is necessary to conduct Beta Analysis of these stocks.

Beta Analysis of Stocks

One of the tools to measure how synchronized the stocks are with the changing conditions and trend movements in the market is the analysis of the Beta value. Beta value is actually a measurement tool that provides systematic risk analysis. It serves to measure the return volatility of the stock. If the expected return and risk of a stock is high, its beta value is also calculated as high. To measure the Beta coefficient in its simplest form, the calculation is made by writing the covariance of the market return (R_i) and the stock return (R_s) to the numerator of the ratio, and the variance of the market return to the denominator.

$$\beta = \frac{Cov(R_s, R_i)}{Var(R_i)}$$

The expression in the numerator of this ratio allows us to see the relationship between the change in the stock's return and the change in the market return. The expression in the denominator expresses how far the Market index data deviate from the mean.

- β değeri 1 den büyük olursa bu “yüksek korelasyon” ve “yüksek volatilité”,
- β değeri 1 e eşit olursa “Yüksek korelasyon” ve “Piyasaya eşit Volatilité” ,
- β değeri 0 ile 1 arasında bir değer alırsa, “Hafif Korelasyon”, “Düşük Volatilité”,
- β değeri sıfıra eşit ise “Korelasyon yok”,
- β değeri -1 ile 0 arasında bir değer alırsa “Hafif Ters Korelasyon”, “Düşük Volatilité”,
- β değeri -1 değerine eşit ise “Ters Korelasyon ve “Piyasaya eşit Volatilité“

- β değeri -1 den küçük ise “Yüksek ters korelasyon” ve “Piyasadan daha yüksek Volatilité” anlamında yorumlanır.
- • If the β value is greater than 1, this is “high correlation” and “high volatility”,
- • “High correlation” and “Volatility equal to the market” if the β value is equal to 1,
- • If the β value takes a value between 0 and 1, “Light Correlation”, “Low Volatility”,
- • “No correlation” if the β value is equal to zero,
- • “Slight Inverse Correlation”, “Low Volatility”, if β value takes a value between -1 and 0,
- • “Reverse Correlation and “Volatility equal to Market” if β value is equal to -1
- • If the β value is less than -1, it is interpreted as “High reverse correlation” and “Higher Volatility than the Market”.

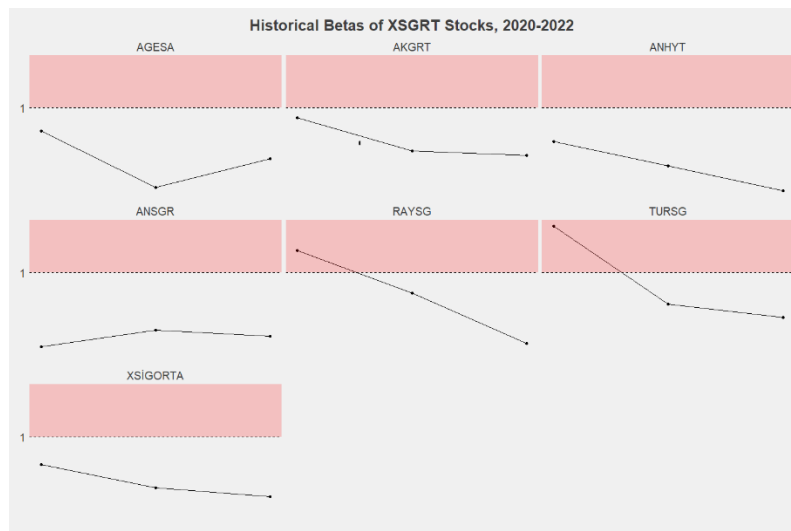
The R programming language was used while calculating the β value of the stocks of insurance companies.

Table 4. Historical betas of XSGRT Stocks (2020-2022)

	2020	2021	2022
XSGRT	0.7672759	0.570702	0.496804
AGESA	0.8069672	0.335338	0.576273
AKGRT	0.9167419	0.641177	0.602598
ANHYT	0.7192335	0.513402	0.305046
ANSGR	0.3753652	0.5168	0.466958
RAYSG	0.837.836	0.827517	0.405934
TURSG	0.856.754	0.731479	0.623429

If both Table4 and Figure2 are examined, the Beta values of 6 stocks belonging to the entire insurance sector in general during the pandemic period were generally between 0 and 1. In summary, this means not very high volatility. It also means that there is a stock price trend that does not act exactly the same as BIST 100.

Figure 2. Insurance Sector Stocks Beta Values Chart



Volatility Criteria

Two dimensions of volatility can be mentioned. One of them is variability and the other is uncertainty. Therefore, whether it is possible to predict the stock price depends on the result of this difference (Wolf, 2005:49). Whether volatility is mentioned in terms of uncertainty or variability, the spread of the values that a variable will take constitutes the essence of volatility (Poon, 2005:1). The variability and/or uncertainty of the value of a variable, if it is an economic or financial variable, can be predicted with an estimation approach based on historical values (Aizenman and Pinto, 2005). The difference between the concept of volatility and the concept of risk is that the result will not necessarily be negative (Poon and Granger, 2005). The variability in the prices and returns of various financial instruments, especially stocks, in financial markets is volatility.

After all, the main purpose of thinking about the concept of volatility: the need to make a projection into the future. For this, the most important source we have is historical data (Sinclair, 2008)

In measuring volatility, Schwert (1989) suggested looking at the percentage changes in stock prices and returns as an alternative to the common approaches that use squared returns. It is necessary to mention the work of Andersen and Bollerslev in 1989, which proposes to look at the sum of the squares of the daily returns of stocks. In addition, the 1990 study of Pagan and Schwert, which advocated the necessity of using the square of error terms in measuring volatility, has an important place in the academic literature on this subject.

Together with the Modern Portfolio Theory, volatility approaches that enable the measurement of price variability and uncertainty have gained importance day by day (Mills and Markellos, 2008). However, the important point is the prediction of uncertainty regarding the returns of stocks traded in the securities markets (Hull, 2009).

In this part of the study, an analysis has been made on the basis of Sinclair's (Sinclair, 2008) study, Garman-Klass's study, Parkinson's Volatility approach, Rogers Satchell Approach and Yang Zhang Volatility measurement studies, which are based on volatility from closing to closing.

The stock volatility of 6 companies of the Insurance sector whose stocks are traded within the BIST has been calculated by using the R Programming Language Tidyverse Package and Ms-Excel Package Program at various scales and by obtaining the data from the Yahoo Finance web page and is shown in the table below.

When Table 5 is examined, it will be seen that there is a similarity and harmony between BIST 100 and XSGRT indices in terms of all volatility criteria. In fact, Garman Klass Criterion gave the same result for both BIST 100 and XSGRT index. However, there is no such homogeneity among the representatives of the Turkish Insurance Sector in terms of various volatility criteria of the six stocks in BIST. Although the average of the sector is generally similar to the BIST 100 index, the same structure is not encountered when we examine the individual company stocks of the sector. Under this situation, details such as differences between technological infrastructures, dissimilarities in the strength of financial structures and being exposed to speculative investment moves emerge as the main reason for the divergence.

Table 5. Price Volatility by Volatility Criteria

(%)	BIST100	XSGRT	AGESA	ANSGR	ANHYT	AKGRT	RAYSG	TURSG
Close/Clo.	1.68	1.59	2.60	1.65	2.31	3.04	4.30	2.94
Parkinson	1.47	1.50	2.80	1.90	2.41	2.47	4.35	2.69
Garman Klass	1.98	1.98	3.69	2.47	3.17	3.22	5.77	3.59
Rogers Satchell	1.44	1.59	2.92	2.16	2.57	2.62	4.43	2.67
Yang Zhang	1.58	1.74	3.13	2.25	2.72	3.85	5.20	2.96
Open	0.63	0.76	1.22	0.82	1.00	2.87	2.75	1.27
Close	1.53	1.42	2.67	1.68	2.26	2.24	4.29	2.70
k	0.15							

Close/Close Volatility Criteria

Closing to closing Volatility is one of the most common criteria. In this criterion, the rate of change in the price of the stock and the range of change are taken as basis in determining the volatility. In this approach, since the volatility is measured by taking into account the closing prices of the stock, price movements during the day are not taken into account.

$$\sigma_{cl} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T-1} \sum_{t=1}^T (r_t - \bar{r})^2}$$

T: Number of days in the sample period

rt: Return on day t

\bar{r} : Mean return

According to this criterion, Ray Sigorta A.Ş. has the highest volatility with 3.4% during the pandemic process. belongs to In this ranking, Aksigorta A.Ş. comes second with a rate of 3.04%. Anadolu Sigorta A.Ş.; The stock with lower volatility (1.65%) among both BIST 100 and other sector stocks.

Parkinson Volatility Criteria

This volatility measure is a measure that references the daily lowest and highest price movements of the stock.

$$\sigma_{Parkinson}^2 = \frac{1}{4 \ln(2) n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ln^2 \left(\frac{H_i}{L_i} \right)$$

T: Number of sampling periods (days)

H_t : The highest price recorded for the examined day

L_t : The lowest recorded price for the day under review

According to the Parkinson Volatility Criterion, the highest volatility between the years 2020-2022 during the Covid-19 pandemic process was Ray Sigorta A.Ş. belongs to As the Parkinson's Volatility criterion, AGESA Sigorta A.Ş. is the second largest insurance sector representative with a rate of 2.90%. is If we look at the beta values, in 2020 Ray Sigorta A.Ş. and Türkiye Sigorta A.Ş. values were extraordinarily high. The Parkinson's Volatility criterion gave results confirming this

speculative situation. According to this criterion, the closest value to both the sector and BIST 100 average is Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. belongs to

Garman Klass Volatility Criteria

Unlike the other two metrics, the Garman Klass Volatility Measure makes a more comprehensive assessment. It uses the data of the Opening, closing, highest and lowest daily price of a stock. According to this criterion, it assumes that a stock is in an ongoing spread trend on the basis of the analyzed period. This is a Brownian motion analysis approach.

$$\sigma_{Garman\ Klass}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \left(\frac{H_i}{L_i} \right) + (2\ln(2) - 1) \ln^2 \left(\frac{C_i}{O_i} \right) \right)$$

n: Number of sampling periods (days)

H_i : The highest recorded price for the examined day

L_i : The lowest price recorded for the day under review

O_i : The opening price recorded for the examined day

C_i : The closing price recorded for the examined day

According to the Garman Klass Volatility criterion, the highest value belongs to Ray Sigorta A.Ş., just like in the Parkinson Volatility Criterion. The measured value is 5.77%. Likewise, the second stock with the highest volatility value is AGESA Sigorta A.Ş. is Its value is 3.69%. Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş. has the lowest volatility value with 2.47%. In terms of the lowest value, there is a parallel result with the Parkinson Volatility Measure.

Rogers Satchell Volatility Criterion

This criterion, unlike the previous metrics, measures the volatility of stocks with a nonzero average return. In this measurement, the main index (BIST 100 or Xinsurance) follows the average return when it is in a certain trend (horizontal, bearish or rising), and this represents the strong side of this measure in volatility measurement. However, since the price movements during the transaction were not evaluated, the criterion was criticized. Despite this, it adds depth to the analyzes in terms of bringing a different perspective and evaluating with other criteria.

$$\sigma_{RS}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (u_i(u_i - c_i) + d_i(d_i - c_i))$$

The results obtained according to the Rogers Satchell Volatility criterion gave parallel results with other criteria, although the measurement was made with a different perspective. According to the Rogers Satchell Volatility Criterion, the first company with the highest volatility value is Ray Sigorta A.Ş. with a value of 4.43%. Insurance Inc. is following. According to this criterion, the stock of the company with the lowest volatility in the sector is Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş.

Yang Zhang Criteria

As a more advanced volatility measure, taking into account the criticisms of other criteria, this is a measure that aims both the price jumps during the day and the deviation from the average, and thus the minimum forecast error. The Rogers Satchell Volatility measure and Rogers Satchell measure offer an improved new perspective as a new measure. In this criterion, the concept of Volatility is discussed in two dimensions. The first dimension is Overnight volatility and the second

dimension is Open to Close volatility. In addition, in this criterion, the Rogers Satchell Volatility Criterion value enters the equation as data.

$$\sigma_{Yang\ Zhang}^2 = \sigma_{Open}^2 + k\sigma_{Close}^2 + (1 - k)\sigma_{RS}^2$$

$$k = \frac{0.34}{1.34 + \frac{n+1}{n-1}}$$

n : Number of sampling periods (days)

k : is the Study constant, developed taking into account the number of days studied in the study. In this study, it was found to be 0.15.

σ^2 Open: Variance of Opening Values of the relevant stock

σ^2 Close: Variance of Closing Values of the Related Stock

σ^2 RS: Variance of Rogers Satchell Volatility criterion value

The results obtained according to Yang Zhang Volatility criterion, which is the most advanced Volatility Measure, show parallelism with other criteria. Ray Sigorta A.Ş., the company with the highest Volatility criterion value of 6 stocks traded within BIST of the Insurance sector during the Covid-19 pandemic process. is This result, Ray Sigorta A.Ş. It confirms the finding that the stock is the most volatile stock of the pandemic process. Unlike other criteria, Aksigorta A.Ş. is located. AGESA Sigorta A.Ş. The stock with the lowest value in terms of Yang Zhang Volatility criterion and with the least volatility is Anadolu Anonim Türk Sigorta A.Ş.

Conclusion

The six largest representatives of the Turkish Insurance Industry, whose stocks are traded within the BIST, have been affected by the Covid-19 pandemic process, like almost every sector in the country. During the period from 2020 to the last quarter of 2022, it is possible to see the cyclical fluctuations created by the pandemic and the effects of uncertainty in insurance sector stock prices, as in many sector stocks. It is of course not possible to think that all insurance sector representatives were affected homogeneously from this process in terms of stock prices during this period of approximately 2 years. Especially when looking at both the beta coefficient and the volatility criterion, it is possible to say that companies with relatively smaller economic potentials have gone through the pandemic process with more stock price volatility. In addition, it has been observed that the sector representatives, who are in a better position than their competitors in terms of strong capital structure and institutionalization, have relatively lower stock price volatility. In particular, institutionalized structures with a bank or a strong financial actor behind them have closed the pandemic process with less loss.

The Covid-19 pandemic process has brought some competitive advantages for companies that have been able to successfully add technology to their business models by investing in technology since before. In addition to their hot sales, companies that can continue their economic activities over the internet have experienced less job and customer loss during the pandemic process. Of course, this also applies to the insurance industry. Insurance companies, which have made strong technology investments, can organize their organizational structure effectively over the internet, and can reach their customers online, have been relatively more successful in the pandemic process.

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Revisiting the Nagorno-Karabakh Issue: A Three Angular Perspective to the Endless Rivalry Between Regional Powers From 1991 To 2020

Emrah YILDIRIMCAKAR

Introduction

Nagorno-Karabakh Issue is not only a political, ethnical, or territorial issue limited to Armenia and Azerbaijan. Besides Azerbaijan and Armenia, Russia, Turkey, and Iran have an important impact on the resolution of this issue. As influential external actors, these countries have different political, economic, and military accounts for Nagorno-Karabakh Issue. The last Armenia-Azerbaijan conflict has also shown that the influence of these countries can deeply affect the peace and war process of the Nagorno-Karabakh issue, as well as the relations between Azerbaijan and Armenia.

Russia, Turkey, and Iran are like political, economic, and military rivals for the future of the Caucasus, most notably for the conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia. Each of these countries desires that all the progress can result in favour of their self-political, economic, and military interests. While the expectation of Russia and Iran founded on the domination of the Caucasus as well as make both Azerbaijan and Armenia more dependent on them. Accordingly, everything should come to an end in accordance with their political interests. On the other hand, besides their political and economic interests in the region, Turkey and Iran also have crucial security and political concerns from the regional conflicts, especially from the conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia. Thus, the main question raised here is why are these countries not able to relinquish their interests-based policies to find a common point to solve the conflicts between Armenia and Azerbaijan, or why Russia, Turkey, and Iran are not able to alter the status quo of the region? In other words, what factors are affecting the regional countries to reach a consensus to solve the conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia?

Currently, Russia, Turkey, and Iran are considered primary rivals in the region, undoubtedly the power and influence rivalry among these powers continued for a long period. Parallel to the findings of this research, Russia's fundamental assumptions on this issue are based on dominating the Caucasus region or enabling Russia to be as influential as it was in the period of the Soviet Union. While Turkey is looking forward to seeing a strong Azerbaijan for Turkey's strong image in Central Asia and the Caucasus, enabling Turkey to achieve its new economic and energy objectives, as well as to restrain Armenia's claims for "Diaspora" against Turkey. However, for Iran, a strong Azerbaijan is a threat to Iran's territorial integration in the long term, and if Azerbaijan has strained and unsolved issues with Armenia, Iran will benefit from this dispute in the context of protecting its borders and having words to say for the future of the region. In view of Iran, the more Azerbaijan is powerful and prosperous, the more Azerbaijani ethnic citizen of Iran will be dissatisfied with Iran, as well as they may create safety issues for Iran's territorial integrity in the future (Ramazanzadeh, 1996). In other words, the weaker Azerbaijan is, the fewer Azerbaijani ethnic citizens of Iran will have expectations from Azerbaijan.

This study argues that the conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia (From 1991 to 2020) was affected by the politics and interests of the main regional powers such as Russia, Turkey, and Iran. At that period, the resolution of this issue was not only dependent on Azerbaijan and Armenia, but also dependent on Russia, Turkey, and Iran. In this period, neither Azerbaijan and Armenia got precise political or military success, nor Russia, Turkey, and Iran reached a consensus on the resolution of the Nagorno-Karabakh issue. This issue, therefore, maintained its seriousness, and it seems that it will keep affecting the peace and stability of the Caucasus, as well as be a component of power and influence rivalry among these regional powers. The findings of this article may not provide a complete picture of the interests of these regional powers. Yet it aims to develop a deeper analytical understanding of why the Nagorno-Karabakh issue seems so puzzling for Russia, Turkey, and Iran. This article precedes with a description and exploration of the Nagorno-Karabakh Issue, then analyses the accounts and expectations of the main regional countries (namely Russia, Turkey, and Iran) in the region.

What is in the retrospect?

The territorial and ethnic disputes between Azerbaijan and Armenia date back to a long time ago. However, by the end of the 1980s, this conflict has become a serious issue not only between the two parties but also between the main regional countries such as Russia Turkey, and Iran. When this issue turned into an armed conflict in the early 1990s in the name of the Nagorno-Karabakh Issue, Azerbaijan lost 20% of its territories and over 1 million people lost their homes. Accordingly, this issue has turned out to be discussed internationally. Hence, in January 1992 the European Security Cooperation Conference was held in Prague, the conference decided to organize a group in the name of Minsk with 11+1, with the co-chairmanship of the US, Russia, and France (Gülbiten, 2017).

During the early months of the conflict in 1994, Russia, Iran, and the US isolated Azerbaijan and left it alone with its conflict with Armenia. Moreover, both Iran and Russia supported Armenia during the whole conflict. From that time on, Turkey has become the only country to support Azerbaijan both domestically and externally. Thenceforward, Turkey refused to normalize its relations with its neighbour Armenia until Armenia gives up occupying Azeri territories. Along with taking a guarantor position for Nakhichevan, throughout this process, Turkey has given Azerbaijan important military equipment and supports, especially, when Azerbaijan could not protect its land, lost 20 percent of its land, and nearly 15 percent of its population was displaced (Cornell, 1998). Accordingly, in 1997, the Minsk group was established under the umbrella of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe to handle peace and dialogue missions between the parties. However, there is no concrete proposal put forward by the organization to solve the Nagorno-Karabakh Issue so far (Özdamar, 2010).

While Nagorno-Karabakh is a part of Azerbaijan, however, most of its population consists of Armenian. This is an outcome of the politics of the Soviet Union pursued in the Caucasus one century ago. In early 1980, political tensions between Armenia and Azerbaijan escalated and turned into a serious war. The two parties could not stop the war by a ceasefire until 1994. Since then, Nagorno-Karabakh has been controlled by separatist ethnic Armenians backed by the Armenian government (BBC, 2020). Since then, Azerbaijan, on one hand, tried to find a way to start military operations to get its occupied territories back. On the other hand, it tried to make the international society acknowledge that Azerbaijan's territories have been occupied by Armenia. As a result of these politics, many international decisions were taken in favour of Azerbaijan throughout the 2000s. Especially the UN's decision on "Concerning the Situation of the Occupied Territories of Azerbaijan" dated 14 March 2008 has been one of the most important achievements of Azerbaijan (Gülbiten, 2017). Since then, Azerbaijan has been trying out to find a way to both recover its territories and make the world know that Azerbaijan is right for its struggle in Nagorno-Karabakh.

Azerbaijan and Armenia have different strategies for solving the Nagorno-Karabakh issue, Armenia is more inclined to normalize the status quo and make Nagorno-Karabakh get a de facto status like Kosovo got in recent years. While Azerbaijan is majorly focused on re-conquering the territories of Nagorno Karabakh (Waal, 2010). Because of these two different calculations and expectations, the issue is not able to be solved wholly. As Armenian President Robert Kocharyan pointed to gridlock by saying “There is no solution to the Karabakh problem that will make all parties happy” (Ural & Çaykiran, 2011). Correspondingly, The President of Azerbaijan Ilham Aliyev has stated that, if the problem cannot be solved peacefully by using the changing conjuncture, war will be inevitable between Azerbaijan and Armenia (Gülbiten, 2017). As the two leaders predicted, the war started again in 2020. In fact, the frozen conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia was like a balloon that could blast at any time. Even the rhetoric of Armenian and Azerbaijani authors was also predicting a new conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia by accusing each other. Even today, almost every step of Armenia is right for Armenian authors while the same example is existing for Azerbaijani authors (Gamaghelyan, 2010). This is one of the biggest issues that make Azerbaijan and Armenia reach a peace agreement, as no one is willing to leave any kind of benefits to the other side.

With the leadership of Aliyev, Azerbaijan was thinking that any kind of independence attempt for Nagorno-Karabakh would be considered political suicide for Armenia (Özkan, 2008). Thus, Azerbaijan would never agree with the occupation of Nagorno Karabakh. Consequently, in July 2020, the footprints of a new conflict appeared on the international border between Armenia and Azerbaijan. In this period, Turkey provided crucial military equipment to Azerbaijan Army. Finally, a new conflict broke out on 27 September 2020. Just like previously happened, the two parties tried to accuse each other of starting the war. Consequently, the accusation turned into a war, and it continued until November 2020. Lastly, both parties agreed to sign a peace deal monitored by Russia. Under the terms of this agreement, Azerbaijan would control the areas that Armenia lost control during the conflict, Armenia would withdraw its troops from these areas, and the Russian peacekeepers would monitor the treaty process (BBC, 2020).

Though some scholars have claimed that a new war between Azerbaijan and Armenia could decrease the influence of Turkey and Western countries in the Caucasus and Central Asia and improving relations between Azerbaijan and Armenia could be better for the US, the EU, and NATO. (Gamaghelyan, 2010). However, the war in 2020 has shown that Turkey has increased its influence in the Nagorno-Karabakh issue, in Azerbaijan and Caucasus. Though Turkey did not directly involve in the conflict, however, Turkish-made military equipment and unmanned aerial vehicles played an important role in the military achievement of Azerbaijan.

A theoretical perspective through the lens of power balancing and influence strategies

Since interest-based policies play a significant role in interstate relations, states are eager to pursue superiority or balancing policies against each other. This is a phenomenon that has been continuing for ages. As Moravcsik claimed, “the relationship between states and the surrounding domestic and transnational society in which they are embedded critically shapes the behaviours and preferences of states” (Moravcsik, 1997). According to international relations theories, states pursue a serious rivalry or try to balance each other, they even prefer to establish alignments when they perceive threats from each other. (Walt, 1985). As theoretically confirmed, power rivalry, power balancing, and influence strategies compose the fundamental policies of states in the international arena. This is not only valid for power rivalry between the established and rising power, but it also plays an important role among the regional powers.

Some scholars claim that power balancing, power increase, and influence policies are the most common reasons for war (Sheehan, 1996). Analogously, in the view of structural realist scholars, the power balancing renews itself in interstate affairs as a lawlike phenomenon (Waltz, 1979). Due to the anarchic structure of the international system, states can never be sure about the other states' actual intentions. Thus, in such an anarchic-based international system, the future of the security of the states is uncertain, and the states are not able to avoid this reality completely (Mearsheimer, 2001). The states, therefore, can never be sure whether other states will go along with their aggressive policies to attack them one day or not. In other words, they cannot be completely sure about the future policies and behaviours of states. Likewise, the struggle for energy resources has also made the Caucasus become a struggling area for global powers. Thus, the region has become a sphere of interest conflict among the regional powers for long and short-term political and economic strategies.

The rivalry between Russia Turkey and Iran is shaping the political and economic dynamics of the Caucasus, Central Asia, and the Middle East. The countries that have relations with these three countries at the same time frequently face a dilemma, since they must take the other two countries' reactions when they have bilateral cooperation with any of these countries. Flanagan claims that Turkey aims to be more independent in international politics. Russia tries to benefit from Turkey's this inclination by enhancing political, economic, cultural, and security cooperation and establishing a strategic partnership in 2010. However, Russian-Turkish relations seem more tactical than real strategic ones. In recent years, they have been testing their cooperation limits. Turkey and Iran have become stronger rivals in the region, China is also increasing its influence in Central Asia. As the Syrian crisis and tensions between Sunni and Shia communities in the Middle East continue, the partnership between Turkey and Iran has faced a big challenge. Turkey and Iran lack a common political agenda, they have more divergent than more converged interests. (Flanagan, 2013). Although Turkey, Iran, and Russia have always had a political and economic rivalry in the Caucasus; however, the coordination of these countries can also bring a stable and long-term solution for the Nagorno-Karabakh issue and Caucasus (Rammezanzadeh, 1996).

Russia has advanced political and military relations with Armenia, it has military bases and important militaristic cooperation with Armenia. This can be considered a kind of influence intensifying in the Caucasus against the other regional powers. Russia, Turkey, and Iran have been trying to increase their influence in the Caucasus, Central Asia, and the Middle East by establishing economic, trade, energy, and security partnerships and cooperation. While Russia's political intentions are based on regaining the power and influence that it had during the Soviet Union time. Turkey tries to have a leading country role in the Middle East and Central Asia regions with its pro-Western Muslim secular democracy 'Turkish model' which was attributed to it by the western world. Iran has had security and territorial concerns since the collapse of the Soviet Union. Though Iran wishes for a peaceful future for the Caucasus, however, it is not willing to see a powerful Azerbaijan in the region. MacGillivray argues that the rivalry between Turkey and Iran is not an old one, their rivalry started after the 1979 Iran Revolution as a quest for regional influence between the neighbours and their governance models. He also claims that Turkey's soft power approach to the region has provided important advantages to Iran in the context of increasing its hard power influence (MacGillivray, 2020).

The perspective of Russia: A quest for recapturing the domination of the Caucasus

Soviet Union policy toward the Caucasus and Central Asia in the Stalin period was based on a kind of divide-and-rule policy. Even at that time, Russia has drawn the borders of Nagorno-Karabakh (Walker, 1991). After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Russia also tried to increase its influence again in the regions that were under the governance of the Soviet Union. Accordingly, the uncertain international environment in the early 1990s also enabled Russia to maintain its

hegemony in the region. Since the insolvency of the issue could make Armenia more dependent on Russia. Thus, Armenia's occupation of Azerbaijani territories was a result of Russian policies to increase its influence in the region after the collapse of the Soviet Union (Gülbiten, 2017). In this sense, it seems that Russia's fear is the possibility of losing its decisive role in the Caucasus. Like Iran, Russia also wishes to protect the status quo of the region. Russia expects that when both states are struggling with deep crises, Russia will be the only actor that can solve these crises. Furthermore, Russia thinks that if the status quo changes, Azerbaijan can become a serious alternative for Europe in the terms of energy, since Europe desires to get rid of Russian energy dependency (İnaç, 2020). Like its former policies, Russia does not willing to give any opportunity to Turkey to enhance its relations with Azerbaijan. Because Russia knows that if Turkey can open to Central Asia through Azerbaijan, Turkey's influence will get bigger in Central Asia day by day.

When observing Russia's political approach to the Caucasus, it can be inferred that Russia is trying to put the Caucasus countries under its control again. Therefore, Russia is pursuing its own interests rather than seeing a stable and peaceful Caucasus. Russia did this with its approach to Abkhazian and South Ossetian separatists in Georgia once again. During the independence quest of Azerbaijan and Armenia, Russia mainly backed Armenia, as for Russia, Armenia was the only reliable ally in the Caucasus. Russia's politics in Azerbaijan have mainly been based on making the influence of Turkey and Iran lower (Cornell, 1998). In this context, Armenia has always tried to have close relations with Moscow to counterbalance Turkey and Azerbaijan, the two countries that are thought of as antagonistic towards Armenia. Turkey is militarily powerful, and Azerbaijan is getting stronger day by day. Thus, having political, military, and economic relations with Russia which is still the most influential country in Caucasus politics is crucial for Armenia. Moreover, the Russian military presence in the region is considered a crucial component of Armenia's national security. Russia and Armenia relations are ongoing above the regional level and the two countries built a strategic partnership (Waal, 2010). Consequently, Russia has built a military base in Gyumri, which is a city near to Turkish border. However, the control capacity of this military base is not enough for controlling the political and economic events in the region is not as big as many researchers think (Rasızade, 2011). On the other hand, The EU and the US support Azerbaijan from time to time in order to decrease Russia's energy dominance in the region and Europe. In this sense, Russia considers that a stable and peaceful Caucasus may be positive for the influence of the US and NATO, and NATO may penetrate the region into contradiction in which Turkey has been increasingly active (Gamaghelyan, 2010). Consequently, the status quo of the region and the Nagorno-Karabakh issue are relatively profitable for Russia in the context of its long-term objectives.

There is plenty of evidence that Armenia took the military support of Russia during the war in Nagorno Karabakh in 1991, while Azerbaijan only could get minimum support from Turkey. On the other hand, Iran tried to play a leading role in fulfilling a ceasefire, finding a solution for refugees, and building a long-run peace between the parties in 1992. But Iran's this attempt was sabotaged, and Iran failed to reach its then political objectives (Okur, 2011). When Heydar Aliyev came to power, he changed the foreign policy of Azerbaijan. Instead of following a Turkish-based policy during the Elchibey period, Aliyev followed a balanced policy based on equal relations with all regional powers. Aliyev knew the role of the Russian Federation in the ongoing conflicts with Armenians, especially over Nagorno-Karabakh, accordingly, he signed joint security and economic cooperation agreements as a member of the CIS to ensure that his country can act impartially. (Aslanlı & Hesenov 2005. Conversely, Aliyev could not find the supports that he expected from the Russian Federation. Because the Russian Federation was acting from two points in its foreign policy on Azerbaijan. The first one was carrying a political-military perspective of Russia, since Russia wanted to be able to deploy Russian troops in Azerbaijan, Armenia, and Iran borders to be the only influential military power in the region. The second one was carrying Russia's economic

ambitions. Since, Russia was planning to get a share of all income from oil production in Azerbaijan and the Caspian Sea region, as well as to take the control of energy shipping to the world markets. (Aslanli & Hesenov 2005).

Armenia is a strategic partner of Russia and Russia has a great influence on Armenian politics. Some scholars argue that even the US has also tried to balance the Russian influence in the region by establishing advanced relations with Armenia. However, the absolute support to Armenia in every realm may have a negative influence over the American interests in the Caucasus similar to the support to Israel in the Middle East. However, American foreign policy still pays more attention to developing advanced relations with Armenia (Görgülü, 2012). In fact, the role of western powers' is not very constructive for the resolution of the Nagorno-Karabakh issue. Since its establishment, the Minsk group whose head states are the US, France, and Russia has not been able to find a peaceful resolution for the Nagorno Karabakh Issue. Though the US and France are also important in the Minsk group, however, it seems that Russia has a more important role in solving the Nagorno-Karabakh issue, as both Azerbaijan and Armenia are former Soviet Union parts. Thus, Russia can persuade both sides at the same time. Russia has many military bases in Armenia, and each one of them has an official status based on the 25-year agreement between Russia and Armenia. Former President of Armenia Robert Kocharyan, in a statement, mentioned this issue, since he felt that he needs to explain the existence of these bases by saying "Since Armenia is in a very complex region, the settlement of Russian military bases in the country's territory responds to the interests of Armenia." (Sarıahmetoğlu, 2016). As a result of its conflict with Azerbaijan and relatively not smooth relations with Turkey, Armenia had no way but to have advanced relations with Russia. According to the news in the Azerbaijani press, lastly, many weapons were transported from Russia to Armenia through Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, and Iran airspace. Russia announced that these transported cargoes were carried out for the purpose of changing the soldiers of the 102nd Military Base of Russia, located on the Turkey-Armenia border. However, Azerbaijan's side considers that if Russia's claims are accurate, then why Russia did not use Georgian airspace which is much shorter than Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan's (Veliyev, 2020)?

It can be observed that Russia is also trying to increase its influence in Azerbaijan by prioritizing developing its military and economic relations. Though Azerbaijan signed "The Defence Ministers' Cooperation Plan" with Turkey in December 2015, Turkey signed unmanned combat aerial vehicles (UCAVs) and some other military cooperation contracts with Azerbaijan, Azerbaijan bought many military types of equipment from Israel, Ukraine, and the Czech Republic. However, Russia supplied more than 60 percent of Azerbaijan's military equipment from 2013 to 2017. Russia is an important arms supplier for Azerbaijan. Thus, Russia has an exceptional role in the conflict between Azerbaijan and Armenia, as Russia is the main weapon supplier to both sides (Aliyev, 2018). In this perspective, Russia has an important role in the future of the region in the context of Russia's political, economic, and militaristic policies.

Russia is not willing to show its direct opposition to Azerbaijan, on the other hand, Russia prefers to support Armenia since Russia will not be satisfied with a more powerful Turkish or Iranian presence in the region. Russia is more inclined to show its presence in Armenia in the Caucasus, otherwise, Russia will probably have fewer words to say for the future of the Caucasus. Another reason for Russia's opposition to a powerful Azerbaijan is coming from the economic and energy relations of Azerbaijan with western countries (most notably with the US). It can be comprehended that Armenia should agree with decreasing or terminating the conflict with Azerbaijan based on Karabakh Issue, since the instability of the region is more detrimental for Armenia, as it has been affected economically and does not have many alternatives to connect with the rest of the world. Therefore, Armenia needs the stability of the region more than Azerbaijan and other regional countries.

The perspective of Iran: security, religious and ethnic challenges

Iran has taken threats to its stability and territorial integrity from its northern neighbours for more than two centuries (Chubin, Zabih & Seabury, 1974). With the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Iran had 5 new neighbours. Before this disintegration, Iran had one very powerful threat instead of these 5 new neighbours. Currently, Iran does not have a high-level relationship with these new countries, and any conflict that happened between these new countries has the potential to deteriorate Iran's domestic stability. In the Caucasus, Azerbaijan is one of the primary concerns for the Iran Government, as Azeris living in Iran are the second-largest community consisting of around 20 million population of Iran. Some Iranian scholars think that Iran will never be safer if Azerbaijan is more powerful or prosperous. Thus, a balance of power between Armenia and Azerbaijan is crucial for Iran's foreign policy. Since a powerful Azerbaijan may claim territories from Iran. Thus, for Iran, a status quo or an unsolved Azeri-Armenia conflict can be considered as a better consequence temporarily. Since, the Azerbaijan people will not have a chance to think about the other political objectives unless the Nagorno-Karabakh issue is resolved (Rammezanzadeh, 1996). Azerbaijan not only have ethnic relations with Iran, but they also have strong religious relations with the Iranian and Iranian Azeri people. Most people of Iran and Azerbaijan follow the Shiite part of Islam. In the context of religious influence, Iran-Azerbaijan relations are more intimate than Turkey-Azerbaijan relations. Though Iran and Azerbaijan have religious, cultural, and historical ties, however, Azerbaijan and Iran do not have high-level political, militaristic, cultural, or long-run trust. This mistrust comes from Iran's suspicion of possible Israel-Azeri and US-Azeri relations (Fuller, 2013).

The Nagorno-Karabakh conflict has brought challenges for Iran, as Iran could not be fully neutral or directly support one side against another. While the Government of Iran wants to pursue neutral politics against the region, however, some bodies of the regime announce their support for the opposite side (Khoshnood & Khoshnood, (2020). After the 2008 Georgian War, Iran increased its diplomatic presence, and economic and energy ties in the Caucasus to protect its interests and balance Russian Influence. Iran has declared several investments and economic projects for the region by facilitating travel to Iran. Iran has also offered mediation between Armenia and Azerbaijan over the Nagorno-Karabakh dispute. Turkey, Russia, and Iran are pursuing different politics in the Caucasus. Iran's engagement in the region includes deepening ties with Armenia by giving an ultimatum to Azerbaijan at the same time. However, Iran is also very cautious about the Nagorno-Karabakh issue. Iran does not want to see an influential Russia in South Caucasus, as well as avoiding confronting Russia (Flanagan, 2013). Iran can also benefit from unstable relations between Turkey and Armenia. Since, Iran is playing an essential role in Armenia, which is a landlocked country surrounded by Azerbaijan, Turkey, Georgia, and Iran. Thus, Iran is the only gate for Armenia to have relations with the rest of the world.

Some scholars argue that Iran has a long border both with Azerbaijan and Armenia, if the conflict goes on, or cannot be solved in a short period, Iran's security risks will increase from its Northern frontiers (Mahmudlu & Abilov, 2017). Iran will never be willing to see Azerbaijan achieve a victory or increase its influence in the region because Iran thinks that it will both incite the Azerbaijani separatist in Iran and will also delay Iran to increase its influence in Central Asia and Caucasus (Goble, 1992). Some scholars also argue that there will not be a peace agreement without the consent of Russia between Armenia and Azerbaijan. Otherwise, Turkey or Iran will increase their influence in the region (Rammezanzadeh, 1996). Since such a consequence will be a threat to Russia's political interests, thus, Russia will not put the region under the influence of Turkey and Iran.

Iran recognized Armenia's independence as soon as the Soviet Union collapsed. The development of Iran-Armenia relations is also thought of as an alternative to Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan. Armenia and Iran have established Iran-Armenia natural gas pipeline, Iran-Armenia railways, and motorways, as well as Armenian has started to sell Electricity to Iran (Goble,1992). Iran has given military and economic support to Armenia when Armenia has a conflict with Azerbaijan in the context of the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict (Kalaycı, 2019). Armenia has become one of the most reliable partners of Iran. They have established important cooperation in many fields such as transportation, and energy sectors, even though they have not faced any conflict in religious, cultural, or ethnic fields (Semercioglu, 2020). In this sense, Iran and Armenia are the least problematic neighbours. They do not have historical hostilities based on borders, territories, and minorities. While Iran is an antidote to Armenia's regional encirclement, Armenia helps Iran break its loneliness in the international arena. This close relationship has political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions. As Georgia has political issues with Russia, Georgia-Armenia relations are being stressed frequently, thus, Georgia is cooperating with Azerbaijan and Turkey by excluding Armenia from energy and trade relations. This also has negative outcomes on the economic development process of Armenia (Inaç, 2020). Thus, Iran and Armenia try to cooperate against the economic and energy cooperation among Turkey, Georgia, and Azerbaijan, as well as increase their influence in the region. One of the main reasons generate Iran's afraid of the independent Azerbaijani state which has rich energy resources that can be the center of attraction for its Azerbaijani ethnic population in Iran and strengthen their separatist (Inaç, 2020). Azerbaijan was giving too much importance to Turkey, especially to the Western world and the United States. Moreover, Azerbaijan seems that it is willing to establish close relations with Israel as well. This made the Iranian rulers quite uneasy and caused them to get closer to Armenia. Although the removal of Elchibey from his post with a coup was welcomed in Tehran, however, Heydar Aliyev pursued similar policies regarding the USA and Israel and bypassed Iran by realizing the Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan (BTC) oil pipeline project with Turkey. Consequently, Iran was disappointed with its expectation for Azerbaijan (Kelkitli, 2013).

It is also hard for Azerbaijan and Iran to cooperate in several state-level relations, Azerbaijan Government for instance is against any kind of religious radicalization, and Azerbaijan is willing to follow a secular state policy. Thus, in the context of cooperation, if Iran has any intention to support the religious groups or influence the people of Azerbaijan, it will bring many challenges for Azerbaijan. (Erendor & Öztarsu, 2019). Moreover, the security and the future of the regime are extremely important for Iran. Even the regime is more important than the lives of some Muslim people and Muslim countries. Thus, for the future of the regime, Iran probably will not hesitate to sacrifice everything. Iran is against any kind of foreign involvement in the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict. Rouhani has emphasized that any foreign involvement in the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict will deepen the dispute and obscure the situation of the region (Khoshonood, 2020). Possible cooperation of Iran with Azerbaijan will make Azerbaijan face a dilemma since Azerbaijan will probably not put Turkey aside and cooperate with Russia or Iran.

In the context of having more influence in the Caucasus and neighbouring countries, Iran and Turkey are considered regional competitors. When Turkey increases its influence in the Caucasus, especially in Azerbaijan and Georgia, Iran considers that as a NATO member, Turkey's rising role in the region is a kind of loss of prestige for Iran. On the other hand, when Iran is increasing its influence in the region, especially in Nagorno-Karabakh Issue, Turkey may be concerned about Iran's possible support for Armenia or create obstacles for Azerbaijan not to reach its future objectives. Thus, if Iran and Russia have more influence on Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, and Armenia, it may also be considered as a loss of prestige for Turkey in the region as well as for its future security and strategic policies. In fact, the regional and global power influence seek made Turkey and Iran both cooperate and compete in the Middle East and the

Caucasus in the context of political interests and security. In addition, Turkey and Iran are exceptional countries that have common security interests for their future political and economic rivals in the Middle East and the Caucasus. Turkey and Iran are needed to cooperate and together establish peace and stability in the Middle East and the Caucasus. On the other hand, they both are in a hidden mood of competitiveness for their allies or the countries relatively near to each other that can play important roles in the Caucasus such as Azerbaijan, Armenia, such as Iraq and Syria in the Middle East. However, in some points such as territorial concerns and instability of the region, Turkey and Iran are not able to follow a pure alliance relation nor a direct rival policy in the region, they both need each other, and they are clear that if one of them becomes unstable, the other one may have serious consequences. Thus, Turkey and Iran relations are not like Turkey-Russia and Iran-Russia relations, there are both regional rivalry and necessary cooperation between Turkey and Iran.

The perspective of Turkey: Political, Economic, and cultural interests

Turkey and Azerbaijan have historically important cultural, ethnic, social, and economic relations. With the Treaty of Kars in 1921, Turkey determined its border with Armenia, Iran, and Georgia, as well as Turkey undertook the protection of Nakhichevan which is a part of Azerbaijan territories (Okur, 2011). In the first years of the Republic of Turkey, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk proclaimed that “Azerbaijan’s happiness is our happiness, and its sorrow is our sorrow”. Moreover, in accordance with this statement, the former Azerbaijani President Heydar Aliyev, during his presidency described the two countries as “two states, one nation”. Turkey has always given priority to its relations with Azerbaijan and Turkey was the first state to recognize Azerbaijan’s independence in 1991 (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Turkey, 2015). As it was historically tested, Turkey-Azerbaijan relations also have a critical role in Caucasus politics.

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, Armenia got most of the Soviet arsenals and Armenia militarily became more powerful than Azerbaijan (De Waal, 2003). Consequently, in the early 1990s, a big territorial war arose between Azerbaijan and Armenia, and it created a hard-solvable issue named Nagorno-Karabakh. Russian support for Armenia and Turkey’s strategic partnership with Azerbaijan has created a challenge in solving the Nagorno-Karabakh issue, as this rivalry made the South Caucasus into two opponent blocks (German, 2012). Furthermore, Azerbaijan-Turkey armed forces conducted an extensive military exercise on Azerbaijani territory in 2020, and they have had increasing military cooperation in buying Turkish weapons and unmanned combat aerial vehicles (UCAVs), this development concerned Russia for rising Turkish reputation in the Caucasus and Central Asia (Singh, 2020; Suchankin, 2021). Turkish military equipment given to Azerbaijan played a critical role in Azerbaijan’s military success in the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict in 2020. Although Turkey did not directly support Azerbaijan and fought against Armenia; however, Turkey gave indirect military assistance to Azerbaijan to achieve its objectives. Recently, Turkey-Azerbaijan cooperation is going to be fortified. Russia has stated its unrest for this military engagement between Turkey and Azerbaijan by predicting that a Turkish military base in Azerbaijan will not be acceptable, and Moscow will take measures for its security (Sputnik, 2021). Correspondingly, Turkish President Erdogan visited Shusha (which is one of the most important cities in the Nagorno-Karabakh region) and signed Shusha Declaration with Azerbaijan, as well as mentioned opening a Turkish Consular General in Shusha. Erdogan stated that the two countries have opened a new era with the Shusha Declaration by adding that “The OSCE Minsk Group should repeatedly see the liberated territories of Azerbaijan” (Apa, 2021).

Formerly Turkey was not able to support Azerbaijan to a greater extent, as Turkey abstained from the possibility of facing western-oriented political and military crises such as the arm, political and economic embargos. Azeri leadership also realized it and did not want to force Turkey to help more with its NATO member ID and western ally position. Like the US, France and England also

maintained politics in the Armenian Lobby against Turkey. Western countries' this behaviour strengthens the relations between Turkey and Azerbaijan, as the Armenian Lobby creates a serious disturbance for Turkey and Azerbaijan. (Cornell, 1998). However, in recent years, Turkey has maintained a more independent foreign policy and advocated Azeri interests obviously. Accordingly, Turkey has involved in peace and the stability of the region. Turkey has shown its positive attitude during the Russia-Georgia war in 2008 as well. This is important for Turkey which has suffered both internal and external political issues in recent years (Gamaghelyan, 2010).

In recent years, Turkey has tried to become an energy hub between East and West. For the last two decades, Turkey has given importance to increasing its soft power in Central Asia, the Caucasus, and the Middle East. This made Turkey take advantage of increasing Turkish influence in these regions and undermine or decrease the influence of Russia and Iran. As the US anticipated and wanted the Central Asian countries to take Turkey as a role model for their political, economic, and cultural development. Iran, therefore, is not willing to see the Turkish Influence in Central Asia and the Caucasus, as well as its increasing role in the Middle East and Azerbaijan. (Mahmmudlu and Abilov, 2017).

Turkey has been supporting Azerbaijan's political and economic interests at every opportunity. During his Prime Ministry, President Erdogan stated that Nakhichevan has faced various threats from Armenia, Turkish and Azerbaijan military cooperation is going forward in the light of this policy. Afterward, in 2010 Turkey and Azerbaijan signed an agreement based on Strategic Partnership and mutual support. Turkish military base in Nakhichevan is also considered a response to Russian military bases in Armenia (Rasizade, 2011). While the Soviet legacy still has significant control over the strategic landscape of the Caucasus. Russia is still possessing a dominant role. However, with its firm position behind Baku, Turkey tries to promote interdependence among the South Caucasus states to strengthen their sovereignty and expand their commercial and energy links to Turkey. (Flanagan, 2013). As Turkey is connecting the "Middle Corridor" which is described by the Turkish Government as a corridor from Turkey spreads to Central Asia passing through Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Turkmenistan, as well as forms a crucial component of China's "Belt and Road Initiative" (BRI) to connect it to the Mediterranean and Europe. With its geo-strategical position, Turkey is also describing itself as an important actor for its role in "Trans Anatolian Natural Gas Pipeline Project" (TANAP) and "Turkish Current" projects. Turkey held many important precautions for energy security to connect the BRI to the "Transport Corridor Europe-Caucasus-Asia" (TRACECA) which was established in 1998 as a corridor of Euro-Caucasia-Asia (TRACECA Org, 2017). Another important development is "The Lapis-Lazuli Transit, Trade & Transport Route" (or the "Lapis Lazuli Corridor") which is quite important for the integration of Turkey-Central Asian Countries. As a prior phase of strengthening its relations with Asia and Central Asia, Turkey signed this agreement with Afghanistan, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, and Georgia. (RECCA, 2020).

2006 was an extremely important year in terms of cooperation between Turkey and Azerbaijan. The Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan (BTC) Oil Pipeline was completed after a long and tiring diplomatic, political, and economic struggle. Crude oil departing from Baku has moved towards Ceyhan Port (Elçin, 2019). In 2010, Turkey and Azerbaijan signed a strategic partnership and mutual Assistance Agreement (Aslanli 2020). Such high-level cooperation has also provided Azerbaijan and Turkey with strengthening military-technical cooperation, arms supply, and the establishment of infrastructure for possible joint operations in the future.

Another important cooperation was Baku-Tbilisi-Erzurum (BTE) Natural Gas Line project signed in 2007. It was a 980 km long natural gas pipeline project. BTC, BTE, and Baku-Tbilisi-Kars (BTK) railway project lines are among the largest and most important projects in the region. The fact that all three projects start from Baku, and they are not only related to the oil and gas

reserves of Azerbaijan. They also related to the fact that Azerbaijan has an important economic potential and power in the region. (Hassanoglu and Memmedov etl, 2020). These projects made Iran and Armenia gradually lose their geopolitical importance in the Caucasus and Central Asia. BTC and BTE are not only a geostrategic initiative of these three countries or of Caucasus, but also these projects would have a critical role in the global energy market. TANAP and (BTK) are among the major international projects of these three countries. This cooperation has gained an important role in terms of transporting the resources of the region to Europe (Dogan 2020). BTK has also connected to the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), and this corridor is connecting China, Central Asia, and the Caucasus to the Mediterranean and Europe. Furthermore, Turkey, Azerbaijan, and Turkmenistan issued a joint statement to have the vision to create a comprehensive peace, stability, and common prosperity in the area between these three countries. They also tried to use a tripartite mechanism to enhance joint projects or programs in customs, energy, transportation, telecommunications, industry, agriculture, science, education, culture, tourism, and the environment (Herald, 2021).

After 2011 Turkey followed a policy termed “zero problems with neighbours”, despite this policy Iran Turkey relations did not have a remarkable outcome. With the launch of the Arab Spring, Syria was also affected, and Turkey and Iran followed different policies for the future of Syria and the Assad Regime. Turkey-Iran relations were stressed a lot and the two countries followed different politics in Yemen and Bahrein as well. (Aktaş, 2018). These different policies also show that the two countries are in the process of increasing their influence in different areas. However, this undisclosed competition between Turkey and Iran very rarely turned into hostile behaviour between the two parties.

It can be inferred that Iran and Turkey are rivals of each other in seeking power and influence in the Caucasus and the Middle East. However, they also know that they both need each other for external security threats. Their rivalry perception is mainly based on the two countries’ power and influence sought in the Middle East, Central Asia, and Caucasia. They both are seeking influence in these regions for their global influence as well. On the other hand, Turkey and Iran are clear about the geopolitical and regional threats, especially coming from threats of PKK and ISIS. They both are not happy with the political objectives of Israel. Though Turkey is an ally of the United States and an important member of NATO, Turkey is not content with the recent politics of the United States and some NATO members in the Middle East. Turkey and Iran also need each other, the existence and stability of one side is also a kind of safety and stability for the existence of the other one. The two specific examples are Iraq and Syria, when Iraq and Syria had war, they lost their stability. The region became more unstable, and many new threats come out for both Turkey and Iran. Though Turkey is Sunni and Iran is Shia, Turkey and Iran did not have radical contradictions in religious issues, they both are avoiding blaming each other in the international arena for religious issues. Even the cooperation of Turkey and Iran on the regional and geopolitical development in the Middle East and the Caucasus is a kind of necessity for the security of the region and themselves. In this sense, contrary to strict power and interest competition, the Nagorno-Karabakh issue even could bring Turkey and Iran a turning point for cooperation in the Caucasus. Though Turkey and Iran have different approaches to the Syrian War, Nagorno-Karabakh War, and other regional developments. However, Turkey and Iran are also cooperating to decrease the possible risks ahead of themselves in the Middle East, and Caucasus regions. However, the succession of Turkey-Iran cooperation is also mainly influenced by Turkey-US and Turkey-Russia relations. Their cooperation sometimes develops under the umbrella of the relations of Turkey with the United States and Russia. As Iran has relatively better relations with Russia, a positive development in Turkey-Russia relations has a positive effect on Turkey-Iran relations as well.

Conclusion

Azerbaijan and Armenia foreign policy is majorly dominated by the Nagorno-Karabakh issue. This issue creates an ambiguous future for the Caucasus region. With the Autonomous Oblast status given to the Nagorno Karabakh in Azerbaijani territories by the Soviet Union, the Nagorno-Karabakh region has become a major political agenda between Azerbaijan and Armenia since 1923. Along with Azerbaijan and Armenia, this issue has also been followed closely by the major powers in the region such as Russia, Turkey, and Iran. As historically, politically, and culturally these major powers have played important role in these territories, they have different calculations for the future of the Nagorno-Karabakh issue in the context of increasing their political and economic influence in the Caucasus.

The rivalry among Russia, Turkey, and Iran in the Caucasus has continued for a long time. The Nagorno-Karabakh Issue has played a critical role in the context of political, economic, and energy policies. Russia's Caucasus strategies were majorly based on regaining its former dominant position in the Soviet Union time. Turkey's strategies are majorly based on political, economic, energy, and cultural development. While Iran has both security and border concerns. Although Russia and Iran also have power and influence rivalry in the Caucasus. However, the rivalry between them is not very explicit, since they both are against the influence of the US, NATO, and their alliances. It is obvious that Iran and Turkey are partially supporting Azerbaijan and Armenia to increase their power and influence in the Caucasus. Though Turkey and Iran relations could have tensed from time to time. However, Turkey and Iran relations have been relatively stable since 1900s. Turkey-Iran influence-based rivalry has continued in Iraq and Syria as well. Though Iran is maintaining some strategic relations with China and Russia against the US. However, Iran is also a rival of Russia in the Caucasus.

On the other hand, the cooperation of Russia, Turkey, and Iran is possible when they face a common threat coming from terrorism or border security. The cooperation in Syria Issue (Astana negotiations) is one of the clearest examples of this cooperation. Since, if they cannot make the Middle East more stable, the chaos of the Middle East can influence Central Asia and the Caucasus at the same time. Turkey-Russia relations had big progress since Erdogan took the office in 2003. Ankara has tried to have deep relations with Russia both in the economic and energy fields. Turkey and Russia have also had political and security cooperation in the Middle East Issues and purchased Russia's S400 defense system. However, when looking at the whole picture of the Caucasus, it can be comprehended easily that with the last Nagorno-Karabakh War, Turkey has increased its influence in Caucasus and Azerbaijan much more than Russia and Iran. The Minsk group has not been successful to find a solution that can satisfy both Azerbaijan, Armenia, and regional powers. It can be assumed that like regional rivals, the Minsk Group members also have different political calculations for the Caucasus region. in this regard, a full-fledged commission that can be consisted of the regional powerful and influential countries such as Russia, Turkey, and Iran, including Armenian and Azerbaijani representatives can be more influential in solving this issue. Otherwise, this issue seems will maintain its existence with the mutual accusation of Azerbaijani and Armenians, or it will maintain to cause wars and tragedies in the future.

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Primary School Teachers' Attitudes Toward Refugee Students and in-Class Practices for Multicultural Education

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Introduction

People are forced to migrate for a variety of reasons, including war, hunger, and natural disasters (Gallagher, 2002). Migration can be defined as a movement of people from where they live due to political and social upheavals, economic hardships, and cultural factors (Sezik & Ağır, 2015; Segal, Mayadas & Elliot, 2006). Migration can be at individual or community-level and national or international (Güneş, 2013). The major challenges of a community-level international migration are adaptation between refugees and the societies in which they migrate, as well as social and economic issues experienced during the acceptance of the receiving communities (Sezgin & Yolcu, 2016). As a result of its geographical location, Turkey has become an immigrant-receiving country after the 1970s (Güneş, 2013). Especially as a result of the instability in the Middle East countries, Turkey is now a country that constantly receives immigrants. Since 2010, many people have immigrated to Turkey due to the internal disturbances experienced in Syria, Turkey's neighbor to the south (Elitok, 2013).

In addition to the basic needs such as shelter, food, hygiene, and healthcare, one of the most significant needs of people displaced by migration is education (Watkins & Zycks, 2014). Failure to integrate refugee children into the education system, as well as the shelter, health, language, and economic difficulties caused by immigration lead to some problems such as being exposed to child abuse and getting married at a really young age (Şirin & Rogers-Şirin, 2015). These children may become unqualified citizens in the following years, as they cannot receive education during the critical period of growth.

Education is not just about acquiring the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes or acquiring or developing the qualifications needed for a job. One of the most important functions of education is to adopt the place where one lives. Education is an important tool to overcome traumatic events experienced by refugees and to adapt easily to the surroundings and environment they live in (Stuecker, 2006; Şahan, 2018). Psychological problems cause negative effects on the educational performance of refugee students (Bourgonje, 2010). Previous studies (Kılıç & Toker Gökçe, 2018; Nicolai, 2003; Stuecker, 2006; Sinclair, 2007; UNESCO, 2015; Uğurlu, 2018) revealed that education of refugee children is especially important since it allows children to forget traumatic memories and feel normal again, make sense of the difficult times they have experienced in the past and are currently in, thus help them to hope for the future and hold on to life. Furthermore, education provides essential skills for their future life such as basic skills, literacy skills, and calculation skills. Moreover, it was concluded that education can protect children from crime, growing up with criminal behavior, and involvement in criminal organizations. Considering the

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above-mentioned findings, the integration of refugee children into the educational system benefits both refugee children and receiving country. The Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has implemented inclusive education for the education of refugee students (Aktekin, 2017). Through this model, it is aimed to integrate all refugee students into the educational system and implement a differentiated education considering individual differences of refugee students, as well as teaching Turkish to refugee students (Aktekin, 2017). In addition to the efforts of MoNE, schools, school administrators, teachers, students, and parents of students also have great responsibilities.

The most prominent problem of refugee students is the language barrier (Şeker & Aslan, 2015). Students who fail to communicate could not express themselves and thus fell loss of self-confidence. The language barrier should be eliminated through the efforts of school administrators and teachers. Another significant problem is the traumatic events that refugee students experienced in the place they came from. Teachers should support these children with necessary psychological consultation to rehabilitate feelings such as guilt, fear, and stress that children may experience (Uzun & Bütün, 2016). On the other hand, teachers also have some responsibilities related to refugee students. The most important of these is to encourage local students and their parents to accept refugee students and to steer students and their parents to help refugee students gain a sense of belonging (Uzun & Bütün, 2016). Proper communication might be established with the families and they might be told that refugee students are not a problem but rather diversity and difference. Since teachers are role models for students, teachers' behaviors and attitudes toward refugee students also affect students' behaviors (Şeker & Aslan, 2014). If teachers display positive attitudes toward refugee students and make sure that refugee students participate in classroom activities by taking individual differences into account, other students will also exhibit positive attitudes accordingly. The most important factor in the adaptation process of refugee students is other students, namely their peers. If refugee students are embraced by their peers, the adaptation of refugee students will be easier. In addition, if students are encouraged and supported with positive role-modeling, Turkish students will more easily accept refugee students (Sezgin & Yolcu, 2016).

Culture is a term that refers to a community's common way of life (Wallerstein, 1990). Different cultures formed by people of different races, nationalities, ethnic identities, languages and beliefs reflect a multicultural society. The concept of multiculturalism has been discussed in the USA, England, and Canada since the 1970s. By recognizing different cultures and reshaping institutions, the multiculturalism program enables people to develop and convey their differences (Doytcheva, 2009). Although multiculturalism is a real phenomenon in today's world, it is actually a concept founded on the principles of cultural pluralism, freedom, respect for differences, and tolerance (Vatandaş, 2002). Flexibility and adaptability become compulsory in education with the protection and development of cultural values. A multicultural education approach primarily allows one to know and understand different cultures. The presence of different cultures in an education environment, discussion and conferring of problems are important for the development of democracy at schools. Teachers and curriculums are key elements of this educational environment. Attitudes of both teachers and curriculums should support multicultural education to accept individuals from different cultures and allow them to preserve and maintain their culture (Barrington, 1981). The effective communication skills and different experiences that students gain through a multicultural education program help them adopt life and develop a sense of empathy (Carrell, 1997). Cultural differences in education may cause differences in the factors of teacher and student communication, cognitive processes, the way they relate to authority, behaviors and parents' expectations from education (Chamberlain, 2005). Teachers should design versatile activities with the participation of students, integrate content, control communication to reduce prejudice among students, and prepare an environment that enables facilitating learning of students

from different cultures (Banks, 1993; Tiedt & Tiedt, 1990). In order to achieve this, it is vital that teachers exhibit a positive attitude and reflect these in-class practices.

Recently, the number of studies on refugee students has increased. Some of these papers have examined problems faced by Syrian teachers and Temporary Education Center (TEC) coordinators in Turkey in their management processes (Balkar, Şahin & Işıklı Babahan, 2016), primary teachers' pedagogical behaviors and attitudes toward refugees (Er & Bayındır, 2015; Sağlam & İlksen Kanbur, 2017), language problem of refugees (Gani & Kuruoğlu, 2021), factors affecting academic success of students who migrated from Turkey to Northern Cyprus (Baltacı 2014), education-related problems faced by refugees and challenges in adaptation (Aksu Kargın, 2021; Börü & Boyacı, 2016; Çelik, Kardaş İşler & Saka, 2021; Erdem, 2017; McBrein, 2005; McBrien, Dooley & Birman, 2017; Şahin & Şener, 2019; Tosun, Yorulmaz, Tekin & Yıldız, 2018; Uzun & Bütün, 2016); scale development for attitudes towards refugees (Kılcan, Çepni & Kılınc, 2017), the problems faced in public policy development and solution proposals for education of Syrian children (Özer, Komsuoğlu & Ateşok, 2016). On the other hand, it seems that papers on multiculturalism mostly focus on obtaining opinions of teachers, academicians, and teacher candidates (Boydak & Şengür, 2016; Damgacı & Aydın, 2013; Tonbuloglu, Aslan & Aydın, 2016; Ünlü & Örtün, 2013), scale development (Ayaz, 2016), and perceptions of multicultural competence (Basbay & Kağnıcı, 2011; Polat & Kılıç, 2013). However, limited study has examined teachers' attitudes toward refugee students and the relationship with multicultural education practices (Akman, 2020).

It makes the time spent in the class of the student at school even more important, especially for refugee students in primary school age to be able to hold on to life, to embrace the country they live in, to survive the effects of events such as forced moving to a different country, family members, friends and leaving their country. Teachers' positive behaviors and attitudes in classroom will also affect other students and they help refugee students for adaptation, expressing themselves, as well as academic success. Thus, primary school teachers' behaviors and attitudes have a decisive role on refugee students. Accordingly, the current study aims at examining primary school teachers' behaviors and attitudes toward refugee students. Also, teachers' in-class practices for multicultural education were examined according to a series of study variables. Therefore, the present study answered the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between primary teachers' attitudes toward refugee students and in-class practices for multicultural education?
2. Do primary teachers' attitudes toward refugee students change according gender, age, seniority, presence of refugee student(s) in class, having received training about refugee students, and activities organized by school administration for refugee students and families?
3. Do primary teachers' in-class practices for multicultural education change according to gender, age, seniority, presence of refugee student(s) in class, having received training about refugee students, and activities organized by school administration for refugee students and families?

Method

Research Model

Since this study examines primary teachers' attitudes toward refugee students and multicultural education, a correlational survey design was used. The correlational research design is a quantitative research method that examines relationships between multiple variables without manipulating them (Creswell, 2009; Karasar, 2016).

Research Group

The population of the study is primary teachers in the central Amasya, a province in the middle black sea region, in the spring semester of the 2020-2021 school year. According to the information received from the Amasya Directorate of National Education, eight schools with the highest number of refugee students were selected for research. The sample consists of 217 primary teachers from these schools. Demographic characteristics of the research group are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the research group

		f	%
Gender	Female	121	55.8
	Male	96	44.2
Age	20-29 years	22	10.1
	30-39 years	74	34.1
	40-49 years	69	31.8
	50 years and older	52	24.0
Professional seniority	1-9 years	34	15.7
	10-19 years	81	37.3
	20-29 years	66	30.4
	30 years and older	36	16.6
Status of being a refugee student in your class	Yes	164	75.6
	No	53	24.4
Education status for refugee students	Educated	107	49.3
	Uneducated	110	50.7
The situation of school administrators organizing events for refugee students	Organized	90	41.5
	Not organized	126	58.1
Status of organizing events for families	Organized	40	18.4
	Not organized	177	81.6

The sample including 121 female and 96 male teachers aged 30-49 years with seniority between 10-30 years. Although 75.6% of the teachers stated that they have refugee students in their classes, only 50% of the teachers received training about teaching refugee students. More than half of the teachers stated that school administrators did not organize activities for refugee students and families.

Data Collection Tools

The data for this study were collected through a survey form which including Demographic questions in the first part and a second part consists of the Refugee Student Attitude Scale (RSAS) and Multicultural education Attitude Scale (CPMES).

Refugee Student Attitude Scale (RSAS): This four-point Likert rating scale was developed by Sağlam and İlksen Kanbur (2017) to measure attitudes of teachers. The scale has 24 items and comprises three sub-scales, namely, "Communication", "Adaptation", "Competence". The factor loading values of the items that make up the scale range from 0.40 and 0.83 for all dimensions. The total variance was 53.61%, with 21.81% being explained by the first, 19.95% by the second, and 11.85% by the third dimension. All items in the scale are scored positively. The scale was of a four-point Likert type. The reliability of the sub-scales was reported as 0.88, 0.88, and 0.80. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as 0.73. This value can be considered high reliability for educational research.

Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale (CPMES): This five-point Likert scale was developed by Yıldırım and Tezci (2017) to measure teachers' conceptual knowledge, knowledge, and classroom practices for multicultural education. Although the scale comprises three sub-scales, the "Classroom Practices" sub-scale was used for the purpose of the current study. This scale consists of 18 items grouped into three sub-dimensions, namely, "Use of Methods/Techniques", "Activity Design", and "Consideration of Individual Differences". Factor load distributions range from 0.50 to 0.75. The total variance explained is 52.86% and 18.40% is explained by the first, 18.03% by the second, and 16.43% by the third sub-dimension. The Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.87. In the present study, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.79.

Collection of Data

Following the selection of the scales, the permissions to use the scales were received from the developers. Then, after having received ethics committee approval numbered E-30640013-108.01-8031 from Amasya University Social Sciences Ethics Committee, permission to conduct research was obtained from the Directorate of National Education. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic measures, the data was collected online through Google Forms. The schools with the highest number of refugee students were learned from the Provincial Directorate of National Education, and the schools were visited, information was given about the research and teachers were encouraged to participate in the research. The online data collection period lasted about three weeks.

Analyze of Data

The data collected through Google Forms were converted into Excel files and analyzed using SPSS after necessary coding procedures. Descriptive statistics and Q-Q plot graphics were used to check if the data is normally distributed. After calculating total scores, skewness-kurtosis values of the scales were calculated. Assuming that the data were normally distributed, descriptive statistics, t-test for pairwise group comparison, ANOVA for more than two subgroup comparisons, and Pearson correlation analysis for correlation analysis were applied. A significance level of 0.05 was chosen for analyzes.

Results

In the results, firstly, descriptive statistics of all scales were given. Then, the results of the analysis are given according to the variables. The descriptive statistics of primary teachers' Refugee Student Attitude Scale (RSAS) and Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale (CPMES) total scores are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the RSAS and CPMES scales

Scale	Sub- Dimension	N	Min	Max	\bar{X}	s
RSAS	Total	217	50.00	90.00	69.2	8.03
	Communication	217	26.00	44.00	37.37	3.85
	Adaptation	217	12.00	36.00	24.88	4.03
	Competence	217	6.00	16.00	10.35	2.23
CPMES	Total	217	53.00	85.00	69.60	5.80
	Use of Methods/Techniques	217	20.00	35.00	29.23	2.84
	Activity Design	217	14.00	25.00	20.03	2.17

Consideration of Individual Differences	217	18.00	30.00	24.40	2.46
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The primary teachers' mean scores for RSAS and CPMES were calculated as 69.2 and 69.6, respectively. Regarding the sub-scale scores, the highest scores were obtained in the Communication sub-scale for RSAS and the Use of Methods/Techniques sub-scale for CPMES.

Results of the independent sample t-test conducted to determine whether primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores vary with their gender are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. t-test results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to gender variable

	Gender	n	\bar{X}	s	t	df	p
RSAS	Female	121	69.58	8.06	0.886	215	0.37
	Male	96	68.61	7.98			
CPMES	Female	121	70.13	5.90	1.620	215	0.17
	Male	96	68.85	5.60			

No gender-related differences were obtained in the teachers' refugee student attitude scale total scores ($t_{215}=0.886$ $p=0.37$). Also, no significant difference was observed in the sub-scale scores by gender (Communication $t_{215}=0.544$ $p=0.587$; Adaptation $t_{215}=0.946$ $p=0.345$; Competence $t_{215}=0.527$ $p=0.599$). Similarly, no gender-related significant differences were found in the teachers' classroom practices for multicultural education scale total scores ($t_{215}=1.620$ $p=0.17$). Also, we determined that CPMES sub-scales scores did not vary with gender; Use of Methods/Techniques ($t_{215}=1.521$ $p=0.13$); Activity Design ($t_{215}=0.669$ $p=0.504$) and Consideration of Individual Differences ($t_{215}=1.272$ $p=0.205$).

Results of the ANOVA conducted to determine if the primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores vary with their age are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. ANOVA results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to age variable

	Age	n	\bar{X}	s	F	df	p
RSAS	20-29 years	22	70.86	7.22	0.503	3	0.60
	30-39 years	74	69.09	7.47			
	40-49 years	69	68.49	7.61			
	50 years +	52	69.40	9.59			
	Total	217	69.15	8.02			
CPMES	20-29 year	22	70.54	5.74	0.447	3	0.72
	30-39 year	74	69.83	6.22			
	40-49 year	69	69.39	6.07			
	50 years +	52	69.00	4.80			
	Total	217	69.56	5.80			

There were no significant age-related differences in the RSAS total scores ($F_{3-213}= 0.503$ $p=0.60$). Similarly, it was found that Communication ($F_{3-213}=0.944$ $p=0.42$), Adaptation ($F_{3-213}=0.128$ $p=0.94$), and Competence ($F_{3-213}=0.786$ $p=0.50$) sub-scales scores did not significantly vary with teachers' age. Also, no significant difference was observed in CPMES scale scores by teachers' age ($F_{3-213}=0.447$ $p=0.72$). The scores obtained from sub-scales of CPMES did not vary

by age (Use of Methods/Techniques $F_{3-213}=0.655$ $p=0.58$; Activity Design $F_{3-213}=1.074$ $p=0.36$; Consideration of Individual Differences $F_{3-213}=0.649$ $p=0.58$).

The results of the analysis performed to determine if the primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores vary with their seniority are given in Table 5.

Table 5. ANOVA results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to the variable of professional seniority

	Seniority	n	\bar{X}	s	F	df	p
RSAS	1-9 year	34	70.05	6.85	0.232	3	0.87
	10-19 year	81	69.12	7.73		213	
	20-29 year	66	68.65	8.16			
	30 years +	36	69.30	9.56			
	Total	217	69.15	8.02			
CPMES	1-9 year	34	70.91	6.15	0.957	3	0.41
	10-19 year	81	69.09	6.03		213	
	20-29 year	66	69.78	5.79			
	30 years +	36	68.94	4.80			
	Total	217	69.56	5.79			

No significant difference was observed in the RSAS total scores by seniority of the teachers ($F_{3-213}=0.232$ $p=0.87$). Also, there were no significant seniority-related differences in the scores from Communication ($F_{3-213}=0.801$ $p=0.495$), Adaptation ($F_{3-213}=0.071$ $p=0.975$), and Competence ($F_{3-213}=0.682$ $p=0.564$) sub-scales. Similarly, no seniority-related significant differences were found in the teachers' total scores from classroom practices for multicultural education scale ($F_{3-213}=0.957$ $p=0.41$). It was observed that scores from CPMES sub-scales did not vary with teachers' seniority; Use of Methods/Techniques ($F_{3-213}=0.655$ $p=0.41$), Activity Design ($F_{3-213}=1.074$ $p=0.36$), and Consideration of Individual Differences ($F_{3-213}=0.649$ $p=0.58$).

The results of the independent sample t-test conducted to compare primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores according to the presence of refugee student(s) in class are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. t-test results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to the presence of refugee students in the teachers' class

		n	\bar{X}	s	t	df	p
RSAS	I had a refugee student in class	164	8.40	7.61	-2.46	215	0.015*
	I didn't have a refugee student in my class	53	1.49	8.87			
CPMES	I had a refugee student in class	164	9.13	5.68	-1.94	215	0.053
	I didn't have a refugee student in my class	53	0.90	5.96			

* $p<0.05$

Significant differences were obtained in the RSAS total scores in favor of those who have no refugee student(s) in their class ($t_{215}=-2.46$ $p=0.015<0.05$). No significant differences were found in Communication ($t_{215}=-1.539$ $p=0.12$) sub-scale, whereas Adaptation ($t_{215}=-2.297$ $p=0.023<0.05$)

and Competence ($t_{215}=-2.318$ $p=0.021<0.05$) sub-scale scores vary in favor of those who had no refugee student(s) in their class (mean scores: 25.98 and 10.96, respectively). Although no significant differences were found in the CPMES total scores ($t_{215}=-1.94$ $p=0.053$), significant differences were found in the Activity Design sub-scale scores in favor of those who had no refugee student(s) in their class ($\bar{X} = 20.67$) ($t_{215}=-2.54$ $p=0.012<0.05$). On the other hand, no significant differences were observed in the Use of Methods/Techniques ($t_{215}=-1.086$ $p=0.28$) and Consideration of Individual Differences ($t_{215}=-1.187$ $p=0.24$) sub-scales according to the presence of refugee students in class.

Results of the independent sample t-test conducted to compare primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores according to having received training about refugee students are given in Table 7.

Table 7. *t-test results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to education status for refugee students*

		n	\bar{X}	s	t	df	p
RSAS	Educated	107	68.20	7.93	-1.73	215	0.085
	Uneducated	110	70.08	8.04			
CPMES	Educated	107	68.7	5.63	-2.09	215	0.037*
	Uneducated	110	70.4	5.86			

No significant differences were obtained in the RSAS total scores according to having received training about refugee students ($t_{215}=-1.73$ $p=0.085$). Also, there was no significant difference in Communication ($t_{215}=-1.393$ $p=0.166$) and Adaptation ($t_{215}=-2.235$ $p=0.218$) sub-scales of RSAS, whereas significant differences were observed in the competence ($t_{215}=-2.113$ $p=0.036<0.05$) sub-scale scores. Teachers who did not receive training about refugee students see themselves as more competent. Significant differences were found in the CPMES scores in favor of those who did not receive training about refugee students ($t_{215}=-2.094$ $p=0.037<0.05$). Similarly, the Activity Design sub-scale scores significantly varied in favor of those who did not receive training ($t_{215}=-2.073$ $p=0.039<0.05$). On the other hand, no significant differences were observed in the Use of Methods/Techniques ($t_{215}=-1.297$ $p=0.196$) and Consideration of Individual Differences ($t_{215}=1.567$ $p=0.118$) sub-scales scores.

Findings of the independent sample t-test performed to examine primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores according to activities organized by school administration are given in Table 8.

Table 8. *t-test results of RSAS and CPMES scores according to the school administration's organization of activities for refugee students*

		n	\bar{X}	s	t	df	p
RSAS	Activities were organized	91	68.38	7.58	-1.205	215	0.229
	Activities were not organized	126	69.71	8.31			
CPMES	Activities were organized	91	68.88	5.71	-1.490	215	0.138
	Activities were not organized	126	70.06	5.82			

No significant differences were found in the RSAS total scores according to activities organized by school administration ($t_{215}=-1.205$ $p=0.229$). Also, there was no significant difference in the Communication ($t_{215}=0.126$ $p=0.900$), Adaptation ($t_{215}=-1.626$ $p=0.105$), and Competence ($t_{215}=-1.225$ $p=0.222$) sub-scales scores. Similarly, no significant differences were observed in the CPMES scores according to activities organized by school administration ($t_{215}=-1.429$ $p=0.138$).

Also, there were no differences in the Activity Design ($t_{215}=-1.083$ $p=0.280$), Use of Methods/Techniques ($t_{215}= -1.300$ $p=0.195$), and Consideration of Individual Differences ($t_{215}=-1.167$ $p=0.24$) sub-scales scores.

The correlation between primary teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores was examined with pearson correlation analysis and the results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Analysis of the relationship between primary school teachers' RSAS and CPMES scores

		RSAS	CPMES	RSAS1	RSAS.2	RSAS3	CPMES1	CPMES2	CPMES3
RSAS	r	1	0.450**	0.408**	0.399**	0.285**	0.822**	0.878**	0.689**
	p		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
CPMES	r			0.862**	0.803**	0.741**	0.457**	0.367**	0.227**
	p			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
RSAS1	r				0.560**	0.449**	0.436**	0.320**	0.195**
	p				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004
RSAS2	r					0.430**	0.370**	0.352**	0.224**
	p					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
RSAS3	r						0.292**	0.214**	0.162*
	p						0.000	0.001	0.017
CPMES1	r							0.544**	0.397**
	p							0.000	0.000
CPMES2	r								0.471**
	p								0.000

Sub dimension of scales were marked as 1-2-3 * $p<0.05$ ** $p<0.001$

As seen in Table 9, a significant correlation was found between Refugee Student Attitude Scale ($r=0.450$ $p=0.000$) and its sub-scales and Classroom Practices for Multicultural Education Scale and its sub-scales. While intercorrelations between sub-scales were high, the correlations between the other scale and its sub-scales were moderate positive. The correlations between the Consideration of Individual Differences subscale of CPMES and all sub-scales were found to be low.

Discussion

As a result of the number of refugees coming to Turkey have increased rapidly in recent years, the number of refugee students needing education has also increased. Some opportunities are provided in schools for the education of refugee students. Primary education is particularly important for these children since it is a critical stage of their development. In this period, primary school teachers' attitudes towards refugee students and classroom practices are especially important for helping them overcome past events they experienced, adaptation, and academic success.

The primary teachers' mean scores on attitudes towards refugee students and classroom practices for multicultural education were calculated as 69.2 and 69.6, respectively. Considering the highest and the lowest scores that can be obtained from these scales, teachers' scores can be accepted as moderate. According to the studies conducted by Nar (2008), Baltacı (2014), Polat and Rengi (2014), Er and Bayındır (2015), Sakız (2016), Balkar, Şahin, and Işıklı-Babahan (2016), teachers do not consider themselves sufficient regarding the education of refugee students, they could not receive support from parents of refugee students, and their motivation decreases when they fail. In this study, the experience gained by the teachers due to the in-service training they have

received in recent years and the fact that they have worked with refugee students for a longer period of time may be effective in seeing themselves as moderately competent.

We found that the primary teachers' full scale and all sub-scales scores on the Refugee Student Attitude Scale did not vary with their gender and age. Although Keskin and Okçu (2021) and Köse, Bülbül and Uluman (2019) reported similar findings, Sağlam and İlksen Kanbur (2017) found significant differences in the Competence sub-scale of RSAS in favor of male teachers. No significant gender-related differences were observed in the Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale and its sub-scales scores. Similarly, in the studies carried out by Özdemir and Dil (2013), Yazıcı, Başol, and Toprak (2009) that examining teachers, no gender-related differences were found. However, the results of the studies conducted by Arslan and Çalmaşur (2017), Coşkun (2012), Demircioğlu and Özdemir (2014), Engin and Genç (2015), and Tortop (2014) indicated that there are gender-related differences in favor of female teachers. Similarly, we found that the female teachers' scores were higher than male teachers' but this difference was not statistically significant.

Furthermore, it was found that primary teachers' attitudes towards refugee students did not significantly vary with their age for RSAS total and its sub-scales scores. Similarly, we observed that teachers' RSAS total and sub-scales scores did not vary with their seniority. Based on these findings it can be argued that teachers' age and corresponding seniority do not affect their attitudes toward refugee students. On the other hand, Terzi, Göçen, and Altun (2019) reported that female teachers with 0-5 years of experience had higher scores in the Communication sub-scale of Attitudes Towards Refugee Students Scale than male teachers, whereas male teachers with 6-11 years of experience had higher scores in the Adaptation sub-scale than female students. Also, they found that for an experience of 12 years and over, male teachers had higher awareness in the Communication and Competence dimensions.

Moreover, we found that the Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale and its sub-scales scores did not vary significantly with the age and seniority of the teachers. Consistent with our findings, Demircioğlu and Özdemir (2014), Polat (2012), and Tortop (2014) found that there were no age-related significant differences. Regarding the seniority variable, although Özdemir and Dil (2013) reported similar findings to ours, Polat (2012) found that the scores of school principals with an experience of 21 years and over significantly vary than those with lower experience; school principals with higher experience had lower attitude scores. On the other hand, in a study conducted by Yazıcı, Başol, and Toprak (2009), the authors stated that the difference between the scores of the teachers with 0-5 years of experience and those with 26 years and over experience was significant. They found that teachers with 0-5 years of experience had more positive attitudes. Huang Cheng, and Yang (2017) found that teachers' perceptions of multicultural education did not vary with their seniority. However, in the current study, we found that the teachers with 1-9 years of experience had more positive attitudes, whereas the difference is not significant compared with other groups. Idealistic, energetic, and more empathetic nature of the young (20-29 years old) teachers in the first years of teaching might positively affect their attitudes towards refugee students and multicultural education practices.

We observed that the total scores of teachers on attitudes towards refugee students significantly differ in favor of those who had no refugee students in their class. The Adaptation and Competence sub-scales scores of the scale significantly differ in favor of those who had no refugee students in their class. This result shows that the presence of refugee students in their classrooms has a negative impact on teachers' attitudes compared to non-refugee teachers (except for the communication dimension). The difference in the Adaptation and Competence dimensions might be due to the sample distribution or teachers' negative experiences related to refugee students. On the contrary, Sağlam and İlksen Kanbur (2017) found that teachers' attitudes towards

refugee students did not vary with the presence of refugee students in their classes in Communication dimension, whereas there were significant differences in the total scale and Adaptation and Competence sub-scales scores in favor of those who had refugee students in their classes. Polat and Rengi (2014) stated that primary teachers had positive feelings toward cultural differences and students from different cultures and teachers tend to exhibit sensitive behaviors and attitudes in this regard. Karataş (2015) emphasized that teachers had positive attitudes toward multicultural education and they accept and show attention teaching in classes consist of students from different cultural backgrounds. Sakız (2016) found that teachers who are aware of their competencies had more positive attitudes toward teaching refugee children.

In the present study, no significant differences were observed in the primary teachers' Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale total scores according to the presence of refugee students in their class. Significant differences were found in the scores from the Activity Design dimension of the scale in favor of those who had no refugee students in their classes, whereas no significant differences were observed in the Use of Methods/Techniques and Consideration of Individual Differences sub-scales scores. Based on these findings, it can be stated that the presence of refugee students in class did not affect primary teachers' classroom practices except activity design. The difference in the Activity Design scores in favor of those who had no refugee students in their classes can be explained by teachers' plans and preliminary thoughts on a situation that they did not experience before.

We determined that the primary teachers' full scale and Adaptation and Communication sub-scales scores on the Refugee Student Attitude Scale did not vary with having received training on refugee students. On the other hand, significant differences were observed in the scale's Competence dimension scores in favor of those who did not receive training on refugee students. These findings suggest that teachers who did not receive training on refugee students consider themselves competent since they don't have sufficient knowledge about teaching refugee students. Teachers who have received training might perceive themselves as inadequate since they encountered sophisticated information. In a study conducted by Ergen and Şahin (2019), it was determined that participating in in-service training did not make a significant difference for teachers. According to Ergene (2016), the teacher factor is particularly important for the teaching, adaptation, and psychological well-being of refugee students, as well as meeting their needs. In the teacher education curriculums and teacher education process no additional information was provided regarding classroom practices for classes consist of students from different cultures. Therefore, in order to overcome this difficulty, teachers should be supported with in-service training and proper documents when they start teaching. Or, teacher education curriculums can be enriched with courses on multicultural education or inclusive education to provide teacher candidates with proper competencies, thus in-service training might not be necessary.

Significant differences were observed in the primary teachers' total scale and sub-scales scores from the Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale according to having received training on refugee students. Teachers who did not receive training on refugee students had significantly higher total scale and Activity Design sub-scale scores. However, no significant differences were observed in the Use of Methods/Techniques and Consideration of Individual Differences sub-scales scores regarding classroom practices. It can be argued that the teachers who state they did not receive training on refugee students think that they can design activities due to their high self-esteem. Teachers should design classroom activities considering readiness levels, prior knowledge and affective characteristics of students with different cultural backgrounds and use proper methods and techniques accordingly. Teachers' use of the same programs and methods/techniques for all students in the classroom might lead to difficulties for refugee students (Babacan, 1999; Kuklinski & Weinstein, 2000).

No significant differences were observed in primary teachers' Refugee Student Attitude total scale and sub-scales scores according to the variable of activities organized by school administration. However, it is not a correct approach for school administrations to neglect refugee students. It can be argued that teachers who are supported by school administrations for the education of refugee students will display more positive attitudes toward refugee students and develop themselves in this regard. On the contrary, teachers who are not supported by school administrations might feel alone and display negative attitudes toward refugee students. Consistent with this, the book for inclusive education of refugee students published by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (2017) states that school administrations should create a school environment that supports the education of refugee students. According to the results of the studies carried out by Savaş (2016) and Ereş (2015), the support of school administrations is important for teachers to develop themselves in teaching refugee students and teachers who supported by school administration had more positive attitudes toward refugee students.

We found that there were no significant differences in primary teachers' total scale and sub-scales scores on the Classroom Practices For Multicultural Education Scale according to the variable of activities organized by school administration. In this regard, school administrations should provide training for refugee students, orientation for adaptation of both children and their parents who migrated due to negative situations and experienced traumatic events, psycho-social support to help them forget their past lives, and language education to help them express themselves more easily (Uğurlu, 2018). Furthermore, teachers of these students should continuously cooperate with school administrations. Teachers who have refugee students in their class should not ignore the cultural differences of these children. Teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in environments wherein students are from different cultural backgrounds affect students (Shields, 2004). If teachers neglect different cultures while designing classroom practices, there will be difficulties in implementing activities for individual differences, providing equal opportunities, and creating learning activities (Babacan, 1999).

A significant moderate positive correlation was found between primary teachers' attitudes towards refugee students and classroom practices they implemented for multicultural education. The inter-correlations between the sub-scales were found to be high. On the other hand, moderate positive correlations were found with the sub-scales of the other scale. Teachers who had more positive attitudes for refugee students reflect such behaviors in classroom practices and thus display higher classroom practices scores. Consistent with our findings, Taştekin, Bozkurt Yürkü, İzoglu, Güngör, Işık Uslu, and Demircioğlu (2016) found that teachers had positive attitudes toward in-class activities. Due to crowded classes, presence of students who might need special education, and heavy curriculums, primary teachers can experience difficulties in consideration of individual differences.

It was concluded that the classroom teachers' attitudes towards refugee students did not differ in the total and sub-dimensions of the scale, according to the variable of the school administration's organizing activities for the families of refugee students. It was concluded that there was a significant difference in the total score, first and third sub-dimensions, according to the multicultural classroom practices of the classroom teachers and the school administration's organization of activities for the families of refugee students. The scores of the groups who stated that they received education for families in the sub-dimensions of using method and technique (1) and considering individual differences (3) were high. It is possible that these families have a supportive role in the education of their children and can establish a connection with the school, and this situation is reflected in the practices in the classroom. The problem of adaptation to education in mother tongue is a problem that refugee students frequently encounter (Dryden-Peterson 2016). It is a great challenge for refugee children, who live in a different culture and speak a different language at home, to organize their learning in the classroom and adapt to it. A support

they will receive at home contributes positively to the education of these children; therefore, the education to be given to the family will actually affect the efficiency of the education that their children will receive. Gömleksiz and Aslan (2018) talk about the lack of support for families of refugee students. It has been reported that in addition to adapting to language and cultural differences, the method and techniques used by teachers also pose a problem in the education of refugee students.

Following recommendations were made based on the study findings:

- Trainings should be organized to increase the attitudes and competence of classroom teachers on refugee student education.
- School administrations should have information and display a positive attitude toward the education of refugee students, should cooperate with parents of refugee students and support teachers who have refugee students in their class.
- In addition to involving refugee students in suitable classroom activities, teachers should design activities that support the emotional adaptation of refugees and prepare them for life.
- Conducting studies, especially in regions with a high number of refugee students, with teachers from different educational stages to examine their attitudes and perceptions of multicultural education can increase the quality of education provided to refugee students.

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Relationships Between Nurses' Individualism-Collectivism Values and Their Communication Skills and Conflict Management Styles

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Introduction and Background

Almost et al., 2010; Ardalan et al., 2017). Conflict may typically occur when there is a disagreement between two parties seeking to achieve similar goals which may be inter-personal, inter-group or inter-organizational. Conflicts that arise within organizations at various levels and their management and resolution are important topics that place demands on the time and energy of managers (Losa Iglesias and Becerro de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Koçel, 2013). Conflict in nursing profession is natural and inevitable and arises as a daily challenge in healthcare organizations. Therefore, conflict management is extremely important for organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Nursing staff must effectively manage conflict in order to provide an environment that stimulates personal growth and ensures quality of patient care (El Dahshan and Moussa, 2019).

Conflict is a natural consequence of human communication and interaction. Conflict occurs from the differences in goals, opinion, needs, values, ideas, and feelings between organizations or people. It is an inevitable issue in healthcare settings (Hashish et al., 2015; Ahanchian et al., 2015; Al-Hamdan et al., 2019; Ardalan et al., 2017). Complex and constant interactions among nurses and other health care professionals along with their diverse roles increase the possibility of conflict occurrence in hospitals (Ahanchian et al., 2015; Al-Hamdan et al., 2016). Conflicts between nurses or other healthcare team members can decrease the quality of patient care. Therefore, it is important that managers are knowledgeable about conflict management styles and manage the conflicts effectively in order to achieve efficient functioning of the institution and personal, social and cultural development of the employees (Başoğul and Özgür, 2016). The most commonly used conflict management styles are explained in detail in a model developed by Rahim. Rahim classified conflict management styles into five groups with a combination of self-interest and protecting others' interest (Rahim, Magner, and Shapiro, 2000; Rahim and Katz, 2020): Integrating style: It is known as the problem solving style. It includes high concern for self and others. It involves cooperation between groups (openness in exchange of information and examination of differences) to reach an acceptable solution for both sides and may result in creative solutions. Obliging style: This style, also known as accommodating and placating style, involves low interest in self and high interest in others. This style includes ignoring the differences and focusing on common grounds to please and accommodate others. Dominating style: It is characterized by forcing behavior for winning. It can be identified by win-lose approach or with forcing behavior as a means to win.

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People who use dominating style mostly ignore the needs and desires of the others in order to achieve their objectives. Compromising style: It includes moderate concern for both self and others. This style uses give-and-take or sharing the willingness to give up something to be able to make a decision that is acceptable to both sides. Avoiding style: It involves low concern for both self and others. People who use this style can exhibit behaviors such as not intervening in the conflict, placing responsibility to others or withdrawing (Hashish et al., 2015; Başoğul & Özgür 2016). Studies discussing nurses' conflict management styles in different approaches are present in literature. (Başoğul and Özgür 2016; Forbat and Barclay 2019; Erdenk and Altuntaş 2017; Johansen and Cadmus 2016; Kim et al., 2015; Labraguea & McEnroe-Petitte 2017; Labrague et al., 2018; Lahana et al., 2019). In addition to personal factors like different cognition, perception, emotion and unconscious needs and communication skills; cultural factors, role differences, social and physical environments can also cause interpersonal conflicts (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019; Lahana et al., 2019).

Culturally cultivated beliefs and values have a strong influence on attitudes. Cultural values are a motivating force behind behaviors. Culture can often produce different ways of knowing and doing (McDaniel, Samovar and Porter, 2012). Culture is defined as a mental program similar to a kind of software installed in people's minds. Installing this program to each individual in a different form states individualism, whereas in collectivism people's behaviours follow a specific pattern. Individualistic people focus on their own emotions, personal needs and rights, and their characteristics, which makes them different. People in individualist societies see themselves as stable and the environment as varying. Therefore, they tend to shape the environment to fit their own characters (Triandis, 2001; McDaniel, Samovar and Porter, 2012; Sakal and Yıldız, 2015; Uçar and Konal, 2017). Some views state that self can reveal itself in different combinations. Four individualism-collectivism cultures have been defined: horizontal individualists (HI), who want to be unique and do what they know; vertical individualists (VI), who want to be unique and also the best; horizontal collectivists (HC), who see themselves as a whole with society; and vertical collectivists (VC), who submit to authority and are ready to sacrifice themselves for the sake of society (LeFebvre and Franke, 2013; Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2002; Triandis, 2001; Uçar and Konal, 2017).

Knowing the cultural values of employees, such as individualism and collectivism, also allows one to predict their reactions when they are in conflict. The behavior of a person is affected by the manner of perception of the stimulant that causes this behavior. Styles of addressing conflicts are shaped by the values of the culture in which the employees are present. This leads to behaviors different from those expected and may result in misunderstandings and potential conflict. (Birsell et al., 2009; Koçel, 2013; Komarraju et al., 2008; Tutar and Yılmaz, 2013; Yalçın and Yoğun Erçen, 2004). Cultural differences often lead to miscommunication and conflict (Triandis, 2000). Individuals with an individualistic orientation are expected to produce direct-task-focused conflict management styles that reflect great concern for themselves and little concern for others (Ma, 2007). Individuals from collectivist cultures prefer avoiding, compromising, and problem-solving conflict management styles (Holt and DeVore, 2005). Ohbuchi et al. (1999) also stated that in the event of conflict, collectivists tend to maintain relationships with others and individualists primarily care about attaining justice. In the literature, there are various studies on collectivism-individualism and their relationship between conflict management styles (Cai & Fink 2002; Kaushal and Kwantes, 2006; Komarraju et al., 2008; Oetzel and Ting-Toomey, 2003; Sternberg and Dobson, 1987; Şahin, 2010).

Communication skills include listening and speaking behaviours that provide a mutual exchange of views on cases and emotions, and these are basic skills needed to resolve conflicts (Çağlar & Kılıç, 2014). The great majority of interpersonal conflicts in organizations as health settings are caused by a lack of knowledge and skills in communication (Kılınç et al., 2018).

Resolution of conflicts between individuals, groups or organizations may be achieved through effective communication (Koçel, 2013; Tutar and Yılmaz, 2013).

Conflict is an inevitable result of the health care environment. If not managed effectively by the managers, it can have negative effects such as conflict, employee stress, behavioural disorder and serious health problems. It may also cause deviation from the aim of patient care. It can damage trust, respect and friendship within the healthcare team. It may cause a delay on making serious decisions due to the differences of opinion. It may cause nurses to leave their jobs, which results in an increase in the turnover rate. It may decrease nurses' performance and the quality of patient care (Kılınç et al., 2018; Obied and Sayed Ahmed, 2016; Piryani and Piryani, 2018). Therefore, it is very important that the conflicts are managed effectively by the nurse managers (Kılınç et al., 2018; McKibben, 2017). On the other hand, cultural values such as individualism-collectivism and communication skills can also be effective in the occurrence and management of the conflict between nurses (Sabanci et al., 2018; Zakaria & Mat Lazim, 2018). Therefore, identifying the relationship of nurses' conflict management styles with their individualism-collectivism values and communication skills is important. In the literature, although there are some studies which have investigated nurses' conflict management styles in different aspects (Labrague et al., 2018; Lahana et al., 2019; Pitsillidou et al., 2018; Özkan Tuncay et al., 2018; Sun Young and Ki-Kyong, 2018), no studies in the literature have examined the relationships between nurses' individualism-collectivism values and their communication skills and conflict management styles. This study is believed to contribute to a better understanding of the individual differences in styles adopted by nurses in the management of interpersonal conflicts. Revealing correlations between nurses' communication skills and cultural differences and their conflict management styles may help to identify more effective conflict management styles. Thus, nurses' decisions for the benefit of the institution and society, as well as conflict management styles can be evaluated.

Methods

Aims and design

The aim of the present descriptive and correlational study was to identify relationships between nurses' individualism-collectivism values and their communication skills and conflict management styles. The study complied with the guidelines of Strengthening The Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) Checklist.

Questions of the study

In the study, answers were sought for the following questions:

1. What are the conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values and communication skills of nurses?
2. Is there a relationship between nurse managers' conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills?
3. Is there a relationship between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills?
4. Is there a relationship between staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills?

Study population and selection of sampling

The study population comprised a total of 950 nurses working in a university hospital in Istanbul. In the hospital where the study was conducted, staff nurse defines nurses responsible for patient care; nurse managers define supervisors and head nurses; supervisor nurse defines nurses who are responsible for a clinic who only work during day shifts; head nurse defines nurses who manage supervisor nurses and large clinics such as internal medicine and paediatrics, which

comprise several smaller clinics. All the nurses included in the sample worked in medical and surgical clinics.

The following formula was used according to the sample calculation method for a known population ($n = N \cdot t^2 \cdot p \cdot q / d^2 (N-1) + t^2 \cdot p \cdot q$) (Büyüköztürk et al., 2014). The calculated required sample size was 274. It was decided to expand the sample by 10% (28 nurses) and hand out the questionnaires to 302 nurses with consideration to possible losses. All nurse managers ($n=73$) were included in the study in order to reflect the true data for nurse managers because the number of nurse managers was lower than the number of staff nurses. Staff nurses ($n=229$) were chosen using simple random sampling. Two hundred nine (91.26%) questionnaires were collected, 201 (87.77%) of which were included in the final analysis; 8 questionnaires were eliminated due to incomplete data. The criteria for inclusion in the study were: (1) working as a nurse at the unit for more than 6 months for staff nurses. The exclusion criteria for the study were: (1) working at the unit for less than 6 months ($n=48$) and, (2) being on medical or maternity leave at the time of the study ($n=85$).

Data collection tools

A Nurse Information Form, Individualism-Collectivism Scale, Communication Skills Scale, and Conflict Management Strategies Scale were used to collect data.

Nurse Information Form: This form includes seven questions on socio-demographic characteristics (including age, sex, marital status, time spent in the profession, time spent at the institution, education status, department in which the participant works).

Individualism and Collectivism Scale-INDCOL: Nurses' levels of individualism and collectivism were measured with a shortened version of a 37-item questionnaire using a 5-point scale (1 =definitely disagree, to 5 =definitely agree) by Singelis et al. (1995) and adapted to Turkish by Wasti & Eser Erdil (2007). The scale measures the individualism and collectivism values by separating them as horizontal (egalitarian) and vertical (hierarchical). It consists of four sub-scales, including Horizontal Collectivism (HC-9 items), Horizontal Individualism (HI-8 items), Vertical Collectivism (VC-10 items), and Vertical Individualism (VI-10 items). The scales are scored between 9-45, 8-40, 10-50 and 10-50 points, respectively. Higher scores from the scale with no reverse items indicate people's positive perception of cultural value. The Cronbach alpha values of the scales are 0.80, 0.80, 0.72 and 0.80 respectively. The Cronbach alpha values of the scales in our study were 0.73, 0.75, 0.77 and 0.76 respectively.

Communication Skills Scale (CSS): The CSS, developed by Korkut Owen & Bugay (2014), is a 5-point Likert-type scale (1:Never, 2:Rarely, 3:Sometimes, 4:Often, 5:Always), which includes 25 items and four subscales; Principles of Communication and Basic Skills (PCBS-10 items), Self-expression (SE-4 items), Effective Listening and Non-verbal Communication (ELNVC-6 items), and Eagerness to Establish Communication (EEC-5 items). The scale is evaluated as subscales and with the total score of the scale. The scales are scored between 10-50, 4-20, 6-30 and 5-25 points, respectively. Higher scores from the scale with no reverse items indicate people's positive perception of their communication skills. Korkut Owen and Bugay (2014) reported the Cronbach alpha value of the CSC as 0.88. The Cronbach alpha value of the scale in our study was 0.93.

Conflict Management Strategies Scale (CMSS): The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) form A was used for nurse managers and the ROCI-II-B form was used for staff nurses (Rahim, 1983). Gümüşeli (1994) conducted the Turkish validity-reliability study of the inventory. The 5-point Likert-type scale (1-5 points) consists of five subscales; Integrating (IN), Compromising (CO), Avoiding (AV), Dominating (DO), and Obliging (OB), comprising a total of 28 items. The scale is evaluated based on the subscales. The number of statements for each conflict management style is as follows: seven statements for IN, which has the item numbers of (1, 4, 5, 12, 22, 23, 28), six statements for OB (2, 10, 11, 13, 19, 24), five statements for DO (8, 9, 18, 21,

25), six statements for AV (3, 6, 16, 17, 26, 27) and four statements for CO (7, 14, 15, 20) (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019). The highest score showing that a particular style is used most (Başoğlu & Özgür, 2016). The ROCI-II-A scale, which was answered by nurse managers, contains statements about the nurse managers' own conflict management styles, and the ROCI-II-B scale, which was answered by staff nurses, contains statements about the conflict management style used by the nurse managers. The Cronbach alpha values of Rahim ROCI-II scale subscales were reported to be in the range of 0.72-0.77 (Rahim, 1983). The correlation coefficient obtained from the reliability calculations performed by Gümüşeli, who adapted the scale to Turkish, was 0.81 for managers and 0.88 for employees (Gümüşeli, 1994). The Cronbach alpha values of the scales in our study were in the range of 0.61-0.96 for staff nurses and 0.64-0.75 for nurse managers.

Data collection process

The study was conducted between December 2015 and March 2016, and the objective of the study was described to the nurses. Nurses who volunteered to take part were included in the study. Data collection forms were delivered to the nurses and completed forms were collected by researchers. Staff nurses were asked to evaluate their own communication skills, individualism-collectivism values, and their nurse managers' conflict management styles, and nurse managers were asked to evaluate their own communication skills, individualism-collectivism values, and conflict management styles. Nurses were asked to fill out the questionnaires at a desired time when they were available. Collection of the questionnaires took approximately four months.

Ethical considerations

The Human Rights Declaration of Helsinki was abided by throughout the study. Ethics committee approval was obtained for the research (10840098-338).

Data analysis

The data were analyzed using the IBM SPSS 20 software. Data on age, marital status, education status and department in which the participant works were given as frequency and percentage. Descriptive analysis on individualism-collectivism, communication skills and conflict management styles were given as mean, standard deviation, median, minimum-maximum values. Mann-Whitney-U test was used to determine if the individualism-collectivism, communication skills and conflict management style of the head nurses, supervisor nurses and staff nurses differ from each other. Linear regression stepwise method was used to evaluate the relationship between variables. The internal consistency of the scales was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The level of statistical significance was considered as $p < 0.05$.

Results

The mean age of all nurses in the study was 36.87 ± 8.87 (min=23, max=61) years. The mean time spent in the profession was 15.1 ± 9.92 (min=1, max=41) years, the mean time spent at the institution was 13.17 ± 9.92 (min=1, max=40) years. Of all the nurses, 93.96% (n=257) were female, 72.5% (n=201) were staff nurses, and 27.5% (n=73) were nurse managers. Supervisor nurses comprised 7.5% of all participants, and head nurses constituted 20%.

According to the nurse managers' own evaluations, there was no statistically significant difference between the conflict management styles, communication skills, and individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers ($p > 0.05$) (Table 1a). When the differences between the communication skills and individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers and staff nurses' own evaluations were investigated, the mean (SD) of HI values of nurse managers 37.77 (4.47) was lower than the mean HI scores of staff nurses 39.37 (5.02) ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1b). A comparison was made to identify whether there were any differences between the head nurses' own conflict management style and staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses. There

were statistically significant differences between IN, OB, and CO styles of conflict management styles ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1c). A comparison was made to identify whether there were any differences between supervisor nurses' own conflict management style and staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses. Supervisor nurses reported that they used OB ($p < 0.05$) and AV ($p < 0.01$) styles less than staff nurses' evaluations (Table 1d). According to the staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of nurse managers, it was investigated whether there were any differences between the conflict management styles of head nurses and supervisor nurses. A statistically significant difference was found in all conflict management styles ($p < 0.05$). According to the staff nurses' perceptions, head nurses used IN, OB, AV, and CO styles less than supervisor nurses, and DO style more than supervisor nurses (Table 1e).

Nurse manager' VI value and communication skills are significant predictors of IN conflict management style ($R = 0.644$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.415$; $F(1-72) = 24.822$, $p < 0.001$). Nurse managers' HI value is a significant predictor of OB conflict management style ($R = 0.382$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.146$; $F(1-72) = 12.113$, $p = 0.001$). Nurse managers' VI values and communication skills are significant predictors of DO conflict management styles ($R = 0.423$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.179$; $F(1-72) = 7.644$, $p = 0.001$). Nurse managers' HC value is a significant predictor of AV conflict management style ($R = 0.301$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.091$; $F(1-72) = 7.089$, $p = 0.010$). Nurse managers' VC values and communication skills are significant predictors of CO conflict management style ($R = 0.482$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.232$; $F(1-72) = 21.500$, $p < 0.001$) (Table 2).

Staff nurses' HC and VI values are significant predictors of IN conflict management style towards head nurses ($R = 0.277$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.077$; $F(1-191) = 7.866$, $p = 0.001$). Staff nurses' VC and VI values are significant predictors of OB conflict management style towards head nurses ($R = 0.260$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.067$; $F(1-191) = 6.826$, $p = 0.001$). Staff nurses' VC and VI values are significant predictors of AV conflict management style towards head nurses ($R = 0.253$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.064$; $F(1-191) = 6.471$, $p = 0.002$). Staff nurses' HC, VI values and communication skills are significant predictors of CO conflict management style towards head nurses ($R = 0.272$; $R \text{ Square} = 0.074$; $F(1-191) = 5.010$, $p = 0.002$). Staff nurses individualism-collectivism values and communication skills were not related with DO conflict management style towards head nurses (Table 3).

Table 1. Comparison of the differences between conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills ($n = 274$)

Table 2a	Supervisor nurses' own evaluations					Head nurses' own evaluations					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	29.09	2.54	29.00	24.00	35.00	30.00	2.75	29.00	27.00	35.00	-1.329	.188
Obliging	20.62	2.40	20.00	12.00	26.00	21.05	2.63	21.00	17.00	25.00	-.662	.510
Dominating	12.57	3.05	13.00	5.00	18.00	12.55	2.72	13.00	8.00	17.00	.021	.984
Avoiding	16.64	3.54	16.00	9.00	24.00	16.05	2.98	16.50	10.00	21.00	.663	.510
Compromise	14.55	1.59	15.00	11.00	19.00	15.15	1.63	15.00	12.00	18.00	-1.436	.155
Communication skill	101.04	9.55	100.00	87.00	121.00	104.20	9.90	101.50	89.00	125.00	-1.250	.211
Horizontal collectivist	39.11	4.17	39.00	29.00	47.00	39.75	4.47	39.50	33.00	48.00	-.571	.570
Vertical collectivist	35.66	4.48	36.00	26.00	45.00	36.15	3.25	36.00	30.00	42.00	-.446	.657
Horizontal individualist	38.15	4.48	38.00	30.00	48.00	36.75	4.41	38.00	27.00	44.00	1.197	.235
Vertical individualist	22.92	4.80	23.00	12.00	34.00	22.85	4.06	23.50	16.00	29.00	.062	.951
Table 2b	Nurse managers' own evaluations					Staff nurses' own evaluations					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Communication skill	101.90	9.68	100.00	87.00	125.00	101.65	11.12	100.00	57.00	125.00	0.303	.762
Horizontal collectivist	39.29	4.23	39.00	29.00	48.00	38.99	4.78	39.00	22.00	50.00	-0.198	.843
Vertical collectivist	35.79	4.16	36.00	26.00	45.00	35.14	4.70	35.00	19.00	45.00	-0.926	.354
Horizontal individualist	37.77	4.47	38.00	27.00	48.00	39.37	5.02	40.00	26.00	50.00	-2.567	.010

Table 2c												
Head nurses' own conflict management styles						Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	30.00	2.75	29.00	27.00	35.00	23.19	7.65	24.50	7.00	35.00	-4.054	<.001
Obliging	21.05	2.63	21.00	17.00	25.00	17.87	5.99	18.00	6.00	30.00	-2.419	.016
Dominating	12.55	2.72	13.00	8.00	17.00	13.85	4.53	14.00	5.00	25.00	-1.381	.167
Avoiding	16.05	2.98	16.50	10.00	21.00	17.00	4.29	17.00	6.00	30.00	-1.042	.297
Compromise	15.15	1.63	15.00	12.00	18.00	12.30	3.56	13.00	4.00	20.00	-3.785	<.001

Table 2d												
Supervisor nurses' own conflict management styles						Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	29.09	2.54	29.00	24.00	35.00	27.63	6.07	28.00	7.00	53.00	-1.190	.234
Obliging	20.62	2.40	20.00	12.00	26.00	21.32	4.53	22.00	6.00	30.00	-2.147	.032
Dominating	12.57	3.05	13.00	5.00	18.00	12.80	4.02	13.00	5.00	25.00	-.055	.956
Avoiding	16.64	3.54	16.00	9.00	24.00	18.20	3.94	18.00	6.00	30.00	-2.671	.008
Compromise	14.55	1.59	15.00	11.00	19.00	14.29	2.89	15.00	4.00	20.00	-.109	.913

Table 2e												
Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses						Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	27.63	6.07	28.00	7.00	53.00	23.19	7.65	24.50	7.00	35.00	-5.551	<.001
Obliging	21.32	4.53	22.00	6.00	30.00	17.87	5.99	18.00	6.00	30.00	-5.813	<.001
Dominating	12.80	4.02	13.00	5.00	25.00	13.85	4.53	14.00	5.00	25.00	-2.549	.011
Avoiding	18.20	3.94	18.00	6.00	30.00	17.00	4.29	17.00	6.00	30.00	-2.716	.007
Compromise	14.29	2.89	15.00	4.00	20.00	12.30	3.56	13.00	4.00	20.00	-5.603	<.001

Table 2: The relationship between nurse managers' conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills (n=73)

Models		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model ^a	(Constant)	10.842	2.972		3.648	0.001	4.909	16.775		
	Vertical individualism	0.170	0.058	0.299	2.949	0.004	0.055	0.286	0.807	1.239
	Communication skill	0.135	0.031	0.499	4.367	<0.001	0.073	0.196	0.636	1.572
Model ^b	(Constant)	10.636	3.237		3.285	0.002	4.174	17.098		
	Horizontal individualism	-0.147	0.067	-0.268	-2.204	0.031	-0.280	-0.014	0.754	1.327
	Communication skill	-0.119	0.041	-0.391	-2.904	0.005	-0.201	-0.037	0.636	1.572
Model ^c	(Constant)	7.348	4.738		1.551	0.126	-2.108	16.805		
	Vertical individualism	0.240	0.110	0.299	2.172	0.033	0.019	0.460	0.659	1.517
	Communication skill	0.154	0.051	0.397	3.001	0.004	0.051	0.256	0.602	1.662
Model ^e	(Constant)	7.235	2.065		3.504	0.001	3.113	11.356		
	Vertical collectivism	0.044	0.021	0.264	2.054	0.044	0.001	0.087	0.636	1.572
	Communication skill	0.044	0.021	0.264	2.054	0.044	0.001	0.087	0.636	1.572

^aDependent: Nurse managers' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Nurse managers' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Nurse managers' dominating conflict management style

^dDependent: Nurse managers' avoiding conflict management style

^eDependent: Nurse managers' compromising conflict management style

VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of IN conflict management style towards supervisors (R=0.184; R Square=0.034; F(1-191)=6.695, p=0.010). Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of OB conflict management style towards supervisors (R=0.167; R Square=0.028; F(1-191)=5.466, p=0.020). Staff nurses' VI values are significant predictors of DO conflict management style towards supervisors (R=0.211; R Square=0.044; F(1-191)=8.813, p=0.003). Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of CO conflict management style towards supervisors (R= 0.145; R Square= 0.021; F(1-191)=4.079, p=0.045). Staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills were not related to AV conflict management style perception towards supervisors (Table 4).

Table 3: Relationships between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills (n=201)

Models ¹	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error			Beta	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model^a	(Constant)	23.137	5.982		3.868	<0.001	11.337	34.938		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.308	0.146	0.192	2.111	0.036	0.020	0.595	0.585	1.711
	Vertical individualism	-0.305	0.112	-0.203	-2.711	0.007	-0.526	-0.083	0.863	1.159
Model^b	(Constant)	17.834	4.689		3.803	<0.001	8.583	27.084		
	Vertical collectivism	0.239	0.118	0.187	2.023	0.045	0.006	0.471	0.566	1.766
	Vertical individualism	-0.199	0.088	-0.170	-2.264	0.025	-0.373	-0.026	0.863	1.159
Model^c	(Constant)	15.645	3.396		4.607	<0.001	8.946	22.344		
	Vertical collectivism	0.175	0.085	0.191	2.043	0.042	0.006	0.343	0.566	1.766
	Vertical individualism	-0.140	0.064	-0.167	-2.201	0.029	-0.266	-0.015	0.863	1.159
Model^d	(Constant)	13.142	2.807		4.682	<0.001	7.605	18.679		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.131	0.068	0.176	1.915	0.057	-0.004	0.266	0.585	1.711
	Vertical individualism	-0.113	0.053	-0.162	-2.136	0.034	-0.217	-0.009	0.863	1.159
	Communication skills	-0.067	0.026	-0.210	-2.581	0.011	-0.119	-0.016	0.743	1.346

¹There was no relationship between the individualism-collectivism values and communication skills of head nurses and the dominating conflict management style of head nurses.

^aDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' avoiding conflict management style

^dDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' compromising conflict management style

Table 4: Relationships between staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills (n=201)

Models ²		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model^a	(Constant)	11.040	7.865		1.404	.162	-4.477	26.556		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.438	0.192	0.215	2.288	.023	0.060	0.816	0.585	1.711
Model^b	(Constant)	11.795	6.020		1.959	.052	-0.081	23.672		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.290	0.147	0.186	1.980	.049	0.001	0.580	0.585	1.711
Model^c	(Constant)	10.030	4.248		2.361	.019	1.650	18.409		
	Vertical individualism	0.219	0.080	0.211	2.748	.007	0.062	0.377	0.863	1.159
Model^d	(Constant)	7.590	3.962		1.916	.057	-0.227	15.407		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.190	0.097	0.185	1.966	.051	-0.001	0.380	0.585	1.711

²There was no relationship between the individualism-collectivism values of staff nurses and the perception of the avoiding conflict management style of the supervisor nurses for communication skills.

^aDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' dominating conflict management style

^dDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' compromising conflict management style

Discussion

In our study, the conflict management styles of supervisor and head nurses were mostly integrative and there were no significant differences between them. There are studies that also state that nurse managers use IN conflict management style as their first option (Al-Hamdan et al., 2011; Al-Hamdan et al., 2016; Özkan Tuncay et al., 2018). A study conducted in Indonesia found that supervisor nurses mostly used a DO conflict management style (Pratiwi, 2017). A similar study reported that majority of the nurses preferred the integrative conflict management style, followed by CO, OB, DO, and AV styles, respectively (Al-Hamdan et al., 2014). In another study conducted in Spain with nurses, it was reported that the compromising conflict management style was commonly used (Losa Iglesias & Becerro de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012).

In our study, the IN and OB conflict management styles of head nurses and OB and AV conflict management styles of supervisor nurses were perceived negatively by staff nurses. Furthermore, there were negative differences between the perception of staff nurses towards the conflict management styles of head nurses and supervisor nurses in all dimensions. In another study conducted with hospital managers and hospital employees, it was reported that there were significant differences between the conflict management styles used by hospital managers and the perception of employees; managers considered their conflict management behaviour more positively than it was perceived by employees (Kıdak et al., 2011). Nurse managers were found to first use integrating or problem-solving approaches, followed by compromising and adaptation approaches in the event of conflict (Yılmaz and Öztürk, 2011).

Similar to the differences in national cultures, differences in the sub-cultures of a country may also have a considerable effect on the conflict management behaviours of organizations (Al-Hamdan, 2009). In our study, nurse managers' individualism-collectivism values are related to the conflict management style. Nurse managers' VI values and communication skills are positively related to IN conflict management style. Conflict management styles may differ from culture to culture (Karip, 2015). For example, individualists prefer not to use IN conflict management style

independently of their country of origin (Aslan et al., 2019). Komarraju et al. (2008) reported that horizontal and vertical collectivism values were positive predictors for integrating methods, and vertical individualism values were negative predictors. People with individualism values might prefer the integration style in environments where collectivism values matter because they think that solidarity, cooperation, and integration make it easier for them to reach their goals.

On the other hand, for integration, both parties express the real problem and what can be done in an honest and open way, misunderstandings are resolved through mutual communication skills and open communication, the causes of conflict are investigated and both sides have more information about each other's goals. Communication dominated by mutual trust and honesty is a precondition of this conflict management style. Understanding problems would clearly minimize the lack of communication and ease finding a solution (Johansen, 2012; Folger et al., 2013; Karip, 2015).

In our study, CO conflict management style is used more often by nurse manager as their VC values and communication skills increased. The results of our study are compatible with previous reports, showing that individualists prefer not to use a CO conflict management style (Alison, Emmers and Sommer, 2011; Aslan et al., 2019). According to Birsell et al.'s (2009) study, collectivist people tend to compromise more. People who embrace compromise style are willing to satisfy other people's needs and they might give up their own personal needs. Horizontal collectivism is the strongest predictor of compromising methods (Cai & Fink, 2002; Komarraju et al., 2008).

In our study, while DO conflict management style is used more as nurse managers' VI values increased, it is used less often as their communication skills increased. On the other hand, nurse managers use OB conflict management style less as HI values increase. The culture of VI predicts the inequality among individuals. Therefore, it can impact on the DO and AV styles of conflict management (Aslan et al., 2019). When the results of our study are considered, it might be said that people using a DO style prioritize their own needs and interests and feel little concern about the needs and interests of others. It can be considered that managers with better communication skills do not need pressure since they are more likely to use different methods. Also, they have poor communication skills because they use an oppressive method. Those with good communication skills tend not to prefer a dominating style. In a study conducted by Şahin (2010), no statistically significant relationship was found between interpersonal communication skills and DO styles and a highly positive linear relationship was present between DO styles and empathetic listening, effectiveness, and giving feedback skills.

In our study, nurse managers use AV conflict management style more often if they have higher HC values. According to the managers' self-assessment, they used an AV style, which was positively correlated with collectivist values, in agreement with the literature (Cai and Fink 2002; Kaushal and Kwantes, 2006; Komarraju et al., 2008; Oetzel and Ting-Toomey, 2003; Sternberg and Dobson, 1987; Şahin, 2010). In a similar study conducted in Turkey, it was stated that HC, VC, and HI impacted on CO and IN styles, HC influenced OB, IN styles, and also VI significantly impacted on DO and AV styles (Aslan et al., 2019). Culture can have a determining effect on the personal choice of conflict management style (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019).

In our study, staff nurses' high VI values cause them to perceive that head nurses use IN conflict management style less. Staff nurses with high VC and low VI values perceive that head nurses use OB and AV conflict management styles more. Staff nurses with high HC and low VI values use CO conflict management style more when their communication skills decrease. Moreover, staff nurses with high HC values perceive that supervisors use IN, OB and CO conflict management styles more; staff nurses with high VI values perceive that supervisors use DO conflict management style more.

Differences in cultural values also cause disparities in perception, so it is likely that nurses perceived the conflict management styles used by their managers, with whom they work, differently (Gunkel et al., 2016). People from Individualistic cultures demonstrates their preference for dominating style of conflict management more while people from collectivistic cultures less likely prefer dominating styles (Riaz et al., 2012). In another similar study, nurse managers who were older than 40 years used IN, OB and CO styles more than those younger than 40, who instead used the DO style in Jordan (Al Hamdan et al., 2016). In a different study, nurse managers tend to collaborate, compromise and accommodate more often than staff nurses (Ebrahim et al., 2014). Many nurses and nurse managers used mostly constructive conflict management styles. Nurse leaders and nurse managers play a vital role in promoting and modelling constructive conflict management, facilitating collaborative practice and effective communication within the organisation and ensuring that nurses as well as nurse managers are equipped and competent in handling conflict (Labrague et al., 2018).

Conflict is a corporate issue and is not an incipient situation. In the literature, it is emphasized that nurse managers mostly engage in constructive positive conflict management styles rather than destructive negative conflict management styles (Labrague et al., 2018). Although conflict is a subject of various studies, research on the effects of individualism-collectivism values on conflict management styles is limited. Others factors affecting nurses' conflict management styles should also be investigated.

The limitations of the study include the fact that the questionnaire was usually answered by the respondents themselves. The study was conducted in a single centre, even though it was performed in a hospital with a high number of nurses. Another limitation is that only individualism-collectivism values were addressed in our study. A further limitation is that the "Nurse Information Form" was answered using a multiple-choice test, but a validity and confidence test was not performed for this form.

In the study, nurse managers mostly embraced the integrative conflict management style. According to their own evaluation, there were no differences between the conflict management styles, communication skills, and horizontal and vertical individualism-collectivism values of the head nurses and supervisor nurses. Also, there were negative differences between the HI values of staff nurses and nurse managers. IN, OB, AV, and CO conflict management styles used by head nurses were perceived negatively by the staff nurses.

Communication skills and the individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers are related to the conflict management style they use. Nurses' perception of the conflict management style used by their managers is related to their own individualism-collectivism values. There are negative correlations between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' compromising conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills. Other factors that may affect the perception of staff nurses towards nurse managers conflict management styles should also be investigated. More studies investigating the relationship between nurses' communication skills and individualism-collectivism values of their conflict management styles are needed.

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Sequential Multiple Mediation of Anxiety, Intolerance of Uncertainty, Core Beliefs in the Relationship between COVID-19 Fear and Depression among University Students

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Introduction

The college years, including the adolescence and early adulthood, are risky for the onset of many common mental disorders. Before the Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) outbreak, the prevalence of mental disorders was high among university students. Some scholars have suggested that there is a steady increase in the prevalence of depression, anxiety, and suicidality (Auerbach vd., 2016:2960-2961). Others have also stated at the beginning of the epidemic that the COVID-19 pandemic and practices such as quarantine and distance education to prevent the spread of the disease may have diverse psychological effects on university students (Zhai ve Du, 2020:113003). Confirming this concern, most studies in the general population have revealed that those younger than 30 are at high risk for mental health (Glowacz ve Schmits, 2020:113486; Huang ve Zhao, 2020:112954). Subsequently, the results of some studies with university students in various countries have demonstrated that 32.1-73.1% of them suffer from the fear of COVID-19 (Alam vd., 2021:707342; Muyor-Rodriguez vd., 2021:8156), 2.4-61.6% from stress (Al-Dwaikat vd., 2020:e05695; Mboua vd., 2021:100147), 15.43-76.6% from anxiety (Alam vd., 2021: 707342; Wang ve Zhao, 2020:1168) 12.43-70.5% from depression (Ghazawy vd., 2021:11116; Patsali vd., 2020:113298).

Besides the prevalence of psychological disorders among university students, considered as a vulnerable group, depression is a costly disease (Slavich ve Irwin, 2014:774). Previous studies have reported that university students also had an increase in suicidal thoughts and behaviors (Ebert vd., 2019:295; Garber ve Weersing, 2010:293), and a decrease in academic performance (Auerbach vd., 2016:2957; Garber ve Weersing, 2010:293). A more recent study one year after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic found that half of the students had depressive symptoms, more than one-fifth had suicidal thoughts, 39.1% felt like dropping out of school, and one-third needed professional help (Schmits vd., 2021:7445). These data suggest that understanding the factors that

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predict depression in the pandemic will make valuable contributions to the prevention and treatment of depression, reducing personal suffering, financial burden and other consequences. However, studies with university students on this subject are limited. In the studies conducted with university students in the pandemic found significant relationships between depression and perception of physical symptoms as COVID-19, inadequate valid information on COVID-19, and excessive exposure to COVID-19 news on social and mass media, financial uncertainty (Khan vd., 2020:123-125). Those with unhealthy lifestyle behaviors such as not exercising, and an unbalanced diet have also high depression scores (Zhang vd., 2021:2015). Investing in contact with family and social networks and physical exercise were identified as protective factors against depression (Schmits vd., 2021:7445). In another study, depression was positively associated with fear of COVID-19, anxiety, and stress, and negatively with mindfulness and resilience (Yalçın vd., 2022:463).

Given the previous epidemics in the world, low tolerance for uncertainty is one of the variables that make individuals psychologically vulnerable (Taylor, 2019:42-44). A study of adults during the H1N1 epidemic found that higher uncertainty intolerance was associated with higher anxiety and an increased likelihood of perceiving the pandemic as more threatening (Taha vd., 2014:592). While a relationship between uncertainty intolerance and anxiety has been consistently reported (Mahoney ve McEvoy, 2012:213; Khawaja ve McMahan, 2011:166; Jensen vd., 2016:431-432), its relationship with depression is still not very well known (Jensen ve ark., 2016:432). Meta-analytic research reported a strong relationship between uncertainty intolerance and depression (Gentes ve Ruscio, 2011:929-930). In another research showed that uncertainty intolerance was related to generalized anxiety disorder, social phobia, and obsessive-compulsive symptoms, but not depressive symptoms (Khawaja ve McMahan, 2011:165). A recent study found a positive correlation between uncertainty intolerance and stress, anxiety, depression, and fear of COVID-19 (AlHadi vd., 2021:382). However, these studies during epidemics (AlHadi vd., 2021:382; Taha vd., 2014:592) were not conducted with university students, and uncertainty intolerance was considered as a leading or predictor variable in the tested models. In other words, uncertainty tolerance has not been yet tested as a mediator variable. Increasing evidence, particularly in the clinical sample, suggests that uncertainty intolerance may be a transdiagnostic maintenance factor in many emotional disorders (Mahoney ve McEvoy, 2012:212; McEvoy vd., 2019:101778). Considering that anxiety and depression predict each other in university students (Jacobson & Newman, 2017:1155), intolerance to uncertainty may be a common process between anxiety and depression. The unpredictable COVID-19 pandemic we are in can be a suitable basis for investigating the unknown about uncertainty intolerance.

Such extraordinary situations, as well as stressful experiences, also have the potential to challenge crucial components of the hypothetical world. It can lead people to question their core beliefs about the world, including the meaning of life, human nature, personal strengths and weaknesses, relationships with other people, and religious and spiritual issues (Cann vd., 2010:19,20,33). Core beliefs are the beliefs that form a hypothetical world, starting from early childhood with a set of mental representations that the world is a safe place, and containing a kind of generalization about oneself and the world (Janoff-Bulman, 1992:5). Traditionally, the cognitive theory has emphasized the role of core beliefs in the development and persistence of psychopathology, especially mood disorders (Beck, 1979:10-11). One of the ways to understand reactions to challenging situations is to examine the change that these experiences can create in the individual's cognitive world. Considering that university students experience multiple developmental stressors and pandemic conditions (Wang ve Zhao, 2020:1168), questioning basic

assumptions or core beliefs may lead to either personal development (Ramos vd., 2020:2346) or to the development of depression (Beck, 1979:10-11).

Finally, earlier studies reveal the increase in psychological distress of university students during the pandemic process. Unlike the onset of the pandemic, the impact of psychological symptoms on health over time might be greater than physical ones. For this reason, as pointed out, there is still a need for models that take into account psychological variables (Morales-Rodriguez vd., 2021:647964). Thus, these models provide evidence to guide depression prevention and psychotherapeutic interventions. In this context, in the current study, we aimed to understand how fear of COVID-19, stress, anxiety, intolerance of uncertainty, and core beliefs affect depression.

Methods

Design and Participants

A cross-sectional survey was conducted. The participants (N = 346) were undergraduate psychology students from seven regions of Turkey who attended different courses offered at the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University summer school. Second-year students who were at least 18 years old and whose mother tongue is Turkish (who can read and speak fluent Turkish) participated in this study. The final sample for this analysis consisted of 344 participants excluding two students whose mother tongue was not Turkish. The sample was predominantly female (75.9%), with a mean age of 22.32 (SD = 2.22) years, and 98% were single. 39% of the participants lived in Marmara, 23% Central Anatolia, 13.4% Black Sea, 8.4% Aegean, 8.1% Mediterranean, 4.9% Southeastern Anatolia, and 3.2% Eastern Anatolia Region.

Measures

The Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S). This scale was developed by Ahorsu et al. (2020:1537–1545). Turkish adaptation, validity, and reliability studies were made by Satici et al. (2021:1980–1988). There is no reverse-scored item in the scale, consisting of 7 questions, and the items are assessed using a five-point Likert-type scale (1-Strongly disagree...5-Strongly agree). A score ranges from 7 to 35 on the scale, with a high score indicating a high level of fear. In the Turkish validity and reliability study of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha value was .82.

Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scale (DASS-21). This scale was developed by Lovibond and Lovibond (1995: 335–343) and adapted into Turkish by Sarçam (2018:19-30). The scale consists of 21 items, and there are seven items each in the depression, anxiety, and stress sub-dimensions. The scale includes items concerning the symptoms of depression, anxiety, and stress in the last week on a four-point scale, ranging from (0) never to (3) always. The depression scale evaluates feelings such as negative personal feelings, reluctance, and slowness to start a job, depressed mood and grief, worthlessness, lack of pleasure and unwillingness, feeling negative about the future, the meaninglessness of life. While the anxiety scale evaluates autonomic responses and situational concerns, the stress scale examines the difficulty in relaxation, tantrums, irritability and anger, impatience, and lack of tolerance. In the healthy sample, Cronbach's alpha and test-retest correlation coefficients were .85 and .68 for depression, respectively; .80 and .66 for anxiety, and .77, and .61 for stress.

The Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale (IUS-12). It is a self-evaluation scale developed by Carleton et al. (2007:105-117), with a 12-item, five-point scale (1 (Not at all) to 5 (Extremely) consisting of two sub-dimensions, prospective anxiety, and inhibitory anxiety. The total score from the scale

ranges from 12 to 60. Increasing scores indicate high intolerance to uncertainty. The scale was adapted into Turkish by Sarıçam et al. (2014:148-157).

The Core Beliefs Inventory (CBI). It was developed by Cann et al. (2010:19-34) and aimed to evaluate the extent to which a specific event leads people to question their basic assumptions about the world. It consists of nine items and one dimension. Each statement begins with "Because of the event, I seriously examined...". In our study, the participants were asked to answer by considering the "COVID-19 epidemic" as a "specific event". It scores the items on a six-point scale (0 = Never happened, 5 = Very high). High scores indicate a possible deterioration in one's assumptions about the world. Its validity and reliability study for Turkish was conducted by Haselden and Öktem (2014:90-102), who found the Cronbach alpha value be .85. It consists of two dimensions: Others-oriented and self-oriented. A total score can be obtained by summing the scores of the two sub-dimensions.

Sociodemographic Information Form. This form included questions about the students' age, gender, marital status, and the region they lived in.

Procedure

Data were collected from 28 August 2020 to 9 August 2021 via an online survey software platform (survey.com). The general information was given by the lecturer about the purpose of the study, to fill out the questionnaire outside of the classroom, to stay away from stimuli that would distract them (for example, being busy with a mobile phone, etc.), to answer sincerely, and to be given participation credits. Researchers also clarified that no individual results or any information that could identify them as a single participant would be published. The link to the online form was sent via e-mail to the students who wanted to participate in the study voluntarily. Upon filling the informed consent form, the participants were able to respond to the questionnaire. The whole procedure took about 15 minutes to fill out. All data was only accessible to researchers and digitally coded to protect confidentiality. This study has been approved by the Ethics Committee of the Human Research at the Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University (approval number: 2020/05). All participants agreed to give their information for scientific research and to provide anonymous responses. The research was in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975.

Statistical analyses

SPSS-22 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) program was used to evaluate the data. Skewness and Kurtosis scores of FCV-19S, DAS-21, IUS-12, and CBI scores ranged from -.039 to 1.02. The Kurtosis, Skewness and Cronbach Alpha values of the scales in this study were shown in Table 1. All data showed a normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013:78-83). As descriptive statistics, numbers and percentages or means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores were calculated according to the data type. Pearson correlation analyzes of FCV-19S, DAS-21, IUS-12, and CBI variables were performed. Mediation analyzes were performed with the Hayes PROCESS macro (Model 6) to test a theoretical model of the relationships between FCV-19S, DAS-21, IUS-12, and CBI and depression, excluding stress since there was a co-linearity between depression and stress (Hayes, 2013). The effect of significant partial mediators was tested with the Sobel test (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2016: paragraf 5-8). The alpha level for significance was determined as $p < 0.05$ in all analyzes.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The mean scores of the participants for fear of COVID-19, stress, anxiety, depression, intolerance of uncertainty and core beliefs were 17.40 (SD 6.24), 15.10 (SD 5.03), 11.90 (SD 4.43), 14.44 (SD 5.19), 38.64 (SD 8.87), and 37.42 (SD 8.69), respectively (Table 1).

Table 1 –Means, standard deviations (SD), ranges, skewness, kurtosis and cronbach alpha of the study measures

Variable	Cronbach alpha	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	SD	Ranges
1.Fear of COVID-19	.86	.468	-.064	17.40	6.24	7-35
2.Stress	.88	.402	-.465	15.10	5.03	7-28
3.Anxiety	.87	1.021	.575	11.90	4.43	7-27
4.Depression	.90	.508	-.411	14.44	5.19	7-28
5.Intolerance of uncertainty	.89	-.176	-.112	38.64	8.87	12-60
6.Core beliefs	.88	-.343	-.039	37.42	8.69	9-54

A statistically significant positive correlation was found between all variables ($p < .01$). We found a weak correlation between depression and fear of COVID-19 ($r = .24$), a strong correlation between anxiety ($r = .68$), a moderate correlation between depression and intolerance of uncertainty ($r = .42$), and core beliefs ($r = .35$). There was a co-linearity between stress and depression (Table 2).

Table 2 – Bivariate correlations of the study measures

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1.Fear of COVID-19	-				
2.Stress	.302**	-			
3.Anxiety	.343**	.737**	-		
4.Depression	.244**	.811**	.680**	-	
5.Intolerance of uncertainty	.294**	.500**	.361**	.424**	-
6.Core beliefs	.181**	.340**	.213**	.345**	.454**

** $p < .01$.

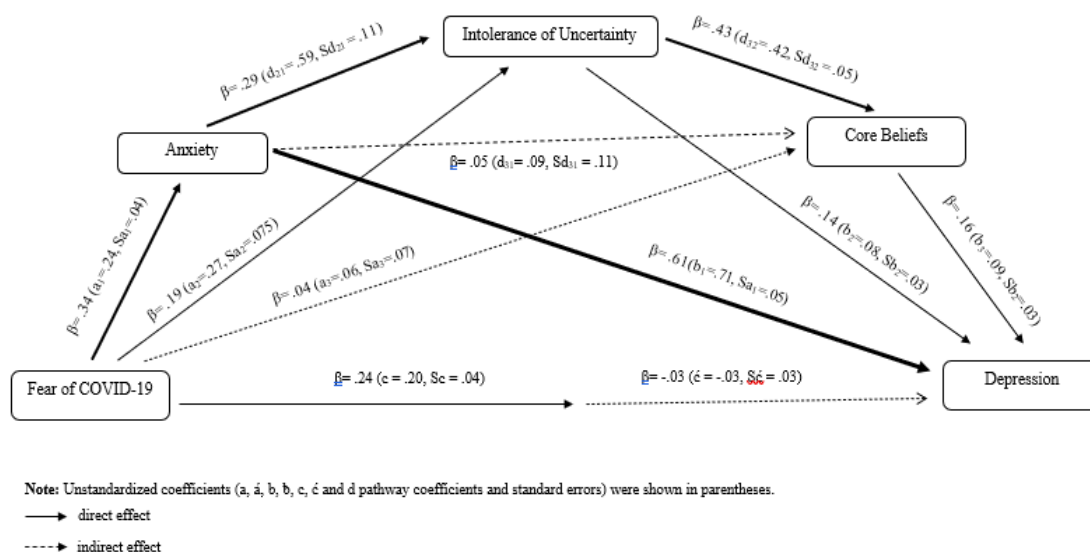
Mediation Analyses

Three mediations were tested with the Hayes Process Macro Model 6, the results are shown in Figure 1. This model explained 52% of the total variance ($R^2 = .52$, $MSE = 13.134$, $F(4.339) =$

91.409, $p = .0001$). In this model, fear of COVID-19 ($\beta = .34$) significantly predicted the first mediator variable, anxiety ($E = .2433$, $se = .0360$, $t = 6.7578$, $p = .00001$, $LLCI = .1725$, $ULCI = .3141$). Fear of COVID-19 ($\beta = .19$) predicted the second mediating variable, intolerance of uncertainty ($E = .2736$, $se = .0749$, $t = 3.6543$, $p = .0003$, $LLCI = .1263$, $ULCI = .4209$). Anxiety ($\beta = .29$) also predicted intolerance of uncertainty ($E = .5898$, $se = .1056$, $t = 5.5836$, $p = .00001$, $LLCI = .3820$, $ULCI = .7975$). Fear of COVID-19 ($\beta = .04$) did not predict the third mediator variable, core beliefs ($E = .0562$, $se = .0727$, $t = .7722$, $p = .4405$, $LLCI = -.0869$, $ULCI = .1993$). Also, anxiety ($\beta = .05$) did not predict core beliefs ($E = .0893$, $se = .1052$, $t = .8494$, $p = .3962$, $LLCI = -.1175$, $ULCI = .2962$). On the other hand, intolerance of uncertainty ($\beta = .43$) predicted core beliefs ($E = .4177$, $se = .0516$, $t = 8.0927$, $p = .00001$, $LLCI = .3162$, $ULCI = .5192$). Fear of COVID-19 ($\beta = -.03$) did not predict the dependent variable depression ($E = -.0291$, $se = .0340$, $t = -.8540$, $p = .3937$, $LLCI = -.0960$, $ULCI = .0379$). On the other hand, anxiety ($\beta = .61$) ($E = .7114$, $se = .0492$, $t = 14.4564$, $p = .00001$, $LLCI = .6146$, $ULCI = .8082$) and intolerance of uncertainty ($\beta = .14$) predicted depression ($E = .0844$, $se = .0263$, $t = 3.2027$, $p = .0015$, $LLCI = .0326$, $ULCI = .1362$). Core beliefs ($\beta = .16$) also predicted depression ($E = .0938$, $se = .0253$, $t = 3.7008$, $p = .0003$, $LLCI = -.0440$, $ULCI = .1437$).

Given the Total Effect Model to examine the relationship between the initial independent variable, fear of COVID-19, and depression, the predictive power of fear of COVID-19 ($\beta = .24$) was significant ($E = .2029$, $se = .0436$, $t = 4.6518$, $p = .0000$, $LLCI = .1171$, $ULCI = .2887$) but the predictive power dropped to zero ($\beta = .03$) when mediator variables were added. The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow anxiety \rightarrow depression was also significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0333$, $\text{BootSE} = .0058$, $\text{BootLLCI} = .0223$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0454$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow intolerance of uncertainty \rightarrow depression was also significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0044$, $\text{BootSE} = .0021$, $\text{BootLLCI} = .0011$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0094$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow core beliefs \rightarrow depression was not significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0010$, $\text{BootSE} = .0014$, $\text{BootLLCI} = -.0016$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0039$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow anxiety \rightarrow intolerance of uncertainty \rightarrow depression was significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0023$, $\text{BootSE} = .0010$, $\text{BootLLCI} = .0007$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0044$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow anxiety \rightarrow core beliefs \rightarrow depression was not significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0004$, $\text{BootSE} = .0005$, $\text{BootLLCI} = -.0005$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0014$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow intolerance of uncertainty \rightarrow core beliefs \rightarrow depression was significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0021$, $\text{BootSE} = .0009$, $\text{BootLLCI} = .0006$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0040$). The indirect effect of fear of COVID-19 \rightarrow anxiety \rightarrow intolerance of uncertainty \rightarrow core beliefs \rightarrow depression was significant ($E_{\text{Partial}} = .0011$, $\text{BootSE} = .0004$, $\text{BootLLCI} = -.0004$, $\text{BootULCI} = .0020$).

Figure 1 - Mediation role of core beliefs, intolerance of uncertainty and anxiety for the relationship between fear of COVID-19 and depression



Discussion

Focusing on anxiety, uncertainty intolerance, and core beliefs, this study analyzed a mediation model by testing the relationship between the variables together to determine some of the basic mechanisms between the COVID-19 fear levels experienced by university students during the current pandemic process and depression. Fear of COVID-19 was found to predict depression both directly and through anxiety, intolerance of uncertainty, and core beliefs.

Fear, one of the common psychological consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic, was investigated all over the world, and the findings of a systematic review of 44 articles, showed that the fear of COVID-19 was high and the mean score of 12 studies conducted with university students was 17.95 (Luo et al., 2021:661078). In our study, the mean score of fear of COVID-19 (17.40) was found to be quite similar. Fear is defined as the automatic evaluation (appraisal) of stimuli as recently threatening or dangerous (Carleton, 2016:39). Fear is present-oriented and relatively obvious (Gu et al., 2020:8866386). The rapid spread of COVID-19 disease and high mortality is a danger and is natural/likely to cause fear. On the other hand, anxiety is considered a more complex response to unknown or unpleasant, disturbing stimuli (Carleton, 2016:39). It is future-oriented and relatively uncertain (Gu et al., 2020:8866386), and the enduring subjective response to having experienced fear. Some scholars have suggested that fear is the basic process underlying anxiety (Carleton, 2016:39). In our study, the participants' fear of COVID-19 predicted anxiety. Studies conducted with university students in various countries showed a strong correlation between fear of COVID-19 and anxiety (Alam et al., 2021:707342) and moderate (Muyor-Rodríguez et al., 2021:8156; Oti-Boadi et al., 2021:8264; Yalçın et al., 2022:463). A meta-analysis of thirty-three studies conducted in the population revealed that fear of COVID-19 was strongly associated with anxiety (Şimşir et al., 2021:515). The higher the fear of COVID-19, the higher the anxiety level can be explained by the presence of common symptoms and resources. A meta-analysis of thirty-three studies conducted in the population revealed that fear of COVID-19

was strongly associated with anxiety (Şimşir et al., 2021:515). The higher the fear of COVID-19, the higher the anxiety level can be explained by the presence of common symptoms and resources. In the current pandemic process, the most frequently reported sources of fear and anxiety among university students are infection of themselves and their social networks, cancellation of face-to-face classes, academic delays, changes in course delivery and apprehension about uncertain teaching parameters, financial/economic difficulties, loss of daily routine (Dhar et al., 2020:2000038; Son et al., 2020:e21279; Tasso et al., 2021:9; Yorguner et al., 2021:5-7).

Fear or anxiety can arise both from knowing more about the virus and from fear of the unknown. Fears about COVID-19 are triggered not only by the fear of the unknown but also by the anxiety that accompanies unpredictable and uncontrollable situations (Coelho et al., 2020:581314). Uncertainties of the unprecedented open-ended crisis, the asymptomatic course of the disease, insufficient or unclear or conflicting information, changing and sudden decisions about preventing the spread of the disease and the education process, being faced with a constant threat and uncertainty (Coelho et al., 2020:581314; Dhar et al., 2020:2000038; Zhai and Du, 2020:113003), challenge the level of tolerance of uncertainty among young people in a major life transition. As a matter of fact, in our study, both the fear of COVID-19 and anxiety predicted uncertainty intolerance. Besides, mediation analysis showed that fear of COVID-19 had an indirect effect on uncertainty intolerance through anxiety. Jensen et al. (2016:439) also found that anxiety significantly predicted uncertainty intolerance in a study conducted in undergraduate and clinical samples. Given the evidence that fear is associated with less uncertain future threats and anxiety is associated with a more uncertain future threat (Gu et al., 2020:8866386), it is an expected result that anxiety predicted uncertainty intolerance more strongly.

The current finding demonstrated that anxiety had a direct as well as indirect effect on depression through uncertainty intolerance. This finding is consistent with the research finding that uncertainty intolerance is a transdiagnostic maintenance factor (McEvoy et al., 2019:101778). The relationship between anxiety and depression is consistent (Eysenck and Fajkowska, 2018:1391) and is found as a comorbid diagnosis in more than three-quarters of them (Ter Meulen et al., 2021:85). In a longitudinal study of 2,548 adolescents and young adults, having generalized anxiety disorder at baseline resulted in a 4.5-fold increased lifetime risk of developing a first major depressive episode, even after adjusting for other psychiatric disorders and factors. It was concluded that anxiety disorders are risk factors for the first onset of major depressive disorder (Bittner et al., 2004:618). Examining temporally, anxiety generally precedes depression, that is, the transition from anxiety to depression occurs more frequently than the opposite (Garber & Weersing, 2010:294; Starr et al., 2016:761; Ter Meulen et al., 2021:87-88). Slavich and Irwin (2014: 775-776) suggest that this sequence is meaningful from the perspective of the social signaling theory of depression. Garber and Weersing (2010:295-297) explained the association of anxiety and depression with the similarities in symptoms, the overlap in the items in the self-report tools, the fact that they have common etiological factors, negative sequelae of anxiety conferring increased risk for the development of depression. By addressing the relationship between anxiety and depressive stress responses, Krupnik (2021:657738) explained the role of anxiety in the dynamics of the depressive stress response and the high co-occurrence of the resulting anxiety and depression symptoms with an integrative evolutionary-stress response-predictive processing model. The evolutionary theory considers depression as a dynamic process, not a diagnostic/categorical view or a state of mind. The model considers depression as a normative depressive stress reaction. It proposes that the depressive stress reaction progresses through the transition from anxiety to depression, that is,

from the onset to the withdrawal stage. This information may explain the transition from anxiety to depression, as well as the high correlation of stress with depression in our study.

While attempting to propose a complex model that included all the variables in our study, uncertainty intolerance was positioned as the key/mediating variable in the middle of the model, potentially influencing all the behaviors involved. We found that uncertainty intolerance predicted depression and core beliefs positively. As explained before, the relationship between uncertainty intolerance and depression has not been consistently demonstrated (Gentes & Ruscio, 2011:929-90; Jensen et al., 2016:432; Khawaja & McMahon, 2011:165). In the COVID-19 pandemic, studies conducted in the general public reported that there was a positive correlation between high uncertainty intolerance and depression (AlHadi et al., 2021:382; Voitsidis et al., 2021:888-890) and that uncertainty intolerance was a crucial predictor of depressive symptomatology (Voitsidis et al., 2021:888-890). These conclusions may be valid in the context of uncertain pandemic conditions. We were able to find a study on the relationship between uncertainty intolerance and core beliefs. Vazquez et al. (2021:2915) evaluated core beliefs with a different scale and found that post-traumatic growth was associated with primitive beliefs about a good world, openness to the future, identification with humanity, and post-traumatic stress is associated with skepticism, uncertainty intolerance, death anxiety, and identification with humanity. It highlighted the role of core beliefs, both positive and negative, regarding the current pandemic threat. Given the fact that uncertainty intolerance is “a cognitive bias that leads individuals to evaluate uncertain situations negatively” (Mahoney & McEvoy, 2012:212), the faltering of assumptions in core beliefs of people with high uncertainty intolerance may be an expected result. Poulin and Silver (2019: 103866) have reported that exposure to negative life events can affect people's worldview and thus individual well-being. They determined that their worldviews changed the most in the absence of factors such as advanced age and social support that could help individuals reinterpret negative life events. The type of negative life event is also crucial. While the emergence of solidarity is often evident in natural disasters, in the COVID-19 pandemic, although we are talking about a global disaster, it has required people to stay away from each other to protect themselves and others. In this period of isolation as never before, the conditions are suitable to focus on the self, relationships with other people, and the meaning of life. As uncertainty intolerance increases, rethinking assumptions may have had an effect like rumination and increased psychological symptoms. Indeed, our study showed that core beliefs predict depression. Recently, Cowan et al. (2019:387-389) found that core beliefs predict depression in young people. It seems of great importance in examining the change in people's basic assumptions about the world in more detail during the pandemic period.

Finally, the emerging model reveals that fear of COVID-19 leads to higher anxiety, which, in turn, leads to increased uncertainty intolerance and questioning of core beliefs, and questioning core beliefs increases depression. The current findings also showed that fear of COVID-19 had a total effect on depression, but when anxiety, uncertainty intolerance, and core beliefs were added to the equation, the initial relationship between fear of COVID-19 and depression turned out to be nonsignificant. Some studies have reported that fear of COVID-19 is associated with its bilateral correlations with depression (Pak et al., 2021:1882; Şimşir et al., 2021:515). Up to now, we have not found a similar study that dealt with the variables we examined together. We recommended to verify these results in a larger sample and to include other variables in the model.

There are some limitations in this study that prevent the results from being generalized. In this study, the sample consisted of psychology students from different regions of Turkey. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the study, it is difficult to reach a general conclusion about cause-

effect relationships among psychological variables. In this study, we used inclusive and widely used scales. However, symptoms of anxiety and depression were not diagnosed by medical examination.

The resulting model showed that anxiety, intolerance of uncertainty, and core beliefs were mediating variables in the process from fear of COVID-19 to depression. This study highlighted the complex relationship between the pandemic and human psychology, including cognitive (i.e., intolerance and core beliefs of uncertainty) and emotional (i.e., fear, anxiety, and depression) components. Taken together, interventions targeting fear and anxiety management, uncertainty intolerance, and core beliefs may help prevent depression in the young adult population. The findings of this study can guide the development of support programs for the psychological health of university students during the pandemic. Besides, the pandemic process can be turned into a learning opportunity for future psychologists who will encounter situations that require crisis intervention throughout their professional lives. It seems important to enable them to benefit from their own experience.

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An Assessment on Liberal-Statatist Approach Of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir And Ahmet Ağaoğlu

Cumhur DÜLGER¹

Introduction

The first determination that can be made in general for this title, including the westernization efforts in the Ottoman Empire, the concept of liberalism—even though it is different in form—has always been on the agenda and is a subject that has been discussed². Even if it is never true in this matter, individual efforts have been seen in the sense of creating a tradition. In addition, liberal thought debates were discussed on the basis of the distinction between liberalism and statism in the period from 1923 to 1939. Therefore, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's "İnkılap ve Kadro" and Ahmet Ağaoğlu's "Devlet ve Fert" books are crucial in terms of the subjects as statism, individualism, freedom and modernization. However, in my opinion, separating these debates as centralist (statist-public) and individualist and discussing them at this level has brought about a structure that needs to be constantly questioned. The problem in these discussions is the problem of relying on the official ideology in Turkey. This situation can also be evaluated as the problem of whether there is an effort to integrate it into the official ideology. This point later increased in favor of individualism and liberalism while at the same time reducing the economic intervention of the state. Since the early 1950s, the views that support individualistic structures similar to the countries that have made industrial transformation in Turkey have gained weight.

Collective Assessment of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's "İnkılap ve Kadro" and Ahmet Ağaoğlu's "Devlet ve Fert"

First of all, the two books contain very serious, intense and extensive discussion. However, the discussions are unfortunately controversial in terms of theoretical background and knowledge. The subjects mentioned in the two books are taxation, public expenditure theory, income-wealth distribution, growth-capital theory, development economics, trade theory, macroeconomics, market structure theory, socialism economics and comparative economic systems. The reason for this is that the concepts of liberalism and statism discussed are meaningless anyway, except for these topics. In this respect, I think, it is very difficult to evaluate the books within a certain word limit. For this reason, I think it would be convenient to choose some concepts and topics in the book and to comment in harmony with the whole book. It should be considered that is that the debates on liberalism and statism are already separate subjects. In the comments to be made for the book, the sections will be specified as the title and then, the comments and explanations will be submitted.

The Problem of the Great Depression of 1929

¹ Doçent Doktor, Anadolu Üniversitesi,

² What I mean here are discussions on the solution of economic problems and efforts to create a knowledge base. Approaches, methods, hypotheses and solution tools have never been realized within the framework of a "school" or an "original journal". This situation still continues in Turkey.

One of the most important points for Şevket Süreyya Aydemir and the “kadro” approach can be stated as the opposition to liberalism or the negativity in the interpretation of liberalism. For this approach, the economic crisis of 1929 is taken as the starting point. Şevket Süreyya Aydemir has been interpreted as the wear and even collapse of liberalism due to the Great Depression of 1929. Therefore, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir perceives the 1929 economic crisis as the main point of the search for a different (new) path. However, it is interesting that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir interpreted the point of view that the aim of the state intervention, which is the claim of the economic approach that emerged after the 1929 economic crisis, is the full employment and that the total demand should be increased, as only by the government intervention. In addition, it is a problem in itself that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir ignores the issue of harmonization of the newly established republic with the liberal integration to the global economy through foreign trade. It is clear that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir does not consider liberalism or socialism based on social class difference as a system for Turkey (Nas, 2015). This situation put forward by Şevket Süreyya Aydemir can be considered as a separate opening. However, why there is no discussion of "working class rights" in Şevket Süreyya Aydemir, this issue is also interesting (Akar, 2016). At this point, the understanding of "national economy" and, accordingly, "statism" emerges as an approach in Şevket Süreyya Aydemir (Uzun, 2008). This subject, in my opinion, reveals the originality of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's book "İnkılap ve Kadro". Because the "economic element" or input that needs to be discussed here is the "entrepreneurial class". Şevket Şevket Süreyya Aydemir attributes this role only to the "government". This approach is economically possible, but Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's insistence that this role should be "continuous" is controversial and problematic. For this situation, the question to be asked in Süreyya Aydemir's approach is whether this entrepreneurial class existed in those years. The answer is clear: Such a class does not exist and never has been. The reason for this is the Muslim-Turkish type of people who have been coming since the Ottoman Empire. This human type is economically unstable, inert and has an anti-matter mentality (Kabaş, 2015). Although the positive effect of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's statism approach can be accepted at the first stage, the continuous statist policy approach that has been put into practice since 1930 is problematic. The implementation of permanent statist policies for many years can also be criticized in terms of the necessary change, rationalization or realization of a rational individual-society/firm for Turkish society (Kabaş, 2015). In this context, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir also advocates the planned, statist national economy model in economy (Örmeci, 2017). Naturally, this policy would have the consequences. The policy of statism left the private-sector influence to the state in capital accumulation. The government has two main roles: (i) entrepreneur and (ii) regulator (Varlı, 2012). Even if Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's national cooperation approach works for capital accumulation and the formation of a domestic market, it does not include an explanation in terms of export and foreign competition, which is a serious shortcoming.

Regarding the 1929 World Economic Crisis, Ahmet Ağaoğlu's approach to this issue is also interesting. Ahmet Ağaoğlu's book, *Devlet ve Fert*, gives us the necessary information on this subject. This book is also important for understanding the differences between Ahmet Ağaoğlu and Şevket Süreyya Aydemir and the 1929 World Economic Crisis Problem. In this book, Ahmet Ağaoğlu criticizes the book “İnkılap ve Kadro”, but also makes serious critiques of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's theses on the Great Depression of 1929. Ahmet Ağaoğlu's starting point is the relationship Şevket Süreyya Aydemir established between the problem of the Great Depression of 1929 and the Turkish Revolution. Şevket Süreyya Aydemir deals with the problem of the 1929 World Economic Crisis within the scope of the “national liberation” struggle. Ahmet Ağaoğlu denies this situation. According to Ahmet Ağaoğlu, the Turkish Revolution is a process and it was formed before this crisis. This explanation is clearly the emergence of the weight of the liberal approach in Ahmet Ağaoğlu's book "*Devlet ve Fert*". This approach should not be taken as wrong or incomplete. It is also valuable, but it has shortcomings in criticizing Şevket Süreyya Aydemir. The missing point is that: As put by Ahmet Ağaoğlu, “Şevket Süreyya Aydemir does not claim that the Great Depression of 1929 occurred because of the national liberation struggles. The Great

Depression of 1929 is a structural crisis and only the countries that are fighting for national liberation or have not yet started this struggle can benefit from this crisis". In addition, Ahmet Ağaoğlu, says that "According to Şevket Süreyya, the main reason for the 1929 crisis was that capitalism was based on the objective limits as there was no region left to colonize in the world. Şevket Süreyya Aydemir states that as a country that has just completed its national liberation struggle, Turkey should take the advantage of the Great Depression of 1929 and establish its own national industry" (Turhan, 2007).

Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's approach on this point can be seen as justified. This is one of the problems created by the capitalist process. However, this approach already exists within the capitalist system. Social inequality in the economy and its aggravation over time in the capitalist process is real. However, the assumption of abundance in the capitalist process and the disruption - or injustice - that occurs in the distribution cannot be put forward as a clear problem in Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's approach, but this may be the explanation that the capitalist order has a stalemate in Şevket Süreyya Aydemir. The important basis of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's statement that the 1929 World Economic Crisis should be taken advantage of is-I think-class analysis. In other words, the commitment to be formed in the society will be effective in creating opportunities. I think that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's new Labor Law Draft can be discussed from this perspective as well (Akar, 2016).

In Ahmet Ağaoğlu's book "Devlet ve Fert", Şevket Süreyya criticized Aydemir for being a Marxist and materialist and, taking the economics as the main starting point and for developing ideas in this way. In this regard, he said "They are not socialists. They seem to know the property procedure. But because they are also Marxists, they are in favor of the socialist method. In other words, they want the means of production and high technology to belong to the state. They do not deny the individual, but demand that individual work be placed under the planned and willful intervention of the state. In this way, when the cadreists try to remove the social contradictions, they themselves deviate into inextricable contradictions" (Ağaoğlu, 1933).

As a result, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's ideological approach is contrary to liberal thought. The basis of Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's approach is "a planned economic policy of the government. However, in my opinion, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's approach unfortunately does not have the characteristics of a complete synthesis. One of the main reasons for this is that he does not believe in the class basis (in fact, the class movement). Therefore, it would not be appropriate to be called a Marxist.

Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's main interesting approach is the "national economy" system. In addition, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir's national economy system is based on planning. The second point of this approach is the concept of "division of labor". In other words, Şevket Süreyya Aydemir advocates the *Statism* *Populism* *Solidarity* society process³. He also believes in creating a classless society as a result of this process. It would not be wrong to state that this process is interestingly similar to the understanding of the "political nationalist left party" (Baath Party), which aims to unite the Arab nation in a socialist state. However, at this point, the fact that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir is neutral (and not criticizing) about religion should definitely be taken into account.

Likewise, the first determination to be made about Ahmet Ağaoğlu in this context is that he is an intellectual who has lived in different cultures. The effect of this situation on the development of the mentality cannot be ignored. It should definitely be taken into account that he was born in Russia, is Azeri Turk and was educated in the French school. I think the basis of the westernist understanding in Ahmet Ağaoğlu's individualist and liberal thought should be sought here. Ahmet Ağaoğlu's liberal understanding formed within this framework also formed the basis of his

³ This process is also defined as "national left" in some sources. On this, cf. Yilmaz (2020).

"nationalism" approach. In other words, the liberal synthesis produced a nationalist synthesis. A new understanding of "nationalism" including Turkism and Islamism was reflected as a liberalism understanding that includes the reconciliation of species. I think this is the originality of Ahmet Ağaoğlu's understanding of liberalism.

As a result, it is very clear that the ideas they defend and put forward by Şevket Süreyya Aydemir and Ahmet Ağaoğlu have high originality qualities for the period in which they lived. In addition, it is clear that Şevket Süreyya Aydemir and Ahmet Ağaoğlu are very important intellectuals in the history of the Republic, who are valuable in their own discussions.

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Recep Peker and the Corporatist Approach

Cumhur DÜLGER¹

Introduction

Economic definitions and economic terms are mainly used to reveal various approaches to design related to social problems. The main aim of this approach is to analyse two problems. The first one is the economic development. And, the second one is the justice. Do away with these two problems will also provide the elimination of conflicts of interest between classes. At this point, it should be remembered that these are the resources to be taken as a basis and applied in the elimination of conflicts. Reliable sources should be scientific sources. That's why there can't and shouldn't be just the "texts". The comments made on the texts are an effort to reveal what is intended and are superficial. In the economic approaches, it is necessary to look at how this approach is embodied in legal and official documents, not intentions. In this paper, this approach is taken account of this.

Recep Peker's² Understanding of State and Public Management

The first determination that should be made for Recep Peker's understanding of the government is that he has a military background. In my opinion, Recep Peker has taken this situation which is seen explicitly or implicitly in all of the decisions and practices as a reference example.

Two of the most important traits in managers with a military-trained background are the honesty and the loyalty to their country. These features are also seen in the practices of Recep Peker (Özkay, 2020). For this reason, he was nicknamed the "jandarma"³ in his period due to the rigidity of Recep Peker's ideas. This issue is important. However, what is important here is that the main concept that needs to be discussed for the young republican administration is "patrimonialism bureaucracy". In Recep Peker's understanding of the state, this impact cannot and should not be ignored. This concept, which is based on the representation of state power with personality, emerges as a "centralism and bureaucratic attitude", especially in Recep Peker's understanding of the government, but it is not possible to talk about the nature of "patrimonialism bureaucracy". The point to be considered at this point is that the term "military power" referred to by this concept is not valid for Recep Peker. In Recep Peker's understanding of the state, patrimonialism can only be defined as "rational bureaucracy". At this point, the concept of patrimonialism, which Max Weber reinterpreted, should be looked at. In Max Weber's approach, there is patrimonialism as the object of obedience. Max Weber sees the concept of patrimonialism as "personal authority" based on traditional status. Also, the organized group exercising authority relies primarily on personal relationships, even in the simplest case. At this point, loyalty developed through the education process – this is military training for Recep Peker – is extremely important (Mounira & Adams, 2011).

¹ Doçent Doktor, Anadolu Üniversitesi,

² His name is mentioned as "Receb Peker" in the sources of the Turkish Grand National Assembly.

³ Means "gendarme" in English.

This explanation is usable for Recep Peker and I think it is correct, but the concept should definitely be used as “rational bureaucracy”. At the same time, he made Recep Peker see himself as one of the main pillars of the state, in accordance with a tradition of patrimonial origin. This situation has always taken place in Recep Peker's understanding of state and management⁴. For example, the following statement clearly reveals this situation: “He was a sincere reformer... He believed and was committed.” As he said, he was at the forefront with his honesty and loyalty to his country (Özkay, 2020: 149).

In addition, this situation made the General Secretariat of the Republican People's Party a directly executive ministry and a supra-ministerial institution during the years that Recep Peker served (Çevik, 2014). However, it is also a fact that Recep Peker's administration and personality make efforts to make the right decisions as much as possible in citizen affairs and demands. This situation has also been effective in increasing the trust and loyalty of the citizens to the state (Çevik, 2014).

What is corporatism?

In the case of modern economic systems, only two basic approaches are assumed: capitalist (or 'market') and socialist (or 'command') economies—I partially agree with this definition. However, the economic institutions and policies of the states in which social democratic parties are in power are considered different. The important thing here is to know that social democratic economies, which are not just a mixture of state planning and market capitalism, actually work according to their own economic logic (Milner, 1978). It is a serious theoretical debate how such a revised model could be implemented, adding to a microeconomic dimension. That is, the definition of corporatism as the result of a “social partnership” between different groups whose policies are coordinated by the government is a serious claim. The importance of this corporatist approach, based on the existence of a contract, is that it also includes an analysis of the appropriate micro-level incentive mechanisms within the partnership framework.

In addition, as in most Turkish sources (and unfortunately always the same repetition), the claim that corporatism was an approach which was discussed in politics after the First World War and, is definitely “incomplete” and in a way somehow a wrong approach. The concept of corporatism is much older and is based on the Catholic Social Thought approach (Brunell, 2019). In this context, the concept of “corporatism” was first mentioned by Pope Pontiff Leo XIII in 1891 in the *Rerum Novarum* letter containing Catholic business associations (Sitnikov, 2013). In addition, the concept of corporatism is the concept put forward by Adam Müller to support the egalitarian approach of the French Revolution and as a remedy to the risks that Adam Smith's *laissez-faire* economic approach ignores. Moreover, this approach is a clear effort for the leaders to reduce this power of the feudalist and aristocratic state, the concessional practices of the rich and the power and unlimited capitalism in Germany. The corporatist theory regards workers and employers as organs of political representation. This segment - the party - is also an approach that proposes to be organized into industrial and professional formations that largely control the people and activities within their jurisdiction (Britannica, T. Editors of Encyclopaedia, 2014). In addition to this definition, the concept of “corporative state” was used in fascist Italy in I. and II. The claim that it reflects the will of the country's dictator rather than the interests of economic groups is also true on this basis. Because in this period (Fascism period in Italy), industrialists, workers, tradesmen, experts and others were organized in 22 associations or unions as “groups-formations” suitable for their trade, and they were also represented in a state institution called “*Camera dei Fasci*”. In addition, for countries such as Austria and Germany after the Second World War, the cooperation (industry, labor and government) that industry and labor had to work together to

⁴ See also Şavklı, C., & Aydın, T. (2013).

rebuild the war-torn economies can also be evaluated within the framework of corporatism (Sitnikov, 2013).

The basic idea of corporatism, by definition, is that the society and the country's economy are organized into main interest groups (sometimes called companies or groups) and the representatives of these interest groups solve problems through negotiation and joint agreement (Sitnikov, 2013). This system, unlike the competitive market economy, foresees a system that will operate through collective bargaining. The statement that most clearly explains this situation is the statement of the 36th President of the United States of America, Lyndon B. Johnson, which reflects the spirit of corporatism and gathered the parties in conflict: "Let's reason together". In fact, this sentence clearly reveals the basic idea of corporatism.

In addition, corporatism is based on resolving the wage problems through collective bargaining with labor and management, labor and management representatives in the industry (Sitnikov, 2013). As mentioned above, the most important theorist of corporatism is Adam Müller, one of Prince Metternich's advisors. The basis of Adam Müller's views is that the market and private property are acceptable only as long as there are social arrangements.

In short, corporatism is policy making between interest groups and public authority. This policy-making is an institutionalized model of policy-making, based not only on interests, but on cooperation in the "building a values-based"⁵.

Recep Peker and Liberalism-Socialism

Liberalism as an ideology and practical application was the foremost reform movement in Europe in the 19th century. In practice, however, liberalism also varies according to historical conditions in each country. In other words, the aristocracy, industrialization rate and national unification conditions of the countries directly affect liberalism in practice. However, the concept that fundamentally determines the "national character" of liberal development is the element of "religion". For example, liberalism tends to differ in countries of the Roman Catholic faith, such as France, Italy, and Spain. Liberals in these countries tend to stick to the law in practice and act according to the law. Therefore, trying to understand, interpret and use liberalism only as a definition in a country is lame and even wrong. I think, this situation emerges in Recep Peker's use and interpretation of the concept of liberalism. For example, the explanations about liberalism certainly do not include the religious element of the society. In addition, Recep Peker seems to have ignored the approach of setting liberal goals in order to abolish the privileges sparked by the French revolution and modernize the worn-out institutions inherited from the old regime. This is clear in the following statement:

"Liberalism is forbidden". "Liberalism is a very bad and very harmful element" (Akyol, 2016).

The aforementioned statement above is clearly based on incomplete information. But it is also wrong to accuse Recep Peker of being an anti-liberal. Because the personality of the soldier, service to the state and the ideological approach of the party-state, Recep Peker makes the first item at every point. Recep Peker is distant from liberalism, this is obvious. The clear evidence of this is his theoretical contributions to the third CHP congresses in 1931 and the fourth congress in 1936. Likewise, in Recep Peker's understanding of socialism, "being an element belonging to the state" is the main constraint. In this respect,

"If the Marxist socialist idea feeds a nation with a sense of class, divides it piecemeal into the ranks of conflict, makes suggestions that drag one class to work against the other, the producers (producers) will unite among themselves and join hands, and in this way, against the consumers (consumers), it is not obvious but it leads to another kind of class struggle that is actually harmful" (Görücü, 2017).

⁵ On this subject, see Philip Schmitter and Gerhard Lehbruch in particular. Pryor, F. (1988).

This statement and all the explanations above clearly make it clear that neither liberalism nor socialism has a place in Recep Peker's understanding of the state, and that it is an understanding based only on the party -“*the one-party period*”-. Another supporting information at this point is the professional formation and solidarity issue at the Izmir Economics Congress. In the congress, the subject of professional formation and solidarity was supported, but the idea of integration in the state monopoly was supported⁶.

Recep Peker and Corporatism

When Recep Peker and the concept of corporatism are considered together -in this sense- it is seen that Recep Peker's understanding of the state is an interventionist, paternalist state that aims to remove the conflicts within the society and will realize the order “from the top”. In a way, Recep Peker, in a spirit of duty, extends the social harmony he wants to protect the power of his party, beyond employers and workers, to producers and consumers. In line with this approach, the organization of producers among themselves, regardless of left or right ideology, is perceived as an attempt to disrupt the said harmony. In this respect, Recep Peker's understanding of corporatism is the interpretation of the principle of populism, which is also included in the party principles. In my opinion, Recep Peker interpreted the concept of corporatism in his own way in terms of being a tool for “providing the necessary social peace environment” in order to realize the goal of economic development, which came to the fore with the end of the “War of Independence”, as well as national sovereignty and solidarity. In this respect, Recep Peker can say that the approach of corporatism rejects both liberalism and Marxism. Recep Peker's understanding of corporatism perceives it as a structure that allows workers' organizations but turns them into non-separate organs of the state. This also reflects Recep Peker's understanding of statism⁷.

Also, it is wrong to describe Recep Peker as a politician close to Mussolini in Italy and Hitler's regimes in Germany. The extreme point of this is the interpretation that the Kemalist economic view can be fascistic. This approach is controversial.

I think those who argue that the Kemalist economic view can be fascist should explain what the 32nd President of the United States of America, Franklin D. Roosevelt, has initiated, is the New Deal (New Deal), which includes the economic, social and political measures initiated by the United States of America. This model of economic development is important as an example. Despite its many shortcomings, the New Opinion has been called a fascist practice by some people, just as it is in Turkey. The New Vision cannot be characterized as such. The first architect of the New Vision program was former soldier General Hugh Johnson. Hugh Johnson is also the director

⁶ For more information on this, see Zafer Toprak (2017) “The Evolution of Sociology from the Ottoman Empire to the Republic of Turkey: 1908-1945, Discovering the History of Social Sciences-DTCF Science Environment and Beyond”, Editor: Hayriye Erbaş, Sentez Publishing and Distribution Educational Institutions.

⁷ For Recep Peker's understanding of the state on this subject, see, “...We are not going into two currents. Someone will do everything the state, that's what the red ideas say. It does not allow the individual to breathe. We do not accept this. We are against a second thing. And that is this: The private enterprise will do what it wants. In economic enterprises, the State depends on it. Those who say this can be called the red right. This is a deeply liberal idea. The truth is that the State is the greatest constructive force in the country. This is one of the main lines of the Republican People's Party. What will the state do? As it is written in the paragraph recorded in the old and new program, not leaving what they want to private enterprises and not the leftovers, the nation will prosper in a short time and the homeland will be improved in a short time, whenever it wants the state to do whatever work it wants, then the state will do it... The main institution, called the state, can do any work at any time. However, if there is no work left for the private enterprise in that field after the State has done this job, the private enterprise should do other work. The state cannot be registered in this way. There is another point here: should the State control the work of the private enterprise or not? Friends; The private enterprise, which will be left unchecked, takes paths that are not in accordance with national interests, exploits the stratum of the people who are the essence of the homeland with their cartels chained to each other... while private enterprises continue, can the State intervene in this business? Let me tell you frankly, yes, the state can take this into its own hands. But he can't do anything. There is no confiscation in Turkey, friends. No one's property or earnings can be confiscated. Despite these records, it is not true if it is said that (the state should do what cannot be achieved with private enterprises, but not take private enterprises). This is an idea that doesn't fit with the way our program is going. The State risks everything for the public interest” (Uzun, 2010).

of the US military mobilization program under Woodrow Wilson during World War I. Because he managed this practice well, he was given the responsibility of formulating the economy. Like Recep Peker's visit to Italy in 1933, Hugh Johnson studied Mussolini's National Corporatist system in Italy and drew on Italian experience while formulating the New Deal. The National Labor Relations Act, which encourages the unionization of the American workforce, began with this practice. The New Deal economic practice is definitely a corporatist approach, and this approach is certainly not inspired by Keynes, as is commonly believed, so it cannot be based on the Keynesian model of economic development. Likewise, a water project in this period in the USA is based on river development plans carried out by the government of Miguel Primo de Rivera in Spain in the 1920s. Jose Antonio Primo de Rivera, son of Miguel Primo de Rivera, is the founder of Franco's National Syndicalism (Gordon, 2018).

Conclusion

During his time as a statesman, Recep Peker carried out all the applications based on the party. This is very clear. In my opinion, Recep Peker has always approached the three basic concepts of modernization, democracy and ideology/politics, which constitute the purpose of the state understanding of the young republic he is in, with this understanding. In fact, I think that Recep Peker can be taken as a very clear example in order to understand that period and the policies of that period. For example, the modernization (advance goal) of the young republic is westernization. This modernization is based on a universalist understanding. However, the understanding of management, in which Recep Peker can be included as a statesman, is "proselytization". This word is simply "imposition". Based on this understanding, Recep Peker may think that society believes that only pioneers and progressives can take part in the transformation. Already in the young republic it is believed that these progressive tasks can be carried out by the army and bureaucracy. As a statesman, Recep Peker sees himself as a man of duty in practice. In my opinion, the bureaucratic behavior circle of Recep Peker is a "structure" in this respect. This structure is either suitable for the party or not suitable for the party, it can be called the we know you don't know structure (this point of view belongs to me and is open to criticism). Recep Peker's discussion with İsmet İnönü about "democracy" regarding the point he has reached in this understanding, and İsmet İnönü's statements against the statement that democracy is a must for Turkey:

*"Democracy is the order of industry and therefore of urban society. "You are a peasant like stone". Don't forget the Progressive and Free Republic factions experience. What if an environment like democracy without a class base emerges now? The first thing the villagers will do will be to curse the President and the mother of all of us. Let's give up this love while the road is nearby. Accepting the obligation to be an industrial society? Let's set up the industry first. Let the classes be created. Let's train them. Then, even if we don't want it, the people will move to democracy."*⁸

This understanding of Recep Peker also reveals the thought that shaping the politics of that period depending on the demands of the society may cause problems. However, this situation should not be perceived as the backwardness of political institutions, but there were also problems in reaching the appropriate structure for Westernization.

He saw the statist practice of Recep Peker as a policy with continuity. Therefore, the "measurement of the investment" that the state will make in the field of economy is the public interest. Recep Peker's use of this concept is quite original and remarkable. In Recep Peker's statist practice, it is based on the understanding that if there is a public interest, the state should also replace the private sector.⁹ While evaluating Recep Peker's understanding of the state, the

⁸ <https://cloppe.com/post/9717/mehmet-recep-peker> (Access: 01.02.2020).

⁹ On this, see Janset Özen Aytumur (2010) Early Periods of Management Thought in Turkey Sümerbank (1930-1945). Libra Book and First Five-Year Industry Plan.

conditions of the society, the cultural structure and the level of settlement of democracy should definitely be taken into account.

In conclusion, *Revolution Lessons*, written by Recep Peker and forming the starting point of this study, is an important study for the understanding of Kemalism. It is also an important source that shows how the change in the understanding of the first generation of administration of the Young Turk Republic happened. Recep Peker can be considered as a different manager of bureaucratic centralism, mass determination policy and ideological state administration. However, the technical knowledge required for the needs and management of the states, which is the source of superiority in the management of bureaucrats, is different in Recep Peker. Even though Recep Peker's bureaucracy and bureaucratic behavior means loyalty to the state and heavily organized for the society, it has assumed a quality that considers them only as organs of the system. This point should not be ignored in the formation of the counter-opinion block and criticism against Recep Peker.

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European Turkish Diaspora: Assimilation Or Integration?

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Introduction

Diaspora is a term used to refer to people whose roots are in a different region and who break away from that region and live in other geographies as a dispersed population (Şengöz, 2022). Etymologically formed by the combination of the Greek words "dia- as a result of" and "speiro-dispersion", this term was used in Ancient Greece to describe people who left their homeland. Today, the concept of diaspora, consistent with its etymological origin, is used to describe members of the ethnic or national community who maintain their ties with their country despite living in other geographies by leaving their homeland (Ulusoy, 2015; Sipahioğlu Ökten, 2019; Akgün, 2015).

The long-term nomadic lifestyle of the Turks in Central Asia transformed into a settled life in the 8th and 9th centuries. The attitude of respect for different cultures and lifestyles brought by nomadic culture became a state policy with the introduction of Islam. The policy of *istimâlet*, which played a key role in the Ottoman state's policy of conquest, can be shown as evidence of this. As a multicultural society, the Ottoman state successfully managed to keep different minorities together in its geography for many years. The linguistic and religious freedom granted by the Ottoman state to the people living in its territory ensured the smooth existence of different languages and religions in the Ottoman geography for many years. This situation transformed the Ottoman geography into a very complex structure in cultural, linguistic and religious terms, and a social homogeneity could not be achieved. In this period of high cultural and religious interaction, it is known that there were converts to Islam among the minority people living in the Ottoman geography. From time to time, this situation was seen as an assimilation program by Christian state administrators and led to processes of pressure and imposition, especially in the last period of the Ottoman state, regarding the return of Christians who were Islamized (Uzun, 2022). The collapse of the Ottoman state with the devastating effects of World War I and social disintegration increased the importance of the concept of diaspora for European states. The increase in the number of people who have existed in the Ottoman geography for many years in the role of minorities and who have preserved their Christian identity without experiencing a religious transformation and the preservation of this number has had an effect that will direct the steps to be taken by European states. With the collapse of empires, the emergence of the nation-state concept and the political borders drawn, the concept of diaspora has gained a special importance in international politics. The exchange process between Turkey and Greece after the Turkish War of Independence launched for national borders is proof of this. The Greek side's effort to keep the scope and borders of the exchange narrow on the basis of the idea of not leaving Istanbul for good can be evaluated in this context (Bozdağlıoğlu, 2014). In this context, the event that left the last significant impact on the historical infrastructure of the meaning and importance attributed to diasporas can be considered as World War I. The nationalist

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structure emerged by the French revolution significantly shaped the existence policies of the nation states established after World War I. These states, which tried to realize their construction as nation states, tried to develop policies towards their co-religionists in different geographies in the long term. In this period, the foundations of the concept of diaspora were mostly filled with the phenomenon of religion. However, this situation will change and strengthen over time by adding the consciousness of citizenship and nationhood to the diasporas.

When the historical background for the formation of today's modern societies is examined, it is seen that the fully independent states that have survived are mostly states that attach importance to basic citizenship characteristics and the consciousness of being a nation. On the other hand, states that are considered as independent states but make their decisions in the orbit of different states have religious unity in common. Today, it is still possible to talk about the impact of the changing balance of power after World War I and World War II on the power distribution of the union established in the European geography. However, other states outside the EU, which are fully independent, have different characteristics. Among the G8 countries, apart from the member states of the European Union, the United States of America, Japan, Russia and Canada show different characteristics of states and conduct their follow-up of their diasporas in the context of "citizens", despite the fact that they have a religious unity to a large extent. In this respect, it is possible to talk about the importance of the social power created by diasporas today in terms of citizenship rather than religious influence.

The belief in full independence that Turks carry in their roots has caused them to establish different states throughout history. With their belief in gathering around a flag and being one, they have fought for their independence, migrated and established countries throughout history. However, the innovations brought by the modern world have diversified the reasons for migration and moving to other places. The competitive structure that emerged after the industrial revolution did not cause an effect in the Ottoman geography in terms of competitiveness, except among European states. The negative effects of this situation, which would be strengthened by different factors over time, accelerated the collapse process of the Ottoman state. With the newly established Republic of Turkey and the industrial moves led by Atatürk, Turkish society entered a new social structuring process. The social class structure that has existed in Europe for many years has also started to form within the Turkish state. Turkey's potential population and young labor force attracted the attention of European states and this became the reference point for labor migration to Europe. In the 21st century, rising globalization and the fact that people can now reach anywhere in the world has brought along a global migration psychology. The emergence of a new idea that started to migrate for the opportunities and conditions they could not have in their homeland can be evaluated in this context. Starting in 2010, the Arab Spring initiated a major change in the Arab world. The Syrian civil war, the effects of which continued for many years, emerged as a part of this process. The civil war caused a great wave of migration from Syria as a result of its consequences, and Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq, Armenia, especially Turkey, were heavily affected by this situation. The European Union has carefully monitored Turkey's policies towards refugees as a gateway to Europe. As a result, there are over 3.5 million refugees within Turkey's borders today. Similarly, in the aftermath of the Russian-Ukrainian war, the same problem has been valid for European states in the context of refugees. It is also obvious that the Mahsa Amini incident in Iran has produced similar results to a different extent. As a result, as a result of the problems experienced in different geographies in different ways, new diasporas continue to form in different countries. This situation affects the follow-up and policies of countries towards their diasporas.

Turkish Diaspora

Throughout history, Turks have lived in different geographies within the different states they have established. Today, they continue to exist in 7 independent Turkish countries and 15 semi-independent countries. The key country that continues its existence as an independent Turkish state after the Ottoman Empire on Anatolian and European lands and leading the Turkish world is the Republic of Turkey. The Ottoman state faced the danger of losing its independence as a result of the defeat in World War I and the occupations carried out by the allied states, and this process prepared the environment for the establishment of the independent Republic of Turkey with the success of the liberation struggle led by Atatürk. The newly established Republican administration focused on healing the social and economic wounds of Anatolia, which had been struggling with wars for many years. The devastating consequences of World War II in Europe ushered in a new era for European countries. The European Coal and Steel Community, which was formed with the aim of maintaining peace by controlling the raw materials of coal and steel, which are critical for industry, formed the foundations of today's European Union. The developing industrial capacity of the region increased the European states' need for laborers in addition to raw materials and market needs. In this process, the Republic of Turkey attracted attention with its young population and potential labor force. This situation resulted in Turkey making labor agreements with different countries in the 1960s.

Table 1. Information on Countries party to Labor Agreements

Country of Labor Agreement	Date of Signing	Number of Outgoing Workers (until 1975)
Federal Republic of Germany	October 30, 1961	650 thousand people
Republic of Austria	May 15, 1964	40 thousand people
Kingdom of Belgium	July 16, 1964	15 thousand people
Kingdom of the Netherlands	August 19, 1964	25 thousand people
France	April 8, 1965	60 thousand people
Commonwealth of Australia	October 5, 1967	19 thousand people.

Information on the labor agreements signed by the Republic of Turkey in the 1960s and the number of labor migration are shown in Table 1 (Aldoğan, 1978). Following the labor agreement signed with Germany on October 30, 1961, the migration of 650 thousand workers attracted the attention of other European states. As a result of Germany's satisfaction and positive reports, labor agreements were signed with Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, France and Australia. As a result of these labor agreements, over 800 thousand Turkish workers migrated to European countries. As a result of these migrations, the Turkish population in Europe has increased significantly and this number has reached 6.5 million people today with factors such as family reunifications and new births.

The labor force provided by Turkish workers in Europe, especially in Germany and other European countries, has played an important role for the European economy. However, the cultural integration of the Turkish diaspora has become a problem. The members of the diaspora, who were able to meet their basic needs in the first years, have gained the power to raise their economic and social status over the years. In the meantime, the activities of European states towards the Turkish diaspora were carried out under the name of cultural integration, but racist and anti-Islamic attitudes in some regions targeted the Turkish diaspora.

The Republic of Turkey is an important power abroad, especially in European countries, with a total of nearly 10 million diaspora living in different countries or returning home and maintaining their ties (Kara, Yılmaz, 2021). This situation has made it a need for Turkey to regulate diaspora activities, to give them an institutional identity, and to plan associations and civil society organizations (Düzenli, 2022). In this context, the Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities was established on April 6, 2010. The community, which continues its activities with the slogan "Strong Diaspora Strong Turkey", aims to make the Turkish diaspora abroad a united diaspora above different views and opinions. The diaspora policy of the Turkish state is built on the following 3 pillars (YTB, 2022);

- Protecting the belonging of citizens living abroad to their homeland
- Ensuring that citizens living abroad can preserve their mother tongue, culture and identity in their countries of residence,
- Strengthening the social status of Turkish citizens living abroad in their home countries.

Activities to be conducted for the Turkish diaspora are supported by different institutions. Other actors involved in diaspora activities that are not organized under a single roof are as follows (Sağlam, 2020);

- Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- Ministry of Family, Labor and Social Services,
- Ministry of National Education,
- Directorate of Religious Affairs,
- Yunus Emre Foundation and Cultural Centers,
- International Union of Democrats

The main purpose of the Turks sent to Europe in the 1960s was to save money and return home. The Turkish state's plan to increase the foreign currency inflow to the country and to close the foreign trade deficit succeeded as planned. However, the prediction for the Turkish workers, who were thought to have gone temporarily, did not fully come true. Turks who adapted to the countries they went to, got married, and carried their entire lives to the countries they went to through family reunification, settled down in these countries. The main problem brought about by this situation has been the issue of integration and assimilation of the diaspora. European states, who thought that the Turks they took into their countries as a labor force were also planned as a temporary labor migration, were caught unprepared in this regard. Measures against the Turkish diaspora, whose proportion in the total population is increasing day by day, have changed in the direction of assimilation policy from this point on. Turkey, on the other hand, has adopted a defensive policy in this regard, aiming to keep the citizenship ties of the diaspora fresh and weaken the effects of the assimilation policies implemented through institutions that can provide services to the diaspora (Sağlam, 2020).

The attitude of European states towards labor migration arising from labor agreements has changed over time and the criteria for family reunification, residence and work visas have become more stringent. One of the clearest examples of this situation is France's requirement for DNA testing to verify kinship relations in applications for family reunification (Koca, 2021). The requirement for the spouse to speak German at a minimum level and to pass the citizenship exam are among the developments that have emerged in this context. Even if the Turkish side was found to be right as a result of the lawsuit filed for this decision regarding the language proficiency

requirement of the spouse in Germany, it could not make a change in the decisions taken by other European countries to make family reunification more difficult (Acar, 2020).

The rise of the far right in European politics over the years has increased racism, xenophobia and Islamophobia in Europe. Foreigners have become the first potential criminals sought in security and public order problems. The integration process has generally evolved into forced integration and steps that can be considered as assimilation policies have been taken within the scope of integration and harmonization. This situation has led to a negative perception of the countries they live in for Turks trying to maintain their lives as immigrants.

Integration and Assimilation Policies

The integration process, which is considered as a process of adaptation in terms of state policy, can be considered as a relatively new approach in terms of immigration policies. The fact that the assimilation approach, which is considered as the dissolution of newcomers and outsiders within dominant groups, has found reactive responses has facilitated the acceptance of the concept of integration after its emergence. However, this situation has also brought along the problem of the lack of a common definition for the concept of integration. The integrationist approach, which is said to aim to integrate immigrants who come to their countries for various reasons, has also included practices that have shifted towards assimilation from time to time (Sağlam, 2020; Kurubaş, 2006).

The importance of social cohesion and integration in terms of migration policies can be considered normal. However, since no limits or criteria are set for the integration policies implemented, in the long run, the results can be said to have shifted from the integration axis.

The foundations of the integration process in Europe were laid on the path that led to the creation of the European Union after World War II. The expectations of European states in the process of forming a unity, the social, cultural and societal consequences of the union other than its economic results have led to the emergence of different views on the union. In this sense, it has been observed that different church groups, right-wing groups, anti-globalization groups have adopted a skeptical attitude towards the formation of the European Union with regard to the basic citizenship policies to be determined by the union with the ideal of partnership. Although European states have decided to continue their existence as part of the union, they have tried to determine their own national policies towards the process of harmonization and integration.

As a result of the labor agreements made with European states in the 1960s, the Turkish population in Europe exceeded 800,000 people within a period of 15 years. European states, which made plans based on the discourses of multiculturalism and the transience of migration, did not feel the need to take sharp and strict measures towards integration policies. Upon the departure of migrants from the homeland, the main prediction of their own states was that the outgoing workers would return. However, Turks, who became accustomed to family reunions and the opportunities they gained in the countries they lived in and who maintained their connections with their homeland on a seasonal basis, began to settle permanently in the countries they arrived in.

The basic humanitarian needs of Turks in the European countries where they settled as workers were tried to be met in a coordinated manner during the integration process and this process was easier to overcome compared to the problems to be experienced afterwards. However, the problems they experienced in the countries where they settled in terms of communication, misunderstanding and miscommunication due to language problems have brought new problems. The problems experienced by Turkish families during the education process of their children have

negatively affected the school success rates of Turkish students. This situation has caused Turkish students who are distanced from school to experience different problems such as gang involvement and drug addiction. The fact that Turkish families try to preserve the traditional Turkish family structure in the country they live in has made the social adaptation process more difficult than in European states. The fear of being separated from the homeland and their suspicion of change caused Turkish families to experience the socialization process only among themselves.

The economic processes in Europe, the decline in the need for labor, the problems experienced by immigrants in the adaptation process, and the rise of the far right, which has turned religious-racial discrimination into a discourse, have led to a change in the direction of integration in European countries. Although European states claim that their policies towards immigrants are social integration, it can be said that the expected results in the long run are assimilationist. In this direction, this policy, which started to be implemented intensively and carefully on the second and third generation, was predicted to reach its goal in the fourth generation and beyond. However, we can say that the main obstacle to this situation is the realization by the Turkish state that Turkish workers who go to work may have a strategic importance in the countries where they settle permanently and the efforts carried out by the Turkish state to prevent Turkish citizens from breaking away from the motherland. The Turkish diaspora, which today exceeds 6.5 million, the gains achieved in terms of social status, the resolution of the problems experienced in the first years of migration, and the successes achieved by Turkish students who continue their education in working life have deeply affected the integration policies of European states.

The approaches of European states towards the integration process of immigrants could not be established on a certain ground in the 60s when immigration was intense. The biggest impact on this situation can be considered as the European states' failure to accept the permanence of immigrants. This expectation caused European states not to develop integration policies for a long time. Before World War II, the European social structure could be broadly categorized as Catholics, Protestants and secularists. However, with the ongoing migrations, this structure has been dissolved and different social-ethnic groups have emerged. Although the labor force needed in the European geography was first tried to be met from the southern parts of Europe, labor agreements were made with states such as Turkey as a result of increasing needs. In the mid-1970s, Europe decided to stop labor migration, but this was not enough to prevent continued migration to Europe. People from different countries continued to migrate to Europe through family reunification and asylum.

European states, which accepted that immigrants across Europe would permanently stay in their countries, started to develop different policies after this process. The main goal has been to ensure that immigrants can adapt to the European country they live in by preserving their own culture. As a result of the positive atmosphere in the first stages of the integration process, steps were taken to ensure that immigrants could preserve their cultural identity. The practices of the Dutch state to provide mother tongue education in their own language outside of school hours for the children of immigrant families can be evaluated in this step. However, these policies and approaches towards immigrants could not ensure permanence in the long term. Migrants and the accompanying need for housing and housing problems have become a major problem in cities where the migrant population has increased regionally. The economic contraction in the 80s led to an increase in unemployment in European countries, which turned the presence of migrants into a separate problem.

The steps taken by European states towards the permanence of immigrants have prevented the loss of rights of immigrants in certain areas in legal and legislative terms. However, the economic crisis led to the unemployment of migrants working as unskilled labor.

In the 90s, political competition between countries and the effects of the cold war brought along social divisions. The policies of marginalization, which emerged primarily as anti-Soviet and anti-communism, together with the discourses of the supporters of liberal views, led to ideas of religious and racial segregation. The idea that Islam was incompatible with the values represented by European states laid the foundations for the idea of cultural assimilation (Kolbaşı Muyan, 2019).

The realization by European states that the immigrants they accepted into their countries based on labor agreements were permanent led to the development of integration policies. Since the 60s, changing political conditions between countries and social disintegration have replaced integration policies with assimilation policies. Different practices that could be considered within the scope of cultural assimilation were not considered as assimilation policies by European states. On the contrary, care was taken to ensure that the policies implemented towards immigrants were not associated with the discourse of assimilation. On the other hand, the sense of belonging and the connection that immigrants maintain with their homelands have been seen as a problem for the integration process. Accordingly, restrictive measures were taken against family reunification and exams were introduced in different contexts in order to reduce family reunification. The liberal view that religious differences are an obstacle to the integration process has shaped the educational policies implemented for the children of immigrant families.

The multicultural evaluation approach applied by European states towards immigrants is based on human rights and respect for different cultures, beliefs and languages. The alternative approach, however, has been to assimilate immigrants into the dominant culture. When the increasing number of Muslim immigrants started to become prominent in the society with the migration from Turkey, assimilation policies were tried to be implemented under the name of integration. This situation shattered immigrants' trust in the country they lived in and damaged their sense of belonging. This new process, which started mutually, led to a decrease in the respect and love that both sides felt for each other and resulted in migrants turning inward. This is evidenced by the increasing number of non-governmental organizations formed by migrants in European states since the 90s.

Conclusion

Migration mobility, which takes place in different regions for different reasons on a global scale, has brought different problems from the past to the present. This situation has led countries to develop policies for their own countries or for their citizens who started to live in different countries.

This study focuses on the migration from Turkey to different European countries as a result of the labor agreements made with European states in the 60s and the consequences of this situation. The increasing Turkish population in Europe as a result of labor migration has led to the acceptance of the existence of Turks as a diaspora. The main factor that influenced this situation was the European states' understanding that the Turks who came to their countries through the labor agreement started to live as a permanent population. This process can be considered as a period of indecision on the Turkish side and the European states. Over the years, Turks, who have been increasing their number through family reunification, have been subjected to different measures by European states. These measures were primarily designed to make family reunification more difficult. On the other hand, the process of integration of the existing diaspora members who continue their existence in European states in terms of education and culture was planned.

European states have tried to explain many decisions that can be considered as assimilation policies as a process of forced integration. The connection that Turks maintain with their homeland and their belonging to their country is seen as the main obstacle to the integration process may be evidence of this. This attitude that the Turks were exposed to pushed them to form a unity within themselves. In the light of these developments, the state of the Republic of Turkey has been able to embrace the Turkish diaspora within different institutions and organizations. The European Turkish diaspora, which can be considered to have an important role on behalf of Turkish politics, finds a place in the discourses of today's politicians.

With their new lives away from their homeland, language problems, difficult working conditions, minimum housing conditions and the exclusionary attitude they face in the society they live in, Turks who have been in Europe for many years have achieved success in many fields with the socio-economic status they have achieved today. The adaptation process, which is no longer an issue for the 3rd and 4th generation, may also be evidence of a cultural change for the Turkish diaspora. On the other hand, it is clear that the importance of the European Turkish diaspora today will become more strategic in the future and this will lead to new policies for the countries involved. The fact that the new policies will include cultural assimilation for the Turkish side can be considered as the most important threat for the Turkish diaspora.

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The Effects of Economic Integration on the Sustainable Economic Development of Maghreb Countries

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1. Introduction

It is widely recognized that, regional economic integration bringing stability to a region, is a vital aspect for economic growth and development. Economic integration may boost growth by attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) to a region which becomes more stable in economic performance. It creates economies of scale and scope. Producing for a greater integrated market in larger scale is apt to increase the competitiveness of the existing firms. Formerly infeasible infrastructure investments become feasible for the integrated area when it is used by a larger population of citizens and businesses. Diversified resources and abilities of countries may complement each other for producing new products and services.

This study aims to show how the economic growth and development of three Maghreb countries, Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria can achieve stability by using a model which is widely used in finance to measure the stability of an investment portfolio. The degree of stability of course, depends on the scope of diversity these countries display. The model is beneficial in presenting a solid technique for the measurement of stability.

Economic stability creates the right environment for investments leading to job creation and sustainable development. While large swings in economic activity, high inflation, unsustainable debt levels, and volatility in exchange rates and financial markets contribute to unemployment and poverty; certainty and confidence encourage both domestic and foreign investments.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2018: 1) also recommends regional integration for the five countries (Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, and Tunisia) and sees a high potential for successful integration to create economic growth and development. According to the paper, with a common history, culture, and language, but diverse economic realities these countries can achieve macroeconomic stability and broad-based growth.

The African Development Bank Group (AfDB) (2015: 1-30) prepared a regional integration report in 2014, to delineate a strategy for six North African Countries. The report proposes an approach for the region to promote infrastructure development as well as private sector industrial development and trade. However, the political challenges in the region have not allowed the countries to take the necessary initiatives for this cooperation despite a renewed interest in the region.

The importance of this study stems from its aim in showing how the economic growth and development of three Maghreb countries, Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria may achieve stability by using the portfolio diversification model to analyze how variations in one country's growth rate or economic performance may be stabilized when more than one country is taken as a group.

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2. Theoretical background

DARRAT and PENNATHUR (2002: 80) indicate that the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU or UMA) formed in February 1989 that consists of Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Mauritania, and Tunisia aimed to coordinate an economic policy to support free trade and international cooperation and also boost the economic and financial relationships within the union. They intended to accelerate the integration process. The region's economic development requires that the Arab Maghreb countries integrate with the international economy. Due to the difference between the Maghreb countries in terms of their institutional, economic, and financial structures, the economic integration becomes hard. The authors (*ibid*, 2002: 81) evaluate the economic integration between the three Maghreb countries (Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia) by analyzing the cointegration relationship among their GDPs and financial markets. They find that an effective regional unification requires socio-political factors between the Maghreb countries and therefore is the fundamental factor for both economic and financial integration.

North African countries (Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, and Tunisia) established the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) in 1989 with the aim to increase the economic integration themselves (IMF, 2018: 14). The WORLD BANK (2010: 11) indicates that trade may increase due to rising transportation levels and financial sector transactions that are accompanied by continuously developing information technology. Economic integration increases the capacity and confidence of the regional economies thereby raising their levels of competitiveness globally. They investigated the opportunities and possibilities for integration in the Middle East and North Africa. Despite the previous attempts for some kind of economic integration in North Africa, such as the Arab Maghreb Union (Algeria, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, and Tunisia) and the Agadir Agreement (Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, and Tunisia), the involved countries were not able to achieve the intended goals. Since the region has a great potential for integrating its diversified endowments, a regional block could restore growth, create jobs, and increase incomes of member countries (WORLD BANK, 2013: 33).

CHERIGUI *et al.* (2009: 4934) state that the Maghreb countries ought to promote sustainable development that triggers economic, social, political, and environmental development through an affordable and reliable energy strategy. Authors claim that the Maghreb countries need to apply strategies that support sustainable economic development. Hence, planning an energy strategy to trigger sustainability in economic development is of utmost importance since sustainable development requires the management of environmental resources to access reliable and affordable energy. Authors (*ibid*, 2009: 4935) emphasize that the North African Maghreb countries own solar resources besides natural gas and petroleum that may be a good alternative for the next generations. The long-term relationship between the Maghreb countries and the European Union (EU) increased the modernization of the former with the investments that were made to the North African petroleum and natural gas sector by the latter.

Strong institutions and property rights are crucial elements for economic and financial integration and development. Economic growth and development stem from good working institutions (CLARKE (2001: 1097); ACEMOĞLU, JOHNSON, and ROBINSON (2001: 1395); RODRIK, SUBRAMANIAN, and TREBBI (2002: 131); DOLLAR and KRAAY (2003: 133); ACEMOĞLU *et al.* (2003: 51)). Therefore, Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia ought to implement institutional reforms for their financial and economic developments (ADDISON and BALIAMOUNE-LUTZ, 2006: 1029). Implementation of such institutional reforms may become inevitable with a high level of integration (such as a common market or economic union) thus supporting higher growth rates.

GHALI and REZGUI (2007: 15) tried to measure the spillover effects of FDI on the economic growth rates of Tunisia in the 1990's by using two different econometric techniques. Their results show that FDI alone is not sufficient for the firms to develop efficient technologies

and hence, internal factors are also important. One can surmise that the increased number of foreign firms in the country may influence the firm-specific aspects of local firms positively in the long run and thus, enhance economic growth.

RAJAN and ZINGALES (1998: 559), BONFIGLIOLO (2008: 337), BALTAGI, DEMETRIADES, and LAW, (2009: 285), SANDRI (2010: 21), and GEHRINGER (2012: 24) state that financial development or economic integration which triggers trade accelerates Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth. KLEIN and OLIVEI (2008: 32) suggest that the GDP growth rates of countries with liberalized capital accounts are better influenced by financial integration.

3. Methodology

This study uses the portfolio diversification model to show how variations in individual stock prices (here one country's growth rate, or economic performance) can be stabilized when more than one stock (more than one country) is taken as a group. The technique was used by CONROY (1975: 492) to examine the effect of industrial diversification on the stability of a region's economy (employment). In his study, sectors are considered as portfolio investments among which the region's resources are allocated. As the numbers and diversity of sectors increase, instability in aggregate returns to the region would decrease. KURRE and WELLER (1989: 315) carried out an empirical analysis to examine the regional cyclical instability in a US region through an application of the portfolio variance technique.

SIEGEL, JOHNSON, and ALWUNG (1995: 261) considered several measures of economic diversity and stability to establish a functional relationship between diversity and economic performance. They suggested an input-output model that incorporates elements of portfolio theory as the integrating framework for analysis. Comparing regional deviations to national percentages in industrial categories, they concluded that a region should try to emulate the national economic structure.

DISSART (2003: 423) presents a good survey of regional economic diversity, by addressing several issues concerning theoretical foundations of different arguments and measures of economic diversity. After discussing the findings of empirical studies, he concludes that applications of input-output analysis hold the potential for integrative research on economic diversity.

Differing from the above studies, GEYİKDAĞI (2005: 61) uses the portfolio diversification model, by treating individual countries in a region as individual stocks in a portfolio. Since endowments and economic cycles of countries in the group are usually different, e.g., while one country experiences an economic boom, the others may not be that opportune, or face a slowdown. Then, their combined growth rates show greater stability as fluctuations in their individual growth rates are smoothed out. Considering a hypothetical economic integration among four culturally similar Central Asian countries (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan), the author (*ibid*, 2005: 61) showed how the combined growth rates' variances are decreased indicating greater stability.

MARKOWITZ (1952: 77 and 1959: 18) utilized the diversification model to show how an investor can reduce risk by creating a portfolio of assets rather than holding a single asset. A portfolio's variance, e.g., fluctuations in returns, is calculated by:

$$\sigma_p^2 = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i^2 \sigma_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n w_i w_j \sigma_i \sigma_j \quad (1)$$

where w_i and w_j are the weights or proportions of assets i and j , n is the number of assets, σ_i^2 is the variance of security i , and $\sigma_i \sigma_j$ is the covariance between securities i and j .

By using this equation, one can show how a portfolio's variance (variance of an integrated area's growth rate) can get smaller, compared to variances of individual assets (variances of

individual countries) thus, displaying higher stability. Comparing the variances (fluctuations in growth rates) of individual countries with the variance of the integrated area one can approximate the overall fluctuations for the integrated group.

Applying the model to three Maghreb countries, the combined variance becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathit{Var}(T, A, M) = & w_T^2 (\mathit{Var}_T) + w_A^2 (\mathit{Var}_A) + w_M^2 (\mathit{Var}_M) + 2 w_T w_A (\mathit{Cov}_{TA}) \\ & + 2 w_T w_M (\mathit{Cov}_{TM}) + 2 w_A w_M (\mathit{Cov}_{AM}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where w_T, w_A and w_M are respectively the GDPs of Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco as a proportion of the three countries. $\mathit{Var}_T, \mathit{Var}_A,$ and Var_M are the variances of the growth rates of Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco, respectively. $\mathit{Cov}_{TA}, \mathit{Cov}_{TM},$ and Cov_{AM} denote the covariances between Tunisia and Algeria’s growth rates, Tunisia and Morocco’s growth rates, and Algeria and Morocco’s growth rates in turn.

A period of 20 years (1999-2018) has been chosen for the study. Because of the Covid-19 epidemic the most recent years have not been included. The GDP growth rates are extracted from the WORLD BANK DATA (2022).

4. Results

The results of the application of the diversification model to the three Maghreb countries show that the countries would provide a great stability when they form an integrated area. The combined variance of the GDP growth rate of the countries, 1.0582, is much smaller than the variances of the growth rates of Tunisia (4.2102), Algeria (2.2725) and Morocco (3.2106) when taken separately, thus showing a great potential stability (Table 1).

	Tunisia	Algeria	Morocco
Average	3.39	3.73	3.56
Variance	4.21	2.75	3.21
Covar(T,A)	= 0.3693		$\rho_{TA} = 0.1077$
Covar(T,M)	= 0.1357		$\rho_{TM} = 0.1989$
Covar(A,M)	= -0.5399		$\rho_{AM} = -0.0833$
Variance(T,A,M)	= 1.0582		

Source: Calculated by the author.

Although geographically close, these countries are economically diverse. Their diverse activities would complement each other should they integrate. Algeria is rich in oil and natural gas which constitutes 30% of its GDP. Its dependence on hydrocarbons (95% of its exports) makes the country vulnerable when prices fall suddenly and for a long time. The government gets 60% of the budget revenues from this sector. Thus, diversifying the economic activities bears great importance.

Morocco’s key economic sectors are made up of agriculture (mainly citrus fruit, tomatoes, barley, and sugar beet production), tourism, phosphates (fertilizers and phosphoric acid), textiles and automotive. Recent improvements in industrial infrastructure, ports and transportation facilities, a new free trade zone near Tangier is increasing the country’s competitiveness for investments. Its dependence on agricultural exports increases its vulnerability when external demand falls, and production fluctuates subject to climatic conditions.

The smallest of the three is the economy of Tunisia which is a producer of agricultural products (wheat, barley, milk, olives, dates, and a variety of vegetables) and related food and beverages industries. In addition to tourism, it has developed a respectable mining (phosphate and iron), textiles and footwear industries. It exports insulated wiring and electrical components.

The dissimilarity of the GDP growth of the three Maghreb economies is reflected by the correlation coefficients. While the correlation coefficient between Tunisia and Algeria is 0.1077, it remains 0.1989 for Tunisia and Morocco, and -0.0833 for Algeria and Morocco. The low coefficients show that the growth rates of the 3 Maghreb economies do not follow the same pattern. This can be explained by the diversity of their products and exports. When oil prices remain low for a while, hampering the revenues of Algeria, food exports may boost the economies of the other two countries. The impact of such fluctuations in prices or in production conditions would decrease if the economies were to be integrated.

Figure 1 (WORLD BANK, 2022) shows the GDP levels of Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria stated in current US dollars for the period between 1960-2021. Morocco’s GDP which was 2.04 billion USD in 1960 increased to 132.73 billion USD in 2021. Algeria’s GDP was 2.72 billion USD in 1960 increased to 167.98 billion USD in 2021. Tunisia’s GDP was 991.05 million USD in 1965 had risen to 46.84 billion USD in 2021.

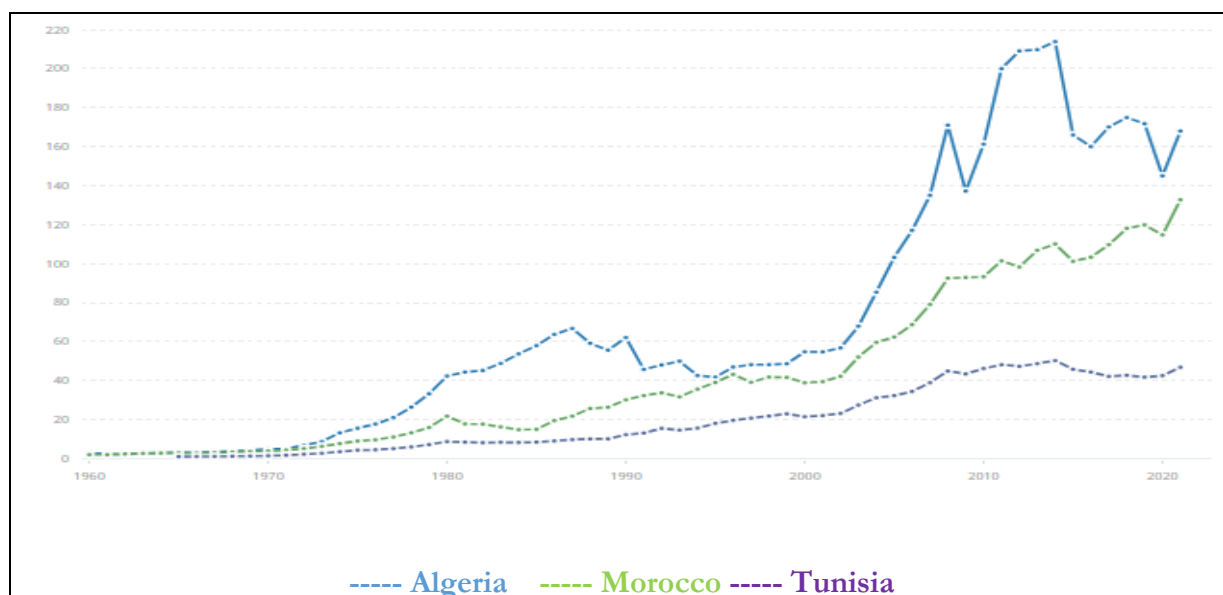


Figure 1 – GDP (current USD) of the Three Maghreb Countries between 1960-2021

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators Data, 2022. Prepared by the author.

Economic integration and cooperation that was promoted with the establishment of AMU in 1989 led to an increase in all of these countries’ GDPs. The graph depicts that Algeria has progressed much more when compared to Morocco and Tunisia that have also become better off when the 1960 and 2021 period is taken into account. Although Tunisia’s GDP increased during this period, it has slightly diverged from Algeria and Morocco. Algeria’s GDP has sharply increased after 2002. Even after taking the fluctuations that have been experienced in the Algerian economy into account the increase in the GDP of Algeria still remains remarkable. The graph plots the increase in the GDP of Morocco which has followed Algeria’s footsteps and is therefore converging towards Algeria in order to catch it up.

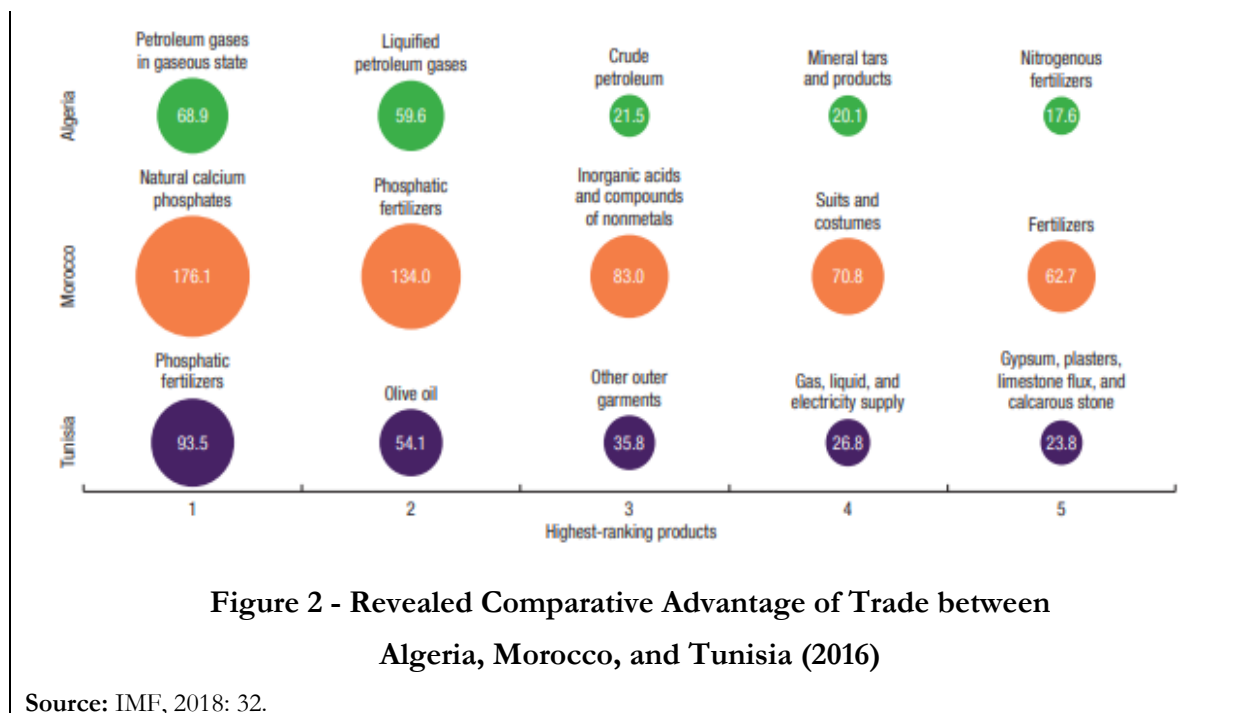
Table 2 - Maghreb Region: Selected Economic Indicators

	Unit	Year	Algeria	Libya	Mauritania	Morocco	Tunisia	Maghreb Region
Region								
Area	Million sq. km.	2017	2.4	1.8	1.0	0.4	0.2	5.8
Population	Million	2017	41.5	6.4	3.9	34.9	11.3	98.1
Unemployment	Percent	Latest	10.4	18.7	22.8	10.6	16.0	11.7
Youth unemployment	Percent	Latest	24.9	45.2	16.7	29.3	36.8	25.2
Poverty	Percent	Latest	22.1	...	8.4	...
Gini inequality	Index	Latest	32.4	...	35.8	...
Economy								
Nominal GDP	\$ billion	2017	175.5	33.3	5.0	110.7	39.9	364.4
GDP per capita	\$	2017	4,292	4,859	1,318	3,151	3,496	3,714
Real growth	Percent	2013–17	3.1	-7.9	3.5	3.4	1.7	2.4
GDP per capita growth	Percent	2013–17	1.0	-8.5	1.1	2.3	0.4	0.7
Inflation	Percent	2013–17	4.6	15.0	2.4	1.3	4.8	5.6
Fiscal deficit	Percent of GDP	2013–17	-7.9	-70.2	-1.9	-4.3	-5.6	-7.4
Current account	Percent of GDP	2013–17	-10.0	-30.3	-19.6	-4.8	-8.8	-9.1
Public debt	Percent of GDP	2013–17	12.5	n.a.	85.2	63.3	57.6	23.3
Exports	Percent of GDP	2013–17	25.5	n.a.	38.7	32.6	43.2	30.2
Policies								
Doing Business	Rank (1–190)	2018	166	185	150	69	88	n.a.
Institutions (WEF)	Rank 1–7 (best)	2017	3.6	...	2.9	4.2	3.8	n.a.
Number of IMF arrangements	Since membership	2018	4	...	15	19	10	48
Current IMF arrangement		2018	None	None	ECF	PLL	EFF	n.a.

Source: IMF, 2018: 11.

Table 2 (IMF, 2018: 11) presents the selected economic indicators of the Maghreb Region. The reflected indicators for the three Maghreb countries namely, Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia support our explanation for Figure1.

Figure 2 shows the revealed comparative advantage of trading with each other for Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia in 2016. The figure reflects that while Algeria's comparative advantage stems mainly from *petroleum gases in gaseous state*; the comparative advantages of Morocco and Tunisia originate from *natural calcium phosphates* and *phosphatic fertilizers* respectively (IMF, 2018: 32).



5. Conclusion

The diversification model used in this paper is simply a measurement of the stability that countries may benefit from when they create an integrated market. The benefits of an integration (customs union, common market or economic union), of course depend on the willingness of these countries on the degree of integration, and the efficiency of the institutions which they create on the way. The model here, just shows the potential smoothing effects in the economic growth of the countries where all kinds of investors look for stability and security.

It seems that the Maghreb countries are willing to cooperate and create an integrated market. Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Libya and Mauritania established the Arab Maghreb Union in 1989 for the purpose of creating a common market by 2000. They were not able to achieve the intended goals mostly for political reasons. While Algeria and Tunisia underwent some political turmoil during the last two decades, Morocco had to deal with problems in Western Sahara with the Polisario Front. Should they overcome these problems, they would hopefully put their energy in increasing the welfare of their citizens. Even Libya, with a possible end to the civil war that started in 2011, could join this combined market.

As one can see from the results of the analysis carried out in this paper, the Maghreb countries have diversified economic sectors that have the potential to create important diversification benefits for the region. The creation of a stable economic environment would not only attract foreign investors to the region but also give confidence to local investors, thereby giving new impetus for sustainable economic development.

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Exploring Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs: A Quantitative Study

Emrah ŞAVRAN¹

1. Introduction

Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (1977) as individuals' beliefs in their own "capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Self-efficacy is generally handled in the context of Attribution Theory (Kelley, 1967) and Social Learning Theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977). According to Attribution Theory, learners attribute their failure or success to internal factors such as ability and effort or to external factors such as perceived difficulty of a task and luck (Kelly and Michela, 1980; Tavakoli, 2013). On the other hand, Social Learning Theory, which was then extended to Social Cognitive Theory by Bandura (1989), suggests that certain processes mediate between stimuli and responses and that man learns from his environment by means of observational learning.

It is asserted by Bandura and Walters (1977) that people generally learn how to perform new behaviours by observing and modelling others. According to Bandura (2010), moreover, human behaviour is regulated by self-efficacy beliefs through cognitive, emotional, motivational, and selection processes. Following Bandura's (1997) construct of self-efficacy, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) defines teacher self-efficacy as "individual teachers' beliefs in their own abilities to plan, organize, and carry out activities required to attain given educational goals" (p. 612). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), in a similar vein, describe teacher efficacy as teachers' perceptions of their own abilities to produce intended learning outcomes and student engagement, despite students' lack of motivation or necessary learning abilities.

2. Literature Review

Investigating how contextual differences may affect the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), Moradkhani and Haghi (2017) concluded that teachers working in private institutes feel much more efficacious than their counterparts working in public schools. The researchers explained this difference with frequency and variety of exposure to the sources of teacher self-efficacy, the most powerful of which was verbal persuasion (ibid.). Likewise, Phan and Locke (2015) looked into Vietnamese EFL teachers' self-efficacy and determined four sources affecting their perceptions of self-efficacy, the most influential of which was social persuasion. Faez and Valeo (2012), on the other hand, found out that novice EFL teachers' self-efficacy depends on the instructional tasks they undertake and the teaching situations they are faced with and that teaching experiences gained from the practicum courses are highly influential in forming their self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, adopting a mixed-methods research design, Choi and Lee (2017) concluded that in-service EFL teachers' overall self-efficacy beliefs are significantly associated with their use of teaching practices that are student-centred and L2 interaction-focused.

Although teacher self-efficacy is generally associated with in-service EFL teachers, pre-service EFL teachers are also investigated for their self-efficacy beliefs. For example, following a mixed methodology, Kissau and Algozzine (2015) conducted a three-way comparison of instructional delivery modes (online, F2F, hybrid) to see how they affect pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy. In the end, the researchers demonstrated that hybridized instruction is the most influential in that

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it raises the self-efficacy levels of pre-service teachers by removing the limitations of online and F2F instruction (ibid.). Berg and Smith (2018) also examined pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs immediately before and after the final practicum and reported that the participants' self-efficacy beliefs increased after the final practicum.

One of the leading Turkish scholars studying pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy in Turkish context, Merç (2015) investigated the relationship between Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' language teaching anxiety and their teaching self-efficacy beliefs. The researcher came to the conclusion that pre-service EFL teachers experience a low level of anxiety and a high level of self-efficacy, and there are certain negative correlations between the components of the two constructs (ibid.). Similarly, Topkaya and Yavuz (2011) examined the democratic values of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in relation to their self-efficacy perceptions and found strong positive correlations between them. Moreover, Koçoğlu (2011) looked at the relationship between emotional intelligence (EQ) and teaching self-efficacy in a group of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers, finding strong positive correlations between the pre-service teachers' EQ and their self-efficacy beliefs. Egel (2009), furthermore, investigated whether Turkish pre-service EFL teachers feel themselves proficient enough to start the teaching profession by looking at how their mentors and participating classroom teachers affect their self-efficacy. Similarly, the present study also investigates Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy based on their beliefs about their own capacities for classroom management, learner management, classroom instruction, and professional growth.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Questions

The rationale behind this study is that most of the studies of teacher self-efficacy in Turkish context have been conducted with in-service EFL teachers, and those conducted with pre-service EFL teachers included only the students of English language teaching (ELT) departments. However, it is a well-known fact that if they complete pedagogical formation certificate programs, the graduates of English Language and Literature (ELL) departments can also work as EFL teachers in state and private schools in Turkey. Hence, investigating the self-efficacy beliefs of these pre-service English teachers is also deemed necessary by the researcher. In this respect, the current study, which is conducted with prospective EFL teachers studying in ELT and ELL departments, seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the self-efficacy beliefs of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers?
2. Do such variables as gender, age and department significantly affect Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs?

3.2. Participants and Setting

Table 1. Participants' Characteristics

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	120	71,00
	Male	49	29,00
	Total	169	100,0
Age	20-25	138	81,6
	26-30	31	18,4
	Total	169	100,0
Department	ELT	87	51,5
	ELL	82	48,5
	Total	169	100,0

As seen in Table 1, a total of 169 student teachers participated in the present study. 120 (71,00%) of them were female, while 49 (29,00%) were male. It is also seen in the table that 138

(81,6%) participants were between the ages of 20-25, and 31 (18,4%) were over 26 years old. The table also shows that 87 participants (51,5%) were studying in ELT departments, whereas 82 (48,5%) were studying in ELL departments at the time of data collection.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

The present study has a purely quantitative research design, as the research data were collected only with the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ), which was developed by El-Okda and Al-Humaidi (2003). The instrument, a 5-point Likert-type scale with 30 items in four categories (classroom management, learner management, classroom instruction, and professional growth), was turned into a Google Form and shared with final-year students at the very end of their undergraduate education. In line with this purpose, 236 students studying in ELT and ELL departments of three different Turkish universities were reached electronically at the end of the 2021-2022 academic year. At the beginning of the online questionnaire, the respondents were asked whether they had completed a pedagogical formation certificate program, and only those who marked "yes" were allowed to go on with the items. In this way, it was ensured that only prospective English teachers participated in the study. In the end, a total of 169 forms were returned from the 236 student teachers, who were reached via e-mails and WhatsApp groups, and analysed using SPSS IBM Statistics Software 23.0.

4. Research Findings

Descriptive statistics were calculated to answer the first research question regarding teacher self-efficacy levels of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers. Mean scores of classroom management self-efficacy, learner-management self-efficacy, classroom instruction self-efficacy, professional growth self-efficacy and overall self-efficacy are tabulated below.

Table 2. Self-Efficacy Levels of Turkish Pre-service EFL Teachers

Category	N	Mean	SD
Classroom Management		3,53	,769
Learner Management		3,44	,819
Classroom Instruction	169	3,52	,804
Professional Growth		3,71	1,070
Overall		3,55	,797

As seen in Table 2, Turkish pre-service EFL teachers have a relatively high level of overall teacher self-efficacy (M=3.55). As for the sub-categories of the questionnaire, the highest level of teacher-self efficacy was related to professional growth (M=3.71), followed by classroom management (M=3.53), classroom instruction (M=3.52), and learner management (M=3.44).

Furthermore, a series of independent samples t-tests were conducted in order to answer the second research question, which is about the effect of gender, age and department on Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Below are the findings about the effect of gender on their self-efficacy beliefs.

Table 3. Gender Differences

Category	N		Mean		SD		t	df	Sig. (2-Tailed)
	F	M	F	M	F	M			
Classroom Management			3,45	3,74	,740	,808	-2,257	167	,025*
Learner Management			3,48	3,33	,843	,754	1,023	167	,308
Classroom Instruction	120	49	3,51	3,55	,777	,873	-,272	167	,786
Professional Growth			3,66	3,83	1,043	1,135	-,955	167	,341

Overall 3,52 3,61 ,781 ,838 -,664 167 ,508

As seen in Table 3, a statistically significant difference was found between female ($M=3,45$, $SD=.740$) and male ($M=3,74$, $SD=.808$) pre-service EFL teachers in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management ($t(167) = -2.257$, $p < .05$). In other words, male student teachers were seen to have a higher level of classroom management self-efficacy than female student teachers. However, the findings indicated non-significant differences between female and male students regarding their self-efficacy beliefs about learner management ($t(167) = 1.023$, $p = .308$), classroom instruction ($t(167) = -.272$, $p = .786$), professional growth ($t(167) = -.955$, $p = .341$) and overall self-efficacy ($t(167) = -.664$, $p = .508$).

An independent samples t-test was again conducted to see the effect of the participants' age on their self-efficacy beliefs. The results obtained are tabulated and analysed below.

Table 4. Age Differences

Category	N		Mean		SD		t	df	Sig. (2-Tailed)
	21-25	26-30	21-25	26-30	21-25	26-30			
Classroom Management			3,57	2,87	,757	,689	167	2,878	,005*
Learner Management			3,47	2,84	,806	,826	167	2,404	,017*
Classroom Instruction	138	31	3,54	3,16	,805	,723	167	1,473	,143
Professional Growth			3,74	3,20	1,074	,904	167	1,556	,122
Overall			3,58	3,02	,788	,785	167	2,205	,029*

Table 4, which is presented above, shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the student teachers who are between 21 and 25 years old ($M=3,57$, $SD=.757$) and those between 26 and 30 years old ($M=2,87$, $SD=.689$) in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management ($t(167) = 2.878$, $p < .01$), which indicates that the younger pre-service EFL teachers feel more efficacious than the older ones in terms of classroom management. It is also seen in the table that there is a statistically significant difference between the students who are in the 21-25 age group ($M=3,47$, $SD=.806$) and those who are in the 26-30 age range ($M=2,84$, $SD=.826$) with regard to their self-efficacy beliefs about learner management ($t(167) = 2.404$, $p < .05$). This also reveals that the younger student teachers perceive themselves to be more efficacious in terms of learner management than their older counterparts. In addition, a statistically significant difference was discovered between the students aged 21 to 25 ($M=3,58$, $SD=.788$) and those aged 26 to 30 ($M=3,02$, $SD=.785$) in terms of overall self-efficacy ($t(167) = 2.205$, $p < .05$), which indicates that the students below 26 years old have a higher level of overall self-efficacy than their older counterparts. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs about classroom instruction ($t(167) = 1.473$, $p = .143$) and professional growth ($t(67) = 1.556$, $p = .122$).

Another independent samples t-test was carried out to see the effect of the participants' departments on their self-efficacy beliefs. Below are the findings and their analyses.

Table 5. Department Differences

Category	N		Mean		SD		t	df	Sig. (2-Tailed)
	ELT	ELL	ELT	ELL	ELT	ELL			
Classroom Management			4,03	3,00	,326	,748	11,515	109,377	,000*
Learner Management			3,81	3,04	,591	,843	6,838	144,324	,000*
Classroom Instruction	87	82	4,00	3,02	,436	,796	9,883	123,947	,000*
Professional Growth			4,31	3,07	,465	1,159	9,029	105,199	,000*
Overall			4,04	3,03	,357	,808	10,367	109,955	,000*

As seen in Table 5, the results of an independent samples t-test indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the pre-service EFL teachers studying in ELT departments ($M=4.03$, $SD=.326$) and those studying in ELL departments ($M=3.00$, $SD=.748$) in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management ($t(1309.377)= 15.515$, $p<.001$). It was also found out that there is a statistically significant difference between ELT students ($M=3.81$, $SD=.591$) and ELL students ($M=3.04$, $SD=.843$) with regard to their self-efficacy beliefs about learner management ($t(144.324)= 6.838$, $p<.001$). A statistically significant difference was also found between ELT seniors ($M=4.00$, $SD=.436$) and ELL seniors ($M=3.02$, $SD=.796$) regarding their self-efficacy beliefs about classroom instruction ($t(123.947)= 9.883$, $p<.001$). Moreover, a statistically significant difference was discovered between ELT students ($M=4.31$, $SD=.465$) and ELL students ($M=3.07$, $SD=1.159$) in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs about professional growth ($t(105.199)= 9.029$, $p<.001$). Lastly, it is also seen that there is a statistically significant difference between ELT seniors ($M=4.04$, $SD=.357$) and ELL seniors ($M=3.03$, $SD=.808$) regarding their overall self-efficacy ($t(109.955)= 10.367$, $p<.001$). All in all, it is clear from the results of this study that the pre-service EFL teachers studying in ELT departments have far higher levels of self-efficacy than those studying in ELL departments in terms of classroom management, learner management, classroom instruction, professional growth and also overall self-efficacy.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The objective of this study was to determine the self-efficacy levels of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers and to find out whether they are affected by such variables as gender, age and department. The research findings have some practical implications for student teachers, teacher trainers, teacher education programs and related bodies. First of all, student teachers need to be aware of the challenges to be posed by their prospective profession. Only then can they develop the skills needed to overcome these challenges. Through relevant methodology and practicum courses, teacher trainers working in universities' teacher training programs should help student teachers learn more about their teaching profession and develop necessary skills needed to practice it effectively.

The findings of the current study related to the categories of the questionnaire employed to gather research data carry further implications for the teacher training process. For example, male student teachers were found to have a higher level of self-efficacy related to classroom management compared to female students, which is consistent with the findings from previous studies conducted with pre-service teachers studying in different departments of educational faculties (Morgil, Seçken & Yücel, 2004; Demirtaş, Cömert & Özer, 2011). This is also supported by the results of the previous studies conducted with the participants of pedagogical formation certificate programs, in one of which Kavrayıcı and Bayrak (2016) found out that male pre-service teachers perceive themselves as more efficacious in terms of classroom management and instructional strategies sub-dimensions. Male pre-service teachers' higher levels of self-efficacy could result from the gender stereotypes prevalent in Turkish culture. This must be taken into consideration while

developing teacher training programs. Moreover, younger EFL teacher candidates who participated in the present study saw themselves as more efficacious than their older counterparts in terms of classroom management and learner management. This finding contradicts the general assumption that older, i.e., more experienced teachers are more proficient than younger ones in many respects, including classroom management and learner management.

More importantly, as stated earlier, the ELL seniors who participated in this study had taken the same courses as those offered in Teacher Education Undergraduate Programs, including teaching practicum courses, through pedagogical formation certificate programs. Even so, it was found out that the pre-service EFL teachers studying in ELT departments had much higher levels of teacher self-efficacy than those studying in ELL departments, which holds significant implications about the pedagogical formation certificate programs offered by Turkish universities.

Student teachers in ELT departments are given pedagogical content knowledge during their 4-year undergraduate education. In contrast, those studying in ELL departments are provided with such knowledge in pedagogical formation certificate programs that generally last for only one academic year. In other words, the latter group is provided with theoretical and practical pedagogical knowledge in just two terms. This could explain why the pedagogical formation certificate programs available to EFL teacher candidates in ELL departments fail to adequately prepare them for the English language teaching profession.

All in all, although certain problems still persist in ELT departments of Turkish universities, as stated by Öztürk and Aydın (2019) and Staub and Kirkgöz (2019), the current study demonstrates that when compared to ELT departments, pedagogical formation certificate programs are less effective in training EFL teachers, so they should be revised in terms of their contents and duration. One suggestion could be that these programs should start in the first year of undergraduate education, and professional teaching knowledge should be provided to prospective EFL teachers in the form of elective courses.

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Turkey's Military Intervention to the East of The Euphrates River in Northern Syria and the Legal Status in Terms of Human Rights

FATİH ULAŞAN¹

Introduction

Between December 2010 and March 2011, a local Tunisian protest against a dictator spread to Egypt and later to Libya, Yemen, Bahrain and Syria, and spread to many other countries to a lesser extent (Lynch, 2012). The protests contained a noteworthy number of commonalities in slogans, timing and methods. Yemeni protesters, for example, quickly adopted Egyptian slogans or were emboldened by the advance of the Libyan opposition. This Arab uprising is an important precedent for theories of the international diffusion of protest movements and regime changes. In the early days, the Syrian uprising tried to take over public places in a peaceful way, presenting a non-sectarian, non-Islamist and civilian face. Presumably, many people expected the Bashar al-Assad regime to surrender to a fate similar to that of Hosni Mubarak and Zine al-Abidine Ben Ali. While the conflicts in Syria have evolved into a mixture of protest and civil war, Syria has become a much more polarizing situation with its sectarian identity rather than its Pan-Arab identity (Lynch, Freelonve and Aday, 2014:1). The brutality of the Syrian Civil War and the constant loss of territory by the government to the opposition militias contributed to the formation of the movement called the "Islamic State of Iraq-Sham" in April 2013, when the "Islamic State" (Daesh) in Iraq united with al-Qaeda elements in Syria. In addition, the Democratic Union Party (PYD)/ the People's Defense Units (YPG)- (The Kurdistan Workers' Party) PKK and Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS), taking advantage of the lack of the authority in Syria, have been deployed to the Turkish border and have carried out acts of terrorism and violent extremism against their opponents and Turkey. Consequently, the intervention has become a necessity for Turkey to protect its borders. This study will proceed within the framework of the Operation Peace Spring, which Turkey carried out in Syria to ensure its own security, and its legal basis. The main point of the study is that the Peace Spring Operation was created based on the relevant resolutions of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) and the right of self-defense, and therefore it is in accordance with the international law. The article, which basically consists of two parts, firstly examines the Syrian civil war and its effects of the Syrian civil war on Turkey's security, the role of the PKK-PYD/YPG terrorist organization in this equation, the Olive Branch, Euphrates Shield operations and the Peace Spring Operation. In the second part, the evaluation of the military operation carried out within the scope of international law, the right of self-defense on the basis of the United Nations System and its justification in the light of the UNSC resolutions in a way that can help the application of the theoretical knowledge given in international law.

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1. THE PROCESS LEADING TO TURKEY'S OPERATIONS AND OPERATIONS

The Arab Spring emerged in the form of public demonstrations in Syria in March 2011. However, it quickly turned into an armed conflict and then into a bloody civil war with a fast increase in the civilian casualties. After the civil war that broke out in Syria, the problems arising from the north of Syria began to pose a serious danger to Turkey's border security. The ISIS and the PYD/YPG, which is a branch of PKK, had a presence in Syria and carried out large-scale terrorist acts by attacking Turkey directly while taking control of Syria's regions close to Turkey (Hinnebusch, 2017). Some of the terrorist acts took place in the form of attacks on Turkish outposts from places close to the Turkish border in Syria, and attacks on civilian settlements with mortars, while others occurred in the form of suicide acts planned and carried out by these terrorist organizations (Yeni Şafak Haber Merkezi, 2019). Undoubtedly, Turkey has suffered deep wounds both materially and morally from the Syrian civil war and the Syrian civil war has seriously disturbed Turkey. For example, the care and employment of Syrian citizens fleeing from the war has created a big burden to Turkey, terrorists disguised as Syrian citizens have carried out terrorist attacks in Turkey, these attacks have caused the death of many Turkish citizens and these attacks created uneasiness among Turkish citizens against Syrian citizens.

1.1. The Effects of the Syrian Civil War on Turkey's Security

This process, called the Arab Spring, started in Tunisia in 2009 and spread to Syria in 2011. The Assad regime responded to the public's protests and criticism of the administration harshly. Different groups resisted this harsh intervention and after a while the protests turned into a bloody civil war (Taştekin, 2015: 19-22). Radical groups around Syria have facilitated this civil war by utilizing a fundamental and firm rhetoric against anything which does not fit Sunnism (Abbas, 2011: 8).

Unable to withstand the harsh interventions of the Assad regime, millions of Syrian citizens left their homes behind and took refuge in neighbouring states, and the civil war began to visibly affect the entire region. Terrorist organizations such as Hashd al-Shaabi, PYD/YPG, Nusret Front, DAESH, and others, who took advantage of this confusion, increased their presence in Syria by taking advantage of the lack of the authority. Over time, DAESH has increased its effectiveness in Syria and has become a global threat. Since 2014, it has tried to show its power with various terrorist acts in the world. The attack on the headquarters of the humor magazine Charlie Hebdo in Paris on January 2015 (Tremblay, 2015), the attack on the Gaziantep Police Department on 1 May 2015 using a bombed vehicle (Habertürk, 2015), 2015 Suicide bomb attack in the Suruç district of Şanlıurfa on 20 July (Euronews, 2015), the suicide attack of DAESH terrorist organization on 10 October 2015 at the junction of Ankara Train Station in Ulus district of Ankara, the capital city of Turkey (Anadolu Agency, 2015), 2015 Terrorist attacks on different parts of the city of Paris on 13 November (BBC, 2015), a missile attack on the Bashika Camp near the city of Mosul in the Iraqi state, where the Turkish Armed Forces are located, on 16 December 2015 by the DEASH terrorist organization (Yeşiltaş, Düz, Öncel Ve Öztürk, 2016:24), on 12 January 2016 Sultanahmet (Paksoy, Can and Kaya, 2018) and on 19 March 2016, DEASH terrorist organization committed suicide bombings and terrorist attacks (DW, 2016) carried out in Taksim are enough as examples. In addition to the USA and its Western allies, the situation reached an inextricable extent when Russia started to conduct air operations in Syria on September 30, 2015 and took control over Syria's airspace. On the one hand, Iran, Hezbollah and Russia, on the other hand, the USA and its Western allies and the PYD became effective in Syria. In the meantime, the PYD/YPG terrorist organization, the PKK's extension in Syria, was able to take a few regions on the Turkey-Syria border line in a short time and declared it cantons, by using the chaos environment in Syria, due to its engagement with the Assad administration (Polat, 2020: 60-64).

1.2. The Role of the PKK-PYD/YPG Terrorist Organization

Especially between 2015 and 2017, PKK–PYD/YPG carried out many suicide attacks, especially in Ankara and Istanbul. Some of these are the terrorist acts committed in Merasim Sokak and Güvenpark, which are within the borders of Ankara, the capital city of Turkey, and Beşiktaş, which is located in Istanbul. These suicide bombings, which especially target civilians, show how reckless the terrorist organization is. Today, it has been proven by the judgment of the court that these attacks were carried out by the PKK. To give an example, the terrorist act and the suicide attack that killed twenty-nine of Turkish citizens on Merasim Street in Ankara on 17 February 2016, during the passage of the service vehicles of the military personnel, were carried out by Teyrebazen Azadiya Kurdistan (TAK), which is affiliated with the PKK. The PYD terrorist organization also played a role in the attack. The reasoned decision of the court stated that the suicide bomber was trained in the camps of the PYD/YPG terrorist organization located in the northern part of Syria, took part in organizational activities, and then infiltrated Turkey under the guise of a Syrian refugee. In addition, according to the decision of the 16th Penal Chamber of the Court of Cassation regarding the member of the PYD/YPG organization who was captured in northern Syria and put on trial in Turkey the PYD terrorist organization was a branch of PKK terrorist organization extending to Syria. It also said that the terrorist acts in Merasim Sokak and Güvenpark within the borders of Ankara, the capital city of Turkey, and Beşiktaş district in Istanbul were carried out by the PKK/PYD terrorist organization (Yeni Şafak Haber Merkezi, 2019).

1.3. Olive Branch and Euphrates Shield Operations

Turkey suffered serious wounds from the Syrian civil war, and this process could not be resolved through diplomacy and in cooperation with other actors, despite all Turkey's efforts. The terrorist attacks in Turkey caused the death of many Turkish citizens and Turkey had to launch the Euphrates Shield operation in 2016 for the security of civilians and the border. The operations focussed on Celabrus and Al-Bab in Syria, which lasted for approximately 200 days, had great returns. However, despite these successes, after the threats and attacks against Turkey did not end, and in order to stop the attacks on its own borders and for the safety of people, Turkey launched an operation called as the Olive Branch in the city of Afrin, which is in Syria, in January 2018, and after the successes, on 18 March 2018 it was decided to terminate the operation. In these operations, the safety of civilians was prioritized and the result was that a large region was cleared of terrorists.

1.4. Operation Peace Spring

The continuation of the civil war in Syria and the worsening situation forced Turkey to take action again and Turkey decided to start a new operation in the last months of 2019. On October 9, 2019, President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan said, *“Our aim is to destroy the terror corridor that is tried to be created on our southern border and to bring peace and tranquility to the region. With Operation Peace Spring, we will eliminate the terrorist threat against our country. Thanks to the safe zone, we will ensure the return of Syrian refugees to their countries”* and declared the purpose of the operation (Anadolu Agency, 2019). The USA criticized this operation of Turkey, and against this, Turkey made an important deal with the United States of America on the 17th day of October, consisting of thirteen articles, about the safe zone desired to be made in the northeastern region of Syria (Pamuk, Toksabay ve Gumrukcu, 2019). In this agreement, especially Articles 11 and 12 should be mentioned. Pursuant to Article 11, *“The Turkish side will pause Operation Peace Spring in order to allow the withdrawal of YPG from the safe zone within 120 hours. Operation Peace Spring will be halted upon completion of this withdrawal”* Article 12 states that *“Once Operation Peace Spring is paused, the US agrees not to pursue further imposition of sanctions under the Executive Order of October 14, 2019, Blocking Property and Suspending Entry of Certain Persons*

*Contributing to the Situation in Syria, and will work and consult with Congress, as appropriate, to underline the progress being undertaken to achieve peace and security in Syria, in accordance with UNSCR 2254. Once Operation Peace Spring is halted as per paragraph 11 the current sanctions under the aforementioned Executive Order shall be lifted*² (Yeniçağ, 2019). However, despite the passage of 120 hours, there was no complete withdrawal from the region. In addition, an agreement was signed with Turkey and Russia in this process. In accordance with the agreement, the status quo at a depth of thirty-two kilometers will be maintained in the one hundred kilometer-wide region in Tel-Abyad-Resul-Ayn. In addition, it was agreed on the joint patrols to be carried out by the soldiers of Turkey and Russia in this region, and the necessary measures for a joint struggle against terrorists were emphasized (BBC, 2019; [Regan](#) ve [Britton](#), 2019).

2. LEGAL GROUNDS FOR MILITARY INTERVENTION IN SYRIA'S NORTH REGION TO THE EAST OF THE EUPHRATES RIVER

2.1. Definition and Legal Ground of Cross-Border Military Operation

It is called a cross-border operation when the armed forces of any country expand its fight against terrorist elements to defend its country, including the territory of the neighbouring country. Cross-border military operations can be carried out with land forces, as well as with air and naval forces. Cross-border military operations should be well thought and when they are carried out, every stage of the operation should be carefully planned and personally monitored. The most important reason is the attack on the sovereignty of the state in which the operation is carried out. Therefore, cross-border military operations are a controversial issue in international law as well as in the field of international relations. Cross-border military operations can be more complex, especially given the difficulties often encountered in interventions in opposition-controlled territory. Such transactions raise numerous legal questions, including whose consent is required (Gillard, 2013: 351). The underlying reason for this situation is the lack of a generally accepted legal definition of cross-border military operations, and the fact that the target and the framework are not made within the limits of law (Murphy, 2009).

In addition, it should be noted that there is no regulation in the UN Charter regarding direct cross-border operations. Moreover, in some of the articles in the UN Charter, there is a great inconsistency in the concept of the cross-border operation. For example, UN Charter 2/4 in accordance with the “Non-use of Force principle” says “*all members shall refrain in their international relations 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*” (Charter of the United Nations, 1945: 3). In addition, according to the provisions of Article 33 of the UN Charter, the countries that are the interlocutors of the conflicts that will put the international peace and security at risk, are encouraged to use some methods other than the use of force in order to resolve conflicts (Charter of the United Nations, 1945: 8). However, UN Charter 2/7 emphasizes the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of countries. This principle is based on the fact that a country should stay away from situations that cause an intervention which threatens the territorial integrity and independence of another country (Charter of the United Nations, 1945: 3). However, the UN Charter contains some exceptions. There is the use of force based on Article 51 of the UN Charter and the use of force directly by the decision of the UNSC (Charter of the United Nations, 1945: 10-11). Article 51 of the UN Charter defines self-defense. Pursuant to this article, a UN member state has the right to defend itself in the event of an armed attack. This situation may continue to exist until the measures to be taken by the UNSC. However, the country defending itself has a responsibility to report it to the UNSC. In particular, it should be noted that many cross-border military operations have been carried out so far, according to Article 51 of the UN Charter. In

² <https://trumpwhitehouse.archives.gov/briefings-statements/united-states-turkey-agree-ceasefire-northeast-syria/>

addition, this principle can be interpreted as rigid or flexible depending on the time and situation. For example, after the September 11 attacks, the right of self-defense was interpreted more flexibly by the countries. Also, especially in this period, in Article 51 of the UN Charter, terrorist acts or state supports leading to terrorist attacks are to be considered an 'armed attack' and countries can use force against these organizations within the scope of self-defense. It would be correct to evaluate the Peace Spring Operation, which Turkey successfully carried out, in this context (Acet İnce, 2020: 68-70).

2.2. The United Nations System, the Right to Self-Defense, and the Use of Force by the United Nations Bodies

The measures taken to ensure peace could not prevent the Second World War and countries that were tired and fed up with the Second World War had to change their law (Kaya, 2005: 170). As of September 1939, it was understood that the leading powers of the world agreed and cooperated that serious measures should be taken. As a result, the UN Organization took office on October 24, 1945 (Yılmaz, 2020: 325).

The use of force is prohibited within the framework of the United Nations. However, there are exceptions to every general rule. These are the right of self-defense and the UNSC resolutions. The practices of the countries between 1928-1945 revealed the existence of a customary rule that opposes intervention in countries as an instrument of national policy, with some exceptions. The basic criterion for the use of force is embodied in the 4th paragraph of the above-mentioned Article 2 of the UN Charter. However, there are 4 exceptions to the final provisions that do not permit the use of force (Orallı, 2014:111-117):

1. Article 51 - Use of force in self-defense: The measures taken based on this article should be reported to the UNSC as soon as possible and the measures taken by the UNSC should be followed. Until the UNSC makes a decision on the specified issue, the member states of the UN are free to use their right of self-defense individually or collectively, and they will not need the decision of the Security Council (Keskin, 1998: 44-45). In addition, with the principle of necessity and proportionality of customary international law (Jennings, 1938: 82), the current exceptional situation has been brought as the third restriction which is the right of self-defense can only be applied in case of being exposed to an armed attack. For example, it was accepted that the United States of America had the right to defend itself against the attacks against the World Trade Center and the Pentagon on September 11, 2001.

2. Chapter 7- Use of force with a Security Council resolution: Article 39 of the UN Charter, titled “*Action with respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace, and Acts of Aggression*” of the UN Charter, states that the UNSC makes rules for the purpose of maintaining or re-establishing international peace and security or decides what measures can be taken in accordance with Articles 41 and 42 when the peace is threatened, disrupted or in the event that it is detected that there is an attack, it. For example, in the Korean and Gulf Wars, the UN Security Council decided to use force against countries breaching the peace.

3. Article 106- The use of force by the 5 permanent members in the process before the Security Council

4. Article 107- The use of counterforce against “*enemy*” forces during the Second World War

The right of self-defense and the coercive measures that occurred with the decision of the Security Council are two exceptions that can be used today (Bozkurt, 2017: 32). The first is the unilateral use of force by countries, temporary and exceptional, and lasts until the UNSC intervenes. Secondly, it is possible by the help of the international authority.

2.3. Evaluation of Operation Peace Spring in International Law

The Peace Spring Operation, which is the third of the above-mentioned operations against the terrorist threat to Turkey originating from Syria, should be evaluated from two perspectives, and these evaluations should be in terms of domestic law and international law.

According to the Turkish law, the basic information regarding the Turkish Armed Forces' ability to conduct a military operation in a foreign country is regulated in Article 92 (1982) of the Constitution. According to this article, the action takes place in situations deemed legitimate by international law, and the Grand National Assembly of Turkey must take a decision authorizing the executive power. Two conditions must be met together. Turkey carried out the Operation Peace Spring in this respect, taking the strength from the Turkish Grand National Assembly's decision numbered 1199, which has an emphasis on international law and references to the UNSC resolutions, and the aforementioned decision authorizes the President to deploy the Turkish Armed Forces to Syria.

When approaching the operation in terms of international law, it is possible to understand the main theses on which the Republic of Turkey is based. Turkey sent the letter to the UNSC after the start of the Peace Spring operation and the Ministry of National Defense gave the press release about the operation. Briefly, the mainstays of the Peace Spring operation are Article 51 of the UN Charter (the right of self-defense, which is an exception to the prohibition on the use of force) and the UNSC's commitment to the fight against terrorism in particular 1373 (2001), 1624 (2005), 2170 (2014), 2178 (2014), 2249 (2015) and 2254 (2015) numbered decisions. In addition, it is not clear whether an armed attack must come from a country in order for the right of self-defense to exist under Article 51. The armed attack on Turkey came from non-state actors and Turkey relied on the UNSC resolutions as 1373 (2001) and 1368 (2001) (İnce, 2020: 82-83).

Also, the protection of human rights in national as well as international platforms gained the importance, and discussions on the use of military force for humanitarian intervention outside the framework of the United Nations, as in the case of Kosovo, have come to the fore (Thornberry, 1999). Following the September 11 attacks, in accordance with the decision numbered 1368, adopted on 12 September 2001, the existence of the right of self-defense against terrorist attacks was accepted within the limits accepted by the UN Charter. The decision numbered 1373 referred to the decision numbered 1368 and once again reiterated the right to self-defense. In addition, Syria has lost control over a significant part of the country and one of them is the border with Turkey. This situation clearly showed that Syria is unrequited and unwilling to eliminate the terrorist threat due to its problems with Turkey. For example, after the Suruç attack carried out by DAESH in 2015, Turkey applied to the UNSC and it was stated that the regime was "neither adequate nor willing to prevent these threats originating from Syria that endanger the security of Turkey and its people". In addition, Turkey informed the UNSC after the operation and said that the Adana Agreement signed between Turkey and Syria in 1998 also allowed Turkey to fight against terrorism. With this agreement, the Syrian administration recognized the PKK as a terrorist organization and declared that it would not allow any activity of the PKK on the Syrian territory. It has also given Turkey the authority to conduct cross-border military operations up to a specified depth in Syrian territory. Another important point is that the German Constitutional Court stated decisions similar to Turkey's arguments and said that military interventions against non-state actors-terrorist organizations can be seen within the limits of the right of self-defense. This Court also considered the operations against non-state actors active on the borders of the 3rd state of Article 51 of the UN Charter, within the scope of self-defense, for Germany's contribution to the military operations against DAESH in Syria under the umbrella of the international coalition (Akgün, 2019).

2.4. Operation Peace Spring in Terms of Human Rights

Human rights can be thought as rights that people should have because they are human, without any discrimination, as required by human dignity. This right is for all people and cannot be discriminated against any person. For example, silence against human rights violations, forced migration, harassment and persecution by terrorist organizations in Syria are unacceptable. The Republic of Turkey should not be expected to remain silent to terrorist groups that murder innocent people in Syria and make them a clear threat to Turkey's security. The main aims of the fight against terrorism are to ensure democracy, law and human rights (Bıçak, 2001). Turkey has respected human rights to the maximum extent during its operation, targets have been carefully chosen during the intervention and great efforts have been made to prevent civilian casualties. In addition, humanitarian aid was provided by Turkey to the cleared areas after the operation was over (TRTHABER, 2021). The Syrian research center Hibir has prepared a report on war crimes and human rights violations committed by the terrorist organization YPG/PKK. According to this report, YPG/PKK forced 40 thousand civilians to migrate from Tel Hamis, south of Kamışlı, and the graves of 20 people buried alive in Metiniye village of Kamışlı by the YPG/PKK were found. In 2018, the YPG/PKK forced 313 children to fight for themselves and it was reported that 40 percent of these children were girls under the age of 15. The YPG/PKK started its operations in Syria to September 2019 and 1,157 civilians, including 203 children, were killed by them. While 47 people were killed as a result of the YPG/PKK torture, 2 thousand 907 people, 631 of whom were children, were arbitrarily arrested. 877 people, 52 of them children, disappeared in the areas occupied by YPG/PKK (Hocaoğlu, 2019).

Conclusion

The wave of rebellion, the foundations of which were laid in Tunisia, spread to Egypt and then to Libya, Yemen, Bahrain and Syria, encompassing almost the entire Middle East. Initially, the protests, which were presented as civil and inclusive, eventually gave way to civil wars and violence. For example, in the early days the Syrian uprising presented a civilian, non-sectarian and non-Islamist face and tried to take over public places unarmed. While the conflicts in Syria have evolved into a mixture of protest and civil war, Syria has become a much more polarizing situation with its sectarian identity rather than its Pan-Arab identity. The brutality of the Syrian Civil War and the government's constant loss of territory against opposition militias contributed to the formation of the movement called the "Islamic State of Iraq-Sham" in April 2013, uniting the "Islamic State" in Iraq with the elements of al-Qaeda in Syria. In addition, the PYD/YPG-PKK and ISIS, taking advantage of the lack of the authority in Syria, have deployed to the Turkish border and have also carried out acts of terrorism against their opponents and also in Turkey. Consequently, the intervention has become a necessity for Turkey to protect its borders.

The Peace Spring Operation, which is the third of the operations against the terrorist threat of the Republic of Turkey from Syria, has been evaluated in terms of domestic and international law. According to the Turkish law, the basic information regarding the Turkish Armed Forces' ability to conduct a military operation in a foreign country is regulated in Article 92 (1982) of the Constitution. According to this article, the action takes place in situations deemed legitimate by international law, and the Grand National Assembly of Turkey must take a decision authorizing the executive power. The Republic of Turkey carried out the Operation Peace Spring in this respect, taking the strength from the Turkish Grand National Assembly's decision numbered 1199, which has an emphasis on international law and references to the UNSC resolutions, and the aforementioned decision authorizes the President to deploy the Turkish Armed Forces to Syria. The mainstays of the Peace Spring operation are Article 51 of the UN Charter and the UNSC's commitment to the fight against terrorism. In addition, Syria has lost control over a significant part

of the country and one of them is the border with Turkey. The Adana Agreement signed between Turkey and Syria in 1998 allowed Turkey to fight against terrorism and gave Turkey the authority to conduct cross-border military operations up to a specified depth in Syrian territory. Also, human rights can be considered without any discrimination as rights that people should have just because they are human, as required by human dignity. The people of the region, who had a hard time under the pressure of the YPG/PKK, breathed a sigh of relief after Turkey made operations to Syria. Turkey's 2 main operations in Syria before this operation show that Turkey has shown how careful and cautious they are in both the protection of civilians and proportional intervention. Especially the British; They often use the phrase "countries don't have friends, they have interests". However, when Turkey's operations and financial gains are evaluated, it can be seen that Turkey has given great support to the civilian population both in Turkey and in Syria so that innocent civilians can live their lives comfortably and has once again shown to the world that people's lives are superior to the interests of the state.

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A Concise Investigation of Note -Taking as a Listening Strategy

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Introduction

The very first skill that humans learn in their early years of life is listening. As stated by Brown and Yule (1983), listening is the capacity to comprehend spoken words. According to Ekinci (2021), listening entails being able to comprehend a speaker's message while also being able to understand his accent, pronunciation, and grammar. It necessitates complicated recall, in-depth knowledge, and sophisticated analysis.

English, according to Yılmaz and Yavuz (2015). According to Vandergrift (2004), students need to develop unique listening strategies to succeed at listening. These listening strategies are characterized by Rost (2001) as deliberate plans to handle speech difficulties, mainly when the listener is aware that he or she has to make up for inadequate information or partial understanding. On the other hand, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), listening strategies are unique ideas or actions that learners utilize to grasp, absorb, or remember new information while learning a language. To comprehend what is being reported and enhance their listening skills, learners must learn and apply various listening strategies. According to Kurita (2012), learners can succeed at listening if they establish their own listening strategies. These strategies help students develop their listening abilities in the target language, but they also boost their motivation and persuade them to succeed in other language learning skills.

There are numerous listening strategies to be used to cope with listening-related language learning problems. As stated by Goh (1998), listening strategies might be divided into two basic groups as cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies. The researcher asserts that while concentration, contextualization, elaboration, inference, and prediction are all cognitive strategies, selective attention, directed attention, comprehension monitoring, real-time input assessment, and comprehension evaluation are metacognitive strategies. Additionally, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), inferencing, translating, taking notes, conceptualizing, and deducing are examples of metacognitive strategies for listening comprehension, while directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, and self-reinforcing are examples of cognitive strategies.

Among the other listening strategies, note-taking has always been favored by academics. The researchers like Carrell (2007), Hayati and Jalilifar (2009) and Ekinci and Şanverdi (2021) referred to note-taking as one of the most essential listening strategies to be used so as to enhance the listening comprehension of language learners. Considering the importance of note-taking as a listening strategy, the benefits and employment of the note-taking strategy were discussed in the following section.

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Note-Taking as a Listening Strategy

One of the main listening techniques employed by EFL students is taking notes. By note-taking, the writers capture the core of information and relieve their minds of the burden of needing to remember everything (Makany, Kemp and Dror, 2009). It entails listening to new, sometimes unexpected information, swiftly copying that information to keep up with the lecture, and choosing how to construct the content to represent the speaker's relationships (DeZure, Kaplan & Deerman, 2001). In other words, note-taking cannot be described simply as writing down the learning material in a short version. Instead, it requires planning, anticipation and coordination between what is heard and written.

For language learners, efficient note-taking skills are crucial. Şanverdi (2021) asserts that students who master effective note-taking techniques perform better in class, in work, and when recalling previously studied content. According to Kiewra (1989), taking notes has at least two primary advantages. First, taking notes during lectures helps students learn more by focusing their attention and appealing to the cognitive processes involved in coding, integrating, synthesizing, and translating auditory material into something they can relate to personally. Second, note-taking is considered advantageous because the notes made act as an external store of knowledge that facilitates subsequent editing and evaluation to boost remembrance of the content heard. In other words, students and learners can make use of their notes not just during a listening session but also when needed. In addition, Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) stated that students who take notes while attending a lecture are thought to be more effective at comprehending the material in the academic environment because they are more focused and have an easier time remembering the material.

In order to overcome hearing-related comprehension challenges when learning a language, note-taking is a useful listening technique. According to Rost (2013), listening is often considered as a difficult skill that calls for complex procedures like hearing and discerning sounds, classifying grammatical and pragmatic units, and linking all of these and other verbal cues. The most frequent listening difficulties students encounter, according to Goh (1999), are forgetting what they heard quickly, not understanding words they know, constructing meaning but not the intended message, disregarding the next element while pondering the meaning, and being unable to mentally represent the words heard. In addition, Goh (1999) underlines the difficulty with concentration and missing the start of the text as listening challenges. Taking notes can be a solution to these issues as it can make up for the learners' poor understanding of listening information. In order to comprehend what is listened to and increase listening competence, it is advised by Vandergrift (1999) that note-taking procedures be used due to the complex nature of listening skills. These techniques assist learners in developing listening strategies in the target language, but they also boost their motivation and persuade them to succeed in other language learning skills.

There are various studies demonstrating the benefits of note-taking as a listening strategy. Carrell, Dunkel, and Mollaun (2004) studied note-taking's influence on listening comprehension, specifically looking at how note-taking interacted with lecture duration, subject, and listener attitude. Their research showed that taking notes improved student performance compared to not taking notes. In another study, Teng (2011) conducted a second research that delved further into the note-taking techniques utilized by EFL students. This study focused on Taiwanese university students' perspectives towards note-taking as well as the variations in the categories of note-taking strategies they employed. Two surveys and an interview were utilized as the data collecting instruments with 63 university students who were separated into two groups as more and less successful EFL listeners. The study's findings showed that the majority of participants sought to write down practically everything they heard and used their notes to remember their lectures. Additionally, note-taking was deemed by all participants to be a crucial tactic for overcoming challenges connected to listening. In their research, Liu and Hu (2012) explored note-takers'

perceptions of how note-taking facilitates their listening comprehension. This study investigated the impact of note-taking on listening comprehension for lower-level EFL learners in China. 24 EFL first-year students from China made up the participants, who were separated into experimental and control groups. The study's findings showed that note-taking significantly impacts how well students can write and understand what they hear.

In conclusion, it is evident that the research described above demonstrated that taking notes is an essential ability that offers several advantages to foreign language learners. Therefore, it is crucial to encourage students to develop their note-taking abilities.

3. Conclusion

The results of the present study demonstrated that note-taking as a listening comprehension strategy offers countless benefits for language learners. The employment of note-taking helps learners comprehend the audio-visual materials and motivate them to improve their listening proficiency. Another outcome of the study is that learners adopting note-taking as a listening strategy perform better than those who did not take notes during the lesson. The note-takers are likely to receive higher marks from the exams and more prone to improve their English proficiency. In addition, the study also revealed that note-taking forces students to give attention to the target language content and helps them concentrate on the class discussions.

There are some studies that have similar outcomes to the results of this study. Research conducted by Kobayashi (2006), Stacy and Cain (2015) and Washbourne and Gillies (2017) found that note-taking improves learners' listening comprehension, learning motivation and academic achievement in a foreign language classroom. These studies provide parallel conclusions with the present study considering the benefits of employing note-taking as a learning strategy.

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International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM) As A Soft Power Resource

“Power, like love, is easier to experience than to define or measure.”

Muhammed Murat Öymez²

1. Introduction

If soft power can be defined as the ability to impose ideas on others and shape the desires of others, without any force, is it not the effect of states on their own citizens? Sometimes a city, a school, a person can make one more patriot than before. As Nye puts it, private sources of soft power such as firms, universities, foundations, churches, other non-governmental groups generate their soft power. This situation may feed the official foreign policy objectives or, in some cases, conflict with the official foreign policy targets. It is also possible that the institutions that can be considered a country's potential soft power source will reduce the soft power of the state administration.³ “Malaysia truly Asia” is what the Ministry of Culture of Malaysia has chosen as its country's slogan. With the population having a mixed ethnicity made up of communities of different origins and religions, Malaysia can claim ‘truly Asia’. Malay population points to record 69.6 percent in 2020 when Chinese Malaysians and Indian Malaysians population 22.6 percent and 6.9 percent, respectively. Others are taking 1.0 percent of 32.657.000⁴. International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM) is the most important university of Malaysia as a great soft power instrument no matter what it ranked. Even though the university's golden ages have passed, this institution could be the most powerful soft power instrument of Malaysia and even “Oxford of Muslim Nations.” Malaysia is an attractive country for social scientists because of its diverse population, so does International Islamic University Malaysia.

The university has 14 faculties, three institutes, and a Continuing Learning and Strategic Education Center. IIUM has a total of 30,649 students from 117 countries. As of 2017, IIUM has trained 85,854 students, 73,677 Malaysian citizens, and 12,177 international students at undergraduate and graduate levels. IIUM is currently in the World's top ten in terms of discussion groups in debate tournaments. Members of the IIUM Debate Team received the Award for Best Discussion in Asia. IIUM Debate Team members continued to be successful when they also won the Best Debate award at Cambridge. During the debate, the team won the Environmental Debate three years in a row. The IIUM Arabic Debate Team did not miss awards such as a series of debating competitions at national and international levels, public speaking, memorizing the Quran,

¹ Nye, J.S. (2007). *Understanding International Conflicts: An Introduction to Theory and History*. Illinois, Pearson Longman, 60.

² Lecturer, Bandırma Onyedi Eylül University, ORCID: 0000-0001-8756-5095

³ Nye, J.S. (2004). *Soft Power: The Means to Success in World Politics*. New York, Public Affairs, 17.

⁴ Department of Statistics Malaysia Official Portal. Current Population Estimates, Malaysia. 2020, July 15. https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/index.php?r=column/cthemByCat&cat=155&bul_id=OVByWjg5YkQ3MWFZRTN5bDJiaEVhZz09&menu_id=L0pheU43NWJwRWVVSZklWdzQ4TlhUUT09. November 29. 2020.

and reading the Quran.⁵ International Islamic University Malaysia deserves to be studied in soft power with this introductory information about the university indicated above. In this research, I would like to focus on International Islamic University Malaysia's impacts on the international alumni and academicians.

As the emphasis in Nye's quote initially, it is not an exaggeration that IIUM's soft power cannot be described but only experienced. In the research, first, the history of IIUM and its role will be discussed. Second, I will ask how it could be understood if one affected another country's soft power. Third, I will research alumni and former employees of IIUM and survey the impacts of IIUM in soft power. I conclude with the findings and recommendations and the discussion on emigration as an indicator of soft power.

2. History of International Islamic University

The countries, which the citizens of them are predominantly Muslim, gained their independence after the Second World War and were generalized with the word 'third world.' The emerging nation-states that have arisen from North Africa to Indonesia have started to take measures to resolve current issues with countries with shared historical traditions and deal with their internal problems. One of the significant moves in this direction has undoubtedly expressed itself in the field of education. In the context of the international education and institutionalization of that century, the Organization of the Islamic Conference⁶, discussions on the institutionalization processes under international Islamic universities' names have been brought to the agenda by donor countries' initiatives.⁷

Regarding the process of creating an international university, Malaysia's old-hand politician, Dr. Mahathir Muhammad, said yes to this initiative, which enabled the establishment of the Malaysia International Islamic University (IIUM) higher education institution capital of Kuala Lumpur. On the campus in Petaling Jaya, a newly emerging area of the city, education and training activities began.⁸ Then, in an area bordering the tropical forests at the end of the town settlement in the north of the capital, the service continued a large campus close to Malaysia's other university campuses but distinct in its architectural features. With the influence of political and social unrest in various corners of Islamic geography in the '80s and '90s, this university became a center of attraction for international students and academicians. Students from vast geography from Somalia to Bosnia, Turkey to the Maldives, Bosnia to the Pacific, have adapted to university life's calm environment, hosted by Malaysia, beyond and beyond the chaos in their countries, especially Turkey. Malaysia and, more specifically, International Islamic University Malaysia became a safe port for the Turks who were seeking a place to get educated without any bias about their religious understandings during the post-modern coup era.⁹ In the 1990s, IIUM hosted some academicians and students who later took essential positions in Turkish politics and bureaucracy such as Ahmet Davutoğlu, İbrahim Kalın, Yusuf Ziya Özcan, Faruk Beşer, Sabri Orman, and Mustafa Paçacı.¹⁰

⁵ IIIUM Website (In Bahasa Melayu), *Latar Belakang Universiti* (History of The University), <https://www.iium.edu.my/my/page/background-6>. November 29, 2020.

⁶ Öymeç M.M., (2022), "Royal Touch to Malaysian Democracy", ed. Prof. Sinan Sönmez, *Current Debates in Social, Humanities and Administrative Sciences*, (İzmir: Duvar Design, 2022), 308

⁷ IIUM Website. History of MME. <https://www.iium.edu.my/mme/index.php/staff/history>. December 15, 2020.

⁸ IIIUM Website (In Bahasa Melayu), *Latar Belakang Universiti* (History of The University), <https://www.iium.edu.my/my/page/background-6>. November 29, 2020.

⁹ Durmaz, F. and Shukri, S. (2019). "Turkey-Malaysia Relations in the 21st Century", *Bölgesel Araştırmalar Dergisi*, Volume 03, Issue 01, 115-148.

¹⁰ Respectively; Former Prime Minister, Spokesperson of Turkish Presidency, Former President of Turkish Council of Higher Education, Turkish Author, Former Rector of Istanbul Ticaret University, and Turkish Ambassador and Academician.

Additionally, IIUM hosted Mohamed Jameel Ahmed (Vice President of Maldives), Pritam Singh (Singaporean Leader of Opposition), Omar Suleiman (American Activist, President of Yaqeen Institute), Marie Saine-Firdaus (Attorney General and Secretary of State for Justice of the Republic of The Gambia), Hassan Saeed (Attorney General of the Maldives) and Cherno Jallow (Attorney General of the British Virgin Islands). International Islamic University Malaysia educated 14,052 International Alumni¹¹, and they spread across the World between 1983-2020. I would like to share and compare some other universities, but due to their data protection policies, the officials from Oxford, Cambridge Harvard, Christian-Albrechts-Universität zu Kiel (CAU), and International Christian University Japan.

'Islamization of knowledge'¹² and the recognition and acceptance by the new political climate of Islamic movements in Malaysia are the primary motivation for establishing International Islamic University Malaysia.

2.1. Islamization of Knowledge

When we discuss IIUM, Islamization of Knowledge comes first. In the mid-20th century, imperialist powers abandoned Islamic countries left behind puppet authorities and a Western-style education system. While in these education systems, thinkers who think like Westerners were educated. On the other hand, in the classical madrasah and non-official education systems, only people who knew faith and culture were raised. This dual system of education has created an academic crisis among Muslims. The attempts to Islamize the knowledgeable, started by al-Faruki and his friends as a project at the end of the 1970s, continue to eliminate this problem among Muslims. The initiative, involving many academics and scholars from Islamic countries, has emerged in modern times as an essential innovative movement among Muslims. The project, whose primary goal is to purge Islamic education from Western-centered secular education and end the academic crisis in Islamic countries, has different approaches. For this initiative's structure and execution, thinkers such as Sayyid Muhammed Nakib al-Attas and Fazlurrahman, especially al-Faruki, put forward numerous ideas.

Through the puppets they picked among Muslims, the imperialists began to attack all Muslims' ideals, including the Quran and Sunnah. The imperialists aimed to cast doubt on the religion and history of Muslims with these assaults. During the colonial era, with their newspapers, books, magazines, radio, and television, the colonists placed their own culture on Muslims. On the other hand, Muslim rulers began without embarrassment to plan their towns, houses, and offices in a western style. Although Muslims were listening to operas, concerts, and Western-style film, their children were reading books on the streets or in missionary schools published by colonialists.¹³ The depiction of the Muslim nations by El-Faruki was like this, and the solution was the 'Islamization of Knowledge' for him.

Since the Islamization of knowledge theory came to life as a project, almost forty years have passed. This work began with establishing the Association of Muslim Social Scientists, founded in 1972 by İsmail Raci el-Faruki and his friends.¹⁴ This association held its first conference in 1977 in Mecca. The same year, it organized a two-week Symposium attended by Muslim academicians from different fields in Switzerland.

¹¹ IIUM Alumni Portal. International Alumni. <https://alumni.iium.edu.my/>. January 20, 2021.

¹² el-Faruki, I. (1988). *Islamization of Knowledge General Principles and Work Plan*. Virginia, International Institute of Islamic Thought, 5.

¹³ el-Faruki, *Islamization of Knowledge*, 5.

¹⁴ North American Association of Islamic and Muslim Studies (NAAIMS) Website. About Us. <https://naaims.org/AboutUs.html>. January 10, 2021.

As an outcome of this symposium, it is concluded that thought is the primary cause of the crisis that Muslims are in and that this requires Islamization. In 1977, this center first held a Mecca conference, attended by leaders from numerous Islamic nations. Just as follows;

“Education should aim at the balanced growth of the total personality of man through the training of man’s spirit, intellect, his rational self, feelings, and bodily senses. Therefore, education should cater to the growth of man in all its aspects: spiritual, intellectual, imaginative, physical, scientific, linguistic, both individually and collectively, and motivate all aspects towards goodness and the attainment of perfection. The ultimate aim of Muslim education lies in realizing complete submission to Allah on the level of the individual, the community and humanity at large.”¹⁵

As a second phase, in the U.S. state of Virginia in 1981, the International Institute of Islamic Thought was founded¹⁶. After the conference in Mecca, another conference on the subject was held in Pakistan in 1982¹⁷. The Institute of International Islamic Thought (IIIT) published the book of al-Faruki, 'Islamization of Knowledge' and provided the roadmap for the Islamization of Knowledge.

Undoubtedly, establishing the International Islamic University Malaysia was the most significant step in the Islamization of knowledge. The founders of the Islamization of Knowledge were also scholars such as Abdulhamid Abu Suleyman and al-Attas, who pioneered the university's creation, which began education in 1984.¹⁸

Of course, it is not possible to assess IIUM alone. The presence of a classical scholar such as Sayyid Naqib al-Attas and the institutionalization that he produced and contributed to its creation, namely the Institute of Islamic Thought and Civilization (ISTAC), should be given its natural role among the factors that add importance to this university.¹⁹

There is an important name in establishing IIIT, ISTAC, and IIUM who is Anwar Ibrahim. The reflection on Malaysian politics of the Southeast Asian economic crisis that broke out in 1996 and the resulting dismissal decision by the governing party reached a degree that would influence not just the leaders involved but also their social counterparts and their context within this university. In parallel to the positions him IIUM is subjected to discrimination that will be discussed later.

Professor Emeritus Dato' Dr. Abdul Hamid Ahmad Abu-Sulayman (Abu Suleyman), who was the university's rector from 1988 to 1998, sought to put together Muslim scholars who had been raised in the West and who had a strong knowledge of western science, and those who had been educated in Islamic countries and who understood the tradition well under one roof. The Islamization of knowledge began to be introduced in the Kulliyah (Faculty) of Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences that was established under his leadership. Through the draft of al-Faruki, Abu Suleyman had done the necessary studies to teach Islamic and modern Western sciences.

After its foundation, International Islamic University has demonstrated success in many fields. In particular, Malaysian society has inevitably survived the colonization shock and played a

¹⁵ Ashraf, S. A. (1985). *New Horizons in Muslim Education*, Cambridge, The Islamic Academy, 4.

¹⁶ IIIT Website. About Us. <https://iiit.org/en/about-us/>. November 28, 2020.

¹⁷ Nasr S.V.R. (1991). Islamization of Knowledge: A Critical Overview. *Islamic Studies*, Volume 30 No. 3: 387-400.

¹⁸ IIUM Website. Our History. <https://www.iium.edu.my/page/our-history>. November 28, 2020.

¹⁹ Zakariya H. (2017). The Experiences of the International Institute of Islamic Civilisation & Malay World (ISTAC), International Islamic University Malaysia In Empowering The Malay World & Islamic Civilisation. *Heritage of Nusantara International Journal of Religious Literature and Heritage*, Volume 6 No. 2: 221-236.

significant role in defending the Muslim Malay identity against the non-Muslim Chinese and Indians who make up half of the country's population. In the course of Islamizing knowledge at the Islamic University of Malaysia, several problems emerged. First of all, it created a misunderstanding among the students that the West's scholars were not adequately familiar with Islamic sciences. The scholars who were taught in Islamic countries did not master western sciences.

Furthermore, while a new approach was adopted, another concern was that the textbooks could not be prepared, and the materials taught in other universities were used.²⁰ Undergraduate students had to master a certain level of Malay and learn a certain level of English and Arabic in all branches of the university. This challenged the students to spend the first two years of their language courses alone. The theory of the combination of Islamic sciences with modern sciences cannot be said to have been successful because it reached the International Islamic University Malaysia, which is the most significant production of the Islamization of Knowledge initiative. Undoubtedly, the main reason for this is the lack of professors who know both Islamic science and western science and philosophy.²¹

2.2. The Dagger

We barely discussed Syed Naqib el-Attas in the last part due to the Anwar Ibrahim case. Anwar Ibrahim, who is the 'headache' of Malay status-quoists, was the student or, more accurately, apprentice of Naqib al-Attas. We mentioned that Anwar Ibrahim was one of the official founders of IIUM and ISTAC non-officially. And, of course, the President of IIUM during its golden decade between 1988 and 1998. From deep to top, Anwar Ibrahim saw every aspect of power in his checkered political career. During his presidency in IIUM, at the same time, Anwar Ibrahim runs as the Deputy Prime Minister (1993-1998), while he runs Minister of Education (1986-1991) and Finance (1991-1998). In 1998 Anwar and Prime Minister Mahathir Muhammad differed on the economic policies of the Asia Crisis.²² Mahathir turned against Anwar, who was transferred from Mahathir's Islamic movements to 'Islamize' UMNO in 1982 due to his IMF loan will.²³ Anwar as an 'Islamist' charged with Sodomy relations, arrested, and tortured by the police under the custody.²⁴ Since the public opinion has never believed these accusations and accepted what has done to Anwar, the social, intellectual, and even conceptual network started to 'ostracized' by the government.

The essential ingredient of IIUM, Naqib al-Attas, became the most affected one by the political turmoil. ISTAC (Institute of Islamic Thought and Civilization), which he designed from its every detail, was negatively affected. Most of the human resources of ISTAC distributed. Then IIUM followed ISTAC.

“Undoubtedly, the transformation reflects a phase in which the vengeful essence of conventional Malaysian politics has emerged most intensely. And this transformation, the stages of emergence, growth, and adjourning triggered a split that would extend not only

²⁰ Abdallah, S.S. and Hussien, S. (2016). The Experience of Islamization of Knowledge at the International Islamic University Malaysia: Successes and Challenges. *New Intellectual Horizon In Education*, 101.

²¹ Zangin M. (2020). The Idea Of Islamization of Knowledge, Pioneers, Views and Outcomes. *International Journal of Cultural and Social Studies*. 6.

²² Reuters Staff. CHRONOLOGY: The rise, fall and rise of Malaysia's Anwar. *Reuters*. April 14, 2008. <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-malaysia-anwar/chronology-the-rise-fall-and-rise-of-malaysias-anwar-idUSSP20752520080414>. December 20, 2020.

²³ HookwayDow J. Malaysia's Officials Defend Use of Capital Controls, Blast Anwar. *The Wall Street Journal*. October 7, 1998. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB907695404686138000>. December 20, 2020.

²⁴ CNN World. Report reveals brutal extent of Malaysian official's beating. *April 5, 1999*. <http://edition.cnn.com/WORLD/asiapcf/9904/05/anwar.beating/index.html>. January 03, 2021.

to a university but to all the divisions and all the representatives of an international basin of the Islamization of Knowledge. In a political and social arena where the institution, which could not successfully realize the autonomation process, the university also took its both positive and negative share from Malaysia's developments over time. Naqib al-Attas, who is a world-class scholar, being pushed aside or set aside. On the other hand, the university is witnessing the stage of making it one of Malay nationalism's strongholds in tandem with the cycles of governing and staying in control in Malay politics today.”²⁵

As Özay describes the vengeful tradition, Malay politics demonstrate itself in the fountain of life at the International Islamic University Malaysia entrance. Malay nationalists now punish the university with the symbol created by Naqib al-Attas. The ‘fountain of life’ at the entrance of the ‘garden of knowledge and virtue’²⁶ had been stabbed by ‘keris’ from 2014²⁷ and 2019²⁸, a traditional dagger and symbol of the ruling party for 60 years.²⁹ (See figure one) El-Attas as an expert on heraldry (Shi’arat al-Nabalah), created the *jawi* calligraphy (see figure two) in his uncle, Dato Onn bin Jafaar’s house.³⁰³¹ Even though *jawi* calligraphy can be described with Islamic references, it was created with the first letters in the Arabic alphabet of UMNO, ‘alif,’ ‘kaf,’ ‘mim,’ ‘ba’ and ‘ra’(PEKEMBAR-Pertubuhan Kebangsaan Melayu Bersatu).³²



Figure 1: Logo of UMNO. See the keris in the middle.



Figure 2: Another logo of UMNO. See the 'jawi' calligraphy above the texts.

²⁵ Özay, M. A Transformation of a University. *South East Asian Studies*. November 20, 2017. <https://guneydoguasyacalismalari.com/2017/11/20/bir-universitenin-donusumu-a-transformation-of-a-university/>. December 10, 2020.

²⁶ The Motto of International Islamic University Malaysia.

²⁷ Hafiz A. IIUM’s New Fountain Unveiled. *IIUM Today*. September 27, 2014. <https://news.iium.edu.my/?p=28156>. December 10, 2020.

²⁸ Asyraf F. Rais Yatim Disappointed with IIUM's Relocation of Keris Monument. *Malaysia Kini*. November 9, 2019. <https://www.malaysiakini.com/news/499229>

²⁹ BBC News. Malaysia election: Opposition Scores Historic Victory. <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-44036178>. January 17, 2021.

³⁰ Dato’ Osman Bakar. Personal Communication with author. January 23, 2021.

³¹ Dato’ Sri Dzulkarnain Taib. Personal Communication with author. January 23, 2021.

³² Suhaimi K. Maksud Logo UMNO Dan Kisah Ringkas Penciptanya (The Meaning of the UMNO Logo and the Short Story of its Creator). *Illuminasi*. April 12, 2018. <https://iluminasi.com/bm/tan-sri-profesor-syed-muhammad-naquib-al-attas-pencipta-logo-umno.html>. January 10, 2021.



Figure 3: Fountain of life in the entrance of International Islamic University Malaysia in 2017.

The ethnic Malay party's two common emblems had not been replaced by the World without a purpose. It was the proclamation of the Malayization process in the university. Even though the traditional dagger was gone³³ in 2019, the wound of it is still not healed. And the depiction of UMNO in *jawi* still bounds the statue of the Quran placed after *keris*. Even the symbolic Malayization is stepped back, the Malayization of academic personnel and students is in the process. Management of the university has tripled the tuition fees for international students.³⁴ The success of IIUM in comparison to other Malaysian Universities does not give hope. International academicians lost their positions day by day. There are almost a few international academicians left, especially as an 'international' university, it can be said that there is nearly none. And it seems that no one is willing to reverse this situation. It is not always possible to find valuable professors, especially Naqib al-Attas, who have dedicated their lives to this university, to bring them together and to establish such an institution. At the end of thirty-five years, though, Malaysia seems to have decided, in its own will, to bring an end to this beautiful and great miracle.

3. How to Measure Soft Power?

Can soft power be measured? We must admit that soft power is something psychological and not easily measurable. In this chapter, I will evaluate tangible elements or aspects of soft power descriptions by Joseph Nye. I will also review the literature on measuring soft power to measure International Islamic University Malaysia's soft power. According to Joseph Nye, "Soft Power is the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments."³⁵ and "... soft power is an attraction based on shared values and the justness and duty of others to contribute to policies consistent with those shared values, multilateral consultations are more likely to generate soft power than a mere unilateral assertion of the values." Does anyone get what they want from their audience just because they watched their movies? I do not think so. However, it is the first step to awake attractiveness.

It can be said that Nye is aware of the problem with measurability. Nye evaluated the measurability problem that can be overcome with methodological interventions and proposed a two-stage path. The first step is to determine whether an asset is a soft power source or not. The second stage is to determine a soft power source's attraction produces the desired foreign policy outcomes. Nye claims that an asset as the soft power source that provides attractiveness can be

³³ Nizam, S. President suggests to replace 'Keris' with 'Qalam', *IIUM Today*, July 26, 2019, <https://news.iium.edu.my/?p=130939>. January 10, 2021.

³⁴ Umar A. and others. (2014). Challenges confronting African students in Malaysia: A case of postgraduate Nigerian students at International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM) Kuala Lumpur. *Journal of African Studies and Development*. Volume 6 No 9: 161-168.

³⁵ Nye, *Soft Power*, X.

measured by surveying the target audience.³⁶ The next chapter will be used to measure the soft power of International Islamic University Malaysia. Nye also states whether this attraction produces desired political results in return or not should be evaluated separately in specific cases. However, we will not discuss this issue in this research, and it can be a subject for further studies.

Irene Wu created a rubric to measure soft power. There is four-stage in this rubric from short term to long term respectively: watching a movie, visiting a country, studying abroad, and emigrate.³⁷ Other soft power measurement attempts except for Irene Wu's rubric mostly gather around state-based research and statistics-based rankings between those countries with some variations.

The experiments in the measurement of soft power have significant limitations since they are based on statistical data created and shared by the states. Utku Yapıcı demonstrates these limitations in three problematics in his article "Can Soft Power be Measured?"³⁸:

- The problem of leading and determining the presence of attraction in the selection of survey questions and index variables; For instance, Pew Research Center's "Pew Global Attitudes Project 2012 Spring Survey" 59th question is: "And which comes closer to describing your view? I favor the U.S.-led efforts to fight terrorism, or I oppose the U.S.-led efforts to fight terrorism."³⁹ In the answers to this question prepared with the assumption that the main purpose of the U.S. operations is to eliminate terrorism, anti-terrorism and opposition to the U.S. operation style are not differentiated, and it is seen that someone who opposes terrorism is directed to support the U.S. operation. There is a measurement in the same survey: "U.S. technological and scientific advances" can be answered as "Admire/Do not admire." Can admiring/not admiring technological and scientific advances demonstrate soft power effectiveness? It is doubtful.
- The arbitrariness in determining the weights of index variables and the selection of data sources is another problem. There is arbitrariness in determining variable weights. The effects of variables are kept constant in some measurements. Even the use of data from a website with questionable academic validity, such as Wikipedia, makes existing measure attempts questionable. For example, in the Rapid-Growth Markets Soft Power Index, the weight of the variable number of immigrants living in the country was 11 units. In comparison, the popularity of the language of the country was kept at 3.75 companies. In this case, as explained above, a variable that is problematic to consider as a soft power criterion is given a tremendous proportional superiority.
- The inability to determine the causality link between the attraction created by power and the target actor's foreign policy outputs is the last problem. Proof of soft power is possible by determining the causal link between the attraction created by power and the foreign policy outputs of the target actor. However, these indices cannot reveal any data on this subject. It is controversial whether this is due to methodological errors in surveys or indexing studies or structural problems that mean the impossibility of measuring this connection.

³⁶ Nye, *Soft Power*, 6.

³⁷ Wu, I. (2018). *Soft Power Amidst Great Power Competition*, Wilson Center Asia Program, 2. https://www.wilsoncenter.org/sites/default/files/media/documents/publication/2018-05-soft_power_-_wu.pdf,

³⁸ Yapıcı, U. (2015) "Yumuşak Güç Ölçülebilir mi?" (Can Soft Power be Measured?), *Uluslararası İlişkiler*, Volume 12, No. 47: 5-25.

³⁹ Yapıcı, Yumuşak Güç Ölçülebilir mi?, 5-25.

4. An Attempt to Measure Soft Power: A Case Study on International Islamic University

Malaysia

4.1. Contributions to Soft Power Rubric of Irene Wu

The Soft Power Rubric is summarized as an approach to measure soft power. In this research, I would use the rubric differently.

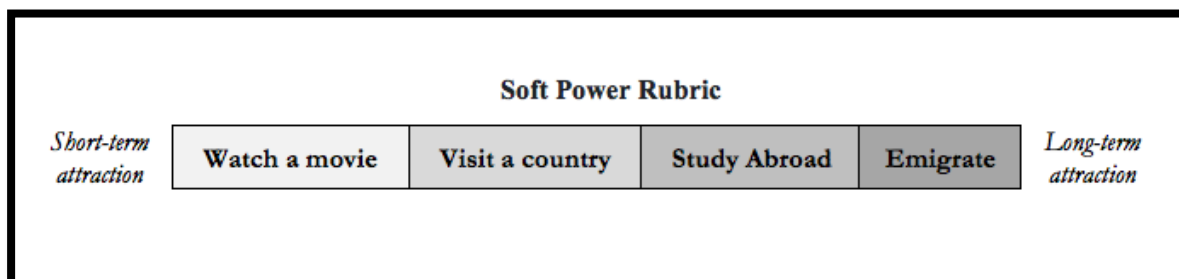


Figure 4: Soft Power Rubric.⁴⁰

“The Soft Power Rubric includes indicators that show transnational people-to-people interactions: migration, study abroad, travel abroad, and watching foreign movies.

- Emigration reflects a person’s ultimate integration in a foreign society, permanently moving family and home to another country.
- Study abroad reflects a person’s serious interest and commitment to understanding another society by spending substantial financial resources and formative time in a foreign country.
- Visiting a foreign country reflects a short-term interest in a foreign society.
- Watching a foreign movie. Somewhat different from the other three, this reflects a person’s interest in a foreign country, but is a small commitment of time and money.”⁴¹

This research focuses on measuring the soft power affection of a country or institution on people. From my personal experience, I watched many American movies, got a language education in the USA, and traveled in the states. However, I do not want to raise my children in the United States of America. These movies travel, and education did not ‘attract’ me. As a political science and public administration Ph.D. candidate, If I were an official in charge, I would not do what American Administrations want because I watched American movies or traveled to Niagara Falls. Visiting Niagara Falls cannot affect my decisions. In my opinion, soft power could only be useful and occurs when a foreign country’s citizen willingly wanted to emigrate to a country and be part of that society.

Focusing on soft power affection on individuals can be the best way to measure soft power because soft power occurs in personal spaces. It does not seem possible to establish a generally valid connection between watching movies of a country and the attraction level. Today most of the World's population watch American and Western movies. Maybe it is because the other

⁴⁰ Wu, I. (2018). Soft Power Amidst Great Power Competition, Wilson Center Asia Program, 2. https://www.wilsoncenter.org/sites/default/files/media/documents/publication/2018-05-soft_power_-_wu.pdf,

⁴¹ Wu, I. Soft Power Amidst Great Power Competition, 2.

countries do not produce such qualified film in terms of effects, launch, or distribution. It should be asked to those who watched. And the reason for choosing a country's movies should be deeply analyzed. Besides, even if the presence of the attraction produced by the series at the individual level is detected, it cannot be determined whether this attraction is directed to the leading actor of the movies, the scenario, the structure that the person defines as the country's culture, or the state the movies have filmed.

Wu's rubric's first three grades are not actual demonstrators of soft power but the bricks on the wall of soft power. One would like to travel to North Korea, which can be just because of that individual's adventurist characteristic. However, the final degree can measure the absolute soft power because it is the real demonstrator of identical integration.

4.2. Soft Power and Patriotism

A country's soft power can be defined as the degree to which a foreign country looks at us as "we" rather than as 'they.' 'We' is such a concept that can differentiate in any group and create infinitely 'we' identities. "You love it or leave it!" is a slogan of Turkish nationalists. When I saw the rubric of Irene Wu, I suddenly remembered this slogan. There should be a correlation between loving and staying or leaving somewhere. In Turkish, to love of the country, namely, patriotism called 'vatanseverlik' means love of the country. During the late Ottoman Empire, 'vatanseverlik' was called '*hubb al-vatan*,' which had precisely the same meaning, patriotism. Turkish nationalists define with a de-constructivist reading if one loves or likes, the one wants to be close. Is it that simple? And is it measurable? In my opinion, everything in the world has specific steps and measures, and the measure of love is altruism.

A country needs soft power to get what it wants without any material exchange, which means the other country must make some self-sacrifice. We can define the superior country in terms of soft power as 'A' and the affected one as 'B.' If country A were able to get, they want without any payment or coercion, then the 'B' would make a loss. The soft power-based exchange is always in favor of the A in terms of worldly demands. B supposed to give something for free that is illogical but emotional. B can be a whole country, citizens of the country, or the country's ruling elites. No matter who or what it is, if B gives free, this is against its self-interest.

We should look at patriotism, and then we can correlate soft power and patriotism. Most of the patriots carry their country's flags, icons, or historical figures. It is a self-identification, being proud of a member and belonging to the nation. Being a one in the identity house of the country. According to Steven Grosby:

"Humans distinguish their children and those of another. One usually does not love another's children as if they were one's own. And one does not usually love another nation as if it were one's own. Such a limitation on the recognition of, and the love for, what is understood to be one's own is a consequence of the preoccupation with the self's continuation, both its biological and cultural components. The term 'patriotism designates the love that one has for one's nation.'"⁴²

Then, what if someone loves another country and want to be one of them? It means the one is under the effect of another country's soft power and became a non-citizen patriot. However, this patriotism is not *priori given* but selective and adopted in a softer tone. If this description is too assertive, then we can 'soften' it as soft power aims to invite non-citizens to live in the country's intellectual and moral house. A person usually "does not love another's children as if they were

⁴² Grosby, S. (2005). *Nationalism: A Very Short Introduction*. New York, Oxford University Press, 16.

one's own"; however, he or she can adopt another's children. Soft power-based patriotism is willingly and by choice, just like adoption.

Soft power can also be defined as creating non-citizen patriots. Getting what you want without payment or coercion is only possible by creating a common will in another country. We can start with the features of patriotism. Stephen Nathanson captures well what patriotism is about when he defines patriotism as involving:

- special affection for one's own country;
- a sense of personal identification with the country;
- a special concern for the well-being of the country;
- and a willingness to sacrifice to promote the country's good.⁴³

These features demonstrate what the countries aim for with soft power. In terms of this explanation, soft power is not an international relations term. It is a broad concept that can even be applicable for one-to-one human relations. For instance, a baby boy's smile makes our hearts warm, and we feel to take care of him. If a dog, try to attack him, then we protect him no matter how we get wound. This is the power of the baby boy. He can defend himself without even be able to use his hands. And we sacrifice our effort for him even if we don't even know whose baby is him, and the exchange is 'materialistically' unfair in favor of the protector. The moral setting of us the other aspect of the soft power-based deal here. Protecting the weak and ethical setting that is shaped through to progress of humanity. This moral setting is an inherited soft power of the weak from the ancestors of humankind.

To sum up, the states create patriotism by using soft power. Mass education plays a crucial role in this process. We can see the great states and empires used mass education as a soft power resource to win the 'hearts and minds' by setting moral values. At the global level, using soft power in international relations means empowering and extending the country's patriotic hinterland. In conclusion, the soft power-based institutions must create a will on identity integration with the nation. The institution's success can only measure by measuring its effectiveness or success of the identity integration on their subjects.

4.3. An Attempt on Measuring International Islamic University Malaysia's Soft Power

International Islamic University Malaysia, like all other educational institutions, educates those who already started from the third degree in Wu's rubric. In this research, migration or long-term live abroad tendency is accepted as the main indicator of soft power affection level of a person's identity integration. And with this assumption, I tried to measure the soft power affection by questionnaires. I tried to evaluate that how likely IIUM Alumni think to emigrate to Malaysia or accepted Malaysian values. I asked some questions to understand the tendency of former IIUM Alumni or Academicians. The questions are:

1. Do you like Malaysia?
2. Do you like the Malaysian way of life?
3. If you did not have a budget limitation, how likely you to travel to Malaysia every year?

⁴³ Nathanson S. (1993). *Patriotism, morality, and peace*. Maryland, Royman and Littlefield, 34-35.

4. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia for more than five years if there were not an adverse circumstance?
5. Would you prefer to educate your child/children in Malaysia?
6. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia for more than ten years if there were not a negative circumstance?
7. If your country did not exist, would you prefer to be a Malaysian citizen?
8. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia lifelong if there were not a negative circumstance?
9. Have you ever watched a Malaysian movie?
10. Did you stay in Malaysia for more than three months?
11. Do you think Malaysia without the International Islamic University can be as beautiful as now?

Except for the third question, which can be answered on a 1-5 linear scale, every other question can be answered yes or no. This questionnaire is prepared in a term-long period, but it could include more wisely crafted questions. However, these questions were kept simple and not complicated. The questions are direct due to avoid leading participants on purpose. Due to time restrictions and the amateur survey design, the survey did not intend to be conveyed to large groups to avoid any confusion for further research.

Only 20 participants answered the questionnaire. In this case, the results can be misled to reach a solid conclusion. However, to measure the tendency, it can be enough. For the first question, “1. Do you like Malaysia?” we can see that Malaysia is an attractive country in general; while 18 participants answered ‘yes’ 2 participants choose ‘no.’ However, when it comes to the second question, “2. Do you like the Malaysian way of life?” 13 ‘yes’ answer is met with 7 ‘no.’

For the third question, “3. If you were not having a budget limitation, how likely you to travel to Malaysia every year?” From most likely to less likely distribution is 2, 3, 2, 4, and 9. It means %65 of the participants are willing to travel to Malaysia every year.

“4. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia for more than five years, if there were not a negative circumstance?” question answered ‘yes’ by the %75 of participants. However, ‘yes’ answers can quickly turn to ‘no’ while the time increased. “6. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia for more than ten years, if there were not a negative circumstance?” answered ‘yes’ by the %45 of the participants. “8. Would you prefer to live in Malaysia lifelong, if there were not a negative circumstance?” question is answered ‘yes’ by the %35 of the participants. We can claim that the short period attractiveness of Malaysia vanishes in the long term.

“5. Would you prefer to educate your child/children in Malaysia?” answered by %80 participants with ‘yes.’ In contrast, the %20 said ‘no.’ And %65 of the participants answered ‘yes’ the question seven “7. If your country did not exist, would you prefer to be a Malaysian citizen?”. In contrast, the 35 of them answered ‘no.’ The ninth question is asked to understand whether there is any relation to watching a movie and the attractiveness of the country. %80 of the participants have never watched a Malaysian film. And the last question, “11. Do you think Malaysia without the International Islamic University can be as beautiful as now?” answered ‘yes’ by %75 of the participants.

There are 14.052 international Alumni around the globe. Therefore, if there were 137 participants, it would be concluded that the survey is %95 accurate due to sample and population balance formulation.⁴⁴ In this case, the sample size should be increased.

5. Findings and Recommendations

- International Islamic University Malaysia has a positive impact on Malaysia on its Alumni; therefore, it can be considered a soft power source.
- International Islamic University is an independent soft power resource of Malaysia because its Alumni do not accept Malaysia beautiful without IIUM.
- When the time of living in Malaysia increases, the willingness to live in Malaysia decreases.
- There is no correlation between watching a country's movie and loving that country in terms of Malaysia.
- While the participants like Malaysia in general, they do not like the Malaysian way of life.
- Most participants would be willing to educate their children while they disapprove of the Malaysian way of life. This finding demonstrates the success of IIUM as an education institute and its cultural differentiation from Malaysian way of life.
- Further research can adopt face to face questionnaires to understand the participants.

6. Conclusion

I do remember like today that my first attempt to consume Malaysian food in a local restaurant. Its taste and view were too stranger for me. And I also remember how I thanked the globalization or globalization of food when I saw McDonald's and Burger King. However, I believe that no cousin can change my political opinion neither anyone's. No one would change their opinion due to a country's delicious foods. It can only be a brick on the wall of soft power. Malaysia has a totally strange culture for me. However, this strange Asian country is preferable to any other Western country to raise my children there. In this case, we should focus on soft power from a different angle.

Having soft power resources does not automatically mean having soft power; the same is accurate in hard power. Same as having natural resources but not having the ability to process these resources and mines. International Islamic University Malaysia as a soft power resource is an abandoned gold mine of Malaysia. Unfortunately, the university loses its reputation and effectiveness day by day. Compare to the '80s and '90s, the university does not attract Muslim students anymore. Unconsciousness makes the soft or hard power useless. Just as the muscle mass of a paralyzed person does not matter, unusable power is not power.

“Let's lead the way/ Enlighten the future/ Share the wisdom/ Through the spirit of Islam,

Revelation and Reason/ We shall excel, we shall prevail/ Merging faith and knowledge,

⁴⁴ Baştürk, S. and Taştepe, M. (2013). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri* (Scientific Research Methods). Ankara, Vize Publications, 129- 159.

We're the khalifah/ We'll fulfill the Amanah/ Together,/ We make the world a better place."⁴⁵

Says the International Islamic University of Malaysia's assertive song demonstrates the ideological background of the university, which makes it different. Excelling and prevailing with merging faith and knowledge points Islamization of Knowledge. The concept was an ideological concept that IIUM established on it. Rather than any other university of Malaysia, Islamization of Knowledge attracted Muslim students across the World. Islamization of Knowledge was a reflection against globalization. Malayization demolishes the attraction of International Islamic University Malaysia. Malayization of the university cannot attract people to that extent. No other university in Malaysia attracted people like IIUM. Islamization of Knowledge as an intellectual ideology created the soft power of IIUM.

On the other hand, globalization mainly occurs as Americanization. More precisely, globalization is the ideology of Americanization. There are non-citizen Americans across the globe. They believe in America's values, and no matter which country's identity card they carry, they are Americans. Soft power should be considered an ideological tool of a country or an institution, no matter how nation-building is inside the borders or outside.

In this paper, the effectiveness of International Islamic University Malaysia evaluated as a Soft Power resource. Emigrate is considered as the most reliable indicator of soft power. However, if this thesis is accepted as a fact, then the classifying of power changes. We can classify and conceptualize a new power concept to understand soft power more accurately. There is not only two power as Nye classify with hard and soft, but also a third one: gravity power. Hard power creates prosperity. It also attracts people to live there, and benefit from this prosperity cannot be evaluated with soft power and the gravity power based on hard power come to the fore.

⁴⁵ International Islamic University Malaysia, Song, <https://iium.edu.my/my/page/background-6>

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An Analysis of the Effect of Consumer Confidence and Loan Ratios on Housing Prices

Osman Evren ARIKAN¹

Introduction

The concept of housing is among the most basic needs of an individual. In addition, housing also includes a social meaning. Housing also brings with it the concept of ownership. Since the concept of ownership means the sharing of limited resources, buying a house or providing the concept of ownership requires a serious economic power or credits (Ellen et al, 2016; Henilane, 2015; Scally, 2012; Ahearne et al, 2005; Deng, 2005; Lawson, 2001; Kemeny and Lowe, 1998; Melkinas, 1998). Therefore, credits may be described as important financial instruments. However, housing is not only required for accommodation, it can also be done for investment purposes.

The fact that interest is banned in many systems in social context, especially religious sensitivities in general causes the housing sector to be evaluated as an investment tool at the same time. For this reason, the housing sector is one of the areas where the high-income segment, especially in the Middle East countries, is directed as an investment tool. While the housing sector allows the protection of the capital, it also allows additional income to be obtained through rental income (Scally and Lipsetz, 2017; Angeloni et al, 2006; Strassmann, 2001; Karni, 1995; Oxley, 1991). In this respect, it should be stated that the housing sector is considered as a good investment tool. Thanks to this vitality, interest in the housing sector is increasing among those who do not have religious or social concerns and do not hesitate to work with banks.

It may be argued that trust and credit ratios are important both in meeting individual housing needs and in acquiring a house and connecting an important value in the economic system to the house, when it is evaluated as an investment. It can be thought that trust is more important in housing purchased for investment purposes, and loan rates are more important in individual housing. In this research, it is aimed to reveal how and in what way all these factors affect housing prices, through Turkey's data.

Methods

Central Bank of Turkey Republic Electronic Data Distribution System and the World Bank Country Reports data sets were used for research parameters. Following series were used in the research.

- **CCI:** Consumer Confidence Index-TP.TG2.Y01
- **HPI:** Housing Price Index-TP.01TKFE
- **BCR:** Banking Credit Ratio-FD.AST.PRVT.GD.ZS-Domestic credit to private sector by banks (% of GDP)

¹ Unvan, kurum, e-mail

Mean and standard deviation values, and minimum and maximum values were used to define research variables. Parity analysis was used to change the data over time. Nonparametric tests were used because the data set was less than 30. Spearman's rho correlation analysis was used for univariate analysis and Generalized Linear Model (GLM-Logit Model) analysis was used for multivariate analysis. All analyzes were performed in SPSS 25.0 for windows program at 95% confidence interval and 0.05 significance level.

Results

Consumer Confidence Index, Housing Price Index and Banking Credit Ratio series according to years were given in the Table 1.

Table 1. Consumer Confidence Index, Housing Price Index and Banking Credit Ratio series according to years

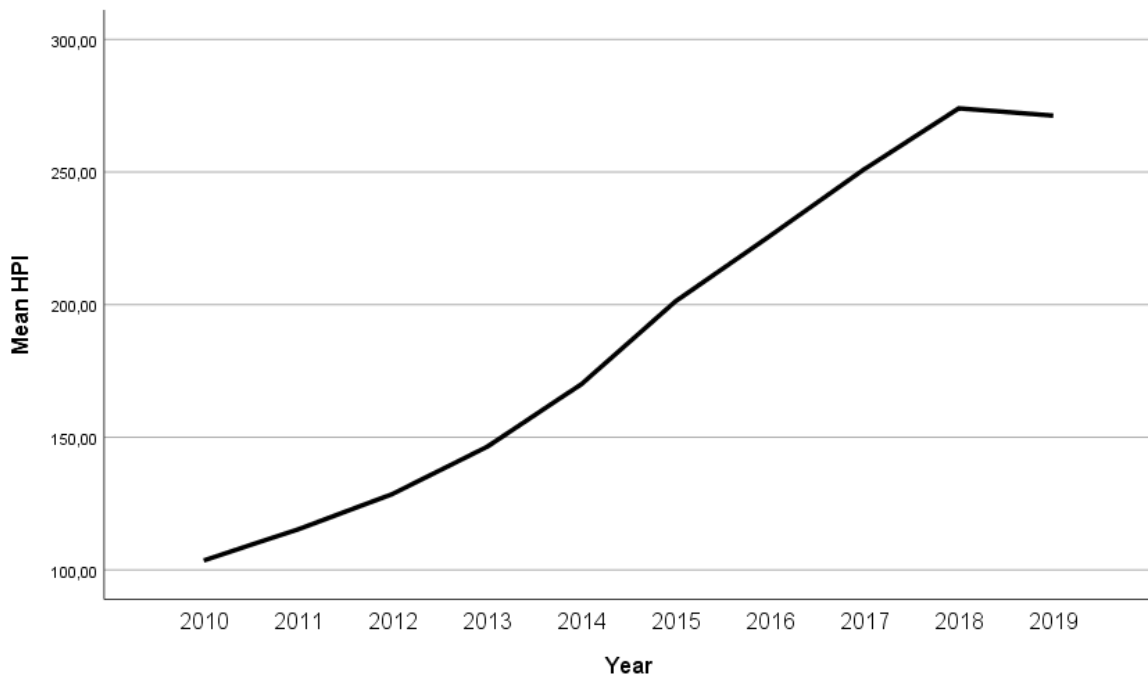
Year	HPI	CPI	BCR
2007			28.02
2008			30.90
2009			34.53
2010	103.56		41.60
2011	115.30		46.16
2012	128.61	90.60	48.73
2013	146.37	93.82	56.72
2014	169.99	92.75	59.64
2015	201.28	88.22	62.60
2016	225.95	91.62	65.28
2017	251.09	90.69	65.94
2018	273.99	87.76	63.17
2019	271.27	79.74	61.83
2020		80.94	70.92
2021		78.95	
2022		71.04	

HPI: Housing Price Index; CCI: Consumer Confidence Index; BCR: Banking Credit Ratio

Central Bank of Turkey Republic Electronic Data Distribution System includes Housing Price Index parameter values for 2010 to 2019 durations, since there was a calculation method revision in 2010 and pandemic at the end of 2019 year. Consumer Confidence Index parameter includes 2012 to 2022 years. Banking Credit Ratio was provided from the World Bank Country Reports from 2007 to 2022.

Mean Housing Price Index value changes for Turkey between 2010 to 2019 were shown in the Figure 1.

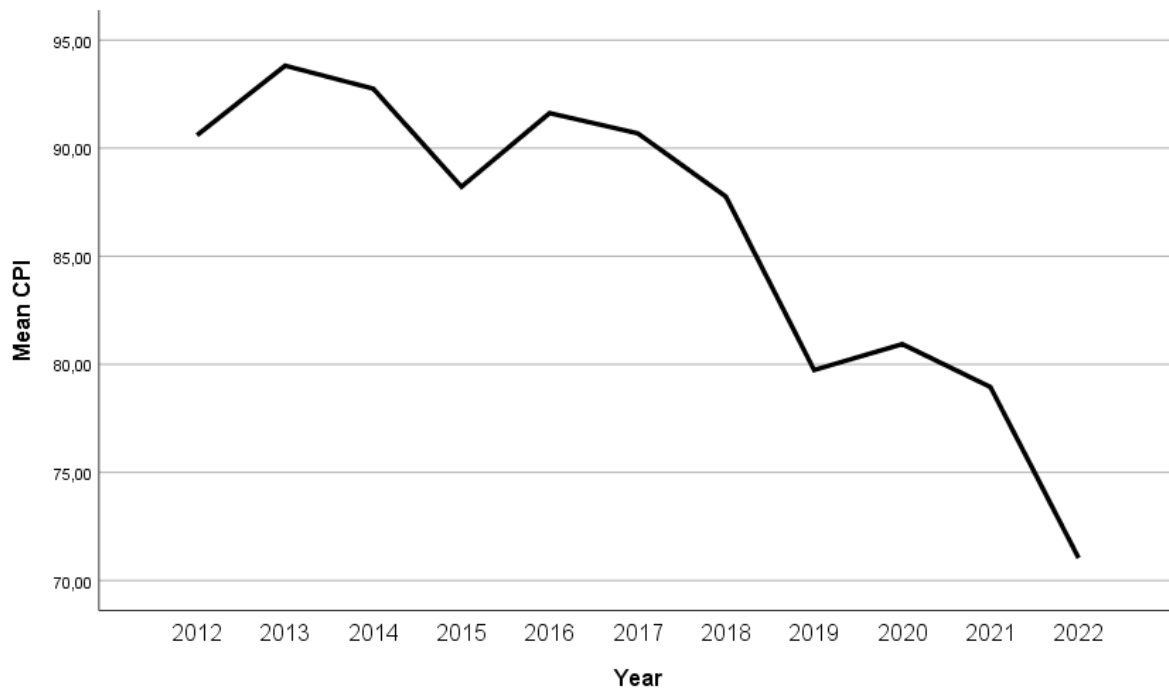
Figure 1. Mean Housing Price Index value changes for Turkey between 2010 to 2019



From 2010 to 2018, HPI parameter has shown a sharp increase trend in Turkey, showing a high increase in housing prices. In this period, there was a very serious increase in housing sales to foreigners.

Mean Consumer Confidence Index value changes for Turkey between 2012 to 2022 were shown in the Figure 2.

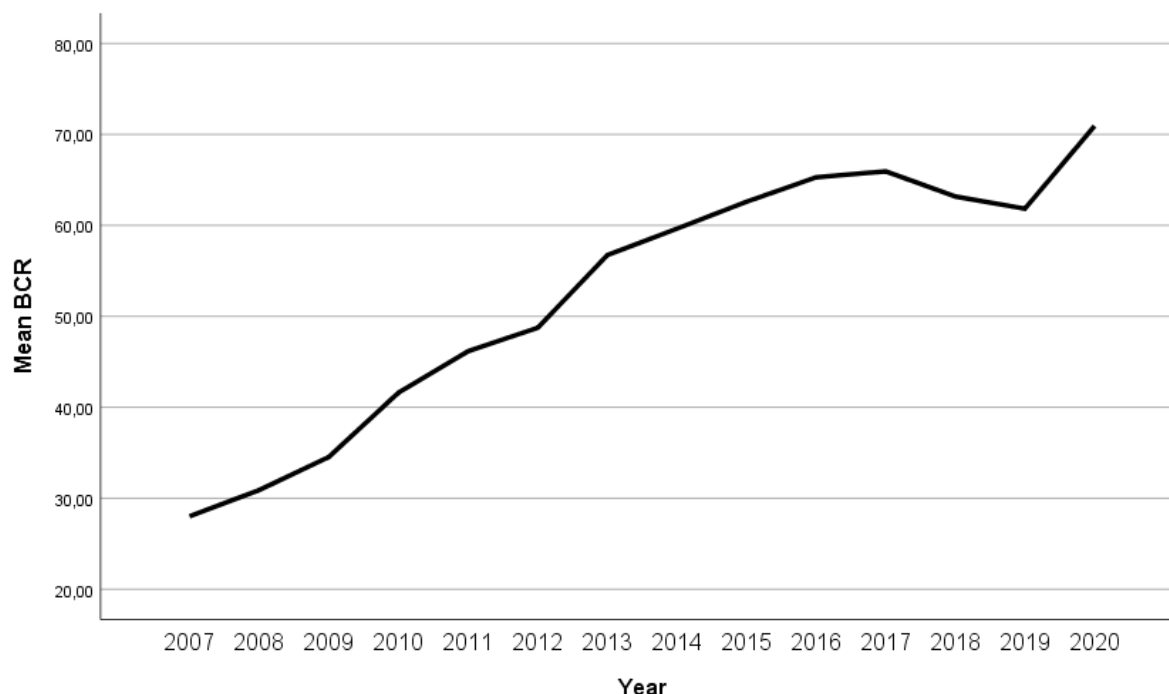
Figure 2. Mean Consumer Confidence Index value changes for Turkey between 2012 to 2022



According to the change in the Consumer Confidence Index since 2012, a decreasing trend is observed in general. The short-term and low value increases experienced in 2012, 2015 and 2019 did not disrupt this decreasing trend.

Mean Banking Credit Ratio Index value changes for Turkey between 2007 to 2020 were shown in the Figure 3.

Figure 3. Mean Banking Credit Ratio Index value changes for Turkey between 2007 to 2020



There has been a general increase trend in bank loan rates since 2007, excluding the decrease during 2017-2019. In general, the lending rates of banks increased more than three times in 2020 compared to 2007.

Descriptive statistics of Consumer Confidence Index, Housing Price Index and Banking Credit Ratio series were given in the Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of Consumer Confidence Index, Housing Price Index and Banking Credit Ratio series

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HPI	103.56	273.99	188.74	64.91
CPI	71.04	93.82	86.01	7.26
BCR	28.02	70.92	52.57	14.19

CCI: Consumer Confidence Index; HPI: Housing Price Index; BCR: Banking Credit Ratio

The minimum value of the HPI parameter is 103.56 and the maximum value is 273.99, with an average value of 188.74 ± 64.91 . The average value of the CPI parameter is $86,01 \pm 7.26$ and ranges from 71.04 to 93.82. The BCR parameter varies between 28.02 and 70.92 and has an average value of 52.57 ± 14.19 .

Spearman’s rho correlation analysis results for correlation between HPI, CPI and BCR were given in the Table 3.

Table 3. Spearman's rho correlation analysis results for correlation between HPI, CCI and BCR

	HPI	
	r	p
CCI	-0.619	0.102
BCR	0.867**	0.001

**p<0.01, CCI: Consumer Confidence Index; HPI: Housing Price Index; BCR: Banking Credit Ratio

Spearman's rho correlation analysis results showed that there was a significant correlation between HPI and BCR ($r=0.867$; $p<0.01$). However, correlation between HPI and CCI was statistically insignificant at univariate level ($p>0.05$).

Generalized Linear Model (GLM-Logit Model) analysis results for effects of CPI and BCR on HPI were given in the Table 4.

Table 4. Generalized Linear Model (GLM-Logit Model) analysis results for effects of CPI and BCR on HPI

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	p
(Intercept)	347.56	176.52	1.59	693.53	3.877	1	0.049
CCI	-6.31	1.61	-9.46	-3.16	15.392	1	0.000
BCR	7.03	1.27	4.54	9.51	30.731	1	0.000
(Scale)	337.29 ^a	168.65	126.59	898.69			

Dependent Variable: HPI
 Model: (Intercept), CCI, BCR

a. Maximum likelihood estimate;
 CCI: Consumer Confidence Index; HPI: Housing Price Index; BCR: Banking Credit Ratio

GLM model results showed that both effects of CPI ($B=-6.31$; $p<0.01$) and BCR ($B=7.03$; $p=0.01$) on HPI were statistically significant. Regression coefficients showed that effect of CPI was negative, whereas effect of BCR was positive.

Discussion

In this research, the effect of trust and credit ratios on the housing sector, which is a good financial instrument for individual housing and economic investment, has been examined. Housing is an important concept in terms of providing shelter, which is one of the basic needs and needs of individuals, as well as having reservations about interest and providing additional income while preserving the principal value (Barsky et al, 2007, Iacoviello, 2005; Leung, 2004; Campbell and Cocco, 2003; Jappelli and Pagano, 2002). Due to the high housing prices and therefore the concept of credit in payment plans, the housing market should be evaluated in the long term, not the short term.

It is possible to state that trust is an important factor in housing prices, since housing payments are extended over the long term and investment costs are taken into consideration for a long time in directly purchased houses. The numerical size of the housing prices has also led to the

widespread use of credit (Bade, 2016; Adam et al, 2012). Therefore, loan rates and confidence levels are expected to have an impact on housing prices.

According to the results obtained in the research, housing prices in Turkey are not related to consumer confidence in univariate analysis, but only to credit ratios. However, in multivariate analysis, the effects of both loan rates and consumer confidence on housing prices are statistically significant. In the univariate analysis, housing prices increase significantly with the increase in loans. This shows that the given housing loans increase the competitiveness and value in the sector in economic terms. In multivariate analysis, the relationship between loan rates and housing prices is positive, while the relationship between confidence and housing prices is negative. This indicates that when the trust level of individuals or consumers in the country increases, they tend towards economic activities such as starting a business, and when the level of trust decreases, they invest in housing.

According to the results of correlation and regression analysis, it is seen that the place of consumers in the housing sector in our country is less than that of investors. Especially in recent years, the increase in foreign housing sales and the resulting increase in housing prices have made it more difficult for employees and individuals subject to the consumer confidence index to purchase housing. For this reason, it can be stated that investment houses affect housing prices more widely, while the effect is lower on trust.

Conclusion

The results obtained in the research show that the domestic consumer has less say and rights in the housing market; therefore the housing market is mostly in the segment that thinks for investment purposes. In the short term, although this means that added value will enter the country through housing increase and valuation and foreign sales, in the long run it may have a distorting effect on the domestic markets. It is becoming more and more difficult for salaried or low-income workers to purchase housing for long-term in the country. This situation means that individuals have difficulty in meeting the accommodation expenses, which is one of their most basic needs.

Such an appreciation of the housing sector and the rise in the housing price index mean not only the restriction of the housing and property rights of individuals, but also the transfer of investments that will return to production to the real estate sector. This situation can cause significant recessions in the economies. The fact that there are no serious valuations and increases in the housing sector in developed countries and that housing costs are not a serious problem or a source of income at the same time reveal that it is necessary to reconsider the policies followed.

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Academic View of Occupational Health and Safety Culture

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Introduction

Vocational schools, which are higher education institutions that train intermediate staff, have a great job to bring the workforce, whose importance has increased even more after the industrial revolution, to a standard and quality. In addition to the vocational training given, training on occupational health and safety should also be given in vocational schools. In our country, occupational health and education is taught as an associate degree program in vocational schools. Looking at the numerical data, as of 2018, there are 107 separate OHS programs in state universities. The total quota of these programs is seen as 8400. The number of students settled in 2018 is 7171. The occupancy rate is 85%. When looking at private and foundation universities, it is seen that there are many quotas and occupancy rates (ÖSYM, 2018). Apart from the existing Occupational Health and Safety programs, other programs that provide vocational training include courses on OHS training in their curricula. OHS, whose main expansion is Occupational Health and Safety, consists of two main elements. The first element is the health element and the second is the safety element. The health element in OHS training is the element that concerns the health parameters of the employee and is primarily based on human rights in order to benefit from the workforce in a healthy way in the long run. Although health is underlined once again in every platform related to working life, it is seen that this element is ignored in the data.

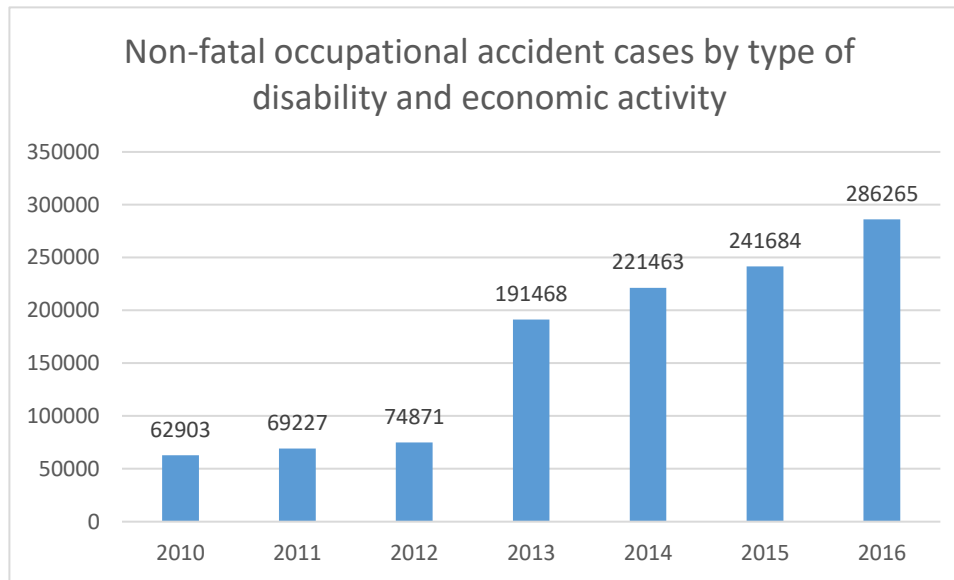
Table 1. Turkey data of the World Health Organization (WHO).

Total population (2016)	79512000
Gross national income per capita (PPP international \$, 2013)	18760
Life expectancy at birth m / f (year, 2016)	73/79
Probability of under-five death (per 1000 live births, 2017)	12
The probability of dying m / f between 15 and 60 years (per 1,000 people, 2016)	138/71
Health expenditure per capita (\$, 2014)	1036
Total spending on health as % of GDP (2014)	5.4

When the WHO (World Health Organization) data are examined, we see that while the total expenditure on health as a percentage of GDP in European countries is 11.3%, this rate is 5.4% in our country (WHO, 2014). Looking at the data of the ILO (International Labor Organization), an international organization, more than 2.78 million deaths occur every day due to work accidents or work-related diseases (ILO, 2018). Chart 1 includes non-fatal occupational accident cases by type of disability and economic activity in ILO's 2010-2016 years.

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Chart 1. 2010-2016 Non-fatal occupational accident cases by type of disability and economic activity.

According to the numerical data included in his book, Kılıkış (2011: 201), the cost of work accidents and occupational diseases to the country's economy is between 1% and 3% of the GDP. Demirbilek and Çakır (2008), in their study on textile workers, found that 53.5% of work accidents and occupational diseases were caused by "working environment without occupational safety". Aybek, Güvercin and Hurşitoğlu (2003) grouped the causes of work accidents under two main headings in their research on public employees and showed that as a result of their study, 44.4% of them were factors related to an unsafe environment and 55.6% of them were related to unsafe behaviors. . The inadequacy of the studies conducted in the literature review on occupational disease, which is the invisible face of health in business life, leads to the fact that more studies should be done on this subject. (Aytaç, Özok, Yamankaradeniz, Akalp, Çankaya, Gökçe, and Tüfekçi, 2017)

We named the Second Element as security. Safety in business life should be perceived as a culture and should be included in our business life as a way of living business life. Safety culture was first used in the report on the accident that occurred in 1986, Russia, Chernobyl (Dursun, 2013). In addition, the weakness of the safety culture levels was seen as the main factor in the reports on the causes of the accidents as a result of two separate accidents that occurred in 1988 (Cox and Flin, 1998: 190).

Cooper (2000) emphasizes in his study titled "Towards a Model of Safety Culture" that safety culture is one of the sub-dimensions of organizational culture and includes attitudes and behaviors related to maintaining the health and safety of the organization. Security culture has two main elements, tangible components and intangible components. Concrete components include concepts such as rules, procedures, and process schemes. Concrete components make up only 10% of the concept of safety culture. In the abstract component, there are concepts such as perception, unwritten rules, beliefs, experience. Intangible components constitute 90% of the security culture (Akalp et al., 2015). In addition, studies show that people with a high perception of security culture exhibit safe behaviors. Aytaç, Özok, Yamankaradeniz, Akalp, Çankaya, Gökçe, and Tüfekçi (2017) found a significant relationship between safe behavior and risk perceptions in the establishment of a safety culture, according to the information obtained in their study on 1918 blue-collar female workers in Bursa metal industry. In addition, the most important factor in bringing the safety culture to the enterprise is the commitment of the workers to the enterprise. Another leading unit in the formation of a safety culture in the enterprise is the management. In this context, it is essential for business management to see itself as a part of the safety culture (Aytaç. 2011). Safety

culture has sub-dimensions. Although different dimensions are mentioned in the studies conducted in this direction, it seems possible to collect them in 5 dimensions. The dimensions of safety culture are listed as management commitment, safety communication, safety training and competence, employee participation, and reporting culture.

The reason why the studies carried out to minimize work accidents and occupational diseases are not at the desired level is that the employees do not have the dimensions of a safety culture in the studies. Studies have shown that there is a significant relationship between the perception of safety culture and safe behavior in the working group in business life. It reveals the necessity of employees to gain this culture and dimensions during training and to create a culture of occupational safety in vocational schools. This study is a study that reveals how Occupational health and safety education is carried out in vocational schools, how vocational colleges and industry cooperation are, what are the problems experienced in occupational health and safety education, and how academic personnel working in vocational schools interpret OHS studies.

Method

In order to determine the opinions about how the occupational health and safety (OHS) education is given and what the dimensions are gained, the current situation of University-Industry cooperation and how it should be, the OHS studies carried out in our country and to make suggestions in Vocational Schools, which is one of the main institutions providing vocational education in our country. It is a qualitative study conducted with academic staff working in Vocational Schools. In the study, the interview method, one of the qualitative research methods, was adopted. "Standardized Semi-Open-Ended Interview" approach, which is one of the subtitles of the interview method, was used. This interview approach covers the topics and partly questions to be discussed during the interview. "Interview form method is prepared to obtain the same type of information from different people by addressing similar issues" (Patton, 1987). The interviewer can change the order of the questions by sticking to the subject and area he has prepared beforehand. The purpose of the interview form is not to allow any dimension to be skipped on the subject to be informed. As a matter of fact, the interview will be held once and the missing points will not allow an in-depth analysis.

Semi-structured interviews allow participants to explain the research topic with their own thoughts, perspectives and language. In order to access these views of the participant, the questions should be open-ended (Merriam, 2013).

Qualitative work is difficult to define, and it is an approach that aims to research and understand the phenomena in their environment with a perspective that centers on forming theory with an inclusive structure and depth (Yıldırım, 1999). Qualitative research is a form of study that aims to deeply investigate the perspectives and thoughts of the participants (Kuş, 2003:87).

Universe And Sample

The universe of the research; It consists of lecturers working in Elazığ Organized Industrial Zone Vocational School affiliated to Fırat University, located in Elazığ Organized Industrial Zone. In the research, "easily accessible case sampling", one of the purposeful sampling methods, was used. Holloway and Wheeler (1996) included the judgment that the sample should be as high as possible in order to collect as much meaningful data as possible, there should be participants directly related to the problem, and the most suitable conditions should be provided for forming theory for purposeful sampling selection. Başkale (2016) included participant confirmation in his study on sample size selection in qualitative studies. Asking the participants whether the findings of the research reflect their own thoughts is called participant confirmation. Findings obtained with the data collected in Qualitative Research can be misinterpreted due to some subjective

assumptions or different understandings. Whatever the reason, these misinterpretations can be prevented by participant confirmation (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013).

Since the research universe is accessible, the whole universe was taken as a sample. The sample consists of academic staff working in Elazığ Organized Industrial Zone Vocational School, Machinery and Metal Processing Department, Welding Technology Program in the spring semester of 2018-2019 academic year. Information about the sample is given in Table 2.

Table2. Working Group and Its Properties.

Participant Number	Title	Gender	Graduation	İş Deneyim Süresi
K1	Instructor	Male	Metallurgy and Casting Teaching	23 year
K2	Instructor	Male	Metallurgy and Casting Teaching	22 year
K3	Instructor	Male	Metal Teaching	5 year
K4	Instructor	Male	Metal Teaching	3 year

Data Collection Tools

“Standardized Semi-Open Ended Interview” approach was used in the research. According to the approach used, it consists of questions that reveal the problem situation and are prepared carefully and in a certain order in order to get in-depth opinions of the participants about the problem situation. The questions in the interview form consist of different types of questions in order to provide easy-to-understand, semi-open-ended, detailed information about OHS training in Vocational Schools, Industry-University cooperation, and their thoughts on OHS studies and safety culture from the perspective of our country, and to examine the problems they encounter.

Data Analysis

Analysis of data; In the interview, the answers given by the participants to the questions were written down as a result of the audio recording and the notes taken. After the written interviews were confirmed by the participants, the standardized semi-open-ended questions in written form were analyzed by content analysis method. Wiersma and Jurs (2005) state that it is not possible to go deeper in analyzes made in haste to reach conclusions in qualitative research. The final stage of qualitative data analysis is the validation of the findings. Confirmation of findings can be accomplished by testing and validating the results obtained (Merriam, 1998).

Results

In the interviews with the participants, it was seen that the participants with more professional experience were more cautious and careful during the interview. It has been observed that academicians with less experience than other participants have more knowledge about OHS and use more sincere expressions in the interview. K3 and K4 participants received postgraduate education. It is seen that the fact that they included the subject of OHS in their studies positively affected their awareness about the subject.

Question1: “What do you think about OHS education in Vocational Schools?”

We can collect the answers given by the participants to Question 1 under three main headings: "The place of the course in the curriculum", "Perception of the course by the student" and "Attitudes in the internship places". The participants say that the theory of OHS course in the curriculum is 2 and its application is 0. They argue that according to the situation of the course in the Curriculum, what is intended to be given to the student cannot be given. One of the participants complains about the absence of the application by saying that it stays in the air unless it is applied. Three of the participants stated that they see the OHS course as a general culture course apart from the vocational courses of the students. At the same time, one of the participants argued that the OHS perception by the student is low because the OHS course is not given by an academician who is expert in this field. All of the participants stated that the students sent for internship did not gain an acculturation about OHS and that OHS issues were not given priority in the workplace visits.

Question2: "What do you think is a Safety Culture and what are its dimensions?"

It is seen that it is not possible to categorize the answers given by the participants to Question 2. They tried to make a sincere definition according to the participants themselves. In the definitions made, "thinking and reacting in the same way" behaviors were mentioned in common. One of the participants mentioned the dimensions of safety culture in the question. He named and explained the dimensions of the Participatory Safety Culture as "Employer-Employee Dimension", "Worker-Worker dimension", "work-worker dimension". It is understood that the "employer-employee dimension" of the participant, which is called the first dimension, corresponds to the "management commitment" dimension of the safety culture. The dimension called "worker-worker dimension" includes the dimensions of "employee participation" and "safety communication" as the main framework. The dimension he calls the "worker-worker dimension" includes the dimension of "safety training and competence". He developed a perspective on the security culture, which the participant did not have a command of by definition, with his experience, and made mostly accurate explanations.

Question3: "What should be the environment and materials used in the training in the departments where OHS training is given?"

The answers given by the participants to the question can be gathered under 3 main headings as "Physical Infrastructure", "Applied Education" and "Academician Competence". In the title called "physical infrastructure", all of the participants argue that the laboratories of the schools providing OHS education are insufficient. In addition to this defense, the participants consider themselves lucky in that the physical infrastructure in their schools is good. Due to the content of the problem, the participants observed that we wanted a general assessment, and that there is not enough infrastructure in workshops and laboratories where practices are generally carried out in schools. The following statement made by the K2 participant for Question 3 is remarkable.

"The infrastructure of most schools is not suitable for handling this course properly. Students receive their education without taking any precautions. Does the student who sees his first experience in an environment far from security do it in business life? He can't, he can't. Especially schools providing vocational education should definitely improve their infrastructure. This development should be developed not only as machinery and equipment, but also as an overview of important issues such as OHS. Managers must first believe, adopt and live on this issue so that they can live it."

The K4 participant made the following explanation to the 3rd Question.

"Due to the lack of infrastructure in schools, we were sending students to businesses. However, since there are practical results-oriented works in businesses, this job is done quickly in the form of how to do it, so the student we sent to the application comes back without learning anything about OHS. He is even beginning to see that these are a waste of time."

The 3rd question of the participants should be the environment in which the training is conducted and the materials used? On the other hand, it is underlined that education should be included as a compulsory course in the curriculum, especially in schools that provide vocational education, and that the course contents are practical. It is emphasized that academicians who provide training should have OHS expertise documents. It should be ensured that businesses and OHS professionals who are suitable for the course can be seen on-site by making technical trips to their work sites. It is emphasized that course evaluations should be in the form of practice evaluation.

Since the participants are graduates of the Faculty of Technical Education, their comments in the field of education show that they have formation knowledge. The K4 participant emphasized that OHS courses should be evaluated through project and portfolio evaluations.

The K1 participant said, “The person who will give the culture to the student is the teacher, who is a role-model first. Whether it is possible or not, the instructor of the course will strictly abide by the OHS rules during the implementation of the course and will fulfill the requirement of being a role-model and transfer it to them as if security is a part of the job.” His statement shows the place of academicians in OHS education.

Question4: “How should the cooperation of Vocational Schools with Industry be?”

The participants answered the 4th question in detail, since the school they work in is located in the Organized Industrial Zone of Elazig. Participants emphasize that it should be considered as University-Industry cooperation. It was emphasized that the province where the technical schools providing vocational education are located should be close to the Industrial establishments, that they should take a leading role in establishing the industrial establishments that the region needs and that they should be in close contact with the Organized Industrial Zones' administrations and the Regional Chamber of Commerce Managers in terms of training intermediate staff for these establishments. K1 participant stated that as Firat University Elazığ Organized Industrial Zone Vocational School, where they work, they partnered the Elazığ Organized Industrial Zone Directorate to their work as External Stakeholders. He stated that consultation meetings were held with the Regional Directorate regarding the departments to be opened in their schools, and that by applying surveys to the regional investors, they revealed in which sectors the region needs and will need intermediate staff. They stated that as a result of the studies, the demands for opening a department and the quota of students were determined. K1 and K2 Participants stated that the Ministry of Industry and Technology supports the Vocational Schools in the Organized Industrial Zone financially according to the number of students and that the school they work in benefits from this support. The following statements of the K4 participant regarding the question are interesting. “As a matter of fact, it is expected to follow the Industry University in methods, technology and R&D. The point we have reached today is when universities follow the industry, when did this change. It happened when the academic community said, "I am enough," and withdrew from the field. A university closed to the outside world was not interested in what professional life expected of it, but what it saw itself. Buddha changed the universities from the followed to the followed position. The university should not stay away from the industry, the street, the stage so to speak, the dust of the stage should always be in their lungs, so that they can see the problems in real life as science, live and find solutions. Almost all products and services that are in our lives today and that change the heart of life were born as a homework idea in universities. I wonder how many academics work at Tesla, how many academics are in Google, maybe hundreds of jobs should be intertwined with University-Industry cooperation in this way.” According to the K3 participant, Universities stated that they should take the inspiration for their studies from the industry and use the industry as a laboratory again.

Question5: “What are the problems experienced by the instructors in Vocational Schools where OHS Education is given?”

The answers given by the participants to the 5th question can be grouped under 4 main headings: "problems related to infrastructure", "problems related to students", "problems related to teachers", "problems related to administration". First of all, in the dimension of "problems related to infrastructure", academicians stated that they could not find the necessary infrastructure for my OHS education and that they could not see this infrastructure in the enterprises where the students did their internship. In a part of the explanation given by the K1 participant for the question, he noted the following: “I have been working for years and we changed places as a Vocational School, we were not permanent anywhere, so we always took place in the building of another faculty. In other words, we have never had a laboratory and workshops of our own. In 2012, Elazig Organized Industrial Zone Directorate allocated a place for us and we moved here permanently. In this case, it is very difficult for a school with a mobile structure to create its own culture, so I cannot say that we provide our students with a successful education, especially on OHS.” As can be understood from the expression of the K1 participant, it takes time for Vocational Schools to move to a permanent order, especially in developing Universities. It seems to be a right decision to establish Vocational Schools that train intermediate staff in Organized Industrial Zones close to the working area. He stated that the K2 participant completely covered the infrastructure deficiencies they experienced with the support per student they received from the Higher Education Institution under the leadership of the Ministry of Technology and Industry. In particular, she stated that they produced machines such as CNC and 3D printers with their own means in their work. In the statement of the K2 participant to the question: “Technical knowledge was at the forefront in the training we received, as a matter of fact, we received technical training rather than occupational safety. We have been hearing the concept of OHS especially in our professional life for the last 10 years.” He has given his statement.

In the second topic, "Difficulties related to students", where we collected the answers of the participants, K3 and P4 participants stated that the quality of students decreased day by day. The answer the participant gave to the question K4 is interesting: “When we met with one of our instructors from the Vocational School of Technical Sciences, it is good that the exam-free pass was lifted. At least now we get 2 net makers.” All of the participants state that they are not satisfied with the incoming student portfolio. The K1 participant states that the students who earn an Associate Degree reach a certain age and that it is very difficult to change the culture gained until that age.

The third title of the answers given by the participants to the question is "troubleshooting related to the teacher". In this topic, the participants mentioned the missing points of the academic staff in conveying the safety culture. The K1 participant emphasized that especially those who can provide training should be appointed in academic staff appointments. The K3 Participant, on the other hand, emphasized that the assigned academic staff should undergo in-service training in their statements regarding the question. From the statements of the participants, it is understood that academic staff are weak in conveying culture.

In almost every question, problems related to infrastructure are mentioned. Among the problems they experienced in Vocational Schools, the participants included the problems related to the infrastructure and the management's perspectives on these problems. They stated that they were affected in terms of professional satisfaction. They stated that as a result of the impossibility, they could not provide the desired education and therefore they could not reach the desired levels.

Question 6: “What are your thoughts on OHS Trainings and practices in our country? And if so, what are your suggestions?”

Since the participants mentioned this question in other questions, they made repeated explanations. While emphasizing the inadequacy of OHS trainings, they also mentioned the inadequacy of the environments where OHS training is given and the training of the academic staff without having knowledge of this discipline. The participants, who developed opinions about the safety culture as a result of the interview, stated that the safety culture is not given in our current schools and businesses. Suggestions about how education should be, which is the second part of the question, are grouped under the following headings:

1. Occupational Safety should not be a lesson but a culture and this should be felt at all levels of the school.
2. In the field of occupational safety, not only the academic staff who teach the course, but also all academic staff should focus on this issue through in-service training.
3. OHS should be at the forefront in common areas within the school and in extracurricular activities.

Discussion Conclusion

As a result of the answers given by the participants in the research, it is possible to list the results of the research as follows:

1. It is seen that Occupational Health and Safety courses are not taught efficiently in schools providing vocational education.
2. It is seen that the academic staff who teach the OHS course are not OHS professionals.
3. The lack of infrastructure for OHS training is seen both in schools and in enterprises where internships are made.
4. It is seen that even the definition of the concept of Safety Culture is not done very well. “What are the sub-dimensions of Safety Culture?” It was seen that only one of the participants could answer the question, which enabled the participant to make more accurate statements about their professional experience.
5. Participants made suggestions about how the OHS training environment should be, related to their professional experience and fields, and although they could not define the safety culture in the interview, they mentioned the dimensions of the safety culture in the problem of how the training environment should be. This situation shows that the participant, who touched on the security culture about how the ideal situation should be and learned with latent learning, cannot list its definition and dimensions when confronted with a direct question.
6. It is another point underlined by the participants that they should pay attention to this issue in the places where the internship, which is the first professional experience, should be given in addition to the arrangement of the training places.
7. The participants, who found the University-Industry cooperation insufficient, emphasized that the cooperation should express the current situation and expectations of the parties on a common platform. Organized Industrial Zone Vocational Schools should be established in cooperation with University-Industry and cooperation should be made through these schools. Particularly Engineering Sciences should focus on this cooperation and support the Organized Industry Vocational Schools and establish new connections under the roof of cooperation.
8. Under the name of University-Industry Cooperation, relevant institutions should be accepted as external stakeholders and strategic goals and objectives should be arranged together.

9. The physical and academic infrastructure of schools providing OHS education needs to be strengthened.

10. In training institutions, first of all, trainers should acquire this culture and learn how to reflect it through in-service training.

11. Safety should be at the forefront at every stage of the institutions providing OHS training and it should become a way of life.

The formation, development and establishment of a Safety Culture is a phenomenon that will take a long time. For this reason, the safety culture that will be gained at the first time while taking the training will become a way of life and will be a priority element at every stage of the person's business life. Educational institutions need to act by determining a strategy in this regard.

This study reveals how it looks by professionals in schools providing OHS education with a qualitative research method, an interview. In the light of this study, it is aimed to draw attention to this direction by creating an awareness. The study also shows that the subject of Occupational Health and Safety, which is tried to be settled in our country but cannot reach the desired levels, should not be in the enterprise, but in the employee's learning this profession.

It is thought that this study will help in determining the failing aspects and producing strategies in the formation of a safety culture in institutions that provide OHS education and vocational training.

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Relationships Between Nurses' Individualism-Collectivism Values and Their Communication Skills and Conflict Management Styles

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Introduction and Background

Almost et al., 2010; Ardalan et al., 2017). Conflict may typically occur when there is a disagreement between two parties seeking to achieve similar goals which may be inter-personal, inter-group or inter-organizational. Conflicts that arise within organizations at various levels and their management and resolution are important topics that place demands on the time and energy of managers (Losa Iglesias and Becerro de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Koçel, 2013). Conflict in nursing profession is natural and inevitable and arises as a daily challenge in healthcare organizations. Therefore, conflict management is extremely important for organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Nursing staff must effectively manage conflict in order to provide an environment that stimulates personal growth and ensures quality of patient care (El Dahshan and Moussa, 2019).

Conflict is a natural consequence of human communication and interaction. Conflict occurs from the differences in goals, opinion, needs, values, ideas, and feelings between organizations or people. It is an inevitable issue in healthcare settings (Hashish et al., 2015; Ahanchian et al., 2015; Al-Hamdan et al., 2019; Ardalan et al., 2017). Complex and constant interactions among nurses and other health care professionals along with their diverse roles increase the possibility of conflict occurrence in hospitals (Ahanchian et al., 2015; Al-Hamdan et al., 2016). Conflicts between nurses or other healthcare team members can decrease the quality of patient care. Therefore, it is important that managers are knowledgeable about conflict management styles and manage the conflicts effectively in order to achieve efficient functioning of the institution and personal, social and cultural development of the employees (Başoğul and Özgür, 2016). The most commonly used conflict management styles are explained in detail in a model developed by Rahim. Rahim classified conflict management styles into five groups with a combination of self-interest and protecting others' interest (Rahim, Magner, and Shapiro, 2000; Rahim and Katz, 2020): Integrating style: It is known as the problem solving style. It includes high concern for self and others. It involves cooperation between groups (openness in exchange of information and examination of differences) to reach an acceptable solution for both sides and may result in creative solutions. Obliging style: This style, also known as accommodating and placating style, involves low interest in self and high interest in others. This style includes ignoring the differences and focusing on common grounds to please and accommodate others. Dominating

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style: It is characterized by forcing behavior for winning. It can be identified by win-lose approach or with forcing behavior as a means to win. People who use dominating style mostly ignore the needs and desires of the others in order to achieve their objectives. Compromising style: It includes moderate concern for both self and others. This style uses give-and-take or sharing the willingness to give up something to be able to make a decision that is acceptable to both sides. Avoiding style: It involves low concern for both self and others. People who use this style can exhibit behaviors such as not intervening in the conflict, placing responsibility to others or withdrawing (Hashish et al., 2015; Başoğul & Özgür 2016). Studies discussing nurses' conflict management styles in different approaches are present in literature. (Başoğul and Özgür 2016; Forbat and Barclay 2019; Erdenk and Altuntaş 2017; Johansen and Cadmus 2016; Kim et al., 2015; Labraguea & McEnroe-Petitte 2017; Labrague et al., 2018; Lahana et al., 2019). In addition to personal factors like different cognition, perception, emotion and unconscious needs and communication skills; cultural factors, role differences, social and physical environments can also cause interpersonal conflicts (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019; Lahana et al., 2019).

Culturally cultivated beliefs and values have a strong influence on attitudes. Cultural values are a motivating force behind behaviors. Culture can often produce different ways of knowing and doing (McDaniel, Samovar and Porter, 2012). Culture is defined as a mental program similar to a kind of software installed in people's minds. Installing this program to each individual in a different form states individualism, whereas in collectivism people's behaviours follow a specific pattern. Individualistic people focus on their own emotions, personal needs and rights, and their characteristics, which makes them different. People in individualist societies see themselves as stable and the environment as varying. Therefore, they tend to shape the environment to fit their own characters (Triandis, 2001; McDaniel, Samovar and Porter, 2012; Sakal and Yıldız, 2015; Uçar and Konal, 2017). Some views state that self can reveal itself in different combinations. Four individualism-collectivism cultures have been defined: horizontal individualists (HI), who want to be unique and do what they know; vertical individualists (VI), who want to be unique and also the best; horizontal collectivists (HC), who see themselves as a whole with society; and vertical collectivists (VC), who submit to authority and are ready to sacrifice themselves for the sake of society (LeFebvre and Franke, 2013; Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2002; Triandis, 2001; Uçar and Konal, 2017).

Knowing the cultural values of employees, such as individualism and collectivism, also allows one to predict their reactions when they are in conflict. The behavior of a person is affected by the manner of perception of the stimulant that causes this behavior. Styles of addressing conflicts are shaped by the values of the culture in which the employees are present. This leads to behaviors different from those expected and may result in misunderstandings and potential conflict. (Birsal et al., 2009; Koçel, 2013; Komarraju et al., 2008; Tutar and Yılmaz, 2013; Yalçın and Yoğun Erçen, 2004). Cultural differences often lead to miscommunication and conflict (Triandis, 2000). Individuals with an individualistic orientation are expected to produce direct-task-focused conflict management styles that reflect great concern for themselves and little concern for others (Ma, 2007). Individuals from collectivist cultures prefer avoiding, compromising, and problem-solving conflict management styles (Holt and DeVore, 2005). Ohbuchi et al. (1999) also stated that in the event of conflict, collectivists tend to maintain relationships with others and individualists primarily care about attaining justice. In the literature, there are various studies on collectivism-individualism and their relationship between conflict management styles (Cai & Fink 2002; Kaushal and Kwantes, 2006; Komarraju et al., 2008; Oetzel and Ting-Toomey, 2003; Sternberg and Dobson, 1987; Şahin, 2010).

Communication skills include listening and speaking behaviours that provide a mutual exchange of views on cases and emotions, and these are basic skills needed to resolve conflicts (Çağlar & Kılıç, 2014). The great majority of interpersonal conflicts in organizations as health

settings are caused by a lack of knowledge and skills in communication (Kılınç et al., 2018). Resolution of conflicts between individuals, groups or organizations may be achieved through effective communication (Koçel, 2013; Tutar and Yılmaz, 2013).

Conflict is an inevitable result of the health care environment. If not managed effectively by the managers, it can have negative effects such as conflict, employee stress, behavioural disorder and serious health problems. It may also cause deviation from the aim of patient care. It can damage trust, respect and friendship within the healthcare team. It may cause a delay on making serious decisions due to the differences of opinion. It may cause nurses to leave their jobs, which results in an increase in the turnover rate. It may decrease nurses' performance and the quality of patient care (Kılınç et al., 2018; Obied and Sayed Ahmed, 2016; Piryani and Piryani, 2018). Therefore, it is very important that the conflicts are managed effectively by the nurse managers (Kılınç et al., 2018; McKibben, 2017). On the other hand, cultural values such as individualism-collectivism and communication skills can also be effective in the occurrence and management of the conflict between nurses (Sabanci et al., 2018; Zakaria & Mat Lazim, 2018). Therefore, identifying the relationship of nurses' conflict management styles with their individualism-collectivism values and communication skills is important. In the literature, although there are some studies which have investigated nurses' conflict management styles in different aspects (Labrague et al., 2018; Lahana et al., 2019; Pitsillidou et al., 2018; Özkan Tuncay et al., 2018; Sun Young and Ki-Kyong, 2018), no studies in the literature have examined the relationships between nurses' individualism-collectivism values and their communication skills and conflict management styles. This study is believed to contribute to a better understanding of the individual differences in styles adopted by nurses in the management of interpersonal conflicts. Revealing correlations between nurses' communication skills and cultural differences and their conflict management styles may help to identify more effective conflict management styles. Thus, nurses' decisions for the benefit of the institution and society, as well as conflict management styles can be evaluated.

Methods

Aims and design

The aim of the present descriptive and correlational study was to identify relationships between nurses' individualism-collectivism values and their communication skills and conflict management styles. The study complied with the guidelines of Strengthening The Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) Checklist.

Questions of the study

In the study, answers were sought for the following questions:

1. What are the conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values and communication skills of nurses?
2. Is there a relationship between nurse managers' conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills?
3. Is there a relationship between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills?
4. Is there a relationship between staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills?

Study population and selection of sampling

The study population comprised a total of 950 nurses working in a university hospital in Istanbul. In the hospital where the study was conducted, staff nurse defines nurses responsible for patient care; nurse managers define supervisors and head nurses; supervisor nurse defines nurses who are responsible for a clinic who only work during day shifts; head nurse defines nurses who manage supervisor nurses and large clinics such as internal medicine and paediatrics, which comprise several smaller clinics. All the nurses included in the sample worked in medical and surgical clinics.

The following formula was used according to the sample calculation method for a known population ($n = N \cdot t^2 \cdot p \cdot q / d^2(N-1) + t^2 \cdot p \cdot q$) (Büyüköztürk et al., 2014). The calculated required sample size was 274. It was decided to expand the sample by 10% (28 nurses) and hand out the questionnaires to 302 nurses with consideration to possible losses. All nurse managers ($n=73$) were included in the study in order to reflect the true data for nurse managers because the number of nurse managers was lower than the number of staff nurses. Staff nurses ($n=229$) were chosen using simple random sampling. Two hundred nine (91.26%) questionnaires were collected, 201 (87.77%) of which were included in the final analysis; 8 questionnaires were eliminated due to incomplete data. The criteria for inclusion in the study were: (1) working as a nurse at the unit for more than 6 months for staff nurses. The exclusion criteria for the study were: (1) working at the unit for less than 6 months ($n=48$) and, (2) being on medical or maternity leave at the time of the study ($n=85$).

Data collection tools

A Nurse Information Form, Individualism-Collectivism Scale, Communication Skills Scale, and Conflict Management Strategies Scale were used to collect data.

Nurse Information Form: This form includes seven questions on socio-demographic characteristics (including age, sex, marital status, time spent in the profession, time spent at the institution, education status, department in which the participant works).

Individualism and Collectivism Scale-INDCOL: Nurses' levels of individualism and collectivism were measured with a shortened version of a 37-item questionnaire using a 5-point scale (1 =definitely disagree, to 5 =definitely agree) by Singelis et al. (1995) and adapted to Turkish by Wasti & Eser Erdil (2007). The scale measures the individualism and collectivism values by separating them as horizontal (egalitarian) and vertical (hierarchical). It consists of four sub-scales, including Horizontal Collectivism (HC-9 items), Horizontal Individualism (HI-8 items), Vertical Collectivism (VC-10 items), and Vertical Individualism (VI-10 items). The scales are scored between 9-45, 8-40, 10-50 and 10-50 points, respectively. Higher scores from the scale with no reverse items indicate people's positive perception of cultural value. The Cronbach alpha values of the scales are 0.80, 0.80, 0.72 and 0.80 respectively. The Cronbach alpha values of the scales in our study were 0.73, 0.75, 0.77 and 0.76 respectively.

Communication Skills Scale (CSS): The CSS, developed by Korkut Owen & Bugay (2014), is a 5-point Likert-type scale (1:Never, 2:Rarely, 3:Sometimes, 4:Often, 5:Always), which includes 25 items and four subscales; Principles of Communication and Basic Skills (PCBS-10 items), Self-expression (SE-4 items), Effective Listening and Non-verbal Communication (ELNVC-6 items), and Eagerness to Establish Communication (EEC-5 items). The scale is evaluated as subscales and with the total score of the scale. The scales are scored between 10-50, 4-20, 6-30 and 5-25 points, respectively. Higher scores from the scale with no reverse items indicate people's positive perception of their communication skills. Korkut Owen and Bugay (2014) reported the Cronbach alpha value of the CSC as 0.88. The Cronbach alpha value of the scale in our study was 0.93.

Conflict Management Strategies Scale (CMSS): The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) form A was used for nurse managers and the ROCI-II-B form was used for staff nurses (Rahim, 1983). Gümüşeli (1994) conducted the Turkish validity-reliability study of the inventory. The 5-point Likert-type scale (1-5 points) consists of five subscales; Integrating (IN), Compromising (CO), Avoiding (AV), Dominating (DO), and Obliging (OB), comprising a total of 28 items. The scale is evaluated based on the subscales. The number of statements for each conflict management style is as follows: seven statements for IN, which has the item numbers of (1, 4, 5, 12, 22, 23, 28), six statements for OB (2, 10, 11, 13, 19, 24), five statements for DO (8, 9, 18, 21, 25), six statements for AV (3, 6, 16, 17, 26, 27) and four statements for CO (7, 14, 15, 20) (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019). The highest score showing that a particular style is used most (Başoğlu & Özgür, 2016). The ROCI-II-A scale, which was answered by nurse managers, contains statements about the nurse managers' own conflict management styles, and the ROCI-II-B scale, which was answered by staff nurses, contains statements about the conflict management style used by the

nurse managers. The Cronbach alpha values of Rahim ROCI-II scale subscales were reported to be in the range of 0.72-0.77 (Rahim, 1983). The correlation coefficient obtained from the reliability calculations performed by Gümüşeli, who adapted the scale to Turkish, was 0.81 for managers and 0.88 for employees (Gümüşeli, 1994). The Cronbach alpha values of the scales in our study were in the range of 0.61-0.96 for staff nurses and 0.64-0.75 for nurse managers.

Data collection process

The study was conducted between December 2015 and March 2016, and the objective of the study was described to the nurses. Nurses who volunteered to take part were included in the study. Data collection forms were delivered to the nurses and completed forms were collected by researchers. Staff nurses were asked to evaluate their own communication skills, individualism-collectivism values, and their nurse managers' conflict management styles, and nurse managers were asked to evaluate their own communication skills, individualism-collectivism values, and conflict management styles. Nurses were asked to fill out the questionnaires at a desired time when they were available. Collection of the questionnaires took approximately four months.

Ethical considerations

The Human Rights Declaration of Helsinki was abided by throughout the study. Ethics committee approval was obtained for the research (10840098-338).

Data analysis

The data were analyzed using the IBM SPSS 20 software. Data on age, marital status, education status and department in which the participant works were given as frequency and percentage. Descriptive analysis on individualism-collectivism, communication skills and conflict management styles were given as mean, standard deviation, median, minimum-maximum values. Mann-Whitney-U test was used to determine if the individualism-collectivism, communication skills and conflict management style of the head nurses, supervisor nurses and staff nurses differ from each other. Linear regression stepwise method was used to evaluate the relationship between variables. The internal consistency of the scales was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The level of statistical significance was considered as $p < 0.05$.

Results

The mean age of all nurses in the study was 36.87 ± 8.87 (min=23, max=61) years. The mean time spent in the profession was 15.1 ± 9.92 (min=1, max=41) years, the mean time spent at the institution was 13.17 ± 9.92 (min=1, max=40) years. Of all the nurses, 93.96% (n=257) were female, 72.5% (n=201) were staff nurses, and 27.5% (n=73) were nurse managers. Supervisor nurses comprised 7.5% of all participants, and head nurses constituted 20%.

According to the nurse managers' own evaluations, there was no statistically significant difference between the conflict management styles, communication skills, and individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers ($p > 0.05$) (Table 1a). When the differences between the communication skills and individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers and staff nurses' own evaluations were investigated, the mean (SD) of HI values of nurse managers 37.77 (4.47) was lower than the mean HI scores of staff nurses 39.37 (5.02) ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1b). A comparison was made to identify whether there were any differences between the head nurses' own conflict management style and staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses. There were statistically significant differences between IN, OB, and CO styles of conflict management styles ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1c). A comparison was made to identify whether there were any differences between supervisor nurses' own conflict management style and staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses. Supervisor nurses reported that they used OB ($p < 0.05$) and AV ($p < 0.01$) styles less than staff nurses' evaluations (Table 1d). According to the staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of nurse managers, it was investigated whether there were any differences between the conflict management styles of head nurses and supervisor nurses. A statistically significant difference was found in all conflict management styles ($p < 0.05$). According

to the staff nurses' perceptions, head nurses used IN, OB, AV, and CO styles less than supervisor nurses, and DO style more than supervisor nurses (Table 1e).

Nurse manager' VI value and communication skills are significant predictors of IN conflict management style ($R=0.644$; $R\text{ Square}=0.415$; $F(1-72)=24.822$, $p<0.001$). Nurse managers' HI value is a significant predictor of OB conflict management style ($R=0.382$; $R\text{ Square}=0.146$; $F(1-72)=12.113$, $p=0.001$). Nurse managers' VI values and communication skills are significant predictors of DO conflict management styles ($R= 0.423$; $R\text{ Square}=0.179$; $F(1-72)=7.644$, $p=0.001$). Nurse managers' HC value is a significant predictor of AV conflict management style ($R= 0.301$; $R\text{ Square}= 0.091$; $F(1-72)=7.089$, $p=0.010$). Nurse managers' VC values and communication skills are significant predictors of CO conflict management style ($R= 0.482$; $R\text{ Square}= 0.232$; $F(1-72)=21.500$, $p<0.001$) (Table 2).

Staff nurses' HC and VI values are significant predictors of IN conflict management style towards head nurses ($R= 0.277$; $R\text{ Square}= 0.077$; $F(1-191)=7.866$, $p=0.001$). Staff nurses' VC and VI values are significant predictors of OB conflict management style towards head nurses ($R= 0.260$; $R\text{ Square}= 0.067$; $F(1-191)=6.826$, $p=0.001$). Staff nurses' VC and VI values are significant predictors of AV conflict management style towards head nurses ($R=0.253$; $R\text{ Square}=0.064$; $F(1-191)=6.471$, $p=0.002$). Staff nurses' HC, VI values and communication skills are significant predictors of CO conflict management style towards head nurses ($R=0.272$; $R\text{ Square}=0.074$; $F(1-191)=5.010$, $p=0.002$). Staff nurses individualism-collectivism values and communication skills were not related with DO conflict management style towards head nurses (Table 3).

Table 1. Comparison of the differences between conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills (n=274)

Table 2a	Supervisor nurses' own evaluations					Head nurses' own evaluations					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	29.09	2.54	29.00	24.00	35.00	30.00	2.75	29.00	27.00	35.00	-1.329	.188
Obliging	20.62	2.40	20.00	12.00	26.00	21.05	2.63	21.00	17.00	25.00	-.662	.510
Dominating	12.57	3.05	13.00	5.00	18.00	12.55	2.72	13.00	8.00	17.00	.021	.984
Avoiding	16.64	3.54	16.00	9.00	24.00	16.05	2.98	16.50	10.00	21.00	.663	.510
Compromise	14.55	1.59	15.00	11.00	19.00	15.15	1.63	15.00	12.00	18.00	-1.436	.155
Communication skill	101.04	9.55	100.00	87.00	121.00	104.20	9.90	101.50	89.00	125.00	-1.250	.211
Horizontal collectivist	39.11	4.17	39.00	29.00	47.00	39.75	4.47	39.50	33.00	48.00	-.571	.570
Vertical collectivist	35.66	4.48	36.00	26.00	45.00	36.15	3.25	36.00	30.00	42.00	-.446	.657
Horizontal individualist	38.15	4.48	38.00	30.00	48.00	36.75	4.41	38.00	27.00	44.00	1.197	.235
Vertical individualist	22.92	4.80	23.00	12.00	34.00	22.85	4.06	23.50	16.00	29.00	.062	.951
Table 2b	Nurse managers' own evaluations					Staff nurses' own evaluations					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Communication skill	101.90	9.68	100.00	87.00	125.00	101.65	11.12	100.00	57.00	125.00	0.303	.762
Horizontal collectivist	39.29	4.23	39.00	29.00	48.00	38.99	4.78	39.00	22.00	50.00	-0.198	.843
Vertical collectivist	35.79	4.16	36.00	26.00	45.00	35.14	4.70	35.00	19.00	45.00	-0.926	.354
Horizontal individualist	37.77	4.47	38.00	27.00	48.00	39.37	5.02	40.00	26.00	50.00	-2.567	.010
Vertical individualist	22.90	4.58	23.00	12.00	34.00	23.36	5.10	23.00	9.00	39.00	-0.530	.596
Table 2c	Head nurses' own conflict management styles					Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses					Difference	
Variables	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	30.00	2.75	29.00	27.00	35.00	23.19	7.65	24.50	7.00	35.00	-4.054	<.001
Obliging	21.05	2.63	21.00	17.00	25.00	17.87	5.99	18.00	6.00	30.00	-2.419	.016
Dominating	12.55	2.72	13.00	8.00	17.00	13.85	4.53	14.00	5.00	25.00	-1.381	.167
Avoiding	16.05	2.98	16.50	10.00	21.00	17.00	4.29	17.00	6.00	30.00	-1.042	.297
Compromise	15.15	1.63	15.00	12.00	18.00	12.30	3.56	13.00	4.00	20.00	-3.785	<.001

Table 2d Variables	Supervisor nurses' own conflict management styles					Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses					Difference	
	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	29.09	2.54	29.00	24.00	35.00	27.63	6.07	28.00	7.00	53.00	-1.190	.234
Obliging	20.62	2.40	20.00	12.00	26.00	21.32	4.53	22.00	6.00	30.00	-2.147	.032
Dominating	12.57	3.05	13.00	5.00	18.00	12.80	4.02	13.00	5.00	25.00	-.055	.956
Avoiding	16.64	3.54	16.00	9.00	24.00	18.20	3.94	18.00	6.00	30.00	-2.671	.008
Compromise	14.55	1.59	15.00	11.00	19.00	14.29	2.89	15.00	4.00	20.00	-.109	.913

Table 2e Variables	Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of supervisor nurses					Staff nurses' perceptions of conflict management style of head nurses					Difference	
	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Median	Min.	Max.	Z	p
Integrative	27.63	6.07	28.00	7.00	53.00	23.19	7.65	24.50	7.00	35.00	-5.551	<.001
Obliging	21.32	4.53	22.00	6.00	30.00	17.87	5.99	18.00	6.00	30.00	-5.813	<.001
Dominating	12.80	4.02	13.00	5.00	25.00	13.85	4.53	14.00	5.00	25.00	-2.549	.011
Avoiding	18.20	3.94	18.00	6.00	30.00	17.00	4.29	17.00	6.00	30.00	-2.716	.007
Compromise	14.29	2.89	15.00	4.00	20.00	12.30	3.56	13.00	4.00	20.00	-5.603	<.001

Table 2: The relationship between nurse managers' conflict management styles, individualism-collectivism values, and communication skills (n=73)

Models		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model ^a	(Constant)	10.842	2.972			3.648	0.001	4.909	16.775		
	Vertical individualism	0.170	0.058	0.299		2.949	0.004	0.055	0.286	0.807	1.239
	Communication skill	0.135	0.031	0.499		4.367	<0.001	0.073	0.196	0.636	1.572
Model ^b	(Constant)	10.636	3.237			3.285	0.002	4.174	17.098		
	Horizontal individualism	-0.147	0.067	-0.268		-2.204	0.031	-0.280	-0.014	0.754	1.327
	Communication skill	-0.119	0.041	-0.391		-2.904	0.005	-0.201	-0.037	0.636	1.572
Model ^c	(Constant)	10.037	3.948			2.542	0.013	2.156	17.917		
	Vertical individualism	0.198	0.077	0.308		2.577	0.012	0.045	0.351	0.807	1.239
	Communication skill	-0.119	0.041	-0.391		-2.904	0.005	-0.201	-0.037	0.636	1.572
Model ^d	(Constant)	7.348	4.738			1.551	0.126	-2.108	16.805		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.240	0.110	0.299		2.172	0.033	0.019	0.460	0.659	1.517
	Communication skill	0.044	0.021	0.264		2.054	0.044	0.001	0.087	0.636	1.572
Model ^e	(Constant)	7.235	2.065			3.504	0.001	3.113	11.356		
	Vertical collectivism	0.154	0.051	0.397		3.001	0.004	0.051	0.256	0.602	1.662
	Communication skill	0.044	0.021	0.264		2.054	0.044	0.001	0.087	0.636	1.572

^aDependent: Nurse managers' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Nurse managers' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Nurse managers' dominating conflict management style

^dDependent: Nurse managers' avoiding conflict management style

^eDependent: Nurse managers' compromising conflict management style

VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of IN conflict management style towards supervisors (R=0.184; R Square=0.034; F(1-191)=6.695, p=0.010). Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of OB conflict management style towards supervisors (R=0.167; R

Square=0.028; $F(1-191)=5.466$, $p=0.020$). Staff nurses' VI values are significant predictors of DO conflict management style towards supervisors ($R=0.211$; $R\text{ Square}=0.044$; $F(1-191)=8.813$, $p=0.003$). Staff nurses' HC values are significant predictors of CO conflict management style towards supervisors ($R= 0.145$; $R\text{ Square}= 0.021$; $F(1-191)=4.079$, $p=0.045$). Staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills were not related to AV conflict management style perception towards supervisors (Table 4).

Table 3: Relationships between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills (n=201)

Models ¹		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model ^a	(Constant)	23.137	5.982			3.868	<0.001	11.337	34.938		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.308	0.146	0.192		2.111	0.036	0.020	0.595	0.585	1.711
	Vertical individualism	-0.305	0.112	-0.203		-2.711	0.007	-0.526	-0.083	0.863	1.159
Model ^b	(Constant)	17.834	4.689			3.803	<0.001	8.583	27.084		
	Vertical collectivism	0.239	0.118	0.187		2.023	0.045	0.006	0.471	0.566	1.766
	Vertical individualism	-0.199	0.088	-0.170		-2.264	0.025	-0.373	-0.026	0.863	1.159
Model ^c	(Constant)	15.645	3.396			4.607	<0.001	8.946	22.344		
	Vertical collectivism	0.175	0.085	0.191		2.043	0.042	0.006	0.343	0.566	1.766
	Vertical individualism	-0.140	0.064	-0.167		-2.201	0.029	-0.266	-0.015	0.863	1.159
Model ^d	(Constant)	13.142	2.807			4.682	<0.001	7.605	18.679		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.131	0.068	0.176		1.915	0.057	-0.004	0.266	0.585	1.711
	Vertical individualism	-0.113	0.053	-0.162		-2.136	0.034	-0.217	-0.009	0.863	1.159
	Communication skills	-0.067	0.026	-0.210		-2.581	0.011	-0.119	-0.016	0.743	1.346

¹There was no relationship between the individualism-collectivism values and communication skills of head nurses and the dominating conflict management style of head nurses.

^aDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' avoiding conflict management style

^dDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' compromising conflict management style

Table 4: Relationships between staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills (n=201)

Models ²		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Model ^a	(Constant)	11.040	7.865			1.404	.162	-4.477	26.556		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.438	0.192	0.215		2.288	.023	0.060	0.816	0.585	1.711
Model ^b	(Constant)	11.795	6.020			1.959	.052	-0.081	23.672		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.290	0.147	0.186		1.980	.049	0.001	0.580	0.585	1.711
Model ^c	(Constant)	10.030	4.248			2.361	.019	1.650	18.409		
	Vertical individualism	0.219	0.080	0.211		2.748	.007	0.062	0.377	0.863	1.159
Model ^d	(Constant)	7.590	3.962			1.916	.057	-0.227	15.407		
	Horizontal collectivism	0.190	0.097	0.185		1.966	.051	-0.001	0.380	0.585	1.711

²There was no relationship between the individualism-collectivism values of staff nurses and the perception of the avoiding conflict management style of the supervisor nurses for communication skills.

^aDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' integrating conflict management style

^bDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' obliging conflict management style

^cDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' dominating conflict management style

^dDependent: Staff nurses' perceptions of supervisor nurses' compromising conflict management style

Discussion

In our study, the conflict management styles of supervisor and head nurses were mostly integrative and there were no significant differences between them. There are studies that also state that nurse managers use IN conflict management style as their first option (Al-Hamdan et al., 2011; Al-Hamdan et al., 2016; Özkan Tuncay et al., 2018). A study conducted in Indonesia found that supervisor nurses mostly used a DO conflict management style (Pratiwi, 2017). A similar study reported that majority of the nurses preferred the integrative conflict management style, followed by CO, OB, DO, and AV styles, respectively (Al-Hamdan et al., 2014). In another study conducted in Spain with nurses, it was reported that the compromising conflict management style was commonly used (Losa Iglesias & Becerro de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012).

In our study, the IN and OB conflict management styles of head nurses and OB and AV conflict management styles of supervisor nurses were perceived negatively by staff nurses. Furthermore, there were negative differences between the perception of staff nurses towards the conflict management styles of head nurses and supervisor nurses in all dimensions. In another study conducted with hospital managers and hospital employees, it was reported that there were significant differences between the conflict management styles used by hospital managers and the perception of employees; managers considered their conflict management behaviour more positively than it was perceived by employees (Kıdak et al., 2011). Nurse managers were found to first use integrating or problem-solving approaches, followed by compromising and adaptation approaches in the event of conflict (Yılmaz and Öztürk, 2011).

Similar to the differences in national cultures, differences in the sub-cultures of a country may also have a considerable effect on the conflict management behaviours of organizations (Al-Hamdan, 2009). In our study, nurse managers' individualism-collectivism values are related to the conflict management style. Nurse managers' VI values and communication skills are positively related to IN conflict management style. Conflict management styles may differ from culture to culture (Karip, 2015). For example, individualists prefer not to use IN conflict management style independently of their country of origin (Aslan et al., 2019). Komarraju et al. (2008) reported that horizontal and vertical collectivism values were positive predictors for integrating methods, and vertical individualism values were negative predictors. People with individualism values might prefer the integration style in environments where collectivism values matter because they think that solidarity, cooperation, and integration make it easier for them to reach their goals.

On the other hand, for integration, both parties express the real problem and what can be done in an honest and open way, misunderstandings are resolved through mutual communication skills and open communication, the causes of conflict are investigated and both sides have more information about each other's goals. Communication dominated by mutual trust and honesty is a precondition of this conflict management style. Understanding problems would clearly minimize the lack of communication and ease finding a solution (Johansen, 2012; Folger et al., 2013; Karip, 2015).

In our study, CO conflict management style is used more often by nurse manager as their VC values and communication skills increased. The results of our study are compatible with previous reports, showing that individualists prefer not to use a CO conflict management style (Alison, Emmers and Sommer, 2011; Aslan et al., 2019). According to Birsell et al.'s (2009) study, collectivist people tend to compromise more. People who embrace compromise style are willing to satisfy other people's needs and they might give up their own personal needs. Horizontal collectivism is the strongest predictor of compromising methods (Cai & Fink, 2002; Komarraju et al., 2008).

In our study, while DO conflict management style is used more as nurse managers' VI values increased, it is used less often as their communication skills increased. On the other hand, nurse managers use OB conflict management style less as HI values increase. The culture of VI predicts the inequality among individuals. Therefore, it can impact on the DO and AV styles of conflict management (Aslan et al., 2019). When the results of our study are considered, it might be said that people using a DO style prioritize their own needs and interests and feel little concern about the needs and interests of others. It can be considered that managers with better communication skills do not need pressure since they are more likely to use different methods. Also, they have poor communication skills because they use an oppressive method. Those with good communication skills tend not to prefer a dominating style. In a study conducted by Şahin (2010), no statistically significant relationship was found between interpersonal communication skills and DO styles and a highly positive linear relationship was present between DO styles and empathetic listening, effectiveness, and giving feedback skills.

In our study, nurse managers use AV conflict management style more often if they have higher HC values. According to the managers' self-assessment, they used an AV style, which was positively correlated with collectivist values, in agreement with the literature (Cai and Fink 2002; Kaushal and Kwantes, 2006; Komarraju et al., 2008; Oetzel and Ting-Toomey, 2003; Sternberg and Dobson, 1987; Şahin, 2010). In a similar study conducted in Turkey, it was stated that HC, VC, and HI impacted on CO and IN styles, HC influenced OB, IN styles, and also VI significantly impacted on DO and AV styles (Aslan et al., 2019). Culture can have a determining effect on the personal choice of conflict management style (Al-Hamdan et al., 2019).

In our study, staff nurses' high VI values cause them to perceive that head nurses use IN conflict management style less. Staff nurses with high VC and low VI values perceive that head nurses use OB and AV conflict management styles more. Staff nurses with high HC and low VI values use CO conflict management style more when their communication skills decrease. Moreover, staff nurses with high HC values perceive that supervisors use IN, OB and CO conflict management styles more; staff nurses with high VI values perceive that supervisors use DO conflict management style more.

Differences in cultural values also cause disparities in perception, so it is likely that nurses perceived the conflict management styles used by their managers, with whom they work, differently (Gunkel et al., 2016). People from Individualistic cultures demonstrate their preference for dominating style of conflict management more while people from collectivistic cultures less likely prefer dominating styles (Riaz et al., 2012). In another similar study, nurse managers who were older than 40 years used IN, OB and CO styles more than those younger than 40, who instead used the DO style in Jordan (Al Hamdan et al., 2016). In a different study, nurse managers tend to collaborate, compromise and accommodate more often than staff nurses (Ebrahim et al., 2014). Many nurses and nurse managers used mostly constructive conflict management styles. Nurse leaders and nurse managers play a vital role in promoting and modelling constructive conflict management, facilitating collaborative practice and effective communication within the organisation and ensuring that nurses as well as nurse managers are equipped and competent in handling conflict (Labrague et al., 2018).

Conflict is a corporate issue and is not an incipient situation. In the literature, it is emphasized that nurse managers mostly engage in constructive positive conflict management styles rather than destructive negative conflict management styles (Labrague et al., 2018). Although conflict is a subject of various studies, research on the effects of individualism-collectivism values on conflict management styles is limited. Other factors affecting nurses' conflict management styles should also be investigated.

The limitations of the study include the fact that the questionnaire was usually answered by the respondents themselves. The study was conducted in a single centre, even though it was performed in a hospital with a high number of nurses. Another limitation is that only individualism-

collectivism values were addressed in our study. A further limitation is that the “Nurse Information Form” was answered using a multiple-choice test, but a validity and confidence test was not performed for this form.

In the study, nurse managers mostly embraced the integrative conflict management style. According to their own evaluation, there were no differences between the conflict management styles, communication skills, and horizontal and vertical individualism-collectivism values of the head nurses and supervisor nurses. Also, there were negative differences between the HI values of staff nurses and nurse managers. IN, OB, AV, and CO conflict management styles used by head nurses were perceived negatively by the staff nurses.

Communication skills and the individualism-collectivism values of nurse managers are related to the conflict management style they use. Nurses' perception of the conflict management style used by their managers is related to their own individualism-collectivism values. There are negative correlations between staff nurses' perceptions of head nurses' compromising conflict management styles and staff nurses' individualism-collectivism values and communication skills. Other factors that may affect the perception of staff nurses towards nurse managers conflict management styles should also be investigated. More studies investigating the relationship between nurses' communication skills and individualism-collectivism values of their conflict management styles are needed.

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The Role of Growth and Income Per Capita on the Relationship Between Credits and Tax Revenues

Türkan Elif ARIKAN CAN¹

Introduction

Credits are an important source of input for businesses that produce products and services operating in an economic system. Credit systems in developed and developing countries are mostly carried out through banks. Due to the direct and positive contributions of this system on the economy, credits are evaluated by the state and the state decides how and under what conditions banks will give credits (Becker and Ivashina, 2014; Bianchi, 2013; Reinhart and Rogoff, 2009). While making this decision, it does not directly decide how the credits will be given, the amount or the repayment plans, but draws limits in the legal framework related to them (Begenau and Salomao, 2018; Ajello, 2016; Wooldridge, 2009; Wurgler, 2000). The main reason for this is that loans are closely related to the macroeconomic development of the country.

In the macroeconomic sense, per capita income and tax revenues have an important place in determining the level of development and economic power of a country. Tax revenues are one of the most basic revenue items of the state. In the state-citizen relationship, tax both reveals the citizenship duties of citizens and establishes a bond of belonging between the citizen and the state (Alesina et al, 2005; Allen and Gale, 2000; Klevmarken, 2000). In this respect, the tax and the economic growth caused by the tax may be evaluated with the increase in per capita income.

Credits mean providing the financial support necessary for business growth. In fact, in this respect, credits can be defined as an indicator of economic growth on a business basis. Credits, which are provided under favorable conditions and whose repayment terms are favorable for businesses, provide significant gains within the economic system. In this study, it is aimed to examine the effects of growth and per capita income on credit and tax revenues.

Methods

The data set compiled for Turkey from the World Bank Country Reports database was used in the research. Research parameters and series were given as in the below:

- DCPSB: Domestic credit to private sector by banks (% of GDP)-FD.AST.PRVT.GD.ZS
- TR: Tax revenue (% of GDP)-GC.TAX.TOTL.GD.ZS
- PCG: GDP per capita growth (annual %)-NY.GDP.PCAP.KD.ZG-
- GDPP: GDP per capita, PPP (current international \$)-NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.CD

Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values were used to determine the descriptive statistics of the research series. Parity analysis was used to analyze the distribution of the series over time. Spearman's rho correlation analysis was used for the relationships between the

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series. All analyzes were performed in SPSS 25.0 for windows program with 95% confidence interval.

Results

The distribution of bank credit rates, tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income series over time were given in Table 1.

Table 1. The distribution of bank credit rates, tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income series over time

Yıl	DCPSB	TR	PCG	GDPP
1990	16,67	11,56	7,38	8531,08
1991	17,17	12,50	-0,97	8750,57
1992	17,94	12,97	3,32	9330,79
1993	18,12	13,34	5,93	10153,75
1994	15,94	15,20	-6,18	9649,89
1995	18,49	13,98	6,18	10394,45
1996	22,83	15,20	5,69	11130,53
1997	26,30	19,05	5,89	11964,04
1998	16,77	14,67	0,81	9102,69
1999	16,20	14,67	-4,75	8774,35
2000	17,25	14,67	5,32	9628,92
2001	14,91	14,67	-7,15	9280,25
2002	14,05	14,67	4,89	9401,23
2003	14,01	14,67	4,25	9699,92
2004	16,57	14,67	8,29	10979,77
2005	21,22	14,67	7,56	12003,85
2006	24,72	14,67	5,62	13748,44
2007	28,02	14,67	3,80	14986,15
2008	30,90	17,50	-0,38	16182,48
2009	34,53	18,07	-6,03	15598,00
2010	41,60	18,86	6,92	17542,20
2011	46,16	18,57	9,51	19799,12
2012	48,73	18,11	3,09	20772,50
2013	56,72	18,36	6,66	22438,71

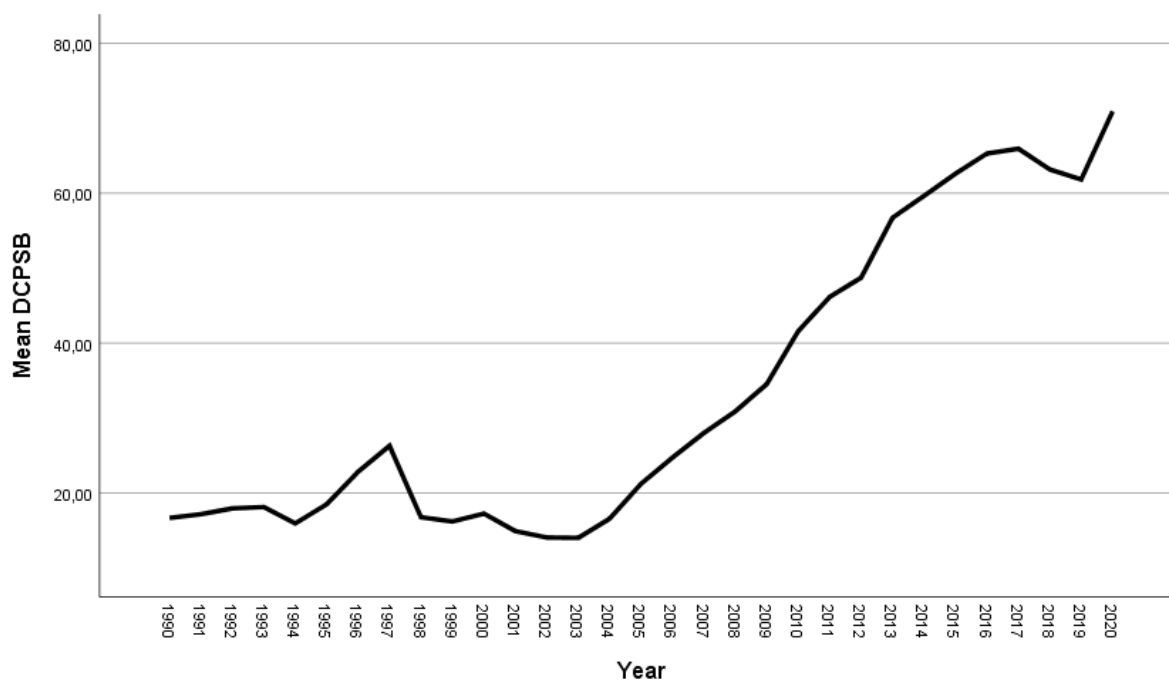
2014	59,64	17,95	3,17	24090,24
2015	62,60	18,18	4,33	25753,39
2016	65,28	18,27	1,64	26512,02
2017	65,94	17,72	5,79	27913,82
2018	63,17	17,28	1,45	27960,98
2019	61,83	16,53	-0,43	26867,47
2020	70,92	17,65	0,70	27235,43
2021			10,07	30472,38

DCPSB: Domestic credit to private sector by banks (% of GDP); TR: Tax revenue (% of GDP); PCG: GDP per capita growth (annual %); GDPP: GDP per capita, PPP (current international \$)

According to the loan rates given to the private sector by the banks between 1990-2021 in Turkey, the average value was between 14.01% and 70.92%. Tax revenue rates were between 11.56% and 19.5%, and showed a relatively less fluctuating distribution compared to banks' loan rates. Growth rates ranged from -7.15% in the 2001 crisis to 10.07% in 2021. Per capita income ranged from 8,531.08 USD to 30,472.38 USD. In general, all variables were found to have a significant irregular and fluctuating structure over time.

The change in the loan rates given by the banks to the private sector between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The change in the loan rates given by the banks to the private sector between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey



According to the data of the change in bank loans over time, apart from the decreases in the 1994, 1998-2000 and 2018 recessions, when the economic crises were experienced, a significant and serious increase was observed in the loan rates given by the banks over the years. Especially since 2003, growth has gained a serious momentum.

The change in the tax rates between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey is shown in Figure 2.

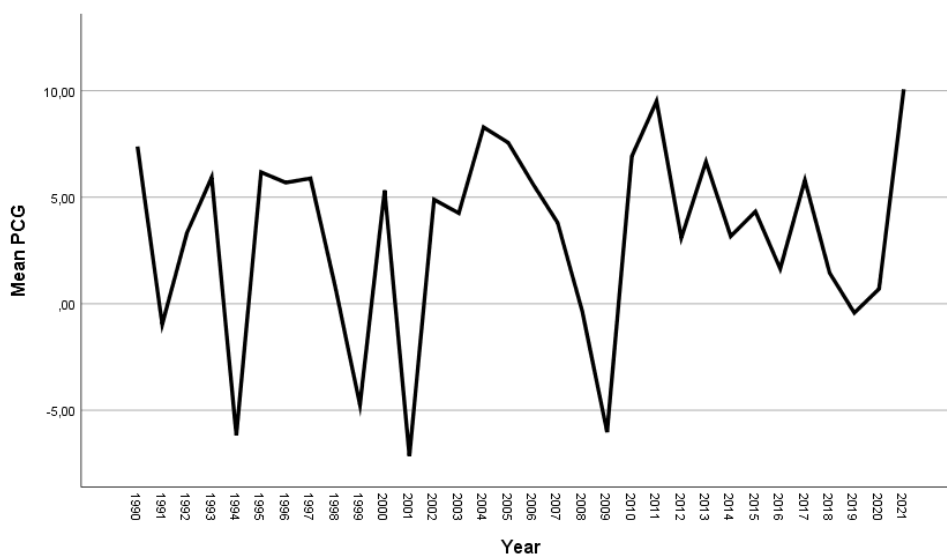
Figure 2. The change in the tax rates between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey



In tax revenue rates, apart from the decreases in 1995 and 1997, a regular increase was observed in tax revenues until 2010. Since 2010, it has entered a general downward trend, except for the years 2013, 2016 and 2020.

The change in the growth rates between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey is shown in Figure 3.

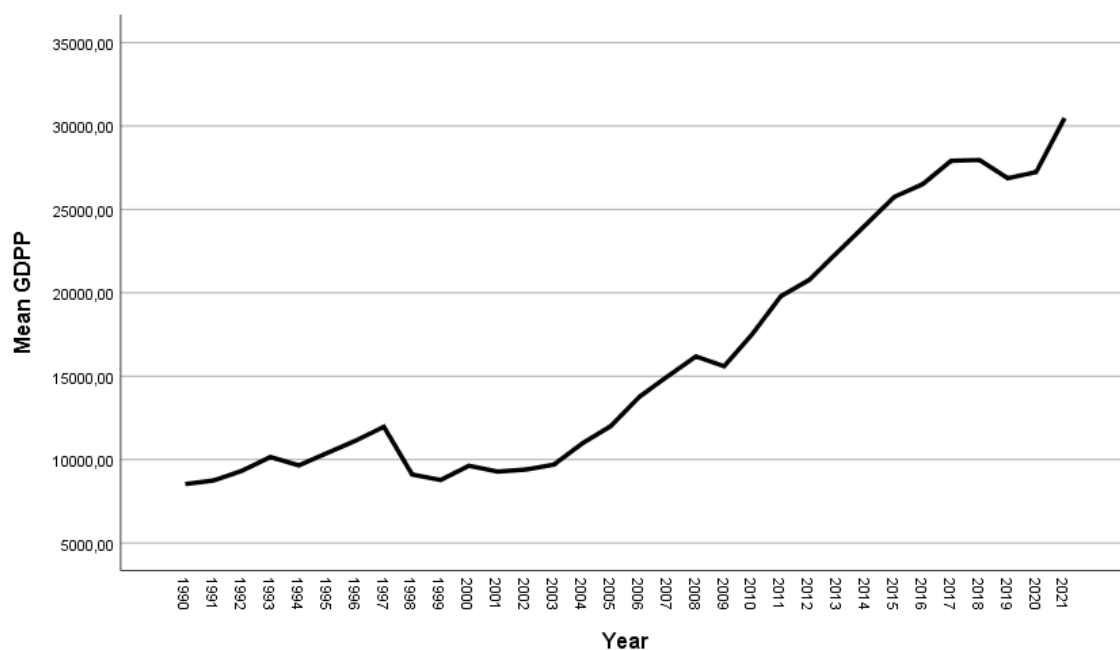
Figure 3. The change in the growth rates between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey



Although the change in the growth figures over time was uneven, only five years of negative growth took place in the examined time period, while growth rates were positive in all other years. Therefore, there was an economy that tends to grow in the examined time period.

The change in the GDP per capita between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. The change in the GDP per capita between the years 1990-2021 in Turkey



Both the increasing trend in economic growth rates and loan rates, and the change in tax revenues over time showed an economy that was constantly growing and developing within the examined time period. As a result, there was a serious upward trend in per capita income. Although there were minor fluctuations in the dates affecting the exchange rates, there was a serious improvement in per capita income in general since 1990.

Descriptive statistics of banks' loan rates, tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income variables are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of banks' loan rates, tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income variables

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
DCPSB	14,01	70,92	33,72	19,91
TR	11,56	19,05	15,92	2,11
PCG	-7,15	10,07	3,20	4,51
GDPP	8.531,08	30.472,38	16.145,29	7.416,66

DCPSB: Domestic credit to private sector by banks (% of GDP); TR: Tax revenue (% of GDP); PCG: GDP per capita growth (annual %); GDPP: GDP per capita, PPP (current international \$)

The profitability ratios of banks vary between 14.01% and 70.92%, with an average of $33.72 \pm 19.91\%$. Tax revenue rates vary between 11.56% and 19.05%, with an average value of 15.92 ± 2.11 . Growth rates vary between -7.15 % and 10.07% and have a value between 3.20 ± 4.51 .

The per capita income ranges between 8,531.08 USD and 30,472.38 USD, with an average of 16,145.29±7,416.66.

The results of Spearman's rho correlation analysis for the relationship between bank credit rates and tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income were given in Table 3.

Table 3. The results of Spearman's rho correlation analysis for the relationship between bank credit rates and tax revenue rates, growth and per capita income

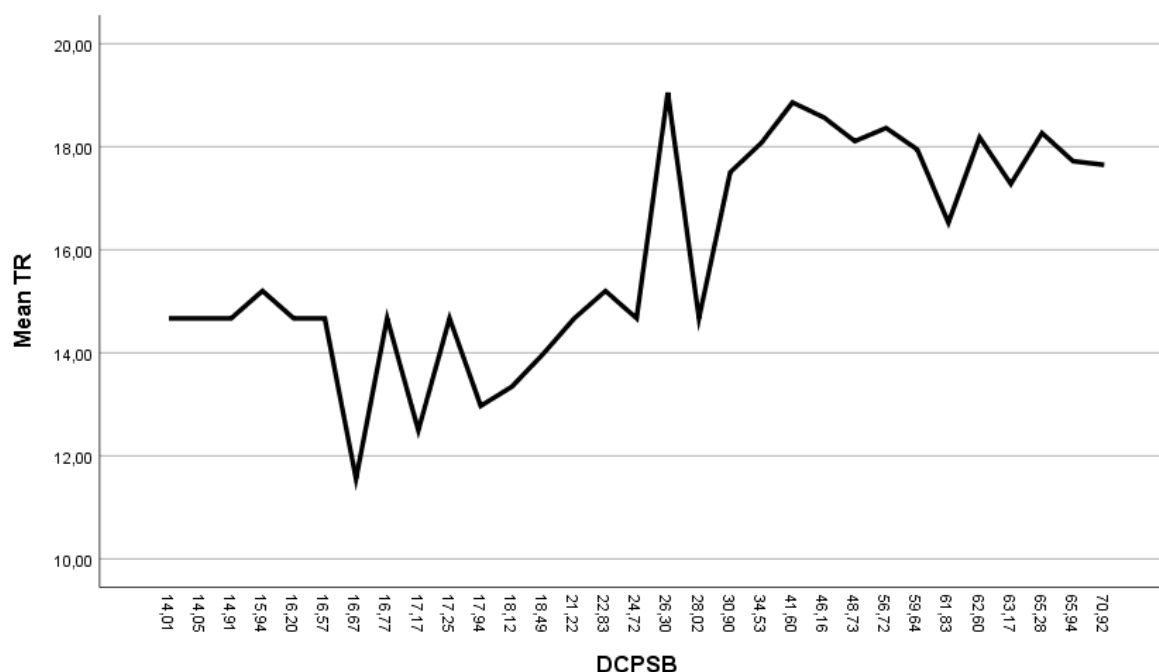
	DCPSB	
	r	p
TR	0.692**	0.000
PCG	0.035	0.850
GDPP	0.929**	0.000

**p<0.01, DCPSB: Domestic credit to private sector by banks (% of GDP); TR: Tax revenue (% of GDP); PCG: GDP per capita growth (annual %); GDPP: GDP per capita, PPP (current international \$)

According to the results of Spearman's rho correlation analysis, there was a statistically significant and positive relationship between bank loan rates and tax income rates ($r=0.692$; $p<0.01$) and per capita income ($r=0.929$; $p<0.01$). On the other hand, the relationship between growth and loan rates of banks was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$).

The relationship between bank credit rates and tax income rates was shown in Figure 5.

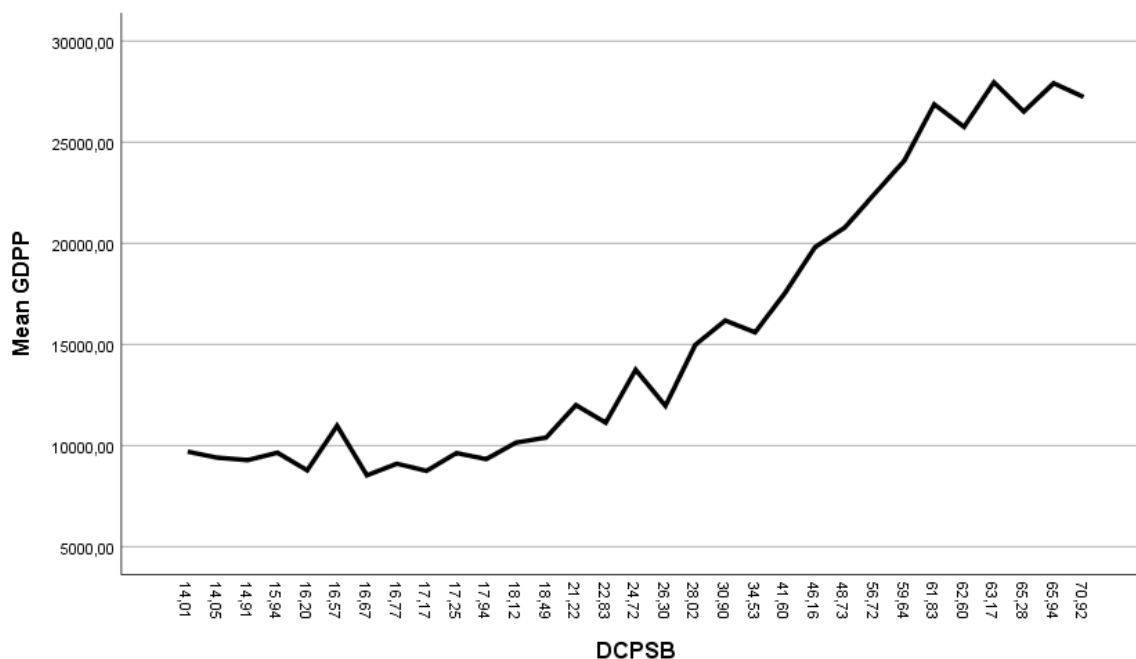
Figure 5. The relationship between bank credit rates and tax income rates



The increase in tax revenues also causes an increase in bank credit rates. It is seen that banks are more willing to lend, especially in cases where tax revenue rates are above 14%.

The relationship between bank credit rates and per capita income rates was given in Figure 6.

Figure 6. The relationship between bank credit rates and per capita income rates



There was a highly significant relationship between loans given by banks and per capita income. In the case bank credit rates exceed 28%, the rate of conversion of loans to per capita income increased significantly.

Generalized Linear Model (GLM-Logit Model) results for effects of TR, PCG and GDDP on DCPSB were given in the Table 4.

Table 4. Generalized Linear Model (GLM-Logit Model) for effects of TR, PCG and GDDP on DCPSB

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	p
(Intercept)	-15,294	4,3192	-23,759	-6,828	12,537	1	0.000
TR	,412	,3334	-,241	1,065	1,527	1	0.217
PCG	,008	,1069	-,201	,217	,006	1	0.940
GDDP	,003	9,9670E-5	,003	,003	736,743	1	0.000
(Scale)	6,628 ^a	1,6835	4,029	10,904			

Dependent Variable: DCPSB
 Model: (Intercept), TR, PCG, GDDP
 a. Maximum likelihood estimate.

GLM model results showed that only GDDP parameter (B=0,003; p<0.01) had significant effect on DCPSB. Effect of TR and PCG were insignificant (p>0.05).

Discussion

In this chapter, it was aimed to examine the effect of economic or internal growth rates and per capita incomes on the relationship between loans and tax revenues, and in this context, the effects of tax revenues, growth and per capita income on private sector loans given by banks were analyzed.

Credits are the financial tools required for businesses to make larger investments, to develop their production or service bands, and to add economic surplus value within the economic system. Thanks to loans, businesses not only increase their production and marketing activities, but also new markets and employment areas emerge. In terms of this feature, loans are also important macro-economically (Fiore and Uhlig, 2011; Aghion et al, 2010; Gerali et al, 2010; Ohanian, 2010; Beck et al, 2008). The increase in production and employment by using credits correctly can increase the welfare level of individuals and the income level of the whole country. In this respect, credits are not only an issue between the lending bank and the receiving business, but also an issue that affects the entire economy (Jimenes et al, 2014; Rajan and Zingales, 1998).

According to the results obtained in the research, there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between loans given by banks to private enterprises, tax revenues and per capita income. However, it was found that the relationship between growth and private sector loans directly given by banks was not significant. This situation shows that tax revenues and per capita incomes increase with the credits given by banks to the private sector, regardless of the growth level.

These relations also show that the loans given by the banks to the private sector are used in a positive way. When loans are used positively and correctly, they provide economic value and opportunity for growth. Thanks to economic growth, the welfare and income levels of individuals increase, so the taxes they pay also increase. This applies both to taxes on income and taxes on expenditures.

Conclusion

The results of the research show that the use of loans in general increases the income per capita, regardless of the growth level, and a significant income increase is achieved thanks to the loans. In univariate analysis, this has a positive effect on tax revenue. On the other hand, in multivariate analysis, a significant increase is seen only on per capita income. Therefore, it can be argued that the credits given by the banks to the private sector are used effectively and efficiently, turning into production and surplus economic value, but not directly reflected in the taxation process.

Credits, which concern all stakeholders in an economic system and are expected to affect economic indicators through businesses, are also an important tool of growth. While the growth takes place on a business basis with loans, the development and growth of businesses also affects internal and external stakeholders working with these businesses. In order to compete in the global markets, credits must be followed and encouraged well. However, the fact that tax revenues are not significantly affected in multivariate analysis despite the increase in per capita income also shows that there are injustices in the distribution of income obtained through credits. For this reason, this issue should be given importance in field applications and further studies, and efforts should be made to distribute the income provided by credit more equitably and to reflect this on taxation.

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The Nexus Between Energy Consumption, Environment And Economic Growth

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Zehra ATİK²

Introduction

Economic growth is one of the main goals of sustainable development; however, in order to achieve sustainable growth, environment sustainability should be taken into consideration. The environment is often negatively affected during the economic development process (Todaro & Smith, 2014). Nowadays, the globe is dealing with the finite resources together with the increasing population, the Russian Ukrainian war, as well as the environmental concerns about CO₂ emissions resulting from different economic activities which are a result of the on-going economic development (Tiba & Omri, 2017; Omri, 2014; Olabi, 2010).

Improving the economic growth requires more energy supply and consumption, and at the meanwhile, the efficient energy usage requires economic performance. On one hand, energy consumption is one of the indicators of the economic growth, and there exist four hypotheses which explain the relation between growth and energy, which are growth, feedback, neutrality, and conservative. (Omri, 2014; Tiba & Omri, 2017). On the other hand, energy supply is a crucial condition in order to achieve a sustainable development; however, it remains not sufficient since the energy consumption may result in an environmental degradation which will affect the environmental sustainability negatively through its transmission channels (Fotis, 2018).

Recently, there has been a large discussion about the energy demand, which is necessary for economic growth and their linkage with environmental quality. Many countries have begun diversifying their energy consumption mix, and this is by using clean and renewable energy such as Nuclear energy, and wind energy (Apergis N. , Payne, Menyah, & Wolde-Rufael, 2010; Fotis, 2018; Apergis & Payne, 2011). Clean and renewable energy emerges as an alternative for the CO₂ emissions and economic growth as clean energy is environment friendly (Omri, A., & Belaïd, F., 2021; Zhu, Xie, Huang, & Cao, 2020; Pilatowska & Geise, 2021; Apergis & Payne, 2014). For this reason, many countries are attempting to move to the “green economy” in order to fight the climate change (Loiseau, et al., 2016)

Scholars have explained the relation between the economic growth and the CO₂ emissions by Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) hypothesis that demonstrate CO₂ emission increases with the economic growth of a country until reaching a certain threshold and then it begins to decrease resulting in a inverted “U-shaped” curve. (Grossman & Krueger, 1991; Youssef, 2020). However, the empirical studies do not provide fully consistent outcomes which might be because of the differences in the samples and methodologies. Ozturk and Acaravci (2010) argue that there is an “N-shaped” curve relation between CO₂ emissions and the economic growth.

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This chapter provides an overview of the energy-environment-growth nexus, in three parts. The first one reviews the link between energy consumption and economic growth. The second part overviews the relationship between the energy and environment. The, the third section reviews the causality between economic growth and environment. Lastly, the overall association between the energy-growth-environment nexus is reviewed.

The link between energy consumption and economic growth

The relationship between economic growth and energy is complex and can vary depending on a number of factors. Due to the fact that most economic activity involves the production and consumption of products and services, which both require energy, economic growth is often associated with increased energy consumption. Having access to affordable and reliable energy sources is usually regarded as a key driver of economic growth since it enables businesses operate more efficiently and compete on a global scale. Additionally, the development and use of new technologies can also play a role in the relationship between economic growth and energy. For example, the adoption of renewable energy sources and more efficient energy-use technologies can help to support economic growth while reducing the overall consumption of energy.

The nexus between economic growth, energy consumption and environment are investigated heavily, since energy consumption is the critical component of the economic growth and every energy extraction and transmission method impacts the environmental quality (Stern, 2004; Solomon, 2004; Ang, 2008; Omri, 2014). The energy resources are evaluated in three categories: fossil fuels, renewable resources and nuclear resources, and fossil fuels have been the main energy source that cause great amount of emissions of greenhouse gases, which is the main reason of global warming and climate change (Demirbas, 2006; Chiari and Zecca, 2011). Although energy is a crucial input for economic growth, as it is needed to power homes, businesses, and industries, the way that conventional energy is produced and consumed have a negative significant impact on the environment and natural resources (Stern, 2004; Solomon, 2004). Accordingly, many studies reveal the causal linkage between economic growth and Co2 emissions (see Tiba and Omri, 2017). For example, with a rise of 6% from 2020, industrial and energy-related activities' CO2 emissions in 2021 hit their highest annual level ever, reaching 36.3 gigatonnes (Gt), and coal accounted for over 40% of the overall growth in this emission and natural gas and oil follows. This growth is also in line with the increase in global economic output of 5.9% (IEA, 2022).

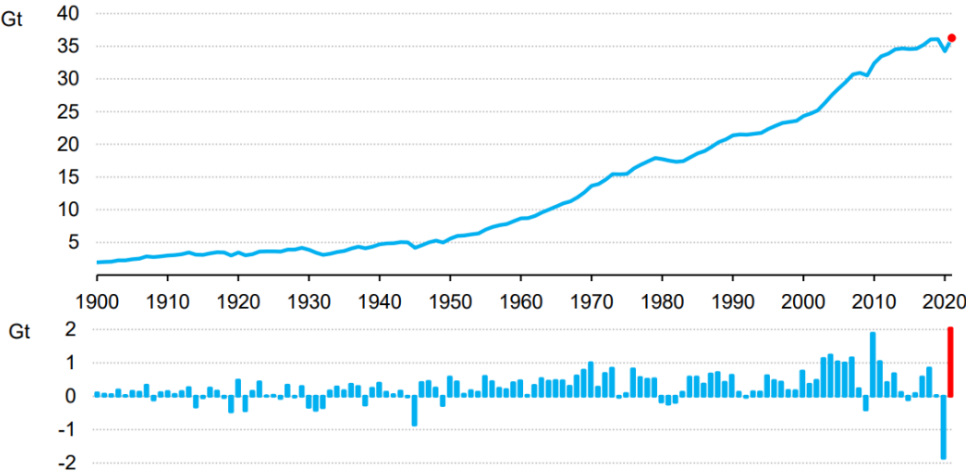


Figure 1. Total CO2 emissions from energy combustion and industrial processes and their annual change (IEA, 2022)

Because of the adverse effects of conventional energy sources such as air and water pollution, greenhouse gas emissions, and the degradation of ecosystems, the focus has shifted to clean energy and sustainable economic growth (Majeed and Luni, 2019), which often comprises searching for solutions to produce and use energy in a more sustainable way in order to minimize the negative impacts and assure that the benefits of energy use are shared equitably.

In order to achieve this the use of renewable energy sources should be intensified, such as solar and wind power, which have lower environmental impacts than fossil fuels, can be produced domestically and reduce the dependence on imported fuels (EPA, 2022). The renewable energy usage helps mitigate climate change and enhance air and water quality, which are crucial for sustainable economic growth and also provides energy security as it reduces reliance on imported fossil fuels (Owusu & Asumadu-Sarkodie, 2016). Another strategy is to increase energy use efficiency by the adoption of green technology and systems that require less energy to do a particular task, which can help to preserve natural resources and lower pollution (Miao et al., 2017).

Many studies have found that developing policies and technologies that support the transition to a low-carbon economy or green energy economy can help to promote sustainable economic growth (see Bhuiyan et al. 2022). By reducing greenhouse gas emissions and other pollutants, these policies and technologies help to protect the environment and natural resource and increase its productivity, by providing a reliable and affordable source of energy (Yan et al. 2017; Yu et al., 2021). The deployment of renewable energy also contributes economic growth by creating new economic opportunities and jobs. (IRENA, 2016; Gielen et al., 2019).

In addition, the transition to clean energy improves human welfare by providing both a climate-safe future and sustainable economic growth (UN, 2022). Furthermore, the economic growth increase also accelerates the deployment of renewable energy (Apergis and Danuletiu, 2014; Fotourehchi, 2017).

On the other hand, transitioning to renewable energy requires higher capital costs and investments in new technologies and infrastructure, creating both economic and technical challenges and barriers (Painuly and Wohlgemuth, 2021). Renewable energy sources also have negative impacts on the environment despite their significant socioeconomic and environmental advantages. The development of large-scale facilities requires a significant amount of land or water use, which can affect ecosystems and biodiversity, and cause habitat loss for plants and animals (Gasparatos et al., 2017). Moreover, due to the variable nature of these resources, renewable energy sources like wind and solar power are not constantly available (Pérez-Arriaga and Battle, 2012). Hence, in order to ensure a consistent and reliable energy supply backup systems, such as battery storage systems or fossil fuel generators must be used (Zohuri and McDaniel, 2021).

Overall, the nexus between economic growth and energy is not straightforward. Access to clean, affordable, and reliable energy is critical to sustainable economic growth, but must be provided in a manner that minimizes negative impacts and promotes social and environmental justice (Outka, 2012; Ramirez 2021).

The link between environment and economic growth

The economic growth can be explained by the increase in producing and consuming goods and services in a period of time, however, these consumption and production practices may not always be environment friendly since they cause pollutions (Orubu & Omotor, 2011; Alam & Kabir, 2013). The relation between economic growth and environment is causal. On one hand, the high uncontrolled pollution rates can affect the economic growth negatively. On the other hand, the fast increase in the economic practices results in an increase in pollution (Dinda, 2004). Moreover, many have questioned whether the economic growth is the cause of the environmental

degradation, or it can participate in the environmental improvements. This led to a debate among scholars about the relation that can exist between environment and economic growth.

Many have attempt at explaining the relationship between economic growth and environment, in terms of pollution through the EKC hypothesis (Apergis & Ozturk, 2015; Azam & Khan, 2016; Grossman & Krueger, 1991; Stern, 2004; Shahbaz & Dube, 2012). Panayotou (1993) was the first to call the relation between the CO₂ emissions and economic growth as the environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) which is about relation between income per capita and income inequality which was first explained by Kuznets (1955). The EKC states that there is an inverted “U-shaped” relationship between the economic growth and the environment. When a country is in the industrialization process, pollution increases which leads to an environmental degradation. However, when the incomes rise up to certain level, people become more aware of the environmental issues. As a result, the pollution will decrease since people and policy makers will care more about it than in the early stages of the industrialization (Stern, 2004; Dinda, 2004; Azam & Khan, 2016; Alam & Kabir, 2013). Hence, this hypothesis indicates that the economic growth reduces the environmental degradations resulted from the economic practices (Apergis & Ozturk, 2015). Some studies showed that income elasticity plays a role when it comes to the explanation of the relation between income and environmental improvements (Panayotou, 1993). According to this explanation, the demand for clean environment will increase, which will reduce pollution emissions. This implies that when people get richer, they will be more will care more about a clean environment, and then demand more of eco-friendly goods. Hence, this makes the environmental quality as a luxury good (Dinda, 2004).

Grossman and Krueger (1991) argue that the economic growth impacts the environmental quality through three components, “scale effects”, “composition effect”, and “technological effect” (Grossman & Krueger, 1991). The “scale effect” has been found to have a negative effect on the environment, in such a way that, more energy resources are used when more output is produced which results in more emissions and pollutions. These amounts of emissions occur at the early stages of development, where the economy moves from agriculture to industrialization (Torrás & Boyce, 1998; Grossman & Krueger, 1991). With the shift from industrialization to the service sector, economic growth begins to have a positive impact on the environment which is explained by the “composition effect”. The last effect is the “technological effect”, which denotes a positive impact on the environment. When the income increases, there will be a transition to cleaner technologies. In conclusion, the negative effect that the “scale effect” has on the environment will be replaced by the positive impacts that “technological” and “composition” effects have on the environment (Bilgili, Koçak, & Bulut, 2016; Vukina, Beghin, & Solakoglu, 1999).

Although the EKC hypothesis has been validated by many studies (Farhani, Mrizak, Chaibi, & Rault, 2014; Apergis & Ozturk, 2015), some studies do not support it (Lee & Lee, 2009). Additionally, some scholars argue that CO₂ emissions are not the only factor hindering environmental sustainability. In the same aspect, Alam and Kabir (2013) consider eco-efficiency measures are as important as the pollution ones. On the other hand, the increasing population together with the food security goal put a pressure on the agri-food systems. For this reason, the agricultural sector, despite its importance when it comes to food security, became one of the main sources for higher amounts of greenhouse gas emissions such as methane and nitrous oxide compared to the energy and manufacturing sectors (Yeni, 2018).

The link between energy and environment

The generation and consumption of energy have substantial impacts on the environment since they cause air and water pollution, the emission of greenhouse gases, and climate change. Combustion of fossil fuels such as coal, oil and natural gas releases carbon dioxide, sulphur dioxide

and nitrogen oxide into the atmosphere, which trap heat and cause the global mean surface temperature to rise (Stojceticovic et al, 2016).

Since the start of the industrial period, carbon dioxide concentrations have significantly increased; from an annual average of 280 ppm in the late 1700s to 414 ppm in 2021, an increase of 48 percent and the human activities are responsible for almost all of this increase. Due to agriculture and the usage of fossil fuels, the concentration of methane, which are responsible for the ozone layer's thinning, has more than doubled since preindustrial era, reaching over 1,800 ppb in recent years. Accordingly, between 1979 and 2020, the total amount of ozone in the atmosphere dropped by more than 4% (IPCC 2022, EPA, 2022). The mean global temperature on Earth has increased by at least 1.1° Celsius (1.9° Fahrenheit) since 1880, and the majority of the warming has occurred since 1975, at a rate of roughly 0.15 to 0.20°C per decade (NASA, 2022). Furthermore, these emissions cause Arctic sea ice to melt, a rise in sea level, a decrease in biodiversity, and more frequent and severe extreme weather events such as heatwaves, droughts, more severe storms and floods by leading to climate change (Choudhary et al., 2021; World Bank, 2020; NSIDC, 2022).

Due to the damage of traditional energy sources to the environment and the Earth, the world has turned to renewable energy sources, such as solar, wind, and hydro power, and they are increasingly being considered as the future of energy production. The deployment of renewable energy sources reduces reliance on fossil fuels and yield more sustainable energy. As proved by several studies that the use of renewable energy sources lowers CO₂ emissions, renewable energy technologies, like wind turbines and solar panels, provide energy without releasing greenhouse gases, and can thus be crucial in lowering our carbon footprint, environmental degradation and fighting against climate change (Bölük & Mert, 2015; Dogan & Seker, 2016; Bilgili et al., 2016; Jebli, 2016). Furthermore, because they can provide more energy per unit of land or water than fossil fuels, renewable energy sources are often more efficient than these sources. As a result, they can be employed more effectively to fulfil the rising global demand for energy. In addition, shifting to more energy-efficient appliances and vehicles can help us consume less energy and produce fewer greenhouse gas emissions (Panwar et al., 2011; Rasool et. Al, 2022; IRENA, 2022).

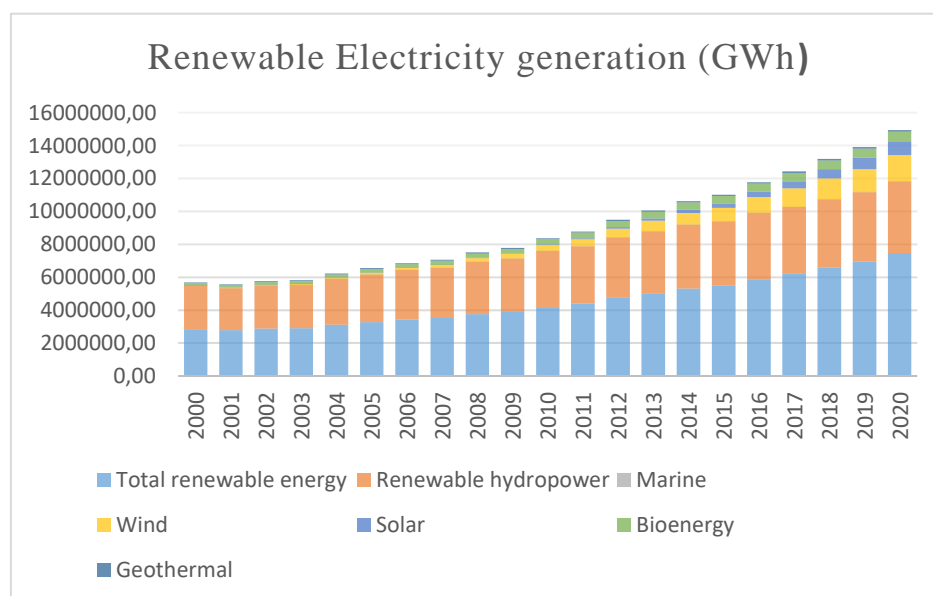


Figure 2. Renewable electricity generation (IRENA, 2022)

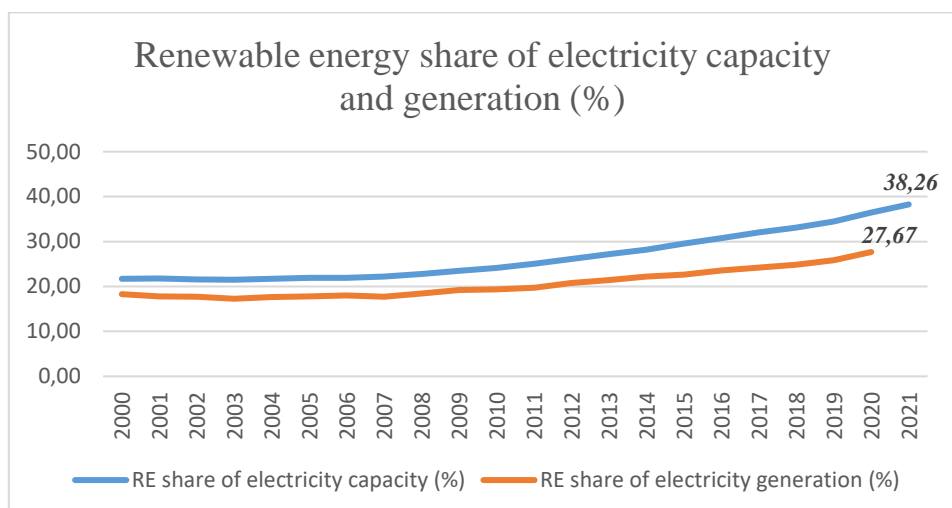


Figure 3. Renewable energy share of electricity capacity and generation (%) (IRENA, 2022)

Although the use of clean energy sources is an important determinant in reducing environmental pollution, it also has negative environmental effects. Wind turbines, for example, cause bird and bath deaths, noise, shadow flicker and electromagnetic interference, solar power plants, on the other hand, can release chemical to air and water, and also require a significant amount of water use. Hydropower plants can create flooding, land destruction; destroy plant life and river animals through dams. While biomass is carbon-neutral, using animal and human waste increases the amount of methane emissions in the atmosphere, and the burning of wood and other natural resources is also harmful. Additionally, it may cause deforestation (Gasparatos et al., 2017; Halkos and Gkampoura, 2020; Moorman et al., 2019). However, compared to conventional ways of generating energy, the adverse effects of renewable energy sources are negligible.

The energy, environment, and growth nexus

Energy consumption has been seen as a crucial component of the economic growth process of countries. For this reason, it is important to find the type of the causality relation between energy and economic growth. Kraft and Kraft (1978) were the first to examine the relationship between energy consumption and economic growth in the United States. In this study it has been found that the causality runs from GNP to energy consumption, and since then many studies related to the causality between economic growth and energy consumption have been conducted (Omri, 2014; Kraft & Kraft, 1978).

The relationship between energy, growth, and environment lies in the fact that the economic growth needs a great consumption of energy which can harm the environment. Nevertheless, a good economic performance is needed in order for the energy to be used efficiently (Ang, 2008). An increase in the energy demand is experienced in line with the positive economic growth (Aslam, Herodotou, Mohsin, Javaid, Ashraf, & Aslam, 2021). However, the rise in the energy demand may create an energy crisis and some environmental concerns since energy production is responsible for CO₂ emissions (Shahbaz & Dube, 2012; Ozturk; Zeshan & Ahmed, 2013). All these environmental concerns about the CO₂ emissions resulted from the energy consumption led to the emergence of the clean and renewable energy (Islam, Sohag, Hammoudeh, Mariev, & Samargandi, 2022; Ramzan, Raza, Usman, Sharma, & Iqbal, 2022). For this reason, clean and renewable energies emerge as a good alternative in order to achieve a sustainable economic growth without harming the environment.

The relation between energy consumption and economic growth was explained by four hypotheses, growth hypothesis, conservation hypothesis, feedback hypothesis, and neutrality

hypothesis (Apergis & Payne, 2014; Apergis N. , Payne, Menyah, & Wolde-Rufael, 2010; Kraft & Kraft, 1978). Growth hypothesis emphasizes that a rise in energy consumption has a positive impact on the economic growth. So, following this hypothesis, reducing the consumption of energy through a policy can negatively affect the growth. The second hypothesis, conservation hypothesis, states that a reduction in the consumption of energy does not have a negative impact on the economy. Coming to the third hypothesis, feedback hypothesis, it states that there is a both direction causal relationship between energy consumption and growth. The last hypothesis, neutrality hypothesis, claims that there is no causal relation between energy consumption and economic growth (Apergis & Payne, 2014; Apergis N. , Payne, Menyah, & Wolde-Rufael, 2010)

Renewable energy emerged as an alternative for the fossil fuel energy, and it can play a crucial role in achieving the sustainable development growth while not harming the environment (Birol, 2006; Apergis & Payne, 2011). Apergis et al. (2010) found that nuclear energy reduce the CO₂ emissions, contrary to the renewable energy which was found to not reduce CO₂ emissions and this is in the short time. Yet, the utilisation of this latter may decrease the price volatility of oil and natural gas. In the same aspect, Omri & Belaïd (2021) found that renewable energy impacts both economic growth and the human development in terms of education, health, and poverty. Narayan & Doytch (2017) claimed that there is a “neutrality” relation between renewable energy and economic growth for low, middle, and high income countries.

Conclusion

Energy consumption is the fundamental input for the economic growth which result in an environmental degradation and climate change. In the literature the link between economic growth and environment is depicted as inverted “U shape” and explained by the EKC hypothesis. While the use of energy causes environmental pollution until the economic growth reaches a certain level, environmental awareness awakens with the increase in the level of economic welfare. With the urgent call of the world due to climate change, the search for clean and sustainable energy has accelerated, since the world experiences global warming, melting glaciers, a rise in sea level, a decrease in biodiversity, heatwaves, droughts, severe storms and floods. Hence, acting quickly in transitioning to clean energy sources and gree is crucial for the long-term energy security, sustainable economic growth, national resilience and sustainable future. Otherwise, in order to maintain the global economic production level, traditional energy usage will continue, causing irreversible adverse effects on Earth. Accordingly, United Nations has set The Sustainable Development Goals; EU policies have established ambitious goals to accelerate the transition to sustainable energy, and has launched REPowerEU actions. International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA, 2022) has declared the share of renewable energy in electricity generation must increase to 65% by 2030 and, an annual reduction of 37 gigatons of CO₂ emissions by 2050.

Overall, transition to renewable energy sources is essential to reduce the environmental impact of economic growth, as many studies show that the use of renewable energy sources lowers CO₂ emissions. Thus, governments should implement efficient policies to promote investment in renewable energy sources and clean technologies to provide a sustainable, prosperous, and climate-safe future.

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Cultural Intelligence Level of Preparatory School Students Studying English At the University

Süleyman GÜN¹

Introduction

Every person in any community possesses and follows certain motives of behaviors, ideas, feelings, needs, beliefs which are not separate from social values and dynamics of society. Individuals who are born as a member of a society learn these motives through the lifetime both consciously and unconsciously via family, relatives, friends, school, work, and interaction with all factors of their community. In relation to this discussion, Broughton et al. (1980: 30) express that “From babyhood onwards, everybody starts (and never ceases) to learn how to communicate effectively and how to respond to other people’s communications.” Each person is born into a unique cultural setting that characterize the society and this cultural setting has a range of effects on how individuals live. Since culture is a concept that affects the personality of each individual in the society, many factors have been associated with culture and the concept of culture has been defined by different disciplines from different perspectives.

The term ‘culture’ goes back to the Latin source and referred to ‘*cultura*’ meaning the cultivation of the land and taking care of the fauna and flora (Risager, 2012). With the semantic expansion of the word throughout the history, the word culture later turned into the meaning of cultivation of the mind and soul and today, it is perceived as a collective feature of society in the modern sense (Gün, 2021). Underlining the relationship of culture to individuals Hofstede and Hofstede (2005: 3-4) define culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others”. As emphasized in this definition, it is seen that culture is the set of features that make societies different from other societies and enable individuals to belong to that society. Because of this feature, culture can provide cultural enrichment by making societies unique, and sometimes it can cause communication problems and conflicts between different people, groups, and nations. Culture is an umbrella term and “it is divided into visible culture and invisible culture. In the visible culture appears everything that is physically done by human beings, on the other hand in invisible culture appears social beliefs, religions and mental norms” (Tokgöz Gün, & Özkartal, 2020: 2882) as illustrated in the cultural iceberg analogy in Figure 1.

¹ Dr, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University,

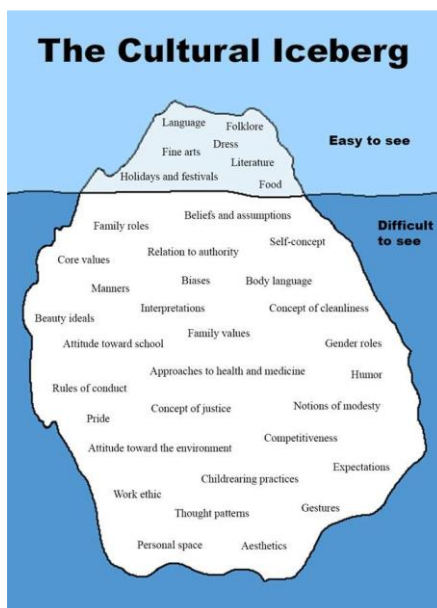


Figure 1. The cultural iceberg model (The Cultural Iceberg, 2014)

“Culture encompasses religion, food, what we wear, how we wear it, our language, marriage, music, what we believe is right or wrong, how we sit at the table, how we greet visitors, how we behave with loved ones, and a million other things” (De Rossi: 2015: para. 1). One of the elements that has a sound relation with culture is language and in order to emphasize this relationship, language and culture are resembled to the two sides of a coin (Nault, 2006: 14). Regarding language as a tool of communication Byram (1988) states that language cannot be learned and taught separate from culture.

Byram (1988) claims that language is regarded as a tool of communication, and so it cannot be taught separate from culture and with the increasing body of research studies in the 20th and 21st centuries, the number of studies and scholars focusing on the relationship between language and culture increased in number. For this reason, culture is accepted as one of the basic elements in the target language learning and teaching processes, and the cultural perception levels of individuals have become a phenomenon that can be measured as cultural intelligence, like the concepts of cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence.

Cultural Intelligence

The term intelligence is not a new one and defined several times by various scholars. Intelligence is briefly defined as “the ability to adapt oneself to circumstance” (Binet & Simon, 1905: 197), and intelligence is seen as a problem-solving ability (Bingham, 1937). Intelligence was also described as “a global concept that involves an individual's ability to act purposefully, think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment” (Wechsler, 1958: 7). According to another definition by (Gardner & Hatch, 1989: 5), intelligence is “the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting.” Similarly, cultural intelligence or cultural quotient (CQ) was first developed by Earley and Ang (2003: 59) and CQ was described as “a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts.” CQ refers to the ability or capacity of an individual to behave and manage successfully in culturally diverse contexts and effectively adapt to cross-cultural settings (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Livermore, 2013). CQ is not related to the ability or capacity just in one single culture, instead it is the capabilities that make it possible to behave effectively in different cultural environments and in this situation CQ is culture-free (Némethová, 2014). Cultural intelligence is related to globalization, cross-cultural interactions

and intercultural communication. Some individuals are good at cultural issues and cross-cultural situations and feel more comfortable in intercultural relations, and it can be said that these people have high cultural intelligence levels but it is possible to increase cultural intelligence level through instruction (Kiraz, 2021). According to the theoretical framework, cultural intelligence is based on four dimensions; metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral intelligence. Metacognitive intelligence domain is related to awareness and control of cognitions which is required for learning and understanding information and cognitive intelligence domain is the knowledge itself. Motivational intelligence domain is the energy and willingness to use energy while behavioral intelligence domain is the action about cultural issues (Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2017).

Methodology

The main aim of this study is to examine cultural intelligence (CQ) levels of preparatory school university students studying English language and to examine the CQ scores in relation to certain demographic variables such as gender, abroad experience and having foreign friends. In relation to the aim of the study, quantitative research method was employed and a scale was administered for data collection. Quantitative research methodology is preferred to explore patterns and averages and examine the relationship between variables with the statistical analysis of numerical data as well as quantitative research findings are regarded as systematic, reliable and generalizable (Dörnyei, 2007).

This study was administered with the participation of compulsory preparatory class students at a Turkish state university during 2020-2021 academic year. The participants are university students who study English as a foreign language for one year before they start their programs of English language teaching and English language and literature in which medium of instruction is English. The population of the study was the students who accepted to participate voluntarily after taking permission from the administration of the school.

For data collection, a survey with two sections was utilized. The first part of the survey consisted of questions about demographic information such as gender, age, dual citizenship, abroad experience, knowing additional languages and having friends from other countries. The second part of the question was for the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) which was developed by Ang et al. (2007). CQS consists of 20 items in five-point Likert type between strongly disagree and strongly agree. CQS is composed of four main factors; metacognitive intelligence (4 items), cognitive intelligence (6 items), motivational intelligence (5 items), and behavioral intelligence (5 items). CQS was reported to be reliable and valid in several research studies across cultures (Ang et al., 2007; Erez & Shokef, 2008; Şahin, et al., 2013). The collected data were analyzed by using statistical analysis software program SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 25.0. With the analysis of quantitative data, frequency analysis was used to examine the socio-demographic characteristics of participants and the findings were shown on frequency distribution tables. Indicative statistics were used to examine the scores obtained from the overall and subdimensions of the CQS. In relation to the aim of the study following research questions were defined:

1. What is the general CQ degree of the university level preparatory class students of English language?
2. What are the metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral and motivational CQ degrees of the university level preparatory class students of English language?

Results and Discussion

For the statistical analysis of the data, first descriptive statistics are used to examine demographic data. The demographic data of 35 students in the study is shown in Table 1 below with frequency and percentage values:

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of participants' demographic information

	Variable	Frequency	%
Gender	Female	31	89
	Male	4	11
	Total	35	100
Abroad Experience	Yes	7	20
	No	28	80
	Total	35	100
Friends Abroad	Yes	21	60
	No	14	40
	Total	35	100

For gender variable, it is seen that 31 participants (89%) are female and 4 participants (11%) are male. Despite the fact that the number of female students is relatively large in an inhomogeneous way, it is a common situation that females outnumber males in language departments in Turkey. For abroad experience, 7 participants (20%) stated that they had been abroad for various reasons and 28 participants (80%) reported not to have abroad experience. For having friends abroad, 21 participants (60%) had friends from different countries and 14 participants (40%) didn't have friends abroad.

The first research question aimed to examine the general CQ degree of the university level preparatory class students of English language. The second research question was about the metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral and motivational CQ degrees of the participants. In order to find answer to these questions, descriptive statistic was performed and mean scores and frequency rates were calculated as presented in Table 2:

Table 2: The general CQ degree of the participants

Domains	N	M	SD	Level of CQ
Metacognitive CQ	35	4.13	.56	Sufficient
Cognitive CQ	35	3.14	.56	Partially sufficient
Motivational CQ	35	4.10	.58	Sufficient
Behavioral CQ	35	3.67	.61	Sufficient
Total CQ	35	3.71	.43	Sufficient

As the scale of CQ is composed of four factors, the mean scores of the participants are shown for each category and for total mean score together with the corresponding explanations. The participants had sufficient level of metacognitive CQ ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .56$); partially sufficient level of cognitive CQ ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .56$), sufficient level of motivational CQ ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .58$), sufficient level of behavioral CQ ($M = 3.67$, $SD = .61$). When the total mean scores of the participants were analyzed, it was found that the participants had sufficient level of total CQ ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .43$). Among the factors of CQ scale, the levels of metacognitive, motivational, behavioral factors of the participants are sufficient and only the cognitive factor is at partially sufficient level.

The second research question was about the CQ levels of participants in relation to variables of gender, abroad experience and having friends from different countries. For gender variable, the scores of the participants were calculated for female and male participants and the results were presented individually for each factor together with the frequency, mean, standard deviation and corresponding statement in Table 3:

Table 3: The CQ degrees of the participants in relation to gender variable

Domains	Gender	N	M	SD	Level of CQ
Metacognitive CQ	Female	31	4.13	.57	Sufficient
	Male	4	4.13	.60	Sufficient
Cognitive CQ	Female	31	3.12	.57	Partially sufficient
	Male	4	3.33	.41	Partially sufficient
Motivational CQ	Female	31	4.10	.61	Sufficient
	Male	4	4.05	.25	Sufficient
Behavioral CQ	Female	31	3.68	.62	Sufficient
	Male	4	3.70	.60	Sufficient
Total CQ	Female	31	3.71	.46	Sufficient
	Male	4	3.76	.20	Sufficient

As described in Table 3, the scores of participants for four factors and total CQ scores were reported according to the gender variable. For metacognitive factor scores, both female and male participants had sufficient level of metacognitive CQ and the mean score of female participants ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .57$) was the same with the mean score of male participants ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .60$). For cognitive factor scores, both female and male participants had partially sufficient level of cognitive CQ and the mean score of female participants ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .57$) was lower than the mean score of male participants ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .41$). For motivational factor scores, both female and male participants had sufficient level motivational CQ and the mean score of female participants ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .61$) was higher than the mean score of male participants ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .25$). For behavioral factor scores, both female and male participants had sufficient level of behavioral CQ and the mean score of female participants ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .62$) was lower than the mean score of male participants ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .60$). For the total mean score of CQ scale covering all four factors, both female and male participants had sufficient level of CQ and the mean score of female participants ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .46$) was lower than the mean score of male participants ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .20$). When the scores of participants were analyzed in relation to gender variable, it was reported that the levels of CQ were the same for females and males for all factors and total scores. The level of CQ was sufficient in metacognitive, motivational, behavioral and total scores of both genders while CQ level was partially sufficient in cognitive scores of both genders.

For abroad experience variable, the CQ scores of the participants were examined for the participants who had abroad experience and for the participants who didn't have abroad

experience. The scores for metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral and motivational CQ factors and total score in relation to abroad experience were illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4: The CQ degrees of the participants in related abroad experience variable

Domains	Abroad Experience	N	M	SD	Level of CQ
Metacognitive CQ	Yes	7	4.11	.50	Sufficient
	No	28	4.13	.59	Sufficient
Cognitive CQ	Yes	7	3.33	.54	Partially sufficient
	No	28	3.10	.56	Partially sufficient
Motivational CQ	Yes	7	4.20	.62	Sufficient
	No	28	4.07	.58	Sufficient
Behavioral CQ	Yes	7	3.66	.41	Sufficient
	No	28	3.69	.65	Sufficient
Total CQ	Yes	7	3.79	.39	Sufficient
	No	28	3.70	.45	Sufficient

Among the participants of the study, 7 students stated that they had been abroad before and had contact with a culture different from their own while 28 students stated that they had never been abroad and had no chance to experience a new culture in its natural setting. The scores of participants were tabulated according to abroad experience for four factors and total mean scores of CQ. For metacognitive factor scores, the participants both with and without abroad experience had sufficient level of metacognitive CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad experience ($M = 4.11$, $SD = .50$) was slightly lower than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .59$). For cognitive factor scores, the participants both with and without abroad experience had partially sufficient level of metacognitive CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad experience ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .54$) was higher than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 3.10$, $SD = .56$). For motivational factor scores, the participants both with and without abroad experience had sufficient level of motivational CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad experience ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .62$) was higher than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 4.07$, $SD = .58$). For behavioral factor scores, the participants both with and without abroad experience had sufficient level of motivational CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad experience ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .41$) was slightly lower than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .65$). For the total mean score of CQ, participants both with and without abroad experience had sufficient level of CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad experience ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .39$) was slightly higher than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .45$). Upon the analysis of participants according to the abroad experience variable, the findings showed that the levels of CQ were the same for participants with and without abroad experience for all factors and total scores. The level of CQ was sufficient in metacognitive, motivational, behavioral and total scores and partially sufficient in cognitive factor for both groups.

For having friends living abroad variable, the CQ scores of the participants were investigated for participants who have friends abroad and participants who do not have friends abroad. The scores for metacognitive, cognitive, behavioral and motivational CQ factors and total scores in relation to having friends abroad variable were shown in Table 5.

Table 5: The CQ degrees of the participants in relation to friends abroad variable

Domains	Friends Abroad	N	M	SD	Level of CQ
Metacognitive CQ	Yes	21	4.27	.51	Totally sufficient
	No	14	3.91	.59	Sufficient
Cognitive CQ	Yes	21	3.37	.46	Partially sufficient
	No	14	2.81	.53	Partially sufficient
Motivational CQ	Yes	21	4.17	.54	Sufficient
	No	14	3.99	.64	Sufficient
Behavioral CQ	Yes	21	3.70	.54	Sufficient
	No	14	3.66	.72	Sufficient
Total CQ	Yes	21	3.83	.39	Sufficient
	No	14	3.54	.45	Sufficient

When responses of the participants of the study were analyzed, it was found that 21 participants had friends abroad and they are in contact with them regularly while 14 participants did not have friends abroad. The mean scores the participants shown according to friend abroad variable. For metacognitive factor scores, the participants with abroad friends had totally sufficient level of metacognitive CQ and the participants without friends abroad had sufficient level of metacognitive CQ. The mean score of participants with friends abroad ($M = 4.27$, $SD = .51$) was higher than the mean score of participants without friends abroad ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .59$) in metacognitive factor. For cognitive factor, the participants both with and without friends abroad had partially sufficient level of metacognitive CQ and the mean score of participants with abroad friends ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .46$) was higher than the mean score of participants without friends abroad ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .53$). For motivational factor scores, the participants both with and without friends abroad had sufficient level of motivational CQ and the mean score of participants with friends abroad ($M = 4.17$, $SD = .54$) was higher than the mean score of participants without friends abroad ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .64$). For behavioral factor scores, the participants both with and without friends abroad had sufficient level of motivational CQ and the mean score of participants with friends abroad ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .54$) was higher than the mean score of participants without friends abroad ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .72$). For the total mean score of CQ, the participants both with and without friends abroad had sufficient level of CQ and the mean score of participants with friends abroad ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .39$) was higher than the mean score of participants without abroad experience ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .45$). Together with the analysis of participants according to the friends abroad variable, the findings indicated that the levels of metacognitive CQ was totally sufficient for the participants with friends abroad and sufficient for the participants without friends abroad. The cognitive CQ levels was partially sufficient for participants with and without friends abroad. The motivational CQ levels, behavioral CQ levels and total CQ levels were sufficient for participants both with and without friends abroad.

Consequently, this study aimed to examine CQ degrees of the university level preparatory class students of English language at a Turkish university. For this aim, required data were collected with the Cultural Intelligence Scale developed by Ang et al. (2007). The findings were analyzed for total scores and for four main factors; metacognitive cultural intelligence, cognitive cultural intelligence, motivational cultural intelligence and behavioral cultural intelligence. Additionally, the results for total scores and four factors were analyzed in relation to certain variables; gender, abroad experience, having friends abroad. For total mean scores of CQ, the participants had sufficient level of CQ and sufficient level of metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ while

partially sufficient level of cognitive CQ. Cognitive CQ domain was reported as the domain with the lowest mean score.

For gender variable, the mean scores of total CQ and all factors were the same for both females and males. There was no difference in the CQ levels of both genders. The level was sufficient in metacognitive, motivational, behavioral and total CQ scores for both genders and partially sufficient in cognitive CQ scores again for both genders. In the same way with general CQ levels, the cognitive domain was reported with the lowest mean scores when compared with the other domains.

For abroad experience variable, there weren't any differences in the level of CQ of participants with and without abroad experience. For abroad experience variable, it was sufficient in metacognitive domain, motivational domain, behavioral domain and total CQ while again partially sufficient in cognitive domain. The lowest mean scores were found in cognitive domain in abroad experience variable.

For having friends abroad variable, there occurred a difference in levels of the participants with and without abroad friends. The level of participants with friends abroad was totally sufficient while the level of participants without friends abroad was sufficient. The mean score of participants with friends abroad was higher than the mean score of participants without friends abroad. The level of cognitive CQ was partially sufficient while the motivational CQ, behavioral CQ and total CQ levels were sufficient for both groups.

It was clarified that metacognitive, motivational, behavioral and total CQ levels were sufficient in general for participants in relation to gender, abroad experience and having friends abroad variables while cognitive CQ level of participants were with lower mean scores and labelled partially sufficient. Referring to all findings of the study, it can be stated that the total scores of participants and the levels of CQ for metacognitive, motivational, behavioral domains and mainly the level of CQ for cognitive domain can be developed with instruction, guidance and cultural practices. As the level of cognitive domain is reported with the lowest scores, it should be developed primarily. However, since this problem situation is related to the cognition dimension, it is thought that the level of students can be increased by direct instruction. The cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence can be developed with content that can appeal to appropriate cognitive awareness to be integrated into the lessons or through direct instruction. And, it is estimated that a possible development in the cognitive dimension may also improve other metacognitive, motivational and behavioral dimensions and cause an increase in the total cultural intelligence score.

In this study, the cultural intelligence was examined with the participation of university preparatory students by using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007). Although there are limitations such as the participation of a limited number of students in the study, the consideration of a certain number of variables, and the use of quantitative data, this study is considered to be important in terms of examining the CQ levels of the relevant participants, obtaining statistical findings, encouraging more detailed further studies to be done in the future and contributing to the relevant literature.

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Pressures in the “Inability to Speak the Same Language–Otherization–Alienation” Triangle: the Case of Middle and High School Students*

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Summary

This mixed methods research aims to determine students’ and teachers’ views on the problems students in the Ministry of National Education’s (MoNE) middle and high schools experience in the student/teacher inability to speak the same language (ISSL)-otherization-alienation triangle, to interpret the obtained data, and to make suggestions accordingly on improving this situation. The main question to answer in this context is “What are students/teachers’ views regarding the students’ circumstances in the ISSL-otherization-alienation triangle?” Qualitative data are collected through in-depth interviews with 32 middle and high school students identified in the Pendik district of Istanbul and the center of Batman province; quantitative data are collected through surveys with 519 teachers in these same schools. Both students’ and teachers’ views draw attention to the facts that all students benefit from education equally without exception and that education should be in the native language, emphasizing that individuals express themselves more comfortably in their native tongue.

Introduction

Discussions have been made around concepts such as language, native language, second language, and bilingualism, and definitions have been made on these concepts. Language is defined as a system where people share feelings, thoughts, and observations using words/signs (Güneş, 2014, p. 21) and is a system of indicators denoting concepts from a linguistic perspective (Saussure, 1998). As a cultural conveyor, language has always been an interest area for education systems and seen as a means for conceiving the intended identity (Kaya and Aydın, 2013, p. 6). Language is a “condition” related to human existence (Beşikçi, 2015, p. 17). One’s native language is the one a person can best express themselves with (Chomsky, 1975) and the first language one acquires from parents (Kılınç et al. 2012, p. 256). Language is the primary factor giving people and nations their identity. Beşikçi (2015, p. 13) stated language as the basic element forming and shaping human identity, and the mother tongue of humankind is the language of identity. Second or auxiliary (Özüdoğru et al. 2014, p. 5) languages are defined as those learned after the mother tongue through education, work life, and other basic purposes (White, 1985). Additionally, bilingualism is a person’s use in life of another language other than their mother tongue (Demircan, 1990; Weinreich, 2010). The concept “understanding” is also important in the linguistic context; Tönnies (Oktik et al. 2005, p. 132) considered language as the real organ providing understanding among people. Simultaneously, the importance of the phenomenon of understanding [Verstehen] emerges here (Weber, 1993; Dilthey, 1999; Giddens, 2002), emphasizing individuals that belong to a society transfer/share with individuals the encountered joys and sorrows using gestures, mimics, and certain sounds through language (Tönnies, 1957, as cited in Oktik et al. 2005, p. 132) and appearing as symbols of culture and the corresponding network of meanings (Geertz, 2010). When looking

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at the concept of education as a phenomenon, which is known to have more than one meaning through these concepts (Başaran, 1984, p. 14; Bilhan, 1986, p. 12; Kurtkan, 1987, p. 13; Varış, 1988, p. 18, as cited in Çelikkaya, 2013, p. 7), Durkheim (2016: 50) emphasized a society without a two-way education system to not exist per se; education is simultaneously singular and plural, and the education system is plural... Additionally, education occurs at each stage of the socialization process in one’s life as a social event, phenomenon, or institution (Çelikkaya, 2013, p. 49). Modern societies perform education through specialized and organized institutions (Sarı et al. 2007, p. 47; Tezcan, 1993). In this context, past discussions on issues such as mother tongue, bilingual education, multiculturalism, otherization, alienation, stigmatization, and inability to express oneself are ongoing.

The language of instruction at school has an important place both in achieving academic success (Gay, 2014) and expressing themselves (Yılmaz et al. 2016). Being educated in a different language at school results in being unable to integrate with society; in otherizing; in being otherized, stigmatized, and alienated; in academic failure related to this; problems in self-expression, being excluded/otherized, understanding, and being perceived; and problems on issues such as introversion and indifference. Experienced problems cause individuals disadvantages; being scholastically successful seems impossible (Erdem, 2011, p. 146). The most obvious experienced problem is being stigmatized, which causes otherizing where both the stigmatized and the one stigmatizing are shown as the other; both together involve the same totality (Goffman, 2018, p. 181). Meanwhile, multicultural education is determined to increase academic success as a goal (Bennett, 2007, p. 31–35). Simultaneously, current topics on ethnic classes, identity, mother tongue, and education in the native language are constantly updated and topics of discussion among multicultural communities; this situation is known to bring many problems. Although they have been mentioned in many different discourses, they have yet to be addressed ethno-politically, especially in Turkey (Yeğen, 2011, p. 222). Aside from ethno-political perspectives, examining and considering the problem’s anthropological and demographic dimensions (Zeyneloğlu et al. 2011, p. 337) may also enable programs to be produced applicably for education.

This study attempts to emphasize ISSL’s two meanings: the more concrete first meaning is the lack students taught with languages other than their native tongue have in establishing healthy communications with both friends and teachers as a result. Because they try to explain with a second language what they think natively, they may encounter significant problems. Meanwhile, students socialized with a different subculture’s values are unable to share same values and exact meanings with other students and teachers, naturally making understanding and empathizing with one another difficult. Saying the alienation phenomenon occurs at this point would not be wrong. Marx (2015, p. 61) can be credited in social sciences with using the idea/concept of alienation, whose philosophical roots are based on Hegel. The four main features of Marx’s alienation doctrine, who saw alienation as the existence of the other and the opposition of consciousness/self-consciousness and of object/subject, can be expressed through four main features: alienating humans from nature, from self, from genetic existence, and from other. In other words, Marx addressed the concept of alienation as: alienating humans from activity or its results; alienating from special existence; alienating from nature or from other people; and self-alienating (Bottomore, 2001, p. 621). Additionally, one factor causing humans with a natural existence to self-alienate sources from the schools where educational activities occur (Marx, 2013, p. 65). As Balibar and Wallerstein (2013) stated, individuals who alienate self/others cause all society to alienate. These definitions can also be read as the othering of the individual (agent, subject). Regarding alienation in educational terms, Ergun (1995, p. 7) stated giving/transferring information to students without completely knowing possibilities/abilities accelerates alienation. Meanwhile, individuals are known to drop out of school when educated in a non-native language (Kaya, 2009,

p. 15). In this context, one not educated in or removed from their mother tongue can be assessed as alienated from their self and society.

One can talk about otherizing between individuals, groups, and even societies. One definition of otherization (Parlak, 2015, p. 32) is where one keeps external groups as far as possible, directly alienating from the outside by only being self-centered; when addressing these topics specifically for schools, more visible situations are encountered. As the “we” occurring in social relations and the “other” being created by loading negativities against it sharpen social and psychological prejudices, this condition inevitably reflects onto behaviors/practices (Zuckermann, 2006, as cited in Akşit et al. 2009, p. 14). Reasons individuals/students can be said to be otherized or discriminated against are due to traits such as language, religion, race, and gender, plus characteristic features of modernity like individual, ego, and individual identity (Giddens, 2014, p. 103). Simultaneously, otherization reveals stigmatizing/ stigmatized to constitute otherizing; the stigmatized and the one stigmatizing appear as the other to one another; both belong to the same totality together (Goffman, 2018, p. 181).

Modern society’s schools, where knowledge accumulation and specialization occur, hold important places then and now in the education individuals receive and their preparations for life (Yılmaz et al. 2009, p. 330). Accordingly, middle schools and secondary education institutions have a fundamental quality in raising individuals. As Bauman (2020) stated, students’/teachers’ thoughts are important in changing social life, and changing social life is understandable by looking there. Schools consist of students (the future) and teachers who play the most important role in raising them; together they pass specific times of day. Schools, expressing a common life area for students, have vital roles in raising individuals on topics such as academic success, self-expression, understanding, and being interested. This research attempts to reveal relationships among topics like academic success, self-expression, understanding, and perception in terms of teachers’/students’ assessments within the framework of constrictions in the ISSL/otherization/alienation triangle students experience with varying intensity.

Method

Research Model, Study Group, Data Collection and Analysis

In the mixed methods approach, the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data for understanding the research problem, integrates the two datasets, and then draws conclusions using the advantages from integrating these two datasets (Creswell, 2017, p. 2). Additionally, mixed methods are used to answer study questions single methods cannot and to reveal the phenomenon desired to be understood through various methods (Neuman, 2016). This mixed-method descriptive-relations scanning model research uses phenomenology in the qualitative and survey model in the quantitative dimensions. The in-depth interviews for collecting the qualitative data were developed with eight main headings to determine interviewees’ socio-demographics and views on issues like mother tongue, otherization, and alienation. In-depth interviews performed with 32 total middle/high school students determined at Istanbul’s Pendik district and Batman’s center, have opened discussions on the topics. The views and observations on problems students experienced were learned through survey forms from another data source outside the student participants’ responses: teachers working in the Istanbul and Batman schools. Quantitative data has been collected from 519 teachers (279 in Istanbul, 249 in Batman) who completed the surveys under observation. I performed all reliability and validity studies for the survey, first conducting a literature study for survey development, taking field experts’ opinions/thoughts, and developing a draft. Expert opinions were received for content validity, creating a 32-item pool. Experts examined and reviewed the survey; a 20-item survey developed by making corrections, and the pilot study was applied to 100 teachers. Part I of the survey is on teachers’ socio-demographics; Part II has questions/suggestions for revealing teachers’ opinions. Qualitative research’s data

analysis involves analyzing all the interviews and each interview by itself. After all interview analyses finished, the findings emerged by completely re-analyzing everything. I analyzed the qualitative research data using SPSS.

Findings and Discussion

This section includes qualitative and quantitative findings regarding the research’s aim alongside descriptive findings, discussing them in the framework of other research.

Descriptive Findings

Characteristics of the Student Participants (Qualitative Study)

Students from each type of middle and high school in Pendik, Istanbul and Batman were included in the study. Sampling used random sampling, four for the middle school types (Imam Hatip and regular middle schools) and six for the different types of high schools (Anatolian, Vocational, and Imam Hatip) from each province. Additionally, one private school from each province was included in the study to ensure different views in the study process. A total of 32 students (16 from each province) studying in the 26 schools are included in the study. Students having equal numbers of characteristics, particularly grade, gender, and native/known language, was ensured. The 7th-12th grade students (17 female, 15 male) generally live in nuclear families; only the private-school participants’ parents have graduate degrees; 70% of the interviewed students’ native languages is Kurdish.

Teacher Participants’ Characteristics (Quantitative Study)

The rate of female teachers in the study is 58%. Considering that 55% of public school teachers are female, the gender distribution choice in this research is realistic. 3 Other percentage distributions for teacher characteristics are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Percentage Distributions of Certain Teacher Characteristics (N=519)

Characteristic		Batman (n = 240)	Istanbul (n = 279)	Total (N = 519)
Gender		%	%	%
	Female	43.8	69.9	57.8
	Male	56.2	29.7	42.2
	Unspecified	0.0	0.4	0.2
Birthplace				
	Southeast Anatolia	70.8	4.3	35.1
	Marmara	3.3	31.2	18.3
	Central Anatolia	7.1	17.2	12.5
	Black Sea	3.3	17.6	11.0
	Eastern Anatolia	4.6	10.4	7.7
	Ege	2.5	7.5	5.2
	Unspecified	6.3	3.9	5.0
	Mediterranean	2.1	5.0	3.7
	Abroad	0.0	1.8	1.0
School Type				
	Middle	25.0	18.6	21.6
	Anatolian High	22.1	21.1	21.6
	İmam Hatip	15.0	21.9	18.7
	Vocational	17.1	19.4	18.3
	İmam Hatip High	11.7	12.9	12.3
	Private	9.2	0.0	7.5
Branch				

³ MoNE Statistics (Formal Education) 2018/19.

	Turkish-Literature-Foreign Language	26.3	29.4	27.9
	Other	73.8	68.5	70.9
	Unspecified	0.0	2.2	1.2
Work experience (years)				
	1-5	40.0	30.8	35.1
	6-10	29.6	35.5	32.8
	11-15	17.9	15.1	16.4
	16 +	12.1	18.6	15.6
	Unspecified	0.4	0.0	0.2
Region of previous employment ⁴				
	Southeastern Anatolia	100.0	10.8	53.4
	Marmara	4.2	100.0	36.8
	Eastern Anatolia	12.5	14.6	16.0
	Central Anatolia	6.3	10.2	10.0
	Black Sea	2.1	6.9	5.8
	Ege	2.9	5.8	5.4
	Mediterranean	2.5	1.4	2.1
	Unspecified	0.0	0.3	0.2
Other languages known ⁵				
	None	26.7	47.8	41.0
	English	29.2	34.0	33.9
	Kurdish	42.1	2.2	20.8
	Arabic	15.0	8.0	11.8
	German	0.0	3.8	3.7
	French	0.8	1.9	1.5
	Italian	0.0	1.0	0.6
	Spanish	0.0	0.6	0.4
	Other	3.8	0.6	2.1

As seen in the data from Table 1, more than 33% of teachers were born in Southeastern Anatolia. The vast majority of teachers in Batman were born in the same region (71%). Although few (5%), some teacher did not specify their birthplace. With respect to where teachers work, 21.6% work in middle schools and Anatolian High Schools, 18.7% in Imam Hatip Middle Schools, 18.3% in Vocational High Schools, 12.3% in Imam Hatip High Schools, and 7.5% in private schools. Additionally, around 30% of the participants are from the Turkish-Literature-Foreign Language branches. These data resemble the numbers and branch distributions of teachers working at MoNE schools (According to MoNE Statistics 2018/19 data, the same approximate rate is seen in all middle and high school branches for teachers in Turkish-Literature-Foreign Language branches). Also, a third of teachers have 1-5 years of work experience. Identifying 70% of the participant teachers as being born in Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia regions is important for recognizing and/or understanding individuals with different native tongues. Other particularly noteworthy data are 40% of teachers not knowing another language but Turkish and 21% who know Kurdish. Almost half of Istanbul teachers not speaking a second language draws attention.

Qualitative Findings and Discussion

Findings related to the thoughts/assessments of 32 students in 7th-12th grades in middle/high schools of the different school types in Istanbul and Batman on the topics of ISSL-alienation-otherization, understanding, bilingualism/multilingualism, and cultural capital are summarized below.

⁴ Percentage distributions appear off due to some participants working in more than one region.

⁵ Percentage distributions appear off due to some participants speaking more than one language.

Findings and Discussion on Mother-Tongue Perceptions

Determining students' general thoughts about mother tongues was attempted by asking “What does ‘mother tongue’ evoke? What do you understand? What are your thoughts about individuals with different mother tongues?” at in-depth interviews’ start. The revealed thoughts can be addressed in three groups: Kurdish or Turkish based on the individual speaking, the language one learns at birth or from parents, and the language spoken by society.

For mother tongue, Kurdish comes to mind first as the spoken language. (Male, Istanbul, 7th grade, Kurdish)

The spoken language. (Female, Batman, 8th grade, Turkish)

Civelek’s (2014) qualitative study emphasized participants make similar definitions regarding the concept of mother tongue. Participants mentioned their views on different mother tongues, generally emphasizing the significance of differences. Some students emphasized problems understanding individuals with different mother tongues, this situation being unavoidable in school, otherizing, and advantages knowing different languages provides.

...Those with different mother tongues can’t explain what they want or understand others. (Male, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

I think it’s beautiful, mom also knows German. Speaking is different sometimes... but having differences is beautiful. (Female, Batman, 9th grade, Kurdish)

Both female and male students have similar views on perceptions of mother tongues. The interviewed 7th-12th grade students expressing similar ideas with no grade difference is noteworthy.

Findings on Education, Success, and Self-Expression in the Mother Tongue

Of the 32 students, only two (both from Batman) had the view that being educated in one’s native language isn’t necessary for the questions “Should everyone be educated in their mother tongue?”, “Are individuals educated in their mother tongue more successful?”, and “Do you express yourself sufficiently in your non-native tongue?”. Additionally, seven native Kurdish-speaking and all nine native Turkish-speaking students in Istanbul interestingly stated education should be in one’s native tongue.

I definitely think it’s seriously deficient. Although Kurdish is among our elective classes, it’s not an option. Otherwise, I would definitely pick it regardless of the teacher. (Female, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

Definitely. Turkish is mine, and I must speak it well. (Female, Istanbul, 10th grade, Turkish)

Individuals emphasized the need to be educated in one’s own language, and similar results have been reached in mother-tongue studies (Konda Araştırma, 2008; Bekir and Aydın, 2018; Rawest Araştırma, 2020). Additionally, the vast majority of those participants argued individuals educated in their mother tongue to be more successful academically, and these data being similarly expressed by Turkish and Kurdish native speakers is significant. Meanwhile, the vast majority of participants (85% Turks and Kurds) here answered the two-way question (Will one educated in their native tongue be more successful?) with these individuals being more successful. Similarly, the interviewed participants generally stated having better self-expression in their own tongue regarding “Do you sufficiently express yourself when speaking other than your native language?”

I think we’re more successful in our native tongue. How many years we’ve studied English, and still we’re at the same place. I don’t see us always speaking fluently. (Female, Istanbul, 11th grade, Turkish)

One should take to learning one’s history/past. (Male, Batman, 12th grade, Kurdish)

Findings on Inability to Speak the Same Language (ISSL)

Participants were posed two questions under the ISSL heading: “Do you share the same feelings with friends whose mother tongue differs?” and “Do you and those with different native tongues completely understand one another?” Over 33% of Istanbul and Batman students advocated not sharing/being unable to share the same feelings with those with different mother tongues. Additionally, one attention-drawing point is participants’ emphasis on basic human values and the importance of sharing them.

Yes, I’ll say why. Even speaking different languages, we’re human. Thus, we can all feel the same emotions. (Male, Istanbul, 12th grade, Turkish)

No, because I feel bad that I can’t speak that language. (Female, Batman, 7th grade, Kurdish)

Over 70% of the students stated those with different mother tongues to be unable to completely understand one another. Other students expressed sharing the same feelings and thus understanding each other by emphasizing emotions in particular. Also, the interviewed Batman students have more negative thoughts compared to the Istanbul students regarding the topic of understanding one another completely.

No, we can’t completely understand without speaking my language. (Male, Istanbul, 9th grade, Kurdish)

I think they don’t fully understand; feelings are the same, but they don’t completely understand. (Female, Batman, 9th grade, Turkish)

A large portion of participants advocated the idea that those with different mother tongues do not completely understand one another. As Foucault (2014: 106) stated, having no expression means having no language; those who express that they do or don’t understand one another indicates they speak or don’t speak the same language.

Findings on Alienation

The following opinions to asking “Do you feel alone in school/class/Do you think those with different mother tongues feel lonely?” and “Do you become distant from your friends for not speaking the same language?” For the first question, two-thirds of those with different mother tongues feel alone.

If a different language is spoken, I think so. A eastern person is alienated here. Also, people’s view of them also alienates them. (Female, Istanbul, 11th grade, Turkish)

Regarding whether alienation sources from people not speaking the same language, more than two-thirds stated this to be true, and Istanbul and Batman students have very similar ideas.

It happens regardless. If I regard being Kurd or they regard being Turk strange, alienation occurs. (Female, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

The vast majority of participants think those with different mother tongues feel alone. In particular, they revealed individuals with different mother tongues become isolated/feel alone in school/class and this causes alienation. Another important issue needing emphasis is the direction of the state of alienation sourcing from individuals’ ISSL. Similar to the findings obtained in Şimşek and Katıtaş’ (2014) field research on alienation, many participants in the study stated individuals with different mother tongues to feel alone and/or to alienate from others (society).

Findings Regarding Otherization

Students chatted on the issue of otherizing in relation to “If people with different mother tongues consider themselves different,” “the use of ‘us’ and ‘them’ statements especially with friends,” and “people considering themselves equal to their friends.” Two-thirds of the participants again stated people with different mother tongues to see themselves differently.

Yes. Like, they speak their native language at home more comfortably, but they can't speak or explain to those around them. (Female, Istanbul, 8th grade, Kurdish)

Although differing from one another, students' views generally expressed that knowing a different language causes one to feel different. Regarding using expressions like “us” or “other,” almost 70% of students stated having this otherizing attitude. Students stated those with different mother tongues (i.e., those speaking the same language) in particular exhibited approaches like “us” and “them.” Of the students advocating this view, the native Turkish and native Kurdish speakers having the same idea draws attention.

It happens. I encountered someone speaking Kurdish in class; because they couldn't understand, they thought he was cursing. They called the teacher and fought. (Male, Batman, 8th grade, Turkish)

Other studies emphasizing otherization to emerge due to cultural differences among those who can't speak the same language support this result (Takeuchi, 2009; Wright, 2010; Borrero et al. 2012; Baak, 2019). Additionally, these cases here show the individual as well as the social/individual identity as the other, and can be interpreted as a form of stigmatization, as Goffman (2018: 104) also stated.

Under the otherizing heading, students were asked “Do you consider you to be equal with your friends?” and almost three-quarters stated being equal.

We're all equal, I can say no negative situation happens. (Male, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

Normally I think people don't have equal rights. (Female, Batman, 9th grade, Turkish)

Individuals with different languages sharing the same grade, school, or surroundings are seen to view everyone equally and behave in line with this idea.

Findings Related to Understanding Meaning/Each Other

Here, when asking students “Do you understand what is taught in class; do you friends with different mother tongues understand the lesson/teacher?” and “Do you fully understand what your friends say?”, two-thirds stated they or others with different mother tongues didn't understand in class; these students having nearly equal distributions whether their native tongue is Turkish or Kurdish appears as an important finding. Simultaneously, no difference exists when considering gender, grade, or city. Contrary to the first responses, more than half stated understanding each other with their friends. Students' understanding each other but not their lessons draws attention. This is interpretable as sourcing from the students' mother tongues, just like culture, being the same as their friends. Meanwhile, the reasons students don't understand the lessons may be from factors like indifference to the lesson and use of academic language.

No because we study English, talk a lot, but understand little... (Male, Istanbul, 12th grade, Turkish)

I understand, but other friends, not fully knowing Turkish, can't understand. (Female, Batman, 7th grade, Turkish)

Participants with different mother tongues, especially Kurdish, stated not completely understanding the lesson or teacher. Regarding students' understanding of the lesson/teacher, Turkish speakers can be interpreted to not understand lessons taught in a different language (e.g., English) and speaking another native language is revealed as one of the reasons for not understanding the lesson/teacher.

Findings Regarding Bilingualism/Multilingualism

The students were asked, “In which language do you express yourself more easily; do your friends with different mother tongues express themselves easily?” and “What are the advantages of speaking/knowing different language(s)?” For the first question, 68% of students emphasized

mother tongue. Almost all participants stated their friends with different mother tongues to express themselves more easily in that tongue.

I express easier in Kurdish. (Male, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

I think there is. We understand however many languages we know. Thus we can understand people not from one perspective but from many. Also knowing many languages makes learning other ones easier. (Female, Batman, 9th grade, Turkish)

Studies on bi-/multilingualism in particular have reached similar findings (Gardner, 1960; Cummins, 1976; Butzkamm 1998; Banda, 2000, Francis, 2002; Costa et al. 2008). Particularly in the findings from previous research, participants who emphasized the importance of knowing different languages stated knowing/speaking other languages to facilitate learning new/other languages (Bialystok et al. 2005). Meanwhile, teachers who know/speak other languages (i.e., the regional language where they teach) is shown through similar studies to provide great advantages for both themselves and students to be more effective (Gándara et al. 2005; Palmer et al. 2013; Kaya et al. 2013).

Finding Regarding Cultural Capital

Regarding cultural capital, students were asked, “Do you benefit the same as students whose mother tongue is Turkish/Kurdish?”, “Does your family strive to convey your culture and language to you?”, and “Do you experience undesired learning through education?” Meanwhile, the private school student with university graduate parents remarkably stated individuals to not benefit equally from education. One of the greatest indicators of this situation is individuals with high education levels having high awareness levels, and studies in the field support this view (Sullivan, 2001; Tramonte et al. 2010).

Yes, everyone gets the same thing in class. (Male, Istanbul, 7th grade, Kurdish)

I suppose not because what we get from teachers we call education. Discriminations are made. Maybe if I don't, teachers do. Because we discriminate, what we do is actually inhumane. (Male, İstanbul, 12th grade, Turkish)

Four-fifths of participants in both provinces stated their family to convey culture to them using the language spoken at home. Hence in the context of transferring language/culture to people, studies in the field have stated families to create spaces where the mother tongue is spoken to convey and preserve their language, identity, and culture (Civelek, 2014). Meanwhile, 15% of students stated their families to not convey their culture or language. The participants who mentioned this view on cultural deterioration are remarkable all participants from Batman.

We've already experienced it. We live because our village relationship continues. (Male, Istanbul, 11th grade, Turkish)

No way, it's changing. Everything has so advanced now people don't even know their culture. Traditions gradually decrease. That old culture is definitely not cherished. (Female, Batman, 10th grade, Kurdish)

Finally, when discussing whether undesired learning occurs, more than half the students stating this to happen is interesting. Some topics, lessons, and class content were taken generally under undesired learning; some students also stated discrimination based on ethnic identities to have been done in some lessons, claiming content to be one-sided. In short, both male and female students with Turkish or Kurdish mother tongues and living in either province were seen to mention undesired learning in education as sourcing from the education system and course load.

It happens, happens as lessons. Sometimes I feel uncomfortable talking about Turkism. I can say this: There are only Turks in class or as friends; I'm very bothered when talking about the existence of Turks when there are no Kurds or they're being insulted. (Male, Istanbul, 11th grade, Kurdish)

Students sometimes get bored...I'm a little bored in math, nothing else. (Female, Batman, 8th grade, Turkish)

Quantitative Findings and Discussion

The surveys teachers from various schools in Istanbul’s Pendik and Batman’s center filled were evaluated, and the qualitative findings are contained in this section. Table 2 contains the frequencies (f), means (M), percentages (%), and standard deviations from the survey.

Table 2. Pressures in the ISSL-Otherization-Alienation Triangle: The Case of Middle and High School Students (N = 519)

#	Items	I completely agree		I agree		Neutral		I disagree		I completely disagree		M	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1	I think all students understand me, including those whose mother tongue is other than Turkish.	157	30.3	217	41.8	42	8.1	89	17.1	14	2.7	2.20	1.12
2	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues cannot express themselves.	56	10.8	203	39.1	39	11.4	161	31.0	39	7.5	2.85	1.19
3	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues cannot succeed.	26	5.0	101	19.5	72	13.9	240	46.2	79	15.2	3.47	1.11
4	Bilingual (Turkish/Kurdish) students are more successful.	29	5.6	97	18.7	185	35.6	154	29.7	53	10.2	3.20	1.03
5	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues have perception problems.	46	8.9	206	39.7	61	11.8	164	31.6	41	7.9	2.90	1.17
6	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are otherized by their friends	16	3.1	72	13.9	77	14.8	246	47.4	107	20.6	3.69	1.04
7	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are alienated over time in school.	11	2.1	87	16.8	80	15.4	244	47.0	96	18.5	3.63	1.03
8	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are frequently absent.	8	1.5	52	10.0	116	22.4	226	43.5	116	22.4	3.75	0.96
9	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues become isolated with time.	13	2.5	76	14.6	86	16.6	233	44.9	110	21.2	3.68	1.04
10	All students benefit equally from education regardless of ethnic identity.	221	42.6	198	38.2	34	6.6	43	8.3	22	4.2	1.93	1.09
11	All students should be educated in their mother tongue.	111	21.4	141	27.2	84	16.2	102	19.7	80	15.4	2.81	1.38
12	Students educated in their mother tongue are more successful.	97	18.7	166	32.0	116	22.4	100	19.3	39	7.5	2.65	1.20
13	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues exhibit inappropriate behaviors.	22	4.2	78	15.0	93	17.9	228	43.9	97	18.7	3.58	1.08
14	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are not interested in school/lessons.	21	4.0	96	18.5	70	13.5	250	48.2	81	15.6	3.53	1.08
15	Disagreements occur among students with non-Turkish mother tongues.	18	3.5	116	22.4	95	18.3	223	43.0	66	12.7	3.39	1.07
16	Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are introverted.	20	3.9	112	21.6	82	15.8	217	41.8	87	16.8	3.46	1.11
17	Teachers treat all students equally regardless of mother tongue.	252	48.6	178	34.3	49	9.4	31	6.0	8	1.5	1.77	0.95
18	Teachers discriminate against students from different regions.	11	2.1	21	4.0	48	9.2	191	36.8	247	47.6	4.24	0.93
19	Education should only be given in the official language.	97	18.7	75	14.5	83	16.0	144	27.7	119	22.9	3.22	1.43
20	Every student has the right to be educated in their mother tongue.	164	31.6	132	25.4	88	17.0	87	16.8	47	9.1	2.46	1.32
General Average												3.07	

Proposals are scored 1-5 (totally agree to completely disagree). While entering the data into the program SPSS, inverse Proposals (Items 1, 4, 10, 11, 12, 17, and 20) are reverse coded (scored 5-1) and analyzed appropriate to the situation. As seen in Table 2, Proposal 18 (Teachers discriminate against students from different regions) has the highest average ($M = 4.24$; 84.3%). This result reveals students from different regions are accepted without teachers discriminating at all. Similarly given with Proposal 8 (Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are frequently absent), teachers think these students are not frequently absent. This revealed view is not compatible with other studies in the field (Sarı, 2001). Also with a high average ($M = 3.69$), teachers do not agree with Proposal 6 (Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are otherized by their friends). Proposal 9 (Students with non-Turkish mother tongues become isolated with time) has a high average ($M = 3.68$). This finding can be interpreted as these students do not become isolated with time. Both Istanbul and Batman teachers should be emphasized as having expressed similar thoughts.

The next highest average is Proposal 7 ($M = 3.63$; regarding alienation). These findings show teachers to think students with non-Turkish native languages are not alienated at school. One idea similar to Proposal 7 on alienation appears to emerge in Proposal 4 (Bilingual students are more successful). Additionally, responses to Proposal 4 show differences when assessed by teachers' years of experience. Namely, more than 70% of the participant teachers with 1-5 years of experience disagreed at a higher rate ($M = 3.52$) than those with more experience. The reason for this can be interpreted as teachers with less experience consider individuals with different mother tongues to not be alienated at school, while teachers with more years of service have observations and experiences based on many years. Additionally, the students expressed a similar approach in the qualitative study. Some studies in the field stated student alienation to occur at school as a result of various factors (Şimşek et al. 2014). Regarding Proposal 4, teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions have thoughts different from teachers who didn't specify their birthplace. This difference may result from more advocates of the idea that students with non-Turkish mother tongues become alienated over time at school source from teachers not specifying their birthplace.

Meanwhile, Proposals 13 ($M = 3.58$) and 14 ($M = 3.53$) have close averages. The items given from Turkish students with non-Turkish mother tongues "exhibit inappropriate behaviors" (Proposal 13) and "are not interested in school/lessons" (Proposal 14) show the teachers mentioned these students do not exhibit inappropriate behaviors and are not disinterested in school./lessons. Yet studies in the field have determined students to be disinterested in lessons due to having a different mother tongue (Sarı, 2001). Thoughts on these students being disinterested vary with respect to birthplace: teachers born in foreign countries agree more with Proposal 14 than those born in Turkey. Additionally, teachers with unspecified birthplaces stated individuals are introverted because their mother tongue is not Turkish for Proposal 16. Being introverted clearly brings situations in particular such as not being able to express one's self, being uninterested in school, and not understanding. These problems are simultaneously seen among findings obtained in many studies' results (Sarı, 2001; Yiğit, 2009; Şimşek et al. 2014).

When generally examining the data in Table 2, the following interpretations can be made: Teachers generally do not agree with the idea that "bilingual students are more successful (Proposal 4), with no variation between men and women's responses to this proposal. However, Batman teachers stated bilingual students to be more successful. One study with similar results determined teachers to have emphasized that students having different mother tongues affects the literacy process (Yiğit, 2009). Despite teachers stating negative opinions about bilingual students being successful, those with different mother tongues have the opinion that they are successful. Male teachers emerge as agreeing with Proposal 2 (Students with a mother tongue other than Turkish cannot be successful) more than female teachers. Meanwhile, another finding is that Kurdish speaking teachers think bilingual students are more successful. Additionally, studies on

bi/multilingualism have obtained findings suggesting bi/multilingual students to generally be more successful (Bialystok et al. 2005; Costa et al. 2008). Teachers have stated students with different mother tongues to be more successful; this idea reveals results that support studies in the field on bi/multilingual individuals being more successful (Butzkamm, 1998; Bialystok et al. 2005; Park et al. 2014). Students with mother tongues other than Turkish are said to not be disinterested in school/lessons. Sari's (2001) research, however, showed that teachers of bilingual students stated "indifference toward lessons" to be among the difficulties students face. MoNE's success-monitoring test concluded score averages to increase with lower absenteeism.¹

Teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions advocated Proposal 4 more (Bilingual students are more successful). Similar studies exist in the field on bilingual students being more successful academically and bilingualism being advantageous (Bialystok et al. 2005; Stow et al. 2003). Data similar to Proposal 11's (Students should be taught in their mother tongue) emerged in Proposal 12 (Students educated in their mother tongue are more successful). Teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions agreed more with Proposal 12 than other teachers. At the same time, studies have also concluded those taught in their mother tongue to be more successful (Butzkamm, 1998). Similarly, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO, 1953)² emphasized that children realize better learning in their own language. In the context of the student interviews, nearly all had views that individuals should be taught in their native tongue and that these individuals are more successful; thus the qualitative and quantitative data can be said to support one another.

The responses participants gave for Proposal 19 (Education should only be given in the official language) draw attention; 51% of participants disagree with Proposal 19. This result can be interpreted as teachers having positive thoughts about teaching in languages other than the official one. Meanwhile, differences are seen when comparing these values for Istanbul and Batman; 43% of Istanbul teacher and 60% of Batman teachers disagreed with Proposal 19. Simultaneously, Kurdish teachers from both provinces were determined to disagree more with Proposal 19. Hence, teachers agree that teaching should be given in other languages (Those with different mother tongues agreed with this idea, and teachers from eastern-southeastern regions, or who didn't specify their birthplace advocated that teaching should also be in non-official languages); the results obtained in studies in the field support these findings on teaching in other languages. Thus in forming different thoughts, participants, particularly those from eastern-southeastern regions, appear to have had their thoughts shaped by problems experienced due to their own education not being in their mother tongue.

Alongside these, the average ($M = 2.46$) for Proposal 20 (Every student has the right to education in their mother tongue) draws attention; almost 60% of teacher stated the view that students have this right. This result is similar for Istanbul and Batman. Teachers' stating these views because they believe them or because, taking international conventions into account, it's appropriate to say so is open to interpretation. Also, teachers from eastern-southeastern regions or who didn't state a birthplace advocated this view more than others. This determination corresponds with data reached in other proposals and the information/discourses reached in the qualitative study. Most students see education in one's mother tongue as necessary, and this supports the teachers' views. Other noteworthy data with respect to Istanbul and Batman are teachers' designations on Proposal 11, being that all students should be taught in their mother tongue. Those working or having worked in eastern-southeastern regions advocated this proposal. Namely, teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions agree more with Proposal 11 than all other

¹ Türkçe-Matematik-Fen Bilimleri Öğrenci Başarı İzleme Araştırması (TMF-ÖBA)-I, 2019 [Student Turkish-Mathematics- Sciences Success Follow-Up Research].

² UNESCO: The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education, France/Paris, 1953: 11.

participants. Istanbul teachers are also clearly not as positive as Batman teachers for Proposal 11. Similar findings in Kaya's (2015) study determined teachers to positively view education in one's mother language and to support native-tongue education even if not fully aware of its scope. Similarly, teachers working in eastern-southeastern regions advocate that all students' education should be in their mother tongue; accordingly Batman teachers were previously stated to not agree with Proposal 19 (Education should only be given in the official language). This shows parallels with conclusions from other studies (Konda Araştırma, 2008).

Meanwhile, responses emerged that teachers in Istanbul and Batman have the lowest average ($M = 1.77$) to Proposal 17 (Teachers treat all students equally regardless of mother tongue). The next lowest average ($M = 1.93$) is seen with Proposal 10 (All students benefit equally from education regardless of ethnic identity). Teachers stated students to be unexposed to inequality based on ethnic identity. However, knowing whether their statements are from constitutional emphases on equality or sincere belief is difficult. Another low average ($M = 2.20$) emerged for Proposal 1 (All students understand me, even those with non-Turkish mother tongues). According to this result, teachers can be interpreted to think all students understand them/their lessons. Teachers from Turkish-Literature-Foreign Language branches agreeing less with Proposal 1 than teachers from other branches can be emphasized. However, the literature particularly emphasizes those with other mother tongues to generally not understand lessons/teachers (Yiğit, 2009; Kaya, 2009). Meanwhile, when examining Batman and Istanbul separately, a significant difference forms; simultaneously, teachers in Anatolian high schools agree more with Proposal 1 than teachers in Imam Hatip High Schools. This may be due to students in Imam Hatip High Schools having non-Turkish mother tongues (especially Syrians recently) and as such unable to understand lessons. A linguistic teacher-student distance has been determined to emerge in studies (McNeill, 2005) on teachers and students with different mother tongues; this prevents them from fully understanding one another. At the same time, teachers in Imam Hatip High Schools (compared to other school types) stated these students couldn't fully express themselves. Similar findings were reached in studies from Gardner (1960), Cummins (1976), Butzkamm, (1998), Banda (2000), Francis (2002), Costa et al. (2008), and Yiğit (2009). Compared to teachers from other school types, Imam Hatip School teachers emphasize students with non-Turkish mother tongues to exhibit inappropriate behaviors more.

Contrary to teachers' thoughts, students revealed having difficulty expressing themselves, understanding what they're told, and doing what is expected. Similarly, Langer et al.'s (1990) study concluded students' proficiency in one language helps them understand/answer questions in both languages. This finding means not understanding brings about academic failure. Meanwhile, both international and domestic studies on bilingual/multilingual individuals have reached findings on bilingual individuals generally being more successful; however, the information obtained in this study does not match previous studies in the field. The most striking of these, Bialystok et al.'s (2005) study, showed all bilingual students to use both languages daily and to have learned to read both; this shows the potential bilingual individuals have for carrying reading principles from one language to another.

Aside from examining the attention-drawing averages, emphasizing the rates indicating the "Neutral" choice is considered important. In this context, standing out with the highest rates for this choice are Proposals 4, 8, and 12, and the lowest are Proposals 10, 1, and 18. For Proposal 4 (Bilingual [Turkish/Kurdish] students are more successful), 35.6% chose "Neutral;" this result can be interpreted as teachers avoiding giving an opinion about this or they don't behave realistically. Proposals 8 (Students with non-Turkish mother tongues are frequently absent) and 12 (Students educated in their mother tongue are more successful) each have 22.4% for the "Neutral" choice. Teacher in Istanbul in particular marking the "Neutral" choice more for these three proposals compared to those in Batman is thought-provoking. Additionally, individuals working in the field

of education having no idea about phenomena they constantly encounter are seen as a topic worthy of separate investigation. Meanwhile, Proposal 18 (teachers discriminate against students from different regions) draws attention in having the “Neutral” choice marked the least; those choosing this are stated more heavily by teachers working in Batman (MBatman = 11%). Another is Proposal 1 (I think all students understand me, even those with non-Turkish mother tongues;” more teachers in Istanbul chose neutral for this proposal. Lastly is Proposal 10 (All students benefit equally from education regardless of ethnic identity), which has the lowest percentage in terms of marking neutral as the choice. Similarly, teachers in Istanbul are seen to have chosen the neutral option more in this proposal. The fact that teachers working in different schools, districts, cities, or regions are neutral on whether students benefit from education is a remarkable finding. Although students had expressed their opinions openly about these proposals, the teachers did not openly express their thoughts based on their experiences, observations, and thoughts. Thus many reasons may for obtaining these findings; in fact, people may have their own reasons. However, expressing opinions clearly is considered an important issue for solving problems, especially problems in education.

Results and Suggestions

In 2019, qualitative data was gathered in this study using in-depth interviews with 23 students in middle/high schools determined in Pendik, Istanbul and the center of Batman, and the quantitative data was collected using surveys with 519 teachers in these same schools.

The students clearly stated that education should occur in one’s native tongue, that academic success will increase based on education in one’s mother tongue, and that individuals express themselves better in their own language; even though individuals who don’t/cannot speak the same language have the same feeling; they emphasized that they don’t/cannot fully understand one another. Additionally, students emphasized the reality of otherizing, alienating, and not understanding each other.

Teachers in the quantitative study responded slightly differently regarding students’ experiences of ISSLs, otherizing, and alienating. In this context, teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions stated that bilingual students and students learning in their native language are more successful, that education should be given outside the official language, and the individuals have the right to learn in their native tongue. Imam Hatip School teachers emphasized students’ inability to completely express themselves. Similarly, teachers in Turkish-Literature-Foreign Language branches advocated being unable to completely understand students more compared to other branches. Additionally, teachers born in eastern-southeastern regions advocated more than other participants that students should be educated in their native language; Kurdish speaking teachers stated bilingual students to be more successful; teachers with more experience stated children with different mother tongues to be alienated, teachers born in foreign countries emphasized students with different mother tongues to exhibit various inappropriate behaviors and to be disinterested in lessons; and teachers who didn’t specify a birthplace stated students to be introverted due to having different mother tongues. The vast majority of teachers stated all students understand them and those with different languages to be able to express themselves. Meanwhile, teachers stated bilingual students to not be more successful, students with different mother tongues to not be otherized, and no type of alienation to occur. Although stating everyone to have the right to education in one’s mother tongue, the teachers interestingly emphasized that everyone should be taught in the official language. As seen, distinctions in ideas emerged between the teachers with the students. This is explainable by how some teachers refrained from clearly expressing thoughts or observations and how they tried to draw a positive picture as much as possible, especially about lessons or self-statements. However, although students were able to clearly identify their feelings, sensitivities, and needs, clearly much more concrete measures can be taken and realistic solutions can be produced in education. Alongside these, teachers in particular need to be open to different

cultures and differences, be ready to hear students' voices, and develop their own unique models by acting according to these facts when necessary.

Studies should be carried out for cherishing and protecting all languages in a way that allows both teachers and students to recognize different languages, cultures, customs, and traditions; elective courses beyond the official language should be formed (e.g., Literature in one's native language) for students to both be academically successful and to better express themselves; and education programs should be developed by addressing the richness of different languages in the context of multiculturalism. Additionally, studies in the field should perform interviews with individuals and families at different education levels and should allow student diversity.

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Applicability of Lean Management Approach in Organizations

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LOGIN

In today's conditions, it is getting more and more difficult to find real customers and create loyalty due to increasing competition, imbalances in market conditions and the accompanying globalization. In this direction, customer loyalty also becomes important. In order to ensure this loyalty, it is seen as a mandatory condition for organizations to carry out activities towards the expectations and requests of the customers, to respond to them in line with their expectations, to observe the benefit-cost balance while responding to the requests and expectations, and to maintain the quality at a high level (Gök and Arıcı, 2016: 136).

Organizations operating in a rapidly changing and highly competitive market in recent years have adopted the lean production approach in order to improve their production processes. In doing so, they focus on small units and value streams to improve the quality, flexibility and responsiveness of production processes to customers. Instead of decisions previously made only by managers, this approach includes business processes. The organization has been transformed from a traditional structure characterized as top-down with project-oriented improvement, led by sub-managers, to one where continuous improvement is carried out throughout the organization by globally empowered teams.(Fullerton et al., 2014: 414).

The fact that lean production requires support and time, and that it requires radical changes in production processes and the structure of organizations, requires a lean management approach (Jackson and Jones, 1996: 5-6). Lean management approach has established itself as an effective management approach, especially in competitive markets. The main purpose of this approach is to eliminate non-value-creating activities (waste), and to manage the entire production cycle in a value-oriented manner by making continuous improvements in processes and/or operations. Decreased stocks in production organizations, shortening of supply, production and delivery times, facilitating follow-up and control, and rapid decrease in costs can be counted among the most important effects of lean practices (Can and Güneşlik, 2013: 2).

One of the underlying ideas of the lean management approach (specifying the value that the customer wants, determining the value stream for each product or service that gives this value and correcting all the wasted initiatives, making the product or service flow continuous and adopting the management approach towards perfection, so that it is necessary to serve the customer. The need to improve the service flow in organizations becomes increasingly important because the number of initiatives, the amount of time and knowledge transfer will decrease continuously, making it necessary to use the lean management approach (Ben-Tovim et al., 2006: 391-397).

In this direction, the fact that the application of lean management has become important in organizations makes the study important. The study is carried out in order to demonstrate the applicability of the lean management approach in organizations.

1. Lean Management Concept

The plain word meaning is expressed by the Turkish Language Association as “no ostentatious, unadorned, plain” (TDK, 2022). In addition, it does not perform additional activities for the main purpose, unless it is necessary, and The concept of lean, which means oriented towards, emphasizes avoiding all unnecessary actions and thoughts related to these activities, directing directly to the main activity and achieving this activity as soon as possible as a management approach (Özkoç, 2004: 121).

1.1. Lean Management Definition

Lean concept; It was first used by Roos in 1990 to describe the working philosophies for the Japanese automobile brand Toyota. Simplicity means being free from everything that is considered redundant. When unnecessary jobs are eliminated, people working in these jobs can also be determined. There is a clear distinction between the concepts of "lean organization, lean organization, lean management or lean production".cannot be done (Womack et al.,1990: 11).

The management system, known as 'Lean Production', 'Lean Management' and 'Lean Thinking', is often called the 'Lean Production System' due to its origin, especially based on production management. However, since lean principles and practices can be applied to any organization, it is stated that the most appropriate concept expressing this management system is 'Lean Management Approach (YYY)' (Emiliani, 2006: 167). YYY is defined as a management approach based on the motto of continuous improvement of existing organizational processes by reducing activities that do not create added value (muda), diversity in processes (mura) and negative working conditions (muri) in organizational processes (Radnor et al., 2012: 365). Over time, YYY not only denotes a production system, but also design, supply,

In lean management; The focus is on the value stream and small units to improve the responsiveness, quality and flexibility of the production process to customers. Instead of managerial decisions, business processes take place (Çilhoroz and Arslan, 2018: 157). Business processes, organizations are directed by sub-managers, superior-subordinate structure and project-oriented improvement structure; It leads to structures where continuous improvements are realized throughout the organization. Therefore, changes in management strategies are directly proportional to the increase in efficiency and operational efficiency (Fullerton et al., 2014: 414).

Lean thinking, in particular, is a systemic approach that prevents getting away from the essence of the situation by drowning in unnecessary details. On the other hand, lean thinking; The most accurate and best ordering of the steps that create value shows the ways to take these steps without any disruption and to apply them better over time. Accordingly, lean thinking is expressed as producing by spending less equipment, space, labor and time, and approaching customer expectations more. (Womack and Jones, 2016: 11).

Simple management approach is also defined as an approach that adds value to customers and products with minimum resources and aims to eliminate waste. The concept of value forms the basis of lean thinking. Value is the quality that the customer wants and accepts to pay, taking into account the service or product features. It is also seen as the reason for the existence of all actors in supply chains (Özen, 2015: 210).

When we look at the lean management process, it starts from the supply of the raw material and extends to the customer's delivery without any disruption (Katayama and Bennet, 1996: 823). Lean management; It is an approach that focuses on the latest with the least amount of resources, while minimizing errors. In recent times, when competition has increased, the survival of organizations, the increase in market shares, and customer satisfaction can only be achieved through lean management. (Liker, 2015: 247-248).

1.2. Historical Development of Lean Management

II. It was first developed by Taiichi Ohno for the Toyota Production System in order to overcome the difficulties that arose after World War II. TPS requires making it possible to get maximum output with minimum input in order to overcome the financial crises of the organization with little damage. Due to the scarcity of materials, money and human resources, TPS was first used to reduce the waste of resources in the store. During adverse economic conditions, Toyota has survived and prospered thanks to the efficiency and effectiveness of its production system. As a result, the scarcity of resources, which is an obstacle for Toyota, has allowed it to become a world-class manufacturer (Behrouzi and Wong, 2011: 389).

The production techniques developed by Eiji Toyoda and Taiichi Ohno in the 1950s were first defined by the concept of "lean production" by Harvard University researchers John Krafcick. Krafcick developed this concept to express the essence of the new production organization created at Toyota Motor Plant. The reason why Krafcick uses the term lean production is that the new system demands less for everything compared to Fordist production (Türkan, 2010: 29).

This new approach, which spread to other Japanese companies over time, made Japanese companies more successful than Western companies. Japanese companies have been able to hide the reason for this success for many years. For the first time in 1991, Womack and Jones introduced the Toyota Production System to the whole world with the book they published under the title "The Machine That Changed the World" (Balçı, 2011: 40).

Lean manufacturing is characterized by the emergence of entirely new areas of production, new ways of providing financial and business services, new markets and, above all, the intensification of commercial, technological and organizational innovations, based on a fairly good flexibility in terms of labor processes, labor markets, products and consumption patterns. Like the Fordist production system (Gertler, 1988: 421), it is a production system whose typical features can be seen in the automobile sector, but each factor cannot be generalized depending on the different characteristics in other sectors. Lean management, on the other hand, expresses a holistic approach that allows such a generalization to be made, and that can be applied in both goods and services sectors, without being tied to a specific product or technical equipment, and takes lean production as its basis.

The management system, known as "Toyota Production System", "Toyota Management System", "Lean Production" or "Lean Management", is commonly used as "Lean Manufacturing" due to its roots in production and operations management. However, this phrase actually expresses a narrow focus and can now be misunderstood. Because lean principles and practices can be applied to any organization. In this respect, the most appropriate and correct expression for this management system, which is also applied outside of Toyota Motor Corporation, is "Lean Management" (Emiliani, 2006: 167).

1.3. Lean Thinking and Its Goals

Lean thinking focuses on the maximum output with the least resources, while achieving it. He talks about a structure that aims to eliminate unnecessary spending and consumption, wastefulness and indifference. It is not an easy process to provide an easy-to-understand and simple order, but when this process is reached and the sustainability of the process is ensured, the efficiency in the organization is carried upwards. For this, the organization, superior, subordinate and environmental conditions in the lean thinking system should be evaluated together and the waste in the process should be determined and kept away from the process.

In lean thinking, waste arises from the beginning to the end. In this process, waste can be reduced and it can be possible to deliver low-cost goods and services to our customers at the same time. Although the lean approach does not promise a final solution, it is like going on a long journey with high benefits. During this journey, it should be continued until we catch the good and the perfect (Grasso, 2005: 12-27.). For this reason, in lean thinking; It is necessary to look at the whole of the activities done to create and produce a tangible product in the process from the question of product design or whether it is ready-made, from order to sale, and from raw material procurement to delivery to buyers (Womack and Jones, 2016: 30.).

When we adapt the system to the organization; All the functional tools used in the organization and the people who will use these tools should be coordinated with each other, and the action to be taken should be done in the least amount of time and result in the highest quality output. Both sides should be in an effective process with each other.

Organizations have experienced difficulties in meeting the needs of customers, satisfying them, and meeting their wishes and requests quickly while passing from the industrial society to the information society. The division of work, which is seen as a requirement of the industrial society, in other words, the issues such as specialization and rationality appear to this extent. (Ertürk, 2006: 7). It is important that the work to be done is undertaken by its own expert and benefiting from their experience. The person who undertakes a job knows that he has to do the job exactly and actually presents the other party with proof that the job will be done properly. In this direction, the main idea of lean thinking comes into play and it is important to meet all the problems that may arise with minimum damage.

Lean Organization Values

Lean thinking requires defining value from the customer's perspective. In other words, the critical starting point is the concept of value in the eyes of the customer. Value can only be defined by the end customer and has meaning only when expressed in terms of a particular product (a good or service, and often both) that satisfies the customer's needs at a particular time, at a particular price. Value is created by the producer. This is the reason why manufacturers exist when viewed from the customer's standpoint. Value creation starts with design, goes through production and ends with customer relations after sales. Value is an important concept that has a lasting effect on the image of a company (Kulaç, 2005).

In the philosophy of lean, it is aimed to fully and accurately determine the value of a product that is capable and important to customers. Organizations that are in the process of creating value consider their own needs while defining value. Organizations should be in effective communication with their stakeholders while determining the value they need, and in order to realize this organization, they should be able to develop different communication techniques and reshape their relations between organizations in the same value chain in a

new process. Finding new customers and new favorable conditions quickly comes with the strength of the lean philosophy's success. The way the organization can cope with its competitors and stay one step ahead can be related to how the philosophy of simplicity is applied.

There are fundamental values for the applicability of lean thinking in creating a valid and robust management philosophy in competitive environments. These values and their explanations are as follows (Şakrak, 2013).

2.1. Lean Philosophy

The concept of lean organization is a new organizational management phenomenon derived from lean manufacturing or production. In lean manufacturing, the simplicity foreseen only for the production process of the organization brings the need for simplicity in the organizational structure, management functions and ultimately the whole organization thanks to the lean organization. Being lean; means getting rid of everything that an organization does not really need. Therefore, while there may be unnecessary processes related to the production process, there may be sub-processes and functions that are not really needed in other basic and support processes of the organization. Being lean means getting rid of this kind of work and their costs. When the unnecessary process is eliminated, the non-essential element, the machine-equipment, will automatically appear. Therefore, (Womack and Jones, 1994: 123-129).

1.4. The Concept of Waste

At the root of lean management lies the concept of eliminating waste in all processes of the organization. The first step is to be able to distinguish clearly and clearly what are the causes of waste. This is possible by examining the following points; overproduction, waiting times-long preparation times, unnecessary and inappropriate work (for example, unnecessary operations in processes such as transportation, maintenance), insufficient processes, excess stock, unnecessary movements, faulty parts production, lack of training, long distances, managers with lack of leadership skills (Liker and Lamb, 2006).

Looking at the literature, it is seen that seven basic types of waste are identified in organizations (Hodge et al., 2011: 237). However, Jeffery Liker, the author of the book "The Toyota Way", added "human waste" to these types of waste and stated that there are eight types of waste (Novis, 2008: 524). These types of waste; overproduction, waiting, handling, unnecessary processing, excessive inventory, movement, defects and human waste. Excessive production waste, producing more than customer demands; waste of waiting, sometimes called queuing, and immobility during times of flow activity; transport waste, business processes that move from one ongoing process to another; unnecessary processing waste, excessive production or excessive inventory in organizations, and extra processes such as work-process duplication and storage due to various errors; stock waste, unnecessary stocks for orders that customers do not need; waste of movement, extra waste of workers and equipment each step of the way; Defects, end products or services that do not comply with the specification or customer's expectation, and waste of people, mean that people are not used enough, that is, people's thoughts and creative inputs are not used to improve processes and applications (Hicks, 2007: 236-237).

1.5. Excellence Approach

Excellence approach can be defined as creating pure value as defined by the customer without any waste of a process (Akyüz and Çetin, 2009: 3). The Plan-Do-Check-Act (PUKÖ) cycle is the basis of seeking and achieving excellence in the lean management system. PDCA is a scientific method-based improvement cycle consisting of suggesting a

change in a process, implementing the change, measuring results, and taking action for appropriate action. It is also known as the Deming Cycle or Deming Cycle since it was introduced in Japan by W. Edwards Deming in the 1950s. The PUKO cycle has four phases (Juran, 1999).

1. Plan: Set goals, objectives, responsibilities and criteria,
2. Implement: implement changes, teach and train, improve apply,
3. Check: Reflect, check the effects of the application.
4. Take action: stabilize effective actions, change according to results standardize or restart the cycle.

PUKÖ cycle is frequently used in lean applications. While the PDCA cycle is a very important mental model in lean practices, it also forms the basis of strategy deployment. This cycle starts with the act of grasping a situation, and it brings with it the work of grasping the situation, which requires asking questions such as what is actually happening, what should happen, what should be, what is the ideal situation, in other words, making gemba, an important concept of lean thinking. Gemba; It is a term emphasizing that true improvement can only occur when the focus is on the factory area by directly observing the conditions prevailing at the place where the work is done. Doing the study - understanding the situation - which is a subject that supports every stage of PDCA, by going to the gemba and then thinking and understanding what the observed things mean,

1.6. Administrative Leanness

In the lean management practice that assigns basic responsibilities to the management; It is necessary for the management to determine in advance the path to be followed and the resources to be used in order to achieve its goals and objectives, and at the same time, the whole process must be progressed and controlled in a coordinated manner.

The process of setting goals and determining authorization, responsibility and resources is work that must be sustained at all levels of the organization. The aim is that each employee supports the priorities of the organization and knows what to do in order to achieve the goals. In addition, regular monitoring of developments according to predetermined control points and rewarding the success of employees in achieving goals is also an issue that should be addressed in the senior management process (Womack and Jones, 1994).

Lean practices are closely related to everyone in organizations. In other words, every employee's job includes process development. In an environment where there is no lean production system, process development stages are under the control of managers and experts. However, it is appropriate to allow other employees to make suggestions as well. Often a few good developments in an employee's job do not represent the whole process. For this reason, it is necessary to take team work as a basis in process development (Akgeyik, 1998).

In addition to teamwork, meeting the low-level needs of the employees; Good wages, job security, working in a safe and hygienic environment are important issues underlying the motivation factors (Morgan and Liker, 2006). It is very important to increase motivation and make employees feel this at the highest level, but before that, the lowest level needs of the employee must be met.

2. Lean Management Approach Implementation Methods

There are many methods that businesses use when applying the lean management approach. The most frequently used methods are explained below (Erdem and Aksoy, 2009: 174-175).

Kaizen (Fast Healing Process)

It refers to a systematic approach that is carried out gradually, regularly and towards continuous improvement. It is an important method in reducing defects and stocks (Abdullah, 2003: 11). Kaizen is an approach that is dominated by the understanding that no process or process takes its final form, and that even more perfection can be achieved. It is based on continuous improvement of a value stream or a single process to create more value with less waste (Masaaki, 2003).

5S

- A 5S-organised, clear, highly effective and high-quality workspace

It is the methodology of creating and making it permanent.

- Seiri (sort/classification),
- Seiton (set in order),
- Seiso (shine),
- Seiketsu (standardized/standardized),
- It is expressed as Shitsuke (sustain).

Cellular Manufacturing

Cellular production is a production method that enables the grouping of production batches with similar characteristics in terms of organizational characteristics and requirements. The purpose of cellular production is to capture the efficiency advantage offered by product placement in workshop-type production systems that keep the product range wide. It is based on the principle of producing a wide variety of products with a low demand structure with high efficiency (Üreten, 2006).

Just in Time Production

Just-in-time production refers to the organization's working with the minimum amount of inventory in its production processes, thus better adapting to changes that may occur in the production process. It is a strategy that aims to significantly and continuously improve work efficiency through the prevention and elimination of time and resource losses throughout the enterprise. It aims to improve that will provide the least cost and the highest customer satisfaction (Emiroğlu, 2014).

6 Sigma

The 6 Sigma method, which aims for process excellence, provides the companies applying it with the opportunity to be the best in its class, while increasing profitability, efficiency and market share. The 6 Sigma approach is an approach based on the use of high discipline and statistical techniques to measure and improve product and process quality. 6 Sigma is not a fleeting excitement based on a single method or strategy; It is a flexible system that aims to improve management skills and performance. Businesses that have adopted

this system are constantly trying to reduce errors and improve products and/or services (Deniz, 2016: 117).

3.1. Lean Management Implementation Process

A process is necessary for the successful implementation of the lean management approach. This process begins with the planning of change, continues with the determination of success factors, and ends with the implementation and measurement of the process. Čiarnienė and Vienažindienė, 2012: 729).

In fact, it is not very difficult for organizations to manage the lean management application process. Because, just as the management process that should be in an organization is carried out, this management should be realized with the least waste in the lean management application process. The process starts with why the organization needs change and how and what to consider while experiencing this change. Then, it continues by making descriptions about determining which success factors should be used to achieve the change we want, and finally ends with the management and control of the process by applying it correctly. In this process, waste should be eliminated and continuous improvement should be made. This is achieved by the effective use of management information systems and working with versatile teams.

2.2. Strategic Analysis of Lean Management

Lean approach and production provide advantages to the organization. The most important of these advantages is financial, and it prevents unnecessary stock formation and reduces the costs that cause waste (Terzi and Atmaca, 2011: 451). While lean management practices increase inventory turnover and efficiency, they also increase the operational, supply chain and financial performance of organizations. Implementing lean practices helps standardize operations and deliver significant strategic benefits. Lean management approach methods provide organizations with a significant competitive advantage thanks to effective systems that consume less resources, provide higher quality and lower costs (Gollan et al., 2014: 6435).

At the same time, thanks to the lean management approach, as stated in the literature, operational time is reduced by up to 90%, productivity is increased by up to 50%, products waiting to be completed in stock are reduced by up to 80%, quality is increased by up to 80% and land use is also reduced by up to 75%. In addition, the lean management approach, reduction in order processing errors, improvement in customer service functions so that customers are no longer put on hold, reduction in paperwork in office areas, allowing fewer personnel to take more orders by reducing personnel demand, documenting and streamlining business processes, outsourcing non-essential transactions, which allows it to focus on customers' needs as its business, There are also a number of managerial improvements that include reductions in attrition costs as a result of reduced turnover, and the benefits of ensuring that only "above average" performers are hired through the implementation of job standards and pre-employment profiling. Finally, the lean management approach has some strategic advantages for organizations. Thanks to these, organizations will be able to learn how to market their products or services and how to use these advantages to gain greater market share (Kilpatrick, 2003: 3-4). There are also some managerial improvements that include the advantages of recruiting performers. Finally, the lean management approach has some strategic advantages for organizations. Thanks to these, organizations will be able to learn how to market their products or services and how to use these advantages to gain greater market share (Kilpatrick, 2003: 3-4). There are also some managerial improvements that include the advantages of recruiting performers.

Finally, the lean management approach has some strategic advantages for organizations. Thanks to these, organizations will be able to learn how to market their products or services and how to use these advantages to gain greater market share (Kilpatrick, 2003: 3-4).

Many of the organizations that want to use the lean implementation approach face some difficulties and/or fail to provide the anticipated benefits. These difficulties are:

- Organizations may fail to incorporate improvement measures into financial statements. In other words, organizations only report improvement as a percentage (%) and cannot convert it into a monetary measure. Without communicating with the management in the same language, the departments that implement the lean approach may not receive the necessary support for the continuation of their activities.

- Organizations may experience reduced capacity to serve customers as a result of applying the building blocks of lean management in the wrong order.

- Choosing a challenging or low-impact project first. The lean approach is actually not difficult, but can be complicated due to all the variables and communication. Collaboration and support for future projects may dwindle if the first lean project fails or provides little return on investment.

- Ignoring administrative areas. Some production environments have only minor or negligible opportunities, especially in continuous processes, production or operations. Applying a lean approach in these areas may have little effect.

- Organizations can spend a lot of time in training and this may be due to starting training in the wrong place, not because they can't carry out the training.

- Failure to extend lean practice to the supply chain. Due to need, materials must be delivered on time, stocks are minimized, and Lean's dependence on high-quality products and services requires organizations to include suppliers in their improvement activities. Developing a lean supply chain is probably one of the most difficult but financially profitable aspects of Lean implementation.

- The lean approach affects every person in every function of an organization and literally changes the organizational culture. Change can cause discomfort and many organizations may not be able to cope with this massive change.

- Implementing the lean management approach may take many years.

- Finally, many of the concepts we learn in the lean approach may be different from those taught to managers and other decision makers (Kilpatrick, 2003: 4-5).

CONCLUSION and RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the increasingly difficult competitive conditions today, organizations have to act by considering customer demands and expectations at a high level in order to survive. It is the most advantageous situation for organizations trying to respond to these requests and expectations to use lean production and management processes while giving this answer. Because organizations need to avoid waste while responding to customer requests and expectations. In this sense, the lean management process benefits both the customer and the organization. Organizations try to get the most output by minimizing their costs. This situation actually increases productivity in the organization. In order to achieve this efficiency, organizations are different from their competitors, have the least cost,

With these developing techniques, it can be said that the management decision support systems should be included in the process in order to prevent waste as well as to carry out the lean management process effectively. Organizations' ability to cope with waste requires the use of support systems. At the same time, support systems contribute to the solution of problems in the shortest time and in the most effective way, and in this process, waste can be prevented and problem solutions can be managed quickly. This will increase the productivity of the employees and the work in the organization. It can provide radical improvements in quantities such as completion time, stocks, defective product and scrap rates reaching the customer, and time to market the product.

In all management processes of organizations that try to apply lean management to themselves, it is necessary to continuously and continuously improve production. In this understanding, which emphasizes that no process is sufficient and achieving perfection, employees become the most basic element of the process with a team work. The process includes not only the top management but also all employee steps in the organization. For this reason, the ideas, insights and creative powers of all employees are needed. The reflection of all these potentials of the employees in the production process in the improvement process is realized through brainstorming and the creation of quality circles.

In lean management, motivation and motivation of employees in management are realized through rewarding practices. Employees who work in organizations where this award can be made positively affect the organizational climate and can also support the increase in quality and productivity by expressing their opinions on issues related to themselves and their work. In this way, it becomes easier to make improvements again in line with the suggestions of the employees, which is one of the most important elements of the lean system. Since the employees will take an active part in this improvement process, the responsibilities in the organization are shared in a common way.

Without the support of top management in organizations, the success that will enable the formation and implementation of lean systems cannot be achieved. In order to achieve this success, employees must be supported by senior management. In order to maintain progress and continuity in the organization, it is necessary to encourage the employee in every subject that can benefit the organization and to eliminate the problems that may arise in the organization by the senior management. Encouraging employees, eliminating problems, etc. During the implementation phase of lean values, top management should support and lead.

Adoption of lean manufacturing techniques in organizations; It aims to realize an efficient production process that aims to get maximum output by providing less input and continuing without waste. From this point of view, organizations use their resources more effectively and resource accumulation, that is, capital, takes place in the organization. Therefore, new employments are created for new investments. Thanks to the new employment and the dynamic structure of the lean production system, new job opportunities are emerging, which contributes to the economy.

Lean organizational values build a structure where all stakeholders win. In this built system, the profitability of all organizations in the sector separately increases. Employees receive the reward of their efforts not only financially but also in many ways. Customers, on the other hand, can buy quality products at reasonable prices with features that meet their expectations. Suppliers are saved from being stuck under financial pressure by making them a business partner that they help to develop. By preventing waste, financial resources can be managed effectively and efficiently as they should be.

As a result, the lean management system brings together all the stakeholders required for the system in the organization and ensures the realization of the highest quality objectives in the shortest time, with the least waste and at the lowest cost. This system can be applied in health, education and all sectors in general. The correct implementation of the system is seen as a requirement of the lean management approach. In this study, the applicability of the lean management approach in organizations has been studied by using the compilation research method, and it can be recommended to examine the factors that support / hinder lean management practices by conducting field research in future studies.

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Scientism Within Epistemology

Alper GÜRKAN¹

Introduction

Scientism was born out of the successes of physics in the 19th century. The idea that science is the only source of knowledge and its logical conclusions form scientific thought. A scientism proponent roughly argues that since the findings we get from the natural sciences are reliable knowledge, all of our knowledge must be scientific. Scientific knowledge is distinct from other kinds of knowledge due to its way of acquisition. An exaggerated attitude of trust in the process of knowledge acquisition and, by extension, in science results from the assumption that science is the only source of reliable or sound knowledge. According to them, the humanities and social sciences therefore should follow the same methodologies as the natural sciences. Of course, religion, morality, and values are also relevant. Scientism is expansionist in this sense since its proponents hold that philosophy, religion, and morality, which are regarded as being non-scientific, should be replaced by science.²

When it is considered within this framework even though scientism is founded on ontological assumptions, it can be assessed as an epistemological approach primarily. It is a fundamental notion about the nature of beliefs, after all. Because in scientism, one offer a solution to the questions of how epistemic beliefs are justified or what beliefs must underlie claims in order to be accepted as true as an epistemological approach. It is of course questionable whether these solutions are appropriate. Because the solutions have no scientific basis. Thus, scientism seems to be an epistemological approach in the sense of being prior to science. And it contains at least four elements in terms of being an epistemological approach: The first aspect of scientism is a theory of justification that aims to establish a criterion for the kinds of justifiable propositions. Second, scientism takes a methodological perspective on the kind of methodologies that can support reliable knowledge. Third, scientism has a theory of truth to make firm what kinds of propositions are true. Finally, scientism has a theory of rationality that allows one to decide which propositions are rational.

Here, I treat and criticize scientism as a specific epistemic approach that incorporates these four components. Accordingly, I consider scientism within epistemology and evaluate it within a general epistemological framework. In this context, I first answer the question of what scientism is. In this way, I aim to put forward a criterion that can set scientism apart from some philosophical approaches and doctrines close to it. Then, when the epistemic principle on which this criterion is based is made explicit, what is meant by scientism being an epistemological approach is also expressed. Since scientism is related to the nature of epistemic beliefs as an epistemological approach, it is assessed within the epistemological framework. For the purposes of this assessment, epistemological scientism must be analyzed as a certain kind of scientism that makes a variety of assertions about diverse domains. As such, I have focused on demonstrating what qualities scientific propositions have as epistemic beliefs. After clarifying the epistemic principle that forms

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² For example, Peels defines scientism as follows: “The view that the boundaries of the natural sciences should be expanded to include academic disciplines or realms of life that are widely considered *not* to be the domain of science (Peels 2018:47–48). The expansionist aspect of scientism is sometimes called scientific imperialism. For a discussion of scientific imperialism see: (Stenmark 2001:20–24).

scientism, I focus on two kinds of scientism, epistemological scientism and rationalistic scientism. However, methodological scientism as scientism related to the method of acquiring knowledge is not discussed in this study. As a general problem, the issue of method is limited to processes involving the scientific method, and the scientific method implies empirical ways of acquiring knowledge.

What is scientism as a philosophical stance?

I think that if some of the basic assumptions that all scientism proponents share is understood, it may be feasible to identify scientism from other philosophical stances. For this reason, I set scientism apart from other philosophical approaches that are close to it in terms of general views on epistemology. What is different about scientism in this respect is the expectation that all beliefs, without exception, should be related to the scientific method. Accordingly, the epistemic principle maintained by scientism's proponents provides an answer to the question of what epistemic beliefs must be grounded in. This is the conviction that "all knowledge is scientific" or that "science is the only source of true propositions."

Let us start with epistemic beliefs. What grounds are necessary for them to be acceptable to us? Some philosopher's response to this question concerning justification in the traditional sense, particularly in the century we currently live in, is that one should only rely on the outcomes of the scientific method. If only scientific findings are given credit, the next results follow: Science is not just interested in physical phenomena or things made of matter, it must also offer solutions to the problems facing people in numerous realms, including politics, morality, and religion and, in fact, all problems should be solved under the guidance of science. In this view, science is seen as the standard by which everything in the world is defined and explained, and what is true and what is false is determined by its standards (Sellars 1963:173).³ Such a claim is the result of a strong belief in the reliability of scientific knowledge. But does this imply that having confidence in science is sufficient to make one a proponent of scientism? By focusing on epistemic beliefs, in this article I seek to define what is meant by scientism. For this, I first define the bounds of scientism in this context before determining the bounds of its validity. This is a necessity. Because there are different understandings of what scientism is.⁴ The context of the issue has a decisive role in this difference. Scientism is not merely a methodological challenge; it is also discussed in various contexts and in relation to other subfields of philosophy, such as philosophy of value, ethics, and philosophy of religion, especially ontology because it incorporates materialism and epistemology because of its relation to justification.⁵

In its simplest terms, scientism can be defined as a philosophical standpoint that holds that only conclusions reached using methods from the natural sciences should be taken to be true. I believe that the three elements that are meant to be highlighted in this brief attempt to characterize scientism can be clarified, revealing what I mean by scientism. Scientism has ontological, methodological and epistemological aspects. And these three elements are summarized by the emphasis on using only the methods of the natural sciences in any research we undertake to acquire knowledge. This means scientism incorporates an ontological assumption about reality, a few methodological standards, and an evaluation of epistemology (or criticism). Suppose we follow the logical order of these three elements, which are also key to other philosophical issues. In that case, the ontological assumption that there are only things that can be subject to science, in reality,

³ Cited in: (Hacker 2014:98).

⁴ It has been noted that in recent years, there have been more instances of academic and philosophical studies of scientism. In the following two books, the issue of what scientism is and other problems that arising with scientism are discussed from a broad perspective with various tendencies.: (Robinson and Williams 2014) and (Ridder, Woudenberg, and Peels 2018).

⁵ Is it possible to give a definition of scientism that is precise enough? Plantinga says that he does not think the question of what scientism is proper enough when responding to this. Because, in his opinion, the term "scientism" has ambiguous implications or lacks a clear definition. (Plantinga 2018:221–22).

comes first. Since this assumption, on which scientism is based, also limits the subjects of scientific method, it is reasonable to claim that scientism is within naturalistic philosophy.⁶ In other words, scientism fits into the naturalistic account of how things actually are. The use of using the scientific method to describe the world is seen as essential by proponents of naturalistic philosophy (as an ontological position) in this context. Surprising that scientism and naturalism share a materialist ontology that the only objects to which the scientific method can be applied are material things or their effects.⁷ An ontology that is ultimately restricted to natural kinds implies only considering the world as the result of natural processes or natural causes (Cevizci 2009:647). Doesn't one's attitude toward the question of what actually exists also shape how one views knowledge? Naturally, knowledge in this context only refers to the results of the scientific method. Rosenberg stated that naturalism implies the necessity of resorting to the mature methods and findings of natural sciences such as physics, biology and neurology for the solution of philosophical problems (Stanford 2016:91). In fact, this point makes clear why naturalism is crucial to comprehending scientism.

Of course, naturalism and scientism are not the same thing. While naturalism embraces scientism, it also has variety that acknowledges normativity⁸ and a priori knowledge⁹. When it is viewed in this light, naturalism is a philosophical stance that is inclusive or integrative.¹⁰ However, scientism is a radical position¹¹ within naturalism as an attitude of rejecting all kinds of norms and a priori knowledge that are not based on the scientific method. In sum, what is meant by scientism is always a radical interpretation within naturalism. Thus, naturalism-based scientism contains methodological and epistemological meanings: In a broad sense, scientism refers to the notion that the scientific method should be applied in order to explain the universe; in a narrow context, it refers to the notion that a claim must be scientific in order to be accepted as true.

Epistemological scientism and the epistemic principle of scientism¹²

The positioning of scientism within naturalism indicates to us the following: The ontological standpoint of naturalism and scientism are similar. The methodological attitudes and epistemological point of view is what sets them apart from one another. In other words, scientism varies from naturalism from a standpoint about knowledge issues, and its proponents focus on the question "what should epistemic beliefs be based on?" For scientism within naturalism, as for other epistemological attitudes, there is such a question at a chronological starting point. In this respect, scientism is founded on the notion that the concept of knowledge can only be used for the outcomes of the scientific method.¹³ For example, Williams and Robinson write that the

⁶ In defense of scientific ontology there is an appeal to scientific materialism. For a critique of why scientific materialism, and hence scientific ontology, is untenable due to the logical impasses it involves, see my critique of scientific materialism: (Gürkan 2022).

⁷ If we do not limit materialism to a particular materialism, it is clear that it can be a very broad idea. However, Mario Bunge expressed the acceptance of the fact that existing things are actually material things as a common feature of all materialist ideas. In other words, it is possible to recognize the idea that immaterial things cannot exist independently of material things as a common materialist presupposition. (Bunge 1981:17) In this respect, it can also be put forward that materialism is a metaphysical view, as in the assertion of such a claim without relying on experience in its entirety.

⁸ In his last writings, Quine, who held a remarkable position within naturalism, accepted the idea of normativity, showing that naturalism could tolerate it (Godfrey-Smith 2003:152).

⁹ Within naturalistic thought, there was room for the possibility of a priori knowledge of the kind defended by Hilary Putnam. Putnam argues that if the proposition "Not every statement is both true and false" is true, there is at least one truth a priori. Such a proposition is rational because it is a requirement of the principle of non-contradiction of logic, and a rational account of naturalism requires its acceptance. See: (Putnam 1978:153–70).

¹⁰ Kyle's "integrative naturalism" exemplifies this inclusiveness. See: (Stanford 2016).

This is also the case with Godfrey-Smith's naturalism (Godfrey-Smith 2003:151) and the liberal naturalism defended by Caro and McArthur (Stenmark 2018:71). For a significant number of naturalists, however, the fact that they philosophise does not seem to be a problem. In this sense, scientism denies philosophy.

¹¹ Scientism is a sort of naturalism, even though it is an attitude contrary to the integrative features of naturalism (Mizrahi 2017:352). The adjective radical is used here to express this.

¹² In writing this section, I have benefited from my previous article Gürkan: 2022b.

¹³ According to Stevenson and Byerly, scientism is the view that the knowledge obtained by the scientific method embraces all knowledge kinds (Peels, Ridder, and Woudenberg 2018:1).

starting point of scientism is the assignment of knowledge value (only) to certifiable scientific knowledge.¹⁴ Since the positivists developed the term certifiability after the term verifiability, it can only be recognised as a result of the scientific process. This aspect, in contrast to naturalism, makes scientism closed to other sources of knowledge. So, understanding the proponents' epistemological attitudes in terms of its epistemic principle, I argue, is the best way to comprehend scientism.¹⁵

Let us now take a closer look at what is meant by this, namely the epistemic principle of scientism. What kinds of epistemic beliefs are credible in order to regard themselves as true? Such a question calls for a perspective on the nature of truth and the methods of reaching it. Some outcomes are worth believing in if there are some ways to provide us the truth. Even while scientism's proponents, who is centered on a radical interpretation, disapprove of epistemology as a critical analysis of knowledge, a theory of knowing, or a *first philosophy* this is nonetheless the case.¹⁶ In order to clarify this remarkable contradiction, I would like to briefly explain what is meant by epistemology: Epistemology or theory of knowledge, as a philosophical branch, is primarily concerned with the investigation of the nature of knowledge. For this investigation, knowledge is analysed as follows: The beliefs and truth that constitute knowledge and the nature of the cognitive basis (evidence) that unites them together are evaluated and criticised. So the core concept of epistemology is justification, which is the cognitive link between belief and truth. Justification has a normative nature in that it renders a proposition reasonable to believe and makes it preferable to other propositions. And just as belief-related justification is the raw material of justified belief, epistemic beliefs are the raw material of knowledge (Audi 2018:3). Because of this, knowledge is viewed as a form of belief. Since a belief is a specific propositional judgment, it is a belief (knowledge) for the subject. As a result, knowing demands both belief and justification, and justification involves either reason or evidence. And of course, an attempt at justification must follow the procedure for acquiring this belief. Epistemic belief is based on a decision made in accordance with the outcome of an evaluation since it is the outcome of evidence acquired for a subject using a particular method. Justification becomes normative in this judgment's evaluation process.¹⁷ That is to say, justificatory elements provide the subject the critical and evaluative mindset needed to accept true claims and reject false ones. In this way, the subject makes a distinction between true and false propositions. The evaluative distinction between true and false paves the way for the subject to count different propositions as knowledge or not. Therefore, epistemology is the first philosophy, in the sense that it comes before practice, to enable the subject to make a judgment of what is true and false.

For a scientist evaluates the issue of accepting any proposition claimed to be knowledge as true or false, it is obvious that they have an epistemological attitude despite their rejection of

¹⁴ Since what distinguishes scientific knowledge is its methodology, an "exaggerated" sense of trust in science emerges in order to solve the problems people face by applying this methodology (Williams and Robinson 2014:5–6).

¹⁵ According to this, the appearance of scientism in this framework is connected with positivism. Because positivism, as a philosophical approach established on naturalistic and materialistic ontology, is an attitude related to the problem of knowledge ultimately. How did positivism get over materialism? In my opinion, since materialism cannot be defended in a holistic way without referring to metaphysics, in a sense ontological discussions were left out and only the problem of knowledge was dealt with in it. Frank notes that while the Vienna Circle philosophers were materialists, they were not interested in the mechanistic explanation conceived in conjunction with it, but rather in empirical testability (Frank 1985:137). This case makes us think that positivists were naturalists who shifted from ontology to epistemology. Because the ontological arguments on which the post-Newtonian mechanistic-materialist explanation is based are not verifiable, they are metaphysical and therefore not directly defensible by positivists.

¹⁶ One of the examples of this attitude belongs to Churchland, who maintains that the analysis of knowledge has not been able to solve the problems of knowledge for centuries (Peels 2018:32). However, since theories of knowledge, as a *first philosophy*, involve the analysis of knowledge before dealing with any instance of knowledge, her analysis is also an analysis of knowledge ultimately.

¹⁷ Although the normativity of epistemology, as we have seen above, is rejected by the defenders of scientism, normativity refers to the existence of features to be followed in distinguishing the concept of knowledge from other types of beliefs and judgements, and the need to take into account to express expectations regarding them. In this sense, what is meant by epistemic norm is the standards taken into account in the evaluation of knowledge (Blaauw and Pritchard 2005:109).

epistemology as a first philosophy.¹⁸ For instance, comparing scientific versus non-scientific claims requires an evaluation. In the light of this, the scientific method is the only way to decide what knowledge is. In other words, knowledge should be the outcome of the scientific process, is the solution to the question of *how knowledge should be*. Since general epistemological scientism, which refers to the epistemological variety of scientism (GES), is the view that knowledge is *only* scientific, the epistemic principle on which scientism is based can be expressed as "only scientific propositions can be knowledge". It means that propositions that can be characterised as knowledge are only propositions obtained by the scientific method. Since scientific knowledge is the only *valid knowledge* and science is the *only source of knowledge*, and since true knowledge is only scientific knowledge (Mizrahi 2017:353), the natural sciences are the only human activity that has secured knowledge (Rosenberg 2018:86).

(GES), is the view that knowledge is *only* scientific.

(GES) includes the attitude of not regarding propositions presented as examples of knowledge as knowledge unless they are derived from the scientific method. Science is therefore the only human activity that warrants knowledge (Rosenberg 2018:86). For example, in the definition of scientism made by Stevenson and Byerly, it is seen that they consider the view that the knowledge that can be obtained through the scientific method covers all knowledge as scientism (Peels, Ridder, and Woudenberg 2018:1), which is essentially the definition of epistemological scientism.

(GES) can appear in partial and holistic forms in literature. Claims related to a specific field are partial, such as Russell's assertion that Christian dogmas about God, immortality and free will cannot be known by the scientific method, and therefore we cannot have knowledge about them (Russell 1997:89). However, a claim such as Carnap's assertion that there is no limit to science can be holistic (Peels 2018:35). Because if there is no limit for science, science is regarded as the source of knowledge on every topic.

Again, (GES) is a radical view of knowledge that only scientific knowledge is trustworthy as knowledge since science is the only or only source of knowledge.¹⁹ If knowledge is viewed in this way, universal truth offers as an expression of the credibility of the scientific method.²⁰ This consequence entails that: The view has gone beyond an epistemological attitude. Because the conviction that reliable knowledge is based *only* on the scientific method logically includes some conclusions. For instance, the claim that individual and social problems can *only be solved* through science, or at least through the scientific method, emerges in this way.²¹ Ultimately, if our source of knowledge is singular, it would be irrational not to consult it in any matter. Thus, this idea leads to the idea that disciplines that were previously considered non-scientific should also be scientificised through the extension of the scientific method, that is, *expansionism*.

Rationality and the rationalistic scientism

Since rationality and our concept of knowledge are closely related, scientism in epistemology is also connected to the problem of rationality. After all, it is required to regard the subject as rational by virtue of having them if the concept of knowledge relates to propositions that have specific kinds of support. Epistemological scientism, however, includes the idea that accepting scientific findings makes one rational, and vice versa, since it derives from the idea that truth (in the sense of the universality) and scientific knowledge are interdependent. So, in this section, I give

¹⁸ For scientists epistemology as a first philosophy is a "Cartesian dream" (Batak 2017:21).

¹⁹ Contrary to this claim, Mizrahi considers the idea that science is the best among other types of knowledge (produced by other disciplines) as weak scientism (Mizrahi 2017:354).

²⁰ For example, Atkins puts forward that there are no limits to the adequacy of science. This means that truth is identical with scientificity (Atkins 1995:97). That is, scientific propositions are true and non-scientific propositions are false.

²¹ For such a claim, see: (Peels 2018:45–46).

a basic account of rationality together with a focus on rationalistic scientism, which can be subsumed within epistemological scientism.

Propositional knowledge is what we mean when we state something is knowledge (Hospers 1997:40). Therefore, I am not concerned with knowing how to do something or knowledge of acquaintance. A proposition is a statement that can be true or false. However, knowing a proposition requires certain conditions: Someone knows a proposition, *p*, when she believe it and certain other requirements are met (Lemos 2007:9). These conditions must include at least the following: *p* is true and there are good reasons in support of it. The good reason necessary for believing a proposition is an appropriate warrant for an accepting that it as true. We may need to take into account an emotional, psychological, social, or other type of guiding element to explain our believing if we do not have a good reason to do so. But if we have a good *reason*, then there is a rational ground for our belief. Our right to hold a belief on the basis of a particular justification, then, arises from a rational basis. Therefore, if the concept of knowledge refers to propositions that are justified and true, believing them makes the subject rational. Having justified a true belief also means that the subject has made an assessment of whether it is logically reasonable to believe it. In this assessment, the fact that belief has some supports makes believing in it *more preferable* than believing in other propositions (Chisholm 1989:8). If believing a proposition makes one rational, it means that one has appealed to the norms that guide one. Norms guide the subject about what is reasonable when he believes it. This provides us with the idea that rationality, like justification, is normative. This is why we mention good reasons for belief.

Is there a generally recognised standard of rationality? In my opinion, the case of the so-called "circle of evidence" does not allow such a standard to be set. Because the reliability of our cognitive sources—perception, introspection, belief, memory, testimony, intuition, and common sense—that we rely on to acquire knowledge is again dependent on the application of our cognitive faculties.²² In this case, our cognitive faculties will have determined the qualities expected to be possessed by the evidence that will show the truth of a proposition. This entails the conclusion that we do not have meta-standards about truth. Our norms—the standards we use to determine what is knowledge or truth—are founded on ideas that reflect our values. We move from the idea of absolute truth and toward the idea of truth in terms of specific criteria as a result of the evidence cycle. In this context, truth is a quality that appears within a certain set of norms that the subject has decided. The boundaries of a certain rationality are also shown by beliefs, acts, and evaluations that adhere to certain standards. As a result, various ideas and actions are justified by various principles and standards.²³ Given that what is rational might alter, the term "rationality" relates to norms of reasonableness. Reasons and reliability are important in knowledge and action, in both. If this is the case, we can argue that the rational aspect of decision-making is concerned with choosing the optimal course of action, and we can generalize rationality as a matter of deciding the best means to reach desired ends (or values) (Searle 2001:1), just like in scientific activity. I conceive of rationality in this context as the choosing of appropriate means to ends and summarise my view of it as follows: Reason has at least two functions, the first of which is to find reasons to support the truth of a belief and to guide action. Therefore, the use of rational methods leads us to rational beliefs.²⁴ When the goals to be achieved by the subject in general, such as epistemic goals, change, the methods used and the paths followed may also change. Therefore, since there is no standard of rationality, the use of different methods is justified.

Does this require us to regard all beliefs obtained in any way as knowledge? I should emphasize that there is a difference between "knowledge" and "justified belief," as has been

²² Moser (2018), s.31.

²³ However, this does not mean that people from different environments and cultures in different periods have different ways of reasoning, even though they may pursue different kinds of goals with different kinds of tools such as methods, cognitive tools, beliefs, etc. (Stenmark 1995:21).

²⁴ Gauch, s.46-47.

maintained since Plato. There is a sound reason for this. A one may believe a proposition that is not true and justify it. In the case of people who believe two propositions that are contradictory, one of them can be believed on some grounds while A or B is false. (For example, does God exist or not? If two people hold opposite beliefs on this issue, one of them is wrong. However, it may be presumed that they both have some justifications for holding the beliefs they do about how their evaluations compare to their norms. Of course, this does not imply that they are both right. The idea of knowledge is only thought as applicable for true propositions, but. It becomes clear that although there are similarities between "knowledge" and "justified belief," they are ultimately separate when we take into account this distinction. They are both rational, which is how they are comparable. But it is obvious that there is more to the subject's justification than only knowing. That is, our justified beliefs are more than our knowledge. Therefore, there is not a fundamental difference between the two, only a difference in degree. We can see the status of beliefs that are rational but not knowledge in the difference between our beliefs based on common sense and our knowledge. Our belief that the sun will rise tomorrow is not knowledge at all, but an inductively acquired belief. I don't know whether the sun will rise or not, but I set my alarm clock at night to get up on time in the morning. Thus, I prefer to rely on rational beliefs in order to rationalize my behavior. Or I can use rational beliefs as a determining factor in my decisions. This distinction between "knowledge" and "justified belief" leads us to the following conclusion: Although justification is *necessary* and sufficient for a belief to be considered rational, it is *not sufficient* for a belief to be considered knowledge.

If this were not the so, it would be impossible to establish a rational basis for scientific knowledge. For it is clear that we cannot know whether our beliefs about the external world are true or not, since we cannot test them in an exhaustive way. Scientific change, as in the change of our theories about the external world, shows that the propositions we have obtained scientifically are justified beliefs. It makes sense to believe in scientific theories because they are supported by evidence. Even though the required truths of reason²⁵ are not all contingent propositions, "uncertainty of truth" can be used to describe them. This opens up the possibility of rationally accepting the findings of the scientific approach.

Does the fact that scientific knowledge consists of propositions, in the sense of being justified, in which it is rational to believe require one to deny that other propositions can be considered rational? This viewpoint does not appear to be true, despite the fact that it has been maintained by scientism proponents. Even if scientific knowledge can provide us with certainty, it could not be argued that science is the sole path to truth. Nevertheless, when a rational decision involves the necessity of using the scientific method to reach truth, a scientific reasoning emerges here again. In other words, not considering it rational to believe in something that cannot be known scientifically is also scientism. Accordingly, someone who adopts epistemological scientism might argue that the way to be rational is to base our beliefs solely on the scientific method. Such a claim, which includes an idea of rationality, is an example of rationalistic scientism derived from epistemological scientism.

Let us say, then, that there are at least two epistemological positions within scientism. The first of these is general epistemological scientism (GES), which holds that all our knowledge should be based on the scientific method. The second of the epistemological attitudes within scientism is related to rationality, which we can briefly call rationalistic scientism (RS).

(RS) is the view that we are only entitled to reasonably believe scientifically justifiable propositions.

²⁵ These are self-evident truths. No method is required to reach them; they are necessary truths. For example, the proposition "The whole is greater than any of its parts" is like this. See: (Audi 2018:106).

In short, someone who accepts epistemological scientism asserts that beliefs must be rooted in the scientific method as a condition of rationality. Epistemological scientism, then, leads to rationalistic scientism. However, it is still a stronger claim, as well as a distinct claim because knowledge and rationality are different things.²⁶ Consequently, the epistemological scientific claim requires suspending judgement about things that cannot be treated by the scientific method, since we cannot acquire knowledge of them. However, in rationalistic scientism, as in Hutchinson's views, all knowledge claims other than scientific knowledge are regarded as superstition, irrationality, emotionalism or meaninglessness, and there is a categorical denial of them (Peels et al. 2018:1). In sum, non-scientific beliefs are not knowledge, and therefore it is not reasonable to believe them, according to this.

Conclusion

Epistemology, as a branch of philosophy that deals with the problems of knowledge, should be a field that takes into account only the results of science, according to the scientific perspective. The main reason for this is the understanding that we can only make correct judgements about ourselves and the universe through the scientific method. In the last century, especially in the light of the achievements of physics, scientists have put forward an expansionist perspective and conceived science as the only valid activity for our cognitive goals.

There are at least two different sorts of epistemological attitudes within the idea of scientism. The first is the conviction that all our knowledge must be obtained through the scientific method. This is a strong and universalist view within epistemology. It leaves no room for exceptions for different sources and ways of knowing. Unscientific pseudo-knowledge is regarded as superstition. Therefore, this solution to the problem of knowledge also guides which judgements, decisions and behaviours are considered rational. Accordingly, only believing in judgements based on science makes one rational. This is the second epistemological attitude within scientism, the rationalistic view of scientism. Human rationality is considered possible only within scientific activity.

As a result, although scientism can be said to be logically based on an ontological presupposition, the claims put forward by its advocates diversify from epistemological attitudes. In this context, scientism emerges as an epistemological approach. Because science is a cognitive activity based on the aim of acquiring knowledge.

²⁶ Following Stenmark in this respect, I distinguish between scientism concerning knowledge and scientism concerning rationality (Stenmark 2001:5).

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Transformation of Public Space and Urban Landscape

Duygu AKYOL KUYUMCUOĞLU¹

Introduction

In this study, it is aimed to define the concept of public space, to examine the concepts of public space included in the urban landscape, to examine the changes in the public space and in this context, the transformation of the urban landscape under social, political and economic factors in the historical process, and to explain its effects on urban identity. In accordance with this purpose;

In the first part, the concepts of public space and urban landscape will be discussed and the public spaces included in the urban landscape will be exemplified.

In the second part, the transformation of the public space with modernism and post-modernism and the processes of the urban landscape being affected by this transformation will be explained.

In the third part, the search for form in the cities and the negative and positive changes in the social structure will be discussed in this transformation server.

In the conclusion part, alternative interpretations will be presented by criticizing these new identities formed in the cities as a result of this change in two different phenomena.

Urban Landscape and Public Space Concepts

Urban landscape is considered by most occupational disciplines and urban users as natural, green spaces only found in the city. We can characterize this as the narrow meaning of urban landscape arising from the impression of the citizen.

Because the urban landscape is actually a phenomenon that the citizen can describe in terms of usage time and impression.

If the citizen sees this phenomenon as the perceivable physical environment, including all the infrastructures that make up the city, this would be a broad and correct expression of his impression.

But if he sees this phenomenon only as green and nature and makes a naturalization in the city, he will see its narrowest meaning. After this situation, the concern of bringing back the lost nature to the city begins and it is thought that nature is lost as it moves away from the city.

This idea also destroys the pluralism and different discipline understanding that the urban landscape contains. The real danger begins when this pluralism disappears.

Although public space is an element in the urban landscape, parks, squares, open green spaces, roads, markets, etc., are among the elements that make up the urban landscape. On the other hand, they are the places that make up the public space and contain the concept of public space. In this context, if we define the public space;

Cities are places where various activities, activities and images take place. Urban public spaces include urban behavior patterns, appearances, facades of buildings and all urban elements. In

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addition, they are open to the public and always usable, designed to respond to human requests and activities, and are generally functional spaces between the structured areas (Korkmaz, 2007).

Public spaces have various roles such as physical, psychological, social, political, economic. In addition, its symbolic role should not be overlooked. Urban public spaces may contain high-value elements; such as religious or symbolic meeting places.

Public spaces that reflect the cultural, historical, religious, social and political values of groups or societies become symbols for these groups and societies and contribute to the creation of a sense of continuity with their symbolic meanings. It is possible for the urban public space to make sense to the user and thus to keep the collective memory alive in the process of change (Korkmaz, 2007).

After industrialization, the modernism and post-modernism understanding have had a great impact on the urban landscape and indirectly on the public space. The effects of these changes have changed the perception of the space both morphologically, physically and socially. So, what are the changes in these phenomena, how did they occur, and how is the extent of these changes experienced today?

The Change Process of Public Space and Urban Landscape

Urban public space is a show and performance space in the whole city, it is the place where reality is tested, it is the discovery of difference and identity, it is spaces that enable the individual to establish social relations and awareness of himself and others. In a sense, they are areas where multidimensional truths are found and different ideas are adapted. Social and spatial diversity and complexity have increased with the use of motor vehicles in modern Asian cities, as in European cities. In parallel with the processes of Modernism and Postmodernism, developments in science and technology and globalization, significant changes are observed on the formal and social structure of public and private spaces. With the increase in the use of automobiles in modern cities, urban public spaces have begun to fragment in the urban structure.

This change is a change in the physical dimension of public space. In addition, there have been changes/transformations in morphological, functional, social, perceptual, visual and time dimensions.

What we need to consider morphologically; It should be on how vehicles and equipment are used in public spaces. Alternatives multiplied by the development of technology and science have multiplied the tools. This caused the public space to be fragmented and not perceived as a whole. Industrialization, the modernization that followed the Fordist understanding of production and the respect for science and doctrinal understanding caused division in the space and, in a sense, the loss of spirit and identity in the space. The simplest example of this is the start of using the car. In addition, the concept of gigantic multi-storey majestic building built in the urban landscape with a modernist understanding, along with the grid planning approach adopted in transportation, fragmented public spaces and caused them to lose their functionality.

Carr emphasized that “as a result of his studies on the use and design of urban public spaces, these spaces should be meaningful, democratic and capable of responding to needs. He stated that urban public spaces should meet five important needs. These; comfort, rest, passive interaction with the environment, active interaction with the environment and exploration.(Carr, S., Francis, M., Rivlin, L.G., Stone, A.M., (1992)., *Public Space*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.). At times, the use of vehicle-based transportation or the fact that people go to the places they want to go with their cars does not make it possible for the citizens to question the public spaces from a functional point of view. However, the person who uses the space as a pedestrian sees public spaces only as temporary places, and does not see them as an area where social activities, cultures and views are shared. In addition, although it uses the public space as a temporary tool, if the elements

created around the space are not positioned in accordance with certain principles, it also reduces the communication of the user with the environment.

Another factor is the social dimension. Urban public spaces were moved to the outer periphery of the city with the industrial revolution starting to destroy the city center. This has now begun to be perceived as spaces created for the use of certain classes, moving away from the image of a public space that offers an equal area of use to all. The most typical examples of this were seen very clearly in England and France at that time. Parks, which are part of the urban landscape, have begun to be isolated and become areas where only the nobles of the country can enter and benefit from it. In America, however, this process was a little different. When the nobles began to settle in the suburbs, the public space was divided into two poles and the concept of common space began to gain. Because separate public spaces were created for the nobles outside the city, and separate public spaces were created for the working and poor classes in the city center. This caused the public space to lose its main function of communication, cultural cohesion, and social sharing.

Another factor to be considered here is the perceptual dimension. Public spaces could not offer a strong visuality with modernism. The visuality is attributed to the large-scale structures in the city. With post-modernism, the city was constantly thought of as parts and parcels, and each professional discipline was designed and planned according to its own understanding, and as a result, the necessary imaginary forces could not be loaded into the space. This made it difficult for the citizens to care about the perception of the space.

The time dimension in urban public spaces is; Maintaining the semantic integrity between the past and the future requires the control and management of the time dimension and spatial changes over time. Ensuring this continuity over time will ensure that the collective memory is kept alive. Changes in cities today are irreversible changes. These changes not only cause physical negativities in cities, but also interrupt the process temporally, thus the collective memory and meaning.

Cities Shaped by Transformation/Change

Aesthetic and environmental problems resulting from rapid urbanization increase the importance of planned urban green spaces. While the longing of the urban people for nature is tried to be eliminated with these planned green areas, the negative features of urban life are also masked (Özdemir, 2009). In particular, the high capital value of the spaces gained in urban transformation applications, along with private gardens, the existence of industrial facilities, the presence of historical places, restoration and renovation works according to their place reveal our view of the urban landscape.

This fragmentation that comes with capitalization often makes it impossible to create a public space on an urban scale. People are trying to meet their green space and recreation needs within their own small parcels. Therefore, the concept of urban environment is reduced to a parcel scale rather than an upper identity.

This situation causes cities to appear as settlements that do not have an identity and develop with approaches far from the concept of planning. However, these environments in which we spend our lives have very important effects on both the physical and mental structures of people. In this context, there is no doubt that cities that are organized in line with the needs of people and that have an identity are more livable places.

With the urban transformations implemented recently, city centers and public spaces have started to be offered to the use of certain segments. Until a short time ago, residences, workshops, factories, shopping areas and public spaces were located together in many cities. The liberal economy understanding and the view of city lands as commodities caused all these equipments to be separated from each other and lost their functions. This change has begun to reveal new

lifestyles, and new definitions have been tried to be made for the perceived landscape in the city. In addition, the threat is growing with the construction of existing urban green areas.

The concept of urban design has been put forward within the masking of all these negativities by local governments and it has been said that the functions of cities will be regulated within the framework of ecology and sustainability. However, many urban design projects carried out so far have not been implemented by local governments due to their low financial return, or the lack of planning of the cities and gaps in the laws have prevented the implementation of the project.

While the above-mentioned approaches construct ideal cities on immutability and stability, the forms pre-described by designers in contemporary cities will change over time; In this process of change, the park plans, which are a part of the urban landscape, will be reshaped. Building-intensive settlements are preferred instead of parking areas. As a result of the emergence of new consumption spaces, the lifestyle of the urban people is interfered with and the recreational uses identified with the open space are moved to closed and private spaces. As a result of the radical changes that have occurred in the economic order in our country in the last 20 years, this communication and confusion has gained a new dimension and as a result, new consumption spaces and shopping activities have passed into private control. In this process, public outdoor space also becomes privatized. Now, the first places that come to the minds of the people of the city to evaluate their spare time are shopping centers that offer all the features of the outdoor space except access to nature.(Özdemir, 2009). Thus, new consumption landscapes are emerging.

With the transformation and privatization of this public space, people started to prefer the consumption spaces offered to them to public spaces open to parks. With the new urban typification, the urban landscape that was destroyed in the city is taken out of the city and positioned in areas with defined boundaries in order to encourage the animals established outside the city, and certain segments are offered the opportunity to use it..

Conclusion

In all these transformations/changes experienced in cities, it should be asked how the ideal public space and ideal urban landscape should be. Will all these transformations that have been created connect people socially or will they present a completely isolated life and cause certain segments and groups to be schematically separated?

Can the concept of sustainability really take its place in the urban landscape that is created or tried to be adopted?

All these questions will actually guide how the urban landscape and urban public spaces, which are an element of it, should be perceived and created.

The spaces created should include criteria that can respond to the wishes of the citizens. With the smallest example, public logic should come to the fore rather than the social understanding of the cities in urban design applications.

In the urban landscape to be created here, the contribution of the landscape to recreation, to the understanding of public space, to social activity and to life should not be overlooked.

The approaches that have been frequently used since the middle of the 20th century were aimed at positioning large green areas in the city in accordance with ecological principles and integrating them with the green masses located on the city periphery and in the immediate surroundings. With the understanding of "Land Mosaics", open spaces in cities could not be evaluated as a part of ecological corridors. In this respect, it is also obvious that the concept of eco-city or sustainable city cannot be fully filled.

Today, the goal of planners and designers is to create spaces where spatial communication and socialization can be controlled. We see this in the examples of special areas such as shopping malls,

satellite cities and protected settlements and thematic city parks (Boyer, 1992). However, according to Lefebvre's (1991) definition, this is not an ordinary and accidental change. For the purpose of control, planners and administrators distribute the people in various groups to certain parts of the city by classifying them and design different public spaces for each class (Özdemir, 2009).

These planning approaches, which will continue in the future, will lose the concept of public space in people's minds and after a certain time, people will not worry much about the urban landscape being as it should be. For this, urban public plans should be created that will ensure that urban spaces merge with nature, and that the dynamic structures of nature will flow into the city and that this cycle will be continuous. Parks and squares, which are the elements that make up the urban landscape, should play a major role here.

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Temporality, Everydayness and Homelessness

Cihan CAMCI

In this paper, I will discuss the temporality of the everydayness in an eight minutes animation of a Polish director, Zbigniew Rybcynski's *Tango*. I will refer to Heidegger's understanding of everydayness, dealing with equipment and goal directedness in our everyday activities and temporality as the structure of these activities. I will ask whether *Tango* can be seen from a Heideggerian perspective with refer to the themes, boredom and homelessness. I will conclude that in *Tango* we feel like inhabiting in a hotel rather than feeling at home.

Tango is a short animation basically on absurd activities of thirty-six irrelevant people in a room accompanied by an overriding tango rhythm. We start watching an empty room that is gradually filled up with activities of different people that are repeated monotonously and mechanically. In every episode, new people and actions are added up to the others. By the time goes on, activities lessen smoothly, the motion fades away step by step and come to an end steadily. From the beginning till the end, music –tango- dominates the activities taking place in the room. The music, repeating itself relentlessly in the same tone, goes along with the irrelevant actions and somehow makes them seem alike although none of the persons or couples is related to each other. The inhabitants of the room are so disentangled that, despite the apparent closeness within the small space they come together, they are absolutely ignorant and unaware of one other, never talk and converse.

On the surface, the movie seems to represent a typical modern alienation. All animated characters are busy with their own purposes and fulfill their tasks in a robotic automaticity and adjustment. They show no sign of human intimacy even when they, eat, play, take care of their babies, steal and have sex. The repetition of the music also seems to emphasis the estrangement and the boredom of routine.

In order to read the work from a Heideggerian perspective, I will discuss Heidegger's subjectivity, everydayness, goal-directedness, time, boredom and homesickness.

Subjectivity as Agency

For Heidegger, we do not establish our relationship to world as Cartesian dual structure of being assumes. Heideggerian subjectivity can be characterized as agency or activity. Agency in its motion she is in-the-world- directed towards her goals. This being-in-the-world in the mood of goal directedness is *Dasein*. *Dasein*, in her factual life understands things in her daily activities. Understanding a thing is an accustomed familiarity of dealing with it as equipment that is already available, ready for our dealing with it.

I live in the understanding of writing, lighting things up, walking in and out and the like. More precisely, I am -as *Dasein*- speaking, walking, understanding, intelligible dealings. (*Umgang*). My being in the world is nothing other than this being-in-motion (*Sichbewegen*) that already understands in these modes of being (HPK, 118).

Our commerce with an object is being in motion. It is like a continuous flow of motion. We will see that *Dasein*, in this continuous motion of comporting herself to everyday life is, at the same time, towards being as such that is pure motion of temporality. We are in motion; we are in

our goal directedness. We strive towards our goals and use equipment in order to achieve our goals. In this striving towards, which is being in motion towards an expectation, we are sometimes obstructed and cannot comport towards our aims. In obstruction, we are bored when we are blocked and driven to think of the meaning of goal directedness itself and the availability of things we are accustomed to use. This is thinking the common ground and whatness of our intentionality and availability of equipment. In other words, this is the understanding the meaning of being as such.

We understand being via understanding objects around us. That is to say, we understand being as such by mediation of the beings of things, objects we comport to. We do not understand objects as isolated things from each other and from our goals. Thus, we comport to objects means, at the same time, we comport to the being of an object and to the togetherness of the beings of objects which means being as such.

Vague Understanding of Being in Everyday Practices

As we have told above, there is a kind of understanding in using objects, in being busy with them. It is a vague understanding that somehow is open to understanding being as such; as a know-how activity as the idiom *er versteht sich darauf* tells us. That is because when we are busy with beings, at the same time, we are busy with the being of beings. The vague, average understanding of being, which means being affected by the projection of being, in our commerce with things is a fact. The meaning of being in Dasein's average understanding, projects itself from-within the ecstatic structure of temporality as self temporalizing. Projection is a self differentiation of being itself as the temporalizing of temporality. In order to come to understand this event authentically we need to see that this differentiation is possible by the temporal structure of being, a structure that maintains a togetherness of being and nothing within itself (Pamuk & Salur, 2022). This differentiation is temporalizing of temporality, maintains the togetherness of presence and absence of being in the twinkle of an eye, *augenblick* and has a special kind of presence Heidegger calls *praesens*. The relation between our everyday life and this temporal structure of being as such depends on the projection of being itself as the functionality of objects. This possibility is open to us when we encounter objects and let them function, as Heidegger says, "comfortableness of the accustomed" (BT, 371) while they function as their "that for which", *Woraufhin*.

The average understanding of being that is open to us by virtue of the projective temporalizing of temporality takes place in our everyday practices. Everydayness is the way Dasein exists. It is Dasein's howness. We find the way towards the meaning of being in our everyday routine as this howness. In other words, our assignment of understanding whatness, what being as such is, is possible via understanding our howness in everydayness.

Zuhandene and Zuhandenheit as Whatness

The howness of everyday activities is temporal, time consuming and the directionality, in order to'ness of our temporal comportment is towards a temporal structure of objects as projection. Objects we comport for our practical aims also have a directional-temporal constitution for functioning for our service. We comport to the directionality, the, that for which of the functionality of an object in use. Our in order to'ness meets that for which of an object. The togetherness of the directionality of things and our practical goal-directedness depends on the ecstatic structure of things' availability, serviceability to us that is *Zuhandenheit*.

Our comportment toward our practical aims and the tacit, vague understanding of being in this comportment can be understood better when we look at the "that for which" of the objects closely. The objects in their "that for which" are not understood as extant objects, as *Vorhandene*

but as ready to hand, handy, *Zuhandene*. Heidegger emphasizes the equipmental character of the beings as handy and the ontological disposition of the handy as self-opening, self-functioning, being as follows:

The being most nearly encountered, that with which we have to do has the ontological constitution of equipment. This entity is not merely extant but in conformity with its equipmental character, belongs to an equipmental contexture within which it has its specific equipmental function, which primarily constitutes its, being. Equipment, taken in this ontological sense, is not only equipment for writing and sewing; it includes everything we make use of domestically or in public life. In this broad ontological sense, bridges, streets, street lamps are also items of equipment. We call the whole of all these beings handy, *das Zuhandene* (BPP, 292).

The ontological constitution of equipment is temporality. Temporality, as we will discuss below, is the condition of the possibility of a unity between a specific tool, a hammer and its whatness. Whatness of a hammer, hammeriness opens to us in its function, in its howness, it is that for which. What strikes us before the function of a hammer is the equipmental context that is whatness as such as the totality of equipments.

Totality of Equipment as Functionality

The equipment is not an isolated item. It is within a contexture with other items. Heidegger calls this togetherness *Zeug-Zusammenhang*. Although we encounter a single piece of equipment, this hammer for instance, it is determined in each instance by the totality of this functionality, the totality of that for which. This is how handy, *Zuhandene*, is different from the extant object, *Vorhandene*. An extant object standing over against a transcendental subject as determined in spatial position, does not give us the direct affectedness by the totality of equipmental context. A hammer as *Vorhandene* is isolated spatially from other objects since its existence is limited with spatial dimensionality. A hammer as an extant thing stands next to the nail for example. No matter how close they stand to each other, there is always a spatial distance between their extensional beings. They take their stand together in a room but their relation is spatially determined. The limit between an object and another is determined by an extensional difference.

This is not the equipmental character and equipmental contexture Heidegger attributes to a hammer. A hammer is equipment, *zeug* in its stand with other objects' that for which, howness, say nail's that for which. Since the totality of howness of equipments is whatness as such, a hammer is there and gives itself, *es gibt*, as availability and in this availability opens us an accessibility of whatness as such. So, this stand is not spatial and it is not determined by the spatial limits of distances. The difference between a hammer and a nail in their handiness is indifference, a de-severance, or dis-stance when the difference between whatness as such and howness of a handy object is temporal.

Totality as Temporality

This difference is the projection of the differentiation of the temporal structure of being as such, which is whatness as such, a projection of being itself as the functionality totality to the function of a single tool, say a hammer. The projective self differentiation of being as a nail for instance, projects itself to us in its availability, its function. Thus, tools can take a non-spatial stand of togetherness in a room without any spatial difference. This is how the totality of equipment that is the totality of functionality, determines a single tool's function.

So the totality of equipment is a functional togetherness without any spatial distance. A handy thing functions with another thing in order to serve for our practical needs. This entity,

Heidegger says, is “in order to hammer”, in order to make leaving, entering, closing possible”. Equipment is “in order to” (BPP, 292). This is what makes equipment significant for us.

What is there in the room there are at home is the table (not “a” table among many other tables in other rooms and houses) at which one sits in order to write, have a meal, sew and play. Everyone sees this right away e.g. during a visit: it is a writing table, a dining table- such is the primary way in which it is being encountered in itself (OHF, 69).

The position, the being of individual equipment is in function and is in itself in relation to its being, whatness; through its whatness, it is determined by the movement of whatness from-out-of-itself that is the temporalization of temporality. Through functionality, the temporal relation between an individual hammer and, in order to function as its howness, opens a way for the whatness of this entity and at the same time whatness as such. Howness is whatness. Heidegger says:

Rather, what and how it is as this entity, its whatness and howness, is constituted by this in-order-to as such, by its functionality. A being of the nature of equipment is thus encountered as the being that it is in itself if and when we understand beforehand the following: functionality, functionality relations, and functionality totality (BPP, 293).

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Psychological Reasons For Academic Failure

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“Success is a science; if you have the conditions you get the result.”

Oscar Wilde

Introduction

Every individual wants to be successful; every parent expects their child to be successful. The focus of educational institutions' programs is to increase academic achievement. States take education and academic achievement among their primary objectives when creating their reform plans. However, the expectation and desire for success, which started in the first years of school life, unfortunately do not occur in the desired direction and level for every individual. What is the desired “success” for everyone; who is considered a "failure", what are the reasons for failure?

Success is a comprehensive and relative concept. In the simplest sense, success is reaching a desired result. However, the definition and indicators of success may differ according to the individual. While a five-year-old's learning to read and write can be considered a success, this achievement may not be considered a success for a twenty-year-old. While the desired and expected result for each individual differs in terms of both the characteristics of the individual and the conditions of the environment, the progress of individuals who are accepted as "successful" by the society in general is higher.

In this study, a review that reflects the psychological variables of school failure is aimed. For this purpose, first of all, the definition and criteria of success in the school environment are discussed. After presenting the theoretical framework, the reasons for academic failure were examined, and the concepts of motivation, loneliness, self-anxiety and locus of control were emphasized within the scope of psychological variables.

Academic Success: Definition and Criteria

Success in the school environment is referred to as "academic success". Academic success is an indicator of the extent to which an individual benefits from a particular course or academic program in the school environment (Carter & Good, 1973). Ray stated that academic achievement is accepted as valid proof of the learning obtained from the student through standard achievement tests and includes some competencies such as reading, language, mathematical knowledge and ability in the learning field (2010). In other words, academic success is defined as the level of students' reaching the intended behaviors in school life (Silah, 2003).

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scores in the assessment and evaluation exams applied in the school environment, or to have insufficient learning is called academic failure.

Academic success is the progress made by the student in reaching the results determined according to the school, class and course. While the level of reaching the determined criteria is accepted as success, these criteria differ according to the institutions.

Academic Failure

Based on the definitions of success and the criteria determined for success, a definition of academic failure can be defined as failure to achieve the expected level of success in the success criteria. The failure of the student to make progress at the expected and desired level, for example, to get low

Theoretical Framework

There are, of course, many theories that try to explain success. Motivational theories, cognitive development theories and learning theories are at the top of these. However, instead of including all these theories in this study, goal orientations and causal attributions, which are thought to deal with success-failure more limitedly and directly, are examined within the theoretical framework. Apart from these, learning styles are also included in the framework to provide a dimension that explains learning behavior.

In this study, Attribution Theory, which is a social psychology theory, Achievement Goal Theory, which is one of the motivation theories put forward to explain the effects of motivation in learning, and Learning Styles, which are included in learning theories, are included.

Attribution Theory

One of the approaches frequently used in academic achievement research has been the Attribution Theory put forward by Fritz Heider. According to Heider, there are two basic motives in man. These; motivations to form a coherent view of the world around us and to control our environment. Attribution theory has an important place in terms of making sense of one's own behaviors, evaluating other people's behaviors, and making sense of or interpreting the events perceived by the individual. According to the attribution theory, individuals systematically evaluate the cause of behavior in order to make generalizations about how various outcomes are achieved (Heider, 1958). The individual, who evaluates his past behaviors, success and failure outcomes, will be able to plan his future behaviors. If the subject is important, the outcome is beyond expectations and negative, these evaluations are more likely to shape future behaviors (Weiner, 1985; cited in Kızılgın & Dalgın, 2012). At this point, the reasons why individuals base their outputs, that is, the attributions they make, gain importance.

Based on Heider's studies, Weiner developed the Attribution Theory. According to Weiner, attribution is the linking of the reasons for the success or failure of the individual to some reasons (Kızılgın & Dalgın, 2012). Students attribute their success and failure to reasons such as "effort", "luck", "difficulty" and "talent". These four reasons are examined in terms of source of control, stability (permanence) and controllability (Struthers, Deborah, Connie, & Gemma, 2001).

When evaluated in terms of the source of control, talent and effort are classified as internal causes, and difficulty and luck are classified as external causes. According to this dimension, if the individual attributes success and failure to internal factors, success causes boasting and increases motivation. Failure reduces the individual's self-confidence (Duman, 2004). If the individual has an external locus of control, he will think that external factors control events and he will think that there is a low relationship between his behavior and the results he has achieved.

In the stagnation dimension, causal factors can be grouped into two as temporary (changing) and permanent (not changing). From this point of view, talent and difficulty are permanent, effort and luck are temporary causes. The individual's evaluation in the stasis dimension affects the

expectation of future success and failure (Struther et al., 2001). If the individual attributes the reason for his failure to permanent reasons that do not change, he believes that his failure will continue in the future, and if he attributes it to temporary reasons, he believes that he can be successful.

The controllability dimension refers to the controllability of the cause of success or failure by the individual. Effort is controllable, while difficulty, talent and luck are uncontrollable. If the student attributes his success to a controllable cause, he is proud and proud of his success; if he is tied to an uncontrollable situation, this success does not make him very happy. Failure in situations that he cannot control creates a feeling of anger in the individual.

Attribution Theory, which deals with what individuals attribute to positive and negative situations they encounter, explains the issue of success-failure in the school environment. Determining the reasons that the student uploads is important in terms of giving the opportunity to make corrections in their future learning and contributing to directing the student to the desired behaviors.

Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement Goal Theory is another theoretical approach that sheds light on research dealing with the causes of academic failure. This theory, which was put forward by Nicholls (1984), emerged with motivation research as a basic area within the scope of social-cognitive conceptualization (Buluş et al., 2011). The theory was developed to understand students' adaptive and maladaptive responses to the need for achievement. The aim of the theory is to try to explain the beliefs that students hold to maintain success or the criteria they use to evaluate successful performance (Eppler & Harju, 1997; cited in Çetin & Akın, 2009). Research on theory focuses on the reasons students have to be successful.

Two types of achievement goal orientations related to the theory are emphasized (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; cited in Çetin & Akın, 2009; Senko, Hulleman & Harackiewicz, 2011). Goal orientation, according to the theory, is defined as the motivations students have to complete their academic tasks.

1. Learning goal approach
2. Performance goal approach

Learning goal orientation is more learner driven and intrinsically motivating. Learning goal-oriented students aim to acquire new skills, improve their competencies related to a task, or try to increase their learning and achieve success by working hard (Senko et al., 2011) Against failure, they develop a strategy and continue by increasing their efforts (Çetin and Akın, 2009).

Performance goal orientation, on the other hand, represents the idea of demonstrating competence to others by appearing talented or performing well, and is often assessed by interpersonal norms (eg, *Was I better in class than other students?*, *Do others think I am intelligent?*, etc.). According to Ames (1992) and Dweck (1986), performance goal-oriented students primarily try to show their talents to others. Performance goal-oriented students try to avoid difficult tasks to avoid negative evaluations and have low intrinsic motivation to learn. These students focus on talent problems, see mistakes as an indicator of lack of talent, give up when they fail, and worry about being judged (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; cited in Çetin & Akın, 2009).

Learning Styles

In psychological and educational approaches, especially after the second half of the 1900s, there is a tendency that individuals have different characteristics from each other and these characteristics should be taken into account in the teaching process. The education, which got rid

of the influence of the behaviorist learning-teaching approach, which does not consider the human mind in the learning process and explains learning as an action-reaction bond, has started to deal with individual differences with what the cognitive approach says on learning. The insights brought by this approach, which states that learning is an active mental process, are how people learn concepts and how they solve problems; how information is kept in mind, how it is remembered and forgotten has become the main subject of research (Wolfolk, 1993; cited in Goldfinch & Hughes, 2007). The understanding of individuality in learning gained importance and accepted with the Constructivist approach. At this point, learning styles, one of the characteristics of the learner, draw the attention of researchers more and more.

The concept of learning style is defined as the personally preferred method in learning (Kolb, 1984). Felder and Silverman (1988), on the other hand, define learning style as individuals' characteristic strengths and preferences in the process of receiving, holding and processing information. In Boydak's (2001) definition, learning styles are described as an individual's innate characteristic that affects his or her success (Act., Arslan & Babadoğan, 2005). Based on these definitions, it can be said that the way in which the student learns best is his/her learning style.

It is seen that there are different approaches in defining learning styles. The reason for the difference in these approaches is that they focus on different dimensions of learning (cognitive, affective and physiological). Different models have been put forward depending on the different variables in the definitions of learning styles. Given (1996) stated that these models fall into one or more of the following categories: 1. Models based on personality and affective traits 2. Psychological, cognitive and information processing models 3. Social models 4. Physical models 5. Environmental and instructional models. The most commonly used models in the literature are presented below.

- Gregorc's Model of Learning Styles (1984)
- Kolb Learning Styles Model (1983)
- Felder and Silverman's Model of Learning Styles (1988)
- Lawrence Learning Type Model (1982)
- Sarasin Learning Style Classification (1999)
- Vermunt Learning Style Classification (1998)
- McCarthy 4MAT Learning Style Model (1987)
- Grasha and Reihmann Learning Style Model (1996)
- Curry Learning Style Model (1983)
- Dunn and Dunn Learning Styles Model (1979)

It can be said that ignoring students' learning styles may cause academic failure. Paying attention to teaching styles and arranging education programs accordingly can contribute to increased success.

Causes of Failure

Researchers have examined the relationship between academic achievement and many variables. Learning styles (Buluş, Duru, Balkis & Duru, 2011; Goldfinch & Hughes, 2007; Yenilmez & Çakır, 2005), motivation (Gottfried, Fleming & Gottfried, 2001; Wolters, Yu & Pintrich, 1996; Broussard, 2002), intelligence, self-esteem (Yıldırım, 2000; Anderson, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2005), anxiety (Cassady & Johnson, 2002; Chapell, Blanding, Silverstein, Takahashi, Newman, Gubi & McCann, 2005), parenting attitude (Le Croy & Krysik, 2008), loneliness (Grosnick & Jones, 1981; Demir, 1990; Vauras & Juntilla, 2007; Benner, 2011), talent (Old, 1980), socio-economic level

(Polat, 2009), school environment (Bilgic, 2009) ; Nichols, 2008; Cemalcılar, 2010), depression (Wade, Cairney, & Pevalin, 2002; Keskin & Sezgin, 2009), school culture (Demirtaş, 2010), locus of control (Dağ, 2002; Gifford, Briceno-Perriot & Mianzo, 2006; Wood, Coleen, & Jayne, 2009) are among the variables examined. These variables can be grouped under three general headings:

1. Variables related to the student: Intelligence, chronic diseases, having any physical disability, studying habits, self-control, learning styles, psychiatric disorders (depression, anxiety, personality disorders, etc.) and psychological causes (loneliness, motivation, self-esteem and control) focus).

2. Familial variables: Socio-economic level, parental attitude, parental education level, number of siblings, birth order, single parenting, loss of family members and intra-familial communication.

3. Variables related to school environment: Teacher attitude, school climate, school satisfaction, drop out, attendance to school, curriculum and school bullying.

School failure is a multidimensional complex problem area that is related not only to the individual's own causes (age, gender, intelligence, psychological reasons...) but also to the reasons originating from his/her environment (family, school, teacher, friend...). The problem of academic failure, which is of great importance, is of interest to researchers from the fields of social psychology, clinical psychology, developmental psychology as well as educational researchers.

Although academic failure studies in the literature are related to many variables, they mostly have similar results. Among these variables, intelligence originating from the individual himself is a positive relationship with success. It is a common finding of studies especially in the field of clinical psychology that the academic achievement of individuals with chronic diseases or physical disabilities is lower than their peers because they cannot benefit from educational opportunities equally. Socio-economic level generally predicts success; It is expected that the individuals in the upper sed group have higher academic achievement and considering the opportunities they have. The number of siblings and parental education level are also among the variables that can predict success like sed. While the high number of siblings decreases the success, the high educational level of the parents most likely results in the child's high academic achievement. It is known that perceived social support is also effective on success. Perceived social support from family, peers and teachers plays a role as a factor that increases success.

Psychological variables

Within the scope of the study, the relationship between motivation, locus of control, loneliness and self-esteem as individual psychological variables with academic achievement was examined within the framework of researches and basic concepts.

Motivation: Motivation is a concept that has a wide place in the literature as an important variable that determines student success. It is defined as a process that encourages and maintains goal-oriented activities (Wolters et al., 1996). The sources that direct human behavior are divided into two as internal and external. Internal processes such as the individual's needs, interests, and curiosities, or external factors such as reward and punishment, can cause motivation.

In educational research, "achievement motivation" draws attention as an important variable. The reasons for wanting to be successful point to the differences in the motivation sources of the students. While the student may want to be successful for internal reasons such as his own well-being, happiness, curiosity and interest, he may also need success for external reasons such as being accepted and appreciated by his environment or, on the contrary, avoiding punishment and criticism. The extent to which the student strives for success is expressed as his "need for achievement" (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953; cited in Steinberg, 2007). The need for achievement is an intrinsically motivated desire that works even in the absence of extrinsic

rewards for success, and it works in conjunction with a complementary motive, "fear of failure". It is among the oldest findings that parenting styles are the most effective in motivation sources. High performance criteria created by parents, negative reactions they develop against failure are variables that affect student motivation and thus school success.

Studies show that students with intrinsic motivation are more persistent when faced with academic difficulties, have a stronger academic self-perception, act more creatively, are more willing to tasks, and exhibit higher academic achievement. In a long-term experimental study conducted with students' intrinsic motivation levels, a positive relationship was found between motivation and academic achievement. Children with high intrinsic motivation exhibited higher achievement and it is seen that they are more active in school studies (Gottfried, 2001). Another researcher who found a positive relationship between academic achievement and motivation is Broussard. The results of Broussard's research, which worked with 122 first-year students and 129 third-year students, are consistent with previous research (2002).

The richness of concepts and theories on motivation, even only in the field of learning-teaching, and numerous studies on the subject should be considered as signs that reflect the importance and validity of the subject. Within the scope of the study, motivation was mentioned within the scope of the difference in the sources of the perception of success on the basis of causality. It can be stated that by determining the motivation sources of the student, guidance can be made to increase the success.

Locus of control: The concept of locus of control, developed by Rotter (1966), is a concept related to who and what the individuals put the responsibility for the reasons for the emergence of their experiences, and it expresses the evaluations of the person about the power of directing their experiences. Locus of control is generally defined as the tendency of the individual to attribute good or bad events that affect him to his own abilities and characteristics (internal locus of control) or to variables such as fate and other people he sees as powerful (external locus of control) (Anderson et al., 2005). Although locus of control is generally considered as internal locus of control and external locus of control, most people are somewhere between these two extremes and are characterized according to whichever end is closer. While people with internal locus of control think that they play a decisive role in the development and emergence of events, people with external locus of control believe that they have no role.

In the educational environment, locus of control is also used to explain students' perceptions of how much they can control life events such as learning behaviors and academic success. Locus of control orientation is a variable related to individual differences related to students' learning responses and achievement levels, such as goal orientations. It is known that the development of locus of control is the result of the effects arising from the interactions that start from the child-parent relationship at home and continue with the child-teacher relationship at school (Lawrence, 1998).

Locus of control is a variable that has been increasingly studied in educational research, especially in recent years. Studies have shown that the concept of locus of control predicts success (Dağ, 2002; Gifford et al., 2006; Landis, Altman, & Cavin, 2007; Wood et al., 2009). In a study conducted with graduate students, it was found that students with internal locus of control used their study skills very well and their self-efficacy was higher when compared to their peers. Moreover, these students showed high academic performance no matter how difficult the task was (Landis et al., 2007). The findings of these studies show that students with internal locus of control who hold themselves responsible for their learning processes are more successful than students with external locus of control who attribute success to external factors such as luck and destiny.

Loneliness: Loneliness is a negative emotional state that every person can experience at some point in their life. The most accepted and most popular definition of the concept was made

by Peplau and Perlman (1982): Loneliness is when desired and existing social relationships differ in quality (eg, absence of meaningful close relationships) or quantity (eg, having few friends) It is an experience that occurs and creates psychological distress in the individual. This negative emotion is mostly seen in adolescents as a developmental period, and psychology research focuses on the relationship between loneliness and other unpleasant problem areas such as suicide, substance abuse, alcoholism, depression, and aggression (Grosnick & Jones, 1981).

One of the outcomes of loneliness in the school environment is low academic achievement. The common finding of the studies is that students with high levels of loneliness have low academic achievement (Grosnick & Jones, 1981; Demir, 1990; Vauras & Juntilla, 2007; Benner, 2011). In a longitudinal study conducted by American researcher Benner (2011) with 640 Latino high school students, the reflection of adolescents' previous loneliness levels on their later academic achievement and peer influence were examined. Although the loneliness levels of the students were not very low, academic success was found to be associated with loneliness. Another finding of the study is that peer support contributes to the increase in academic achievement by reducing the level of loneliness. In another study conducted in Finland, the relationship between the loneliness levels of 985 students aged 10 years and their academic achievement was evaluated in the context of the family. As a result of the research, it was found that there is a positive relationship between loneliness and academic achievement, and that there is a strong relationship between the loneliness and self-efficacy of the family and the loneliness and social competence of the child (Vauras & Juntilla, 2007).

Research findings show that loneliness is a psychological variable negatively associated with success. Although loneliness is considered to be an individual cause, it can be said that loneliness is a variable that also has social dimensions, since low perceived social support, negative life experiences and traumas affect its high level.

Self-esteem: Another psychological variable that predicts academic failure is self-esteem. Rosenberg (1989) equates self-esteem as a subject area that has become widespread especially in the fields of social psychology and clinical psychology since the 1970s, with the feeling of being in harmony with oneself and being content with one's own actions. Coopersmith (1967), on the other hand, defines self-esteem as the degree to which an individual perceives himself as sufficient, important, successful and valuable (Act., Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003). For self-esteem, which is an important dimension of the self, it can be said that the individual feels about his/her self.

In the literature, it is mentioned that the self has two dimensions, high and low self-esteem. While individuals with high self-esteem feel valued and respected; Individuals with low self-esteem are dissatisfied with themselves and reject themselves. Low self-esteem is associated with both internal problems such as depression, suicidality, eating disorders, anxiety, and external problems such as academic failure and school dropout, substance use, violence, anti-social behavior, and crime (Mann, Hosman, Schaalma, & DeVries, et al. 2004; Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt and Caspi, 2005, cited in Güloğlu and Kararmak, 2010).

Self-esteem, like loneliness, is a variable negatively associated with success. The effect of the school on self-esteem, which is beginning to take shape in the family environment, is inevitable. For this reason, taking into account the expectations of students, their abilities, interests and needs, accepting them as they are and harmonizing them with them may indirectly contribute to the increase in success.

Conclusion

Education is a transformative power, necessity and even necessity rather than being a right in our age. States pioneer education in development reforms, economists see education as an

effective force for capital, sociologists emphasize the importance of education for social awareness and transformation. As a matter of fact, in the current period, how education is a powerful weapon for the welfare and peace of societies, for rights and freedoms can be understood by looking at the developed states. Strengthening education and raising successful individuals should be accepted as a common goal. School failure is a negative situation that affects not only the student who experiences failure, but also his family, environment, teachers, educational researchers, sociologists, economists, and even policy makers and decision makers. So much so that failing to employ a student who is unsuccessful in school, perhaps by encouraging him to crime, may cause him to become a threat to the society. Of course, such a negative process will have economic, political and social extensions. On the other hand, employing a successful student at the end of his education will benefit both himself and the welfare and development of the society and the state. In this regard, it is an important research topic to identify and prevent the obstacles to the increase of academic success, which is the common interest of the different channels of the society.

In this study, in which the variables that cause failure in the school environment are compiled, how the outcomes of failure affect not only the student but also other individuals; It has been tried to explain that the variables that cause failure are not only caused by the student himself. The reasons for academic failure, which are grouped under three headings, depending on the individual, family and school environment, include many variables. The fact that all these variables work together and interrelated for student success points to the multifaceted and complex dimensions of failure. Researchers from different fields have developed approaches and theories to increase success or prevent failure for decades. Focusing on the psychological variables of failure, this study focuses on the concepts of motivation, locus of control, loneliness and self-esteem, after presenting some theories and approaches that explain success.

In order to prevent academic failure, it is thought that the causes of failure should be determined well. In this context, first of all, student-parent relationship, then school-family cooperation is of great importance. Schools, especially families, have a responsibility to prevent problems that are detected on time and correctly. Parents, classroom counselors and counselors are key people in identifying and preventing the psychological cause of student failure.

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