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FOREWORD

Sixth International Mediterranean Social Sciences Congress (MECAS VI) with the main theme of “Economic Cooperation in Mediterranean Basin” is jointly organized by Bandirma Onyedi Eylul University and Komsija-Association of Balkan Intellectuals and also supported by the following universities: Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, International University of Sarajevo, University of Donja Gorica and Sivas Cumhuriyet University. The congress was held in Septmeber 3-5, 2019 in Milan, Italy. In the congress, 58 presentations were made by scholars from 36 universities across 13 countries (Algeria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Italy, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Romania, Serbia, Spain, Turkey and United Arab Emirates).

The congress aimed to bring together international scholars and researchers in the areas of economics, finance, business studies, international relations, history, law, sociology, psychology, tourism, education, political science and all other areas of social sciences, in order to provide a forum for dialogue and exchange of recent research findings and ideas related to the challenges that Balkan and Mediterranean countries are facing in time of global turmoil. The Scientific and Organizing Committees are selected from academicians in different universities across the region. We received a large number of applications that given us the opportunity to choose the most excellent of them in order to reach higher scientific level.

I would like to thank all the participants for their enthusiasm to contribute to this project and their willingness both to keep to tight deadlines and to accept editorial recommendations; to all the Scientific and Organizing Committee members, for their patience, support and tolerance. Special thanks for the rectors of our partner universities for their valuable support. We hope to see you all in our next congress.

Sincerely Yours,

Prof. Dr. Suleyman Ozdemir, Rector
Bandirma Onyedi Eylul University

Sixth International Mediterranean Social Sciences
Congress

MECAS VI

Economic Cooperation in Mediterranean Basin

Bandirma Onyedi Eylul University & Komsija

Milan, Italy

September 3-5, 2019

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An Overview of CSR Practices in the Balkan Region

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this article is to present the CSR concept in the Balkans. The CSR concept should implement social, economic and ethical benefits to the society. CSR is the tool for improvement of sustainable economy as a result of CSR philosophy between captains of industry. CSR aims to provide improvements to the society by innovative know-how research and practices for development of sustainable business. CSR is relatively new in the region, with its starts in 1990s. There are numerous NGOs in the Balkans, but very few organizations that implement projects which are focused on CSR campaigns and development. In most Balkan countries those programs are supported by grants of international donors and governments. Business associations are not so encouraged by local governments to accept and implement CSR practices and use media exposure mostly to increase their public image. Although the Balkan region was thrown back for decades in its development comparing to the rest of Europe, new leaders with philosophy of social entrepreneurship and CSR development have emerged in the region. Overall, the future in Balkan countries can bring better cooperation between all public authorities and non-governmental sector regarding CSR policies in education, culture, media & sustainable development and other social areas. With further promotion and involvement of CSR principles, Balkan countries can gain better competitiveness and integration within European context.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Balkan Region, Sustainable Development, Social Entrepreneurship.

INTRODUCTION

In the second decade of the 21st century humanity is confronting political, economic, social and environmental crisis. By strictly profit-oriented politics, multinational corporations do not help the wellbeing of humanity and real development of the quality of life. High standards of life and good quality of life are not one and the same issue. The model of social development in the 21st century cannot be based only on realization that higher production and profits are the main reasons for existence. We are witnessing environmental crisis globally so the new model of sustainable development cannot be only fashionable PR tool, but it must be implemented in real business practices globally.

CSR in the 21st century starts to be pressing business requirement. Business must start to be socially responsible because business is the one who is very much destroying environment by rapid growth of industrialization and lots of new technologies which have some positive effects on economic growth but very large negative effect on the environment.

Evolution of the concept and definition of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has an impressive history. Evolution of the CSR construction began in the 1950s when the first signs appeared in scientific and managerial circles. Definitions expanded during the 1960s and became more numerous during the 1970s – 1980s. However, a more extensive amount of empirical researches and alternative themes brought serious connotation to content of CSR, as soon as these alternative themes included corporate social performance (CSP), stakeholder theory, and business ethics theory. In the 1990s, CSR continues to serve as a core construct but is transformed into alternative thematic frameworks (Carroll, 1999). It started to be understood that corporation existed in tight relationships with an environment. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) expresses a fundamental morality in the way a company behaves toward society. It follows ethical behavior toward stakeholders and recognizes the spirit of the legal and regulatory environment (Bowen et al, 2013).

In the first two decades of the 21st century, human society starts to recognize environmental crisis globally which is dangerous for human existence as a whole. CSR in business must start to be the norm, as without it our ecological system is so hugely damaged that it is not able to reborn itself. Due to environmental crisis, CSR must force businesses to implement socially responsible behavior which includes development of programs for protection of environment and sustainability. The capitalism in 21st century cannot be based anymore on Friedman's et al (2017) neo-liberal unsubtle way of thinking. Unfortunately, currently can be observed mainstream profit-seeking and mercantilist thinking where corporation politics still do not undergo a fundamental change and in practice CSR is not implemented as a ground rule for all kind of businesses. It is still globally only profit-oriented corporation concept which resists change and put obstacles to those who push for legislation to be more strict and oriented to sustainable development. CSR gives opportunities to the organization to make healthy contribution towards the society, environment, country and good quality of life for people.

CONTENT OF CSR

The concept of 'responsibility' is thought to have different meanings and implementation in social practice. It mainly refers to personal and institutionalized responsibility (moral and legal), primarily in terms of enhancing social awareness when it comes to the actions of business and other entities in financial and social spheres (Ratković Njegovan, 2013).

Nowadays, the content of social responsibility is most commonly associated with the concepts of corporate sustainability and corporate citizenship. It entails increasing public awareness of the role of political, business and other relevant entities in financial and social processes. CSR is linked to several other concepts: ethical business, corporate citizenship, stakeholder relations management, corporate sustainable development, and recently, the term „corporate social performance“ is being increasingly used (Vlastelica Bakić, 2012).

Table 1: A selected choice of corporate social responsibility definitions

Johnson, H.L. (1971.)	A socially responsible company is one whose management balances between different interests. Instead of solely striving for profits and stakeholders, a responsible company also cares for its employees, suppliers, the local community and the nation.
Manne, H.G & Wallich, H.C (1972.)	A fundamental aspect of corporate social responsibility is the free will of the company to put it into practice.
Hay, R.D., Gray, E.R.&Gates, J.E. (1976.)	Social responsibility provides companies with the basis to make decisions in a wide variety of spheres – from environmental pollution, discriminatory issues, excessive consumerism, to other social problems.
Jones, T.M. (1980.)	Corporate Social Responsibility is the basis of the unwritten obligations that the company has towards its stakeholders, but also towards the company as a whole.
Kreitner, R. (1989).	Corporate social responsibility depends on gaining profit, but also on observing and changing the sociological environment, listening to the public, and being involved in the problems of the local community.

Source: Tetreanova, L., Sabolova, V., (2010), University Stakeholder Management and University Social Responsibility, WSEAS Transactions on Advances in Engineering Education, 7, pp. 224-233.

The benefits that the community and the immediate environment have through the socially responsible work of the company are undeniable. Social benefits would undoubtedly be: indirect influences on business decision-making, better and safer products, the better quality of life, democracy, satisfied citizens, healthier social ties and creating a better starting basis for future generations. Ecological benefits are reflected in: rational use of natural sources of raw materials as well as sources of non-renewable forms of energy, recycling of materials, protection of ecosystems (Vujić & Ivaniš, 2012).

It is considered that a company's motivation for social responsibility is based on the achievement of specific higher goals, which do not necessarily have to be motivated by financial gain. This would mean that a company's social responsibility does not always have to

be a drain, but a competitive advantage instead. However, it is considered that the company has some responsibility to its shareholders, so the above-stated position is not always feasible.

CSR started to be taken into serious consideration just after 1970 when big business showed their neglect towards environment and society. Davis and Blomstrom (1975) made a list of five propositions about obligation to protect and improve the welfare of society and the organization as well. His understanding is that business has significant amount of influence on and power over various critical issues like Environment, Minority Employment, Neighborhood Development etc.

At the beginning of the 21st century, Young and Tilley (2009) listed six criteria for CSR which should improve business efficiency by bringing better costs in saving and improving profit margins:

- eco-efficiency;
- socio efficiency;
- eco-effectiveness;
- socio effectiveness;
- sufficiency;
- ecological equity

These six criteria corporations can implement for sustainable business practices and for gaining profits by being in the frame of CSR concept at the same time. The role that CSR plays in real economic terms has to be broadcast wide, only when corporation realize the economic benefits of conscious capitalism which would embrace the paradigm of CSR in full (Young & Tilley, 2009). We can observe that criteria mentioned above show that CSR and sustainable development practices in business do not jeopardize the profit-making. James (Martin, 2012) was underlining an essential approach to sustainable development. At the root of this approach is upgrading of corporate philosophy that would strive for some kind of good beyond mere profits. At the time of financial crisis, climate change, vast economic disparities, and pandemics, the existence of companies trying to right wrongs and fix things is certainly soothing (Martin, 2012). The practice of CSR ought to be forced rather than merely suggested due to dangers inherent in our current paradigm of doing business. The central challenge of our time should be to ensure that we transit to a new paradigm. Hence, the need is that businesses and regulators alike embrace CSR, and accordingly that the notion that a firm exists solely for making profits belongs to the old paradigm (Martin, 2012).

CSR IN THE BALKANS

All countries in the Balkans, despite some differences, are focused on gaining a competitive edge in terms of economic area and sustainable development. When developing countries hit the global economic scene, they certainly risk being less competitive in terms of price, but also in terms of technical and technological advances. From this point of view, CSR

would represent a synergy of sociological and economic elements in the business process, and this can be an important instrument of differentiation from other economies.

Why is CSR necessary in the Balkans? Because the contemporary market and consumers are constantly on the lookout for companies that do the 'right thing' in terms of protecting the environment and respecting human rights. Consumers are striving to make sure that a company does socially responsible business in every way possible, and this becomes a point of differentiation with respect to the competition. Workers, on the other hand, prefer to work for companies that respect and follow true values, with which they can contribute to society. For the Balkan countries whose companies adhere to the CSR concept this represents a significant step towards competitive advantage and indeed leads to a more intensive European integration.

According to the results of the 2015 Innovation Union Scorecard, in regards to the innovation processes initiated within companies, countries can be divided into four groups:

- 1) Innovation leaders – countries that have an average or above-average implementation of innovation in the ranking of European countries,
- 2) Innovation followers – a grouping of countries with average business innovation implementation in Europe,
- 3) Moderate innovators – countries that show acceptance of innovation below the European average, and
- 4) Modest innovators – countries that are far below the European average when accepting innovations in the business process.

The study, which had the aforementioned division of countries as a base and carried out research in the Balkan countries, came up with very interesting results, which have a straightforward effect on the implementation of CSR activities in the mentioned countries (Ramadani et al., 2017). According to the research, **Slovenia** performs its business and other CSR activities exceptionally well, and it ranks in the first group of countries, above the European average, primarily in the areas of: human resources, investment, and intellectual property. The only downfall in the CSR business process is shown in the under-allocation of resources for growth and development of certain areas of production, making Slovenia the only Balkan country belonging to the innovation followers group. Croatia, Greece and Serbia are in the moderate innovators' group, i.e., their application of innovations in the business process is below the European average. Bulgaria, Romania, Macedonia and Turkey belong to the group of modest innovators, which is made up of countries with extremely low innovation in business far below the European average. Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro were not included in this study.

'Frameworks for the Promotion of CSR Concepts in **Serbia**' (Smart Collective, 2007) are among the first documents written on the topic CSR implementation in Serbia, addressing the improvement of company reputation, productivity growth, quality and sales, increased employee loyalty and motivation, competitiveness and marketing positioning. Serbia has had remarkably turbulent periods in its history, which have left their marks in its democracy and in

its market economy. Unfortunately, after the recent wars, the economic crisis has brought with it new problems, which mainly involve large public and private debts. Numerous political, economic and institutional reforms have been implemented with the aim of simplifying the system of administration, strengthening small and medium-sized businesses, stopping corruption and further uncontrolled privatization of organizations. In Serbia, there is still a conservative stance on financial support for CSR projects. There is much room for implementation of the systematic organization of setting up entrepreneurship that would support ethical business (Ševarlić, Nikolić & Simmons, 2010).

Corporate Social Responsibility was defined by the European Commission in 2010 as 'a concept by which an organization integrates concern for society and the environment within its business activities and with its stakeholders on a voluntary basis.' To Serbia, CSR is defined through three levels:

- First, corporate social responsibility includes compliance with legal obligations (tax, health and safety, workers' rights, consumer rights, environmental regulations) and industry standards;
- Second, it involves eliminating or minimizing the adverse effects of business on society and managing risk;
- Third, CSR is about maximizing the positive effects of business and value creation through business innovation, as well as partnerships that are geared toward social and environmental well-being (an example is overall social and economic development).

For an enterprise is extremely important to communicate to the public about investing in socially responsible activities and address interest groups, as well as to understand their business operations. Organization's promotion activities of this type can be done in many ways depending on whether the target is potential investors in the company, customers or employees. There are companies in Serbia that are socially responsible, but their operations are insufficiently communicated, especially to customers. Emphasis should be placed on the importance of corporate responsibility to customers, to create programs that most effectively communicate corporate social initiatives to customers (Đurović & Randić, 2011).

Serbia still ranks low in terms of quality and efficiency of its institutional environment, its macro-economics, market openness and business. However, it is clear that the development and more intensive implementation of CSR largely depends on the commitment of government institutions and their support (World Economic Forum, 2011).

Croatia, being one of the least developed countries in Europe, faces challenges in adapting CSR practices. Croatian companies, whether private or state-owned, often emphasize their focus on corporate social responsibility, but in a pragmatic sense, this is far from any meaningful implementation in the business sphere. Companies are far more interested in making a profit, sometimes seemingly at any cost, than operating in accordance with CSR codes.

Croatian membership in the European Union is considered to have provided a significant impetus for the development and empowerment of CSR activities in the Balkan nation (Perić & Turalija, 2017). In 2015, the Code of Ethics Code was adopted and was accepted by the National Network for Corporate Social Responsibility, which is an independent body made up of public and private organizations as well as representatives of the non-governmental sector. However, it seems that further efforts are needed towards further regulatory alignment, especially in the social and economic aspects. It is believed that various interest groups, stakeholders primarily, will find new ways of intensifying CSR development (Šijaković et al., 2013).

In studying the value orientations of companies in Croatia, the following conclusions were reached:

- 1) Companies homogenize, rather than heterogenize their value orientations;
- 2) Evident trends are the inverse of traditional value systems, in response to the fiasco of the former socialist system, reflected through nationalist and religious components in the system of business valuation;
- 3) Turning towards the modernization of society, despite all of the above.

Other researchers have looked at the level of acceptance of CSR activities in service companies across Croatia and concluded that it is necessary to include more hierarchies of management in order to more adequately educate and convey CSR suggestions to this field (Golja et al., 2010).

A survey on the acceptance of contemporary values conducted in **Bosnia and Herzegovina** shows that conservatism is still extremely present when compared to openness and acceptance of the change. Employees tend to remain in the status quo and are reluctant to accept any innovation. In the Balkan countries, it is important to understand that the CSR concept is effective only when it is adapted to the cultural, socio-economic values and other needs prevalent in each individual country (Metaxas and Tsavdaridou, 2010).

Greece, as a Balkan country, has been facing extreme social and political difficulties for over two decades. In the past, when all of Europe has helped to overcome Greece's extreme economic crisis and avoid bankruptcy, many businesses have struggled with problems such as poverty, unemployment and high pollution (if it comes to manufacturing corporations). However, corruption, absence of state incentives for small and medium enterprises and the discord of even voluntary actions in the field of socially justified actions are a serious barrier to the establishment of CSR activities in this country (Tzivara, 2007). Skoulidis et al., (2011) points out that the main obstacles to the empowerment of the CSR concept in Greece are the decline of industrialization, as well as the lack of experts in specific business areas.

Hellenic Network for CSR, which is a non-governmental organization focused on Greek businesses, also supports the recent tendencies to strengthen CSR. In addition to the basic function of balancing profitability and sustainable growth and development, this network

organization promotes awareness and full understanding of the CSR concept in Greek companies (Metaxas & Tsavdaridou, 2013).

Romania also reaped significant benefits and support in adopting CSR concepts by joining the European Union. However, in practice, in many situations, it seems that companies are only just taking first steps to implement CSR activities. Key indicators for measuring and controlling the feasibility of CSR are based on: economic issues, environmental impact, human resources, market, health and security of a society. In their research, Baleanu et al. (2011) describe how Romanian companies carry out CSR actions only declaratively and how they embark on the idea of promoting them. In its report, this group of authors concluded that companies in Romania deal with CSR issues in at least one section of their websites, but in reality, only 10% of all organizations in this country annually publish only one report with a section dealing with their CSR business (results over a period of three years).

Interestingly, most of these reports focus on society, employees and environmental issues. The environmental part of the publication mainly deals with the company's involvement in sustainable development, recycling, waste management, planting wood saplings, as well as the production of ecologically friendly products and the construction of environmentally sustainable buildings. The part of the report dealing with employees is also of great importance, since in Romania it is used to design education and training for employees, and through CSR activities, more emphasis is placed on supporting sensitive categories of employees, sports and cultural activities of employees during breaks or on weekends and the like. Finally, CSR activities in the domain of social issues also deal with the external dimensions of a company's dealings, thus touching on the issues of suppliers, stakeholders and consumers.

As the Serbian authors, we have great respect for the possibility of the implementation of CSR practices in Serbia and the rest of the Balkan region. Balkan countries should make serious efforts to copy the best CSR world practices and to protect Balkan environment and socium. Serbia specifically suffered after NATO bombings with uranium components which made terrible consequences on Serbia's environment and people's health. These are the long term consequences on air, soil, water. There are four locations in Serbia outside Kosovo part of Serbia, which are contaminated with uranium after this bombings: region of Bujanovac, region of Presevo, region of Vranje and Belgrade itself. Among many affected objects, NATO bombed Serbia's National broadcaster RTS in Belgrade downtown. Many Serbian children were born in one of the leading baby nursing hospitals in Belgrade, which is less than one kilometre away from this contaminated place. Nowadays they have terrible health consequences such as cancer. NATO bombings unsanctioned by UN was a genocide towards Serbian people, and it had severe consequences for Serbian environment, ecosystem and people. We can observe that after further destructions implemented by economic sanctions, Serbian economy got a tremendous blow. Accordingly, CSR practices and sustainable development orientation we underline as the most significant in Serbia. However, it has great importance for all other Balkan countries. In order to clean up all the vandalistic consequences that Serbian environment has suffered, we must advertise implementation of CSR in Serbia, not only to the business environment but as well widely in social cycles. However, due to the aforementioned brutal

experience that Serbia went through, implementing CSR practices and sustainable development is much more complicated than for the other Balkan countries.

UNETHICAL CSR PRACTICES

It is essential to mention some unethical CSR practices. For example, so-called 'green-washing' corporate spin which refers to the practice of the corporate spin employed by a company in declaring itself to promoting environmentally friendly policies, but in reality, the company does not live up to its rhetoric. The corporate governance council is responsible for overseeing the activities of its CSR and ethical standard compliance for ensuring that there is no "spin" on the business practices. We may observe that green-washing and the corporate spin in CSR approach are completely unethical as they serve only for corporate PR purposes but not for actual environmental and social benefits of the society. As a kind of philosophy the green-washing is completely cynical in 21st century as soon as too rapid industrial development is very quickly ruining the environment (Watson, 2017).

The other kind of unethical corporate behavior is using offshore tax havens (Bender & Broekhuijsen, 2015). There has been a lot of mass media interest in Offshore Tax Havens where the global companies can base their offices and route their investments into emerging markets from offshore subsidiaries. To define offshore tax havens, there are countries where there is no tax on the profits earned by the companies based on their jurisdiction. For example, company located in the Cayman Islands, Luxembourg, or the Isle of Mann, do not need to pay any taxes on its profits. Tax avoidance practices of modern multinational corporations are based on setting up their headquarters in one of many those tax havens. It has been estimated that the global economy has lost more than Trillion Dollars in taxes every year because of the tax havens (Palan et al, 2013). CSR ethical concept is in total contradiction with doing business through offshore tax havens as soon as CSR philosophy has not only to promote but to do in practice productive contributions to the society and that means paying taxes accurately to the governmental budget of its country in order to improve social security of people. That is one of the real meanings of CSR politics together with responsible behavior of companies to environmental security and sustainable development. The current global financial and economic crisis is a significant challenge for tax administration in many countries (Brondolo, 2009). In transition countries tax evasion constitutes a significant problem that is slowing down, if not prevent reaching the desired level of social, political and economic objectives goal. According to Oxfam International (2019), countries in the Western Balkans are included on a so-called "greylist" of tax havens by the European Union. In order to meet the bloc's standards, Albania, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia have to change their tax rules. Their public policies should change a system that gives incentives for engaging in tax evasion and fraud.

For instance, while most European countries impose corporate income tax exceeding 20%, Macedonia, as a shining European tax haven, charges a corporate income tax of 10%. The corporate income tax in Macedonia is charged on two components; namely, any forms of distribution from the profit (including dividend distribution) as well as certain non-deductible expenses and understated revenues. (Shurkov & Mickovska, 2014). Bosnia and Herzegovina

has experienced that the tax evasion affected the business environment, especially on the growing private sector. In terms of adjusting the tax systems, a market economy, expanding the tax base, the introduction of new taxes, the abolition of the old ones, and changes in tax rates is difficult to make reliable conclusions about the amount of tax evasion. However, tax evasion may be one of the reasons why reducing the inflow of foreign direct investment in Bosnia and Herzegovina. (Grgić & Terzić, 2014). For Serbia this is also one of the problems that contradicts to CSR practice, as per report of National Bank of Serbia for 2018, millions of euros were simultaneously transferred to Panama (10 million euros), Liechtenstein and the Marshall Islands (9 million each) and the Dominican Republic, Lebanon, Belize and Seychelles (3 million each).¹

It is clear that the 21st century brought massive global environmental crisis and unethical approach towards society, for which multinational corporations are hugely responsible due to their exploitation of the system to their advantage. CSR business model is very important at the time when humanity faces climate change all over the world. What was a warning in the 1970s and become a gradual trend in the last decades of the 20th century has turned into an immediate impact factor on the ecosystems and the climate of the world in the 21st century. The effects of climate change are obvious in the business of oil and gas sector, as well as they give a big crush on those companies that are dependent on seasonal aspects like agriculture. Businesses have to be prepared for 'climate wars' between nations as a result of climate change or 'climate wars' as they are called. These climate wars happen because of migrations of people from regions that are inhospitable to those regions that are relatively better off (Allen & Craig 2016). It can be concluded that CSR philosophies are extremely important to be implemented in such kind of large industries as oil and gas sector, manufacturing, agriculture, as they are bringing big negative imprint on the environment, accordingly on climate change.

Sustainable development in the 21st century is the question of survival of human civilization. Business should work closely with official state's authorities to promote and use CSR practices in order to help in solving the severe environmental and social problems in 21st century. Corporations should implement social and environmental components in their working philosophies in order to prevent social and environmental collapse, which automatically leads to human civilization collapse.

In Balkans, social and ecological security is for majority of people not on a good level. Accordingly, the quality of life is not good in the whole region. However, the quality of life starts to be bad even in reach countries. Without serious CSR practices too rapid industrialization technological way of life is not in harmony with sustainable development. Without protected environment in Balkan, ecological and social problems are rising. The triangle of sustainable development which consists of environmental protection, economic security and social justice is proclaimed, but unfortunately not followed in Balkan region. Security of not only Balkan region, but of the whole humanity depends on sustainable development which is opposing now existing mercantile neoliberalism capitalism concept

¹ National Bank of Serbia, Annual report on business performance and results for 2018.

which puts profit on the main and the first place. The Balkan region is not well informed in broad social cycles that only sustainable development puts welfare of the people and the Earth ecosystems, and accordingly local Balkan's ecosystem on the first place. Even scientific cycles in Balkan region are at beginner stage of advising multinational companies to implement and use CSR philosophy as an ultimate necessity in 21st century in order to protect environment. It can be concluded that the environment is the most important now, as soon as due to man's irresponsible actions globally and very dangerous issues can be observed: climate change and greenhouse effect; degradation of the enormous region on the Earth exhausted of the natural resources; toxification of the environment; oil drilling operations; destruction of the biodiversity where many animals and plants are destroyed entirely and forever; constant and irresponsible forest cutting; accumulation of toxic, dangerous waste materials, according to which human health is in danger globally. On top of this all is the fact that two-third of population suffer from lack of the drinking water as well as many animal species and the latest problem of the 21st century is overpopulation (Đukanović, 1996). Only in Serbia about 600 plant species are endangered and about 500 species of mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, fish and other biodiversity species due to lack of CSR practices in Serbia which lead to environmental destruction.² All those economic, unsustainable human criteria overthrew the borders of the Earth's ecological systems.

The sustainable development concept is established in the UN 1987 with its central position that development of today should not compromise nor life of humanity today, neither life of humanity in future. Unfortunately, the Balkan region already 32 years hugely fall behind after mentioned sustainable development concept established by UN.

As Porter and Kramer (2006) underlined, CSR practices started to be used in business practices worldwide due to more and more awareness of the real necessity to be included in sustainable development. The concept of sustainable competitiveness has to be closely related to social and environmental sustainability. CSR started to get more attention and sustainable practices as a necessary part of sustainable competitiveness (Porter & Linde, 1995). Zadek and Oliveira (2005) underlined their conclusion between the competitiveness of a country, and it is CSR level. Accordingly, they stated that the National competitiveness may not be sustainable if it does not work based on CSR principles and constant growth in sustainable competitiveness can be based only on a broader responsibility of the society as a whole where CSR practices have to be taken in practice in business, government and civil society.

It is a pity to constate that Balkan region is far behind Europe in sustainable competitiveness based on CSR practices. Unfortunately, indicators for sustainable competitiveness which are including CSR practices, are not presented by organizations regularly. Accordingly it creates additional difficulties in evaluation of CSR and sustainable development in Serbia and as well as in rest of the Balkan region.

² Data taken from: National Environmental Program, RS Official Gazette, no. 12/2010

CONCLUSIONS

In order to further integrate the countries of the Balkans into Europe, it is extremely important to respect tradition, as well as modern trends, since the complex foundations of these countries' economies are continually facing economic, social and political challenges. Promotion of CSR values and activities in the Balkans is the basis of any competitiveness in the market. In some situations, individual foreign corporations self-declare themselves to be socially responsible business players in developed countries, while behaving completely differently in underdeveloped and developing countries (Popovic Sevic & Bajalski, 2019).

In order to ensure effective CSR implementation, it is important for all stakeholders to unite in their joint business - consumers, suppliers, various non-governmental organizations, local community, companies and government institutions alike, so a strong partnership can be forged. It is essential that the state recognizes the importance and support of CSR activities, and this means that it sets the rules and standards for their implementation.

The NGO sector has played a role in raising awareness, promoting CSR actions and directing government institutions towards setting up quality business programs connected to ethics. After roaring 90-ties in Balkan and even in the second decade of 21st century the CSR area is relatively new in Serbia and the rest of the Balkan. The role of the non-governmental sector is to provide the necessary strategic know-how and education of business communities if necessary, and this is an area where it should continue to be present.

The media in the Balkans have been used in a number of different ways regarding the implementation of CSR activities: from monitoring business operations, promoting positive practical examples of CSR and generally promoting CSR in every respect. What needs to be addressed in the future is a more objective focus on the business community and highlighting more positive examples.

Previous research related to CSR implementation in the Balkan countries has shown that its backbone consists of investments in the growth and development of the business process, investment in employee education and the application of codes of conduct in business. Foreign direct investment is of great importance for business in the countries of the Balkans. In this sense, the suggestion is that in the foreseeable future, the institutional support and incentives for foreign investors should be improved, especially when it comes to the legal aspect of doing business. This further implies investment in infrastructure, which further motivates and empowers foreign investors to continue their investment.

Communicating CSR is undoubtedly among the more complex activities of the entire process. This is because from the very beginnings of CSR there was some doubt about the often inflated reporting on the way companies do business and because it was long believed that it was purely some marketing tactic in presenting company results. This has resulted in CSR being viewed as a cheap marketing tool in Balkan countries. Today, this is an extremely hot topic for Balkan companies, one that concerns not only the media but society as a whole. The CSR's mission is to consider the result of its business on companies and the environment as a whole

before making any far-reaching business decisions. In the face of business crises faced by many companies in the Balkans, CSR activities can be seen as an exceptional opportunity to overcome perils of the market and, with the support of their respective states, make solid support for a more humane approach to business.

It can be concluded that it is time for Serbian and Balkan society to understand that it is not important how many material things an individual can buy if the environment of that individual is toxic; thus quality of life becomes low automatically. Corporations and people as a whole must develop consciousness of the great importance of society in our Balkan region life. CSR should not play just a role in making corporate brand popular, but CSR activities have to be consciously implemented due to understanding that only sustainable development in Balkan can save, not only Balkan but civilization and our planet from destruction. CSR activities strengthen as well ethical ground of behavior among employees. Balkan region people need to develop a habit of helping society in their everyday work. We can state that with conscious aim in Balkan to help the society, CSR can play significant role in the progress of the whole region which can bring responsible behavior to the environment and it is systems such as animals, water, air, oil, soil etc.

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Applying a Qualitative Research Method for Analyzing Changes in Tax Control Guidelines in Hungary

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ABSTRACT

In Hungary, the improvement of tax morale indicates an increase in the revenues of the National Tax and Customs Board (hereinafter: NAV). This effect can be appreciated because this has followed the government's efforts to reduce public burdens. More and more "customer-friendly" tax authority strictly takes action against tax avoiders because it is a fundamental interest to reduce the size of the black and gray economy, in all national economies, irrespective of their state of development, which among other things, is facilitated by tax authority control. The focus, in the present phase of the research work, is on the identification of changes and trends in the audit guidelines issued by the National Tax and Customs Authority using a particular qualitative research methodology (content analysis) as a novelty in this field. In 2018, the National Tax and Customs Reform Strategic Program (NAV 2.0) was launched, aiming to make NAV one of the most efficient, integrated tax authorities in Europe by treating taxpayers as partners and reducing bureaucracy to realize tax revenues primarily through incentives of good behaviour and the reduction of the size of black economy by 2021.

Keywords: Taxation, Tax Audit Guidelines, Tax Authority Control, Hungary, Content Analysis.

INTRODUCTION³

The present study seeks to answer the questions of how and in which context the tax authority is informing to taxpayers in its audit guidelines from 2010. The basis for the research is the information provided by the tax authority on the direction of the audit in order to carry out its annual audit tasks. Examination of the guidelines provides an opportunity to analyze the focal points of the tax authority and its changes. Moreover, it helps us to draw conclusions regarding the relation between the audit work and the changes in economy and society. The method used to answer the research questions is content analysis, which ensures the structuring of textual information in a unified and transparent database and its statistical analysis.

The results obtained by monitoring changes in audit directions may be useful in expanding the scope of information, both to the tax authority and to the national economy. Pieces of information are not directly stated, but from the structure of the texts can be analyzed, deduced. Furthermore, findings can also provide a feedback to the tax authority on changes in its communication strategy.

METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS AND RESULTS

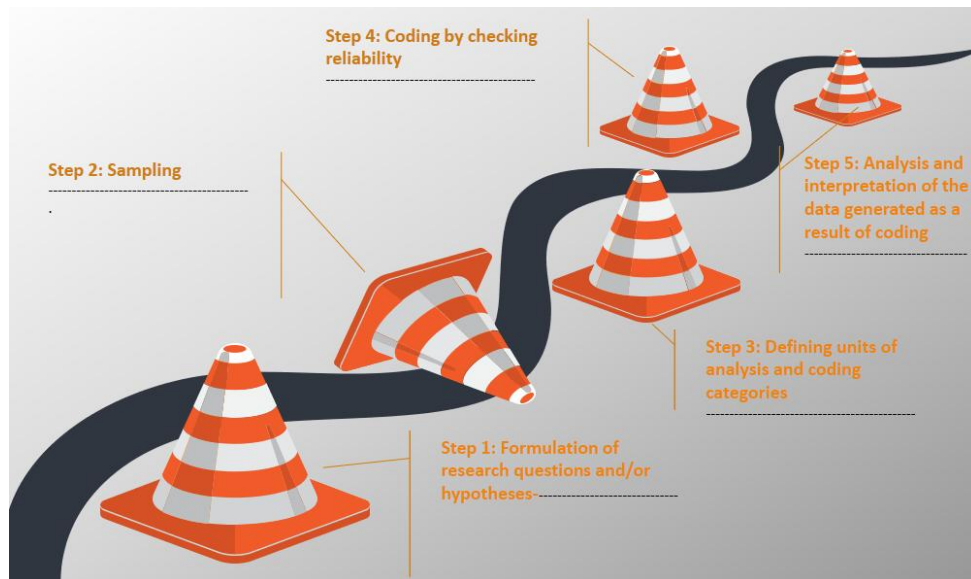
Methodological Aspects

The subject of the research is the examination of the content of the tax audit guidelines issued by the Hungarian tax authority for the period 2010-2017, focusing on what is stated in their objectives. The guidelines were published annually by February 20th, which were required by law. During the period under review the Section 90 (1) of the Act XCII of 2003 on the rules of taxation (hereinafter: Art) contained the relevant provision. From 2018 major changes included the abolition of the publication of the guidelines and the specifying of tax procedural rules instead of the former complex form into three laws (Act CL of 2017 on the rules of taxation, Act CLI of 2017 on the tax administration, Act CLIII of 2017 on enforcement proceedings to be taken by the tax authority).

The method used for the research is the content analysis, which is a research technique that draws repeatable and valid conclusions from texts (and other meaningful materials) about the context in which they are used (Krippendorff, 2004:18).

The process of the content analysis can be divided into five main steps (Herring, 2010:3).

³ This paper was prepared in the framework of research workshop „Micro- and macroeconomics processes in the past and present” provided by the Excellence Found of Budapest Business School University of Applied Sciences.

Figure 1: The 5 main steps of the content analysis

Source: Author's illustration based on data by Herring, 2010:3

Formulation of research questions and/or hypotheses

Depending on the nature of the research, hypotheses and / or research questions need to be formulated which determine the next steps, i.e the selection of sample and unit of analysis as the basis for the research, the creation of the coding system and the interpretation of the results. In the case of quantitative content analysis, the formulation of hypotheses is more typical, while in the case of qualitative analysis the formulation of the research question is more frequent. Qualitative content analysis is not usually based on the search for predefined categories or relationships, but they can be revealed by analyzing texts (Strijbos et al., 2006).

Sampling

The method of sampling should ensure the coherence between the sample and the original population and the representativeness. Several different sampling methods can be used at the same time (Krippendorff, 2004:111-124)

Defining units of analysis and coding categories

The creation of the coding system also requires the definition of the units of analysis and observation, which are used to determine the nature and extent of the elements of the text in the sample. The unit of analysis or observation can be a single word, a sentence, a symbol or a thematic unit, which can consist of half or even several sentences. In traditional text analysis, the unit of analysis and observation is the same (Géring, 2014:12).

Coding

During coding, the observation units must be examined in the texts included in the sample. They need to be coded to these units as data for later statistical analysis. The coding

work can be preceded by the training of the encoders and by checking their coding work namely, the reliability of the data. Pilot analysis can also be used to define and clarify the coding system (categories to be examined) more precisely. Verification of the coding reliability can be ensured, among other things, by random selection of the observation units and by re-checking the observation units with extreme score. Quantitative data obtained during coding can be verified by statistical correlation analyses.

Analysis and interpretation of the data generated as a result of coding

Quantitative data generated during coding can be analyzed using statistical methods. It is possible to calculate e.g. frequencies, correlations, and relationships between categories, which can be used to admit or reject research hypotheses. Reliability can be ensured by applying statistical methods properly. The validity of the results can be examined by comparing them with other research results (Géring, 2014:13).

The advantages of the content analysis are the following:

- ✓ possibility to handle large volumes of text,
- ✓ preservation of the structure of the data source and possibility to handle unstructured materials,
- ✓ a so-called non-intervention technique, because data are not influenced by the data analysis method (Krippendorff, 2004:40-43),
- ✓ flexibility in applying in both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Harwood et al., 2003: 493)
- ✓ possibility to draw conclusions about phenomena being beyond texts.

RESULTS

The research seeks to reveal repetitions, discrepancies and tendencies in relation to what was stated as objectives in the introductory section of the tax authority's control guidelines.

The following research questions have been formulated:

- Question 1: What objectives/aspects appear in tax control guidelines?
- Question 2: What dominance or repetition can be observed in the years under review?
- Question 3: What is the proportion of occurrence of the objectives indicated in the years under review?
- Question 4: Is there a statistically detectable correlation between the occurrence of the objectives?

The research is partly quantitative, since coding is based on predefined categories, and partly qualitative because further aspects were searched in the analysis.

The population consists of the Tax Control Guidelines issued by NAV. The guidelines have been included in the sample through targeted selection for the period 2010-2017. The

observation units are the tax authority's audit guidelines, which are used to draw conclusions about the specifics of domestic tax control.

When creating the categories to be examined, we analysed several sources:

- ✓ the specific control objectives defined in publications (Burján et al., 2017:337 and Bokor et al., 2018:52)
- ✓ the control objectives set out in the relevant law (Section 86 (1-3) of the Act XCII of 2003 on the rules of taxation).

6-6 control objectives can be highlighted in the two publications materials examined. It can be stated that both items represented the same categories with slightly different wording. Factors appearing in the law can be found also in publications. The reason for this is that publications are based on the processing of the contents of the law. Based on the above, we have defined six coding categories (Table 1).

Table 1: The primary coding categories

Category 1: Ensuring budget revenue	The so-called classic control objectives (6)
Category 2: Prevention of tax shortages	
Category 3: State the compliance with obligations/the breach of obligations	
Category 4: Sanction	
Category 5: Expediency and efficiency	
Category 6: Voluntary compliance	
Source: Author's research	

We chose a thematic unit as an observation unit because instead of focusing on the occurrence of the above mentioned categories, we wanted to find their meaning. The above six analysed items were included in the categorization scheme as an alternative question. Occurrence codes: yes: 1; no: 0.

When analyzing the texts further, four aspects were added to the six selected categories due to their frequent occurrence (Table 2).

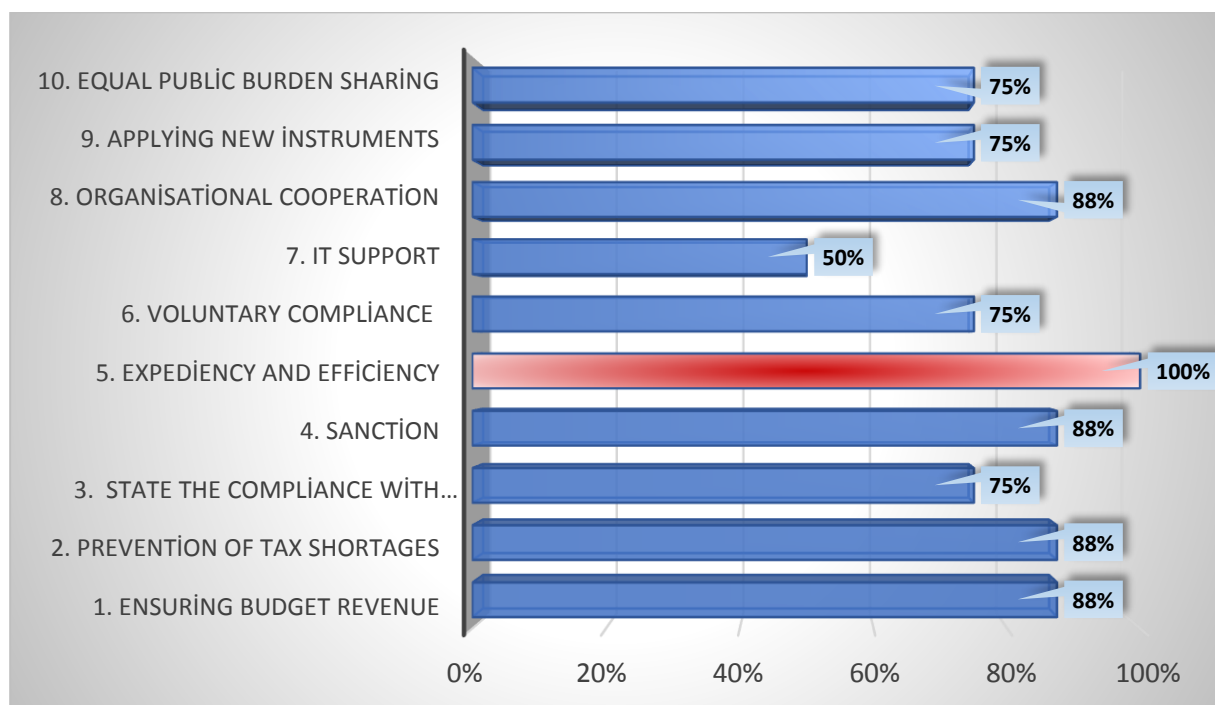
Table 2: The added coding categories

Category 7: IT support	Additional objectives (4)
Category 8: Organisational cooperation	
Category 9: Applying new instruments	
Category 10: Equal public burden sharing	
Source: Author's research	

On this basis, *the first research question can be answered (Question 1)*. A total of 10 categories were included in the analysis, which were the most important audit objectives in the years under review.

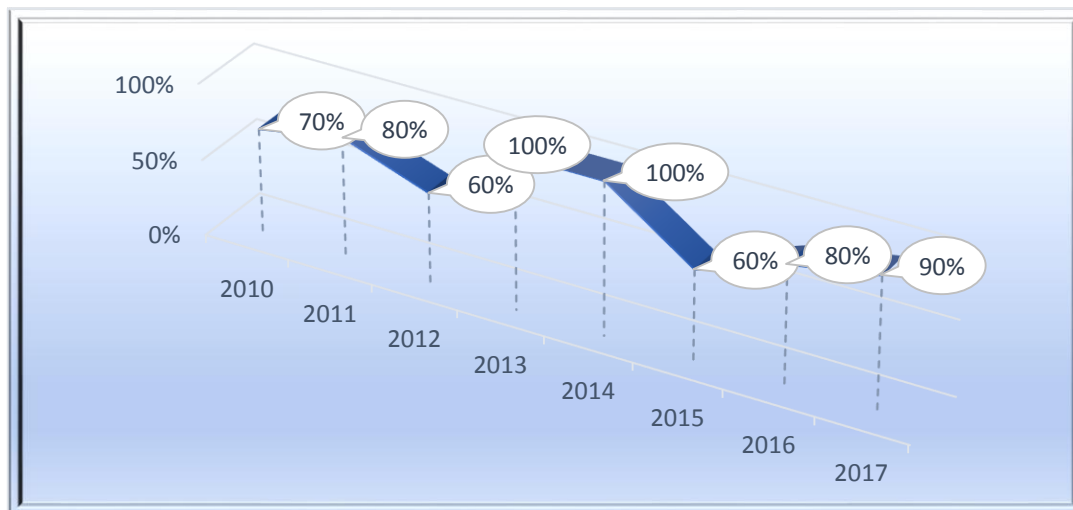
What dominance or repetition can be observed in the years under review (Question 2)? In each year of the period under review, the tax authority strove for expediency, efficiency and the economical use of their audit capacities (Category 5). Only one of the eight guidelines did not emphasize the achievement of budget revenue targets (Category 1), the reduction in losses from tax avoidance, thereby reducing the size of the black and gray economy (Category 2), sanctioning of taxpayers who seriously and intentionally violate the tax laws (Category 4) and strengthening internal / external organizational cooperation and reaping the benefits from these (Category 8). Figure 2 demonstrates the results.

Figure 2: Proportion of specific targets in guidelines, 2010-2017



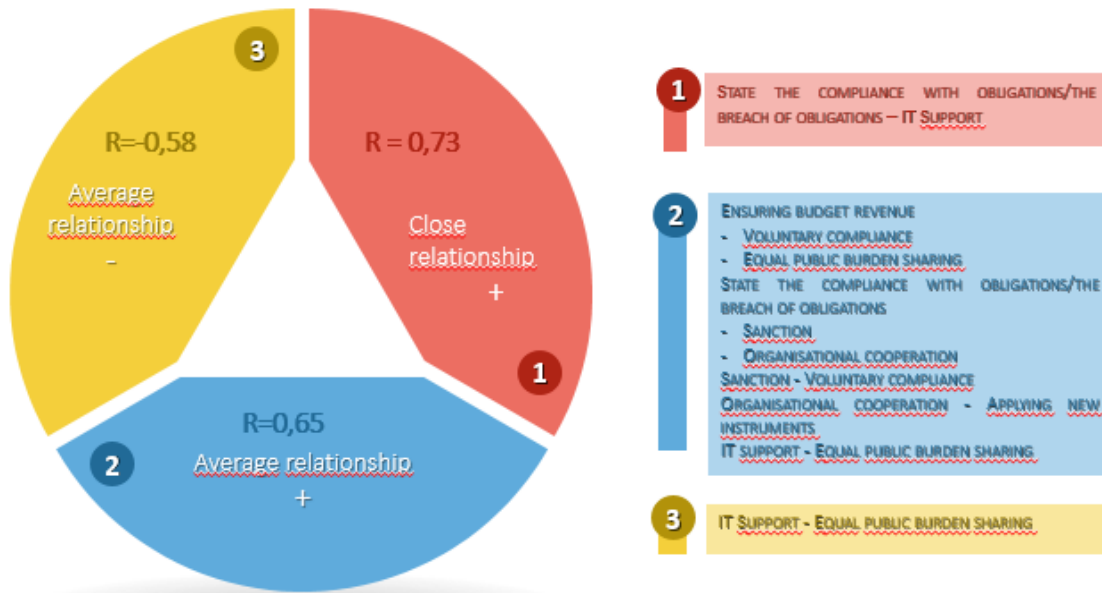
Source: Author's estimation

Each of the guidelines contained at least six of the 10 objectives (Figure 3). The two lowest numbers of aspects were found in the guidelines 2012 and 2015. All of the examined objectives were fully included (100%) in two years (2013, 2014) and only one guideline (2017) lacked IT support (*Question 3*).

Figure 3: Annual incidence rate of the ten objectives, 2010-2017

Source: Author's estimation

Is there a statistically detectable correlation between the occurrence of the objectives (Question 4)? Regarding the appearance of the objectives in the guidelines, we found no very close relationship between two variables (Figure 4). It should be noted that the sample number is too small. The values of the correlation coefficient (R) were both positive and negative, but also weak or rather unrelated.

Figure 4: Evaluation of the relationship between the incidences of objectives (R>0.5)

Source: Author's estimation

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present study provides a brief example of the use of content analysis for a research area, where it is not usual because that this method is more well-known in corporate research. With the help of this method, we have attempted to draw conclusions from the text of the introduction of tax audit guidelines for 2010-2017, which were not explicitly formulated. The

results of the analysis showed that, in addition to the classical audit objectives (6), the tax authority also considers other aspects to enhance the effectiveness of its audit activities. These are the use of IT tools, the enhancement of organizational collaboration, the development of control tools and methods, and the creation of a fair public burden. The most important is to meet the requirements of expediency, effectiveness and economy, and then to ensure the financial interests of the budget and to enforce the voluntary compliance by co-operation of the authorities and consistent application of the legal consequences.

In the future, it may be a question what additional results can be gained by the content analysis in these research area. Of course, in addition to the general objectives, other parts of the guidelines may be subject to content analysis: the method may be applicable to the tax authority's press activities and external communication solutions, but may also be used in other areas such as tax decisions.

In 2018, the National Tax and Customs Reform Strategic Program (NAV 2.0) was launched, with the aim to make NAV one of the most efficient, integrated tax authorities in Europe by treating taxpayers as partners and reducing bureaucracy to realize tax revenues primarily through good behaviour incentives and the reduction of the size of black economy by 2021.

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The Economic Impact of Urban Mining and Turkey

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ABSTRACT

Urban mining is defined as the process of extracting elements and compounds from products, buildings, and waste. The most important factor for the emergence of this process is the increase in demand for rare metals due to the increase in demand for the electronics sector. Traditionally, mining is carried out in mining fields, while, in the process of the so-called new teconomy, the differentiation of traditional methods is also seen in this field. In parallel with the developments in technology, the recycling of rare metals and other rare products, which are needed by developed economies, has become important. In this context, urban mining is seen as a new alternative especially for underdeveloped and developing economies. Developed countries as innovators in traditional foreign trade then transfer innovations to less developed and developing countries by the ways such as patents and production permits. This process can be one of the most important factors for the development of underdeveloped and developing countries. Urban mining is an alternative for these countries to overcome this process. Turkey is a country with a strong potential of urban mining. In our study, the current situation and potential of urban mining potential in Turkey will be examined. In addition, the possible effects of the current situation and potential on the Turkish economy will be discussed.

Keywords: Urban Mining, The New Economy, Turkey.

ÖZET

Kentsel madencilik ürünler, binalar, çöplerden elementler ve bileşikler çıkartma süreci olarak ifade edilmektedir. Bu sürecin ortaya çıkmasında en önemli etken elektronik sektöründeki talebin genişlemesiyle birlikte nadir metallerle olan talebin artmasıdır. Geleneksel olarak madencilik, maden alanlarında yapılmakta iken yeni ekonomi olarak adlandırılan süreçte geleneksel yöntemlerin farklılaşması bu alanda da kendini göstermektedir. Teknolojideki gelişmelere paralel olarak gelişmiş ekonomilerin ihtiyacı olan nadir metaller ve diğer nadir ürünlerin yeniden ekonomiye katılması önemli hale gelmiştir. Bu çerçevede kentsel madencilik özellikle az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülke ekonomileri için yeni bir alternatif olarak görülmektedir. Gelişmiş ülkeler, geleneksel dış ticarete yenilik geliştirici olarak yenilikleri daha sonra az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelere paten ve üretim izinleri gibi yöntemlerle aktarmaktadır. Bu süreç az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerin gelişmesinin önündeki en önemli etkenlerden biridir. Kentsel madencilik bu ülkelerin bu süreci aşmaları için bir alternatif yaratmaktadır. Türkiye kentsel madencilik açısından önemli potansiyele sahip bir ülkedir. Çalışmamızda Türkiye'nin kentsel madencilik açısından mevcut ve potansiyel durumu incelenecektir. Ayrıca mevcut durum ve potansiyelin Türk ekonomisine olası etkileri ele alınacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kentsel Madencilik, Yeni Ekonomi, Türkiye.

INTRODUCTION

Natural resources have been important for people in every period of history. Natural resources and mines provide most of the tools and equipment needed for people to survive. There is a high relationship between underground and surface resources and welfare of countries. The welfare level of the countries that can use this wealth is higher than the others. Countries have used mines effectively since the 16th century and as a result, the industrial revolution took place. Product demand of today's society (2019) is increasing and becoming more complex. The increase in urbanization with industrialization increases the need for resources. With the increase in population, globalization increases the demand for natural resources. However, this process also led to an increase for waste affecting the renewal of resources. This process gradually becomes unsustainable. In addition to population growth and urbanization, some metals and alloys gained importance in the industries based on IT-based technologies called the new economy in the post-2000 period. The aerospace industry, advanced technology products, communications and communications industries and similar industries have begun to show demand for rare metals and alloys. The fact that these metals and alloys cannot be produced quickly and sufficiently has brought up the idea of reuse of these metals. The recovery of these rare metals and alloys from wastes is called urban mining. Besides this general definition, there are different definitions in the literature. Brunner defined urban mining as the systematic use of anthropogenic materials from urban areas (Brunner, 2011: 339). In another definition, urban mining is simply the process of recovering raw materials from used products, buildings and wastes (Kvithyld, 2018).

Mining and mineral processing has an important place in the development and economic development of countries. As of 2015, the share of mining in GNP in developed countries; 4.5% in the USA, 4% in Germany, 7.6% in Canada and 8.7% in Australia. In the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) 14%, 15% in China, 1.5% in Turkey and 15% in India. It is not possible for countries that do not have underground and surface wealth to benefit from this advantage in traditional mining. However, urban mining provides an opportunity for underdeveloped and developing countries that do not have these resources. The increase in the use of electric and electronic equipment in developing countries, the intensive use of second-hand products to these regions and the increase in the volume of electronic waste led to an increase in urban mines. Low labour wages in these regions and an increase in the rate of arrival of second-hand materials will make them attractive for recycling in the future. The processing of these materials and the separation of precious and precious metals create an opportunity for the national economies. To take advantage of this opportunity, an effective and sustainable recovery system should be established and a reverse supply chain should be established. In addition, authorities should make environmental regulations.

URBAN MINING

The oldest mine in the archaeological record is "Lion Cave" in Swaziland and is about 43.000 years old. In Hungary, mines of a similar age are the places where stones were carved for weapons in the Neanderthals. Mining has been developed to the present day by developing advanced methods and techniques starting from the use of simple machines. Mining as an

industry was initially concentrated in the extraction of precious metals as open pit mining. Due to military use in the Middle Ages, interest in iron and similar mines has increased. With the industrial revolution, underground mining gained momentum and the number of mines with commercial value increased (UM, 2013). The fact that mines are not renewable resources has raised the issue of whether these resources can be reused over time. In particular, studies have been initiated to reuse the raw materials required by the industry.

Although recycling is a new concept for industrial societies, the first recycling in terms of human history goes back to 400 BC. Archaeological investigations show that during periods of low resources there are practices such as less household waste disposal and re-use of old household goods. In the pre-industrial times there is evidence that scrap bronze and other metals collected and melted in Europe for continuous reuse. It is known in the UK that dust and ashes from wood and coal fires are collected and recycled as a base material used in brick making. The main reason for such recycling is the economic advantage of obtaining recycled raw materials rather than buying new material, and the removal of public waste in more densely populated areas provides an economic advantage.

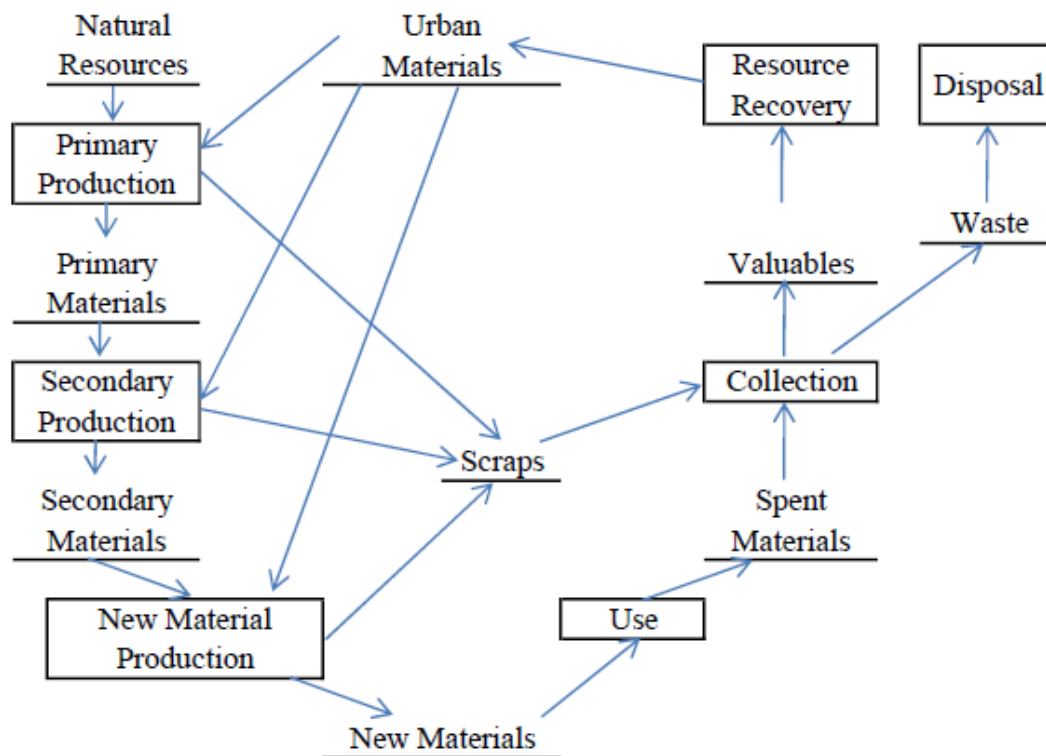
Industrialization increased demand for affordable materials; Ferrous scrap metals, allowed to mining to be cheaper than ore. At that time, mostly secondary merchandise was collected, processed and sold by vendors scanning city streets. They wandered from door to door to search for waste bins and discarded machinery, pots, pans and other metal resources. In the First World War, thousands of vendors took advantage of market forces to roam the streets of industrialized country cities to transform consumer-sourced materials into industrial production.

Professor Nanjyo of Tohoku Japan University to promote recycling and reuse used the term Urban Mining in the 1980s. In short, it is the process of recovering compounds and elements from products, buildings and wastes. In this context, urban mining is the establishment of a system of recycling scrap collected at home and abroad in international cooperation with different countries producing primary resources with a limited resource, which is a key for stable supply of rare and small amounts of metal (Nakamura, 2015: 39).

The transition from a linear to a circular approach has characterized waste management strategies over the last few decades. The traditional linear approach is based on raw materials, production, use, waste and waste storage. The circular approach stems primarily from the increase in the need for primary raw materials because of the global growth of economies and the population. In this approach attention, has shifted from the stocks of limited and fixed raw materials to the increasing human source stocks. This is the basis for the development of “Urban Mining” (UM, 2013).

Rare metals for industrialized countries are extremely important for the sustainability of advanced technology industries. A failure in the supply of these metals will lead to the collapse of the high-tech industries of the countries. For this reason, the supply chain plays an important role in urban mining. Figure 1 below shows the flow of the supply chain in urban mining.

Figure 1: Resource Supply Chain in Urban Mines



Source: Nakamura, 2015: 39

Urban Mining activities operate in the context of representing the resulting actions and technologies for the recovery of secondary raw materials and energy from the products of urban catabolism. For this reason, urban mining provides a systematic management of anthropogenic resource stocks (products and buildings) and wastes in terms of long-term environmental protection, resource conservation and economic benefits.

Increased technical and economic responsibility should be transferred from the consumer to the producer in order to control the economic sustainability of the urban mining system and to draw more attention to the quality of the goods during the production phase. Reuse and minimization should be encouraged to maximize the relevant markets, but adopt the most appropriate regulations and actions. While pressure for green technology continues, the difficulty of obtaining rare earth metals without an environmental problem affects the emergence of creative solutions. Urban mining is one of these solutions.

Nowadays, electronic equipment is generally disposed of in the trash. These wastes are a suitable source for rare earth metals and these electronic wastes are densely populated in cities around the world. Therefore, people today (2019) collect electronic waste using urban mining and use it to recover rare earth metals from these unwanted electronics. For example, in gold mines, 4-6 grams per tonne ore is obtained, while one ton of electronic circuits contains about 500 grams of gold. This applies to other precious and rare metals.

Precious metals in electronic devices are known, but recycling is relatively new. Glass and paper have been recycled for many years, but until recently, nobody has been interested in

the conversion of iron, copper, gold and similar metals. With the expansion of the concept of urban mining, an increasing number of companies and initiatives have begun to see cities as a "Mining site" where raw materials can be recovered. According to the new philosophy, materials are periodically used in buildings, industrial plants, mobile phones or computers and can be recycled for other products after serving their purpose. Electronic waste is very important for urban mining. Electronic waste or e-waste refers to all electrical and electronic equipment and parts that the owner disposed of as waste without an intention to reuse (Step Initiative, 2014: 4).

The amount of electronic waste in the world tends to increase gradually. While the average amount of electronic waste per capita in 2014 was 5.8 kilograms, it increased to 6.1 kilograms in 2016. This equates to 4,500 Eiffel towers each year. If the rate of increase continues in this way, the average amount of electronic waste per capita is estimated to increase to 6.8 kilograms in 2021. (Balde et al., 2017: 4) Today (2019), approximately 50 million metric tons of consumer electronics are disposed of in the year. Only 15% of these disposed electronic waste is recycled. The recycling rate is lower for rare earths elements, but less than 1% of current production is recyclable. Although the amount of expensive elements in electronics is low, the global consumption scale increases the potential of urban mining. In 2013, 320 tons of gold and 7500 tons of silver (approx. \$ 21 billion) were used in electronics production. In 2013, 10% of gold production and 30% of silver production were used, as inputs in manufacturing electronics (Luedi, 2016).

For other materials, such as copper, these numbers are increasing: The amount of copper discarded annually in landfills is equal to one third of world production. Similarly, both production levels and mineral costs continue to increase, with an increasing amount of lithium-ion batteries being disposed of. The lithium-ion market is expected to be worth \$ 43 billion by 2020.

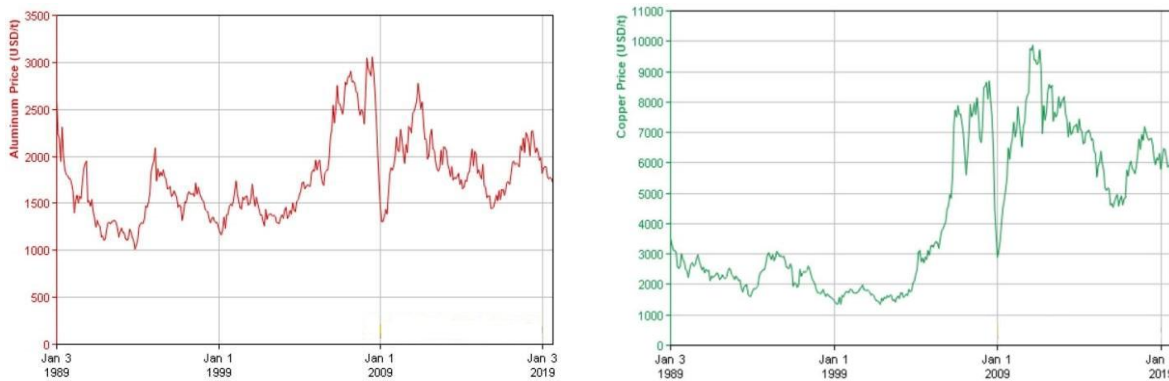
ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF URBAN MINING

There are various opinions in the literature about the economic effects of urban mining. Most of the opinions in the literature are that urban mining is an advantage especially for developing countries. As it is known, the distribution of natural resources in the world is not the same for all countries. Countries with natural resources have an advantageous position compared to other countries. Especially precious and semi-precious mines have been attractive and important for countries in every period of history. However, developments in industry have increased the importance of some mines over time. After the industrial revolution, with the increasing importance of oil and natural gas, there was a change in the countries with these mines. A similar change has taken place in the development of communication and information technologies, and the use of so-called rare metals has increased. For example, a mobile phone contains about eight rare earth elements. The cell phone contains aluminium, copper, gold, silver, platinum, palladium as well as rare elements such as yttrium, lanthanum, terbium, neodymium, gadolinium, and praseodymium.

The prices of rare earths and precious and semi-precious metals have changed in the international markets according to the supply and demand over time. In addition, the fact that the reserves of these mines are gradually decreasing is also effective in determining their prices. Mining costs per unit production increase over time in parallel with the decrease in reserves. In Figure 2 below, the graph shows the price changes of rare earths metals and precious-semi-precious metals, which are heavily in demand in the industry, over time.

Aluminium and copper are two metals that the industry cannot give up. The average primary aluminium operation cost in the world is around 1,200 USD / ton. Secondary aluminium is aluminium obtained from scrap, and today it is of great importance in secondary aluminium production because it consumes ~ 5% of the energy consumed in primary aluminium production (TMMO, 2010).

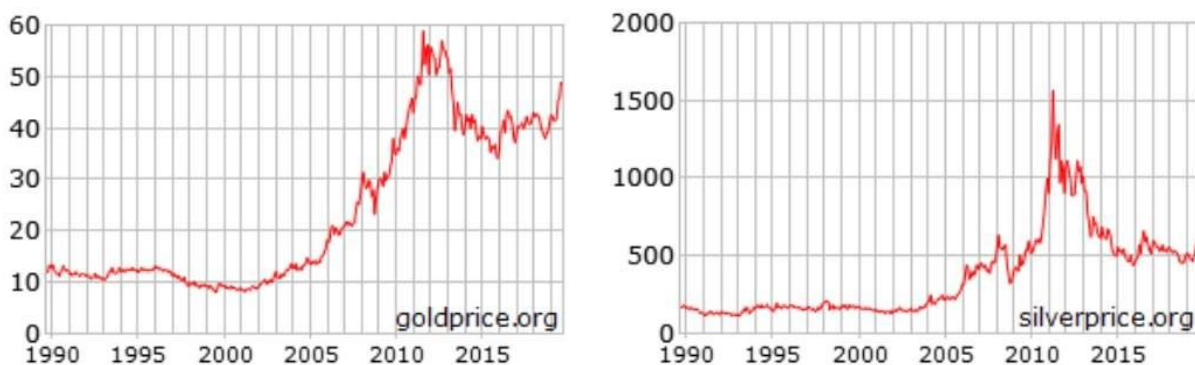
Figure 2: World Aluminium / Copper Prices (1989-2019 Tons / USD)



Source: <http://www.infomine.com/investment/metal-prices/aluminum/all/>

Gold and silver are important metals that have been used since ancient times and are precious metals with many different uses. The course of world gold / silver prices is shown in the graph below.

Figure 3: World Gold / Silver Prices (1990-2019 USD / Gram)



Source: [goldprice.org](https://goldprice.org/gold-price-history.html) <https://goldprice.org/gold-price-history.html>

At present (2019), the operational cost of gold is 852 USD per ounce (28.3 grams). Approximately 70% of the world's gold demand is met by mines and 30% by scrap gold.

The use of gold in electronic tools is a common practice. CRT televisions have an average of 5.6 grams of gold, 450 grams of copper and 227 grams of aluminium. It also contains gold in today's popular electronic devices, mobile phones and tablets. Approximately 7000 mobile phones have 1 kilogram of gold and 2 kilograms of palladium. These metals were needed to continue the production of these electronic devices. However, the scrap of these devices is also a source. Considering that approximately 550 million tube (CRT) televisions are sold in the USA alone, these televisions have the potential to produce 3800 tons of gold, 247500 tons of copper and 124850 tons of aluminium. This applies to other countries.

The prices of the above-mentioned precious-semi-precious and rare earth elements started to increase in the post-2000 period. Despite this increase, the reserves of these mines in the world are limited. At this stage, urban mining reserves are an alternative to supply these demanding metals. It has a potential especially for developing countries. Nowadays, the increase in the use of electronic devices has caused the electronic waste to reach very large dimensions. It is important for all economic units to restore the mines in these wastes to the economy. The development of industries related to the separation of precious metals from these wastes can also be an advantage for developing countries.

There are many studies, especially on the recycling of electronic wastes and on their economic benefits. However, there are serious environmental and health problems caused by the recycling of electronic waste. In the economic impact of recycling electronic waste, these problems need to be addressed. Computers and most electronics contain toxic substances such as lead, zinc, nickel, flame-retardants, barium and chromium. Specifically, if lead is released into the environment, it may damage human blood, kidneys, as well as central and peripheral nervous systems. When e-waste is heated, toxic chemicals are released into the air, which is harmful to the atmosphere. The damage to the atmosphere is one of the greatest environmental impacts of e-waste. When electronic waste is disposed of in landfills, toxic materials infiltrate groundwater, affecting both land and marine animals. This can also affect the health of people in developing countries where most electronic waste is disposed of.

In the United States, only 10 percent of mobile phones are recycled, and most Americans buy or replace new mobile phones every 12 to 18 months. This creates more and more electronic waste and, as a result of the lack of responsible recycling, e-waste is constantly increasing environmental problems. Although most electronic waste occurs in developed economies, it is stored in underdeveloped and developing countries. These countries have not yet realized the transformation that would benefit from the potential of these wastes.

While investigating the economic effects of urban mining, electronic waste is at the forefront, but the classification of urban mining in the literature is done as follows.

- Urban mining-Electronic waste
- Urban Mining-Automobiles
- Urban Mining-Batteries

Besides electronic waste, automobiles and batteries contain potential for urban mining. In addition to electronic waste, automobiles and batteries contain many materials that are recyclable and necessary for the economy. Automobile and battery wastes have very polluting effects on the environment. The recycling of these materials is also important for countries in this context.

In urban mining, there is a different view that, apart from the recycling of electronic waste, urban structures are seen as the source of reusable materials. In this context, the material stocks of buildings constructed in different years are tried to be determined and a classification is made for the materials per floor area. In a study conducted for Japan, it was calculated that there are 643 million tons of steel, 715 million m³ of wood and 3384 million m³ of concrete stocks in buildings (Weng and Yashiro, 2003: 172).

Another economic impact on recycling electronic wastes and evaluating other wastes is to obtain energy from these wastes. Increasing energy costs today have an impact on the competitiveness of developing countries. Again, the conversion of waste generated by urban mining into energy could be an advantage for developing countries. In addition, the emergence of new jobs in these countries may have positive effects on employment and unemployment.

There are different practices in the recovery of precious metals to the economy. One of the most remarkable in terms of these practices is the recycling of the medals to be awarded to the winners of the 2020 Tokyo Olympics and Paralympic Games. In the two years between April 2017 and March 2019, 100 per cent of the metals required to manufacture the approximately 5,000 gold, silver and bronze medals have been extracted from small electronic devices that were contributed from people all over Japan.

URBAN MINING AND TURKEY

Urban mining is a new concept for Turkey, and in this respect, foreigners carried out first applications. Although the concept is new already, there exist regulations regarding the collection of electronic waste in Turkey. The Regulation on the Control of Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment published in the Official Gazette of TR dated 22/5/2012 and numbered 28300 entered into force. Although there are private enterprises collecting electronic waste within the scope of this regulation, many municipalities, also, collect electronic waste. The Ministry of Environment and Urbanization has so far authorized 12 institutions for the collection of different kinds of wastes. Municipalities, in particular, try to collect those waste harmful to the environment by placing recycling bins. The process of authorization for the collection of electronic waste in Turkey is carried out by TUBISAD (Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment Compliance Scheme). The organization went into operation in 2016 under the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization. There are 57 municipalities cooperating with TUBİSAD.

Tablo1: Legal Statute in Turkey

	Date	Number	Name
Law	9.08.1983	18132	Environment Law
Regulation	22.05.2012	28300	Regulation on the Control of Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment
Regulation	24.10.2013	29901	Regulation on the Carriage of Dangerous Materials by Road
Notification	31.12.2014	29222	Notification on the Waste Bringing Center
Notification	20.03.2015	29301	Notification on the Carriage of Wastes by Road
Regulation	2.04.2015	29314	Waste Management Regulation
Procedures and Principles	4.05.2016		Authorization Procedures and Principles

Source: TÜBİSAD, TÜBİSAD Compliance Scheme Activity Report 2016

In Turkey, the legal framework and regulations on the subject is quite new. Electronic wastes are collected by municipalities and authorized institutions. Although the application is very important in terms of not disposing the hazardous wastes to the environment, it is more important to collect these wastes economically and to recycle these wastes to the economy. Turkey has nearly 20 or so firms operating in the electronic separation. Most of these firms are foreign partnerships.

Companies operating in Turkey perform in the electronic waste collection and processing activities in a variety of scales. However, since the final stage of the decomposed precious and semi-precious metals is carried out abroad, the expected impact on the national economy cannot be fully realized. Turkey is a country that has the potential particularly in the electronic waste. In 2018, only 2.5 million televisions were sold in Turkey. There are approximately 37 million CRT (Tube) televisions and approximately 90 million mobile phones are sold.

In the calculations made for electronic recycling, it was determined that approximately one CRT (tube) television had 5.6 grams of gold, 450 grams of copper and 227 grams of aluminum. One million mobile phones have 16 tons of copper, 350 kg of silver, 34 kg of gold and 15 kg of palladium. The calculation for Turkey with respect to these rates corresponds to 207.2 tons of gold, 16,500 tons of copper and 8399 tons of aluminum for CRT TVs. About 40 million of the approximately 90 million phones sold in Turkey are scrap and not used. The calculation for 40 million mobile phones corresponds to 640 tons of copper, 1340 kg of gold and 600 kg of palladium. It is obvious how important this potential is in economic terms.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The increase in production and rapid urbanization after the industrial revolution have also changed the consumption habits of people. In the early stages of industrialization in countries, the use of electronic tools and equipment in houses and workplaces was seen as an increase in welfare. Including new electronic devices to this process has increased the number of electrical appliances per capita today. This process also causes important problems today. The most important of these problems are those related to the environment.

Supply side developments as well as demand side developments are important. The development of new products has also increased the need for new raw materials. In parallel with the increase in consumption, enterprises need more raw materials. However, the world reserves of raw materials used intensively in industry are limited. Therefore, the increase in demand for these raw materials results in an increase in input prices. The limited world reserves of these substances brought about the re-use of these raw materials. This process, which is referred to as urban mining, is seen as an opportunity for many countries.

With respect to Turkey urban mining is a relatively new concept and, concordantly, legal arrangements have been made in a very recent past. The dynamic structure of consumption in Turkey is an important factor increasing Turkey's potential for urban mining. Many raw materials needed by the industry in Turkey are imported from abroad. Reuse of these substances is very important for the national economy. With a high dependency in terms of energy, energy production from waste in Turkey is also an important issue. Another economic impact of urban mining is the potential for employment creation. In this respect, it has the potential of reducing unemployment and especially in the fight against young unemployment. There are many activities that need to be done in order to uncover these impacts, from providing recycling awareness to citizens, to increasing the industrial incentives in these areas. Another important issue in order to see the effects expected from the urban mining is that it is necessary that separated precious and semi-precious metals with rare earth metals are separated in Turkey. When the rough is made in Turkey generally and actual raw material is turn into abroad, profits remain in large part abroad. When the necessary applications and initiatives taken, it is clear that urban mining has potential to make significant contributions to Turkey's economy.

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Standing on a Beach / Staring at the Sea: How the Sleeve Art Made for the Singles of the Band the Cure

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ABSTRACT

Graphic design as a visual design discipline provides pre-print solutions by organizing the main two elements: type and image. Every graphic design presents a product or a service, and an album cover as a graphic design product presents the music and the musician besides protecting the recorded medium. Music as an art form based on sound and silence has been recording since the end of the 19th century for collecting and distributing the music to the masses. The primitive sleeves created for titling and protection turned into tools of labeling, offering and presenting as form they got and the materials they have been made of. Among its similar the 1986 released compilation album of the English rock band The Cure, *Standing on a Beach / Staring at the Sea* certificated by five times with platinum and six times with gold and critically acclaimed as the one of the finest albums of the '80s. The aim of this paper is to put forth the making of the sleeve art of the singles of the band The Cure with its unique attitude, which also shows the tight bonds among various graphic design elements like line, color, tone, light and shades and music. Does the sea as black and white in the background, the figure old and thorn and the lettering in far behind have a relation of the music the band The Cure is made?

Keywords: Graphic Design; Sleeve Art; The Cure; Sea; Design *Elements*.

INTRODUCTION

Music as an artistic expression and cultural outcome (Juslin & Sloboda, 2011) has been packaged with different kind of sleeves since it has been recorded for re-listening. Initially these recordings made for professional purposes only like record studies, collecting and archiving. On primitive sleeves it is fair enough to have the written information only like the date, place and names of the performance and the performers. But when it comes to the times of mass production and selling the music, the circumstances have changed. From that time on there is a new component: the buyer, someone who is both a listener and a collector, a fond of music so a fan of the performer / performers. As a conclusion the primitive forms of sleeves created for titling and protection only turned into tools of labeling, presenting and advertising surfaces for graphic design to organize.

Graphic design as a two-dimensional design discipline organizes type and images according to the product's needs, usage and functions (Landa, 2013). Graphic design serves to sectors like food industry, every kind of media, pharmaceutical industry, fashion and many others with its own elements shape these types and images under the guidance of its principles. In this paper, music industry has been chosen as the sector graphic design serves. Among its contemporaries the 1986 released compilation album of the English rock band The Cure, *Standing on a Beach/Staring at the Sea* chosen to examine (Everett(Ed.), 2000). Because it has been certificated by five times with platinum, six times with gold and critically acclaimed as the one of the finest albums of the '80s (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Standing_on_a_Beach). The sleeve art of the album with its visual elements organized according to visual principles of graphic design accepted as indicators of the auditory experience the album promised to. So, the aim of this paper is to put forth the making of the sleeve art of the singles of the band The Cure with its unique attitude among various visual elements like line, color, tone, light and shades; the visual principles like balance, hierarchy, unity / harmony, dominance / emphasis, similarity and contrast and the band The Cure's music especially in this singles album (Poulin, 2012).

Figure 1: Group Portrait of the band The Cure in 1986



Source: <https://www.udiscover-music.de/popkultur/zeitsprung-27-7-1986-sticht-ein-mann-bei-einem-cure-konzert-auf-sich-ein>

THE STUDY

The study has begun with the examination of the album's musical content; has continued with the visual examination of the sleeve art; resulted with a comparison of the two and concluded by finding out the similarities and contrasts. If the similarities are more than the contrasts, it can be said that the sleeve art is consistent as physical form and content. If the contrasts are more than the similarities, it can be said that the sleeve art isn't consistent as physical form and content or it has another aim or meaning.

Besides being a musical album, *Standing on a Beach / Staring at the Sea* album labeled as genre post-punk, new wave and gothic rock (Moskowitz (Ed.), 2015): Post-punk as a style inspired by punk's energy, but left the rock clichés behind. Drew influences from art rock's tendency towards sonic experimentation, linking *radical content* to *radical form*; the lyrical surreal imagery and soundscape are used to evoke and signify one mediated phantasy (Wetmore Jr, 2018). Transformed music into an epic of timelessness (Carroll & Hansen (Eds.), 2014) combined with electronic styles like dub, funk and disco accepted as black, post-punk is under the effect of art and politics. On the other hand the second one, new wave was more complex as music and lyrics also different than blues and rock & roll; but under the influence of many other styles. And finally the third one, gothic rock with its darker sound than the post-punk and new wave with minor or bass chords, reverbs, dark arrangements or dramatic and melancholic melodies in a combination with themes like sadness, nihilism, dark romanticism, tragedy and melancholy. (Ray, 2013; Van Elferen, 2012; Wilkinson, 2016)

The thirteen songs combined for this album are *Killing an Arab*, *Boys Don't Cry*, *Jumping Someone Else's Train*, *A Forest*, *Primary*, *Charlotte Sometimes*, *The Hanging Garden*, *Let's Go to Bed*, *The Walk*, *The Love Cats*, *The Caterpillar*, *In Between Days* and *Close to Me*. While emotional sensitivity is obvious on some of the titles of the songs, the same emotional sensitivity easily can be seen when reading / listening the lyrics of the rest. As a single compilation album it marks the first decade of the band The Cure from increasingly dark and tormented music to dominant, melodic bass lines, whiny, strangled vocals, and a lyric obsession with existential and almost literary despair: Gothic new wave (Reveillac, 2019). Songs based on the limited number of the musical instruments, which are six-strings bass, acoustic guitar, Smith's voice and the string sound of Solina – the synthesizer (Apter, 2006; Hawkins, 2017; Stuessy & Lipscomb, 1999; Taylor, 2004).

Taylor in his 2006 dated study titled *The A to X of Alternative Music* defined The Cure music as initially began alongside post-punk bands that were driven by punk spirit, but soon withdrew into themselves and developed a stillness which begat a sense of epic power and serve them well for three albums, conforming them as leaders of the goth scene. Unwilling to be typecast, Smith explored the possibilities of pop music and over the course of another four albums reconciled the frivolous and bleak aspects of their music in a way which might have inspired Pixies amongst others.

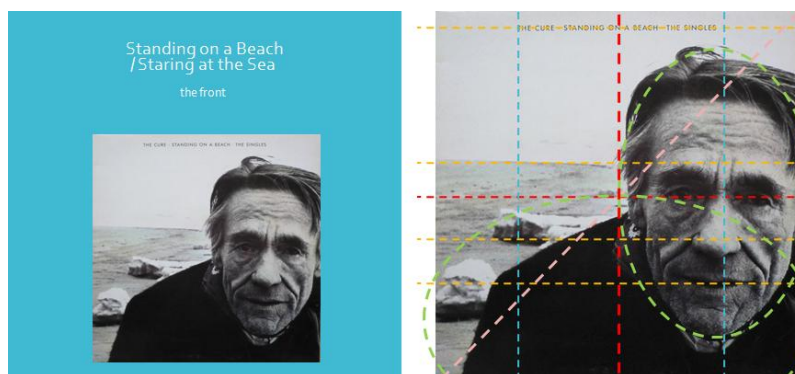
On the front cover of the album in left hand side of the Figure 2, a black and white realist photograph seen. It is visually clear and plain; the viewer can easily perceive what

captured. An old man face seen in a beach, which is almost empty in front of an open sky. He is looking directly in the eye of the viewer closely. He is old, thorn and melancholic in his eyes. His face with the wrinkles and grey striped hair creates a textural contrast with the plain black jacket of him and the sky, but creates a textural harmony with the grains of the sand and the rocks. Besides its lack of colors the photograph's dominant tone is light grey in a combination with pitch black, which increase the emptiness effect creates the feeling of loneliness and melancholy.

While the horizon on the photograph placed a little above of the center point of the cover, the head of the figure divide the surface into two equal halves vertically. But the eyes are centered horizontally for a better eye contact, which makes the photograph much more realistic and effective. As seen on the compositional examination on right hand side in Figure 2, there is a grid system consists of equal units both horizontally and vertically. Because there is a diagonal organization an asymmetrical balance established to create inequality concluded in tension.

Two amorphous rocks easily can be seen on soft plain light grey sand with their black grounds and white tops. These two rocks have two functions: First they are leading the eye on and send it to the back to the horizon, then to the thin grey line and finally above to the tiny typographic elements, which are the title of the album and the name of the band. The tiny sizes of the letters both suites the thin lines and textures all over the photograph. The typography organized as a one line sentence in same size, type and manner suits both the horizon, the rocks, the wrinkled forehead, the eye & the eyebrows and closed thin lips. So all the visual elements mentioned suit each other as structure and distributed all over the surface not equally but similarly.

Figure 2: Sleeve Art: The Front

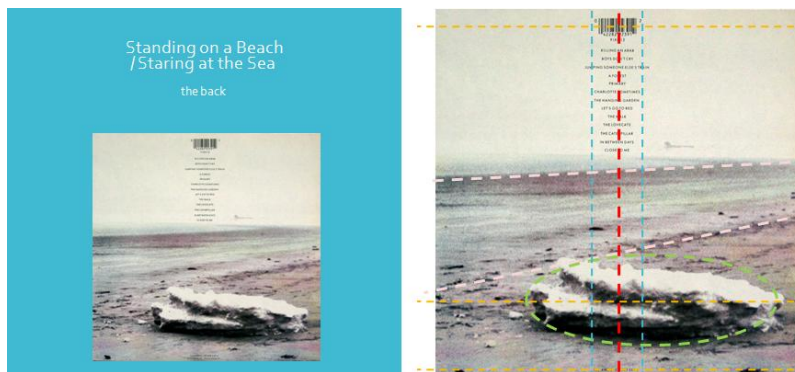


Source: Author's Collection

On Figure 3 the back of the cover seen as a lighter real life photograph without any figures but another interestingly amorphous rock. With its low saturated coloring, emptiness, amorphous rock, grained textures, semi-diagonal composition and tiny lettering this back cover suits the front cover very well, so with the content very well. Approximately same leveled horizon in a combination with the semi-diagonal seaside matches the front cover. The giant amorphous rock / s create / s a heavy weight balanced with the dark stripes of the barcode and

tiny lettering of song list centered vertically. Tiny lettering's second function is to lead the eye to the endless horizon to nourish the emptiness effect.

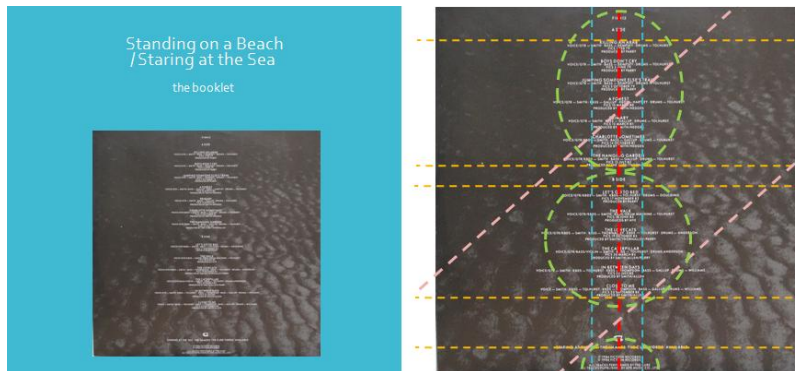
Figure 3: Sleeve Art: The Back



Source: Author's Collection

Inside the booklet there are three different approaches seen both suits the same design attitude with some exceptions inside the general loop like low saturated tones, diagonal compositions and texture the most dominant element: On Figure 4 the details of the songs placed as tiny and as white as they can be on a dark grey submarine. Very darker but diagonal composition created by degrading tones and textures; very lighter but centered and equally distributed list, getting wider at the bottom like the lighten tones of the sands, and finally another type of information than being the A & B side songs signed the bottom of the surface.

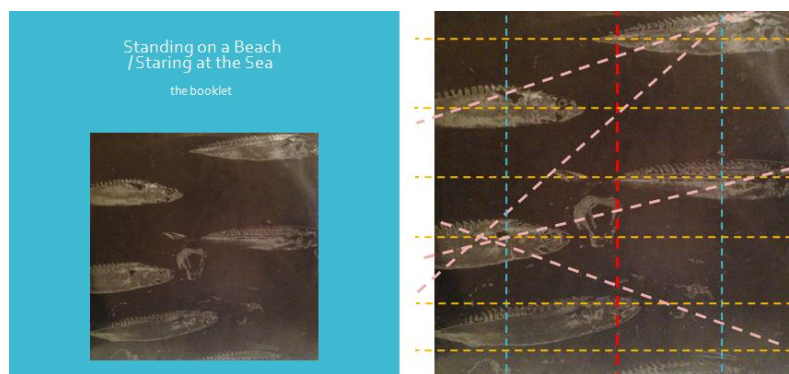
Figure 4: Sleeve Art: The Booklet



Source: Author's Collection

The second approach can be seen on Figure 5 as a black and white submarine photograph. On a flat darker surface fishes perceived with their reduced tones equal in size but unequally distributed in an open composition diagonally, which contrasting and dynamic. Although the photograph consists of three tones and a plain ground the attributes mentioned prevent the photograph to become dull.

Figure 5: Sleeve Art: The Booklet



Source: Author's Collection

The third approach can be seen on Figure 6 as the middle two pages of the booklet in form of another sandy photograph. After many suspicions about the previous photographs whether they are black & white or very low saturated now it is very obvious. A semi-saturated realistic photograph placed with the covers of all the single albums of the band in this compilation. Like the sand waves distributed unevenly the covers placed like creating two uneven loops. With the black leaves surrounding from three different directions the covers mainly create a diagonal composition, which keeps the dynamism and tension in high levels.

Figure 6: Sleeve Art: The Booklet



Source: Author's Collection

The semi-saturated colouring as a definition isn't enough to explain the interesting colour distribution seen. A special fluorescent illuminating effect circulates all over the sand but the covers. The fluorescent pink, purple, yellow and blue touches of colours on mainly black and white single covers are contrasting the interesting tones of the sand cooling up, warming down and degrading horizontally wave by wave.

On the Figure 7 the two CDs designs seen under the titles of A and B. Because of the high amount of the lettering a plain grey background has been chosen. To let the design plain and clear white are the letters, and same as fonts, but different in size. A hierarchy established among the information and this hierarchy leads the sizes and the placements of the words. Like in every other pages, the front and back covers of the sleeve the typographic elements aligned centred, evenly and symmetrically distributed. There is only one typeface used, which is straight, plain, and sans serif with unchanging thicknesses, which balance the textures, asymmetry and fluidity, and be legible enough.

Figure 7: Sleeve Art: The CDs

Source: Author's Collection

RESULTS

Musically darker sound with minor or bass chords, reverbs, dark arrangements or dramatic and melancholic melodies in a combination with themes like sadness, nihilism, dark romanticism, tragedy and melancholy. Visually all the faces of the sleeve art are black & white or low saturated can create hopelessness, sadness and being in bad mood. All compositions made are diagonal or semi-diagonal, so asymmetric and asymmetrically balanced can create tension, chaos and tragedy. The horizon and vertical center used to calm all the designs can create emptiness – loneliness effect. Many kinds of contrasts created by size, tone and texture concluded in dynamism can be the reflection of the rebellion to the mainstream genres and the power to change it.

CONCLUSION

The study has begun with the examination of the album's musical content; has continued with the visual examination of the sleeve art; resulted with a comparison of the two and concluded by finding out the similarities and contrasts. Because the similarities are more than the contrasts, they are harmonious, it can be said that the sleeve art is consistent as physical form and content.

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Aspects Regarding the Idea of an Exchange of Populations between the Aegean and the Black Sea: Study on the Dobrudja Region (1923-1940)

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to analyze how the idea of an exchange of population has become an immutable reality in the Romanian politics during the interwar period through the prism of the Turkish-Greek model. Focusing on the study of the geographic area between the Aegean Sea and the Black Sea, this paper proposes not a fragmentary but a regional approach about the consequences of the Lausanne Convention regarding the Greek-Turkish Exchange of Populations from 1923 over the Romanian Political Space, referring to the Dobrudja region. In this respect, we will approach a comparative historiographical and legal perspective to illustrate the interconnectivity between the Lausanne Convention from 1923 and the Convention regarding the Emigration of Turkish-Tatar Population from Romania in 1936. The last observation of our study will focus on the impact of the legal consequences of the Craiova Treaty of 1940 regarding the exchange of the Romanian-Bulgarian populations.

Keywords: Treaty of Lausanne, Exchange of Populations, Emigration, Greek-Turkish Exchange, Romanian-Bulgarian Exchange.

INTRODUCTION

The Greek-Turkish exchange of populations from 1923 was extremely complex, regarding not only the geographic space of the Aegean Sea but also beyond it, having a considerable impact on the Romanian geopolitical space during the interwar period.

From a functionalist approach, the political effects of the Treaty of Lausanne were significant. Perhaps one of the greatest challenges was the recognition and identification of minorities in Greece and Turkey. Although the Convention of the Greek-Turkish Exchange of Population was not a first historical case for the political approach of the idea of an exchange between two groups of the population, it remains remarkable for its unique feature based on religious antagonism: *Christian-Muslim*.

The approach of this study will be concentrated around the movements of populations from the Balkan region, which started at the beginning of the 20th century, in the political and social context of the Ottoman Empire, on the background of its disintegration. It's important to take into consideration that these movements were also stimulated by the desire of the Balkan states as well as the various groups and organizations that manifested an intense liberation activity under Ottoman rule, aiming at the realization of the national ideals. Of course, a significant role in triggering these movements of populations was constituted also by the relations between the Sublime Porte and the Great Powers, which sought ways to solve the Balkan question according to their preferences⁴.

Characteristic of the first part of the twentieth century was also the marking and the transition from the concept of voluntary migration to that of a mutual exchange of populations. In other words, voluntary migration begins with the Balkan Wars, as a consequence of the populations' drama trapped in these conflicts⁵. After the conclusion of the Balkan wars of 1912/13, the considerable transformation of the geopolitical order meant that such displacements ceased to take on a spontaneous character and began to be regulated by specific international treaties⁶.

The idea of an exchange of population will appear in the context of 1913, when the Turkish-Bulgarian Convention, which provided for a "mutually authorized exchange" of the Bulgarian and Muslim populations, was signed in Constantinople. But the convention did not represent actually an innovation, because in fact, a significant part of the population had already emigrated, wishing in reality only the legal confirmation of the migration framework⁷. Extremely important to note is the fact that a Greek-Turkish agreement, which regulated similar provisions, was to be concluded in 1914. According to this plan, it is estimated that 150.000

⁴ Ernst Christian Helmreich, *The Diplomacy of the Balkan Wars 1912-1913*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1938, p. 146.

⁵ Stephen P. Ladas, *The Exchange of Minorities Bulgaria, Greece and Turkey*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932, p. 4. For example, 115.000 Greeks were expelled from eastern Thrace under Ottoman rule, seeking refuge in Greece; another 85.000 Greeks from the same region were deported to Asia Minor while 150.000 Greeks left western Anatolia and headed to Greece, or 135.000 Muslims migrated from the Balkan area to Anatolia, due to the propaganda of the empire.

⁶ Alberto Basciani, *Il trattato di Craiova del 7 settembre 1940 e gli scambi di popolazione tra la Romania e la Bulgaria (1940-1943)*, in the vol. „Geschichte und Region/Storia e regione”, nr. 18. Jahrgang, 2009, Heft 2, p. 155.

⁷ Stephen P. Ladas, *op.cit.*, p. 19.

Greeks were forced to leave the west coast of Little Asia and takes refuge in Greece. Another 50.000 were deported inside Anatolia⁸. Acceptance of the idea of a mutual exchange of Greek-Turkish populations marked, in essence, the drawing up of a first legal framework for the future international exchange to be regulated in 1923, in Lausanne, which was to become a legal model in the field of international relations.

So significant for this study is that the conclusion of the Balkan Wars did nothing but stimulate the emergence of the idea of a population exchange between Greece and Turkey, a political idea⁹ adopted by Venizelos¹⁰, the Greek Prime Minister, in 1914, as a way to solve the difficulties that appeared at the beginning of that year between the two governments¹¹. From an evolutionary perspective, we can consider the Turkish-Bulgarian Convention of 1913, followed by the Greek-Turkish Agreement of 1914, as bilateral prosecuting legal acts of the 1923 Lausanne Convention on the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations¹². Ironically, the outbreak of the First World War only delayed the applicability of this bilateral population exchange plan, which, as we will see below, it will be resumed a few years later¹³.

From this perspective, the symbolism of the Treaty of Lausanne is a special one for the study of international policies regarding the population exchanges, whether we refer to religious or national considerations. Also, it can be considered one of the most significant and also sustainable treaties concluded in the twentieth century in terms of political tensions and fragmentation in the area¹⁴. However, we must not ignore the fact that this agreement has not brought any news regarding the introduction of the idea of population exchange. In other words, the Treaty of Lausanne did not represent a first attempt to displace different populations from a religious point of view, because by the Peace Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine¹⁵ of 1919 included the conditions of voluntary racial reciprocal emigration, religious and linguistic between Greece and Bulgaria¹⁶.

So, in this case, we can ask ourselves why this treaty is an essential point of reference for the study of population movements?

⁸ *Ibidem*, pp. 20-21.

⁹ In fact, this policy is encompassed around what historians have called the "Ionian vision" which provided a seductive project for Venizelos' ambitions, but dangerous at the same time. Thus, Venizelos's vision was shaped by the desire to achieve the territorial expansion of the Greek state on the Anatolian coasts and to include as many Greeks as possible, building Greece as a significant power in the Mediterranean. See S. B. Chester, *Life of Venizelos*, Constable and Company Ltd, London, 1921.

¹⁰ Originally from Crete, Eleferios Venizelos (1861-1936) was the most emblematic political figure in contemporary Greek history. He was a remarkable and ambitious man, surviving the Ottoman deportations, exiles and persecutions in his native country. In March 1910 he became Prime Minister of Crete, and then became Prime Minister of Greece, starting with September 12, 1910. Moreover, with his arrival in Athens, his entire foreign policy was in fact a continuation of his career from Crete as well as from the personal experience he and his family experienced during Ottoman rule. See S. B. Chester, *Life of Venizelos*, Constable and Company Ltd, London, 1921.

¹¹ Onur Yıldırım, *Diplomacy and Displacement Reconsidering the Turco-Greek Exchange of Populations, 1922-1934*, Routledge New York & London, 2006, p. 5. Relations between Greece and Turkey have become tense following Turkey's refusal to recognize the Greek annexation of the Aegean islands, of the coast of Anatolia.

¹² Stephen P. Ladas, *op.cit.*, p. 23.

¹³ Onur Yıldırım, *op.cit.*, p. 5.

¹⁴ Renée Hirschon, *Crossing the Aegean: An Appraisal of the 1923 Compulsory Population Exchange between Greece and Turkey*, Berghahn Books, New York, 2003, p. 7.

¹⁵ The treaty was signed following World War I between the Allied Powers and Bulgaria. See Treaty of Neuilly: https://wwi.lib.byu.edu/index.php/Treaty_of_Neuilly.

¹⁶ Renée Hirschon, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

First of all, it is crucial to understand what the Treaty of Lausanne actually meant. From this perspective, his eloquence resides from the diplomatic negotiations that took place between 1922-1923 during the international meetings in Lausanne¹⁷, between the Great Powers¹⁸ and the successor of the Ottoman Empire, presided over under the auspices of the international body of the moment, the League of Nations, thus acquiring an international character.

It is also extremely important that at these negotiations was signed the Convention of the Greek-Turkish Population Exchange on January 30, 1923. Later, this convention will be included in the Treaty of Lausanne, signed on July 24, 1923.

Lausanne's moment showed that the idea of a population exchange was becoming an immutable legal reality at international political level. In other words, it marked, from a legal point of view, the transition from a "voluntary" character of the concept to an "obligatory" one, as a feasible solution of the issue of minorities between the two states.

In accordance with the first article of the Convention, a mandatory exchange was foreseen between the Turkish nationals of Orthodox religion established in the Turkish territories, respectively between the Greek nationals of Muslim religion established in the Turkish territories. Article 2 is the exception from the rule, by mentioning the exclusion of a certain category of persons from the exchange mentioned in the previous paragraph, namely the Greek inhabitants of Constantinople, as well as the Muslim inhabitants of western Thrace¹⁹. In other words, people subject to the population exchange could not return to their previously inhabited territories without the authorization of the Turkish or Greek government, despite the fact that many of those who left Asia Minor, by migrating to Greece, would have wanted to return to their properties and to the goods left behind, but denied by the Lausanne Convention²⁰. Basically, the two populations were seen "overnight" dispossessed of the properties they had owned until then, without the legal capacity to hold and exercise the same rights over real goods as their former conventions. Also, establishing compensation for goods that could not be transported was a difficult one for the two governments, given the situation after the end of the war and the existing economic problems.

An essential aspect to mention is the novelty of introducing the religious criterion regarding the establishment of the population exchange. Paradoxically, the use of religious consideration in population exchange has produced many ambiguities, especially regarding certain groups of populations²¹. Among them we can mention the case of the Albanian Muslims

¹⁷ The symbolism of the conference is given by the chosen place itself, a "neutral land" of Switzerland and at the same time a perfect location, at the confluence of European roads, symbolizing its purpose to ensure peace and interstate cooperation.

¹⁸ The Great Powers were the United Kingdom, France, Italy and Japan, while the United States only participated as observer, concluding a separate friendship and trade agreement in the same year. In addition, other Allied Powers participated, such as Armenia, Belgium, Greece, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Serb-Croatian-Slovenian State and Czechoslovakia.

¹⁹ Société des Nations, Extrait nr. 23 du *Journal Officiel*, Novembre 1923, *Convention concernant l'échange des populations grecques et turques*, Signée à Lausanne le 30 janvier 1923, p. 1468.

²⁰ Renée Hirschon, *op.cit.*, p. 31.

²¹ See Lenard Corina-Maria, *Political considerations regarding the idea of a mutual Exchange of Populations at Lausanne*, in vol. Conferinței Internaționale „Globalization, Intercultural Dialogue and National Identity”, 6th Edition, Tîrgu-Mures, 25-26 May 2019.

who spoke Albanian or Turkish and that of the Turkish Gagauzes, a Christian group of the population of Turkish origin, who had initially been subject of the Convention²², or the Kıpti minority, a minority that had no religious or racial connection with the Turkish one, not even the linguistic, being predominantly Greek-speaking²³. Despite these considerations, it was subject to the population change and therefore sent to Turkey, without being Muslims. Basically, the religious affiliation used as a point of reference in the definition of the Greek Orthodox and Muslim state could not achieve an effective delimitation of population groups²⁴.

From a legal point of view, the direct consequence of the exchange was the loss of the nationality of the country they left; the emigrants were going to obtain the nationality of the country of destination, as soon as they arrived in the respective territory²⁵.

A significant aspect to mention is the acquisition of an international character of the way to solve the population exchange. Thus, the entire process was transferred to international emergency agencies, such as the American Red Cross or Near East Relief, through the establishment of the Refugee Settlement Commission²⁶.

From the point of view of the evolutionary system, this moment marks the transition from the status of minority citizen, recognized and accepted by the state, to that of refugee. For this reason, it can be said that the signing of the Convention of the Population Exchange between Greece and Turkey, on January 30, 1923, in Lausanne, formalized an already on-going process that transformed minorities into refugees in both countries²⁷.

The special feature was given by the mandatory “rotation” of two populations as a reaction to military events; Secondly, it was not based on any economic motive but only on nationalism; and the scale was considerable, with no historical precedent in the area until then²⁸. In other words, the population exchange between Greece and Turkey ushered in a new era not only for the two states involved but also for international diplomacy on minorities²⁹, bordering as we will see below, even beyond the Aegean Sea.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE LAUSANNE TREATY OVER THE ROMANIAN POLITICAL SPACE

One of the most complex challenges of Greater Romania in the years following its establishment was related to the question of minorities and their integration in a viable formula

²² Onur Yıldırım, *op.cit.*, p. 111.

²³ Aslı Iğsız, *Humanism in Ruins Entangled Legacies of the Greek-Turkish Population Exchange*, Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 2018, p. 13.

²⁴ See Corina-Maria Lenard, *Considerations regarding the status of the Ecumenical Patriarchate of Constantinople from the point of view of the Lausanne Treaty in 1923*, in *Journal of Romanian Literary Studies*. Issue no. 17/2019, pp. 869-877.

²⁵ Lausanne conference on Near Eastern Affairs 1922-1923, *Records of Proceedings and Draft Terms of Peace*, Printed & Published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1923, p. 819.

²⁶ See Lenard Corina-Maria, *Political considerations regarding the idea of a mutual Exchange of Populations at Lausanne*, in vol. *Conferinței Internaționale „Globalization, Intercultural Dialogue and National Identity”*, 6th Edition, Tîrgu-Mures, 25-26 May 2019.

²⁷ Onur Yıldırım, *op.cit.*, p. 87.

²⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 69.

²⁹ Elisabeth Kontogiorgi, *Population Exchange in Greek Macedonia The rural Settlement of Refugees 1922-1930*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 2006, p. 70.

for the optimal functioning of the democratic principles, and for ensuring the freedoms of its citizens, constituent elements of the Great Union. The biggest problem of the state was related to the ethnic aspect of the population, this one being varied in the interwar period, comprising different groups from one region to another: for example, in Transylvania, Hungarians, Saxons and Szeklers, in Banat, Swabians, in Dobrudja Turkish, Tatars, Bulgarians, Jews, Armenians, in Bessarabia or Ukraine Lipoveni, Ruthenians and more.

Of course, in all this matter, a significant role has been played by the jurisdictional system established by the Paris Peace Treaties, following the First World War and the clauses provided in their contents regarding the protection of minorities. Despite these political implementations inaugurated by the Romanian state in an attempt to ensure a transparent integration of minorities in the new administrative system, things were far from being the result. This was due to the particular characteristics of each region, with distinct ethnic groups from one province to another, with a diverse active involvement, belonging to different social categories. After all, the existing dissatisfaction of the minorities, stimulated by external factors, has contributed to the implementation of the idea of an "emigration" to other states.

Justifying its sovereignty according the peace treaties concluded under the Versailles system, Romania was expressly required, according to these, "and a certain respect for the ethnic and religious minorities", a necessary condition for ensuring the future of the country. The violation of these provisions was precisely contrary to the democratic principles, which were the foundation of the formation of Greater Romania³⁰.

Regarding the national ideal of the creation of Greater Romania, the national unification implied the joining to the Romanian state of all the provinces considered Romanian³¹, but which were not inhabited exclusively by Romanians. From here, it resulted indirectly, perhaps one of the most significant challenges following the creation of the Great Union of 1918 for Romania: the integration of national minorities within the Romanian state, depending on the particular specific of each historical province³².

Moreover, according to article 7 of the Romanian Constitution of 1923, all citizens were equal regardless of their ethnic or religious affiliation: "the difference of religious beliefs and confessions of ethnic origin and language did not constitute a hindrance in Romania in acquiring civil and political rights and exercise them"³³. Even though the 1923 and 1938 constitutions tended to offer the term of Romanian the Christian religious acceptance, but in the political reality, the elites were forced to accept the ethnic diversity of the Romanian state³⁴.

³⁰ Traian Bratu, *Politica națională față de minorități, note și observațiuni*, Colecția Actualități, Cultura Națională, Focșani, 1923, p. 14.

³¹ Vladimir Solonari, *Purificarea Națiunii: dislocări forțate de populație și epurări etnice în România lui Ion Antonescu, 1940-1944*, Polirom, Iași, 2015, p. 32.

³² Gheorghe Buzatu, Ioan Scurtu, *Istoria românilor în secolul XX*, Paideia, București, 2010, p. 37.

³³ „Monitorul Oficial”, nr. 282 din 29.03.1923.

³⁴ Vasile Ciobanu, Sorin Radu, *Partide politice și minorități naționale din România în secolul XX*, Vol. III, Editura Universității „Lucian Blaga” din Sibiu, Sibiu, 2008, p. 45.

But how did the Greek-Turkish exchange become a model for the Romanian political space under this political framework?

First of all, it is important to note that, in the conception of some of the Romanian elites, a negative attitude was felt regarding the foreign elements of the country, which were perceived as impediments to the realization of the national ideal. Therefore, the acceptance and integration of national minorities did not have to produce an economic and social disadvantage. And, multiculturalism was not yet at the order of the day. The nation involved a unifying process [...]. How to change a Hungarian into Romanian? How to change a Greek into a Turkish, and a Turkish into a Greek? Many Romanians nourished the hope that after the Great Union, the Romanian nation will finally succeed in entering the great history³⁵.

It seems that, as the historian Lucian Boia asserted: “for many Romanian intellectuals of the 1930s, nationalism passed before democracy. The attitude was with historical roots. The feeling of the Romanians, with the crystallization of the national ideology, was that they were imprisoned and dominated by foreigners. Transylvania was under Hungarians, Bukovina under Austrians, Bessarabia under Russians”³⁶. Thus, this attitude was justifiable from the perspective of historical and sentimental reasons. However, we must not neglect the fact that, on the way to modernity, the share of foreigners was substantial, which contributed to the individual's indifference in the Romanian society according to values contrary to the Romanian cultural tradition, kept alive for centuries. Unlike villages, essentially Romanian, the cities were cosmopolitan, comprising an appreciable number of "non-Romanians". Even Ioan Slavici rallied to the elitist group that advocated for a “pure” Romanian society: “Slavici had raised indignation by claiming that Romania did not have a multinational state vocation: it was better if ”Romania would have remained „Small” Romania³⁷. For this, Greater Romania no longer represented the Romanian people, being an ethnic multinational amalgam.

Under this political atmosphere, the discussions on population movements and exchanges took shape within the Romanian political class³⁸. In this context, the relationship between minorities and the majority has become extremely easy a source of social, political or even economic tensions. An eloquent example in this regard is the problem of the Hungarian optants, whom, for a period of 7 years, Romania was faced³⁹.

As we have seen, the compulsory population exchange has gained "a unique historical significance because, it has been approved by the League of Nations", becoming a reference model and an official legal precedent in international law⁴⁰. Also, the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations has also indirectly affected Romania, whose indirect consequences have had an

³⁵ Lucian Boia, *Capcanele istoriei, Elita intelectuală Românească între 1930 și 1950*, Humanitas, București, 2011, p. 51.

³⁶ *Ibidem*, p. 50

³⁷ *Ibidem*.

³⁸ Alexandra Jivan, Călin Rus, Smaranda Vultur, *Minorități: identitate și coexistență*, Programul Măsuri de Încredere al Consiliului Europei, Institutul Intercultural Timișoara, Timișoara, 2000, pp. 10-11.

³⁹ Gheorghe Buzatu, Ioan Scurtu, *op.cit.*, p. 44. The issue was a delicate one, given that the Budapest government carried out a whole international political activity against Romania, accusing it of failing to respect the treaty of minorities. The legal dispute reached the League of Nations and the International Court of Justice in The Hague, only being resolved in 1932, through the agreements concluded throughout Lausanne.

⁴⁰ Sorina Bolovan, Ioan Bolovan, *Inițiative românești privind problema schimbului de populație în primii ani ai celui de al doilea Război Mondial (1939-1941)*, in vol. „România și relațiile internațional în secolul XX”, Cluj-Napoca, 2000, p. 93.

impact on the Romanian politics of the moment. As a result of the exchange, a significant segment of the relocated Greeks from Asia Minor were located in Greek Macedonia and Eastern Thrace. "Because the Greek government ordered the nationalization of the mountain pastures owned by the Aromanians dealing with the breeding of animals, there was a constant deterioration of the economic situation of many families of Aromanians in a few years. As a result of their ruin, the desire to emigrate developed, stimulated by some political circles in Bucharest that wanted to increase the population density and to influence the ethnic structure of the Quadrilater⁴¹. Following several rounds of discussions between the representatives of the Romanian government and the Aromanian delegations, on February 1, 1925, the attraction of the Aromanians in the Quadrilater was agreed. This came as a solution of the numerical inferiority of Romanians from Durostor and Caliacra⁴² counties as well as of the emigration of the Turkish-Tatar population from Dobrudja to Turkey, being necessary to cover the human losses caused by the compulsory population exchange with Greece⁴³.

The migratory phenomenon of the Romanian population in the 30s-40s, namely Dobrudja, occurred in different aspects, with a specific political contextualization, without, however, causing serious disturbances on Romania's demographic, social, economic or political system. The question of minorities penetrated after the Second World War in the discussions of the political elites in Romania, as well as an indirect consequence of the territorial changes resulting from the unification of the Great Romania, becoming a primordial subject of the politics. The argument that the Convention on the Greek-Turkish Exchange of Populations of 1923 constituted a legal model in regulating the emigration of the Turkish population in Dobrudja is supported by the striking symmetry given by the provisions of the both Conventions.

THE EMIGRATION OF THE TURKISH-TATAR POPULATION FROM DOBRUDJA

In the second part of our study we will focus on the Dobrudja region, highlighting the manner in which the Greek-Turkish population exchange model was transposed into the Romanian political space from the interwar period.

It is important to mention that the administration of the province of Dobrudja by the Romanian authorities will take place starting with 1878 as a result of the Romanian government's participation in the Russian-Turkish conflict between 1877-1878⁴⁴. Thus, for the first time, the Romanians experienced the process of "colonization as a means of changing the demographic character of a certain region", by attributing to the congress in Berlin the north of Dobrudja, in exchange for the surrender of southern Bessarabia⁴⁵. Of remarkable strategic

⁴¹ See Lenard Corina-Maria, *Political considerations regarding the idea of a mutual Exchange of Populations at Lausanne*, in vol. Conferinței Internaționale „Globalization, Intercultural Dialogue and National Identity”, 6th Edition, Tirgu-Mures, 25-26 May 2019.

⁴² Also called The New Dobrogea. These counties become part of Romania following the conclusion of the Bucharest Peace Treaty of 1913.

⁴³ Sorina Bolovan, Ioan Bolovan, *Inițiativa românești privind problema schimbului de populație în primii ani ai celui de al doilea Război Mondial (1939-1941)*, în „România și relațiile internaționale în secolul XX”, Cluj-Napoca, 2000, p. 95.

⁴⁴ Adrian Rădulescu, Ion Bitoleanu, *Istoria Dobrogei, Ex Ponto*, Constanța, 1998, p. 351.

⁴⁵ See Vladimir Solonari, *Purificarea Națiunii: dislocări forțate de populație și epurări etnice în România lui Ion Antonescu, 1940-1944*, Polirom, Iași, 2015.

importance for Romania, through its access to the Black Sea, and thus the Bosphorus and Dardanelles Straits, its mixed population, consisting mainly of Turks and Tatars, was viewed by the Romanian elites in the light of the “vital” need to change the ethnic composition⁴⁶.

Due to the events following the war ended in 1878, there was a significant wave of emigration of the Muslim population to the Ottoman Empire. Thus, the Law on the Organization of the New Dobudja, created possibilities for ownership of the Romanian element, either from the Kingdom or from the area of Macedonia or Thrace⁴⁷. Things did not change even after 1913, following the Balkan Wars by annexing the Southern Dobrudja, but the process of integration of the province was interrupted by the First World War⁴⁸.

Following the Balkan Wars and the conclusion of the Treaty of Peace in Bucharest⁴⁹, Romania also annexed Southern Dobrudja, which until then was in the possession of Bulgaria, despite the fact that the Romanian element was estimated at only about 2.4% of the total population, represented mainly by the Turkish Tatars and Bulgarians⁵⁰. Thus, through the Peace Treaty of Bucharest⁵¹, the districts of Durostor and Caliacra are adjusted to the territory of the country, which will be called Quadrilater⁵².

Regarding the situation of the Turkish-Tatar minority, a series of policies and actions have been undertaken by the Government of Bucharest to provide a favourable, friendly, framework to them. An eloquent example in this regard may be the training of the Muslim clergy, established since 1889, in accordance with the provisions of Article 21, the seminar in Babadag, which was to be moved to Medgidia in 1901. Thus, according to some sources, in 1911 it seems that in Romanian Dobrudja about 163 mosques were operating, the educational system being a free one⁵³. In reality, however, the role of these educational institutions has been diminished precisely by the participation of other citizens, such as Romanians, Bulgarians, or Lipovans⁵⁴.

Despite the favorable framework and the actions taken by the government in Bucharest to provide a political atmosphere favorable to minorities, the situation of the Turkish-speaking community remained one of dissatisfaction. Against this backdrop, the nationalist policy promoted by the Ankara government was a "heavenly hand" for the Muslim minority eager to emigrate.

⁴⁶ *Ibidem*.

⁴⁷ Adrian Rădulescu, Ion Bitoleanu, *op.cit.*, p. 433.

⁴⁸ Cătălina Hunt, *Seeing Like a State: Romanian Policies in Northern Dobruca and the Muslims, 1878-1914*, în vol. *Studia et Documenta Turcologica*, nr. 1/2013, Universitatea Babeş-Bolyai, Institutul de Turcologie şi Studii Central-Asiatice, Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj-Napoca, 2013, p. 59.

⁴⁹ A.M.A.E, fond Tratatate şi Convenţii, Ministère des Affaires Etrangères, *Le Traité de Paix de Bucarest du 28 Juillet (10 août) 1913, Précédé des Protocoles de la Conférence*; Imprimerie de l'Etat, Bucarest, 1913.

⁵⁰ Lucian Boia, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

⁵¹ A.M.A.E, fond Convenţii şi Tratatate, *Ministres des Affaires Etrangères, Traité de Paix de Bucarest, Protocoles de la Conférence*, Imprimerie de L'Etat, Bucarest, 1913.

⁵² Sorina Bolovan, Ioan Bolovan, *op.cit.*, p. 75.

⁵³ Adrian Rădulescu, Ion Bitoleanu, *op.cit.*, p. 354.

⁵⁴ Arhivele Statului din România, *Minoritățile Naționale din România Documente, 1931-1938*, coord. Ioan Scurtu, Liviu Boar, București, 1999, p. 15.

Being a process already underway for several decades, the emigration of the Turks from Dobruja has become an alarm signal for the Romanian authorities, especially due to illegal departures. It is precisely for this reason that the need to implement a legal framework for these voluntary departures was realized. Thus, the negotiations were completed by the conclusion on September 4, 1936, of a convention between Romania and Turkey regarding the (voluntary) emigration of the Turks from Dobruja (including the Quadrilater which still belonged to Romania), being one of the most important political subjects for Romania, during the interwar period.

The first interstate political discussions started in 1933, in Ankara, where the Turkish ambassador to Bucharest, Tanrıöver met with the Prime Minister of Romania Alexandru Vaida-Voevod, discussing about the Turkish emigration issue. Later, King Carol conveyed through Romanian Foreign Minister Nicolae Titulescu in December 1934 that "it is very sad to see people with a high level of morality, faith, loyalty and submission leaving their country"⁵⁵.

The facilitation of the emigration from Romania to Turkey was boosted by the diplomatic activity carried out with the appointment of Hamdullah Suphi Tanrıöver as ambassador to Bucharest⁵⁶. The most important aspect to be solved was the problem of illegal emigration and the fading of this phenomenon⁵⁷. It is worth noting that until 1935, when the Agreement on the status of the properties of those who emigrated from Dobruja was signed, followed by the Convention on the emigration of the Turkish-Tatar population from Dobruja of September 4, 1936, a significant segment of the population had already emigrated on illegal ways. This was done by requesting the passport to visit relatives, because once "they arrived in Turkey they would not return." As a consequence, the reaction of the Romanian, as well as the Turkish authorities, was that of suppressing this illicit migration process⁵⁸.

Paradoxically, the evolutionary transition from the desperate cry from the last centuries "the Turks are coming!" To the 20th century "the Turks are leaving!" remains, a symbolic remark of the economic role played by them in the Romanian kingdom⁵⁹, also signifying in the same time a significant political change in the Romanian collective mind. Moreover, it marks a psychological mutation of the collective mind in relation to the construction of the image of the other, of the Turk or the Tatar, by shifting from a previously negative to a positive stereotype⁶⁰. After all, "Turkish emigration meant *ipso facto* the depopulation of its region, in which the colonization, with all official perseverance, did not reach the results that can be

⁵⁵ Kemal H. Karpat, *The Emigration of Turks from Romania to Turkey and Hamdullah Suphi Tanrıöver*, in vol. „*Contemporary Research in Turkology and Euroasian Studies, A Festschrift in honor of professor Tahsin Gemil, on the occasion of his 70th birthday*”, Ed. Presa Universitară Clujeană, Cluj, 2013, p. 538.

⁵⁶ Emanuel Plopeanu, Metin Omer, *Comunitatea turco-tătară și raporturile româno-turce în perioada interbelică: dimensiuni, soluții*, în vol. „*Partide politice și minorități naționale din România în secolul XX*, coord. Vasile Ciobanu, Flavius Solomon, Sorin Radu, vol. VI, Editura Kriterion, Cluj-Napoca, 2011, p. 323.

⁵⁷ *Ibidem*, pp. 323-324.

⁵⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 324.

⁵⁹ Stoica Lascu, *Emigrarea musulmanilor din Dobrogea în perioada interbelică-opinii și aprecieri românești de epocă*, în vol. „*Moștenirea istorică a tătarilor*”, vol. II, coord. Tasim Gemil, Nagy Pienaru, Editura Academiei Române, București, 2012, p. 269.

⁶⁰ Casiana Popa, *Câteva aspecte privind imaginea „Tătarului” și a „Turcului” reflectată în manualele de istorie din România perioadei interbelice*, în vol. „*Moștenirea istorică a tătarilor*”, vol. II, coord. Tasim Gemil, Nagy Pienaru, Editura Academiei Române, București, 2012, p. 653.

expected from the resources they possess"⁶¹. This phenomenon did not enter "within the immediate concerns of the officially" given by the economic consequences and the imbalance of the ethno-political situation of the Dobrudja region⁶².

Despite the fact that the two conventions present similar provisions, the Convention regarding the emigration of the Turkish population from Dobrudja, from 4th September of 1936, represented a successful legal act regarding the implementation of principles adopted from the model of an international convention, 13 years ago, but implemented according to current political needs and realities. Thus, the novelty from both the legal and the historical perspective is given precisely by the transposition of this model of population emigration from an international to a regional one. The two Conventions represent a European diplomatic example in the practice of solving a problem in an amicable way, without the existence of any armed conflict.

Moreover, the nature of the two conventions was obviously distinct, given that while the object of the Greek-Turkish convention was to make a mutual and compulsory exchange of populations, in the Romanian-Turkish case there was no similar situation. The Convention involved the migration from a single direction, from Romania to Turkey, without the existence of a legal framework for mutual exchange. Also, this removal of the population did not imply an expulsion, but rather represented a process already being carried out voluntarily by the Turkish and Tatar population in Romania⁶³.

The argument according that the Convention on the Greek-Turkish Population Exchange constituted a legal model in regulating the emigration of the Turkish population from Dobrudja is supported instead by the striking symmetry given by the legal construction of the Convention, in which the provisions organized in the form of 20 articles distinct offers a Romanian perspective of solving the issue of national minorities, of course, according to the political context existing at the time of 1936. The convention on the emigration of the Turkish population was the subject to legislative ratification on November 11, 1936, after receiving its approval⁶⁴.

However, The Agreement regarding the emigration of the Turkish population from Dobrudja offers a Romanian perspective of solving the question of national minorities, of course, according to the political context existing at the time of 1936. Thus, most of the stipulated provisions are mirrored in similar provisions, also found in the Convention on Greek-Turkish Exchange of Populations, either regarding to aspects as time or space, identifying the subjects involved and beneficiaries of the Conventions, the legal status of the subjects as a result of emigration, the exercise of the right to ownership of the movable property and compensation of immovable property, or even the establishment of a Mixt Commission to supervise the whole process.

⁶¹ Stoica Lascu, *op.cit.*, p. 271.

⁶² *Ibidem*, p. 272.

⁶³ See A.M.A.E., fond Convenții și Tratatate, *Convention Reglementant L'Emigration de la Population Turque de Dobroudja*.

⁶⁴ „Monitorul Oficial”, nr. 264 din 12.11.1936.

THE TREATY OF CRAIOVA AND THE AGREEMENT ON THE ROMANIAN-BULGARIAN EXCHANGE OF POPULATIONS FROM 1940

Following the Vienna Dictate of 30th August 1940 and the Romanian-Bulgarian Treaty signed in Craiova on 7th September 1940, Romania would also lose the Bulgarian community from Dobrudja. The compulsory exchange of Romanian-Bulgarian populations has entered into a wider process of departures, also found in other provinces of the country, as was the case of the *optants* from Transylvania.

From an overall perspective, it is important to mention that, the Treaty of Craiova and the Agreement regarding the Exchange of Romanian-Bulgarian Populations have been an eloquent example in the maturing of the idea of population exchange for the Romanian interwar space, representing an evolution of the historical process of implementing the migration concept.

According to the census of the population of Romania from 1930⁶⁵, the population of Dobrudja amounted to about 800,000 inhabitants, of which about 360,000 were Romanians, 185,000 Bulgarians, 169,000 Turks and Tatars, the rest of the population being represented by the Russian, German, Greek or Armenian minority⁶⁶. At the time of 1930, it was estimated that the Bulgarian minority had a relative majority in the Quadrilater, with the Turks and Tatars holding a share almost equal to that of the Bulgarians⁶⁷.

However, in the following period, the ethnic structure of Dobrogea has undergone significant changes, given by the departure of the Turkish and Tatar population from Dobrogea to Anatolia, following the conclusion of the 1936 Convention, as well as by the continuation of the colonization operations, begun only a few years after the conclusion of the World War I, with Aromanians from Greek Macedonia⁶⁸.

As for the situation from Dobrudja, “a large transfer has taken place, following the cession of the Quadrilater to Bulgaria, by the Treaty of Craiova of September 7, 1940. A complete and compulsory exchange: 60,000 Bulgarians had to leave the remaining Dobrudja to Romania, while a little over 100,000 Romanians were withdrawn in the Quadrilater⁶⁹, population exchange achieved according to the model of the ethnic cleansing offensive of Nazi Germany⁷⁰. Moreover, as a result of the territorial surrender without the existence of any armed conflict, Romania was rendered powerless in the face of the dictatorship imposed by Hitler. According to him, the Romanians had two ways: “to try to postpone the problem by delaying the negotiations; which will end for them with a catastrophe; the second way was to agree with the neighbors; if they fail, a catastrophe awaits them. In fact, Germany rejected arbitration because the Dobrogea problem was considered much easier than the Transylvanian one”⁷¹.

⁶⁵ Sabin Manuilă, *La Population de la Dobroudja*, Institut Central de Statistique, Bucarest, 1939, p. 9.

⁶⁶ Dumitru Șandru, *Mișcări de populație în România(1940-1948)*, Editura Enciclopedică, București, 2013, p. 102.

⁶⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 102.

⁶⁸ *Ibidem*.

⁶⁹ Lucian Boia, *op.cit.*, p. 101

⁷⁰ *Ibidem*, p. 101.

⁷¹ Constantin Iordan, *Minorități etnice în sud-estul European după Primul Război Mondial: Dimensiunea unei probleme europene*, Editura „Curtea Veche”, București, 2002, p. 138.

Thus, a first feature of this convention on the Romanian-Bulgarian population exchange was given by the obligatory character, being a political decision imposed on the Government of Bucharest.

Following the treaty, it was agreed to surrender the southern part of Dobrudja to Bulgaria, within the 1912's border⁷². From the point of view of the political consequences on Romania, the cession of the two counties, Durostol and Caliacra to Bulgaria, marked the conclusion of the territorial fragmentation process of Romania in 1940, without provoking a remarkable opposition from the government from Bucharest⁷³.

Representing a novelty in the Romanian law, the Treaty of Craiova remains one of the most significant regional treaties concluded, for both Romania and Bulgaria, in the early of the 1940s, which implemented from the jurisdictional perspective the idea of a mutual exchange of populations. More than 17 years away from the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations, the treaty proposes a new vision of what the population exchange has become: an immutable accepted concept of the existing political realities of the moment. With a previous experience, gained after the conclusion of the Convention on the emigration of the Turkish population from Dobrudja, the Romanian government responded to the new political challenge, building its diplomatic vision in terms of concluding a treaty this time, with mutual bilateral obligations, seeking to consolidate its collaborative realities from the Black Sea.

Like the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations Convention, or the Convention regarding the emigration of the Turkish population from Dobrudja, the Treaty of Craiova regulated bilateral relations, this time between the Romanian and the Bulgarian states, applying eloquent similarities given by its provisions, which can be found in the contents of the three "sister conventions", regarding similar rules and principles. On the whole, from a comparative analytical perspective, we find in all three agreements, whether we refer to the one in 1923, 1936 or 1940, similar provisions regarding the: identification of participant subjects, issues concerning the economic criterion, such as the status of movable and immovable property, or the legal one, related to the question of nationality and the status of emigrant.

Specifically, the idea of a mutual exchange of population was implemented in the Romanian law on the model of the Convention concluded at Lausanne, regarding the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations of January 30, 1923. Interestingly, the contrasting expression given by the terms "obligatory / optional" article. According to the provisions, the emigration was obligatory only in the case of Dobrudja, having no legal consequences on the populations from other regions of the state. Thus: "as far as the Romanian subjects of Bulgarian ethnic origin and the Bulgarian subjects of Romanian ethnic origin from other regions of Romania and Bulgaria, their immigration to their country of ethnic affinity, remains optional, within one year of the beginning of exchange of the instruments of ratification of the present Treaty"⁷⁴.

⁷² *Ibidem*, p. 102.

⁷³ *Ibidem*, p. 103.

⁷⁴ Monitorul Oficial", nr. 212 din 12.09.1940.

Another particular feature of this obligatory exchange, which is not included in the Convention on the Greek-Turkish exchange of populations, is given by the establishment of a proportional exchange of populations between the two neighboring states: “In a reciprocal way, the Bulgarian Government will be able to decrees the mandatory emigration in Romania of a number of Bulgarian subjects of Romanian ethnic origin equal to that of the Romanian subjects of Bulgarian ethnic origin who would have exercised their faculty to emigrate”⁷⁵.

Thus, in the autumn of 1941, Romania achieved, for the first time in its history, a massive population exchange. The loss of northern Transylvania in favor of Hungary, however, caused the Romanians to lose interest in Dobrudja, and the population exchange, remained a marginalized topic in the collective mind⁷⁶.

CONCLUSIONS

From a geopolitical perspective, looking from the Aegean Sea to the Black Sea, the idea of population exchange constituted an immutable political reality as part of a complex emigration mechanism in Europe's history. Such a conclusion leads to some final remarks, related in particular to the incomplete approach taken in Romanian historiography regarding the historical impact of the Greek-Turkish emigration phenomenon on Romania, referring to the province of Dobrudja.

Lausanne's moment showed that the idea of an exchange of population was becoming an immutable legal reality on the international political level. In other words, it marked the transition of the concept from a “voluntary” to a “compulsory” character, as a feasible solution regarding the minority issue between the two states.

The Treaty of Lausanne had a compulsory character, for all the subjects envisaged, regardless of status, gender, or age⁷⁷. However, there were some exceptions regarding the applicability of the convention on: the Greek inhabitants of Constantinople and the Muslim inhabitants of western Thrace. All the Greeks established here before October 30, 1918 were considered inhabitants under the prefecture of Constantinople⁷⁸. Also, were considered Muslims all the inhabitants who settled in the west of Thrace according to the Treaty of Bucharest of 1913⁷⁹. The question of the emigration issue was to be noticed following the Balkan Wars and after the conclusion of the Treaty of Peace in Bucharest, when Romania also annexed the Southern Dobrudja, including in its territory the Turkish-Tatar and Bulgarian ethnic minorities, along with other coexisting groups.

Despite the favorable framework and the actions taken by the government from Bucharest, with the aim of providing a favorable political atmosphere to the national minorities,

⁷⁵ Monitorul Oficial”, nr. 212 din 12.09.1940.

⁷⁶ Vladimir Solonari, *op.cit.*, p. 101.

⁷⁷ Stephen P. Ladas, *The Exchange of Minorities Bulgaria, Greece and Turkey*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932, p. 397.

⁷⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 399.

⁷⁹ See A.M.A.E, fond Tratatate și Convenții, Ministère des Affaires Etrangères, Le Traité de Paix de Bucarest du 28 Juillet (10 aout) 1913, Précédé des Protocoles de la Conference ; Imprimerie de l'Etat, Bucarest, 1913.

the situation of the Turkish-Tatar community was one of dissatisfaction. Against this background, the nationalist policy promoted by the Ankara government was a “heavenly hand” for the Muslim minority eager to emigrate.

Being a process already underway for several decades, the emigration of the Turks from Dobrudja became an alarm signal for the Romanian authorities, especially due to the illegal departures. It is precisely for this reason that the need to implement a legal framework for these voluntary departures has been realized. Thus, the negotiations were finalized by the conclusion on September 4, 1936 of a convention between Romania and Turkey on the (voluntary) emigration of Turks from Dobrudja (including the Quadrilater that still belonged to Romania), being considered one of the most important political issues for the Romania during the inter-war period.

Following the Vienna Dictate on August 30, 1940 and the Romanian-Bulgarian Treaty signed in Craiova, on September 7, 1940, Romania would also lose the Bulgarian community from Dobrudja. The compulsory exchange of the Romanian-Bulgarian populations was part of a wider process of departures, found in other provinces of the country, as was the case of the Transylvanian *optants*.

From a geopolitical perspective, following this analytical study, we can confirm that, regarding the Aegean Sea to the Black Sea, the idea of a population exchange constituted an immutable political reality, being part of a complex mechanism of emigration from the history of Europe.

Concerning other research directions, this study may serve as a starting point not only to address the idea of population exchange on the Greek-Turkish model in the Romanian space, but also on a political reinterpretation of the current Black Sea context concerning the need for a Euro-Atlantic strategy on social processes triggered by the Crimean or Caucasus minority issue or Black Sea or cross-border cooperation programs. For this reason, the subject can be oriented towards multiple research directions.

Last but not least, the contribution of this study is also supported by the current historical significance of the 2023 Lausanne Treaty Centenary. Nearly a century away, the inexhaustibility of this subject once again confirms the relevance of a historical study that continues to prove the existence of has many approached perspectives yet.

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Investigating the Relationship between Sea Transportation Infrastructure Investments and the Quality of the Port Infrastructure Investments: The Case Study of Turkey

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ABSTRACT

Developing sea transportation infrastructure, improving port efficiency and other logistical improvements due to containerization have a significant influence on the port infrastructure investment. This paper aims to identify the importance of sea transportation infrastructure and investigates the relationship between sea transportation infrastructure investment and the quality of port infrastructure investments in Turkey. Data were collected through the World Bank and OECD data. The results show that the highest sea transportation infrastructure investments occurred in 2012 between the years of 2007 and 2016. It has been concluded that port infrastructure investments were increased 2 fold within 10 years. Quality of port infrastructure was ranked by World Bank (1 = extremely underdeveloped to 7 = well developed and efficient by international standards). These data suggest that the quality of port infrastructure investments in Turkey has been gaining momentum with each passing year. The research findings will conclude by putting forward recommendations for sea transportation infrastructure development strategies for improving the quality of port.

Keywords: Sea Transportation, Infrastructure Investment, Quality of the Port Infrastructure Investments.

INTRODUCTION

The challenge of the sea transportation industry in the near future will be to strengthen for competition in the global supply chain. The integration of sea ports and international logistics was given assistance by the biggest technology companies by way of building of ship containers and improved equipment for loading and unloading (Woo et al. 2013). Nowadays, there are significant changes in sea transportation. The shipping sector has tended towards specialized vessels of large size and high speed. In addition to reducing idle time in transit, these vessels are required for high investment and moreover for increased demand utilization. The port authorities and administrators have increasingly been under pressure to develop port performance by ensuring that port services are internationally competitive (Simoes and Marques 2010).

Ports are playing an critical role in intermodal transportation systems and international trade. Ports are involved in various activities that add value for customers such as loading and uploading cargo onto/from vessels, acting as warehouse and distribution centers and packaging, labeling and cross-docking (World Bank, 2019). Ports add value to shipments that are in the port district by further associating themselves into value chains. Ports play an important role in the effective and efficient management of product and information flow in the supply chain as these transport nodes are significant and inevitable. Improving sea transportation infrastructure can affect aggregate export performance by decreasing the time and transport costs associated with receiving goods to port. Policies and strategies of sea transportation infrastructure that aim to develop the efficiency of a port's operation and their levels of service, such as improving the frequency of lines or reducing maritime freight and transit times, could have a considerable effect on demand (Vega et al. 2018: 133).

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 involves sea transportation, section 3 contains a literature review on sea transportation infrastructure investments. Section 4 presents information about the quality of the port infrastructure investments. Section 5 shows the evaluation of quality of the port infrastructure investments for Turkey.

SEA TRANSPORTATION

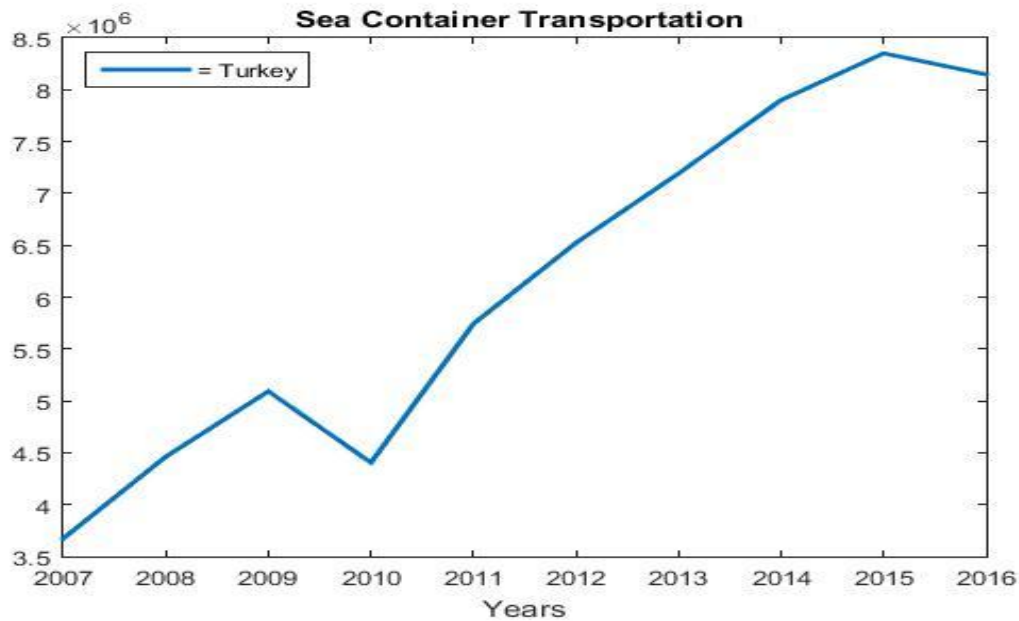
Sea transportation is the oldest mode of transportation among waterways, lakes, coastlines and international deep seas. Sea transportation is the mode of transportation preferred with the highest capacity and the lowest cost in transportation of cargoes overseas and intercontinentally. More than 80% of world trade is done by sea transportation. Sea transportation is 22 times more cheaper than air transportation, 7 times more cheaper than road transportation and 3.5 times less costly than railway transportation (Taşkın and Durmaz, 2012:73-74). The disadvantage is that the infrastructure costs are high and transport times are long, as well as being a low speed transport mode (Nebol et al. 2013:212). Difficult access to the sea transportation sector is an obstacle for entrepreneurs (Tanyaş and Düzgün 2012:143).

The Republic of Turkey is surrounded by sea on three sides and is on the international trade and logistics routes which plays a key role in its economic and social development. Turkey has one of the longest coastal lines among European countries with 8333 km of coastline

(Koban and Keser, 2011:196). The expansion of international trade volume has led to an increase and diversification of maritime transport. Today, sea transportation is perceived as an integrated system and is considered to be the most important part of the transportation chain.

The development of sea container transportation in Turkey is given in Figure 1.

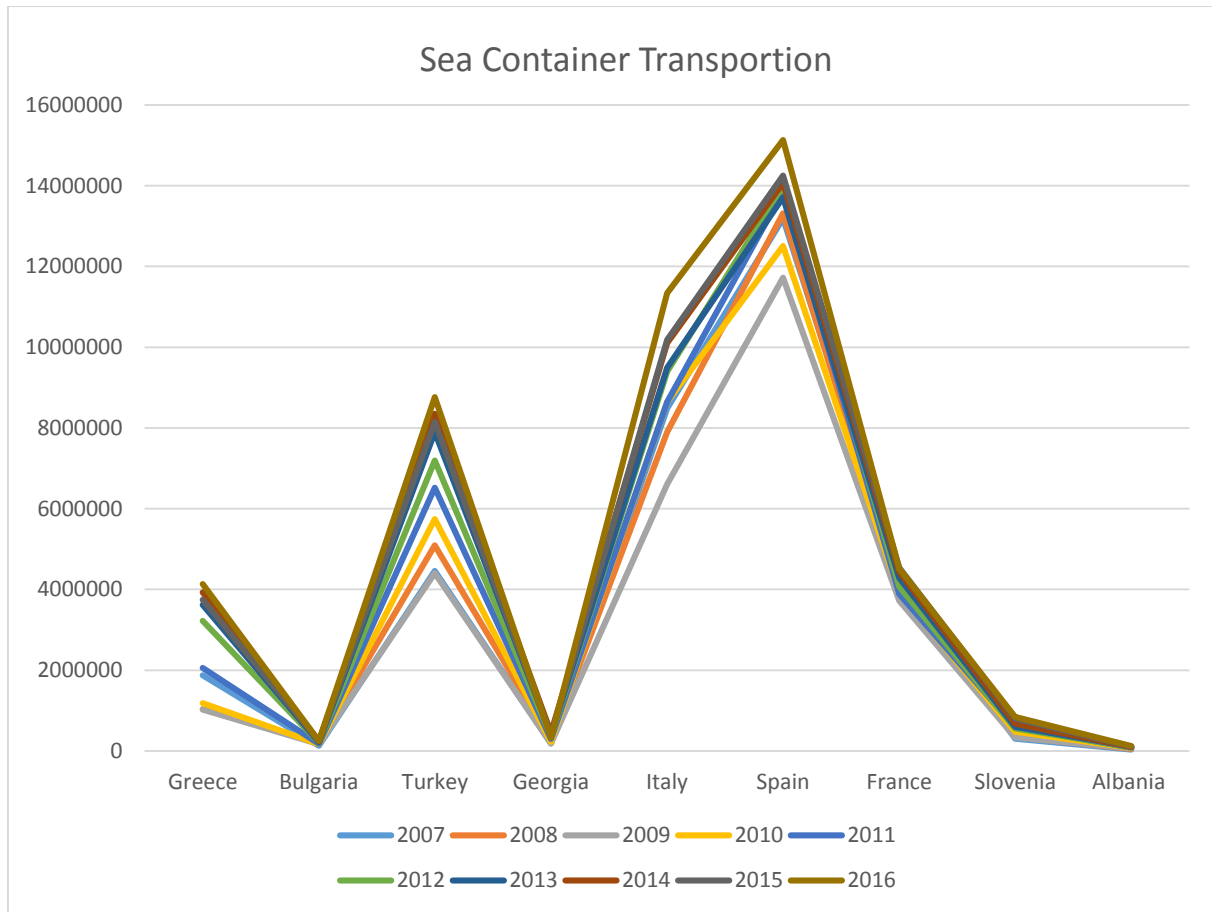
Figure 1: Turkey's Sea Container Transportation (OECD, 2019)



Data are expressed in tons and twenty-foot equivalent units (TEU). One 20 foot container equals 1 TEU.

According to figure 1, it is seen that sea container transportation in Turkey had made progress between 2007 and 2009, but a decrease had occurred between 2009 and 2010 before gaining momentum between 2010 and 2015. It has been noted that sea container transportation had more than double within those 6 years and a decline followed between 2015 and 2016. Turkey is located on the shores of the Black Sea, Aegean Sea, and the Mediterranean. Figure 2 shows a comparative analysis of the course of sea container transportation in some countries along the Mediterranean, Aegean and Black Sea coasts between 2007 and 2016.

Figure 2: Comparison of Several Countries for Sea Container Transportation (OECD, 2019)



In light of the information given in figure 2, it is determined that the rate of sea container transportation in Spain is higher than the other countries. Albania had the lowest rates. Turkey's sea container transportation rate is higher than Greece, Bulgaria, Georgia, Italy, France and Slovenia. Moreover this rate is also higher than some countries which are members of the European Union. It was found that the sea container shipping rate of neighboring Greece was 1873219 tons (TEU) in 2007, but it reached 4131533 tons (TEU) in 2016 and it increased more than 2 times over. The highest rates of sea container transportation in Bulgaria and Georgia were seen in 2016. These rates are 245459 tons (TEU) in Bulgaria and 118828 tons (TEU) in Georgia.

SEA TRANSPORTATION INFRASTRUCTURE INVESTMENTS

Value-added activities in ports have multiplier effects on the national and regional economies. Logistics activities such as loading and unloading, processing, packaging, warehousing, transferring are associated to its regional economy. Port infrastructure systems are important and expensive engineering systems that ensure economic activities by enabling the transfer of goods securely and reliably for both national and international destinations (Mansouri et al. 2010:1125).

The size of port investment per region, which involves port infrastructure investment, such as container terminals, cranes, cargo terminals and railway and roads within the port area, suggests substantial regional differences between seaports, as well as between inland ports, and part of the differences can be known based on the different numbers of ports per region. The integration of flexibility into the design and operation of port infrastructure systems can possibly be very costly and sophisticated. Inland ports have been accepted as an important and growing part of logistics activities internationally. While there is now significant literature which takes into account the definition and reconstruction of inland ports, less attention has been paid to the uptake of these new facilities and the ways in which they are used by enterprises to improve their export activities (Roso et al. 2009; Rodrigue et al. 2010).

Port performance is variously based on factors such as population, scope of the hinterland, regional product structure, local economic development level, culture, status in the world economy, government policy on supporting trade and landside infrastructure (Tongzon, 2002). Port authorities plan port infrastructure tariffs and impose them on visiting ships for use of port infrastructure. The berth occupancy charges and port/channel dues are the two most common port infrastructure charges. (Bandara et al. 2016:831).

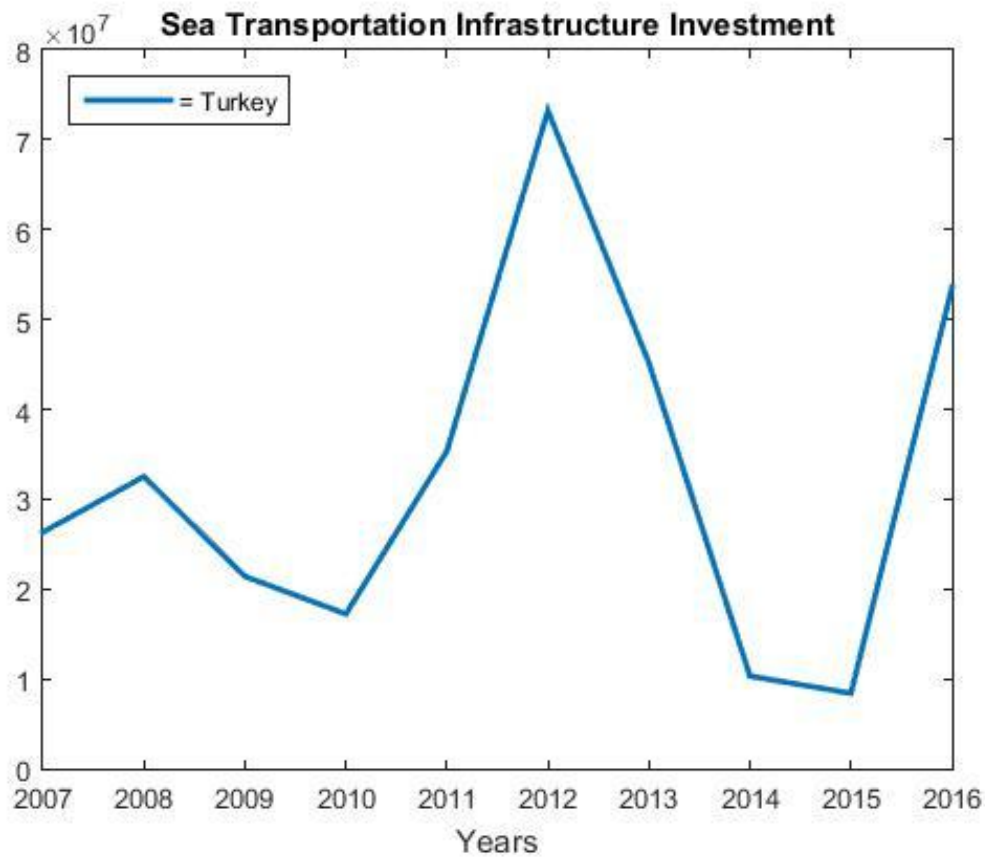
Hu and Hu (2010) have proved that port development directly supports the improvement of foreign trade; moreover, it promotes the development of the port industry and contributes to the economic development of the region in the short term. Song and Mi (2016) considered port policy and local economy by appraising the causal relationship between port infrastructure investments and regional economic growth within the context of China. Vega et al. (2018) identified factors influencing port choice and the effect of major infrastructure projects which could assist in formulating better policies for improving regional competitiveness.

Many researchers have performed comprehensive perspective reviews of the influence of infrastructure on trade which has consider the efficiency of transport infrastructure in the literature and cross-country differences in accessibility. For instance, Bougheas et al. (1999) pointed out the role of public infrastructure in predicting the value of bilateral trade relationships, while Djankov et al. (2010) showed the impact of delays in getting goods to port on aggregate export values.

These studies provided evidence of the fact that port infrastructure pricing is one of the key elements in port economics. Ashar (2001) argued for the private port pricing strategy. Bottasso et al (2017) explained the relationship between trade and transport infrastructure Wherein an enhancement in port infrastructure is related to large increases in Brazilian exports, while impact on imports is more complicated. Sirajuddin et al. (2019) proved that port characteristics have a positive impact on the development of physical port infrastructure, maritime accessibility, integrated information technology system and terminal handling charges.

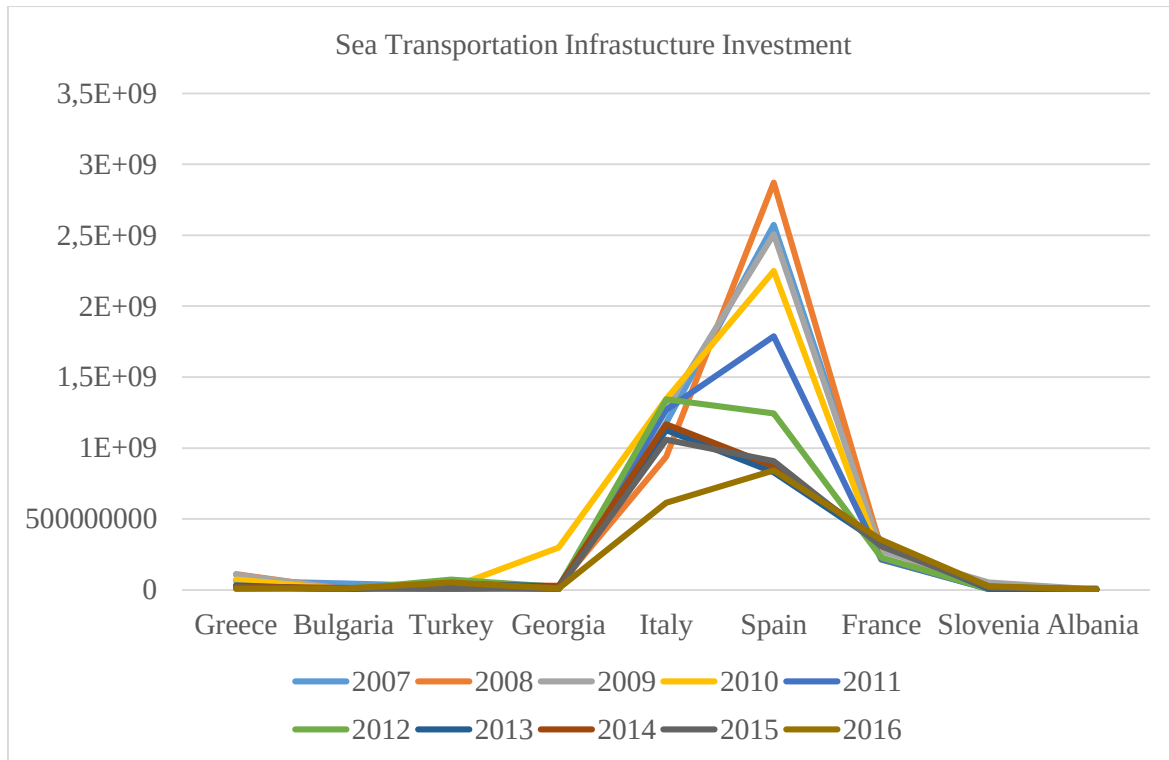
Infrastructure investments in sea transportation in Turkey are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Turkey's Sea Transportation Infrastructure Investments (OECD, 2019)



When examining maritime infrastructure investment rates in Turkey in figure 3, the value increased between 2007 and 2008 but then declined between 2008 and 2010. There was a gradually increasing trend between 2010 and 2012. Over the 2-year period, an increase of approximately 23.5% occurred. A rapid decline was detected between 2012 and 2015. In 2015, the lowest level was reached at euros 8377697 between 2007 and 2016 and the recovery process started after 2015.

Figure 4: The Comparison of Several Countries for Sea Transportation Infrastructure Investments (OECD, 2019)



In the light of the information given in figure 4, Spain has the highest rates of infrastructure investments in sea transportation between 2007 and 2012, while Italy took the lead between 2012 and 2015. In 2016, Spain once again focused on infrastructure investments in sea transportation (842000000 euros), reaching the first place among the countries in this figure. Infrastructure investments in Albania's sea transportation were 1026535 euros in 2007, rose to 2586404 euros in 2016, but remained far behind the other countries. Between 2011 and 2012, infrastructure investments in Georgia increased by approximately 30%, but in the following years it was found that these investments did not continue. It is observed that infrastructure investments in France's sea transportation have been moving at a similar rate throughout the years. According to the data on infrastructure investments in sea transportation in 2016; it is seen that Turkey followed Spain, Italy and France. It was found that Turkey's sea infrastructure investments (53569872 euros) is higher than Bulgaria (10225994 euros), Greece (8814449 euros), Georgia (10586661 euros), Slovenia (25000000 euros), and Albania (2586404 euros).

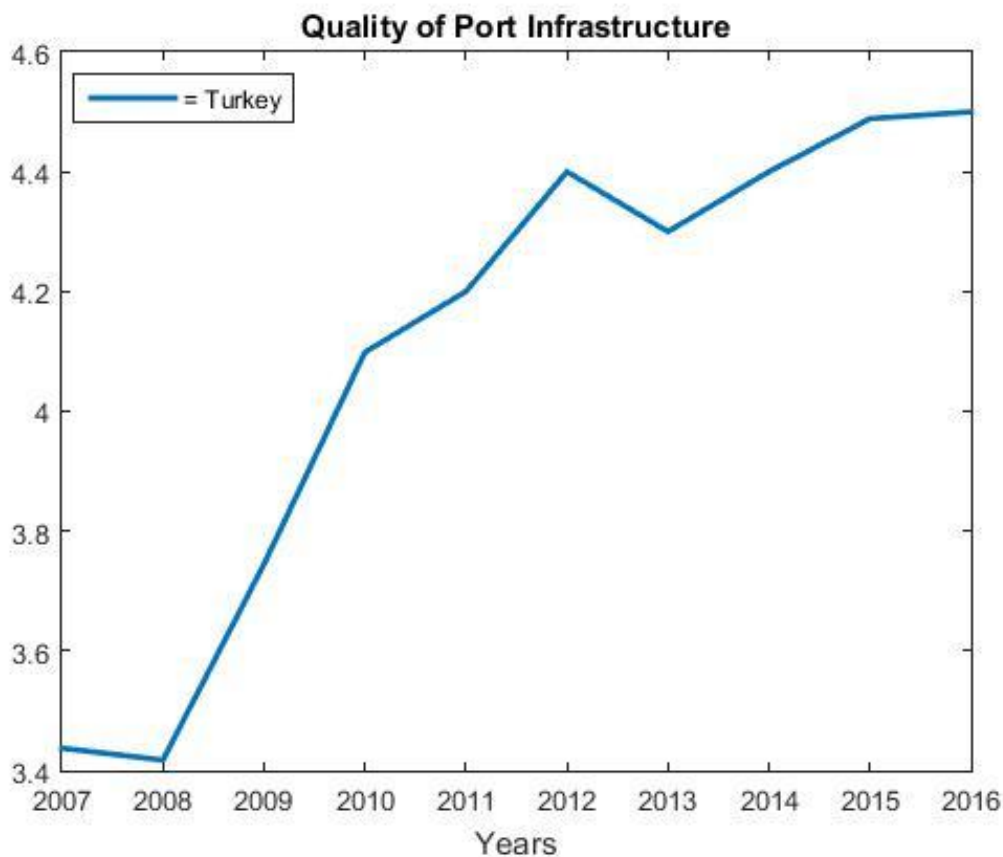
QUALITY OF THE PORT INFRASTRUCTURE INVESTMENTS

The quality of port infrastructure investments has become more important in a competitive environment which has been increasing due to the impact of globalization. Despite numerous studies on service quality measurement and infrastructure investments in various industries, little research has been conducted on the quality of the ports and the quality of port infrastructure investments.

As pointed out by Cho et al. (2010) it's emphasized that port service quality on customer loyalty and satisfaction. Yeo et al. (2015) pointed out that delivering quality port service has an important positive impact on customer satisfaction. Port service quality was presented to be a five-dimensional construct consisting of items associated with social responsibility, processes, resources, outcomes, management and image. The quality of port services provided by privatised and corporatised ports may be indicated by their price level. Therefore, private and corporatised ports claim relatively higher charges for port infrastructure and activities (Babdara and Nguyen 2015:128).

The quality of port infrastructure investments in sea transportation in Turkey is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5: The Quality of Port Infrastructure Investments for Turkey (WB, 2019)



According to Figure 5, According to figure 5, the degree of quality of port infrastructure investment in Turkey was quite low between 2007 and 2008. There had been an increase between 2008 and 2012. Although there had been a decline in 2013, it started to rise again the following year. The highest ratio between 2007 and 2016 was obtained by reaching a score of 4.5 in 2016. This data proves the quality of Turkey's port infrastructure investments had been increasing with each year.

Tablo 1: The Comparison of Many Countries for Quality of The Port Infrastructure Investments (World Bank, 2019).

Rank	Country	Value	Rank	Country	Value	Rank	Country	Value
1	Netherlands	6.8	25	Namibia	5.2	53	Kenya	4.5
2	Singapore	6.7	29	Ireland	5.1	53	Seychelles	4.5
3	Hong Kong	6.5	29	Latvia	5.1	53	Jordan	4.5
4	Panama	6.2	29	France	5.1	53	Sri Lanka	4.5
4	United Arab Emirates	6.2	29	Bahrain	5.1	53	Turkey	4.5
4	Finland	6.2	33	Morocco	5	60	Suriname	4.4
7	Belgium	6.1	33	Slovenia	5	60	The Gambia	4.4
8	Iceland	5.9	35	Uruguay	4.9	60	Senegal	4.4
9	United States	5.8	35	Australia	4.9	60	Honduras	4.4
10	Denmark	5.7	35	Chile	4.9	60	Italy	4.4
11	Qatar	5.6	35	Jamaica	4.9	65	Mexico	4.3
11	Estonia	5.6	39	Dominican Republic	4.8	65	Thailand	4.3
13	United Kingdom	5.5	39	Lithuania	4.8	67	Poland	4.2
13	Sweden	5.5	39	South Africa	4.8	67	Russia	4.2
13	Norway	5.5	42	Saudi Arabia	4.7	67	Mauritius	4.2
13	Germany	5.5	42	Israel	4.7	70	Montenegro	4.1
13	Spain	5.5	42	Azerbaijan	4.7	70	Bulgaria	4.1
13	New Zealand	5.5	42	Egypt	4.7	70	Albania	4.1
19	Malaysia	5.4	46	China	4.6	70	Georgia	4.1
19	Puerto Rico	5.4	46	Oman	4.6	74	Indonesia	4
19	Canada	5.4	46	Cyprus	4.6	74	Pakistan	4
22	Malta	5.3	46	Luxembourg	4.6	74	Iran	4
22	Japan	5.3	46	Ecuador	4.6	77	Brunei	3.9
22	Barbados	5.3	46	Croatia	4.6	77	Benin	3.9
25	Côte d'Ivoire	5.2	46	India	4.6	77	Austria	3.9
25	Portugal	5.2	53	Switzerland	4.5	80	Trinidad and Tobago	3.8
25	Korea	5.2	53	Greece	4.5			

According to table 1, Netherland (6.8 points) ranked first among countries rated by quality ratios of port infrastructure investment by the World Bank, followed by Singapore (6.7 points) and Hong Kong (6.4 points). Table 1 shows that Spain is the 13.th. France is the 29.th, Slovenia is the 33.th, Greece and Turkey are the 53.rd. Laterly, Italy is the 60.th. and Bulgaria,

Georgia and Albania are located in 70.st. It is seen that Turkey have higher scores than many countries in the European Union.

CONCLUSION

World trade has grown significantly in the 21st century and increasing trade has created demand for transportation services and the volume of transported goods has gradually increased. Sea transportation, which is more advantageous in terms of cost and capacity than other modes of transportation, has become more prominent in international trade. Ports are an important link in logistics and supply chain management; therefore, the efficiency level of a port greatly affects the competitive advantage of its country. If the port efficiency is high, it enables an increase in the efficiency of international trade and logistics activities. Nowadays, it is important to focus on infrastructure investments in ports with increasing international trade and increasing demand for maritime transport. The global economy has contributed to the development of container transport. Thus, world trade is mainly carried out by maritime transportation and the quality of infrastructure investments is at the forefront.

This article aims to emphasize the importance of infrastructure investments in sea transportation and how the quality of infrastructure investments in sea transportaiton has changed over the years. Moreover it explains the relationship between sea transportation infrastructure investment and the quality of port infrastructure investments. It has been concluded that sea container transportation increased between 2007 and 2009, while a decrease occurred between 2009 and 2010 in Turkey. Sea container transportation in Turkey is determined to have increased at a rate of more than 2 times between 2012 and 2015. Also, Turkey is 53.rd in terms of the level of quality of its sea transportation infrastructure investments. Turkey allocated more resources to invest in infrastructure than Slovenia, although Slovenia is ahead of Turkey in terms of the quality of port infrastructure investments. Nevertheless, the quality of infrastructure investment in Turkish ports is better than in many countries in the world. This study has limitations. The study did not cover all ports in Mediterranean and Black Sea. Therefore future research could extend the survey to include other geographical regions.

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Attitude to Authority of Bulgarian Teachers

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ABSTRACT

In the field of social and human sciences the authority is defined as a special type of social attitude that is based on a particular position. It is formed in the course of a joint activity under certain preconditions, which are undoubted advantages of one side and leads to the public recognition of the person or team (Ivanov, 1995, Pirev, 1975). According to the humanistic approach, in a social system the authority legitimizes the right to power but does not identify with it. It is not a form of control but its basis, which is expressed in the right to exercise power (Ivanov, 1995). In this sense, authority is also called “social prestige” and it is a criterion for leadership efficiency. Teacher's profession is undoubtedly being a leader in its essence. This makes the authority an immanent status of the teacher and determines criterion for his professional effectiveness. As the teachers' own perception of authority has a significant influence on the survival of this status, it is important to establish how teachers understand the authority and the extent to which they agree with its modern dimensions. Previous studies have shown that teachers understand the authority as a typical and traditional professional teacher's role. They identify it as a priority for them, internalizing it in terms of the status of educator, manager and consultant. This study presents teachers attitudes towards authority as a basic form of social prestige in three aspects:

View of the leader as a guide and director rather than an executive of democratic decisions;

Approval for institutions and practices notable for the exercise of authority;

Preference for regulation versus libertarianism.

The three stated aspects of authority are formulated by Ray.

They are explored in „Attitude to Authority Scale“ (Ray, 1971). The scale contains three sub scales:

Sub-Set 1: View of leader: executive vs. decision maker

Sub-Set 2: Evaluation of authoritarian institutions and other examples of the exercise of authority.

Sub-Set 3: Freedom vs. regulation

The research involved 200 teachers from different stages and levels of the education system. The results are a prerequisite for making solutions about forming, transforming, and managing teachers own authority as part of their professional status.

Keywords: Teacher, Attitude to Authority, Leader.

INTRODUCTION

Authority (from Latin – dignity, power, force, influence) is a complex concept that refers to the position of the person in a social system. In terms of social and human sciences, authority is a special type of social attitude that is based on a particular position (Piryov, 1975). According to the humanistic approach in a social system the authority legitimizes the right to power but does not identify with it. It is not a form of control but its basis, which is expressed as a right to exercise power (Ivanov, 1995).

In the scientific literature, authority is also named „social prestige and is the criterion for leadership effectiveness. It manifests in two basic forms: formal and psychological authority. Formal authority is provided by the authority of the professional position. It forms around 65% impact on subordinates. Moral authority depends mainly on the moral qualities of the leader, and functional is determined by the professional competence business qualities and attitude to work of the leader, Moral and functional authority account for 45% of total authority of the person (Kriviradeva, 2018).

A field of serious interest for studying are the attitudes of different groups of subjects towards institutional authority. This topic is covered in the research of Ray & Lovejoy (1990) and Rigby & Rump (1981). They prove empirically that attitudes toward institutional authority are based on a number of factors without clear relationship between each other. For example, the attitude towards one's parents has nothing to do with the attitude of an adult individual toward the institutional authority.

The researchers report that too little attention is paid to attitudes towards education, more specifically to teachers. Rigby at all (1984, 1987), Dornbusch & Scott (1975), Dunbar & Taylor (1982), Gumbert at all (1981) modestly address this problem. However, according to Ray and Lovejoy (1990), education is of a great importance in examining the problem of institutional authority because “Education is one of the most legitimate sources of authority in contemporary society”.

METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS AND RESULTS

Methodological Aspects

The present study is based on the assumption that in order to effectively exercise their authority, teachers should have adequate attitudes toward authority in general. In addition, the research is an attempt to validate an adequate methodology for establishing attitudes towards the authority of Bulgarian teachers.

From this point of view, the study presents teachers' attitudes towards authority as a basic form of social prestige in three aspects:

- View of the leader as a guide and director rather than an executive of democratic decisions.
- Approval for institutions and practices notable for the exercise of authority.

- Preference of regulation versus libertarianism.

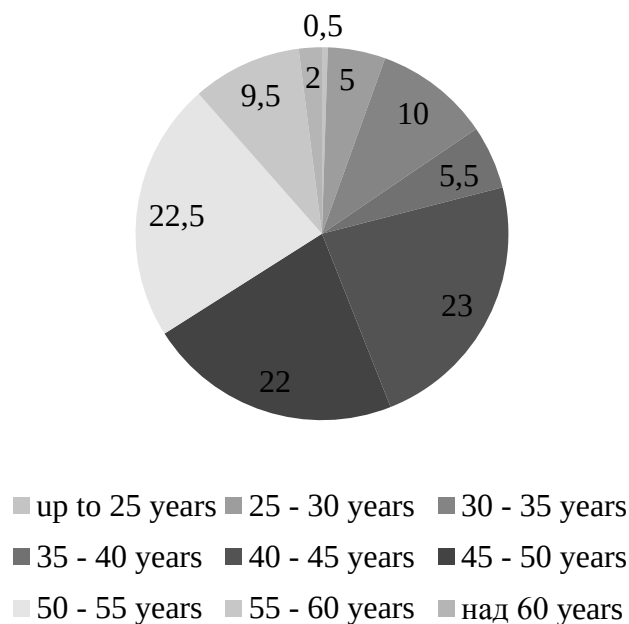
Research method is an adapted version of „Attitude to Authority Scale“ (Ray, 1971). The scale contains three sub scales:

- Sub-Set 1: View of leader: executive vs. decision maker. This subscale contains 8 items.
- Sub-Set 2: Evaluation of authoritarian institutions and other examples of the exercise of authority. Second subscale contains 11 items.
- Sub-Set 3: Freedom vs. Regulation. The subscale contains 9 items.

The sum of all items in the scale totals 28. All items are scored from 5 to 1, as 5 (Strongly agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Not sure), 2 (Disagree), 1 (Strongly disagree).

Research involve 200 teachers from different stages and levels of Bulgarian educational system. Figure 1 shows the percentage of respondents by age.

Figure 1: Respondents age



The main percentage of respondents (67,5%) are between 40 and 55 years of age. 11,5% are over 55 years old. Young teachers up to the age of 30 account only 5.5% of the sample. This means that the research mainly reflects the attitudes of teachers above and beyond middle age. The research involved 11,73% male and 88,78% female respondents. This leads to the conclusion that the study will present primarily the attitudes of women teachers.

Results

Internal consistency of items is evaluated by the Cronbach Alpha Consistency Assessment procedure (Cronbach, 1988). Alpha values are interpreted in accordance with the data shown in the table below:

Table 1: Quality assessment of The Scale

Alpha Cronbach's Values	Good quality level
0,9 – 1,0	Excellent
0,8 – 0,9	Very good
0,7 – 0,8	Good for practical purposes
0,6 – 0,7	Modest
0,6 and down	Miserable

The total reliability (alpha) of the used scale is good – 0.65. However the individual scales are characterized by a miserable internal consistency of the items. The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) for the individual scales varies from 0.3 to 0.55 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Cronbach's Alpha of Sub-scales

Sub-test	Cronbach's Alpha	Nº of items
View of Leader: executive vs. decision maker	0.470	8
Evaluation of authoritarian institutions and other examples of exercising authority	0.552	11
Freedom vs. Regulation	0.297	9

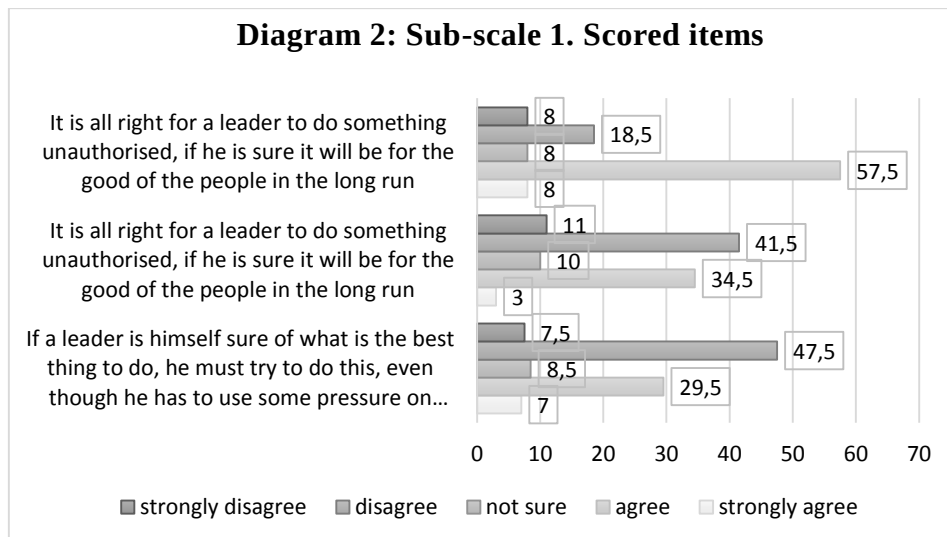
This means that the respondents ranked the statements pretty divergently and ambiguously. This can be due both to their own unstable perceptions of authority in its various aspects as well as to general misunderstanding of the claims in the adapted scale.

The standard deviation of all items is also high, with highest value belonging to the statement: „It is most important to have the participation of everybody in making decisions, regardless of their knowledge of the issues involved“, which is part of the Sub-scale 1 “View of leader: executive vs. decision maker”. In fact, references to statements from this sub-scale have the highest standard deviation values, which means that respondents' views on the leader's position as executive or decision maker are different and unable to summarize their attitudes for this aspect of authority (Table 3).

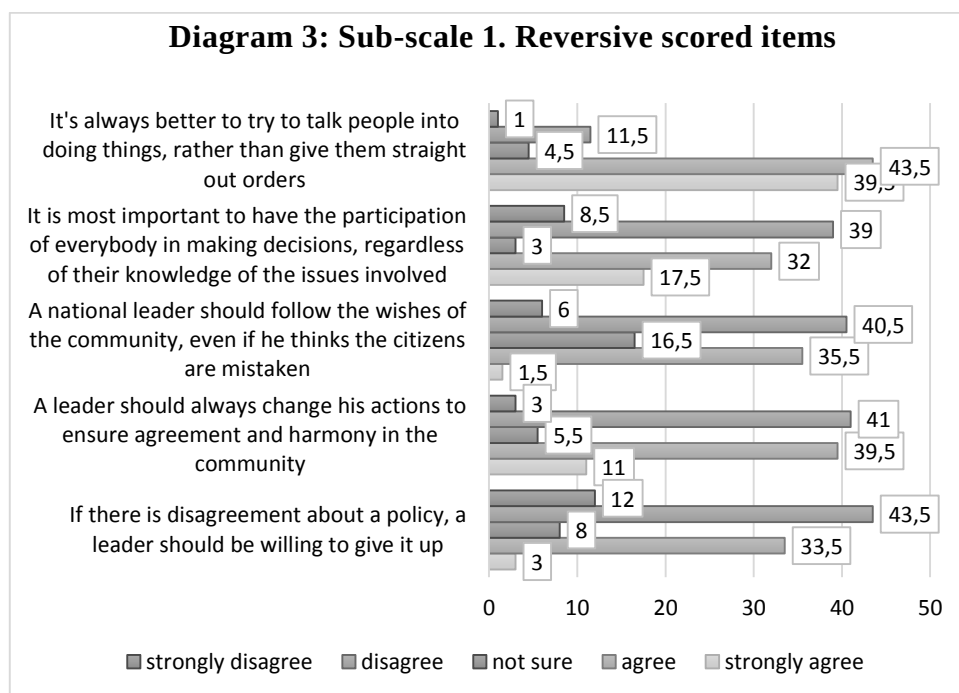
The percentage distribution of positive statements from sub-test 1 is presented in diagram 2. A significant share of respondents distributed their opinion between agree and disagree for all 3 statements. Regarding the first statement, 57.5% of respondents expressed attitudes towards leadership based on decision-making, but for the other two statements the tendency was rejection of this position (by 41,5%).

Table 3: Means and Standart Deviation of Scale Items

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
If there is disagreement about a policy, a leader should be willing to give it up	2.72	1.139
A leader should always change his actions to ensure agreement and harmony in the community	3.15	1.165
It is important for a leader to get things done even if he must displease people by doing them	2.81	1.145
A national leader should follow the wishes of the community, even if he thinks the citizens are mistaken	2.86	1.017
If a leader is himself sure of what is the best thing to do, he must try to do this, even though he has to use some pressure on the people	2.77	1.131
It is all right for a leader to do something unauthorised, if he is sure it will be for the good of the people in the long run	3.39	1.122
It is most important to have everybody's participation in decision making, regardless of their knowledge of the issues involved	3.12	1.324
It's always better to try to talk people into doing things, rather than give them straight out orders	4.09	0.993
There's generally a good reason for every rule and regulation in public service departments	3.57	0.990
In the Army, soldiers should not obey an order if it is obviously morally wrong	3.26	1.207
If the Army allowed more room for individuality it might be a better institution	3.14	1.098
There is something wrong with anybody who likes to wear military uniform	2.13	1.067
When the dictator Mussolini made Italy's trains run on time, that at least was an important thing to achieve	4.06	0.748
Two years in the Army would do everyone the world of good	3.57	1.274
The Army is very good for straightening men out and smartening them up	3.26	1.270
Civilians could learn a lot from the Army	3.14	0.966
I disagree with what the Army stands for	2.13	0.912
You can be sure that Army procedures will be good, because they have been tried and tested	4.06	0.886
Schoolchildren should have plenty of discipline	3.01	0.997
People should be guided more by their feelings and less by the rules	2.01	0.814
People should be made to be punctual	4.14	0.837
Efficiency and speed are not as important as letting everyone have their say in making decisions	3.35	1.155
There is far too much regimentation of people nowadays	3.08	1.140
You know where you're going when you have an order to obey	2.94	1.089
People should not be expected to conform as much as they are today	3.02	0.954
People who say we don't have enough freedom here in Bulgaria don't know what they're talking about.	3.36	0.988
I don't mind if other people decide what I am to do, or advise me how to do it.	1.99	0.980
It would be much better if we could do without politics altogether	2.78	1.085

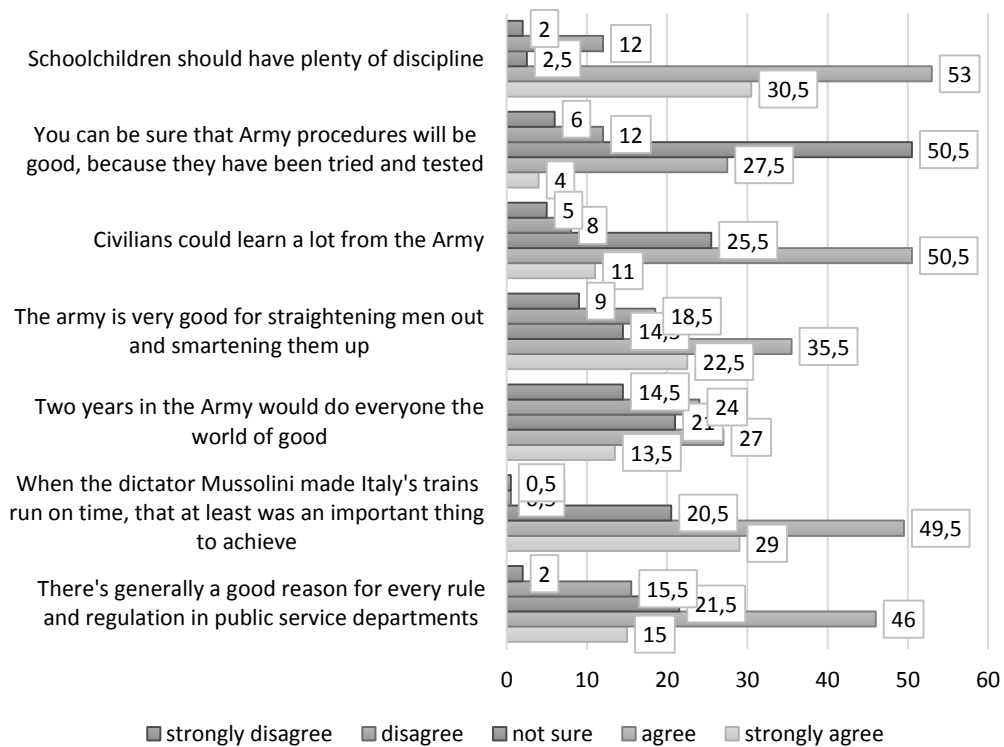
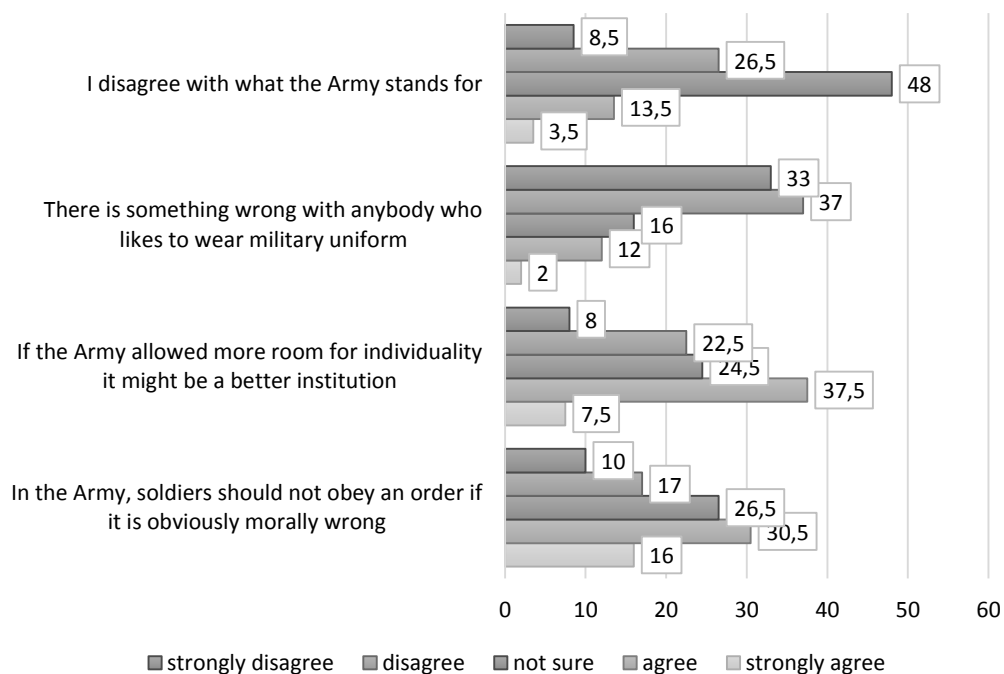


The distribution of negative statements outlines a similar trend. With the exception of Item 1, where the respondents clearly showed attitudes toward decision-making leadership, the other references waver again between positions of agree and disagree (Diagram 3).



The analysis of sub-scale 1 results justifies the claim that there is no clear tendency of teachers' attitudes towards one of the two leadership positions - executive vs. decision maker.

In regard to the positive claims of subscale 2, it can be agreed that the majority of respondents (about 50%) expressed positive attitudes towards the authority of institutions exercising power (Diagram 4).

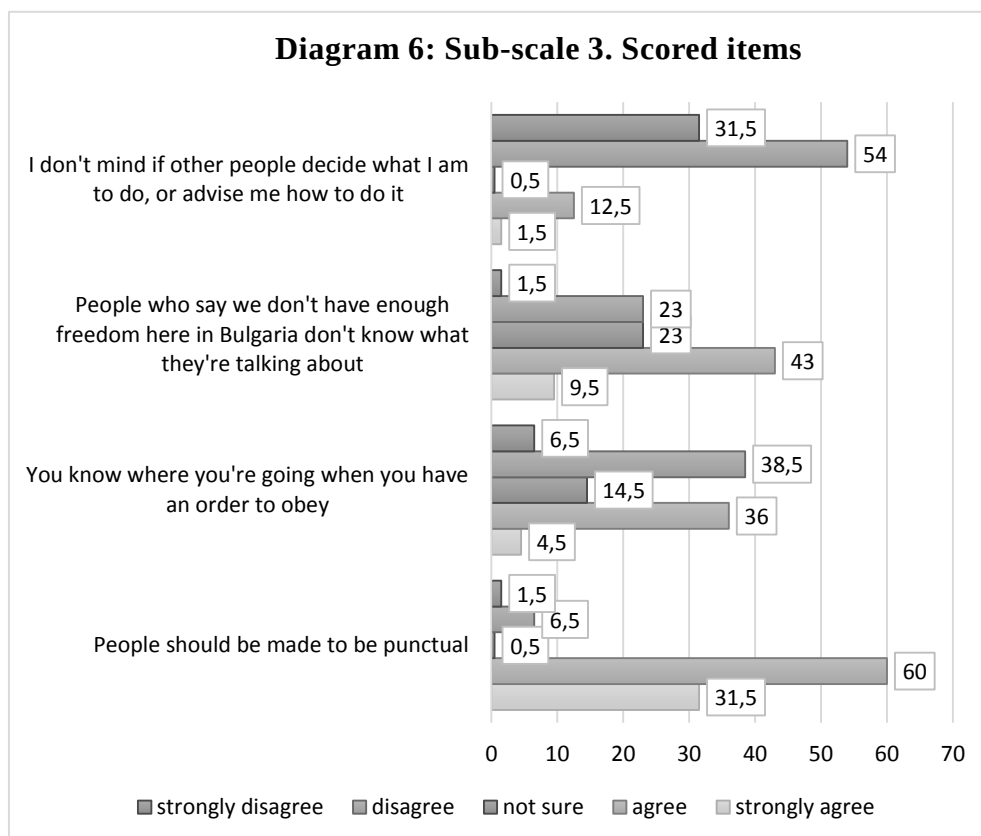
Diagram 4: Sub-scale 2. Scored items**Diagram 5: Sub-scale 2. Reversible scored items**

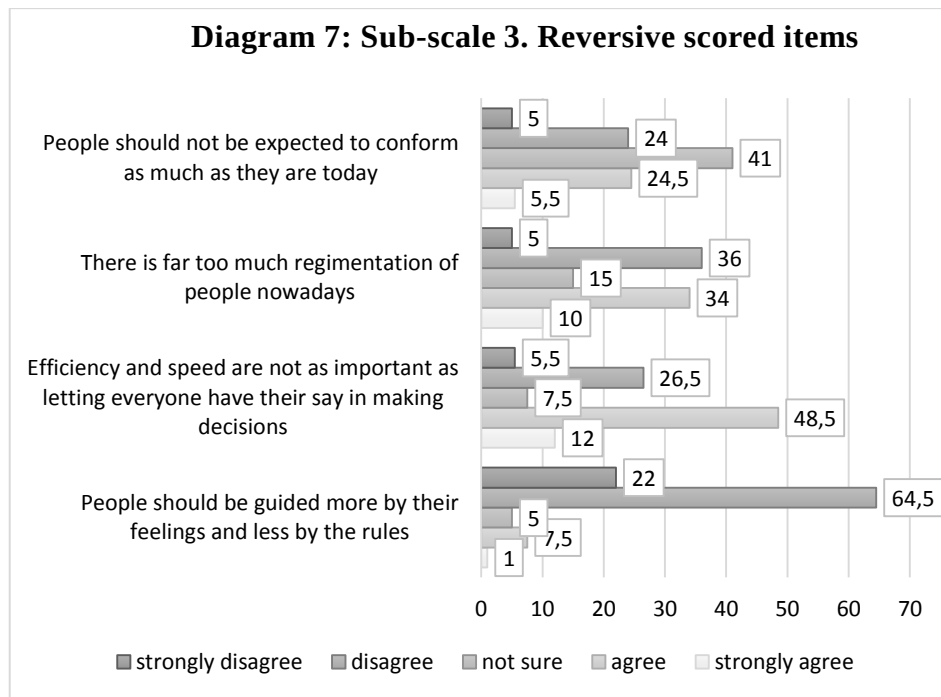
For two of the items: *If the Army allowed more room for individuality it might be a better institution* and *In the Army, soldiers should not obey an order if it was obviously morally wrong*, most respondents showed attitudes of rejection towards the authority of power

exercising institutions. Regarding the negative statements, no clear trends can be determined because opinions vary through the entire scale (Diagram 5).

The results of the Freedom vs. Rules subscale show that attitudes toward freedom are typical for respondents, but they are not definitive. More precisely, respondents act from the perspective of free will in certain situations and in others they prefer to obey and follow certain regulations. The typical attitudes in this subtest are the following items:

- *I don't mind if other people decide what I am to do, or advise me how to do it*, according to which 54% have indicated disagree, i.e. there is a stated attitude towards freedom (Diagram 6);
- *People should be made to be punctual* – 60% have indicated agree i.e. there is a stated attitude towards rules (Diagram 6);
- *People should be guided more by their feelings and less by the rules* – 64,5 disagree, which is also a solid orientation for following rules and instructions (Diagram 7).





CONCLUDING REMARKS

Previous studies have shown that teachers understand the authority as a typical and traditional professional teacher's role. They internalize it in terms of the status of educator, manager and consultant. Most teachers have the attitude of being authorities, although they play this role with many compromises, considering that society does not respect their authority, and the state does not take sufficient care to preserve the authority of the teacher.

This study confirmed that:

- Teachers' attitudes to authority are unstable;
- Teachers vary between executive and decision maker leadership style, freedom and regulations in every day situations;
- For teachers is difficult to accept the authority of institutions that exercise power;
- Teachers keep on freedom but require discipline and submission.

The statistical analysis of the obtained data clearly shows that the used research method needs a qualitative and quantitative revision in order to achieve the necessary level of reliability and validity of results.

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Knowledge Economy Readiness Index: Evidences from Turkey and European Union Countries

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ABSTRACT

Achieving economic growth and development in Turkey as developing country depends on transition towards the knowledge economy its. Thus, it is important to determine the current status of Turkey and analyse comparatively with the knowledge economies. The aim of the study is to measure the relative performance of the Turkey in transition towards knowledge economy by using knowledge economy related indicators. Additionally, it is aimed to analyse its performance compare with European Union countries. For this, differently from the literature, it was used the methodology of World Economic Forum (WEF). The index results show that countries created the new index called knowledge economy readiness index are ranked according to their development levels. Turkey's knowledge economy performance also is quite low compared with EU countries.

Keywords: Knowledge Economy, Readiness Index, Turkey, European Union.

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge, which is the main determinant of economic growth and productivity increase, is a production factor that provides sustainable competitive advantage for both firms and countries. With technological developments and globalization, the increase in the intensity of information in economic activities has led to the formation of a new society called information society or information economy. The final economic development stage of advanced economies is defined by different ways such as post-industrial society, new economy, digital economy, information society and information economy (Cader, 2008; Atik & Tombak, 2012: 138). The knowledge economy has very different characteristics from the traditional economy. These fundamental differences as follows (Hadad, 2017): *i*) the knowledge economy refers to abundance rather than scarcity which is fundamental problem of the traditional economy. *ii*) There is no longer a problem of location because of virtual and globalization. *iii*) There are difficulties in implementing national regulations. *iv*) the price of goods and services with low knowledge intensity is lower than that of goods and services with high knowledge intensity. *v*) Price and value may vary according to time and people.

In order to define an economy as an information economy, the share of information-intensive activities in the economy, that is, the production and employment share of the information sector is taken into consideration. In other words, the share of the this sector in GDP and total employment is higher than the share of other sectors. However, these two indicators alone are not sufficient to measure the knowledge economy. Therefore, in addition to the different indicators used by researchers in the literature, comprehensive indexes published by international institutions and organizations (such as the Knowledge Economy Index developed by the World Bank and the European Union Innovation Report) are used to measure the knowledge economy.

Knowledge economy refers to economies that be able to produce, use and market information especially in global markets. The developed economies are characterized by dissemination and generation of technology-based information. From this point, knowledge economy is an economy which goods and services are produced based on knowledge-intensive activities (Powell & Snellman, 2004: 199-201). In other words, it is the economic structure in which economic activities are realized on the basis of knowledge. These economies, which are capable of producing and selling information-intensive and technology-intensive goods demanded by global markets, dominate the global competition by achieving competitive advantage. This leads to increases in income and welfare in these countries. Achieving economic growth and development in Turkey as developing country depends on transition towards the knowledge economy its. Thus, it is important to determine the current status of Turkey and analyse comparatively with the knowledge economies.

The aim of the paper is to measure the relative performance of the Turkey in transition towards knowledge economy by using knowledge economy related indicators. Additionally, it is aimed to analyse its performance compare with European Union countries. The data used in the analysis was obtained from World Bank, UNDP and Heritage Foundation databases. In the analysis, differently from the literature, it was created the new index called knowledge economy

readiness index by using the methodology of World Economic Forum (WEF). This index results showed where Turkey and the European countries are towards knowledge economy.

The paper will divide into three sections. After introduction section, section 2 will include literature review and next section will explain data and methodology used in the analysis and the empirical findings obtained from the analysis. Last section also will explain concluding remarks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many studies in the literature on knowledge economics. In most of these studies, the relationship between information economy indicators and economic growth and/or other macroeconomic indicators has been investigated using econometric methods. In the remaining studies, the knowledge economy has been examined with different dimensions on the basis of country and country group or groups. In these studies, statistical or qualitative methods have been used predominantly. So, this study is distinguished from other studies in the literature because it aims to reveal the relative performance of the economy of Turkey and EU countries through the new index called knowledge economy readiness index. Some of the studies related to knowledge economy in the literature are as follows:

Caraveli et al. (2008) determined the knowledge economy indicators contributing economic growth for 1991-1999 period. Additionally, they test for convergence in 205 European Union regions using a neoclassical growth framework. The results indicated that there was a limited degree of convergence between regions and knowledge indicators have positive impact on growth.

Wang (2009) investigated whether economic inequality deteriorated during Taiwan's transformation into the knowledge economy for 1980-2003 period. He emphasized that wage inequality, unemployment, and the white-collar-blue-collar worker employment ratio have all sharply increased in the country since 1980. Also, these changes seem closely related to the relative growth of the information economy.

Sundac & Krmpotic (2011) aimed to identify the various knowledge economy factors that have an impact on the achieved economic growth of national economies using multivariate statistical analysis. To achieve this aim, they classified the countries according to their GDP per capita: lower, middle and high income countries. The results obtained from analysis point out that the knowledge economy factors affecting the economic development of the countries differ according to income groups. For example, while innovation is most important factor in high-income countries, education is vital in low-income countries.

Farhadi et al. (2012) investigated the impact of information and communication technology (ICT) use on economic growth in 159 countries for 2000-2009 period. In the analysis was used panel GMM method. They reached results as follows: i) there is a positive relationship between growth rate of real GDP per capita and ICT use index and ii) the impact of ICT use on economic growth is higher in high income group rather than other groups.

Fucec & Corina (2014) determined the knowledge economy performance of the European Union countries with Switzerland, Norway and Iceland using statistical methods (principal components analysis and cluster analysis). The findings illustrated the countries were classified under three groups according to their knowledge economy performance. In other words, the countries have different performance levels in terms of the knowledge economy performance, so they have the different development levels it.

Özkan & Alancioğlu (2017) examined Turkey and G-20 countries in terms of knowledge economy performance indicators, comparatively. Also they employed Granger causality test using the variables of economic growth, unemployment, R&D expenditure (% of GDP) and patent for 1990-2016 period. Empirical results showed as follows i) there is bidirectional relationship between patent and R&D expenditure (% of GDP) and ii) there is unidirectional relationship between unemployment and patent and the direction of this relationship is from unemployment to patent.

Dima et al. (2018) investigated the relationship between knowledge economy and global competitiveness in European Union for 2006-2015 period. They performed panel regression analysis using R&D expenditure (% of GDP), percentage of population with tertiary education, lifelong learning, GDP per capita and debt to equity and Global Competitiveness Index as variable. The results showed that the most important determinants of competitiveness are related to the knowledge economy, especially innovation and education.

Gelgeç & Hatırlı (2018) investigated the relationship between knowledge economy and economic growth in Turkey for period 1990-2013 by using ARDL method. They used GDP, total R&D personnel in the higher education, the number of student in the in the higher education and high-technology exports as variables in the empirical analysis. The results indicated that knowledge economy has positive effect on economic growth in the short run.

Yücel (2018) examined the impact of the knowledge economy on foreign trade in developing countries using panel ARDL method for period 1990-2012. While the export and import of good and services were used as dependent variables in the analysis; per capita GDP, exchange rate, R&D expenditure as percent GDP, number of patents and scientific publications were independent variables. The findings obtained from the analysis showed that information factor decreases the external dependence and increases the competitiveness in the long run.

Odabaşı & Erdal (2018) aimed to investigate the relationship between knowledge economy and economic growth through selected indicators (the share of ICT export, internet access, the number of researchers, the population in the tertiary etc.) for OECD countries, including Turkey. They claimed that Turkey should focus on R&D investments and increase these investments if Turkey aims to transformation to the knowledge economy. Additionally, they noted that countries which invest in areas such as R D and technology have achieved higher growth rates.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

In this study, the indicators obtained from databases of the World Bank, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and the Heritage Foundation were used in order to determine the relative performance of Turkey in terms of knowledge economy. These indicators were determined according to the studies that measure the knowledge economy in the literature and the availability of the data for the countries included in the analysis. This analysis was carried out for a total of 29 countries, including 28 EU countries and Turkey. The indicators used in this analysis can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: The Indicators Used in the Analysis

Codes	Indicators	Database	Year
(a)	Economic Freedom Index	Heritage Foundation	2018
(b)	Human Development Index	UNDP	2017
(c)	The number of scientific and technical journal articles	World Bank	2016
(d)	The number of patent applications	World Bank	2016
(e)	School enrollment, tertiary (% Gross)	World Bank	2016
(f)	Fixed broadband subscriptions (per 100 people)	World Bank	2017
(g)	ICT goods exports (% of total goods exports)	World Bank	2017
(h)	ICT service exports (% of service exports)	World Bank	2017
(i)	High-technology exports (% of manufactured exports)	World Bank	2016
(j)	Individuals using the internet (% of population)	World Bank	2016
(k)	Research and development expenditure (% of GDP)	World Bank	2015
(l)	Employment in services (% of total employment)	World Bank	2017
(m)	Employment in services, female (% of female employment)	World Bank	2017
(n)	Services value added of GDP	World Bank	2017
(p)	Labor force, female (% of total labor force)	World Bank	2017
(r)	Researchers in R&D (per million people)	World Bank	2015

To measure the relative performance of the Turkey in transition towards knowledge economy by using knowledge economy related indicators, we created the new index called *Knowledge Economy Readiness Index* by using the methodology of World Economic Forum (WEF). It uses generate new indicators based on the calculation of secondary indicators. The formula as follows (WEF, 2013):

$$[(\text{Country value} - \text{sample minimum}) / (\text{sample maximum} - \text{sample minimum})] \quad (1)$$

We calculated the Knowledge Economy Readiness Index by using the above formula and 16 indicators. This index consists of 16 indicators (Table 1). Firstly, we calculated secondary indicators using the formula (1) for each indicator, in this way it was created the values that lie between 0 and 1 for all indicators. According to this, if the country has a value

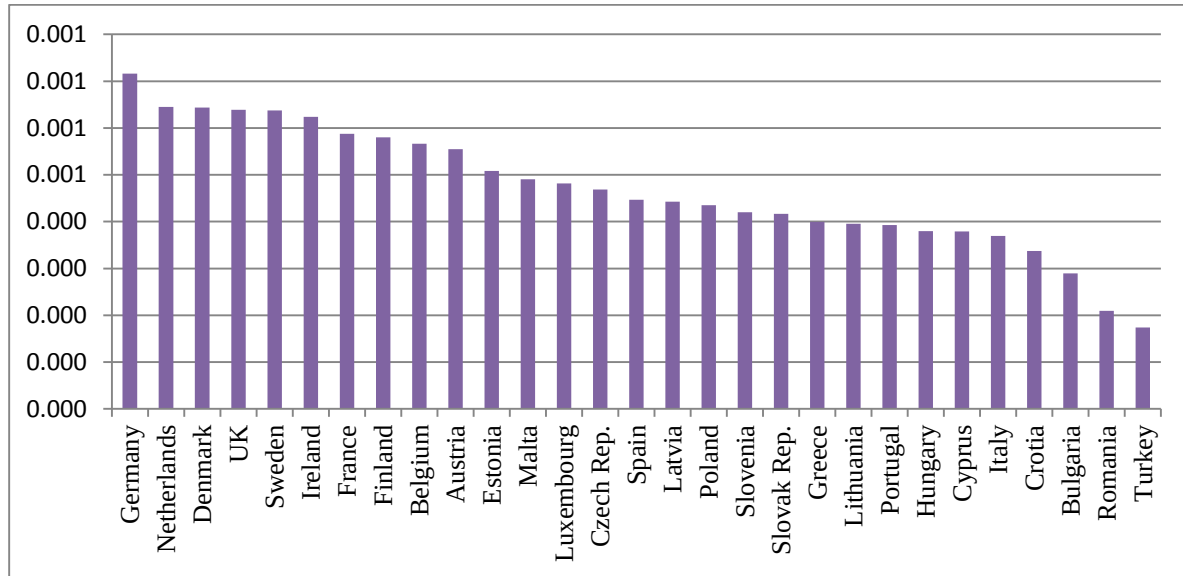
close to 0, it has lowest performance. If the country has a value close to 1, it has best performance. Table 2 shows that secondary indicators created by using formula (1) for each indicators and country.

Table 2: Components of Knowledge Economy Readiness Index for Turkey and EU-28

Countries	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)	(i)	(j)	(k)	(l)	(m)	(n)	(p)	(r)
Austria	0,63	0,79	0,12	0,04	0,65	0,65	0,31	0,46	0,57	0,65	0,93	0,57	0,73	0,79	0,62	0,37
Belgium	0,44	0,85	0,16	0,02	0,56	0,87	0,04	0,70	0,39	0,71	0,71	0,75	0,90	0,75	0,60	0,60
Bulgaria	0,48	0,15	0,02	0,00	0,53	0,57	0,10	0,32	0,22	0,04	0,18	0,42	0,49	0,77	0,17	0,18
Croatia	0,16	0,27	0,04	0,00	0,49	0,60	0,09	0,17	0,35	0,36	0,14	0,45	0,62	0,77	0,09	0,79
Cyprus	0,45	0,53	0,01	0,00	0,41	0,79	0,41	0,26	0,19	0,44	0,00	0,80	0,93	0,78	0,02	0,03
Czechia	0,73	0,66	0,15	0,02	0,46	0,66	0,75	0,48	0,44	0,46	0,53	0,29	0,48	0,66	0,41	0,33
Denmark	0,84	0,94	0,13	0,03	0,63	0,99	0,16	0,24	0,50	0,97	0,91	0,78	0,86	0,83	1,00	0,49
Estonia	0,93	0,54	0,01	0,00	0,54	0,70	0,74	0,42	0,31	0,73	0,37	0,47	0,64	0,89	0,35	0,51
Finland	0,73	0,87	0,10	0,03	0,69	0,71	0,09	0,67	0,24	0,74	0,87	0,66	0,85	0,86	0,90	0,27
France	0,29	0,75	0,67	0,29	0,47	1,00	0,17	0,55	0,91	0,53	0,63	0,74	0,86	0,80	0,50	0,26
Germany	0,73	0,98	1,00	1,00	0,48	0,92	0,22	0,59	0,55	0,79	0,86	0,60	0,76	0,77	0,54	0,66
Greece	0,00	0,54	0,10	0,01	1,00	0,77	0,14	0,12	0,35	0,27	0,18	0,63	0,64	0,64	0,35	0,65
Hungary	0,41	0,32	0,06	0,01	0,29	0,00	0,66	0,42	0,44	0,53	0,33	0,43	0,58	0,74	0,25	0,61
Ireland	1,00	1,00	0,06	0,00	0,65	0,69	0,51	1,00	1,00	0,67	0,38	0,70	0,88	0,69	0,56	0,17
Italy	0,23	0,60	0,67	0,18	0,44	0,67	0,03	0,44	0,20	0,07	0,31	0,56	0,74	0,53	0,17	0,06
Latvia	0,71	0,38	0,01	0,00	0,50	0,72	0,60	0,36	0,39	0,54	0,06	0,52	0,68	0,97	0,14	0,51
Lithuanian	0,78	0,46	0,02	0,00	0,47	0,61	0,17	0,19	0,36	0,40	0,21	0,49	0,60	1,00	0,29	0,27
Luxembourg	0,83	0,77	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,63	0,08	0,30	0,21	1,00	0,30	1,00	1,00	0,70	0,63	0,27
Malta	0,48	0,59	0,00	0,00	0,30	0,83	0,78	0,33	0,72	0,48	0,11	0,80	0,90	0,36	0,16	1,00
Netherlands	0,82	0,95	0,29	0,05	0,62	0,96	0,66	0,50	0,58	0,81	0,55	0,85	0,94	0,76	0,55	0,43
Poland	0,48	0,50	0,32	0,09	0,48	0,97	0,38	0,47	0,24	0,38	0,20	0,26	0,47	0,70	0,19	0,84
Portugal	0,26	0,38	0,13	0,01	0,44	0,79	0,13	0,26	0,12	0,30	0,29	0,52	0,62	0,90	0,44	0,67
Romania	0,52	0,14	0,10	0,02	0,29	0,55	0,13	0,57	0,24	0,03	0,01	0,00	0,05	0,59	0,00	0,11
Slovak Rep.	0,35	0,44	0,05	0,00	0,34	0,59	1,00	0,46	0,29	0,56	0,26	0,33	0,56	0,72	0,27	0,46
Slovenia	0,32	0,71	0,03	0,46	0,62	0,66	0,05	0,34	0,20	0,43	0,63	0,37	0,56	0,78	0,44	0,11
Spain	0,34	0,68	0,51	0,06	0,73	0,71	0,00	0,37	0,18	0,56	0,27	0,73	0,87	0,77	0,27	0,10
Sweden	0,82	0,96	0,19	0,04	0,44	0,86	0,36	0,65	0,45	0,79	1,00	0,82	0,93	0,84	0,93	0,12
Turkey	0,35	0,00	0,33	0,13	0,77	0,33	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,21	0,15	0,00	0,00	0,04	0,46
United Kingdom	0,90	0,89	0,95	0,29	0,38	0,90	0,21	0,55	0,73	0,92	0,44	0,83	0,93	0,78	0,54	0,00

In the next stage, we calculated the simple average of the secondary indicators and created Knowledge Economy Readiness Index for each country. Then, we sorted them from highest to lowest in order to display the performance of the countries (See Table 3 and Figure 1). So, it can be identified countries which have best and worst performing.

Figure 1: The Countries According to Knowledge Economy Readiness Index



As seen from Table 3, while Germany has the highest performance among the European countries, Romania has the lowest performance in terms of Knowledge Economy. Turkey also is 29 in the ranking of European countries. In other words, Turkey takes place on the last in knowledge economy performance. Netherlands (2), Denmark (3) and UK (4) have the highest score values and these countries are among the countries with economic development levels above the EU average. On the other hand, the countries performing below the Union's average were Croatia (26), Bulgaria (27) and Romania (28).

Table 3: The Performances of the Countries According to Knowledge Economy Readiness Index

Countries	Score	Rank	Countries	Score	Rank
Germany	0,716	1	Latvia	0,443	16
Netherlands	0,645	2	Poland	0,435	17
Denmark	0,644	3	Slovenia	0,420	18
United Kingdom	0,639	4	Slovak Rep.	0,417	19
Sweden	0,638	5	Greece	0,399	20
Ireland	0,624	6	Lithuanian	0,395	21
France	0,588	7	Portugal	0,393	22
Finland	0,580	8	Hungary	0,379	23
Belgium	0,566	9	Cyprus	0,379	24
Austria	0,555	10	Italy	0,369	25
Estonia	0,509	11	Croatia	0,337	26
Malta	0,490	12	Bulgaria	0,290	27
Luxembourg	0,482	13	Romania	0,210	28
Çekya	0,469	14	Türkiye	0,174	29

CONCLUSION

In this study, we created the new index called knowledge economy readiness index by following the methodology of World Economic Forum (WEF) in order to determine the current situation of Turkey in transition process towards to the knowledge economy. According to the index results, the countries with the highest index values are Germany (0.716), Netherlands (0.645) and Denmark (0.644), respectively. The countries with the lowest index values are Romania (0.210), Bulgaria (0.290) and Croatia (0.337). The value of index which Turkey has among the countries included in the analysis is 0,174 and it was ranked last.

The index results show that countries are ranked according to their development levels. In other words, the countries with high performance among the EU countries in terms of economic development have high values in terms of index value and they are placed near the top. Similarly, countries which joined the EU later and have relatively low levels of development are at the last in terms of the knowledge economy index.

Turkey's knowledge economy performance seems quite low when compared with developed countries. Therefore, Turkey should give priority to R&D activities in order to be included in the group of developed countries and to accelerate the transition process towards to the knowledge economy. In addition, all the economic policies should focus on the implementations that will enable the transition to knowledge and technology based production structure in all economic activities.

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Analysis of The Female Labor Force Participation Rate in Turkey

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ABSTRACT

In our globalizing world, economic development and sustainability are of great importance for countries. In this process, the value given to human resources is increasing. Women's employment plays a key role in bringing societies to the level they are targeting. However, the labor force participation rate of women is low even in developed countries. Therefore, various policies and strategies are being developed to increase the female labor force; economic and social development is expected to be provided. In this article female labor force employment rate in Turkey is examined. Data are taken from World Bank between 2008-2017. The ratio of elementary, middle, and higher educated women's employment, as well as part-time female labor force and the rates of women working in agriculture and industry were examined. Research findings are intended to contribute to the development of female employment in Turkey.

Keywords: Female Labor Force, Employment, Education.

INTRODUCTION

Women's participation in the labor market not only affects the concepts of work and family, but also creates social, social and economic impacts. The impact of women's employment is very important on the development of a country. This situation was not ignored in the researches and different approaches on how the women-development relationship should be established emerged.

Women are members of a society that are not at the forefront but have important impacts on their progress. The more efficient and productive the woman, the more developed society is. Participation of women in working life is of great importance in the process of social and economic development, in terms of the liberation of human and human labor. At the same time, women's work is necessary in order to increase their social status. Sustainable growth and development are among the main objectives of all countries. Achieving economic growth, using scarce resources effectively, technology, capital increase, and other similar purposes are important for all countries. Investing in human resources is essential to achieve these. Women are indispensable factors in economic development. Strengthening the position of women should be one of the key objectives of societies. Women's education and labor force participation are important factors that need to be emphasized. Education, which is a prerequisite of a modern society, is a key concept in adapting to the rapid change and development process in today's world. For this reason, the quality of education should be given to individuals of a society is of great importance in terms of including all segments of society.

Countries use different methods in order to maintain or increase the welfare level of the society. By rapidly increasing the amount of real production per capita, by examining the demographic structure of the society, they try to ensure development and consequently increase the welfare level. One of the most important features in ensuring development is to ensure that members of society participate in all stages of production without gender discrimination. Women's participation in social and economic life is not directly proportional with the way they benefit from that development. Although the status of women benefiting from social and economic development can be related to the level of development of countries, it is a known fact that they generally lag behind men in all societies (Kakıcı at.al. 2007: 21).

Today, in the world and Turkey it is a fact that female labor is mostly used in home. Regardless of the sector where women work, they continue to be responsible of housework duties. Women, under the common denominator of housewife duties in the countryside or in the city, inside or outside the home, working in agriculture, industry or services sectors continue to live with very different responsibilities (Korkmaz and Tüfekçi, 2007: 38). Women's employment in Turkey continues its presence as one of the main problem areas. When the problems that women face in receiving qualitative development, making a career and making progress in their career are observed, it is not right to evaluate them only in terms of marriage or examine them only in the family context. On the other hand, there are problems in the labor force that an unmarried woman who is trying to make a career may face in the context of starting a family. (Gurol, 2007: 148).

DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE LABOR IN THE WORLD AND IN TURKEY

Effective participation of women in the social and economic development process, increasing women's labor force participation and employment is an important factor in achieving individual and social sustainable development. In this context, increasing female employment means preventing female poverty, higher income entering the household and achieving better living standards (Ecevit, 2010:2).

Since the beginning of humanity, women have existed in various roles in working life. However, their entry into working life in the current sense coincides with the end of the 18th century (Yılmaz et al., 2008: 91). In the modern sense, women's status as wage workers and their entry into working life was realized with the Industrial Revolution (Korkmaz, 2014: 2). With the start of industrialization in England from the 1750s onwards, the women's workforce was employed 12 hours a day, especially in the textile industry, under low wages and poor working conditions. During this period, the proportion of women working in the manufacturing industry in the UK increased from 35% in 1841 to 45% in 1851. Another development in the same period was the fact that a significant portion of the female labor force (40%) started to work as cleaners in cities, as the manufacturing industry could not create sufficient employment opportunities for the female labor force which previously worked in the agricultural sector. The process of industrialization and change in women's employment, which began in the UK, later spread to other European countries, particularly France (Tilly and Scott, 1978: 64,68-69). For the first time in England, although very narrow in terms of concepts and content, laws regulating the working life of women workers have been passed and spread to other societies.

In World War I and II, women entered the working life with the recruitment of male labor force, and as a result of this, with the expanding industry, women's participation in economic and social life began to expand and new roles began to be imposed on women in the family and society (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 196). In developed countries such as the USA, the reasons for the high level of women entrepreneurs working on their behalf compared to developing countries are attractive factors such as the desire for independence and the desire to control decisions (Yetim, 2002: 82). When the contribution of women as a labor force to economic growth and development is accepted, it is a necessity to increase the position of women in the economy. Strengthening the economic position of women and their real contribution to development requires the elimination of gender inequalities (Simsek, 2008: 47).

Examining the development of labor force participation of women in Turkey, it is observed that the situation in developed countries is highly different than Turkey. The studies show that since the Ottoman Empire and early Republic period, women in Turkey are trying to gain a place in the business field, but this effort returns in poor labour conditions and lower wages. Contrary to popular belief, female labor was widely used during the Ottoman Empire, especially in the textile and manufacturing sectors; but not so different from today, women were employed at lower wages. In addition, the bad conditions and long working hours that apply to male labor in the period mentioned are also related to female labor (Makal, 2010: 24-26). Women entering the labor market in Turkey was not a result of developing labor market, but more of a necessity. In the Balkan War of 1915, World War I, Independence War and World

War II, the majority of the male labor force was recruited into the army, creating the necessity for women to participate in the labor market, however after the demobilization of the men, women returned to their more traditional roles (Berber and Eser, 2008: 3).

Women, who constitute the biggest part of the employment problem in our country, do not get the necessary share in the employment although they make up half of the population, and this leads to an increase in both idle labor force and dependency. Being idle labor, while shaking positive future expectations and self-confidence, increased dependency ratio also causes the economic burden and decrease the added value of those who are actually at work (Küçükcalay, 1998: 38). Since the World War II, women participation in the labor force have been constantly increasing around the world. The reason that it has been decreasing in Turkey since 1980's is the strong employment in agriculture and high amount of urban migration. Therefore, labor force participation rate has decreased and this great change has not been realized (Kılıç and Öztürk, 2014:108).

Even though the active participation of women in the labor force started in 1950's, women labor participation has remained an issue in Turkey, no matter how many times it has been stated in development plans or various policy documents. On the contrary to numerous foreign countries, female labor participation remained low in Turkey. Some of the general and societal reasons for this are: an economy based on agricultural production until the end of the 1950s, social value judgments, gender-based division of labor, migration from village to city, dissolution in agricultural structure, weakening of the traditional family structure, low employment volume of the economy, weak demand structure of women's labor, marriage, having children, inability to institutionalize elderly care and housework, lack of mechanisms to enable women to enter the labor market, low wages, low level of education of women, and family and work balance (Karabıyık, 2012: 235, 237, 241; Önder, 2013:35, 47-54).

The traditional attitudes have imposed restrictions on women starting to work outside the home life. Despite being one of the first countries to form the legal framework of women rights, Turkey has been unable to properly translate those rights into real life. The main reason for this is the negative traces of the social point of view of women's participation in economic and social life (Berber and Yılmaz-Eser, 2008: 3). Glick and Sahn (2005) conducted studies to estimate the inter-period behavior of female labor force in developing countries and found that the number of children, marital status, husband's employment status and non-wage income affected women's employment. Eyüpoğlu et al. (2000) point out that the discontinuity of women's participation in the labor market, especially in sectors where technology is rapidly developing and where there is discrimination within the profession, prevents women from updating their work experiences and cannot maintain their status in the jobs they leave when they make a decision to re-participate in working life. This often causes women to stop working.

According to Kızılgöl, while the number of children has no effect on the working preferences of married women, the age groups of the children do not meet the theoretical expectations. The increase in the number of working people and the number of dependents in the household increases the likelihood of women joining the labor force. On the other hand, as household income increases, the participation of both married and single women decreases. The

age of women is another important factor affecting the labor force participation behavior. The advancement of age increases the participation of single women in working life while removing married women from working life. Single women have a preference of not working if they own the property they live in. This variable did not give the desired result for married women. In their studies, Kutlar, Erdem and Aydın (2012) state that female labor participation have a significant impact on lifestyles. In particular, there is a parallelism between women's participation in the labor force and divorces. Regardless of whether these variables are the same or opposite, wage status and female labor force participation have a significant impact on women's social life.

In order to improve women's employment in the sectoral sense, working conditions in non-agricultural sectors should be made suitable for women. Particularly flexible work practices such as part-time work will be extremely important in attracting women to these sectors. Also, nurseries to be opened in the workplaces will eliminate the problem of childcare, which is one of the biggest problems for women to enter the business life and will positively affect women's employment (Berber and Eser, 2008:14). The following graphic shows the female labor force and the number of women working part-time labor force in Turkey. The figures are taken from World Bank 2008-2017 data.

Figure 1: Labor Force (World Bank 2019)

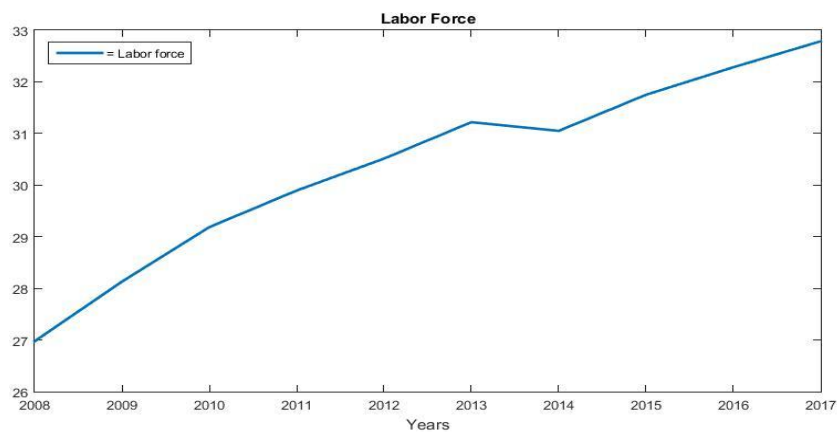
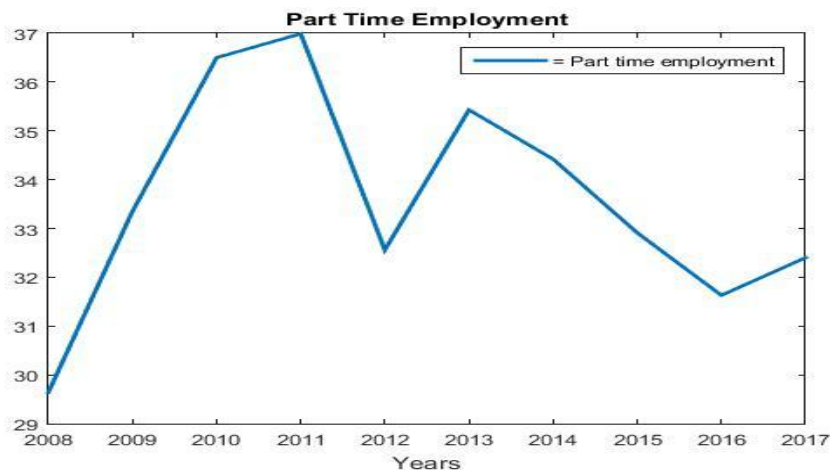


Figure 2: Part Time Employment (World Bank 2019)



Female workforce between the years 2008-2017, as shown in the graph showed an increase in Turkey. The rate, which was 27% in 2008, reached 32.5% in 2017. When the rate of women working in the industrial sector is analyzed, a fluctuating graph is seen. The rate decreased from 16% in 2008 to 15.5% in 2009; In 2010, it rose to 16% again. However, it has experienced a decrease since this year and decreased to 15% in 2012. After this year, it rose rapidly to 17.3%. As of 2014, a decline started again and in 2017, the ratio decreased to 15.7%.

FEMALE LABOR FORCE AND EDUCATION

When the development of female labor force participation over time is examined, the rate of women working in cities increases rapidly with the increase in the level of education of women. In agriculture, women's participation in production activities is mostly unpaid family labor. In the field of industry and services, the participation of women in the labor force is generally in the form of wage labor. In parallel with the increase in education, the increase in wages and other factors lead to a steady increase in participation rates in the industry-service field. (Yildirim and Doğrul, 2008:246).

The common decision of the family is important in the decision of women to participate in the labor force, as well as the customs, traditions, customs and traditions in the society where women are involved have an impact on this decision. However, the most important variable affecting the participation of women in the labor force is the level of education (Eyuboglu, 1999: 88). There is a parallel and strong link between education level and labor force participation. In other words, high level of education increases female employment in terms of quality and quantity (Çakır, 2008: 31). There are many social, economic and social factors that affect the participation of women in the labor force such as being married, being educated, having children, finding a job, coming from a patriarchal family structure. When examined in terms of regions or countries on a macro scale, education level is undoubtedly one of the most important factors affecting women's labor force participation rate. According to many studies, education has a positive effect on labor force participation rate (Mammen, and Paxson, 2000: 141-164.)

According to TURKSTAT 2008 Labor Force Statistics, it is seen that illiterate women are approximately seven times more than men, whereas under-high school educated men are 1.2 times more than women. These data reveal that Turkey's low education problem in the labor market is more of a "women problem" (Parlaktuna, 2010:1223). In Turkey, when evaluated in terms of married and unmarried women, the education situation in the labor force participation is seen as the most important factor. The higher the education level, the more likely it is for married and single women to participate in the labor force (Kızılgöl . 2012:91). Using regional data in Turkey, Er (2010) have examined the factors influencing women's labor force participation rates; found that education and fertility rates had a significant impact on female labor force participation. According to Kumaş and Çağlar (2011), labor force participation increases as education increases. Labor force participation rate of illiterate women is 15 percent, 21.8 percent for educated people below high school, and 33.7 percent for high school graduates is 70.5 percent for higher education graduates.

One factor for women's participation in the labor force is education. It is inevitable that the education and educated workforce will contribute positively to the economy. However, when we look at foreign countries, the importance given to the education of women is very low, especially in developing countries. The most important reason for the low participation rate of women in the labor force that is undoubtedly education in Turkey. The education rate of women is very low. This situation not only slows down the development of the country, but also continues to increase male dominance in society. This causes women to lose their self-confidence even further (Ağazade, 2014:149). A probit and logistic regression analysis of married and educated women in Pakistan in 1998-1999 found that women with higher education levels had higher labor force participation rates (Hafeez and Ahmad, 2002:79). The following charts, show the labor participation rate of elementary school, high school and university graduate women. The data is taken from the World Bank and covers the years 2008-2017. The ratio of female labor force who has graduated from primary education increased from 20% to 28.5%.

Figure 3: Labor Force With Basic Education (World Bank 2019)

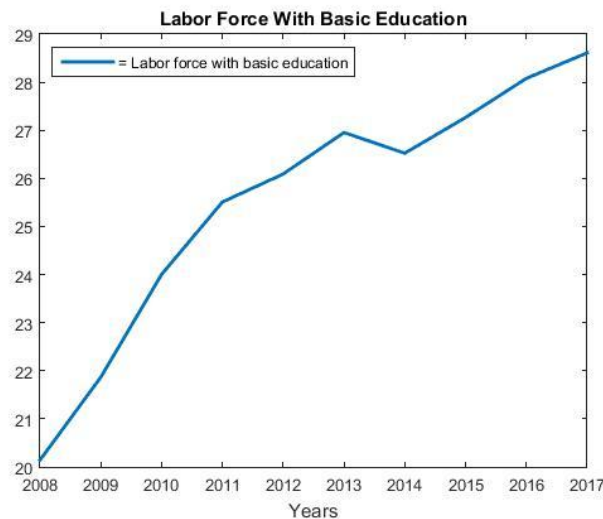
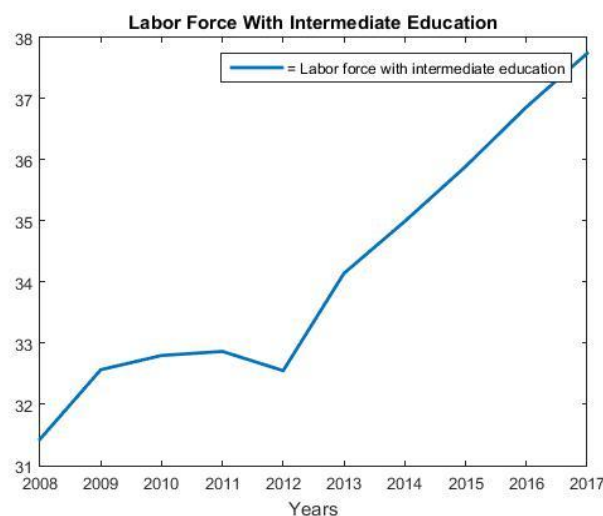
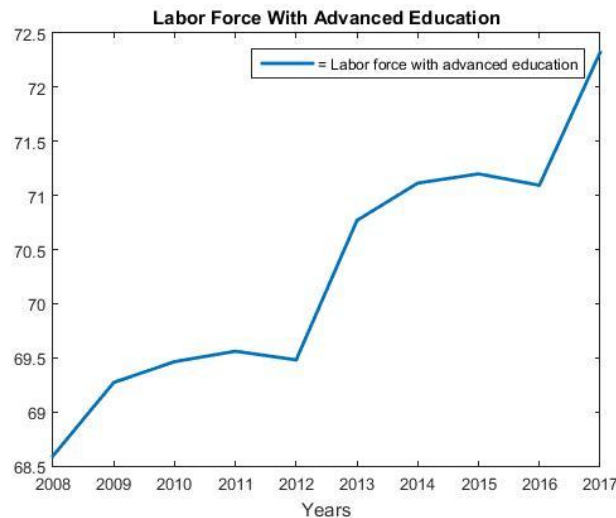


Figure 4: Labor Force With Intermediate Education (World Bank 2019)



Medium-educated women's workforce declined in 2011 from 31.5% in 2008, but from 2012 onwards it reached a rapid acceleration and reached 37.5%.

Figure 5: Labor Force With Advanced Education (World Bank 2019)



There was no increase in the highly educated female labor force, which was 68.5% in 2008, until 2012. However, there was a rapid increase in 2012-2013 period. Until 2016, the rate increased slightly and reached a great acceleration from this year until 2017 and reached 72.5%.

CONCLUDING REMARKS SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE LABOR FORCE

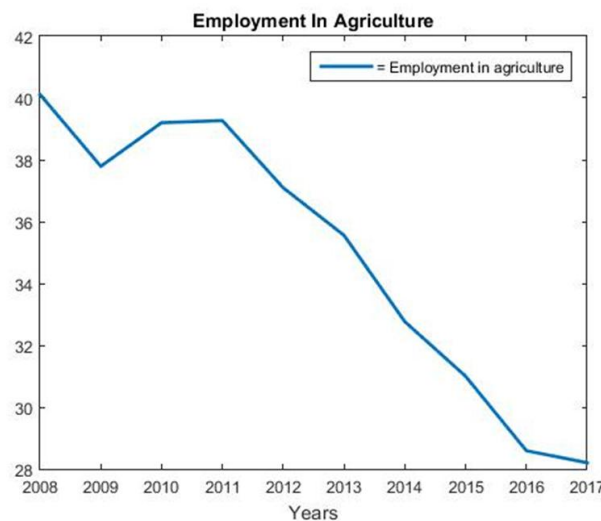
Since the 1950s, the sectoral transformation in developed countries' economies has not only increased the labor force participation of women, but also changed the composition of the labor force. In this period, the structure dominated by agriculture and industry in economies was replaced by the services sector, which positively affected female labor force participation. As of the 1990s, 71% of economically active women in Latin America, 40% in Asia and Pacific, 20% in Africa and 62% in other developed regions worked in the services sector (Tokol, 1999: 21).

When the sectoral distribution is analyzed, it is seen that agriculture sector (48.5%) is the sector where the female labor force is most employed in our country. The second sector after agriculture is the service sector (33%). Some of the business areas in this sector have been socially recognized as “suitable spaces for women”. Women in the service sector in our country, civil servants, bank officers, midwives, nurses, chamber, nurse, stewardess, secretary, teacher, box office officer, etc. such as low-paid, closed-to-rise, non-creative, extension of traditional roles are directed to and occupied in these professions. The sectors in which the women working in the public sector are most common are; The Ministry of Health is the Ministry of National Education. The third sector, the industrial sector, remains a sector where female labor force is quite limited. (Besler and Oruç, 2010:21).

The sectoral distribution of female labor force in developed economies shows a course indicated in development theories. While the female labor force employed in agriculture is low, the employment rate in the industrial and service sectors is high. This trend is an indicator of development and an expected result for developed countries. Similar results apply to male labor force in developed economies. In developing countries, unlike developed countries, the rate of women working in agriculture is high and the rate of women working in industry and service sector is low. In fact, this result is an indicator of the development problem in developing country groups. Although the sectoral distribution of male labor force in developing countries is similar to female labor force, the employment rate of men is higher than that of women. In addition, it is stated that especially the economic conditions of women in south and east Asia have improved significantly compared to the last 40 years and the economic activities of women in these countries have increased rapidly. Worldwide, women's workforce is mostly employed as wage workers. In developed economies, a significant proportion of women work as wage workers. However, in high income countries, the proportion of women working as employers is above the world average (Şimşek, 2008: 28).

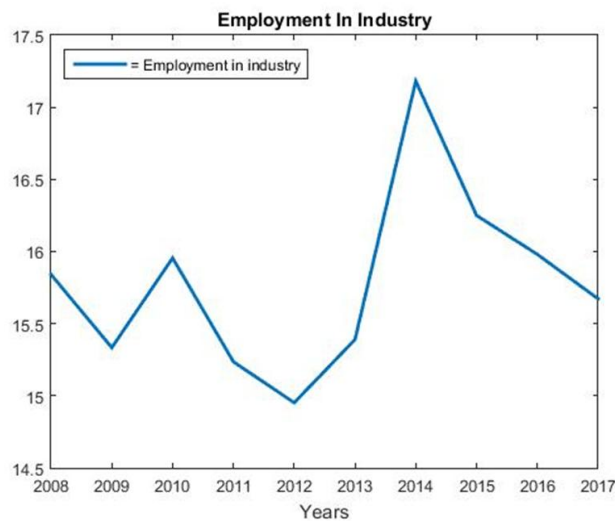
In the labor market of Turkey, “women concentrated among the first status group in agriculture sector, while they are among the second status group in industrial and service sectors”. The fact that business lines in the industrial sector are not sufficiently suitable for women to enter and stay in the sector due to legal and social reasons is reflected in the number of female employees in this sector. Although it is more advantageous for women in the service sector, it can be said that both sectors do not provide enough employment opportunities for women. This situation may lead women who cannot find a job in these sectors to “informal sector jobs where labor demand is the most irregular, labor is the most precarious, high level of exploitation, unorganized” (Ecevit, 1993: 17-18). Graphs, taken from the World Bank from years 2008-2017, reflect the female labor force in agriculture, industrial and service sectors.

Figure 6: Employment in Agriculture (World Bank 2019)



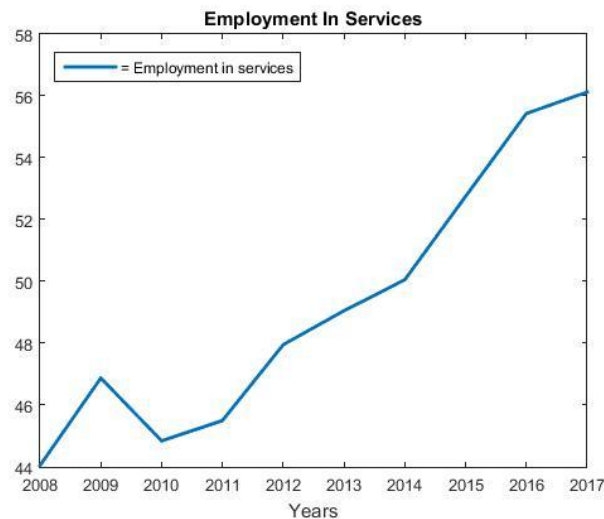
There was no increase in the highly educated female labor force, which was 68.5% in 2008, until 2012. However, there was a rapid increase in 2012-2013 period. Until 2016, the rate increased slightly and reached a great acceleration from this year until 2017 and reached 72.5%.

Figure 7: Employment in Industry (World Bank 2019)



When the rate of women working in the industrial sector is analyzed, a fluctuating graph is seen. The rate decreased from 16% in 2008 to 15.5% in 2009; In 2010, it rose to 16% again. However, it has experienced a decrease since this year and decreased to 15% in 2012. After this year, it rose rapidly to 17.3%. As of 2014, a decline started again and in 2017, the ratio decreased to 15.7%.

Figure 8: Employment in Service (World Bank 2019)



When the services sector is analyzed, it is seen that the ratio which was 44% in 2008 increased to 47% in 2009 and decreased to 46% in 2010. On the other hand, it is understood that an upward trend was initiated in 2011 and this situation continued rapidly in 2017, reaching up to 56%.

CONCLUSION

Women's labor force participation depends on many variables ranging from the supply-demand balance in the labor market, macro-scale policies, legal grounds, or from the

perspective of society's gender inequality, and even family structures, and all these variables form the position and position of women in the labor market. While all these variable mechanisms work, women face many obstacles in the labor market.

The increase in female labor force participation rate in history has generally been perceived as a positive process and continues to be perceived in this regard. Increases in the number of women who are self-sufficient and have economic freedom can naturally be regarded as positive developments. However, the increase in women's labor force participation rate has started to take place in the first stage in the historical process within the framework of low-wage, precarious, unqualified labor sectors (Standing, 1999: 585). Therefore, it can be said that the increasing domination of women in the labor market has a quantitative meaning even for the developed countries at the beginning. Today, although the status of women in the labor market in developed countries is better than in developing countries, it is not possible to claim that gender equality is fully achieved in the labor market worldwide. Studies on the participation of women in the labor force show that the perspective of women's employment in both our country and other countries is changing and women's participation in the labor force is supported. Increasing the capacity to create employment depends on economic stability and social policies (Sapancalı Faruk, 2008:29).

Education is the most important factor that determines the role of women in economic development and helps their full participation in employment. Alpaydın (2008) shows that there is an inverse relationship between education and poverty. As education increases, poverty rates decrease significantly. Education; increases the productivity of the labor force, increases family income, reduces poverty, improves health and nutrition, reduces fertility and thus contributes to the social and political development of a country. Female labor force participation in rural areas is intense, but most of them work as unpaid family workers. In urban areas, the number of women in the labor force is low and the tendency of women to participate in working life increases as education increases (Koray et al., 1999: 37; Kardam and Tokoksöz, 2004:151-172; Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005:199).

Other reasons for low labor force participation are; the fact that women with small children have to take care of them alone, that women spend 6 times as much as men in daily household and care, low levels of education, high population growth rate, a decrease in agricultural employment, and the annual rate of increase in employment that the newly created jobs are higher than the annual rate of increase in the year, the average length of education in our country is extended, early retirement, the existence of informal and informal economy, insufficient capital accumulation, the abandonment of job search by individuals who lost their hopes to find a job, the lack of market conditions, insufficiency, lack of participation in labor force due to low wages, deficiencies in legal regulations related to business life, migration from village to city, customs and traditions (Baş and Hip, 2002: 70; Filiztekin, 2009: 1).

In recent years, there has been an increase in the female labor force in Turkey. When we look at the reasons for this; especially the development and growth of the service sector has increased the number of employees in this field. The service sector consists of jobs covering health, banking, tourism and education. The research results of women in many developed and

developing countries show that women are concentrated in the occupations in traditional business areas in terms of intensive work. These areas of work are those that women are seen as cheap labor for the employer and that the job considered to be easy for women and generally related to the service sector.

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The Mediating Effect of Regulatory Focus on the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Leadership and Opportunity Recognition in High Technology Firms

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ABSTRACT

Although there is evidence that entrepreneurial leadership is related to opportunity exploitation, there is a lack of research examining its role at the early stages of opportunity recognition. The main purpose of this research was to integrate leadership and self-regulation by investigating whether entrepreneurial leaders' behavior affect their follower's regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus), which in return affect employees' entrepreneurial opportunity recognition, in this regard to examine the mediating effect of regulatory focus on the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. The authors used structural equation modeling (SEM) with a sample of **361** employees working in High-technology companies in Turkey to test their hypotheses. The model (*see figure of proposed model*) is tested using validated questionnaires whereby the participants were asked to evaluate entrepreneurial leadership practices of their business leaders, their regulatory focus and own opportunity recognition. The results showed that the effect of entrepreneurial leadership on entrepreneurial opportunity recognition was fully mediated by promotion focus. Contrary to promotion, prevention focus had an insignificant mediating effect. The authors discuss practical implications and directions for future research. The study extends extant cognitive theory of opportunity recognition.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Leadership, Regulatory Focus, and Opportunity Recognition.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous research findings have explored the significant impact of leadership style on employees' capacity to recognize opportunities as well as their innovative abilities, competitiveness and growth of different businesses (e.g., Chen, Li, & Leung, 2016; De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Koryak et al., 2015; Weng, Huang, Chen, & Chang, 2015). Scholars have also highlighted the impactful effect of leadership style on driving entrepreneurial opportunity in high-tech companies (Kodama, 2005; Lee & Venkataraman, 2006; Renko, El Tarabishy, Carsrud, & Brännback, 2015) and different stages of the opportunity recognition process (Renko et al., 2015; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002; Vaghely & Julien, 2010; Waldman & Bass, 1991). Specifically, Swiercz and Lydon (2002, p. 388) asserted that in high technology companies leaders must support their employees and encourage them in entrepreneurial process, as employee opportunity recognition, innovation and creativity are not generated automatically. However, despite the critical importance of exploring the leadership style and behavior that effectively encourages and improves opportunity recognition for the field of entrepreneurial opportunity and entrepreneurial leadership development (Renko et al., 2015), few researchers examined the type of leadership style effective in enhancing opportunity recognition behavior of employees (Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002; Tung & Yu, 2016). Particularly, there is little understanding on the leadership style of business owners (Bamiatzi, Jones, Mitchelmore, & Nikolopoulos, 2015) and its effects on small medium enterprises (Zaech & Baldegger, 2017). Furthermore, little research has scrutinized the relationship between leadership and employees' opportunity recognition (Bagheri, 2017).

Accordingly, scholars questioned the effectiveness of general leadership styles (e.g., transformational/ transactional) in directing employees' involvement in the challenging tasks of the opportunity recognition and innovation process (Dóci, Stouten, & Hofmans, 2015; Rosing, Frese, & Bausch, 2011; Sharifirad, 2013) for two main reasons. First, general leadership styles are not specifically designed to regulate employees' behavior toward opportunity recognition and second, they do not determine the leader's exact behavior and techniques to direct the process of new idea generation and implementation (Choi & Shepherd, 2004; Herrmann & Felfe, 2014). In particular, leaders of high technology businesses, defined as the businesses that allocate significantly high financial resources to scientific, technological, research and development activities (Butchart, 1987), need to develop new leadership competencies in order to effectively direct the process of opportunity recognition in their business (Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002).

Increasing number of studies have highlighted entrepreneurial leadership as the leadership style and behavior that significantly stimulates and fosters opportunity recognition in highly challenging, turbulent and competitive environments (Freeman & Siegfried Jr, 2015; Karol, 2015; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002; Vaghely & Julien, 2010) including new ventures and high-tech firms (Freeman & Siegfried Jr, 2015; Hmieleski & Baron, 2008; Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch, McMullan, & Harrison, 2013).

Despite the fact that opportunity recognition is considered a key step in the

entrepreneurial process, entrepreneurs recognize the opportunities by examining the external stimuli and cognitively constructing a market insight (Townsend & Harkins, 2005) and that the importance of recognizing and acting upon, opportunities is probably through modeling (Bandura, 1986; Baron, 2006), little attention has been devoted to the indirect channels, such as the socio-cognitive influence of role modeling, by which leaders influence the opportunity-focused behavior of followers (Renko et al., 2015). Social cognitive theory suggests that individuals learn by observing role models and regulating cognitive resources to replicate the observed behavior (Bandura, 1986). When the observed models are high in status or power, their behavior is more likely to be attended to and replicated because it conveys expectations and approved norms (Bandura, 1986). Particularly, Brockner and Higgins (2001) proposed that leadership's behavior may be perceived as an endorsement of promotion-focused assumptions which then encourages creative behavior or recognizing opportunity by eliciting promotion focus from employees.

Introduced by Higgins (1997), regulatory focus theory delineates two orthogonal self-regulatory systems (or mindsets), known as promotion focus and prevention focus, that influence individuals' behavioral preferences. At any point in time, both systems exist, yet one system dominates the other because of either situational triggers (Crowe & Higgins, 1997) or a chronic tendency when strong situational cues are absent (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). Elicited by an emphasis on growth and development needs, the achievement of gains, or the attainment of ideals (wishes and aspirations), promotion focus allocates attention primarily to the benefits of success and the costs of failing to succeed (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In contrast, prevention focus is evoked by an emphasis on security needs, the avoidance of losses, or the fulfillment of obligations (duties and responsibilities). It, therefore, allocates attention primarily to the benefits of avoiding failure and the costs of making a mistake (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In organizations, promotion focus encourages eagerness, which alters preferences such that individuals engage in more innovation, creativity and entrepreneurial opportunity (Förster, Friedman, & Liberman, 2004; Sarasvathy, Dew, Velamuri, & Venkataraman, 2010) and become more likely to form intentions to engage in entrepreneurial action (McMullen & Shepherd, 2002; McMullen & Zahra, 2009). In contrast, prevention focus encourages vigilance, which alters preferences to become more conservative and less likely to engage in creative behavior and opportunity-focused.

To address these gaps, the present study sets out to explore the mediating effect of regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus) on the relationship between high-tech leaders' entrepreneurial Leadership behaviors and employees' Opportunity Recognition in Turkey. This study introduces a socio-cognitive explanation of how leadership influences follower's opportunity recognition and examines whether the promotion focus or prevention focus of this leader is associated with follower's opportunity recognition. The findings of this research highly contribute to the few studies on entrepreneurial opportunity and the factors that improve opportunity recognition in high-tech firms, specifically in developing countries (Binnui, 2018). This research also extends the findings of few previous studies on entrepreneurial leadership in high-tech companies (Fontana & Musa, 2017; Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch et al., 2013; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002). It also provides one of the first empirical findings

on the potential mediating mechanism of regulatory focus (promotion and prevention focus) on the effects of entrepreneurial leadership in high-tech firms (Freeman, 2014; Huang, Ding, & Chen, 2014; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012) and its impact on employees' opportunity recognition, specifically in Turkey. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. First, the literature on entrepreneurial leadership, regulatory focus, and opportunity recognition is presented and hypotheses are proposed. Consequently, the research method and findings are detailed. Finally, the findings are discussed in the light of their implications for theory, practice and research development. The contributions of this study are twofold. First, we seek to contribute to the literature by introducing a socio-cognitive explanation of how leadership influences follower's opportunity recognition and examines whether the promotion focus or prevention focus of this leader is associated with follower's opportunity recognition. Second, we have established the mediating role of regulatory focus (promotion and prevention focus) between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPEMENT

Entrepreneurial Leadership and Opportunity recognition

Leaders in highly turbulent and complex environments such as high-tech businesses have long considered opportunity recognition as an effective means to improve the performance, growth and competitiveness of their business (Chen, Tang, Jin, Xie, & Li, 2014; Coglisier & Brigham, 2004; Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon, 2003; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002) and consequently economic development of specifically developing countries including Turkey (Esmer & Faruk, 2016; Tung & Yu, 2016). However, stimulating and leading opportunity recognition is challenging in several ways. First, leaders should face the difficulties of influencing and encouraging employees to leave the prescribed and traditional ways of their task performances and behavior and devote their efforts and energy to generate new ideas and engage in the challenges and uncertainties of solving problems (Chen et al., 2016; De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Kessel, Hannemann-Weber, & Kratzer, 2012; Middlebrooks, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2013). Second, they need to improve employees' commitment and persistence to persuade others on the effectiveness of their new ideas and gain their support to realize these entrepreneurial ideas (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010; Janssen, 2005; Middlebrooks, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Radaelli, Lettieri, Mura, & Spiller, 2014). Furthermore, leaders of high-technology businesses need to encounter the complicated process of connecting entrepreneurial opportunity, innovation, science and technology and improving their business's capacity in developing more new ideas and technologies than their competitors (Binnui, 2018). Therefore, leaders play fundamental roles in inspiring and enabling opportunity recognition by individual and groups of employees and creating the encouraging and supportive environment and climate that promotes entrepreneurial opportunity and innovation process in the business (Bamiatzi et al., 2015; T. Chen et al., 2016; Fontana & Musa, 2017; Kang, Solomon, & Choi, 2015; Weng et al., 2015).

Scholars have constantly suggested entrepreneurial leadership as the effective leadership style in facing highly challenging and complex environments as well as stimulating and improving opportunity recognition in all businesses (Fontana & Musa, 2017; Freeman &

Siegfried Jr, 2015; Karol, 2015; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002) and specifically high-tech firms (Huang et al., 2014; Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch et al., 2013; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002). Entrepreneurial leadership also influences the competitiveness, success and growth of businesses regardless of their size, nature and structure (Freeman, 2014; Renko et al., 2015). Entrepreneurial activities of high-tech firm leaders also significantly improve the influence of other leadership styles such as transformational leadership and creative leadership on innovation and creativity in high technology business (Chen et al., 2014; Makri & Scandura, 2010; Wang & Rode, 2010).

Despite its significant effects, there is still hot debate on definition of and theorizing about entrepreneurial leadership. To define this style of leadership, researchers looked at entrepreneurial capabilities and behavior of the leader in established firms (Gupta, MacMillan, & Surie, 2004; Leitch et al., 2013; Renko et al., 2015) and leadership competencies and performances of small business owners (Bamiatzi et al., 2015; Chen, 2007; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Middlebrooks, 2015; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002). Some scholars focused on the exceptional characteristics and traits of entrepreneurial leaders (Gupta et al., 2004; Koryak et al., 2015; Kuratko, 2007; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Renko et al., 2015; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002). While others concentrated on the roles that entrepreneurial leaders play in leading the process of opportunity recognition (Gupta et al., 2004; Ireland et al., 2003; Kuratko, 2007; Middlebrooks, 2015; Renko et al., 2015). However, empirical research on the impact of entrepreneurial leadership on employees' behavior has recently emerged in the literature (Bagheri, 2017; Fontana & Musa, 2017; Huang et al., 2014). To our knowledge, there is also no empirical study that examined the influence of entrepreneurial leadership practices of high-tech business leaders on improving opportunity recognition of their employees.

Building on both the personal and functional challenges and competencies of entrepreneurial leaders in organizational settings, Gupta et al. (2004) developed a theoretical foundation for this style of leadership. According to the theory, personal competencies of entrepreneurial leaders enable them to envision a successful future for their organization by developing an entrepreneurial vision and recognizing the opportunities, while functional competencies of entrepreneurial leaders empower them to influence and inspire their group members to abandon their current and conventional task performances and extend their efforts to execute entrepreneurial and innovative actions. Entrepreneurial leaders also reshape employees' perceptions of their capabilities through involving them in developing entrepreneurial ideas and building their confidence in and commitment to implement the ideas. These personal and functional competencies also enable entrepreneurial leaders to intentionally influence and regulate their employees toward opportunity recognition (Renko et al., 2015; Surie & Ashley, 2008).

Entrepreneurial leaders influence opportunity recognition (Renko et al., 2015) in several ways. First, they play dramatically critical roles in developing an inspiring entrepreneurial vision for the business (Chen, 2007; Freeman, 2014; Guo, 2009; Karol, 2015) and generating new ideas to solve problems and improve the performance of their firm (Chen, 2007; Fontana & Musa, 2017; Guo, 2009; Gupta et al., 2004). In fact, opportunity-focused is

one of the core competencies of entrepreneurial leaders (Chen, 2007; Kuratko, 2007; Surie & Ashley, 2008). The leaders also employ entrepreneurial leadership capabilities (innovativeness, risk-taking and proactiveness) to improve their task performance success and effectiveness (Chen, 2007; Karol, 2015). Second, entrepreneurial leaders achieve their vision through recognizing and eliciting the potential capabilities of individual and groups of employees and influencing them to generate innovative ideas, and regulating their attitudes, thoughts and behavior to implement the innovative ideas (Fontana & Musa, 2017; Freeman, 2014; Gupta et al., 2004; Kang et al., 2015; Karol, 2015; Leitch et al., 2013; Renko et al., 2015). Third, entrepreneurial leaders create an encouraging and supportive environment and culture wherein all employees consider entrepreneurial opportunity as one of their tasks and persist in the face of challenges inherited in opportunity-focused efforts (Freeman, 2014; Karol, 2015). Furthermore, they establish the structures and mechanisms required for the sustainable entrepreneurial opportunity process in their business (Leitch & Volery, 2017; Surie & Ashley, 2008). Therefore, this study tested the following hypothesis on the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition behavior of employees from high technology firms.

Hypothesis 1: There is a direct and positive significant relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and employees' opportunity recognition.

The Mediation Effect of Regulatory Focus between Entrepreneurial Leadership and Opportunity Recognition

Potential mediation effect of Regulatory Focus

The role of leadership in preventing bad and promoting good behavior at work is concisely expressed in the practitioner assertion that in the minds of most employees, “What is right is what the guy above you wants” (Jackall, 1988, p.109). The behavior of leaders communicates powerfully what is important and how others should behave. Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory describes how individuals learn by attending to and observing the behavior of role models. In organizations, the behavior of role models who are high in status or power receives particular attention and is replicated because it may be perceived as an endorsement of specific beliefs and norms regarding what is appropriate or important (Bandura, 1986; Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). One mechanism by which leaders influence others is through inducing a specific self-regulatory focus in the minds of employees. In Higgins’ (1997, 1998) regulatory focus theory, promotion focus and prevention focus are described as two orthogonal self-regulatory mindsets with different causes. Although a person may have a disposition favoring one regulatory focus (Higgins et al., 1994; Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002), situational triggers can evoke one focus over another (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). In addition, promotion focus is evoked when needs for growth, attention to gains, or the attainment of aspirations and ideals are emphasized, whereas Prevention focus is evoked when needs for security, attention to losses, or the fulfillment of duties and obligations are emphasized (Higgins, 1997, 1998). In turn, individuals who are promotion focused tend to exhibit “exploratory” behaviors, such as creativity and innovation, whereas individuals who are prevention focused tend to be more conservative and less open to creativity and innovation

(Förster et al., 2004). Although experimental studies have supported the assertion that regulatory focus can be induced in people and influence their subsequent behavior, few studies have investigated the antecedents of people's regulatory focus in entrepreneurial opportunities (Tumasjan & Braun, 2012). Furthermore, regarding the critical influence of leaders as role models, research has yet to determine whether leaders influence employees by shaping followers' regulatory focus (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Brockner and Higgins (2001) emphasize the role of organizational authorities (i.e., leaders) in how the communication of ideals ("This is what we in positions of organizational authority ideally would like you to do or not do." (p. 57)) and oughts ("This is what we in authority believe that you ought to do or not do." (p. 57)) in the workplace may help to shape employee situational regulatory focus. The authors posit that leaders may activate a specific situational regulatory focus by (1) role modeling; (2) the use of language and symbols; and (3) the feedback they provide to subordinates about their attempts to self-regulate. When a leader's behaviors and messages signal an orientation towards moral ideals and aspirations, an ethical promotion focused mindset of attaining moral ideals, pursuing personal achievement in morality, and nurturing others are likely to be evoked in employees. Conversely, when the pattern of a leader's behavior suggests an orientation towards moral "oughts" and duties, an ethical prevention mindset of avoiding punishment, ensuring security, and fulfilling ethical obligations may be induced in employees.

Hypothesis 2: Entrepreneurial Leadership will be positively related to followers' promotion focus, but not prevention focus.

Furthermore, in line with previous theorizing (e.g., Baron, 2002; Kuckertz, Kollmann, Krell, & Stöckmann, 2017), we posit that a promotion focus will be positively related to opportunity recognition, whereas a prevention focus will be negatively related to opportunity recognition. First, consistent with Brockner et al.'s (2004) theoretical analysis, we argue that promotion-focused individuals will more likely be successful in conceiving of entrepreneurial opportunities. Brockner et al. (2004) draw on psychological studies that have found people with a promotion focus to be more inventive or creative than their prevention-focused counterparts (e.g., Crowe and Higgins, 1997). Their main argument is that promising business ideas result from forward-looking visions. These visions typically derive from ideals and aspirations that are the underlying motives of promotion-focused rather than prevention-focused individuals. Hence, promotion focused individuals are prone to be open-minded and consider a wide range of ideas in order to ensure a "hit", whereas prevention-focused individuals will create less ideas in order to avoid errors of commission and ensure the absence of "false alarms" (see also Baron, 2002). Therefore, promotion-focused individuals should have an advantage in generating new possibilities, considering novel alternatives, and conceive of creative ideas which in turn should facilitate opportunity recognition, whereas the opposite should be true for prevention-focused individuals. Second, promotion-focused individuals' striving for attaining "hits" makes them stick to novel information (Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999), which in turn increases the likelihood of engaging in more thorough information processing. In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus are more hesitant to spend processing time on novel information and are thus more likely to discount signals of a potential opportunity. Third,

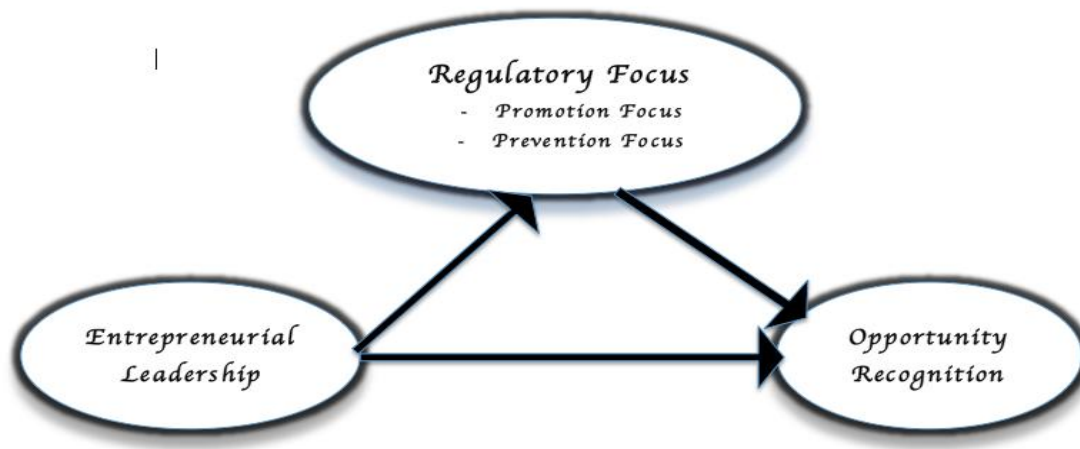
promotion-focused individuals exhibit higher levels of perseverance in terms of continuing a cognitive task, even in the face of likely setbacks (Crowe and Higgins, 1997). This higher perseverance will give them an advantage over prevention-focused individuals who, in turn, are more likely to cease given a novel and uncertain task (Markman & Baron, 2003). Fourth, promotion-focused individuals have been shown to be more creative, remain more open to new ideas, and be more likely to think outside the box than prevention-focused individuals (Friedman & Förster, 2001, 2005), which is also reflected in generating a higher number of alternatives in creativity tasks (Crowe and Higgins, 1997). In contrast, prevention-focused individuals stick to much fewer problem solutions in order to prevent errors of commission. Along these lines, an experiment by Roese et al. (1999) on counterfactual thinking revealed that promotion and prevention-focused individuals use diverging strategic approaches in counterfactual thinking. Individuals in a promotion style apply counterfactual thinking in the absence of a positive outcome for which they then produce more additive counterfactuals than individuals in a prevention style (Roese et al., 1999).

Hypothesis 3: Leaders' promotion focus , but not prevention focus, will positively influence employees' opportunity recognition.

Accordingly, the success of entrepreneurial leadership in achieving the goals of opportunity recognition depends not only on the attributes, behaviors, and actions of the leaders themselves, but also on context (Antonakis & Autio, 2006). Not all individuals are equally susceptible to similar leadership (Shin & Zhou, 2003), so the outcomes of entrepreneurial leadership depend not only on the behaviors of the leader, but also on the characteristics of their followers as well as environmental and organizational characteristics (cf. Antonakis and Autio 2006; Shamir and Howell 1999). In addition, our research study proposes promotion focus as a psychological mechanism explaining the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and follower's opportunity recognition. As we presented earlier, entrepreneurial leaders induce in followers a promotion focus by role modeling, and visually painting an ideal picture of how followers' engagement in entrepreneurial behavior would contribute to the organization or society. In an induced promotion focus, followers are motivated to achieve vision with opportunity-focus and creativity (transcended by entrepreneurial leaders), resulting in increased opportunity recognition. Thus, we predicted the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: Organizational members' promotion focus , but not prevention focus, will mediate the effect of entrepreneurial leadership on opportunity recognition.

Figure 1: Proposed model of the mediating role of Regulatory Focus (RF) between Entrepreneurial Leadership and Opportunity Recognition



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample and Data Collection

In this study, we tested our hypotheses using a random sample of high-technology firms. A questionnaire survey was conducted via SurveyMonkey to collect data. We chose to conduct the survey in Turkey because Turkish entrepreneurial activity has increased in the last two decades and its share in economic output is substantial (Özkul, 2013). The respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and confidential. Although the use of a single respondent may not be ideal for firm-level research, this data collection method is common among recent empirical studies on entrepreneurship (e.g., Chen, 2007; Kamm, Shuman, Seeger, & Nurick, 1990). Previous research findings have also indicated that the results of self-reported assessments and supervisors' scores of innovation performance of employees are consistent (Chen et al., 2016; Janssen, 2000).

A total of **388** responses were received. 27 sets of questionnaires owing to missing data were discarded before conducting the analysis. Finally, a total of 361 responses were deemed useful and representing a response rate of 93.04 per cent. Of the 361 respondents 65.8 per cent were male and 34.2 per cent were female. Regarding the level of education of the respondents included high school (48.1%), Institute (18.6%), undergraduate (26.7%), master (6.4%), and doctoral (.3%). Regarding respondents' position: personnel (61.1%), specialist (21.4%), expert (8.6%), manager (8.9%). Regarding employees' work experience: 50.3% from 1 to 5 years; 29.2% from 6 to 10 years; 9.7% from 11 to 15 years; 5.8% from 16 to 20; 2.2% from 21 to 25 years and 1.1% 26 years or greater. Their age included 2.5% less or equal to 22 years old, 44.2% from 23 to 30 years old, 36.7% ranged from 31 to 40 years old, 15.3% ranged from 41 to 50 years old and 1.1% greater or equal to 51 years old. The remaining 361 survey data were entered and analysed through the software statistical package of social science SPSS 23 version.

Measures

We developed an English-language questionnaire and had the questionnaire translated into Turkish using standard back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980) by a bilingual academic to Turkish and then translated back to English by a team of four researchers of different majors. All of these items were adopted from the existing literature.

Independent, Mediator and dependent Variables

Entrepreneurial Leadership was measured with the ten-items construct ($\alpha = .89$) developed by Renko et al., (2015; e.g., “Often comes up with ideas of completely new products/services that we could sell”) using 7-point Likert-type scales. The response scale ranged from ‘1 = strongly disagree’ to ‘7 = strongly agree’.

Regulatory focus was measured with the 18-items General Regulatory Focus Measure developed ($\alpha = .98$) by Lockwood et al. (2002) which assesses promotion and prevention focus by means of nine items, respectively (e.g., promotion focus: “Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure”; prevention focus: “In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.”) using 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Since in the original measure four items were worded specifically targeting the academic context, we reworded those items to fit the context of our sample (e.g., in the item “I often think about how I will achieve academic success” the word “academic” was replaced by “business”).

Opportunity recognition was assessed with the 5-items measure developed ($\alpha = .87$) by Kuctertz et al. (2017; e.g., “I am always alert to business opportunities”) using 7-point Likert-type scales. The response scale ranged from ‘1 = strongly disagree’ to ‘7 = strongly agree’.

Control variables In all of our analyses we controlled for socio-demographic variables: gender (male = 1 and female = 2), employees’ age (years), education (1 = high school, 2 = institute of technology, 3 = undergraduate degree, 4 = post graduate degree, 5 = Doctorate degree), and organizational tenure (years), as previous research has shown these variables to be related to entrepreneurial opportunity recognition (Ozgen, 2004; Ozgen & Baron, 2007; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012).

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to assess the reliability and validity of the multi-item measurement scale. **Table 1** shows that Cronbach’s alpha ranges from 0.82 to 0.96, which indicates that all variables have acceptable reliability of 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). We tested the convergent validity of the measurements. All item loadings are higher than the 0.60 criterion. **Table 1** also shows that composite reliability ranges from 0.93 to 0.96, which exceeds the recommended level of 0.70. Each construct’s average variance extracted (AVE) score ranges from 0.52 to 0.73, which is higher than the 0.50 criterion. These results indicate that the convergent validity of our measurement instrument is acceptable. We also report the following fit indices for our measurement: chi-square (χ^2), chi-square

relative to its degree of freedom (χ^2 / df), the incremental fit index (IFI), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The measurement model results indicate a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 95.48$, $df = 29$, $\chi^2/df = 3.29$, $RMSEA = 0.06$, $GFI = 0.93$, $AGFI = 0.90$, $IFI = 0.96$, $CFI = 0.91$).

Table 1: Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha (α), Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Variables	Loading	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE	KMO	Bartlett's test of Sphericity
Entrepreneurial leadership	0.77-0.89	0.96	0.96	0.70	0.94	.000
Promotion Focus	0.43-0.91	0.92	0.93	0.52	0.93	.000
Prevention Focus	0.38-0.84	0.82	0.93	0.52	0.93	.000
Opportunity recognition	0.73-0.90	0.91	0.93	0.73	0.88	.000

Composite reliability (CR)

Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and Intercorrelations

The descriptive statistics: means, standard deviations and the correlations among the variables of interest in our study can be found in **Table 2**. As indicated in **Table 2**, opportunity recognition was significantly correlated with entrepreneurial leadership ($r = .14$, $p < .01$) and with promotion focus ($r = .36$, $p < .01$) but negative and insignificant with prevention focus ($r = -.35$, $p = .06$). This result provides a first indication supporting a positive relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition.

Table 2: Mean, Standard Deviation and correlations of the study variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. OR	5.18	1.21	-							
2. ProF	5.18	1.15	0.36**	-						
3. PreF	4.62	1.09	0.35	0.61**	-					
4. EL	5.22	1.25	0.14**	0.23**	0.13**	-				
5. Age	2.65	0.81	-0.72	-0.11*	-0.23**	-0.04	-			
6. Tenure	1.81	1.08	0.17	0.07	-0.20**	0.09	0.63**	-		
7. Education	1.94	1.01	0.12*	0.24**	-0.11*	0.20**	0.31**	0.45**	-	
8. Position	1.60	0.94	-0.46	0.05	-0.20**	0.11*	0.49**	0.54**	0.46**	-
9. Gender	1.36	0.48	-0.19	0.10	0.01	0.08	-0.02	-0.15**	-0.03	-0.05

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$. EL: entrepreneurial leadership, ProF: promotion focus, PreF: prevention focus

Hypotheses testing

Our hypotheses predicted that regulatory focus (promotion and prevention focus) would serve as mediator between leadership style and entrepreneurial opportunity. We tested

these predictions following Baron and Kenny's (1989) three-step regression approach. In Step 1, the independent variable should be related to the dependent variable. In the second step, the independent variable should be significantly related to the mediator variable. Finally, in the third step, the mediating variable should be related to the dependent variable with the independent variable included in the equation. If the independent variable remains significant, but the beta value drops when the mediator is included, partial mediation is present. However, if the beta value for the independent variable becomes non significant when the mediator is included, complete mediation is present.

We ran hierarchical regression analyses to test the hypotheses. We adopted the procedures followed by Baron and Kenny's (1989) to examine three particular conditions: (1) a significant effect of entrepreneurial leadership on opportunity recognition; (2) a positive effect of entrepreneurial leadership on promotion focus but an insignificant effect on prevention focus; (3) in return promotion focus, but not prevention, positively related to opportunity recognition.

Hypothesis 1 predicts the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. Results relevant to this hypothesis are presented in step 1 of Table 3, which indicate that entrepreneurial leadership is positively and significantly related to opportunity recognition ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$).

As shown in step 2 of Table 3, results offer support for Hypothesis 2 (for promotion focus, $\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$). The results revealed that entrepreneurial leadership is positively associated with promotion focus, unlike entrepreneurial leadership is insignificantly associated with prevention focus ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < 0.11$) see in step 1 of table 4. In step 3 of table 3, the outputs of the analyses support the hypothesis 3 predicting that the mediation variable, promotion focus, is positively and significantly related to opportunity recognition ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$). Contrary to promotion focus, prevention focus is no significantly related to opportunity recognition ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.10$) see step 2 of table 4.

The final step in our mediation analyses, shown in table 3 and 4, indicated both the mediator and the independent variable in the analyses. Hypothesis 4 was supported and satisfied, as the beta for entrepreneurial leadership became insignificant, whereas the beta for the mediator (promotion focus) remained significant, indicating full mediation for opportunity recognition ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$) (see step 4 of table 3). Hypothesis 4 also was supported, as the beta for entrepreneurial leadership remained significant ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$) when prevention focus was included. The latter became insignificant, demonstrating a non-existing mediation for opportunity recognition (see step 3 of table 4).

Finally, we included the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) option in our regression analysis to explore the extent of multicollinearity in our results. VIF is the degree to which the standard error has been increased because of multicollinearity. The higher the score, the more difficult it is to show that the coefficient is significantly different from zero. As can be seen in Table 3 and 4, none of the VIFs in the regression models were above three, and so were well below the rule-of-thumb cut-off of 10 (O'Brien, 2007).

Table 3: Regression Analysis Results for Mediation- Promotion Focus

DV: Opportunity Recognition								
Variable	Step 1: IV→DV		Step 2: IV→Med		Step 3: Med→DV		Step 4: IV/Med→ DV	
	β	VIF	β	VIF	β	VIF	β	VIF
Controls								
<i>Gender</i>	-0.02	1.05	0.11*	1.05	-0.05	1.06	-0.06	1.06
<i>Position</i>	-0.11	1.64	-0.20	1.64	-0.10	1.63	-0.11	1.64
<i>Tenure</i>	0.06	2.09	0.14*	2.09	0.02	2.10	0.01	2.11
<i>Age</i>	-0.10	1.81	-0.25**	1.81	-0.02	1.86	-0.01	1.88
<i>Education</i>	0.15*	1.41	0.24**	1.41	0.08	1.45	0.07	1.47
IV								
<i>EL</i>	0.12*	1.07	0.16**	1.07			0.06	1.10
Mediation								
<i>ProF</i>					0.35**	1.13	0.34**	1.16
<i>PreF</i>								
R²	0.05		0.14		0.14		0.14	
R²change	0.01		0.02		0.11		0.11	
F	3.06**		10.15**		10.03**		8.84**	

Table 4: Regression Analysis Results for Mediation- Prevention Focus

DV: Opportunity Recognition						
Variable	Step 1: IV→Med		Step 2: Med→DV		Step 3: IV/Med→DV	
	β	VIF	β	VIF	β	VIF
Controls						
<i>Gender</i>	-0.02	1.05	-0.01	1.04	-0.01	1.05
<i>Position</i>	-0.12	1.64	-0.07	1.65	-0.07	1.65
<i>Tenure</i>	-0.08	2.09	0.09	2.08	0.09	2.09
<i>Age</i>	-0.11	1.81	-0.07	1.79	-0.06	1.82
<i>Education</i>	-0.02	1.41	0.17**	1.37	0.16**	1.41
IV						
<i>EL</i>	0.10	1.07			0.21*	1.10
Mediation						
<i>ProF</i>						
<i>PreF</i>			0.12	1.07	0.15	1.09
R²	0.09		0.16		0.16	
R²change	0.02		0.13		0.13	
F	5.82**		11.64**		10.22**	

DISCUSSION

General discussion and Implications for research

In this research, we have argued and tested the role of regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus) as a mediator between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. We study the influence that leaders have on follower's opportunity recognition through the socio-cognitive principle of regulatory focus. Earlier studies have alluded to this idea but have not specifically addressed (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; Renko et al., 2015; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012). Entrepreneurial leadership explains a variance in opportunity recognition (hypothesis 1). These results are fully explained by the influence that very leadership style has in evoking a particular regulatory focus. Leader who is perceived to have a leadership style of entrepreneurial leadership evokes a promotion focus, instead of prevention focus, in employees (hypothesis 2). In turn employee promotion regulatory focus, but not prevention regulatory focus, explains opportunity recognition (hypothesis 3).

Moreover, we found support for Hypotheses 4 that regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus) acts as mediating mechanism between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. Specifically, this analysis showed that entrepreneurial leadership has an effective and efficient influence on employees' opportunity recognition, when leader's promotion regulatory focus is regulated rather than prevention regulatory focus. Furthermore, our results support the assertion in our introduction that the behavior of leaders communicates to employees what is right or important in an entrepreneurial opportunity context. By modeling entrepreneurial leadership, leaders induce in employees a promotion focused behavior on aspirations, nurturance, and gains. He suggests that through appropriate training, business leaders and entrepreneurs can become adept at recognizing opportunities. In this study, we have shown that entrepreneurial leadership has a positive relationship with promotion regulatory focus (Bass, 2000; Hmieleski & Baron, 2008; Neubert et al., 2008); promotion regulatory focus has a positive relationship with opportunity recognition (Ozgen & Minsky, 2006; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012); entrepreneurial leadership affects opportunity recognition through promotion focus, a component of regulatory focus (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003; Neubert et al., 2008). This finding confirms that the impact of leadership on different opportunity-oriented related behaviors varies (Kang et al., 2015; Renko et al., 2015; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012) and highlights the key roles that entrepreneurial leaders play in improving employees' opportunity recognition particularly in high-tech firms. Therefore, entrepreneurial leaders with their high focus on opportunity (Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Surie & Ashley, 2008) are more effective in improving high-tech company employees' new idea exploration, generation, championing and implementation specifically in the context of high-tech businesses in Turkey.

In accord with prior research (Swiercz & Lydon, 2002), the findings of this study highlight the critically increasing need for the development of new leadership competencies in high-tech firms' leaders in order to enable them to create the effective climate and strategies for opportunity recognition and overcome the challenges and complexities of competitiveness and success of their business. To this end, current and prospective high-tech leaders need to be actively engaged in entrepreneurial leadership courses and training programs (Bagheri, Lope

Pihie, & Krauss, 2013; Kempster & Cope, 2010; Leitch et al., 2013). Previous researchers argued that a single leadership is not effective in improving employees' opportunity recognition (Rosing et al., 2011; Wang & Rode, 2010). Therefore, high-tech leaders should also learn how to incorporate entrepreneurial leadership with other leadership styles to better promote opportunity recognition among their employees.

Practical Implications

The findings of this research have several implications for current and prospective high-tech business leaders need to promote opportunity recognition capacity among their employees in order to improve the competitiveness and growth of their business. First, our results indicate the importance of entrepreneurial leadership for regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention) and opportunity recognition, outcomes of great interest for leaders and managers. Specifically, our findings assist existing and would-be business leaders and entrepreneurs in recognizing the key roles that they play in creating the capabilities and directing the process of opportunity recognition in their business and develop the appropriate climate and environment for opportunity recognition. Second, due to the influential impact of business leaders' relationships and interactions in shaping employees' confidence of promotion focus in their capabilities for recognizing opportunity (Huang et al., 2014; Renko et al., 2015), leaders also can use the findings of this study and develop strong relationships with their employees to stimulate and maximize their opportunity recognition (Chen et al., 2016). Finally, the high-tech business companies may find it useful to emphasize leader selection and development so that leaders exhibit entrepreneurial leadership behaviours. The high-tech leaders can seek entrepreneurial leadership training programmes, as the literature has suggested that through leadership training programmes, leaders can learn to be more effective to display entrepreneurial leadership (Vecchio, 2003). For example, entrepreneurial leaders should concentrate their efforts on developing a vision, actively communicating the vision to their followers, and inspiring followers to pursue the shared vision and to induce their opportunity recognition (Bagheri, 2017).

Limitations and Future Research

This research has several limitations, which need to be acknowledged and addressed in future studies. First, building on the pivotal effects of high-tech businesses in the economic development of both developed and developing countries (Binnui, 2018; Tung & Yu, 2016), this study examined the influence of entrepreneurial leadership on opportunity recognition only in telecommunication companies. Since entrepreneurial leadership affects opportunity recognition in businesses of all sizes and nature (Freeman, 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Renko et al., 2015), future research should be conducted to explore the relationships among the variables in other business settings. Second, the measures employed were self-report in nature (e.g., regulatory focus, opportunity recognition) (Bagheri, 2017; Tumasjan & Braun, 2012). Although these measures were adopted from previous research and have been shown to possess acceptable reliability and validity, the constructs of primary interest (regulatory focus, opportunity recognition) are complex. Future studies may benefit from employing objective measures for these variables and including the assessment of these variables by high-tech firm

leaders and colleagues. Third, this research focused on the impact of entrepreneurial leadership only on employees' opportunity recognition behavior. Future research should investigate the impact of this type of leadership style on other aspects of employees' opportunity-oriented behavior such as their creativity, empowerment, entrepreneurial passion, performance, commitment and quality and quantity of their opportunity ideas. Due to the effects of employees' characteristics and motivation on their perceptions of their leader's support of their new idea recognition and implementation (Chen et al., 2016), future research need to be undertaken to explore the relationship and interactions between entrepreneurial leadership and employees' characteristics and their opportunity recognition.

Furthermore, this study concentrated on the impact of entrepreneurial leadership and did not examine the simultaneous influence of other leadership styles on employees' opportunity recognition. Since leadership styles differ in their impact on employees' new idea creation and implementation (Kang et al., 2015), future research should compare entrepreneurial leadership with other leadership styles and explore the most effective leadership in fostering opportunity recognition, specifically in high-tech companies. This research also did not examine the influence of other factors related to the personal characteristics of the high-tech firm leaders on employees' opportunity-oriented behavior (Chen et al., 2016). Further studies should explore the association between personal characteristics of high-tech firm leaders and employees' opportunity recognition behavior. In addition, there is little insight on the process through which entrepreneurial leadership influences opportunity recognition by employees (Gupta et al., 2004; Renko et al., 2015). Future studies can highly contribute to theory development by exploring the specific techniques and approaches that entrepreneurial leaders use to stimulate and improve opportunity recognition in their business (Currie, Humphreys, Ucbasaran, & McManus, 2008; Herrmann & Felfe, 2014). This research also explored the impact of entrepreneurial leadership on individual employees' opportunity recognition. Due to the influential impact of entrepreneurial leadership on opportunity recognition of teams (Chen, 2007; Karol, 2015), future research should be conducted to examine the associations among the variables at the group level. Entrepreneurial leadership research and practice would highly benefit from the findings of the empirical studies that explore the contextual facilitators and/or impediments for entrepreneurial leadership enactment in high-tech companies (Chapman, Johnson, & Kilner, 2014; Chen et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2014). Finally, this research is based on a cross-sectional analysis and cannot provide generalizable interpretations, and difficult to empirically validate the causal effects. Future studies can include additional samples from other sectors such: manufacturing, mechanical and industrial engineering to make the results robust. A longitudinal study and in-depth interviews with the leaders or/and entrepreneurs can better explain the relationships between the various constructs. We also encourage studies from different cultures to ensure the robustness of the framework.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our study offers support for the notion that entrepreneurial leadership is associated with promotion focus, which in turn has a positive influence on opportunity

recognition. In contrast, neither entrepreneurial leadership is significantly associated with prevention, nor in turn prevention focus influences opportunity recognition. Focusing on goals and gains (vs. on restrictions and losses) leads to a higher likelihood of identifying opportunities. Moreover, we theoretically and empirically justified the role of regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus) as a mediating variable between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. In one word, through the mechanism of regulatory focus, promotion focus, but not prevention focus, mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and opportunity recognition. We hope that our findings will encourage further, more fine-grained research efforts that target the cognitive processes involved in opportunity recognition. We believe that the study of entrepreneurial leadership and regulatory focus promise important insights into the nature of entrepreneurial cognition and our understanding of the opportunity recognition process.

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Digitalization and Its Effects on Public Administration

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ABSTRACT

As is known, the traditional public administration approach based on the Weberian bureaucratic model lost its effect as a result of the developments in the 1970s, public administration and new public processing became the dominant paradigm of the 1990s. At the beginning of the 21st century, a new era emerged with Digitalization. This period deeply affects and changes management, society and economy. Therefore, the era of digitalization refers to the third wave or period in the field of public administration reform. Transformation of all aspects of social life due to digitalization, deeply affects the state and public administration system all over the world. Digitalization offers new opportunities for individual freedom, economic prosperity and social union. In order for these opportunities to be used correctly, the state must digitally transform its institutions and manage the transformation effectively. Demographic change, the changing components of the population, social mobility and urbanization, changing service demand and understanding for basic public services, increased global competition, the increase in the regulatory functions of the states cause the states to face new challenges and a constant pressure of change. This change has a transformative character, which involves the transformation of the organizational structure as well as the way of thinking and action. This is not only to make the service provision more effective and citizen-oriented through information and information technologies, but also to ensure that the management and decision-making models are more transparent, open and integrated. This transformation in the Public Administration also refers to the third phase of public administration reform. This phase symbolizes the overall fundamental transformation of the organizational, strategic and cultural aspects of all levels of the state administration and organs, and affects the public service understanding and the creation and implementation of public policies. What are the possible impacts of digitalization on the functioning of the state, public service understanding and public policy making and processes? What are the driving forces and obstacles in the implementation of digital public administration? How can public administration adapt to the transformation experienced with digitalization? This paper primarily addresses the issue of the effects of digitalization on public administration within the framework of these questions. For this purpose, firstly digitalization phenomenon and its dimensions are tried to be examined by revealing the developments in this field. After that, the effects of digitalization on public administration are tried to be discussed. Finally, it is tried to determine what can be done and adapt to these developments and to what the attention should be given.

Keywords: Digitalization, Effects on Public Administration, Adaptability of Public Administration.

DIGITAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: MEANING AND SCOPE

Digitalization has brought about serious transformations in all areas of social and economic life and it continues to bring them about. These transformations, which continue at full speed in social and economic life, affect public administration deeply and force it to change fundamentally at strategic, institutional and cultural level. This makes it even more necessary and important for managers and policy makers to closely follow the developments and changes experienced by digitalization to adapt to the transformation, to manage the process in order to keep the connection with the digital world and to make directions and policies by making predictions about the future. Because without understanding digitalization well, it is not possible to really understand and analyze its effects on public administration, its policies and researches. Therefore, in this paper, first of all, it is tried to emphasize what digital public administration means, its tools and results.

Today, digitalization is the main driving force that transforms public administration and policies as well as social life all over the world. This transformation is not limited to the way of doing business, but also includes the forms of thinking and action beyond the institutional level. In other words, which is discussed here is not a more effective and citizen-oriented delivery of services using information and communication technologies. The issue discussed here is the questioning of the management concept and service delivery in the field of public administration, ie the existing management models and the development of new management models. The aim is to provide administrative services in a more transparent, open and integrated manner. Transparency is associated with social control and confidence building. The openness is related to access to services provided by public administration and the use of information by third parties. The integration dimension refers to the cooperation between the institutions at different levels on one hand and the participation of external institutions and actors in the process on the other hand (Brüesch et al. 2017: 7). Therefore, digital public management requires a very good harmony between transformation, citizen demands and preferences, service requirements and the opportunities offered by technology and developing service delivery models through increasing participation, innovative networks, partnerships and collaborations (Gül, 2018: 14-15).

These models appear possible only on the basis of New Public Management, Public Value Governance and Design Thinking approaches. It should also be noted that the New Public Management approach is no longer considered sufficient since it sees the citizen only as a customer in the face of public administration, i.e. not as an active participant in the process who contributes to problem solving (Politt, 2014).

In summary, the transformation to a digital public administration can be expressed as the third period of reform of the modern period, since it covers the entire layer of the state.

TOOLS OF DIGITAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

After briefly explaining the concept of digital public administration, we now want to discuss what its tools are and which of these tools contribute to increasing value generation.

Firstly, e-governance, e-participation, big data can be listed among the tools or processes of digital public administration. In the following, these are briefly referred to respectively.

E-Governance

The aim of e-governance is to improve the provision of public services and democratic processes, and to facilitate the creation and implementation of public policies through the use of information and communication technologies. Here, digital and integrated presentation of public services is the primary subject of concern. In this way, the citizen himself/herself will not need to come.

E-Governance can lead to changes in existing interaction and collaboration processes between all participants, new management practices and the development of creative management models. Public administration tries to keep up with the digital world through e-governance service delivery method and to increase the level of quality, efficiency, access and effectiveness of services (Gül, 2018: 14).

E-Participation

The basis of legitimacy in a democratic society is the participation and contribution of citizens to the political process. In this way, confidence will be provided to the state and the institutions of public administration. In particular, digital platforms, data sharing sites and social media have increased the communicative interaction between the state and citizens, that is, civil actors and formed the basis of e-participation. Social media, in particular, is a place where citizens can easily express their thoughts and it allows people to share their thoughts with others, facilitate joint ventures and actions together, express their collective demands quickly, communicate them to managers and participate in management (Gökçe, 2012). In this way, more participatory mechanisms are formed (Gül, 2018: 13).

According to the definition of the United Nations, e-participation involves three dimensions. These include: access to information for all persons with or without the necessary equipment, participation of citizens in public service delivery within the framework of e-negotiation, and the provision of opportunities for the design of policy options together in the decision-making processes and the production of certain services together (2014: 63). Witz et al. (2016: 4) state that six goals are targeted by e-participation. They emphasize that in addition to the three elements listed, three more objectives are aimed to be achieved. These include: increasing political participation and trust in public institutions, improving interest and understanding of government activities and politics, and sharing responsibilities.

Digitalization makes it easier for citizens to reach public managers and politicians. This, in turn, transforms the logic and form of the functioning of decision-making and policy-making processes from top to bottom, that is, from state to society, in the traditional centralized management approach and structures, and leads to the development of a more participatory service provision. In addition, digitalization allows the creation of new, more functional and

widespread participation channels in terms of participation in management and political participation.

Big Data

The concept has been widely used in a variety of contexts in recent years. Nevertheless, a de facto definition does not exist.

“**Big Data** is high-volume, high-velocity and/or high-variety information assets that demand cost-effective, innovative forms of information processing that enable enhanced insight, decision making, and process automation.” The most cited definition is of Gartner IT Glossary (2017):

The high velocity dimension indicates the effectiveness of the data evaluation. The basic condition is that the data should be accessible from anywhere. Continuous monitoring and instant solution of continuously growing data through new technologies, the simultaneous evaluation and receiving of citizens' demands and the rapid development and implementation of public policies in line with these are important.

The high variety dimension indicates that data can be generated or produced spontaneously anytime and everywhere in inter-institutional or institution-citizen relationships or vice versa, and it can occur in a wide variety of structures, both structured or unstructured.

The high volume dimension means that the data expands exponentially and forms large data sets. Today, as well as the state and public institutions, companies such as Facebook, Google and Apple continuously monitor citizens and customers with new monitoring and surveillance technologies, digitally record (digital trace), store, associate and process their actions and communications.

In summary, big data differs from traditional data in terms of veracity, value and vulnerability as well as velocity, variety and volume characteristics mentioned above (Gül, 2018: 18).

Real time detection, association, of big data coming from a variety of places and transforming it into policies by analyzing quickly and implementation are very important. If the decision makers and public administrators cannot analyze various data coming primarily from citizens and other institutions and persons at the same velocity and detail, if they cannot produce answers, provide solution for problems and supply for demands, then the trust of the citizen in the state, its institutions and actors will be shaken, a management weakness will and crises in relation to this weakness will emerge (Höchtel et al. 2016:149). For this reason, managers and public institutions and organizations have to concentrate their capacity, strengths and opportunities to sort out, analyze and respond to the large quantities of requests and demands (big data) transmitted by a wide range of places by digital channels. This is only possible by adapting the public administration system and policy-making processes to the new widespread digital age and technologies (Gül, 2018: 14).

Opinions differ regarding the future importance of Big Data for public administration. Fans advocate the view that ever-growing data can be resolved more easily and quickly through in an event-oriented and very detailed way through new technologies, which will make a significant contribution to decision-makers and public administrators in developing and implementing effective public policies (represented by Höchtl et al. 2016: 149). According to them, large data allows the real-time monitoring and analysis of the effects of an arrangement. Meanwhile, critics argue that Big Data will increase the state's surveillance threat much more and will not contribute much to the creation and implementation of public policies (represented by Politt, 2014: 19).

The general opinion is that digital technologies can significantly reduce costs and improve speed, access and quality of services. Therefore, Big Data is more easily and quickly analyzed in-depth and made available to decision makers. This enables citizen-oriented decisions and policies to be established, faster and more quality service delivery, more closely and instant monitoring of applications, and the necessary corrections to be made in a timely manner.

GENERAL EVALUATION

Digitalization and digital technologies have increased the pressure of reform in public administration. The transformation of Digital Public Administration involves not only the operation of electronic document / file management, but the total change of the state and public administration approach. The transformation starts in the engine room of the state ship instead of the command bridge.

In the current digital age, the delay or slow behavior of public administration in transforming itself will also have a function of reducing state capacity. Therefore, the public administration system has to develop and quickly implement new service delivery models in order to institutionalize a more participatory, transparent, accountable and reliable management approach that takes into account the expectations and preferences of the citizens by taking advantage of the opportunities offered by technology.

Digital Public Administration will not only save time, effort and paper, but will also increase Access to services and speed and quality of these services. Tracking and analyzing continuously multiplying data through new technologies will increase the validity, reliability, transparency, accountability and speed of receiving and evaluating the demands of citizens and developing and implementing public policies in compliance with them (Höchtl, 2016: 149).

Attempts to benefit from the opportunities offered by new digital technologies in public services in Turkey has increased in recent years. With the tools and methods offered by technology, efforts to adapt to the digital age and increase the quality, efficiency, access and effectiveness of the services are intensified. However, it is difficult to say that the efforts on this issue are sufficient. Within the existing digital applications, there are very different applications that are disconnected from each other but do the same thing or do different things without coordination which are detached from each other (Gül, 2018: 14). In addition, the rate

of internet access in our country is low when compared to EU countries. Only about fifty percent of the population still has access to the Internet. In the EU member states, this ratio is almost 90 percent. Turkey is obliged to close this gap quickly. Today, the tendency to receive services through internet is increasing rapidly. In order to respond to this trend, decision-makers and public administrators need to be quick. Otherwise, concerns about the capacity of the state and administrative capacity of public institutions will increase, the probability of crisis will increase and the state will become fragile (Gökce & Gökce, 2015 and 2017). In the region it is placed, it is not possible for Turkey to allow this. Therefore, in our country, a management approach that takes into account the demands and preferences of the citizens, produces solutions to their problems, develops and implements decisions and policies that are more compatible with their requests, develops and implements transparent, accessible, participatory and democratic public governance and decision models is necessary. It is necessary to take into account that the cost of development in this field will be very heavy.

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Dollar as a Tool/Weapon of a Hybrid War

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ABSTRACT

In the 21st century, the nature of the traditional war and the way it was executed changed. Today, threats and wars have changed their shape and gained a more complicated structure. In order to define these new forms and structures, the concept of hybrid war is used. Hybrid war means the coordinated use of military and non-military tools and factors by states and non-state actors for the targets, the weaknesses of which are analyzed before, systematically and with high level coordination with political (opposition), diplomatic, economic, technological facilities and media, manipulation, terrorism and crime organizations and military precautions. In other words, the hybrid war involves a series of hostile acts, which try to undermine their opponent with various actions such as secret intelligence operations, sabotage, cyber-attack and support of opposition groups, rather than a traditional large-scale military intervention. In this process, the aggressive country can make disinformation based on information war in the target country or conduct perception management, exert economic pressure and threaten energy resources. This brief description shows that the hybrid wars involve far more than the traditional attacks made with and the most modern weapons. The battles are no longer won by guns alone. The most obvious example of this is the US war in Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria. Nowadays, wars are carried out mostly by non-conventional means and methods. In this context, the economy and in relation to it, the Dollar emerge as the most effective tool or weapon. The US does not refrain from using the dollar as a weapon to protect its hegemony and to prevent the power from shifting from the West to the East in relation to this and / or on the countries which want to reduce its dependence on the United States or to withdraw from dependence. The US does not refrain from using the dollar as an effective weapon against all the states, whether friend or foe, that oppose its own geostrategic interest, hegemonic power and discourse. Therefore, the Dollar has become a more effective and powerful weapon than the most modern weapons and is used for military purposes. This situation has particularly become a characteristic feature of the Trump period. Trump uses the Dollar weapon against all states that threaten the US's geostrategic and economic interests. The most obvious examples of these are China, Iran and Venezuela. Turkey, Russia and Argentina are also kept under the dollar pressure. Turkey has faced this pressure because it has planned a military movement in the East of Euphrates, it directed its axis to East (purchasing S-400 missiles from Russia) and objected to the hegemonic discourse of US. In this context; In this Communiqué, the following questions are sought primarily and particularly. These are: What are the aims and means of hybrid warfare? What is the impact and strength of the Dollar as a vehicle / weapon among these vehicles? Is there an opportunity to prevent the US from using the dollar as a weapon in the world? What kind of a strategy should Turkey adapt in order to realize its geostrategic interests and limit the impact of the dolar weapon?

Keywords: Hybrid War, Methods, Economic Sanctions, Dollar as a Weapon, Opposition Strategies.

HYBRID WAR CONCEPT: MEANING AND SCOPE

Hybrid war term firstly came into existence during Second Chechen War and American Commander William J. Nemeth added to literature in 2002 (Asmussen et al., 2015:4). But Nemeth's Conception was used in his master thesis (Future War and Chechenya: A Case for Hybrid Warfare) in U. S. Naval Postgraduate School. The thesis was not published so it did not draw attention of public opinion. Nemeth stated that wars are related to the level of social organization of society rather than having high technology weapons. So Nemeth defined hybrid war concept as a new war which consists of combination of regular and irregular tactics at social and military grades with modern information means and techniques as in the case of Chechen Wars of 1994-1996 and 1999-2009 (Martin, 2016:11). But one of the most important theoretician, Frank Hoffmann gave real meaning to it. Hoffman (2007) analyzed surprising resistance of Hezbollah against Israel in the war of Lebanon, 2007. Hoffman mentioned that John McCuen is the first person who used hybrid war definition and hybrid war and he defined hybrid war as a comprehensive term which consist of many war activities in his study. According to Hoffman, Hezbollah can be defined as a prototype of hybrid war in terms of used tactics and techniques (2007:35). In Hoffman's view, internet is included in hybrid war because of its potential to propagate nonstate groups in addition to conventional - unconventional war methods, terrorist attacks (containing extremely violence) and criminal events. Hoffman stated that hybrid war can be implemented by state and non-state actors, and the important thing is to synergize different many operational activities in an effective way physically and psychologically (Hoffman, 2007:8).

In 2008, McCuen defined the situation in Vietnam, Afghanistan, Iraq and Lebanon in terms of war based on terms given below. According to him, hybrid war consists of following three different battle types at same time because of interdependent nature of modern societies:(2008:107):

- Conventional battle field;
- In public opinion and society of target/attacked country;
- In public opinion and society of attacking country.

McCuen firstly paid attention to information and manipulation warfare (perception operation as in the vernacular of the day) which affects target country, own country and international community at the same time. With the opinion of winning the war in society, McCuen draws attention to usage of hybrid war tactics and means to prevent resistance of society, to discourage military force in target state by demoralizing. In addition to all these, hybrid war means are used to decrease possible resistance in society of attacker state, increase their support, decrease the chance of international intervention and take international support by depending on information warfare and manipulation at a high level (2008:107-108).Mc Cuen stated hybrid war concept as follows:

“Thus, hybrid wars are a combination of symmetric and asymmetric war in which intervening forces conduct traditional military operations against enemy military forces and

targets while they must simultaneously—and more decisively—attempt to achieve control of the combat zone’s indigenous populations by securing and stabilizing them (stability operations)“ (McCuen 2008:108).

Newson (2014:2) made a comprehensive definition by including all definitions already made up to this point. To him, hybrid war is a combination of asymmetrical means including conventional, non-conventional, political and ideological manipulation. This war type includes special operations, conventional military forces, intelligent service agencies, political provocateurs, media representatives, economically threats, cyber attacks, proxy wars actors, paramilitary forces, terrorists and criminal enterprises (2014:2).

Hybrid war means using of abstractly conventional and non-conventional, symmetrical and asymmetrical means and methods and civilian means at same time coordinately. From this point of view, hybrid war is combination of conventional opposed methods (Ehrhart, 2016:233).

There are many different hybrid war definitions which made too often recently. Therefore, some of definitions presented in literature are very similar or close to each other for some details. Mentioning about all these definitions will go beyond the limitations of this study. So criticizing common points is aimed instead of citing of all these definitions and trying to make a new definition. The common question about all of the comprehensive definitions is use of non-conventional means and methods (economy, cyber war, diplomacy and media manipulated or used by intelligence services, paramilitary forces, special military elements, terrorist organizations, illegal groups) in addition to conventional means (regular military precautions) by attacker states against target states (Hoffman, 2007:8;Gökce, O., 2017).In this regard, it is possible to explain hybrid war as the manipulation of all military and non military means and factors against weaknesses of target states analyzed by attacker states or non-state actors systematically and coordinately at high grade. It is based on concurrent utilization of military precautions and other means namely political, diplomatically, economical, technological, media, manipulation, terror and criminal enterprise.

According to some, hybrid war is a completely new war type (Adomeit, 2014) whereas someone considers that it seems new but in terms of neither means included nor conflict circumference is not a new concept (Tamminga, 2015:3; Maigre, 2015:8). Hybrid war is taken back to Trojan wars by some authors. Hoffman (2007) disagrees with these opinions that hybrid war did not occur in the past. To him, constitution of conventional and non conventional means has come into question conceptually and strategically up to now. On the other hand, leveling of different irregular means to same target synonymously is completely new based on spatial and tactical manners (2007:8). Unquestionably newest and most striking one is efficient usage of internet based communications instruments. These means have turned into important propaganda tools (Asmussen et al., 2015:8).

These explanations stated that none of hybrid war means are not completely new and combination of conventional-non conventional means has a long background. The latest one in this concept is combination of operative-tactical means (Hoffman, 2007:8). In other words, the

variable is combination of used tools and their coordinately usage (Tamminga, 2015: 3). Moreover, complication level of strategic combination of hybrid war's different means has increased significantly (Martin, 2016: 15). However, combination of several means and methods is not successive as well it takes place at different places such as physical war land and virtual propaganda or at different aspects. It is generally in question for same conflict area at same time. Suicide bomber or violent terror incidents seem small and independent of each other at first glance, they are parts of an enormous conventional attack in reality (Barfi, 2016: 19). These actions are not only psychological, they have also real tactical effects.

As a conclusion, possible success of hybrid war will increase when following four conditions are fulfilled. These are: (Gökce & Şengönül, 2017)

- Dissatisfaction of society of target state/country highly due to party in power (becoming the claims of corruption, putting strain on opponents, restricting freedoms etc.),
- Inconsistent political and economic condition (unfair distribution of income, high inflation, high unemployment, incapable of government and national assembly to legislate, government-opponents conflicts, power loss of government, problems in monopoly of use of force, etc.),
- Low capacity of security forces of state (security of life and property, high crime rate, becoming bribery widespread between security forces, ethnical and political dissidence between security forces),
- Strong conventional forces and military entities.

There is no chance of hybrid war in a society with presence of stable state and strong army, level of confidence to government and formal government structures, happiness and satisfaction levels. Nevertheless, loss of confidence of all governmental structures and mechanism, despair and increasing level of dissatisfaction, opponents' disabling the state by strengthening, state loss of monopoly of authority and force use, society's inconfidence to justice and security make a state or country weak in the face of hybrid war.

THE AIM OF HYBRID WAR

There is a general consensus that main aim of hybrid war is to destabilization of opponent or implementation of different political means (Asmussen et al., 2015:3; Münkler 2016:23). In this regard, hybrid war aims to weaken target state or country in terms of politics, economy and humanitarian by implementing different means and destabilize to break the ambition, power and determination of resistance before coming face to face in battle field directly. More clearly, the main aim of hybrid war is to put government agencies out of commission, to make all them have difficulty, disable it to provide basic public services, disturb the peace, give rise to disturbance, cause to internal conflict and provide public questioning of legitimacy in target country (Gökce, O., 2017). In this time, propaganda in all of target, attacker and all other countries have significant role (Popescu, 2015:1). Substantially, almost all means of hybrid war have effect of destabilization. Main purpose is to provide opponent countries' loss of control (see. Asmussen et al., 2015:65). Hybrid war can be implemented by using some

means considered of soft power elements such as economical pressure (indications of crisis, fines to banks and strong companies), increasing cost of living, correspondingly social dissatisfaction and fiscal deficit, polarization, bringing election results into question or based on hard power methods namely sabotage, suicide (killing people who are symbol of different religious or ethnic group, attacking different countries' representations), intelligent service operations (activating different ethnical and religious groups, supporting local discrimination actors, civil disobedience, pouring into streets, claiming the rigs of elections). Briefly, hybrid war can be defined a suppression strategy which causes to weaken and collapse administrative capacity of target country because of its aim of putting government agencies out of commission and causing of governing disability (Gökce, G., 2006, 2007, 2016, 2017). Attacker country tries to push demand on target country by avoiding from direct conflict in this way. Hybrid war is preferred by attacker states/countries when military operations seem detrimental and staggering in the eye of international platform. Hybrid war includes implementations of all types of terrorist attacks, cyber attacks, immigration, hijacking, corruption, social unrest and ethnic conflict and questioning of diplomacy, political interaction, human aid, social pressure, economic fluctuation, judgement's lucidity, equality, predictability and consistency, professional media campaigns and activating civil society organizations systematically (Gökce, O., 2017). A destabilized country in this manner is far from forcing attacks back and developing strategy against implemented plans on its own lands.

MEANS AND METHODS OF HYBRID WAR

The basic means and methods of hybrid war are aimed to deal with the main lines in below. When each one of these is discussed separately, someone can think that there is no relationship between these means. Actually, there is a transitivity between them and they are not independent. Hybrid war has too different means. Some of them are given below: (Degg & Schurian, 2015; Asmussen et al., 2015; Martin, 2016):

- Political and diplomatic precautions/public diplomacy
- Economic and social precautions
- Conventional/military precautions (simulated military operation, military shipment, etc.)
- Propaganda through media, press / Perception operations
- Terrorism
- Cyber attacks
- Guerilla tactics
- Secret services operations
- Support of non-state actors

These tools or methods are frequently used in the scope of hybrid warfare. There are also many other tools. Since the question of how and to what extent each of these instruments is applied will exceed the scope of our communique, we will not focus on the tools other than the economy, which is important for our subject, and thus on trade wars and dollar instruments.

Already in general, there is a broad consensus that the economy, together with terrorism, is one of the most fundamental elements of hybrid warfare.

One of the most important areas of struggle of the hybrid war is undoubtedly the economic dimension. If the target country's state or non-state actors have an economic dependency relationship with the aggressor country, the aggressor country will use it for its political ambitions. In this way, the target country is forced to give up or change any policy and action that contradicts the interests of the aggressor country. Such measures are usually either through open embargoes, sanctions, threats etc. or they are concealed under other purposes.

Economy and Dollar Tools of Hybrid War

Today, it is widely believed that the economy is a much more effective weapon than any military weapon. The countries or states that define themselves as strong in political, economic and military terms have started to use the economy intensively as a strategic weapon in order to protect their geostrategic, political and economic interests and to ensure that other countries are subject to or subordinate to these interests. The most obvious example of this is the USA. However, opponents also began to emerge.

The USA and Trade War: Dollar as a Weapon

The USA has used economic sanctions and thus the dollar as a strategic weapon for many years to maintain and protect its political, economic and military status as “world super power” obtained as a result of the collapse of the bipolar world after the beginning of the neoliberal period in the world (Lim, 2003). However, this was more veiled up to the time of US President Donald Trump, and it was even denied if necessary. With the Trump period, there is nothing hidden about this. Trump himself does not hesitate to declare it publicly. Because worldwide dominance of the Dollar not only provides the USA with commercial advantages, but also helps to consolidate its political power. For this reason, the Dollar has become a weapon that the United States resorts to in order to achieve its geostrategic and economic goals.

The USA was in a collapse phase in the 1970s. The neo-liberal era both allowed the USA to recover from its collapse and allowed it to re-establish its domination over the world. The United States acted as the flagship of neo-liberalism, the dominant ideology of globalization, and imposed it all over the world through international institutions such as the World Bank and the IMF. In this way, it has made whole world its own open market and re-established the dominance of the dollar (Lim, 2003: 150). The USA does not want to lose its power, which the domination of the dollar, which it gained through neo-liberalism after the collapse of the Soviet bloc. Today, all the attacks and interferences it carries out in the name of democracy are actually a part of this effort. The aim of the USA is not democracy. The USA has one purpose. It is not to lose its control of the world's resources, to prevent dependent countries from turning to independence and thus continue to exploit the world. For this purpose, it does not refrain from using its own currency as a weapon. As its political and military power is shaken, it becomes more aggressive.

The important and decisive things for the USA are their geostrategic and economic interests. The aim of the USA is to prevent the shift of power from West to East and not to lose its control over the world's natural resources. It does not refrain from using any means including war for this. In this process, the USA does not discriminate between friends and enemies in this process. Everyone has noticed this approach of the USA. In today's world, with the exception of a few countries in the world, no country, including EU member states, has the economic power to annoy the USA, so they willingly or unwillingly submit to the demands of the United States. Because it is almost impossible to trade with countries where the USA imposes economic sanctions and isolation. States and companies can also make trade agreements outside the USA, but they cannot find a bank to do so. The main reason for this is the lack of a bank that is not associated with the USA financial system (Buchter, 2018). EU banks that have tried this in the past have faced serious criminal sanctions. One of the most vivid examples of this in our country is undoubtedly the situation of Halk Bank Deputy General Manager.

More than 80% of world trade is in US Dollars. Accordingly, more than 60% of the world reserves are in US Dollars. In this respect, the Dollar is one of the US's means of controlling the world, even the most important one. Every step, every attempt to weaken the dollar's impact is considered a cause of war for the USA. In this context, for example, every country that declares that it will engage in oil trade at a foreign exchange rate other than the Dollar has faced and still faces with either direct military attacks or economic sanctions by the United States, as well as the introduction of other hybrid warfare vehicles. Iraq, Libya, and finally Venezuela are clear examples of this. Similarly, Iran, Russia, China and Argentina are the countries that are subject to USA sanctions in geostrategic terms (Buchter, 2018). A possible military action against Iran, which has recently challenged the United States, is also likely in the upcoming period.

The USA is aware that as long as the world economy continues to use the dollar as an international currency, it can protect its power and interests. Otherwise, it is almost impossible for the USA, which is already lonely due to its aggressive policies to maintain its political power. The predictions that the power of the US is shaken and that it is in the process of collapse are becoming widespread (Todd, 2003). For this reason, the USA responds to every step against the dominance of the dollar with great aggression. The main reason for the tension in USA-China relations is that the USA sees China's moves as an attack and a challenge to its hegemony and the dollar. In this respect, trade war against China initiated by the USA (additional tax, embargo on certain goods, etc.) is to prevent China from acting as an independent power, thus preventing the power from shifting from West to East. The establishment of the Chinese currency as an international currency will end the USA's exploitation of the world. Because in such a case, the USA will lose its control over world resources. This will lead to the more aggression in the once-superpower, the position of which is weakened.

GENERAL EVALUATION

The USA sees the dominance of the dollar as the world currency as the legitimate source of intervention in the world. The USA will do anything to protect the power of the dollar. The loss of dominance of the dollar means the collapse of the US, which has already lost power

in political terms. For this reason, the USA will first use the economy, terrorism etc. which are important tools of hybrid war, in order to maintain the dominance of the dollar and will not refrain from resorting to its military power when they fail. However, military wars did not achieve the expected success as in Vietnam, Afghanistan and Iraq. For this reason, the United States makes its military interventions especially in the states that are not very strong in political and military terms. The US prefers to implement hybrid warfare strategies more to countries that have strong state capacity in certain respects or have a functioning state and public administration. One of the most effective means of this form of war is undoubtedly the economy.

Countries with a fragile economy have to trade or borrow in dollars. The threat that the United States will initiate harsh economic sanctions and isolation will lead to a weakening of the already fragile economic structure of these countries and economic crisis. Because in countries facing this threat, currencies lose value, foreign capital does not come, investments stop and high inflation occurs. As a result, political and economic instability, internal unrest, ethnic and sectarian conflicts, terrorism, corruption and poverty arise. This leads to the loss of power and legitimacy of governments in the face of society which means problem of management. That is the main purpose of the hybrid war. Therefore, no country or state does engage in activities that oppose the domination of the dollar and undermine its position, and they refuse to support those who engage even if they want to because they know the USA approach. This is the main reason why China's alternative has not been able to find sufficient support and it couldn't develop.

This shows that if the economic sanctions and isolation policy are not enough to maintain the dollar's position, it should not be ignored that the next step will be hot conflict. For the USA, the loss of power of the dollar symbolizes the end of US imperialism. Therefore, the USA will want to protect the dominance of the dollar at all costs. For this purpose, it will not hesitate to use hybrid means of warfare to ensure that every country and state, whether friend or foe, that tries to act independently from it acts again within the framework drawn by itself. In this respect, countries facing economic sanctions and isolation and their neighboring countries should be aware of this.

If the sanctioned country and its neighboring states have low state capacity, they are not capable of effectively repelling hybrid attacks / threats. In this context, states that implement hybrid warfare, i.e. aggressive states, first try to destroy the capacity of the state in the target country, to render the mechanisms of state and public administration inoperable and thus provoke the society to rebel against their governments. The fact that the hybrid warfare is implemented by states that are often defined as “friendly” or “strategic partners”, and not by states that are clearly defined as “enemies” on the friend-enemy axis, clearly demonstrates how necessary it is to prepare for this situation and to take necessary political and military measures and to develop effective counter strategies. This is especially much more important and necessary for Turkey, which has a very important geographical position.

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A Glance to the Feminism History

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ABSTRACT

One of the first and most important points that should be considered in feminism debates is its historical trajectory. Feminism, although is a term that has been formed in modern times, the history dates back centuries. In other words, behind the word "feminism" so many fights, hard efforts, and struggles are hidden. And getting to know the history of feminism reveals many of the deprivations, humiliations, insults, ridicules and teases that women have faced overcoming their unequal situations. Although, reading feminism history may appear repeatable but historical approach is so wide and diverse and introduce the effective personalities that illuminate this feminine battle to us every time from different angles. It is a reality that the first reason prompted women's protest initially, not only asking for political or educational rights, but also for asking to have an equal personal, social, and identical role in the society, or in one word not to need to prove themselves as a human who have equal capacity to be independent and not as a secondary or inferior part of the society. Therefore, the aim for writing such a historical paper in a chronic order with a brief approach is reminding different feminism movements that various people from different classes of the community have had a role in shaping it. This concise history helps researchers in the field of gender studies, history and sociology not to ignore the role of different social classes and the impact of different people and seemingly simple events in the emergence and achievement of social movements.

Keywords: Feminism Waves, Feminism History, Women's Movements, Women's Rights, Equality.

INTRODUCTION

The first and most important point that should be considered in feminism debate - especially for those who are starting to know about the real nature of feminism - is making a distinction between the popular definition of feminism and the academic or real form. So, reading the history of feminism helps us to know this distinct as well. Maybe none of us doesn't know this reality that the first reason prompted women's protest initially, not only asking for political or educational rights, but also for asking to have an equal role with men in the society. Women wanted to annihilate the wrong imagination and confrontation which existed for them in a men-established society. Now and although there are so many different theories and ideas in feminism which some of them conflict with each other, at the same time all of them trying to provide some new, useful and functional solutions for women's existing conditions. By this short introduction, try to look over the history of feminism.

DEFINITION OF FEMINISM

Since feminism has considered as a kind of controversial context, I have started my debate by a semantic approach for more illumination and also the correctness of some misunderstanding about the issue, especially for those who have initiated feminism study recently.

In Merriam-Webster dictionary, there are two definitions for feminism; “The theory of the political, economic, and social equality of the sexes.” and also “Organized activity on behalf of women's rights and interests (Merriam Webster Dictionary. "Feminism.", 2018).

And Oxford dictionary helps us find the root of this word too. According to it, revolutions in France and the United States have attracted attention to the concept of women's rights in the late eighteenth century. But in Britain, women's rights, or in other words the feminist attitude, began with the women's right to vote, with a hundred years of deferment, in the late nineteenth century. But and anyway Oxford dictionary traces the origin of "feminism" in France in the late nineteenth century (English Oxford Living Dictionaries. "Definition of Feminism", 2018).

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

The very necessary point which should be mentioned here is my approach in this paper. I tried to present it in a chronical order with highlighting the concepts and events and also people – in both sexes – that have led to a major change in feminism history.

The Ancient Covenant

In the following, with a brief list of different historical periods, I take a glance at the dominant view over women in ancient time. And since the Ancient Covenant has two very influential and important flows, but with two completely different backgrounds, it is examined separately:

Abrahamic Religions

The holy books, and in particular the Old Testament, is our early evidence that attributes Ancestral Sin and the case of expulsion from paradise in the account of creation to Eve. In fact, who has been introduced as a seductive that deceived Adam and made him disobey God was Eve or "A WOMAN"! In the Old Testament, women in general and Eve in particular, are symbols of deviation, evilness, provocative to ancestral sin. As a result, many thinkers, and in particular feminists, believe that discrimination and humiliation of women have historically been rooted in this definition. Yee refers us to the explicit existed words about women in the holy book in addition to his interpretation; "It's portrayal of woman as the embodiment of sin and corruption takes a number of forms, beginning with the one who ostensibly started it all- Eve, the very first woman, the wife of Adam, the mother of all living: From a woman sin had its beginning, and because of her we all die" (Yee, 2003).

Also Carol Gilligan by citing this interpretation, reminds us the ignorance of women during the history is because of this tilt column; " It all goes back, of course, to Adam and Eve _ a story which shows, among other things, that if you make a woman out of a man, you are bound to get into trouble. In the life cycle, as in the Garden of Eden, the woman has been the deviant (Gilligan, 1982).

I must remark here the absolute different narrative of creation in Quran. In the Quran, we found the special verb format – Muthanna⁸⁰- that uses for exactly two people. I mean this kind of verb in Arabic indicates two people in the same level and Quran by using this format signifies Adam and Eve, both and equally have been joined in sinning and the fault attributes both of them as the human being and not a specific gender.⁸¹

Ancient Greek

On a general look, one can find that the woman in ancient Greece was not worth much, and perhaps far less in comparison with the Abrahamic religions. Although this fact should not be forgotten that the birth of girls has not considered as an auspicious event on those days, and maybe till now in some societies. The main reason for it was the lack of their role in the wars and economics, and in a word outside the home. Thus, it should be taken into account that our information about women is due to their lack of presence in history is totally incomplete. And with the advent of the depth of history, this imperfection is even greater.

Although our information about the ancients' people, especially women of them, is very limited, yet, however, it is possible to find some information about them in Homer's Letters. What is to come from studying his work is the lack of independent women in the ancient era. In other words, women were only identified as a daughter or a spouse. The information we get from the study of mythological stories suggests that even in tragedies, women were defined

⁸⁰ Plurality in Arabic is of three types: singular, dual, and plural. Dual which calls muthanna also indicates on two entities and plural indicates on three or more entities.

⁸¹ Quran, Surah or chapter Al-Baqarah, Ayah or verse 35,36

on the margins and under the soles of men. For example, in Troy's battle, Troy asked Hector to present masculine members instead of all women who had surrounded him (Brulé, 2003).

By studying the history of antiquity, we can also find the roots of gender stereotypes that exist today in our world. For example, the duties of men and women at that time were definitely defined by men. Men were responsible to work in the farms, markets and other civil tasks, while women were obliged to make bread and wool and other housework (Brulé, 2003).

Medieval Era

Middle age can be considered as a period of Christian thinking. Indeed, because the Catholic Church was most powerful in this period, all or most of the thinkers of this age, including men and women were known in the Catholic Christian framework. As a result, it can be seen that women in the patriarchal system of the Catholic Church at that time did not have a significant position, and this led to the emergence some new traditions by hard endeavors of some adventurous women who became critics of the church and sought to change the patriarchal values. Among all the women who stood up in the Middle Ages, three of them created three important influences and a new approach to Catholicism, that are referred to below (Schrupp, 2017).

Marguerite Porete (1260-1310), France

She chose a mystical approach instead of the theological, and in her book " *The Mirror of Simple Souls* " expressed the way to God can be only through love and not the church. Due to this mysterious deconstructive thinking as well as the writing her book in the local language, instead of the common Latin language of the Church, she is known as one of the first anarchist women in the feminism history (Schrupp, 2017).

Christine de Pizan (1364 – 1430), Italy

She was one of the most intelligent women who tried to draw her objection to women's situation by writing a book " *The Book of the City of Ladies* ". We have not to forget the moment of she began to write the book! In Medieval time, the dominance of the Catholic Church kept women in a very distinct - low - position in the society. Thus, the discourse she started is considered as an outstanding and different method in the patriarchal religious society. In her book, she endeavored to correct the wrong image of women which was acceptable at the time. She could introduce women not as the semi-dump, disable, and sexual object, as popular existed imagination about them on those days, but who were governing a city or by loaning from the Greek context a "police" where was full of the morality, kindness and Virtue! Christine by writing the book demonstrated that women can reach to Bible or religious goal too. And these concepts are not specialized only for men (Redfern, 1995).

Teresa of Avila (1515-1582), Spain

She was one of the women who built a convent and governed it by different laws from the customary laws of the Catholic Church because she believed that the laws in the church due

to the historical patriarchy are not suitable for women and it's actually laid down for men. And because of this structural change, condemned in Inquisition, but eventually, she was acquitted and, after the death, was introduced as the who could reach a doctoral position in the church hierarchy (Schlau, 2002).

Modern Early Age

Although in modern times it seemed that women would have a better condition with the end of the Church dominance, unfortunately, they were still seen at a lower position and level than men and the only change that has come in women's situation is the change of the masculine approach about women, and nothing else. This means that if in the middle ages women were placed on the margins and lower positions than men, in the modern age, scientists and philosophers still kept women in the same level but with scientific and philosophical pretexts! Therefore, as mentioned above, nothing had changed in reality but the excuses. (Schrupp, 2017).

Although the modern era is located after middle age or post-classical time and has some important and fundamental changes still the status of women did not change a lot. Among modern age, centuries 16 and 18 are more distinct and had some enormous events that are considered as the source of these major changes. In other words, the transition period from medieval catholic dominant culture to the Industrial Revolution in the centuries 16 and 18 is more tangible by what I will remark now.

Sixteenth Century

Three great events occurred in this century, which in itself had a tremendous impact on the lifestyle, thinking, religious beliefs and, in general, the Western world. And since women have been half of the target community, then obviously we will see a profound change in their affairs and issues. These events were; Renaissance or enlightenment age, the Age of Discovery and finally Protestantism movement.

The Importance of Consciousness

One of the most important elements which had a great role in provoking women to have some mobility - and not a movement yet - in the modern era was the "consciousness". The need for awareness among progressive women of this era is seen more than anything else. They realized that they needed to increase awareness among themselves in order to achieve equality. But practically this goal was not possible for women even in modern times. Since, in the Middle Ages, everything was based on the Catholic assumptions, women were not considered as a real human like men who has a human soul, in the following, in modern times merely religious precepts replaced by some other scientific ones. Consequently, the right of education, as an example was not legitimate for women in the modern age again (Schrupp, 2017).

Marie de Gournay (1565 – 1645) (France)

Marie de Gournay can be a good example of those who are aware of their rights and by writing the book - as the most powerful tool of consciousness at that time - made others, and especially women, aware of their rights. She by writing the book "*The equality of men and women*", has entered into the women issue with a human rights approach. Her book was unique in that kind of time because in the seventeenth century she was able to open the dialogue of equality between men and women, which was not only rejected at that time but also unthinkable. For example, she tried to prove the idea of equality between the two sexes by selecting various women of different periods to give examples of successful women who had the same ability and talent like men (Clarke Desmond, 2013).

In this book, she finds out that the patriarchal society of France has closed all paths to any progress of women. Because of the idea which indicates men are superior to women, an obstacle will occur that prevents them from entering into the political and social area, and it is necessary to address and solve this inequality as a first step. She considered women as human beings have equal rights and equal human dignity like men, and by expressing it, defended the femininity as an independent identity (Freeman & Lynn, 2007).

Eighteenth Century

The four revolutions that happened in the middle of the 18th century, changed the world and consequently the lives of women totally; French Revolution, American Revolution, Industrial Revolution, and the Russian Revolution as the historical facts and Immigration from fear, or migrations that are aimed at finding a better job and a better future, as well as the abolition of slavery as consequential results, have had a profound effect on the part of the world, including women.

France Revolution and Women

The role of women during the years 1789 to 1793 in completing the French Revolution was unparalleled and exemplary. Since the "liberty, equality and fraternity" were the main goals of the revolution, so it was clear that women as a part of society whose did not have any of these ideals during the history were in the first line of the battle. But at the end and after the revolution is fought, suddenly, in a strategic turn, women were set aside and the goals of the revolution changed again and inclined to masculinity (Melzer, 1992).

Men not only had forgotten the role of women In the achievement of the revolution, but also started to prohibit women's political activities and finally could be successful and with this excuse that women are not capable to perform any political activity, first omitted them from the political activities in society, then defined for them caring the children as their mere capability and finally in 1793 closed all political organizations which belonged to women (Schrupp, 2017).

Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) (Great Britain)

Mary Wollstonecraft was not only an outstanding philosopher, but also a great feminist of the eighteenth century. Her great job was supporting the social and educational equality for women. That's why she is very famous in women's rights due to writing and publishing one of the first classical feminism texts in 1792 "*A Vindication of the Rights of Women*". What was most important to her, which even distinguished her among other feminists of her time, was this attention to the human essence of women. Referring to the fact that humanity is not unique in a particular gender -masculine-, she first began to argue that if women, like men, have the same natural needs, and thus they have the same natural rights. By raising this issue in the next steps, she directly concluded human nature, equality, and therefore equal rights for women as well as men and by insisting and emphasizing on the same humanity for women could exactly reach the point and proved the equality for women in a large scope, something that had never been imagined before. (Taylor, 2004).

Mary Wollstonecraft and French Revolution

Mary Wollstonecraft benefited from the French revolution as a very good tool for proving what was looking for women's right. Her main insistence was to show the same and equal role of women with men during the revolution. She tried to prove that it is impossible to ignore women's influence in the revolution, while they were fighting as equal as men. Therefore, as both sexes have participated in the revolution, so after the victory and splitting the power, it is the time that the lost or ignored women's identity is defined again to the new society and political regime. She emphasized to mention women's right as formal as men's one in the new constitution. Even she observed this issue as a key change in the society. It means she believed that if women's role does not lead to their new right in the constitution, so in reality, nothing is changed! And again there is the other "Tyranny" in new form instead of a revolution and reformation! And how it could be a revolution with the ideals of equality, justice etc. and half of the society who had the role in realizing it, does not consider again! Mary Wollstonecraft claimed a question to show the importance of women's new rights in the new society. She asked if it is our duty to rebuild ancient castles which are built in old Gothic style, why it is not our duty to rebuild the expired role, thinking and imagination that exist about women and still supports by two particular classes; clerics and aristocrats?! (Duman, 2012).

Wollstonecraft and Denying the Natural Differences

Here, try to looking at Wollstonecraft different and contradictory approach to the mainstream of philosophy and the thinking of that era. If, for example, we pick Rousseau as one of the most important representatives of the mainstream thinking of those days, we will find him in complete opposition to Wollstonecraft. Rousseau defines "serving" as the only value for women. In the other word, women have one duty in the world and that's nothing but serving the men. So far, his thinking - in comparison to his time and place - not so weird, the problem arises between him and Mary Wollstonecraft when Rousseau observes this service as a task that nature has put women in. That is, in other words, women have not the way to escape from it and nature has donated it to them. But on the other side, we have a woman who, as the first

feminist in the modern sense, denies the existence of any natural difference between two genders. Wollstonecraft totally rejected all natural differentiations between men and women and chose it as her main philosophy (Schrupp, 2017).

We must not forget Rousseau's thinking was at that time religiously and even scientifically accepted, and thus the confrontation between Wollstonecraft and Rousseau was very important. For this reason, Rousseau officially articulates and defends the natural difference between the two sexes with such solid backing. But Wollstonecraft, like her next generation of social sympathizers, denies any natural difference between the two sexes, despite the religious and scientific beliefs surrounding it (Owusu Gyamfi, 2016).

Saint-Simon Movement

The founder of this movement was a French nobleman whose name is Claude Henri de Rouvroy (1760-1825). He was one of the social-political reformists who expressed his views through journalistic activities. His main idea in one word was a consideration of profound changing in European societies that resulted in a lot of changes in the lifestyle of the European residents. And since he believed that women were also half of the population of the European community, then they should be included in these changes and indeed the changes were inevitable in their lifestyle and that's why new tasks should be defined for them.

In the same vein, he began publishing a newspaper called "La Femme libre" and delegated all responsibility for writing, publishing, editing, etc. to women. Although many times the name of the newspaper was changed, but after a while, women who worked in Henry's newspaper, little by little created the women branch of the San Simon movement. They used the opportunity that Henry provided them to move forward to be independent and free from male domination. One of the main factors which helped the women to reach a freedom from men's domination was the secular approach of the movement. Claude Henri did not have any religious conditions for membership in the movement so that they would not follow any male doctrine. They put all their efforts in scientific, educational, moral and economic advancement that ultimately led to their independence and withdrew them from male domination. These women by opening some discussions about equal civil rights and the same humanistic notion in their newspaper finally could prove the necessity of gender equality (Forget, 2011).

Henri's ideal was so different from those of his own age and that's why his movement considers as one of the most influential feminist movements in the second wave. He was the first man to seek a society and a world that embraced both sexes equally. He always insisted that for having an ideal world, we need to observe and also mix women's sensation and men's wisdom⁸². The women of Saint-Simon were known as deconstructed women. In fact, it could be said that deconstruction was one of the most prominent features of this movement. Among their decoding tasks, we can mention their decision to wear pants under short skirts - something that was not customary at the time. But they followed two goals by doing that; first, insisting

⁸² Although now this sentence has a misleading attitude and maybe be accused of having a stereotypical mistake for assigning wisdom to men and sensation to women, it must not be ignored the time, place and situation that he expressed!

on their personal right for choosing their clothes and second, breaking the prohibition of using pants by women as it only was defined only as men's cloth style (Schrupp, 2017).

If I want to explain more about the role of Saint Simon movement in women realm, I should consider the pragmatic approach which Claude Henri entered into women issues unprecedentedly. In this movement, women were observed by his innovative proposal and consequently many of their issues could be solved by supporting him as a male character who has concerns the women (Forget, 2011). Clearly, on those days supporting women by a man gave much more power and also impact to any movement.

As a more instance, I should refer to the situation of women socially and economically in France, on those days. Women were not entitled to present their ideas in any issue except their house works and domestic role. Entering women in some debates like the economy and then, politics was a tremendous leap in recognizing women as capable creatures. And finally, these trained women by Saint Simon Movement could ask for their rights by writing and have considered as one of the factors of feminist organizations in the future (Forget, 2011).

Flora Tristan (1803-1844) (France)

She is one of the famous women of Saint Simon movement. An activist, writer, thinker and at the same time a fighter woman who did what she believed in. Although part of her reputation belongs to her famed family members, she alone is a famous and successful figure who, unfortunately, is not well-known for some reason, including sexual stereotypes that even still exist. My reason for this claim is that she wrote her famous book "*The Workers Union*" in 1843 which thoroughly articulated the idea of economic equality by stating the equality between the value of the works of male and female workers. She was looking for a social utopia that both sexes can work in an equal condition and to be seen by equal evaluation. And her main motive in writing the book was remembering this equality between all workers. A book that is almost the same as Karl Marx referred to several years later in the "*Manifesto of Communism*" and Tristan described it well. She believed and posed also that emancipation of workers' class not only specialized men but also women. Liberty in her opinion was a value for both sexes and it can't happen if one side is ignored or eliminated (Talbot, 1991).

She was a real activist. As a sample, she tried to change the rules of divorce in favor of women as much as possible. Also, she travelled from France to Peru and England to address and promote the idea of equality between workers and to inform them of the necessity of eliminating the different classes which were existed between workers and employers (Collins & Weil-Sayre, 1973).

John Stuart Mill, A Man as a Great Feminist

John Stuart Mill is one of the vibrant characters in women movements. He has belonged to the Victorian age; however, what he has done is considered part of the feminist movements. Although he has a lot of works in many realms like morality, philosophy, politics and economy but what made him as a women's right defender were two things; a great book

which was written by him and the collaboration of her wife; Harriet Taylor and secondly, what he did practically in women's right. Writing the book; "*The subjection of women*", that presents the arguments in favour of gender equality was totally strange in the Victorian period and the nineteenth century, and become stranger when was written by a man of course!

His book at the time of publication, contradicted the accepted norms by the European community regarding the status of men and women. In this book, he mentions his concern from the outset and in many cases of inequality between the two sexes; he tried to give a lack of moral justification in women's situation on those days. And for that showed an inherent inequality between the men and women which makes women be a slave and subordinate to men (Stuart Mill, 1878).

In addition, he did not consider the above idea- slavery and subordination- as a social or traditional subject but observed the roots of this subjugation in politics and in particular in the division of power. He believed that there is not any instinctive difference between the two sexes, and what exists in human nature is the same desire for power that no one wants to lose, whether it is between two classes of society or between the two sexes. So it's clear that the lack of desire for men to have sexual equality is actually a kind of preservation of power (Stuart Mill, 1878).

The importance of Mill in feminism movements and debates is his deep and also multilateral analysis on women issues that led to a deconstructive revolution in his society despite all accepted masculine values. He observed women's issue and in particular, women subjugation not only as a false custom that needs to be corrected but also as a political, social and revolutionary decision that should lead to fundamental changes in the area of rights and laws. He believed that women's subjugation will be harmful to men as a half of the society too (Szapuová, 2006) .

Mill challenged women's marriage and their degree of discretion in a particular case. He brought up the repeated but imperfect cycle that influences women's lives and forecloses freedom from them. He observed marriage as the main reason for subordinating women because after that they lose all privacy, property rights and even the very limited freedoms they had before. But from the other side, they have no choice except marriage in society and it means they never can feel what freedom is! (Szapuová, 2006).

Indeed, Mill wanted to highlight as long as the society, religion and culture defined women as kind of beings under the guardianship of the father before the marriage and afterwards, under the guardianship of the husband, women will always be slaves, and only the masters will change. And that's why men should seek equality and cooperative with women. Because they are the ones who can apply equality of rights as the social norms and they can change the rules for the benefit of women as the owners of the power and create fundamental changes by changing in education, policies and labour rules, reciprocity and respects at the community level (Szapuová, 2006).

He is in some sense a radical feminist and, in other sense, a liberal. He is considered as a radical because he believes that the cause and motive of the inequality between the two sexes must be totally eradicated so that the relations between man and woman become equivalent. And is observed as a liberal feminist due to believing in equality in all realms of the community, including job opportunities and access to the same resources for both genders and providing equal position for women given that they can make their own decisions freely for themselves (Szapuová, 2006).

TRIPLE WAVES OF FEMINISM

The struggles of women in every period have followed different demands according to their necessities, aspirations and needs. Hence, these different epochs of their fight call as feminism waves. The centuries nineteen and twenty are the blooming days of feminism as principal movements for demanding the rights on behalf of the women. I used the term "principal" because although the history has a lot of evidence of women's fight and even goes back centuries, but the fight of women in the late of the nineteenth century has observed and registered in the history specifically. And the reasons for this trait can be women's awareness compared to the previous periods as well as the industrial revolution and the emergence of new thoughts.

First Wave

In fact, the activities and movements that have occurred during the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th by women in Britain, Canada, and the United States of America, is known as the first wave of feminism⁸³. These countries were the main places in the world where these struggles began_ probably, there were some other efforts in other countries at the same time too, but these movements in these parts of the world were more outstanding _The focuses of those movements were on inequalities in the legal rights that were existed on those days in the almost all realms, and mainly the acquisition of the right to vote or suffrage for women (McAfee, 2018).

Although Mary Wollstonecraft was not present at the time and place of the first wave of feminism, due to the significant role had a great impact on women of the next generation of feminism, and also the notion of "equal natural rights" was considered as one of the keywords in the first wave.

Seneca Falls Convention

In 1848 women gathered in Seneca Falls to set up a convention for women to have the right to vote in the United States which today is known as suffrage movement. Indeed, they were trying to examine the social, civil, religious, and legal status of women and then the meetings spread across the U.S. cities. Although Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony

⁸³ Although in some divisions, the eighteenth century was also included in the first wave of feminism, yet some also attributed the first wave of feminism to the onset of women's targeted movements in the early 20th century. However, the eighteenth century is discussed separately in this essay because of the important events and milestones and the prominent personalities in this area.

and Lucretia Mott were the main organizers of the Conference of Seneca Falls, but not to forget the conference and the achievements were not only based on their efforts but on many women's endeavor throughout the history. (Holcomb, 2013)

The outcome of the conference was the first official step in recognizing women's rights, and eventually could make some important achievements for women. The idea of "equal natural creation" which was inherited from Wollstonecraft was the most important issue that the conference participants emphasized and finally were able to recognize equal rights for women by using and citing it. The Seneca Falls was the first women's rights conference in the US. history which ended to a series of conventions such as "National Convention on Women's Rights" and became as the widespread women's claims and protests and annual series of meeting in the whole of the United States (Holcomb, 2013).

Declaration of the Independence as an Inspiring of the Declaration of Rights of Women and Sentiments

The importance of the declaration is recognizing women's rights in the religious, social and civil areas and was the main part of challenging debates in the conference of Seneca Falls. And regardless of the results it was the first meeting with participation of women in the United States and also the only one that was allowed to women to be held by them and for them to ask their demands. Of course should be considered the Declaration of Independence (1776) was the root or inspiring of the Declaration of Rights and Sentiments.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton

Indeed, Stanton could fulfill women's targets by using Jefferson⁸⁴'s method in the Declaration of Independence; she could defend and validate women's rights in the same way and by completely rational arguments. The method which its name is "Categorical Syllogism" derived from logical analogies. As Jefferson could make a convention based on the concept of "natural rights" and the necessity for protecting it, which ultimately led to the withdrawal of the United States from British colonialism, Stanton did the same method to get rid women (Watson, 2017).

Jefferson considered "life, liberty and pursuit of happiness" as all men's first and basic rights and Stanton by revising Jefferson's definition, inclined it to the women's right. She added "women" to the phrase "All men are created equal" and once again emphasized the inherent equality between the two sexes. The second reference to Declaration of Independence that Stanton used, was about the interpretation of natural rights and the necessity of supporting them by the government. She recalled that as Jefferson accused and finally condemned the British government for the failure to maintain the natural rights of United States residents as colonial governments, now U.S. government cannot keep safe women's natural rights too (Watson, 2017).

⁸⁴ Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) was the third president of United States and had a great role in writing the Declaration of Independence and also getting rid of America from Britain colonialism.

Cady Stanton listed 16 cases that are exemplified in abusing women and ignoring their natural rights. The items she cited included as economic independence means ownership, unequal level of education, employment, and even the existence of dual criteria in the moral judgments in women issues defined by the U.S. government. Ultimately, she was able to emancipate women of the many cases that violated their natural rights by putting forward matters such as the rationalistic analogies, and the most considerable of them was the legal and equal status of women with men after the Seneca Falls (Watson, 2017).

Susan B. Anthony

The role played by Susan Anthony in the process of women's voting right was, in fact, the continuity of the movement that began for women's rights elsewhere in the United States. But if we want to find out the reason for the differentiation from other women's acts in the process of suffrage, we can point to some important cases that even have been challenged from racism aspect. First of all, she was one of the few women who could register and vote in the polls because, in other parts of the United States, some women even failed to register. She was able to vote at Rochester by convincing the responsible inspector although later she was arrested for this vote and one of the most famous judicial cases in American history was named after her; "*United States v. Susan B. Anthony*". After being arrested, she was able to condemn the federal laws of the United States in a court of law. The other case that was more challenging and has been criticized for the racism, was her refusal for the signing of The Fifteenth Amendment's reference to the "right of citizens of the United States to vote" along with another member of "National Woman Suffrage Association"; Cady Stanton. The amendment issued the right to vote for all US citizens -belongs to every color and class- but unfortunately and again women were the exceptions. (Gordon, 2005).

The critics were due to the lack of signing the Fifteenth amendment by Cady Stanton and Susan Anthony. They believed that the amendment is the first serious step after the abolition of slavery, which blacks have enjoyed as equal as whites in citizenship in addition to having equal politic rights. But those two also had their own arguments. They supposed despite the fact that women and men were equally entitled in the amendment, but women were deprived of their right to vote because they were not essentially considered as citizens (Gordon, 2005).

Second Wave

The second wave of feminism which is also known as women's freedom movement is a period of women's activities in the United States-specifically-, which began in the early 1960s and continued until the late 1990s. While the first wave of feminism focused mainly on reforming the legal barriers to gender equality (for example, first the right to vote and second property), the second wave of feminism focused on informal and legal inequalities among gender, family, and workplaces, and finally women's property right. But with all the mentioned shortcomings that women still were seeking to eliminate, their situation was far better than in previous decades due to identity and career. Also, the second wave of feminism is known for arising more independent and autonomous movements. That can be because, women were able to find their lost identity - compared to before- and also, some of the earlier restrictions, such

as the ban on women's talk in other public gatherings, have been levelled out and they have found the right to express their opinion like men (Schrupp, 2017).

Second Wave with Most Political Requests, Approaches and Inclination

If in the first wave, women only tried to have voting right and that was considered clearly as a political component of the feminist movement, in the second wave all women's claims that apparently had nothing to do with politics, were completely grasped as political. For example, before, what we saw from women's demands were: abortion right, civil right, body property and positivity and sexual freedom, and these demands have little to do with politics, but the later interpretation in second wave changed them completely as political (Schrupp, 2017).

If I want to summarize each other's communication, abortion is actually the right of women to own their own body. It means they were presenting a new determination of their body as their fundamental right. Or, when they sought to incorporate domestic activities such as housekeeping and childcare into defined jobs, they were, in fact, doing a revolution in the redefinition of civil rights for a female gender as a half of citizens. Also, acknowledging that violence against women under no circumstances and without any excuse should not be accepted by the community, since "body positivity" is not only applied to men but women (Schrupp, 2017).

As stated above, the highest level of women's demands in the second wave resumes political, which can be seen in three of their majors, which in fact constitute the main forms of second wave's women's demands. And they resulted in the recognition of three new categories in women's right; Ownership right on the body, domestic violence and the gendered division of labor (Schrupp, 2017).

Ownership Right on Body

In fact, the main purpose of this appeal is the issue of abortion, because abortion is commonly found in all Abrahamic religions as an unforgivable sin and as a murder of another human being. And throughout history, women have always faced with restrictions and sometimes severe penalties for abortion from both religions and communities and even from their families. This is always an unresolved equation for women. The formation and process of the issue was like this; if abortion belongs to the woman's body, then why do women have no effective and decisive role in continuing pregnancy or abortion? And it was the same question that provided the basis for the claim of "ownership of the body". (Schrupp, 2017)

Beauty as Another Example of Women's Right to Own their Own Body

But although the right to abortion gave rise to the main claim, as well as to the remarkable victory of women in the second wave, certain other demands, other than abortion, have been made on women's claims as to ownership rights to their bodies. One of them was the issue of "beauty" that Helena Darwin illustrates its relation to women's body ownership completely.

Actually, one part of the women movement in the second wave was challenging the “beauty” as one of the most essential attributions in womanhood. The famous slogan on those days “the personal is political,” seemed to be just a simple slogan emphasized on beauty. But in its own vein, was a completely political that was chosen in line with the main goals of feminism and based on the principle of women's independence. Although Body Positivity movement started on 1969 by the objection of thousands of women to the American culture and the policy of using women's beauty as a deceptive factor in society, the movements continued on the third wave and even till now but with some changes. What women were looking for in this movement was concentrated on the elements and definition of beauty (Darwin, 2017).

Indeed, they protested American criteria and belief about beauty in women's issue. Although the element of beauty on those days was limited to certain determinants, today we see that determining the criteria for the beauty of women covers almost all aspects of their lives and entering into all of their private parts of their lives such as nutrition, sports, quantity and quality of sleep, and so on. What this movement actually sought can be divided into two parts: firstly, the prevention from men's interference as the opposite and dominant sex and secondly, sending away masculine gender as the power holders from the private sphere of women and in particular their bodies (Darwin, 2017).

The women, with their successive protests, searched to prove that their bodies, whatever they were, should be accepted by themselves and not by anyone else. Secondly, there must be no relation between the apparent appearance of women and their social status, since otherwise; it would be a form of discrimination between them and men. If the body of men, with any form and shape, is not a determining factor for their presence and achievement in the society, it should also be the case for women. In other word while “body image” of women is related to “social issues” we encounter a clear indication of gender discrimination (Darwin, 2017).

Domestic Violence

The concept of domestic violence was, in fact, one of the concepts that were introduced in the second wave of feminism. Not to forget, until that time, male domination had taken place, and nobody could define it as something immoral or as a behavior contrary to custom. But since the "male domination" and their superiority were questioned, a new concept called "domestic violence" and added in modern women literature.

Many debates about domestic violence have continued until today and with different points. For instance, one of the points here is that only violence against women not involves being beaten or hurt by fathers, brothers or husbands. Violence against women, with the arrival of the modern world, also found different meanings. And as a forward step, a campaign like “MAVAW” was set up to challenge the porn industry by protesting on one of “Rolling Stone's record cover and billboards”. This word, which actually is an acronym for "MEN AGAINST VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN" protested to the methods that invited people to use the natural attractions of women for all kinds of entertainments, invitations, events, travels, and so on. The main message of this campaign is challenging the question “why women should be

used as some instruments in the commercial and economic ends of others?” and that's where it can be changing the image with letter writing to broadcasting companies, and eventually reach the goal. Subsequently, the campaign asked a guarantee that the companies do not use such images again (Baxandall & Gordon, 2008).

Gendered Division of Labor

The gender revolution of the 1960s and 1970s led to a new category in women's lives. The main problem began when the women took the house works into question. It is clear that on those days there were not any debate about gender labor clichés or some new modern labor conception. The issue was the defined responsibility in private and social lives which was based on gender. It means men were always in charge of earning money and women only defined as the housewives or some related labor like raising the children. In another word this definition induced this conception that a woman would not or could not be present anywhere other than her home. And it meant that women can never earn any money because housework is what they had to do and it always unpaid! So, this movement followed two items or definitions that can help women to be observed not only as a home operant but also enter to labor market and earn money. Therefore, for reaching this target, they need to change the definitions of motherhood and fatherhood or changing this conception that women only are capable to work inside the house and men in the outside. Or caring the children is only feminine responsibility and not vice versa. So, it was not only a labor movement but a cultural before (Yavorsky, Kamp Dush, & Schoppe, 2015).

New Definitions, New Conflicts

Of course, it should be mentioned that there were many differences or maybe conflixtions among feminists' movements in the second wave in different realms like labor, bodies' ownership, etc. Now I try to mention some of them to learn more about the causes of some of these conflicts.

Labor and Different Ideas among Women

For example, on labor subject, some of the feminists totally rejected all distinct classification which based on the gender, due to considering it as a part of the bourgeois culture. Or some other feminists observed this division as a potential danger for women because they believed that even if housework and childcare were defined as a definite and valuable responsibility for women, there is no guarantee that women can enter to the labor market besides they could be unpaid – even if they could leave the house and enter to labor market- and ultimately wait for state pension. In other words, the mainstream of the second wave sought to create unconditional equality in all domains for both sexes and considered such divisions can be an obstacle to the attainment of the main objective and equality (Schrupp, 2017).

Different Strategies

Another reason that can be given to these autonomous feminism movements is the lack of consent of women from the activities of the organizations and parties were endeavouring for

women's rights. Women considered these efforts neither adequate nor strategic. They believed these organized movements do not contain any politic strategy and therefore, these feminists faced with some organizations which cannot demand women's desire properly. For this reason, they decided to rely on their own efforts and establish the organizations by themselves that to be completely independent (Schrupp, 2017).

SDS

SDS or "Socialist German Student" is one of the very organizations which insisted on "self" in feminism context. In fact, it could be said that this movement had chosen a different approach from American movements, the same ones that suffering from a lack in the alliance approach. This movement, which had a leftist view, believed that there was no other "alliance" among feminists, and that could be the reason for their weaknesses. In addition, practically a part of women like immigrants and colored one in the current - it means American-feminist approach have been forgotten (Schlaeger & Vedder-Shults, 1978).

Third Wave

The third wave of feminism includes many different perspectives in the field of study and feminist activities and used by Rebecca Walker first in her article "Becoming the Third Wave" in 1992. The exact historical boundary for the beginning of the third wave is not consensual, because it can be many factors that maybe could be considered as the third wave features. Anyway, this movement emerged as a reaction to the defeats, plans, claims, acts, and even achievements of the second wave. In other words, in the third wave, we observe some redefinitions about women which tried to indicate and emphasize the independence of women from any other external factor that supposed can donate power to them. This new wave highlights a perception that women can create a sense of empowerment in their own identity by using some new conceptions which can redefine them as powerful, courageous, and totally independent without any need to any man for being observed (Schrupp, 2017).

Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 1995

United Nations Conference in China in 1995, can be considered as a starting point of the third wave of feminism. Although there have been many conferences on women which held by UN in the past concretely; Mexico City, Copenhagen and Nairobi, but Beijing conference has had a prominent feature. The Beijing Conference was unique for the reasons ahead, firstly, dedicating a more practical and strategic approach to women issue, secondly, paying close attention to women issue and a step forward to bring them out from the margin, thirdly, promoting equality in the areas of politics, society, education, etc. between men and women, fourthly, paid especial attention for the first time to the rights of LGBTQ and the environments centered on women. If we want to more accurately outline the achievements of the Beijing Conference, which were first introduced, we should mention the following points:

- The distinction between "sex as the biological characteristics" and "gender as a social assignment"

- Emphasis on eradicating poverty among women in particular
- Convicting different types of violence against women
- Neither existence nor acceptance of any defined pattern based on the biological characteristics of the two sexes
- Emphasis on the role of society and education in the emergence of accepted sexual patterns (Schrupp, 2017) & (OUN, 1995).

Furthermore, we can observe more observations regards to race, ethnic, transgenders people, immigrants, women and other social classes in the third wave. In other words, in this wave, we see an attempt to fill the gaps of former waves which did not pay attention to these issues. Hence the rise of this general sense about the issues above mentioned makes the third wave wider but at the same time more inconsistent compared with previous movements of women. Also, the situations of women were totally changed comparing with two last centuries, so women in the third wave of feminism that coincided the late of the 20th century were more powerful, independent (political and economic) and of course more educated, thus their activities, movements, and the targets they seek, were different from before.

Rebeca Walkers

She is the one of the most famous feminist in the third wave due to she used for the first time the term “Third Wave” in her article in 1992 in Ms. Magazine. What she did in the article that made her a feminist leader was challenging the suppression that still exists on women in the societies.⁸⁵ What she proposed as a solution that is considered as a new strategy is an integration between the equality and the power in women issues. She believes if women become closer to each other and establish a relationship based on “sisterhood”, they will find much more power to give their rights and get out the ignorance and even change the world. In fact, her main idea is that women must release their voice and move forward but totally united with each other, because the termination of women's suppression after the second wave is not a fact and it still continues in other forms (Walker, 2006).

REDEFINITION AND NEW MOVEMENT

After the invitation of Rebecca Walker for unity, many of the feminists began to analyze the situation of women in the modern society. For example, Kathleen Iannello presents some of these proposals, new methods, suggestions and theories which can help for getting new goals.

One of the most important of those ideas is “redefinition of terms”. She gives help from Linda Hirschmann and says what we need in the third wave of feminism is a redefinition of some terms. They start with the word “family”. Obviously, “family” in our new and modern society found a different meaning with the past time, so we should consider this change and adjust our policy according to this changes. In the past time, family were a place where women

⁸⁵ Concretely, she has challenged one of the US judicial cases about the sexual harassment of Clarence Thomas and Anita Hill.

should only do their maternal responsibilities, but now we encounter with a new phenomenon in a family; “Redistribution of resources” and this is not only a superficial or literal change but a fundamental. When we talk about “ethic of care” or “natural inclination” of women, in reality, we are emphasizing their cultural role in their home or in other words in their private realm. But when we are focusing on the political role of woman as our new modern demand, actually we are remembering and also recognizing the deep change in women responsibility. Now, we do not attribute motherhood on women as their only task, but we ask them to redefine and then fulfil their new political responsibilities in the society. The key point of the debate is reminding new and up to date demands for new definitions, tasks and movements which will lead to a profound change in many parts of our lives as a woman; our society, our concerns, our approaches and the most important; our minds (Iannello, 2005).

Queer Theory

Here, we will come up with a theory that actually has a transition from the second wave to the third. This theory, put forward by Judith Butler (1956-present), opened a way for the discussion of gender diversity and recognition of their rights.

Judith Butler's main idea is around some genders that nobody paid attention before. Usually, gender category was divided exclusively into two distinct types; male and female, and nobody thought it can be more and some other different genders too, therefore we encounter some identities that do not necessarily fit in the contexts of being a male or a female. Actually and more clearly we see and define ourselves as a man or a woman. But Judith Butler introduces us to the third one too, who are not sick or disable, but in her opinion, they are only "outside of norms". It means if the majority of people assume that there are two complementary genders in the world, a queer person cannot be matched in the form of any of these two categories (Schrupp, 2017).

Post Feminism

As mentioned before, when Rebecca Walkers warned that women’s movement is not completed and thus no terminated, the third wave started, and is not finished yet. Now the problem is that many people think the third wave of feminism is equivalent with post-feminism while this is not the case and there is no anonymity between the third wave and post-feminism, actually, the term “post-feminism” was generated when some contradictions between the mainstream of feminism appeared. In fact, some feminists imagined what women were looking for such as voting right, abortion, gender equality, etc. now is fulfilled and feminism has achieved all targets, therefore, there is no necessity to continue the movements and ask for new demands.

This idea which supported also by many American men -even they started to some new masculine movements - led to the new concerns by women which caused to emergence the post-feminism. Should be careful the post feminism is not considered as the fourth wave of feminism. In fact, the post-feminism was a claim that appeared among men and some women. A statement that, with optimism, proclaimed the end of the discrimination against women, and

as a result, invited them to terminate their fight for their rights! Therefore “post-feminism” is not a movement in favor of women, on the contrary, it consists some types of oppositions and conflicts and in precise word countermovement that came after the second wave of feminism in relation to women's rights (Schrupp, 2017).

Different Feminisms

There are some categories and classifications in feminism history such as Marxism, social, liberal, radical etc. But if we want to illustrate these differentiations in their goals and beliefs, it can be divided into two main groups with different approaches; one of them-radicals-believes that women have a special and unique identity which is totally distinct from men and that's why we need a new observation of women's value which is ignored before. The radicals also are divided into other sects; one of them, who are American feminists normally, consider the “society” as the main reason of this differentiation while others, also more French feminists, only realized that these distinctions between sexes have symbolic and psychoanalytic roots and no more. These different approaches not only limited to the names or some superficial categories but in all part of women's lives (McAfee, 2018).

For instance, “Carol Gilligan” as a believer in the existence of a deep differentiation between sexes, defines a new ethic, politic, responsibility etc. for women based on these presumptive feature and distinction. Gilligan introduces “ethic of care” which only belongs to women and their mentality and attitudes, decisions and whole life of them are affected by this unique feature (Gilligan, 1982).

On the other side, we observe a feminist like “Luce Irigaray” emphasizes the essence of women as a key for their identities. She rejects what social Anglo-American feminists say about women and believes what made women in margin is the wrong position of them during the history, where was “the men's mirror negation” and this inappropriate position turned them into people who were neither female nor male (McAfee, 2018).

Another group of feminists found the issue from another position. They tried to ask about the identity, position and situation of colored, working-class, or women residing in the colonized countries who cannot be identified in none of the category of white-educated women. Because if an identity, in accordance with the definition of radical and cultural feminists, is indispensable to a society or it is entirely intrinsic, then all women of the underprivileged classes separate from the rest and require a new identity! In another words, we recognize here that politics and economy can change and shape women's identities. It means if women's identities are based on the reality of their lives, therefore again feminists open a field for more suppression on them. Because what they advise to this group of woman is acceptance their identity as it is and do not do anything change it as it is useless (McAfee, 2018)!

McAfee gives us a real example that helps us to understand the sex and race challenge in politics. In 2008 when Barack Obama and Hillary Clinton were running for the presidency, no black woman charges Obama why you betrayed my sex? And also did not charge Clinton why you betrayed my race (McAfee, 2018)?

Free Love against Church and Bourgeois

I chose marriage issue or free love as an example to indicate the type of troubles which women had been encountered during the fights for their basic rights. Marriage by their own will or eradicating any forced marriage was a dream for them on those days and could gain it along with the struggles with the church of Christianity and bourgeois class and of course, after obtaining it, they encountered quite a lot of different reflections on it in Europe as a whole (Schrupp, 2017).

Confrontation with the Church

Although the consent of women to marriage was part of Christian teaching, it was ignored by the medieval church and since the divorce was not permitted in the Catholic Church too, women's satisfaction or dissatisfaction after marriage was also ignored. As a result, the issue of free love or the right to have a free marriage was a kind of sexual independence for women that were not acceptable to the church at all. (Schrupp, 2017).

Confrontation with Bourgeois Class

As the bourgeois class always had a good relationship with the church, they were considered as the supporters and defenders of Catholic Church. Thus those resolute believers who adhered to the customs and set up their lives within the framework of the church laws, clearly were against the workers and the lower classes of the society, who usually married and elected the spouse freely and outside the church. That's why they could easily be separated from each other because they did not have official church marriages. Sometimes, even some of their women, without any formal relationship got pregnant and had children. As a result, the free love which promoted by the feminists was on the contrary to the bourgeoisie values and belonged to the lower class who do not care about the costume. Each unofficial marriage and divorce had no definition in the bourgeois class and only was assigned to the subordinate people and the working class of the community. So it is clear that they did not want to imitate other's low values even in the name of women's right So it is clear that they did not want to imitate other's low values even in the name of women's right (Schrupp, 2017).

CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, I can point to many things, but as the title shows, it was a brief history of feminism, so I only mention some outstanding points. Surveying feminism history can be useful for researchers in many realms like sociology, gender study, history, religions, etc. because they can observe a regular historical course by different aspects and all its ups and downs. By this paper can see how the human society was in the past centuries for women. We can also measure women's situation on those days and find the deterrent or auxiliary factors in their improvement. We can observe the profound gender gap which women had wrestled with them for centuries and finding out that what nowadays considered as our basic and definite rights, had been impossible for them. We should remember for reaching ideals, have to start from beginnings, exactly like those women who struggled for suffrage and ultimately could

open the path for their political rights and role. We should not forget, having concern is not limited to some particular member of society, but we need to be connected and surround ourselves by our supports and powers to multiply our strength. Also should remember it is impossible to have a humanistic vision and at the same time excluding or omitting one part from the rest. And last but not least, the historical development of mankind is accompanied by its moral evolution. If today we find something weird and unacceptable, it may be common and significance for the next generation, who will come after us.

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Aspects of Measuring the Real Convergence Process – Catching Up Issues in Hungary

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ABSTRACT

The paper primarily focuses on the analysis and quantification of the economic catching up process in terms of real economics through the example of Hungary. In 2004 the European Union accomplished an expansion of unprecedented scale in the scope of which ten new member states joined the 15 existing members of the community in one huge step. During the period leading up to and immediately following the expansion, a great number of analyses and reports saw the light of day that attempted to evaluate the further development potentials of the ten new member countries. These analyses and reports, however, considered the European Union as if it were a uniform and homogenous set and used it as a basis for comparison in their projections. Therefore, leaving these false assumptions behind, to gain a more reliable evaluation of the convergence processes of a country (for example Hungary) and to make an adequate comparison of the results, we find it highly advisable to lay down different performance levels. Our analysis only encompasses real convergence, which means that we only analyse the catching-up process and opportunities of Hungary with a view to its GDP per capita figures, its main labour market indicators and productivity.

Keywords: Convergence, Catching up, Hungary, Cluster Analyses, Beta and Sigma Convergence.

INTRODUCTION⁸⁶

This paper intends to make an analysis dealing with catching-up and equalisation within the member states of the European Union. The significance of the topic lies in the definition of European Union. The EU is a unique and willing, political and economic partnership of twenty-eight countries with the aim of improving mobility, stability and economic growth. The main criterion for the well-functioning and efficient operation of the EU is related to Mundell's 1961 article, which leans toward making currency areas more homogeneous (Mundell, 1961). From the point of convergence theory, this has a simple message in reality: A sustainable European Union must comprise countries with about the same economic development levels, namely less developed countries should develop faster than their "richer" members.

In connection with economic convergence in this paper four research questions are analyzed:

1. How can convergence researches be categorized?
2. What types of convergence definitions can be identified?
3. What groups of countries can be defined in terms of real convergence?
4. How can Hungary's convergence performance be qualified?

To answer these questions the paper discusses the changes in Hungary's real convergence in three areas only⁸⁷:

1. from the aspect of equalisation among EU member states⁸⁸ based on GDP per capita figures,
2. based on the number of years required to reach the GDP per capita mean value of the European Union,
3. by categorising EU member states according to GDP per capita, employment rate and productivity.

Our paper first deals with convergence researches and the typology of economic convergence. This is followed by the description of our methodology for measuring real convergence, and then the paper presents the main results, which can be appropriate for determining groups of EU countries based on their level of development, and which describe Hungary's position in the convergence process in a multiple way.

⁸⁶ This paper was prepared in the framework of research workshop „Micro- and macroeconomics processes in the past and present” provided by the Excellence Found of Budapest Business School University of Applied Sciences. The paper is also a shorter digest of author's work (see references Tóth, 2019).

⁸⁷ The limitations of space do not allow for presenting all the indicators used in the study as time series, so it is not done here.

⁸⁸ In calculations regarding the EU member states, the data of Luxemburg are ignored. The country's excellent data are such outliers that would have distorted the results.

LITERATURE

Theoretical Background

In international publications, convergence is interpreted as the regional equalisation of income per capita (Dauderstädt, 2014), accordingly whether poorer countries grow faster than the rich ones over the analysed period. If the GDP per capita of less developed countries increases at a rate higher than those of the more developed countries, there is convergence between the analysed countries, and if no such relationship is identified between the growth rates, we talk about divergence. Of these analyses, the theory of Barro and Sala-i-Martin is a ground-breaking one; it confirmed a 2% converge among the regions of Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom, France, the Netherlands, Belgium and Denmark between 1950 and 1985 with the help of GDP growth and deviation over regions (Barro – Sala-i-Martin, 1991).

Based on the methodology of Barro and Sala-i-Martin, Goecke found that the relationship between the income by capita figures of the 15 EU member states in 1950 and the growth rates of income until 2012 had a negative sign. Goecke proved that the more disadvantaged EU countries were able to get closer to their more developed peers in the analysed period, so convergence could be confirmed in the region. However, in 2007 convergence process reached a turning point, after then divergence is demonstrable (Goecke, 2013).

Kaitila exposed beta- and sigma-convergences among 27 EU member states between 1999 and 2012. Gill and Raiser made convergence calculations over a wider period and confirmed sigma-convergence among the 27 member states between 1950 and 1980, and 2000 and 2010, and last Cuaresma and his co-authors identified beta-convergence for 28 EU member states over the period of 1995-2009 (Kaitila, 2013; Gill-Raiser, 2012; Cuaresma et al. 2012). In summary our conclusion is that these studies confirmed convergence among all the member states based on the changes in their GDP per capita figures.

Further direction of convergence researches analyses how much the 12 member states that joined the EU in 2004 or later were able to catch up with the former members. Vojinović et al. analysed how much the ten countries joining in 2004 gained on each other and on the former 15 member states, they showed that beta- and sigma-convergence existed, and their calculations also incorporating the EU15 average figures furthermore confirmed that the difference between the new and old member states amortised over the analysed period (Vojinović et al., 2009).

Busch confirmed the success of the catching-up process between the countries joining the union in 2004 and the other member states by presenting that, after the accession, the foreign trade relations of the new member countries and the international flow of capital and people had expanded by 2012. The author furthermore confirmed the acceleration of the convergence process by pointing out that the gross national income, gross investment volume, gross domestic consumption, R&D expenses and net capital volume got increasingly closer to the EU15 mean (Busch, 2014).

Filipetti and Peyrache explained the acceleration of the catching-up of the 12 new member states with the EU15 by the closing of the technological gap and the improvement of productivity (Filipetti-Peyrache, 2013).

Ever since the Maastricht Treaty was executed, the analysis of the convergence criteria set for EMU membership, that is, nominal convergence, has also become a focus of analyses. Apart from nominal and real convergence, further convergence indicators have appeared in different studies, such as the analysis of well-being, standard of living, democracy and the political system of institutions (Dauderstädt, 2014).

In summary: these second part of studies focuses more on convergence between country groups and on the equalization, but these researches already build on different indicators, not only GDP exclusively. For summarizing these researches, Table 1 contains the typology of papers referred above:

Table 1: Convergence researches

Convergence within country groups		Convergence between country groups	
Methodology	Indicator	Methodology	Indicator
Beta and sigma convergence	GDP per capita	Time series comparison	Many, different from GDP
Within Germany, Italy, United Kingdom, France, Netherlands, Belgium and Denmark between 1950 and 1985		Old and new members between 2004 and 2012	Openness (X and Im), GNI, FDI, R+D
Within the EU15 between 1950 and 2012			
Within the EU27 between 1999 and 2012		Old and new members between 1993 and 2004	Decrease in technological gap; Increase in labour productivity
Within the EU27 between 1950 and 1980 and between 2000 and 2010			
Within the EU28 between 1995 and 2009			

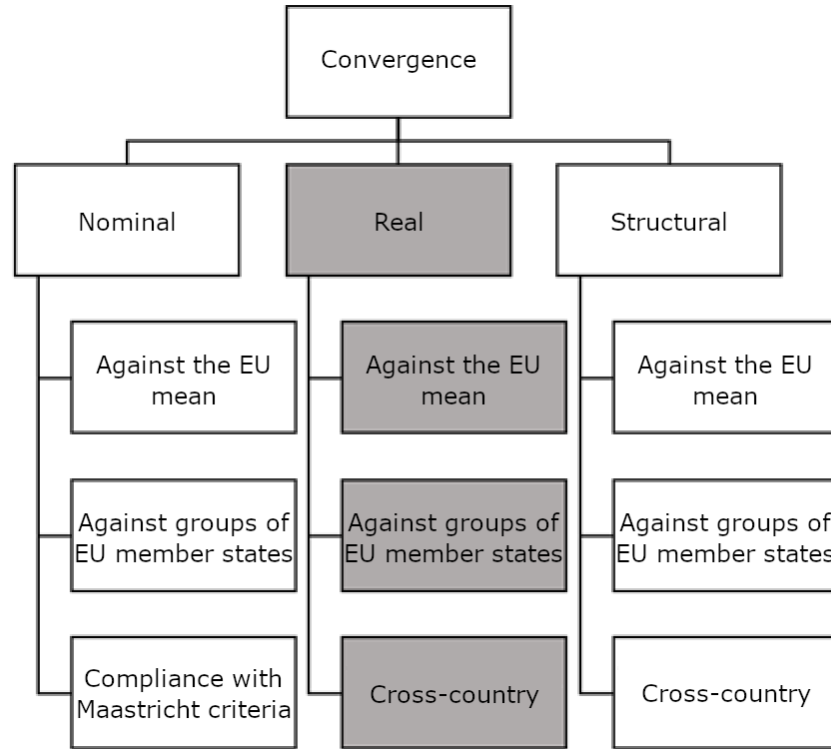
Source: own compilation based on literature listed above

The Levels and Dimensions of Convergence

The catching-up process of any new member state, or in our case, Hungary, can be analysed at several levels and along various dimensions: in these study the three categories ICEG EC (ICEG EC, 2005) is used for testing convergence, therefore, we are considering nominal, real and structural convergence. Nominal convergence consists the indicators defined by the Maastricht Treaty: inflation, budget deficit and public debt to GDP. Real convergence includes the indicators of economic development: GDP per capita, productivity and rate of employment make up this category. Structural convergence is measured by the ratio of agricultural workers, the quality of the business environment, poverty and household disposable earnings. The levels basically refer to spatial scope of the analysis: on the one hand, when the calculation is completed, it is not sufficient to consider only whether the analysed countries are able to get closer to the economic performance of EU member states, but it is also important to see whether convergence exists within the various countries and if the given economy is getting

closer to the equilibrium. On the other hand, comparison to EU countries not necessarily yields an unbiased picture, bearing in mind that difference in development can be pinpointed even among the 28 member states. In consequence, we are also going to group the EU countries used as a basis and see which of these groups Hungary is nearing the most (Tóth, 2019). The following diagram (Figure 1) gives a schematic representation of the convergence analysis:

Figure 1: The levels and dimensions of convergence



Source: Tóth 2019

In this paper, due to limitations of space, only Hungary's real convergence is analysed based on this categorisation and dimensions.

METHODOLOGY

In this paper we have completed two types of calculations: Firstly, we used beta-convergence calculations, secondly, we carried out calculations for determining the numbers of catch up years and thirdly, we performed a cluster-analysis to categorise the EU member states.

Beta Convergence

Absolute beta convergence means that the poorer countries grow faster than the rich ones. When considering the cross-sectional per capita data series of several countries at times t and $T+t$ expressed in PPS, we obtain the following regression equation:

$$\gamma_{i,t,t+T} = \alpha + \beta \ln(y_{i,t}) + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (1)$$

where $\gamma_{i,t,t+T} = \ln\left(\frac{y_{i,t+T}}{y_{i,t}}\right)/T$ denotes the annual average GDP growth rate of the i^{th} economy between time t and $t+T$, and $\ln(y_{i,t})$ is the logarithm of the income of the i^{th} economy at time t . If $\beta < 0$, convergence can be presented in the data sequence (Sala-i-Martin, 1995).

Number of Catch Up Years

We examine with the following formulae how many years more Hungary would need to catch up with the EU mean:

Hungary will reach the average GDP per capita of the EU member states in the t^{th} period, if:

$$GDP_t^{HU} = GDP_t^{EU} \quad (2)$$

where:

GDP_t^{HU} : Hungary's GDP per capita expressed in PPS in the t^{th} period.

GDP_t^{EU} : Average GDP per capita figures of EU member states expressed in PPS in the t^{th} period.

If the average GDP growth rate of the member states between period 0 and t^{th} is α , and Hungary's average GDP growth rate is β , we obtain the following two equations:

$$GDP_t^{HU} = GDP_0^{HU} \times (1 + \beta)^t \quad (3)$$

$$GDP_t^{EU} = GDP_0^{EU} \times (1 + \alpha)^t \quad (4)$$

where:

GDP_0^{HU} : Hungary's GDP per capita expressed in PPS in the 0^{th} period

GDP_0^{EU} : The average GDP per capita figures of EU member states expressed in PPS in the 0^{th} period.

We are looking for the value of t for which equation (2) is satisfied, where:

$$\frac{GDP_t^{HU}}{GDP_t^{EU}} = 1 \quad (5)$$

After reducing the equations and taking their logarithm we obtain the following formula for catching-up time:

$$t = \lg \frac{GDP_0^{EU}}{GDP_0^{HU}} \div \lg \frac{1+\beta}{1+\alpha} \quad (6)$$

With the help of formula (6) above, and knowing the income figures for year 2000, our initial year, as well as the average growth rates in the period 2000-2017, ceteris paribus we

can calculate how many more years are required in the specific years for catching up with the EU mean⁸⁹ (Tóth, 2019).

Cluster Analysis

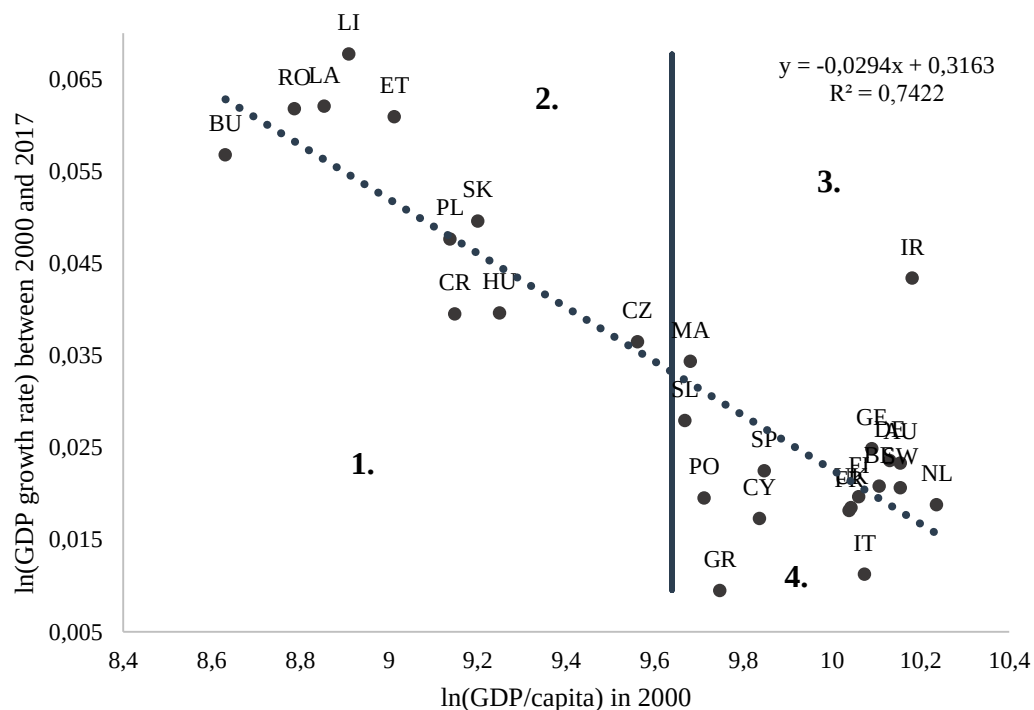
We intend to categorise countries so that the countries falling in one group would be close to each other along every variable while would fall far from the other groups. The analysis is built on hierarchical clustering (with groups created based on the distance between group means), the essence of which is that it creates clusters step by step starting out from the object until all the other objects can be incorporated in one group (Barna – Székelyi, 2002). For the sake of transparency, three indicators (GDP per capita, unemployment rate and labour productivity) are used for the analysis of real convergence. By selecting productivity too, we based on Novotná and Volek's paper (Novotná-Volek, 2018), in which authors made a country classification by their productivity level.

RESULTS

Convergence between EU Member States

As the first step of the analysis, we test whether beta-convergence can be confirmed under the period between 2000 and 2017. The results of the calculations are presented in Figure 2:

Figure 2: Beta convergence among the EU member states between 2000 and 2017



Source: own calculation based Eurostat data

⁸⁹ It is undoubtedly a simplified formula that fails to consider that growth rate of Hungary's GDP per capita is largely influenced by the EU growth rate.

The horizontal axis shows the logarithm of the GDP per capita in 2000, and the vertical axis shows the logarithm of the growth rate of GDP per capita between 2000 and 2017. The gradient of the fitted line –beta – has a negative sign (-0.0307), therefore convergence can be confirmed in this period among the EU countries (R square value is strong, and significance level is lower than 5 %.).

To get a more precise picture, let us cut the diagram into four pieces, along the straight regression line (countries above and under the line) and along the GDP per capita mean value in 2000. As a result, we can categorise the member states into four groups:

- The first quarter includes the countries who had ab ovo relatively low income and were not able to catch up.
- In the second quarter, there are countries with relatively low income, but they succeeded to produce such high growth rate, which makes catch up possible for them.
- To the third quarter belong countries with relatively high initial income and with relatively high growth capacity.
- The fourth quarter contains the countries that have relatively low growth levels with a relatively high income level.

If we accept this categorisation, we can see that the presence of beta-convergence is accelerated by the countries in quarters 2 and 4, and the countries in quarters 1 and 3 hinder the process of equalisation.

Table 2: Country-typology by using beta convergence

Countries that accelerate the process		Countries that hinder the process	
2. Less developed countries which are catching up	4. Developed countries which are still lagging	1. Less developed and lagging countries	3. Developed and growing countries
Romania, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Slovakia and Czech Republic	Slovenia, Spain, Portugal, France, United Kingdom, Finland, Italy, Greece and Cyprus	Bulgaria, Poland, Croatia and <u>Hungary</u>	Ireland, Malta, Germany, Denmark, Austria, Belgium, Sweden and Netherlands

Source: own calculation based Eurostat data

Member Groups According to the Results of Clustering

Below, we are testing Hungary's real convergence by creating groups. In order to gain a more realistic insight into Hungary's real economic position, we are considering not only the GDP per capita figures, but also two other indicators: employment rate and productivity. According to our results we create three types of countries by their development level: low, medium and high. The results of the calculations:

Table 3: Country-typology by using clustering

Categories		Based on GDP per capita								
		Less developed			Medium developed			Developed		
		Based on labour productivity			Based on labour productivity			Based on labour productivity		
		Less developed	Medium developed	Developed	Less developed	Medium developed	Developed	Less developed	Medium developed	Developed
Based on employment rate	Less developed	Hungary, Poland, Slovakia	Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia		Greece, Malta		Spain			Belgium, Italy
	Medium developed	Estonia, Lithuania	Latvia	Czech Republic, Cyprus, Portugal, Slovenia						France, Ireland
	Developed									Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom

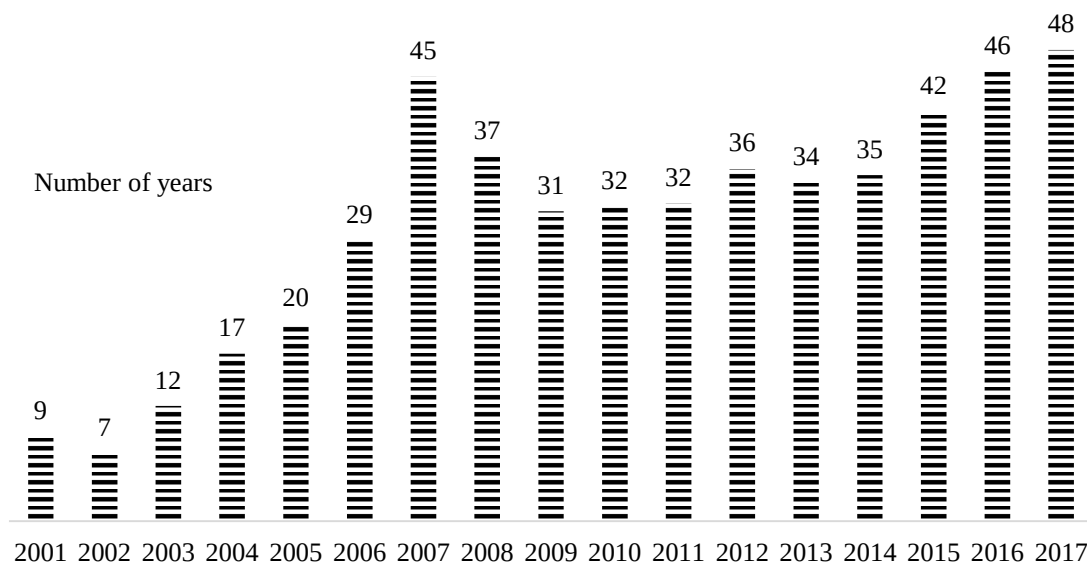
Source: own calculation based Eurostat data

In the analysed period, the cluster analysis identified clearly separate country groups with significant differences. Hungary is among the countries with low levels of development in all the three respects.

The Number of Catch Up Years

In the following, we are going to see how the number of years required to close on the EU mean changed between 2000 and 2017 by considering the EU average growth rate and that of Hungary using the calculation method presented above. Also included are percentages to illustrate the ratio of domestic GDP (PPS) per capita to EU average GDP per capita figures in the different years.

Figure 3: Number of catch up years with the EU mean value of GDP per capita



The figure highlights the fact that our country had already shown the signs of recession well before the global crisis, as early as 2005, and this drop had become salient in comparison with EU member states by 2007: the number of catching-up years was strikingly high that year. In post-crisis years, right until 2014, we can see that the catching-up time stabilised around 35 years. Since 2015 this trend has reversed; the time required for catching-up is increasing again, although at a slow pace.

CONCLUSION

Analyses and publications confirm equalisation among EU member states in terms of real convergence over different periods and between or within different country groups. Our calculations also support this: beta convergence can be confirmed among the incomes of EU member states. But certain countries are not part of this convergence phenomenon. Hungary is also one of lagging countries.

Catching-up as an aim for the Hungarian economy seems unrealisable: While GDP per capita has been gaining on the EU mean since the beginning of the 2000s, mounting from the initial 60% to over 70%, this performance has still proved insufficient for diminishing the catching-up years. Reaching the EU mean income level seems to be a dream for Hungary.

This stagnating and deteriorating trend is supported and partly substantiated by that Hungary had belonged to the category of least developed countries already in the period preceding accession and has persistently belonged there ever since in terms of changes in incomes, labour market conditions and efficiency. The concurrently low levels of these factors are clearly a sign. The long-term catching-up opportunities of a country with low income and employment levels are largely improved if its productivity is high or at least shows a growing trend. However, the improvement in the relative position of the other countries will reduce Hungary's chances of catching-up and will consequently increase the number of catching-up years.

There are many reasons why Hungary is lagging behind; one of the possible explanations is that regional inequalities are getting firm. While in the pre-accession period income levels were typically equalising among domestic counties, since the EU accession, the inequalities have become more pronounced: the 'poor' counties lag behind while the more developed regions keep developing. It is an alarming negative phenomenon that the GDP growth made income inequalities more striking in the analysed period.

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Good Governance and Fragile State: Possible Function of Good Governance in Reconstruction of State

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ABSTRACT

The fragile-failed states are seen as a global threat on the grounds that they feed international terrorism, cause refugee influx, and increase economic, social and security risks and it is aimed to reconstruct these states through the World Bank. In this process, first of all, strengthening the state capacity and making the democratic processes functional in line with good governance come to forefront as main titles. However, good governance practices cannot produce successful results in countries with insufficient state capacity. Strategies based solely on supporting the democratization efforts in the current political system are inadequate in solving the existing problems in these states and in some countries they cause the problems to become more severe. This paper focuses on the question to what extent the reconstruction of fragile states is possible in line with good governance principles. The discussion reveals that an approach that focuses on and solves specific problems is far from producing solutions, that integrated action strategies based on comprehensive and detailed social relations analyzes are necessary in the process of reconstruction of the fragile state, and that it is necessary to jointly assess the state capacity construction and democracy strengthening efforts.

Keywords: Good Governance, Fragile State, State Capacity, Democratization.

INTRODUCTION

Fragile-failed states are the ones that are able to realize limited functions in the field of security, prosperity, law, public service and democracy. These states are the ones which struggle with structural problems that become vicious circles, which are unable to apply the monopoly of violence to the territorial sphere and thus have difficulty in controlling non-state actors, whose legitimacy becomes controversial in the eyes of their own citizens because ethnic, linguistic and/or religious disintegration becomes exorbitant due to a deep and destructive environment of conflict (Schneckener, 2004; Rotberg, 2004; Gökce, 2007, 2016; Migdal, 1988, Zartman, 1995; Pektaş and Ateş, 2018)

The fragile states are seen as the source of threatening elements for the international system and their reconstruction is aimed through the international institutions, primarily the World Bank. In this process, democratization and establishment of a functioning state mechanism and institutions in line with good governance are suggested as a method.

The question of whether good governance would be an appropriate solution in the process of reconstruction of fragile states is the main subject of this communiqué. In this context, first we will try to put forward good governance and its elements and then to define the concept of fragile state and explain the dimensions and reasons of this in short. In the next stage, the question of to what extent the reconstruction of fragile states is possible in line with the principles of good governance is emphasized.

GOOD GOVERNANCE

The concept of good governance was first introduced by the World Bank in 1989 and the Report of Governance and Development, published in 1992, introduced many aspects of good governance (World Bank, 1992). According to the World Bank, governance is the way of using authority in the management of a country in order to develop its economic and social resources. Governance refers to a system in which an open and predictable decision-making process, a professional bureaucratic management, a government in charge of its actions and operations, and the rule of civil society and law that actively participate in the public process are prevailing (World Bank, 1994). According to the World Bank, the complementary principles of governance are: participation, accountability, rule of law, transparency, equality, efficiency, equity, anti-corruption, decentralization and strategic vision. Successful governance depends on the simultaneous implementation of these elements as a whole, the development of civil society and the sharing of authority (World Bank, 2000; likewise Woods 1999: 44; Botchway, 2001). Since the principles of good governance are discussed and investigated sufficiently in the present literature, they are not discussed here separately (for extensive information on the subject see Güler, 2003; Güzelsarı, 2004; Bayraktar, 2015; Gökce, 2007).

According to a good governance approach, as societies become more complex and social demands multiply, political authority has become multi-centered and multi-layered, and in this context, management or government action has gained a more horizontal and heterarchic form within the framework of a complex relationship which does not exist above many public

and private actors but includes them (Walters, 2004: 27). It is claimed that governments facing a fragmented society and loss of trust in the process of globalization realize that they cannot solve complex public problems on their own and are turning to more participatory collective problem-solving processes where partnership and interdependence are central (Bayraktar, 2015). Rhodes states that governance refers to “a new management process (...) or new methods used in the management of societies” (1996: 653). In this sense, it is not a one-way rule where the state and institutions are at the center, but a claim of co-governance that goes beyond the principle of participation in management (Bayramoğlu, 2002).

The World Bank offers good governance as a way of sustaining political effectiveness in the face of the growing and complex social demands and expectations of underdeveloped or developing countries, especially outside of globalization, and as a model for increasing the institutional capacity of the state for this purpose. Therefore, good governance has become an essential and integral part of reform programs in all these countries (Williams and Young, 1994: 86; Kiely, 1998: 68).

Contrary to the traditional management understanding, it is claimed that in the understanding of governance, social developments and problems are interfered with adaptation, interaction, networking, piloting and steering processes (Walters, 2004: 29). This describes a process in which traditional authority centers such as ministries, agencies and public bureaucracy act in interaction with many private, state-like, third sector groups, volunteers and other groups (Bayraktar, 2015: 77). In the traditional understanding of governance, states have dominated the decision-making process by themselves, but this monopoly has come to an end. They now have to make room for many international, transnational private actors and civil society representatives. Therefore, in governance, responsibility sharing of the state with non-state actors or networks comes to the forefront (Merrien, 1998: 67-58). This also indicates a shift from hierarchical state to network management (Jessop, 2018: 252). Within this framework, the state can no longer be seen as a monopoly of expertise and resources for the administration, but rather it has to rely on a plurality of independent organizations and actors originating from within or beyond the government (Newman, 2001: 11-12). This is precisely said to be the cornerstone of the transition from management to governance or the difference between management and governance.

As Bayraktar (2015) points out, the concept of governance is the name of a paradigm shift on the political level (Jessop, 1998), and whatever the concept of management evokes (top-down, rigid, hierarchical, non-participation, and therefore antidemocratic), the governance is opposite of it (horizontal, flexible, participatory, democratic, etc.).

According to Rhodes and Bevir, networks are the defining element of governance and they offer a different coordination mechanism from market and hierarchy. Here, networks are the formal and informal networks of relationships and exchanges developing between governments, the private sector, non-governmental organizations and interest groups in specific local, national and international policy areas. It is thought that hierarchy, power struggle and conflict in the networks are marginalized and replaced by contracts, bargaining, negotiation, interdependence or relations of reciprocity and trust (2003: 55-56). These highlights indicate

that state actors do not have any distinctive role or authority against private actors and that the role of government in these horizontal bargains and negotiation processes is marginalized or equated with the roles of private actors (Bell and Hindmoor, 2009). Although that equal participation and partnership of three different sectors (third sector before public sector, private sector and NGOs) in the decision making process is still mentioned here, capital does not remain as the second equal partner in the face of bureaucracy and in the third category it gains weight as a hidden partner. (Güler, 2000).

In summary, good governance is put forward as an important restructuring model for the formation of an effective and legitimate state. A legitimate state requires the establishment of mechanisms of political responsibility (election, participation in decisions, transparency of processes, etc.) (Uzel, 2006). Therefore, good governance includes the minimum requirements of human rights and the transparent management where citizens' life and property safety is ensured, the rule of law is realized, politicians and bureaucrats are accountable, political stability exists and violence does not, citizens can easily access the necessary information. According to the World Bank (1997), the higher the level of participation and accountability, political stability, quality of government regulation, government effectiveness, control of corruption and the rule of law in a country, the more possible it is to say that good governance is approached.

The three main problems that governance understanding as a whole face in practice are listed as follows (Kettle, 2000: 13). These are: The problem of coordination between state actors and other social actors (NGOs and private sector representatives), the problem of harmony between traditional and local vertical systems and global horizontal systems, and the state's inadequate capacity to act effectively and responsibly in the face of problems (Kettle, 2000: 14).

Another point of criticism directed at the governance approach and which is important for our subject is that governance reduces the role of government by involving non-state actors in the governance process and changing the relationship and thus the state is marketized (Bayramoğlu, 2002: 88; also for extensive information on criticisms Bayraktar, 2015). As a result of this, the decision-making power of the state has decreased, and the questions of who will be held responsible for the decisions made and practices, and who can be held accountable have become ambiguous (Uzel, 2006: 94).

Governance is also defined as stateless statism (Bauman and Bordoni, 2017: 26). The governance hidden behind the chaotic and meaningless bureaucracy, which replaces the functional government linked to public trust, is criticized as governing a community that has lost state custody through inconsistent empowerment (lack of political orientation and control) (Bauman and Bordoni, 2017: 26).

FRAGILE-FAILED STATE

In the literature, it is seen that the concepts of failed state, collapsed state, failing state, weak state and fragile state are often used as synonyms. The differences between these concepts

have been tried to be put forward in our previous studies on the subject from Rotberg (2004), Schneckener (2003, 2004, 2006), Migdal (1988), Zartman (1995) and others. It is seen in the literature that the concept of failed state is preferred. For this reason, the concept of failed state was adopted in our previous studies. Here, it is preferred to use both concepts together. The definitions related to the failed states are varied. However, the general tendency is to accept a successful state as the norm and define a failed state. Generally, states that control the area and population within their borders, establish economic relations with other countries, have a monopoly of violence within their borders and provide adequate public services to their citizens are defined as successful states (Gökce and Gökce 2012, 2017; Gökce, 2006, 2007, 2016; Pektaş / Ateş, 2018). A failed state is the opposite of this. If a state cannot maintain the authority or public order by losing its monopoly on the means of violence on its territory, it cannot provide the security of life and property of its own people, provide basic public services, and provide border security, then the state is qualified as a failed state (Schneckener, 2004; Rotberg, 2003 and 2004; Migdal, 1988; Piersen, 2005; Tilly, 2011; Gökce, 2006, 2007, 2014).

According to the definition of OECD, the fragility is that the state is incapable of providing basic public services such as security, education, health and justice (2007). The fragile state that arises when the state cannot provide basic public services has a very high risk of causing political, economic and social crises. The fragility of the state is closely related to the effectiveness, authority and legitimacy of the state (Koçak, 2014: 59). If fragility prevention policies and strategies are not developed and implemented, fragility reaches a further dimension, rendering the state authority dysfunctional and as a result failed states emerge. Accordingly, the most characteristic aspects of a fragile state are the loss of monopoly over the use of violence and struggling with civil wars, the inability to provide border security, the inability to fight gangs and terrorism, the lack of transportation and communication infrastructure, inability in provision of basic public services, and political corruption (Pektaş and Ateş, 2018; Rotberg, 2003; Gökce, 2016). Here, administrators exhibit a form of management that puts their own interests or the interests of a small part of society in front of whole society. The exclusion of the majority from the management and inequality both create the poverty and make it permanent. Unfair public spending and unequal rules of law make one group privileged over another. Fragile states tend to inflict human rights violations on their own citizens and are unable to protect their citizens against terrorism. Exposure to human rights violations and victimization causes the public to lose confidence in the managers and thus in the state, and consequently the state loses its legitimacy in the eyes of its people. As a result, people turn to to clans, warlords, congregations, which other elements outside the state. This makes the socioeconomic structure of the state in question more vulnerable to various crisis situations (Fraser, 2008; Hippler, 2006; Rotberg, 2003 and 2004; Helman and Ratner, 1992; Migdal, 1988; Rotberg, 2004; Schneckener, 2004; Pektaş and Ateş, 2018:39).

As it can be understood from the explanations, the concept of fragile and failed state is used to characterize similar phenomena with little nuance. Therefore, it is preferred to use these two concepts at the same time here. The failed state refers to a situation closer to the stage of collapse. The fragile state, on the other hand, is at the former stage of a failed state. In this context, it is possible to say that the concept of fragile-failed state is used to qualify the states

in which state institutions (army, security, judiciary, education, health, infrastructure, transportation, finance, etc.) lose their capacity to realize their functions to a large extent and which, as a result, lose their legitimacy substantially in the eyes of their citizens. Accordingly, the fragile-failed state level is a process. This process does not always have to result in a collapse. It is also possible for states to survive this situation. In other words, some states can survive by managing this process well and strengthening the state capacity, while others lose their legitimacy before the public by not managing this process well. However, they still maintain their status as a state in the international arena. For example, countries such as Somalia, Tanzania, the Republic of Congo, Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria have lost their statehood to a great extent, but are still on the list of states (see Gökce and Gökce, 2017).

Maintaining the legitimacy of states depends on realizing some basic tasks in political, financial, legal and social areas which have reasons for existing such as to ensure the safety of life and property of citizens, to establish the rule of law, to establish satisfactory levels of services such as health, education and infrastructure, to fully implement the principles of transparency and accountability (Schneckener, 2004; Rotberg, 2004; Fukuyama, 2005; Gökce, 2007, 2016). Fragile-failed states are states that are struggling with structural problems that have turned into a vicious circle and that cannot perform effectively in fulfilling some or all of their basic functions in the political, legal, financial and social areas. In addition, the states whose legitimacy is questioned in the eyes of their own citizens as a result of deep and destructive conflict and ethnic, linguistic and / or religious disintegration fall into this class (Karaçuka and Çelik, 2017: 27).

A GENERAL EVALUATION

For good governance, it is a very difficult process to both increase the capacity of a state mechanism and to simultaneously implement democratization as a form of participatory democracy and sometimes as a negotiating democracy against the crisis of representative democracy at the theoretical level. There are no concrete solutions for how this can be achieved yet.

Indicators of good governance measure the capacity of the state. The measured subject is a result, although there is debate about the adequacy of measurement. It is already not possible to deny good governance principles. These principles are universal. However, the implementation of these principles requires a certain state capacity. It is an outstanding subject in today's discussions regarding the modern state to make the managers more sensitive to the interests of the whole society through the institutionalizing of the mechanisms of accountability and rule of law of the state capacity. In modern societies, the problems of the structural transformation of the modern state in the face of globalization and the crisis of representative democracy overlap. Good governance claims to produce solutions by handling these two areas of crisis together in the axis of neo-liberalism.

Fragile states that do not have an institutionalized state structure and a certain administrative capacity on the basis of the rule of law cannot manage risks in the face of globalization. These states are already insufficient to construct a certain state capacity. Political

nepotism through the democratic processes appears as a common behavior in all societal groups in societies where state capacity and autonomy is lacking and the necessary infrastructural conditions for the good functioning of democracy do not exist (in societies where sub-cultural pluralism is high, where ethnicity and religious-based separation exists and where economic resources are limited). This also makes it difficult to strengthen state capacity. Fragile states are already the states that could not yet built this capacity. For this reason, reforms that are attempted to be realized without establishing a legal system that distributes justice in fragile-failed states, democratization initiatives initiated without the participation of all groups or actors in the administration, can often trigger civil war rather than domestic peace and stability. In many countries, good governance principles have triggered conflict in societies. In this respect, a reform process limited to the support of democratization efforts is not always the right strategy for peace and stability in these states.

In conclusion, the indicators of good governance are presented as a normative model that defines what should be in terms of fragile states as a model in the process in which modern states, which emerge and develop as a result of a certain historical process, are reconstructing themselves. However, it does not produce a satisfactory answer to the question of how this will happen. Since the management problems of societies have emerged as a result of certain historical processes, it is not realistic to create or present their solutions with a magic wand from today to tomorrow. Therefore, in terms of fragile states, both statistics on fragile states and indicators of good governance allow an idea to form about a certain reality, albeit limited. However, they fail to produce satisfactory answers for the solution. There is not another method, plan and strategy yet. Because the economic, social, political problems and historical developments faced by each society are different and intricate. Good governance, which claims to provide a recipe for all societies, remains normative in fragile states.

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Tourism Competitiveness vs. Destination Sustainability: Conceptual Approach Model Using Systemic Assessment Indicators

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ABSTRACT

The problem of adequate management of natural resources by management organizations represents a major obstacle in introducing changes to the destination system, as well as to the long-term sustainability and renewability of competitive destinations. The main objective of this study is to examine connections and relations between the established systems of criterion variables by using multiple regression analysis. The study was conducted over 55 Montenegrin tour operators, involved in the process of distributing different types of selective tourist arrangements, by evaluating the items of five specially designed assessment indicators. Based on the analysis's results, it has been confirmed that the selected indicator system can be an effective means of representing and applying the proposed assessment model. The findings of the study show that the commercial-economic interests of entities surveyed slightly exceed the concept of destination sustainability, negating on this way the systemic contribution and significance of the competitive indicators estimated. The limitations of the study relate to the certain homogeneity of results obtained, taking into account the available research sample's size. By adopting the proposed assessment model, establishing a basic conceptual platform for the practical application of appropriate development standards and indicators of the competitive tourist destination is encouraged.

Keywords: Destination Management, Systemic Approach, Competitive Factors, Case Study.

INTRODUCTION

Since natural resources are significant generators of budget revenues and promoters of the national tourist image, it is necessary to strictly respect the concept of destination sustainability (Danilov-Danil'yan, Losev & Reyf, 2009). For Montenegro, as the country covered by intensive tourism development, the existing insufficient level of social control and accountability for potentially endangered natural resources affect great environmental damage. The attempts have begun to bring the various related factors in mutual connection through designing the model of competitive destination system, which served as starting point for specifying the relevant assessment determinants (Veal, 2006). These determinants indicate the essential elements of destination competitiveness and the degree of organization of the tourism sector concerning its promotion (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

The primary research objective was to determine the state and practical functionality of the elements of destination competitiveness, perceived by tourist offer entities. In addition, similar to the studies which emphasize the promotion of specific selective forms tourism with increasing economic importance (Byrd et al., 2016; Getz & Page, 2016) one of the tasks of this study was to analyze tourism activities from the aspect of achieving a socially responsible and environmentally acceptable development. Using such specific indicators, the use of available natural resources by tourists can be assessed through proportionally targeted scope and socially acceptable extent (providing information on the destination capacity for accepting the tourists), which is an effective mechanism to control of tourist activities (Khan, 2014). Considering this, the significance of this study also refers to improving the system for protection of natural resources.

The methodological analysis of predictor competitive variables included the reduction of the total number of cases observed, i.e. forming the group system of variables - corresponding to national tourist regions. For criterion variables, the strength of mutual relationship and the established connections was tested. The correlation between predictor and criterion variables, with the use of subsequent tests for verifying the identified significance (Gerring, 2012), was tested in the last part of the analysis.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism experts point out that the competitiveness of the tourism sector is closely linked to sustainability, since the quality of tourist destinations is strongly affected by the natural and cultural environment and their integration within the local community (EUROSTAT, 2015). Therefore, the biggest novelty of modern tourism business should be the transition from commercial tourism to natural resources based tourism, in accordance with various criteria of spatial sustainability (Fredman & Tyrväinen, 2011). This implies the need for the socially responsible form of behavior and optimization of activities to the level that minimizes the impact on natural heritage and resources, with the maximum protection of life ecosystems (Gössling, Hall & Weaver, 2009).

In achieving the optimal balance between economically stimulated tourism development and sustainability, it is resorting to different society solutions, starting with local agendas and sustainable tourism initiatives, to national strategies and action plans in ecotourism (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005). All these initiatives indirectly point to the need to respect the concept of “flexible and fixed carrying capacity” (Weaver, Faulkner & Lawton, 1999) as the crucial criterion of spatial and concentration (programmatic) saturation of the corresponding tourist destination (Boniface & Cooper, 2009). Confirming the importance of the “limits of admissibility of change” is also very indisputable (McCool & Moisey, 2008). By placing these factors in the foreground, the controlled impact of tourism development is secured, which in turn can be seen from several different angles (Burns & Novelli, 2008). One of them involves the protection of natural resources.

Another proposed way of bringing sustainable development together with existing forms of tourism involves considering the hierarchical structure of the evaluation process in relation to protected areas by prioritizing different elements within the same structure (Deng, King & Bauer, 2002; Dorobantu, 2012). The identical conclusion is also found in other studies devoted to natural based tourism forms: mountain tourism, ecotourism and adventure tourism (Mihalic, 2006; Kuscer, 2012).

Studies devoted to ecotourism (Tuohino & Hynönen, 2001; Manning, 2004; Lambert, 2009) note that understanding the holistic approach, i.e. the philosophy of developing sustainable tourism and the commitment of all stakeholders in the planning process, is very complicated - at least in terms of theory and practice in the tourism industry. In this regard, it is highlighted that the balance between visibility and awareness of the environment by entrepreneurs and visitors represent the essential thing in order not to create of certain dysfunctionalities (UNEP, 2011), and thus degradation of natural and cultural resources at the destination – i.e. reducing the quality of the environmental impression.

METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS

In this study, the combination of standard multiple regression and compared MANOVA / ANOVA analysis for the field of comparative statistics (Stevens, 1996) was applied. From the field of descriptive statistics, the measures of central tendency and the absolute values of dispersion / variability (M, SD, Skew, Kurt) of predictor variables were calculated. All data were analyzed using statistical software - SPSS 22.

Design and Study Sample

The research of tourist entities within the appropriate regions was carried out between September 2017 and March 2018. The study covered 55 tour operators (N), distributed at 20 different sites within 15 Montenegrin municipalities, including 7 coastal and 8 continental (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Regional distribution of study sites ^a



a. The study sample included a total of 15 national municipalities.

The presented distribution appears as the consequence of regional visit intensity and scope (MONSTAT, 2016), which resulted in the final distribution of sample units within the total study sample (Table 1). The number of surveyed tour operators, according to the covered tourist regions of Montenegro, was following: northern region (n=7), central region (n=18), Boka Bay region (n=15), and coastal region (n=15), comprising 55 in total.

Table 1: Structure of the study sample

Regions	Municipalities	Sites	Number of entities (n)	Percent (%)
REG1^a	Pluzine	Scepan Polje	1	1.8
	Pljevlja	Pljevlja	1	1.8
	Zabljak	Zabljak	1	1.8
	Bijelo Polje	Bijelo Polje	1	1.8
	Kolasin	Kolasin	2	3.6
	Andrijevica	Andrijevica	1	1.8
REG2^b	Niksic	Niksic	3	5.5
	Podgorica	Podgorica	14	25.5
	Cetinje	Cetinje	1	1.8
REG3^c	Herceg-Novi	Igalo	1	1.8
	Herceg-Novi	Herceg-Novi	7	12.7
	Herceg-Novi	Bijela	1	1.8
	Kotor	Kotor	1	1.8
	Tivat	Tivat	5	9.1
REG4^d	Budva	Budva	7	12.7
	Budva	Sv. Stefan	2	3.6
	Budva	Petrovac	1	1.8
	Bar	Sutomore	1	1.8
	Bar	Bar	2	3.6
	Ulcinj	Ulcinj	2	3.6
Total	15	20	55	100.0

a. REG1 = Northern.

b. REG2 = Central.

c. REG3 = Boka Bay.

d. REG4 = Coastal.

Regarding the numerical coverage of studied units of the basic set ($N = 55$), three major distribution tourist centers are identified: Podgorica, Budva, and Herceg-Novi (with 51.8% of the total sample of subjects); which clearly speaks of the uneven spatial concentration and distribution of tour operators, i.e. overall level of promotional and service coverage of the destination space.

Sampling Instrument

The questionnaire was originally designed relying on the conceptual framework set by UNWTO (2013) which refers to the indicator set devoted to the natural and cultural environment. Only some of these indicators were applied in the questionnaire in its original form, while the remaining items were completely independently designed according to determinants analyzed, the way they were created and the meaning. In this way, targeted and planned structuralisation of items was achieved, in terms of the quality and type of data obtained.

Table 2: Summary distribution of predictor variables ^a

Variable	Percent (%)
Total number of arrangements	
1–5	60.0
6–10	21.8
11–15	10.9
16–20	1.8
21+	5.5
Season period	
2 months	1.8
3 months	16.4
4 months	9.1
5 months	25.5
6 months	14.5
7 months	18.2
9 months	3.6
12 months	10.9
Dominant age category	
19–25	12.7
26–32	45.5
33+	41.8
Presence on the market	
1–5 years	41.8
6–10 years	29.1
11–15 years	20.0
16+	9.1
Sales representation of arrangements	
1–10%	9.1
11–20%	10.9
21–30%	3.6
31–40%	49.1
41–50%	1.8
51–60%	3.6
61–70%	5.5
71–80%	1.8
81–90%	1.8
91–100%	12.7

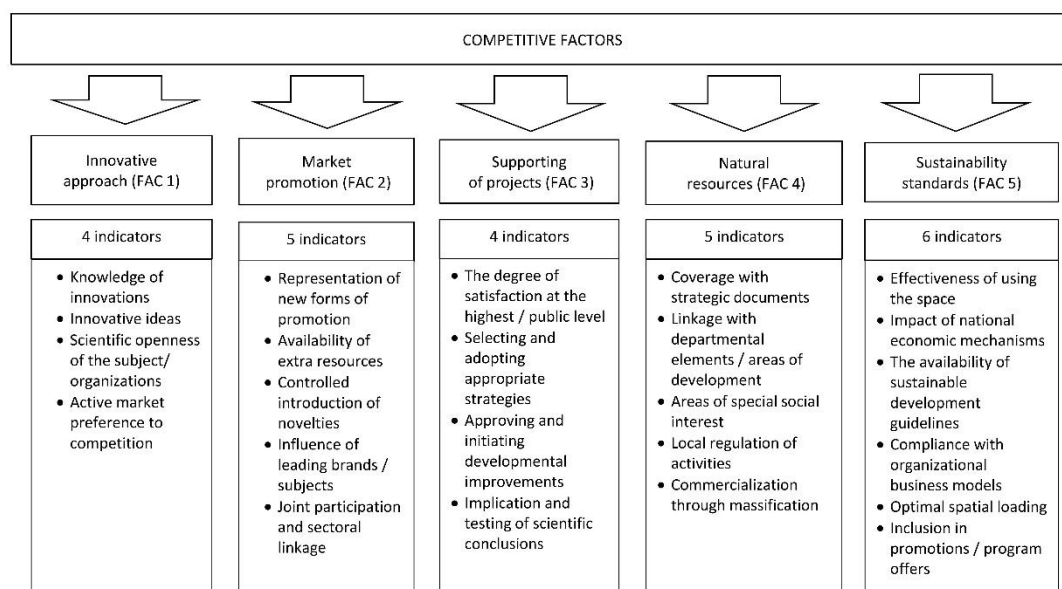
a. The characteristics refer to the examined tour operators.

The first part of the questionnaire included independent (predictor) variables: the location of tour operators, the number of arrangements in their tourism offer, the period of active business during the year / seasonality, the age structure of visitors / customers, the total duration of business and sales representation of tourist arrangements (Table 2). These variables belong to the group of qualitative or attributive variables (Veal, 2006).

The second part of the questionnaire contained scores of individual indicators according to the studied systemic factors within the study conducted. This time, the value of dependent (criterion) variables was expressed through a 5-point Likert scale for the assessment of attitudes (Jarvis, Stoeckl & Liu, 2016), whereby the meaning of scores in the questionnaire was as follows: (1) - complete disagreement; (2) - moderate disagreement; (3) - neutrality; (4) - moderate stacking; (5) - complete agreement. Accordingly, here was about the group of quantitative or instrumental variables.

The first task of this study was to examine to what extent each independent variable would improve and affect other independent variables, i.e. what was the relative contribution of each independent variable (Pallant, 2011), in the created system. The indicators are systematized so as to connect the structural elements of competitive tourist destination with systemic determinants that can be practically verified, with the aim of determining the current situation in tourism sector (and the relationship between the national management organization and tourist entities). The names of systemic determinants (i.e. factors) were adapted to indicators that individually contribute to sustainability of the tourist destination - from the aspect of competitiveness (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Systemic factor determinants and indicators of study model ^a



a. Derived from the study questionnaire.

The first systemic factor (FAC1) referred to the organizational destination subsystem, taking into account the views and opinions of tourist entities related to ideas, interests and projects in the domain of innovation. The second factor (FAC2) included the information of tourist entities in the field of available tourism resources, creation of tourist contents and programs, and referred to the market subsystem of the tourist destination. Affectivity and meaning of the third factor (FAC3) were linked to the general social conditions and managerial structures responsible for creating the innovative environment within one identical destination subsystem - referring to the knowledge of tourist entities in the area of legislative and administrative-technical principles. The fourth factor (FAC4) was related to the highest destination management structures, in accordance with the social significance and priority of protection. It related to the reactions of tourism entities according to existing development master plans, strategies and initiatives. The last, fifth systemic factor (FAC5) was directed toward the promoters of the tourist offer and distributors of user programs, directly responsible for its implementation and consistent realization. It covered issues related to environmental control mechanisms, capacity and micro-destination loading, as well as dedicated use of the tourist space for intended purposes.

In the second task of this study, it was examined whether there is a significant difference in the views of tour operators when dividing them into four tourist regions - as recorded by five study indicators. For the assessment purpose, the proposed scoring system for each of the questionnaire items (discussed below) was used. The same system can serve to assess emerging changes and determine immediate responsibility for the quality of promotion and arrangement of one of the destination offer's types. This study was realized through the survey technique, as well as the scaling technique based on the summarized numerical scales (De Vellis, 2003).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics were calculated in order to determine characteristics of the assigned scores at the level of corresponding tourist region (i.e. independent variables performed) in relation to examined factors of the systemic approach (dependent variables). The results of descriptive statistics of the criterion variables are presented in the following table (Table 3).

In the parametric part of analysis a standard multiple regression was calculated, which determined how much of total variance of the dependent variable (i.e. systemic factorial indicators) can be explained by each of the case subsets of the independent variable (i.e. the views of tour operators from the observed region). All statistical tests for analyzing individual factor items (i.e. 24 assessment indicators) were primarily used at the minimum alpha level of 0.05. The following are the results of parametric statistic procedures.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of scoring the systemic factors towards tourist regions

Region (sites)	Northern (n=6)		Central (n=3)		Boka Bay (n=5)		Coastal (n=6)		Overall Asymmetry	
Factors	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
FAC1 ^a	4.24	0.14	4.60	0.45	4.17	0.30	4.16	0.29	-0.40	-0.65
FAC2 ^b	4.58	0.07	4.48	0.57	4.31	0.32	4.26	0.40	-0.55	-0.52
FAC3 ^c	2.40	0.04	2.92	0.55	2.51	0.34	2.88	0.55	-0.09	-0.08
FAC4 ^d	2.95	0.06	2.99	0.58	2.90	0.37	3.40	0.60	-0.72	0.14
FAC5 ^e	3.07	0.10	2.61	0.40	2.59	0.39	3.37	0.62	0.57	0.39

a. Factor 1 = Innovative approach—IA (items IA1–IA4* = questionnaire's questions 1–4).

b. Factor 2 = Market promotion—MP (items MP1–MP5* = questionnaire's questions 5–9).

c. Factor 3 = Supporting projects—SP (items SP1–SP4* = questionnaire's questions 10–13).

d. Factor 4 = Natural resources—NR (items NR1–NR5* = questionnaire's questions 14–18).

e. Factor 5 = Sustainability standards SS (items SS1–SS6* = questionnaire's questions 19–24).

Regression Analysis's Results

A preliminary assessment of the sample's size adequacy was made according to the formula: $N > 50 + 8m$, where (m) is the number of independent or categorical variables (Stevens, 1996). Based on the comparison, it was found that the sample size in this case was slightly lower than the predicted limit value, observed by total number of the group determinants (i.e. indicators). This predicted limit value totaled 60 cases, which is five (or 8.3%) more than the number identified for this study. Since this was the study concerning tour operators involved in the tourist offer⁹⁰ and not about individual respondents, which would otherwise significantly limit a reliability of the sample size (from 300 to 50 cases) (De Vaus, 2002), this relation is recognized as acceptable.

Untypical points, especially those with extreme deviations of limit values of ± 3.3 (Tabacnick & Fidell, 2007), were not found among the results. Based on the verification of the scatterplot of individual variables, satisfactory homogeneity and independence (typical for studies with small samples) was found (Boyce, 2003). In line with these results, assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance were also confirmed.

The highest value of the Mahalanobis distance according to the table was 13.50. This value was recorded at the third factor variable from the FAC3 group, by which the impact of market subsystem competition in the presented study model was examined (Figure 2). However, the discussed value does not significantly affect the results of the entire model since the value of the second indicator (0.13), using Cook's Distance, at the same variable does not exceed the value 1, which is critical (Tabacnick & Fidell, 2007).

In order to simplify the system of predictor variables from the general part of the questionnaire, only one independent variable was selected for the first step of further analysis:

⁹⁰ According to the principle: one subject - one valid questionnaire.

the site (Table 2). Then, by selecting and merging individual cases within the SPSS matrix (on the level of sites and their municipal affiliation), the formation of subgroups of the same group of variables—i.e. respective regions (REG) was performed (Table 1).

The verification of multicollinearity and the singularity of the established system model through the regression matrix (Table 4) indicated that the majority of correlation coefficients moved in ranges lower than 0.9 (strong correlation) and greater than 0.1 (weak correlation) (Cohen, 1988).

Table 4: Excerpt from the intercorrelation matrix of criterion variables (n = 55)

Var.	IA1	IA2	IA3	IA4	MP1	MP2	MP3	MP4	MP5	SP1	SP2	SP3
SITE	-0.11	-0.18	-0.12	0.05	-0.22	0.08	0.09	0.26	-0.09	-0.14	-0.20	-0.14
IA1												
IA2	0.33*											
IA3	0.19	0.54**										
IA4	0.16	0.24	0.42**									
MP1	-0.45	0.35*	0.31**	0.58**								
MP2	0.15	0.19	0.56**	0.55**	0.44**							
MP3	0.22	0.08	0.21	0.41**	0.26	0.45**						
MP4	0.19	0.09	0.01	0.20	0.18	0.33*	0.45**					
MP5	0.26	0.33*	0.39**	0.07	0.35**	0.03	0.19	0.22				
SP1	0.25	0.24	0.13	0.03	0.09	0.08	0.01	0.09	0.15			
SP2	0.24	0.30*	0.13	0.33*	0.33*	0.23	0.07	0.20	0.21	0.53**		
SP3	0.06	0.17	0.08	0.14	0.21	0.05	0.02	-0.02	0.34*	0.55**	0.58**	
SP4	0.07	0.42**	0.25	0.11	0.28*	0.17	-0.08	-0.02	0.26	0.30*	0.52**	0.40**
Var.	IA1	IA2	IA3	IA4	MP1	MP2	MP3	MP4	MP5	SP1	SP2	SP3
NR1	0.23	0.00	0.18	0.29*	0.17	0.14	-0.07	-0.14	0.17	0.36**	0.61**	0.49**
NR2	-0.06	-0.18	0.00	0.18	0.13	0.34*	0.05	0.03	-0.28*	0.19	0.13	0.05
NR3	0.01	0.30*	0.07	0.23	0.17	0.05	0.02	0.18	0.13	0.20	0.42**	0.39**
NR4	0.00	0.15	0.11	0.27*	0.02	0.11	-0.22	-0.11	-0.12	0.26	0.44**	0.24
NR5	0.12	0.32*	0.26	0.06	0.16	0.17	0.15	0.09	0.10	-0.13	0.03	-0.13
Cont.	SP4	NR1	NR2	NR3	NR4	NR5	SS1	SS2	SS3	SS4	SS5	SS6
SITE	-0.27	-0.12	0.03	-0.10	-0.02	0.16	0.05	-0.10	-0.27	-0.10	0.01	-0.13
	0.37**											
	0.19	0.35**										
	0.30*	0.24	0.09									
	0.22	0.51**	0.30*	0.53**								
	0.14	-0.09	-0.10	-0.17	-0.01							
Var.	IA1	IA2	IA3	IA4	MP1	MP2	MP3	MP4	MP5	SP1	SP2	SP3
SS1	0.01	0.18	0.11	0.27*	0.16	0.07	-0.04	0.04	0.21	0.19	0.41**	0.27*
SS2	0.15	0.24	0.06	0.25	-0.08	0.08	0.05	0.13	0.08	0.40**	0.50**	0.35**
SS3	-0.02	0.31*	0.16	0.31*	0.17	0.18	-0.23	-0.06	0.05	0.17	0.48**	0.31*
SS4	0.09	0.31*	0.17	0.15	0.08	0.12	-0.00	-0.11	0.23	0.34*	0.35**	0.39**
SS5	0.01	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.26	0.06	-0.06	0.06	0.30*	0.42**	0.38**	0.58**
SS6	0.15	0.22	0.07	0.14	0.15	0.16	0.01	0.11	0.05	0.29*	0.25	0.06
Cont.	SP4	NR1	NR2	NR3	NR4	NR5	SS1	SS2	SS3	SS4	SS5	SS6
	0.35**	0.51**	0.16	0.37**	0.47**	-0.05						
	0.39**	0.50**	0.22	0.53**	0.43**	-0.17	0.65**					
	0.46**	0.35**	0.15	0.43**	0.49**	-0.18	0.41**	0.53**				
	0.45**	0.31*	0.08	0.42**	0.28*	-0.04	0.29*	0.49**	0.49**			
	0.36**	0.22	0.16	0.49**	0.13	-0.22	0.18	0.32*	0.39**	0.62**		
	0.41**	0.26	0.31*	0.30*	0.37**	0.18	0.29*	0.32*	0.39**	0.59**	0.25	

* Significant at $P < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

** Significant at $P < 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Based on the presented excerpt, it can be concluded that the second assumption adopted when performing the analysis was also confirmed, i.e. that dependent variables (individual attitudes of tourist entities according to the set model items) significantly and within

the limits of permissibility would correlate with each other.⁹¹ This result is also the answer in the section dedicated to the first task of the study (*Design and Study Sample*).

The meaning of this connection was examined through two indicators of collinearity statistics. According to the first of them (*Tolerance*), the part of the variance of the independent variable, which was not explained by variations of other independent variables, ranged from 0.50–0.65. This was confirmed by high percentage of explanations in relation to elements of the basic set, i.e. multicollinearity of the dependent variable system. As support of this result, the values of the second indicator (VIF), which ranged in the interval 1.54-1.99 (significantly less than the problematic of those above 10), were also testified (Pallant, 2011).

In terms of relation between characteristics of entities' attitudes within the subsets or regions observed (i.e. criterion and predictor variables), in the first step of analysis, an overall variance of 52.4% ($F = 1.376$, $p < 0.05$) was determined through the model assessment as a whole. This result addresses the study question, as indicated in the section about *Analysis of results*. In other words, it can be stated that the scores by tour operators set items were sufficient to indicate the regional specificity through the expressed attitudes toward sites, and in that way contributed to their valid assessment.

Finally, in the last step of regression analysis, an individual valuation of independent variables divided into groups (categories) of general assessment was calculated, in order to determine how each of these features contributed to the scores' prediction within the indicator system (i.e. dependent variable). In other words, how each group of sites (region) contributed to the unique assessment of system items (indicators) from the questionnaire. For that purpose, the specific analysis coefficients were used (Table 5). At the same time, for the purpose of further generalization and concretization of study results, the merging of all individual dependent variables into the single group—i.e. indicator system (IND_SYS) at the level of the proposed assessment model, was carried out in order to determine the values of the aforementioned coefficients.

Table 5: Regression Analysis's Coefficients^a

Model	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	Sig.	Correlations	
				Partial	Part
(Constant)		1.071	.029		
REG1	-.184	-1.041	.030	-.147	-.141
REG2	-.314	-1.729	.009	-.240	-.234
REG3	.168	1.000	.032	.141	.136
REG4	.193	1.110	.027	.157	.150

a. Dependent variable: IND_SYS.

⁹¹ A small number of the results fell below the weak correlation (<0.1), which can be explained by the higher number of criterion variables (total 24), also retained in the final model.

According to the level of prediction of systemic factors, i.e. determinants of the proposed assessment model, the second analyzed region was the most pointed (-0.31), while the remaining regions had almost the same contribution to the explanation of the dependent variables' system (0.17 – 0.19) (Peng, Lee & Ingersoll, 2002). In general, neither the statistical significance of contributed results nor the predictions of dependent variables were not at a significant level, which could result from the overlap of large number of independent variables in the questionnaire.

In terms of the percentage contribution of the most prominent region (REG2) in the prediction of the dependent variable, the value of the *Part* coefficient was -0.23 . This result corresponds to the value $r^2 = 0.05$, indicating the unique contribution of tourist entities of the central region in explaining the model's total variance of 5%. The coefficient at the same time shows how much the percentage value of the indicator's system explanation in the assessment model will decrease in case of its removal. Other analyzed regions, by their percentage contribution, fell below this level.

Accordingly, the determined contribution was reflected in the confirmation degree of evaluation items, i.e. agreement with the setting of statements that reviewed the current situation and the consent in the domain of estimated indicators. Given the existing intercorrelation level, this lower percentage can be effectively ignored within the multi-indicator assessment system, due to the cumulative effect of explaining the common variance (Draper & Smith, 2014). Therefore, the determined values of analyzed coefficients can be considered as acceptable.

MANOVA/ANOVA Analysis's Results

MANOVA analysis was preceded by initial testing of the total distribution normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate normality, homogeneity of the variance/covariance matrices, and multicollinearity (common to the standard multiple regression procedure) (Hair et al., 2014). In order to determine which differences in the scores of regionally distributed tourist entities were statistically significant, according to the groups of observed indicators, univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) for the mutual comparison of the relation between independent variables were applied secondary.

More detailed interpretation of the MANOVA analysis results showed that the number of cases ($N=55$), according to the observed model factors, was higher than the number of contained assessment items ($n_1=4$, $n_2=5$, $n_3=4$, $n_4=5$, $n_5=6$), and thus satisfied the initial condition of descriptive statistics (Huberty & Morris, 1989). The comparative results of testing the homogeneity of dependent variables' variance, using MANOVA/ANOVA analysis with the custom alpha level, are shown in Table 6. Sites with only one case (one tourist entity within the observed region) have been removed from the ANOVA's test of homogeneity of the variance.

Table 6: Results of Testing the Variance's Homogeneity

Source	Multivariate ANOVA ^a		Univariate ANOVA ^c	
Variable	<i>F</i>	Sig. ^b	<i>F</i> [*]	Sig. ^d
REG1	1.877	.052	1.579	.167
REG2	1.156	.345	.883	.541
REG3	1.239	.284	.822	.589
REG4	1.406	.187	1.310	.271

a. *df*s = (1.380)

b. *P* < 0.05

c. *df*s = (1.139)

d. *P* < 0.01

The values derived for the univariate indicator (*F*) and the determined alpha level (Sig.), through the *Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances*, in the case of MANOVA analysis, showed that assumptions about the equality of dependent variables, both individually and in the case of the presented group observation (at the level of assessment indicators), were not violated—i.e. that variable variances in relation to the observed system (group) were equal ($p > 0.05$). The value of *Wilk's Lambda Coefficient* (0.013) gave the answer to the second task of the study (section: *Design and Study Sample*), finding that the views of tour operators regarding the assessment indicators statistically differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) in relation to the regional affiliation.

With the aim of providing an even more detailed analysis of tourist entities' diversity according to the assessment criteria of appropriate indicators, the *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects* (using the Bonferroni adjustment) were conducted. Based on the corrected alpha level ($p < 0.01$) it was found that there were no statistically significant differences in the observation of assessment indicators between the individual regions (Pallant, 2011). Regarding the assessment of impact size of the respective regions on the proposed indicator system, it was found that the value of the *Partial Eta Squared* coefficient ranged from 0.36 to 0.60, indicating that the essential differences between the average score values at the group level, despite the absence of differences within the variable system, were still large (> 0.14) (Cohen, 1988).

In the output analysis table, using the *Box's Test of Covariance Matrices Equality*, it was found that the initial assumption of normality or equality was not violated. In other words, the sum of the square deviations of scores from the positive values have shown that most of entities' responses supported suggested items from the aspect of sustainability, emphasizing in this way the importance of this concept in the foreground. Based on this, it can be concluded that the achievement of destination competitiveness, according to the tour operators' opinions, nevertheless are the realistic and functionally achievable concept—in terms of supporting the elements of proposed model by market stakeholders.

Regarding the ANOVA analysis results, the *Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance* also confirmed that there was a variation equivalence in each of the study regions (Table 6). Since the independent variable in this study had four levels (i.e. subsets of the corresponding sites), it was necessary to conduct the additional ANOVA analysis of different groups with

subsequent tests, in order to finally confirm the previously stated differences among independent variables. The results of this analysis indicated that, based on the comparison between groups / regions (*between-groups*) and at the level of contained sites within them (*within-groups*), there were no statistically significant differences (REG1: $F=1.432$, $p=0.18$; REG2: $F=0.831$, $p=0.66$; REG3: $F=0.972$, $p=0.51$; REG4: $F=0.995$, $p=0.47$). The final assessment in relation to the impact size showed that the values ranged as follows: REG1 (0.44), REG2 (0.31), REG3 (0.35), and REG4 (0.35). According to Cohen's criterion (1988) this speaks of great influence, in spite of low statistical significance ($p > 0.05$) determined within the system of independent variables.

Despite the homogeneous scoring of indicators of the competitive destination system, (i.e. consensus of tourism entities by majority of set items from the questionnaire) when more detailed analysis, it is evident the presence of certain differences between the results of key systemic factor indicators. This indicates that the study had sufficient potential to perform characteristic and relevant conclusions in relation to the set study questions / assumptions.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Study Findings

Unlike other studies that have addressed the question of the conceptual defining of participants in sustainable tourism development (Maiden, 2008), or finding systemic indicators of complex adaptive approach (Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008; Jarvis et al., 2016), this study as the solution offers the model of linking specifically selected indicators that relate to the interactive system created by unique combination of elements of the destination competitiveness and the tourist space sustainability.

This study determined the primarily commercial orientation of tour operators, what can explain general neglecting the elements of sustainable subsystem and point to the incomplete conceptual insight in relation to the future basis of tourism activities. Based on this findings, it is evident that elements related to suppliers and production-service process, on the one, and users of existing tourist arrangements and market competition, on the other, still are the priority of market focusing. In other words, most of attention within the competitive destination system is given to the micro-environment. By contrast, according to the institutional management elements (i.e. macro-environment) there is still the smallest degree of understanding and cooperative-functional solidarity. The similar conclusion was also stated in the study Bulatovic and Rajovic (2016) conducted over a similar study area, which also analyzes the issue of sustainable tourism development related to the mountainous tourism site. The significance of such approaches is reflected in practical feasibility and elaboration of the conceptual background - i.e. solutional management models of the competitive tourist destination.

When comparing the created system of individual factor items (grouped in specific indicators of destination competitiveness), there is a significant interconnectedness, through which a high degree of the attitudes' explanatory characteristics of respective regions from 52% was manifested. By multivariate analysis of the system within regions it was determined that

the attitudes of tour operators in relation to the proposed assessment model differed significantly. On the other hand, the univariate analysis of this same relationship at higher alpha level has determined the lack of statistical significance (Dawson, 2002). Accordingly, depending on the level observed, it can be concluded that results of conducted study ranged around (i.e. above or below) the limits of homogeneity allowed.

Implications and Limits

The applied assessment approach for the factors of destination competitiveness can be used to determine the possible inconsistencies or disturbances of the entire system of destination sustainability (UNWTO, 2007). It is also possible to examine partially the dynamics of competitive destination system according to selected groups of factor indicators, which significantly narrows the potential area for undertaking the active management activities and establishing the rebalance and reproducibility of the competitive destination's lifecycle.

The limitations of the study relate to the homogeneity of distribution results, which was accompanied by some asymmetry (within the limits of statistical acceptability) (Tharenou, Donohue & Cooper, 2007). In other words, homogeneity related to the high degree of matching the scores, which could be the result of an insufficient scope and leveling the assessment scale. Also, the size of the sample used, in terms of its representativeness and the subsequent generalization of study results could be another limitation. The sample size was limited by small number of tourist entities / tour operators in the area of conducting the study (i.e. the size and surface area of the country). The additional difficulty was the fact that sustainability indicators, as part of the complex study model, are almost practically immeasurable (Bell & Morse, 2008), and as such do not belong to the domain of easily estimable statistical indicators.

Future Research Contribution

The presented indicator system be used to develop efficient control mechanisms for organizational management of the destination (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004). The main difficulty in the realization of this development concern the underdeveloped systemic conception of structural elements and market factors that contribute to establishing the functional-ecological sustainability within the targeted destination sub-sectors (Richards & Hall, 2002).

By focusing the assessment model towards providing quantifiable data (Lazar & Lazar, 2008) derived directly from the market (i.e. by linking with key elements of the initial model), a more adequate analysis of elements (factors) of the competitive destination system is enabled. Based on this approach, as well as the extended additional database (collected by analysis of other active system factors) would also contribute to the significant improvement and shaping the entire destination offer.

In future research, the connections between the precized systemic factors of the study model could be further elaborated. Also, the degree of their quantitative correlation could be

analytically and functionally considered, in order that the number of indicators additionally expand to other / new factors, including the specific sub-categories of study variables.

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Chronological and Demographic Determinants of School Success and Behaviour in Adolescence

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ABSTRACT

Changes in personality behavior that occur during adolescence are largely determined by the culture and the action of social factors. Accordingly, many studies have shown that social needs in this period are particularly pronounced: the need for autonomy, the need for respect and self-esteem, the need for affirmation and recognition, etc. Adolescent ages are characterized by subversive conflicts, emotional turbulence and psychological burdens. Failure in learning leads to feeling less value, insecurity, destructive reactions and the series of other unadapted forms of behavior, that greatly undermine the harmony of the wider community, significantly disturbing the quality of life of the young. The most important contribution that education can provide to the development of a young person is to help him and direct him to the area where his talents are most appropriate, where he will be satisfied and successful. In doing so, we evaluate all adolescents in relation to meeting a narrow standard of success, which is quite generalized. Current research on high school youths is mostly limited to the numerical evaluation of mental abilities (thinking, memory, acquired intelligence) manifested exclusively through grades in the grades book. Other determinants such as the emotional and social aspects of personality, individualization in teaching (interaction and cooperation), methods and techniques of work, curriculum, formation and re-education of a professional team, "real" professional assessment of the mental ability of students and partnership with parents, were quite neglected as a valid presumption of student's school success.

Keywords: Chronological and Demographic Impact, School Success and Behaviour, Teaching Curriculum, Assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Empirical- analytical work in the field of school psychology is crucial for the advancement of psychological practice in education. It is important to conduct research on a large sample of respondents in order to improve the productivity of the teaching/ professional staff and of the students themselves, as major actors in teaching. Schools need to develop strategies, methods and techniques for raising students' motivation and encouraging them to achieve the best possible school achievement. This approach is, in large extent, within competence of school psychologists, who significantly influence to the sense of accomplishment, personal competence, and to the development of a healthy student personality. Neither cultural milieu, which differs significantly from others, can much affect to the social maturity and reasoning of young people about interpersonal relationships. However, we can claim that the surveyed environments in this survey, the cities of Konjic and Jablanica- BiH, are in many ways similar. Cultural, environmental, political, economic and educational issues are parallel to each other, in both cities, with cultural manifestations through theater, cinema, literary works, historical aspects of the city, ecology and tourism development and the development of infrastructure and architectural features, but it's supposed there are differences pronounced in the cities.

The cultural and demographic factors give us the right to establish a hypothesis that supports the differences in the acquired- moral structure of the personality, through the reflection of the emotional and social intelligence of the students of both cities. However, the statistical indicators in the studies so far indicate that the difference between the two variables is not sufficiently pronounced in order to emphasize them as quantitatively significant. Knowledge of the value orientations types is essential for: analyzes of the educational value of work, the professional orientation of young people, verification of the success of reform-institutional changes, behavior of young people and to determine the general success of the young generation. An important segment of the research is characterized by establishing the relationship between socio- educational and differentiation on the educational value of youth work. Among the most important factors influence to the formation of these relationships are: socio- educational and value's differentiation (from the aspect of analyzes of social- class belonging and socio- educational origin), also education with social mobility (considering issues of individual and class promotion through education).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on socio- educational differentiation focuses on identifying primary sources of socio-educational inequalities. (...) The causes of value differentiation are not a simple reflex of social and educational change. The values of individuals and groups may be "ahead" or lagging behind institutional changes "(Takšić, 1988). "The history of cross- cultural research on cognition is interfered with strong contradictions. Differences between cultural groups in the average score on cognitive tests were interpreted in dramatically different ways. There are authors who interpret these differences as more or less direct expressions of variation in innate ability. However, the more dominant view today is that cognitive processes are strongly linked to culture. Different cultural groups have different patterns (modalities) of ability, which are

deeply rooted in ecological needs as well as sociocultural patterns. From this perspective, it is easy to assume that there is a different organization of cognitive activity as well as qualitatively different intelligence. If we start from the view that cognition is a cultural- specific area of psychological functioning, there is no necessary for the question of how large differences are in intelligence between members of different cultures” (Biro, Novovic & Tovilovic, 1990). "One specific area of ethnopsychology is the human understanding of the concept of cognitive ability (intelligence) in their culture. A review of research in this area has led the discussion, concluding that there are many different perceptions of human abilities that are often opposed to opinions about 'pure- cognitive' abilities, because they include social and moral abilities' (Berry, 1984; Ruzzgis, 1994).

The results of a study by Berry and Bennett (1992) on the Cree Indians of Northern Canada are illustrative. The Euro- Canadian education system did not benefit this population, and the Community Educational Council sought to answer the question: what are the goals we need to educate our children and how to achieve it? Respect for other living and non- living creatures as well as objects (natural and human handicrafts) from the environment is central to many hunter-gatherer nations. Listening to others is considered smart in the Cree people, while insensitivity to others, disharmony and destruction are considered stupid and associated with incapacity. Studies like this leave us in doubt as to whether or not members of the Cree people are more or less intelligent than other cultural groups (especially people from urban western societies) when their view of ability is so different. A particular problem is the influence of culture on behavior in a test situation ”(Berry et al., 2002). “According to the findings of Gleitman et al. (1999) many Native Americans educate their children not to answer as long as they are not completely sure of their correctness, which is undoubtedly a handicap in speed tests (and not just in terms of speed) ”(Gleitmana et al., 1999). "Given that intelligence is a socially defined construct, culture plays an important role in the assessment of intelligence. Different cultures, including subcultures within society, interpret intelligence differently, evaluate and learn different types of intellectual skills in their culture. Western culture is characterized by emphasizing cognitive dimensions of intelligence, such as verbal and mathematical abilities and logical reasoning, while non- western cultures include more social dimensions, such as the ability to grasp another person's point of view, cooperativeness and helping others ”(Dasen, 1984; Serpel , 1984). "A study conducted by Okagaki and Sternberg (1993) examined parents, immigrants from Cambodia, Mexico, the Philippines and Vietnam, as well as parents- born Anglo- Americans and Mexicans. All but Anglo- American parents stated that in their view of an intelligent child are non- cognitive characteristics such as motivation, social skills and practical school skills are even more important than cognitive abilities such as verbal competence and problem- solving ”(Okagaki and Sternberg, 1993). 'Glick (1975) states that members of the Kpella agricultural people of West Africa group objects by function, not category. Culture also creates different patterns of parenting behavior that contributes to the development of specific cognitive abilities. Thus, Dube (1982) found that children from Botswana, to whom family members traditionally tell stories, have an excellent memory for stories compared to American children. In traditional psychometric tests of intelligence, Botswana children achieve significantly lower scores than children from Western culture." (Dube, 1982; according to Bryant and Maxwell, 1999).

METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS AND RESULTS

Methods of research

The study used an empirical- analytical method and a method of theoretical comparative analysis of content;

Population and pattern of research

In this study, data were collected on a group of 415 subjects. The data were collected by the group work students method in two different cities and by the same types of schools in both cities. Statistical units for the survey sample were selected from the basic statistical set consisting of high school students: Gymnasium, Economic, Medical and Tourism. The sample consists of students from the population of the first and fourth classes, in Konjic and Jablanica. We examined eight first- grade classes (215 students) and eight fourth- grade classes (200 students).

Variables of research

Independent variables are: 1.) Demographic factors 2.) Chronological factors;

Dependent variables of the research are: 1.) School success and 2.) Students behavior.

Dependent variables are variables whose effects change with the changes and influence of independent variables. The results of many studies, in the broadest sense, indicate that success in school learning depends, in one hand on society itself, cultural differences, demographic characteristics, chronological characteristics of the target population, its goals of upbringing and education; in the other hand as the organization of learning, the personality of teachers and his relationships with students, family relationships, methods of learning, ie his psychophysical abilities, motivational, cognitive and affective factors. Given that the focus of work is the problem of school success and the causes of adolescent behavior, this work belongs to the field of pedagogical (applied) and social (fundamental, basic) psychology.

School Achievement- Mathematics grades and grade point average in all first semester grades were selected. Accordingly, these objects represent an approximation of fluid and crystallized intelligence (Cattell, 1971; Horn and Cattell., 1966; Horn, 1982). The reason that the grades were taken in the semester is that the range of grades is higher than at the end of the school year, which is more interesting for the statistical analysis of the work. *School behavior* - Student behavior is recorded through the criterion of assessment of behavior (eg, good, bad). Affirmation of students' individual abilities in the social environment is important, in order for productivity and the purpose of education, to reach the optimum limit for action.

Problem of research

The level of knowledge acceptability in this research is a success in the school learning of the first and fourth grade of secondary school- Departments: Gymnasium, Economics, Medical and Catering- Tourism school. Students behaviour measured by educative obedience,

through school behaviour grades. Its depend by Chronological and Demographical factors of students (Ages and social environments of urban cultural backgrounds).

Hypothesis

- H1: It can be argued that there is a significant difference in academic achievement among students in grades I and IV of the same type of school;
- H2: It is assumed that there are significant differences in the academic performance of the same classes, in schools in different cultural centers;
- H3: We can argue that there is no significant difference between school achievement and student behavior at school;

Techniques and instruments of research

Analysis of School work Diaries and Indexes used, for insight into school grades and student behavior. Statistical data processing was performed according to the procedure of the SPSS computer program.

1. Display the normality of the distributions of the described variables,
2. Show response frequencies of the investigated phenomena,
3. Perform standardization of data according to the procedure of nonparametric and parametric methods: H_i^2 test, Pearson's and Spirman's correlation coefficient.

Results of research

- *H1*: It can be argued that there is a significant correlation in academic achievement among students in grades I and IV of the same type of school;

The percentage results of the Economic school are as follows: in I and II classes - 3.5% of pupils achieved bad school success, while in III and IV classes 20% of pupils achieved bad school success; In I and II classes- good school success is present in 49.1% of students, and in III and IV classes 17.5% of students have good school success; while in IV wards this percentage is 35%; Excellent school achievement was achieved in I classes by 15.8%, while in IV classes by 27.5% of students.

Table 1: Hi square test between school achievement of students I and IV classes of economical school

School= Economical

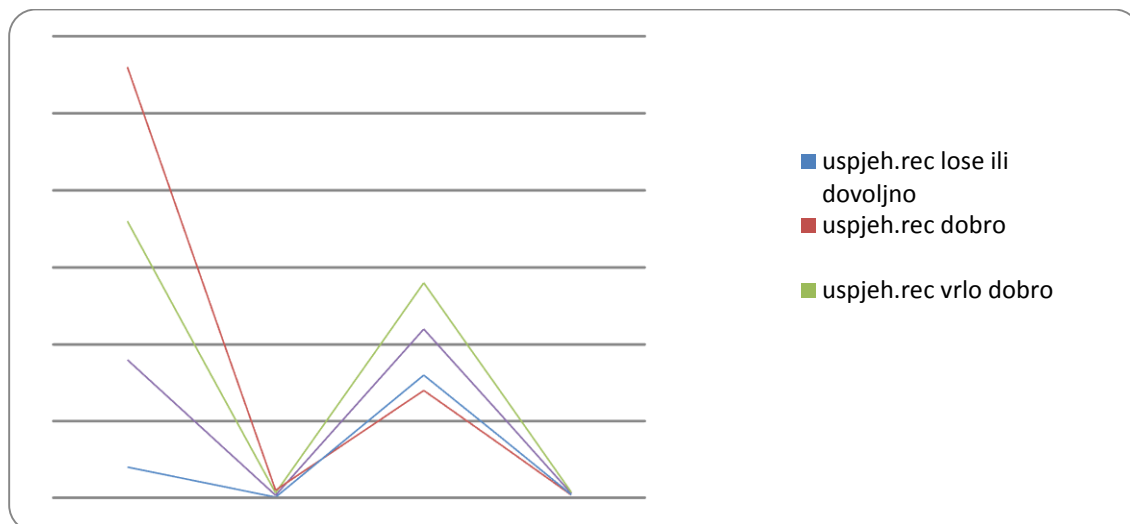
Class * school success/ interaction

		success.rec				Total
		sufficient	good	very good	excellent	
Class	1 Count	2	28	18	9	57
	% within Class	3,5%	49,1%	31,6%	15,8%	100,0%
	4 Count	8	7	14	11	40
	% within Class	20,0%	17,5%	35,0%	27,5%	100,0%
Total	Count	10	35	32	20	97
	% within Razred	10,3%	36,1%	33,0%	20,6%	100,0%

Table 2: Pearson's coefficient of correlation between variables of „student's school success“ and „types of classes- I and IV economical school“

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.362 ^a	3	,002
Likelihood Ratio	15,054	3	,002
Linear-by-Linear Association	,069	1	,793
N of Valid Cases	97		

Graphic 1: Showing correlation between variables „school student's success“ and „type of classes- I i IV economical school“



Gymnasium, as follows, provides a statistical analysis: Poor school achievement, in I classes there are 7.7% of students, and in IV classes 0% of students; Good school achievement was achieved in 7 classes, 7.7%, while in IV classes this percentage was 27.3%; Very good school success, in I classes there are 42,3% and in IV classes 42,4% of students; 42.3% of students achieved excellent school success, while in IV classes it was 30.3%.

School=Gymnas.

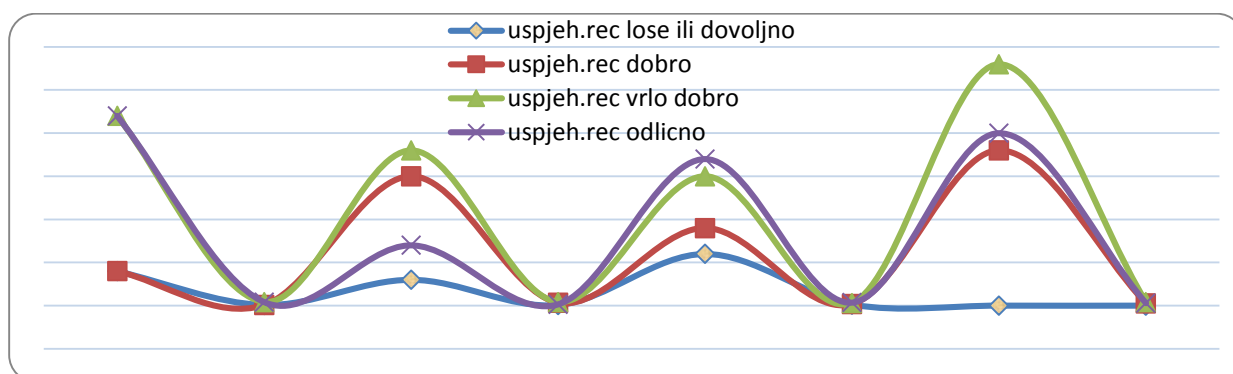
Table 3: Hi square test between school achievement of students I and IV classes- Gymn.

Class * Success			Success.rec				Total
			sufficient	good	very good	excellent	
Class	1	Count	4	4	22	22	52
		% within Razred	7,7%	7,7%	42,3%	42,3%	100,0%
	2	Count	3	15	18	7	43
		% within Razred	7,0%	34,9%	41,9%	16,3%	100,0%
	3	Count	6	9	15	17	47
		% within Razred	12,8%	19,1%	31,9%	36,2%	100,0%
	4	Count	0	18	28	20	66
		% within Razred	,0%	27,3%	42,4%	30,3%	100,0%
Total	Count		13	46	83	66	208
	% within Razred		6,3%	22,1%	39,9%	31,7%	100,0%

Table 4: Pearson's coefficient of correlation between variables of „student's school success“ and „types of classes- I and IV Gymn.“

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.946 ^a	9	,006
Likelihood Ratio	28,019	9	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	,001	1	,982
N of Valid Cases	208		

Graphic 2: Correlation between variables „school success“ and „type of classes- I i IV Gymn.“



Medical school can be proud of variable outcomes, especially in the categories of poor and excellent academic achievement. 22.9% of pupils achieved poor school achievement in I classes, while 0% of pupils achieved this in IV classes; Good school achievement, in I classes, is 40% of students, and in final classes 12.5% of students; Very good school success, in the first classes earned 31.4% and in the final classes 28.1% of students; 5.7% of students achieved excellent school success in the initial classes, while 59.4% of the students in the final classes achieved this.

School = Medical

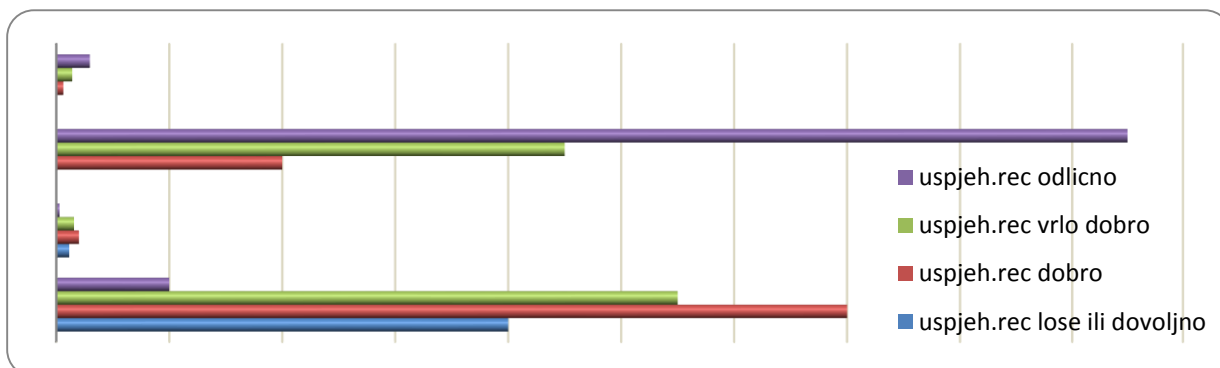
Table 5: Hi square test between school achievement of students I and IV classes- Med.

			success.rec				Total
			sufficient	good	very good	excellen t	
Class	2	Count	8	14	11	2	35
		% within Razred	22,9%	40,0%	31,4%	5,7%	100,0%
	4	Count	0	4	9	19	32
		% within Razred	,0%	12,5%	28,1%	59,4%	100,0%
Total		Count	8	18	20	21	67
		% within Razred	11,9%	26,9%	29,9%	31,3%	100,0%

Table 6: Pearson's coefficient of correlation between variables of „student's school success“ and „types of classes- I and IV Medic.“

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.438 ^a	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	32,944	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23,689	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	67		

Graphic 3: Correlation between variables „school success“ and „type of classes- I i IV Medical“



Catering and Tourism technique school is similar to Medical school in terms of results, but in a smaller percentage it is represented by the number of excellent students and in the greater part by the number of bad and good students. Bad academic achievement it has gained 27.8% of pupils in I classes and 0% of pupils in IV classes; 33.3% achieved good academic success in I classes, while in IV classes this percentage was 44%; Very good school achievement, 38.9% in I classes and 48% in IV classes; Excellent school success was achieved by 0% of students in I classes, while in IV classes this figure was 8%.

School= Tourism school

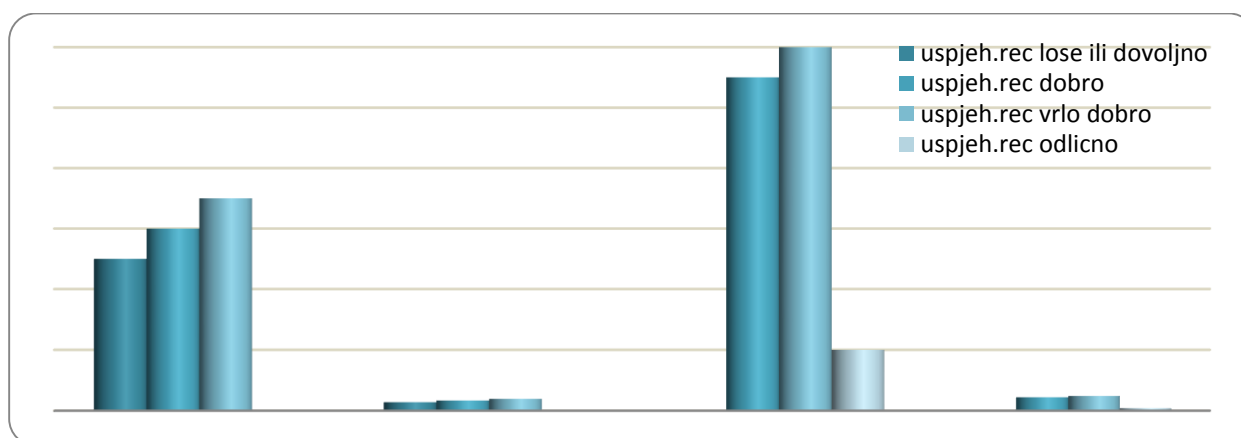
Table 7: Hi square test between school achievement of students I and IV classes- Toursim school

			success.rec				Total
			sufficient	good	Very good	excellent	
Class	2	Count	5	6	7	0	18
		% within Razred	27,8%	33,3%	38,9%	,0%	100,0%
	4	Count	0	11	12	2	25
		% within Razred	,0%	44,0%	48,0%	8,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	5	17	19	2	43
		% within Razred	11,6%	39,5%	44,2%	4,7%	100,0%

Table 8: Pearson's coefficient of correlation between variables of „student's school success“ and „types of classes- I and IV Toursim school“

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.882 ^a	3	,031
Likelihood Ratio	11,383	3	,010
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,641	1	,010
N of Valid Cases	43		

Graphic 4: Correlation between variables „school success“ and „type of classes- I i IV Tourism“



The hypothesis that there is no significant correlation between student academic achievement and class type (I and IV) is reasonably contested and denied, because in all the tested variables of this hypothesis, statistically significant difference in school success was shown between the initial and final classes, ie the association of school success with the types of classes has been proven. Using Pearson's correlation coefficient, a statistically valid difference was shown in Secondary schools of Economics and Medicine, with a probability of error of 1% ($p < 0.01$), with a high confidence of 99%, given the differences in school success of the first and fourth classes of the same type of school. Catering- tourism technique school also shows a statistically significant correlation in school performance between the first and fourth grades, but at a significance of 95% or a probability of error of 5% ($p < 0.05$).

From this, we can say that the most represented are good and very good students, but the existence of a difference in success (I and IV classes) according to the chronological age of the students, adaptability to work, maturity and responsibility for work habits and their own aspiration, brings commendable picture of the productivity of professors in schools with adequate motivation of students to achieve greater achievement. It is important to state that students should not become stigmatized from the very beginning of secondary education, whose label would follow them continuously until the end of this level of education. What is worrying here is the decrease in the number of excellent students in the upper grades, tested by the high school classes, by 12%. Of course, it is also questionable that the increase in bad school achievement, in the final sections of economic school, is 16.5%.

This fact, in large part, leads to a more serious reflection on the priorities of schooling, the representation of motivation and recognition of students' potential and their creative development, in the areas for which they have affinities. It is evident that several causal factors play a role in the factual status of the academic achievement of the adolescents of the schools examined. Some professors have a higher examination criterion in lower classes, than their colleagues in the final grades. Then, the curriculum may vary from school year to school year and may not be compatible with upcoming materials. Then the integration of the material into the whole and the continuity of the students' work is almost unimaginable and very difficult. Also, the professors' work methods, forms and methods of presentation are of great importance for the high academic achievement of students. From our results, it is obvious that economics professors cannot integrate the curriculum year after year, where the percentage of bad students in the final grades is significantly increased. The inability to motivate students, their lack of interest, their preoccupation with the amount of teaching content, redundant data or even too demanding tasks for chronological levels of their students, may be one of the causes of this consequent situation in the schools tested. Gymnasium professors are probably more pedagogically oriented, so that they become more sympathetic over time, which is indicated by the fact that there are significantly lack of students with bad school achievement, as much as 0%.

► *H2*: It is assumed that there are significant differences in the academic achievement of the same grades (same types of schools) in different urban areas- cities;

Class =1,2

Table 9: Hi square test between school success I i II classes of different urban's schools**Town * success**

			success.rec				Total
			sufficien t	good	Very good	excellent	
Town	Konjic	Count	8	14	11	2	35
		% within Grad	22,9%	40,0%	31,4%	5,7%	100,0%
Jablanica		Count	8	21	25	7	61
		% within Grad	13,1%	34,4%	41,0%	11,5%	100,0%
Total		Count	16	35	36	9	96
		% within Grad	16,7%	36,5%	37,5%	9,4%	100,0%

Table 10: Pearson's correlation coefficient between „school success“ and „urban's environment“ of students I i II classes

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,785 ^a	3	,426
Likelihood Ratio	2,812	3	,422
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,654	1	,103
N of Valid Cases	96		

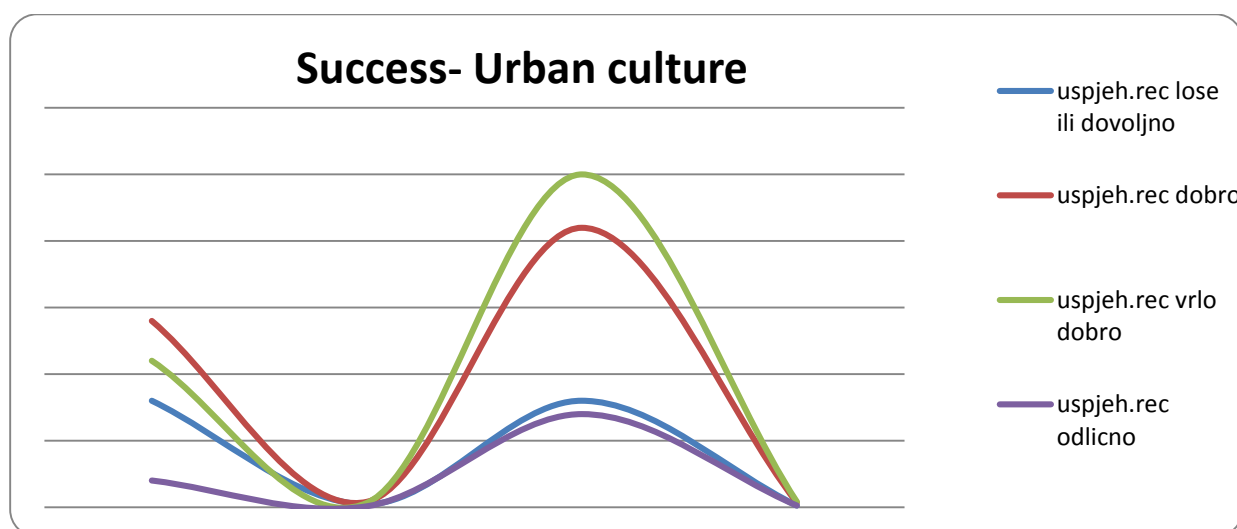
Graphic 5: Relation between „school success“ and „urban's areas“ of students I i II classes

Table 11: Hi square test between school success III i IV classes of different urban's areas

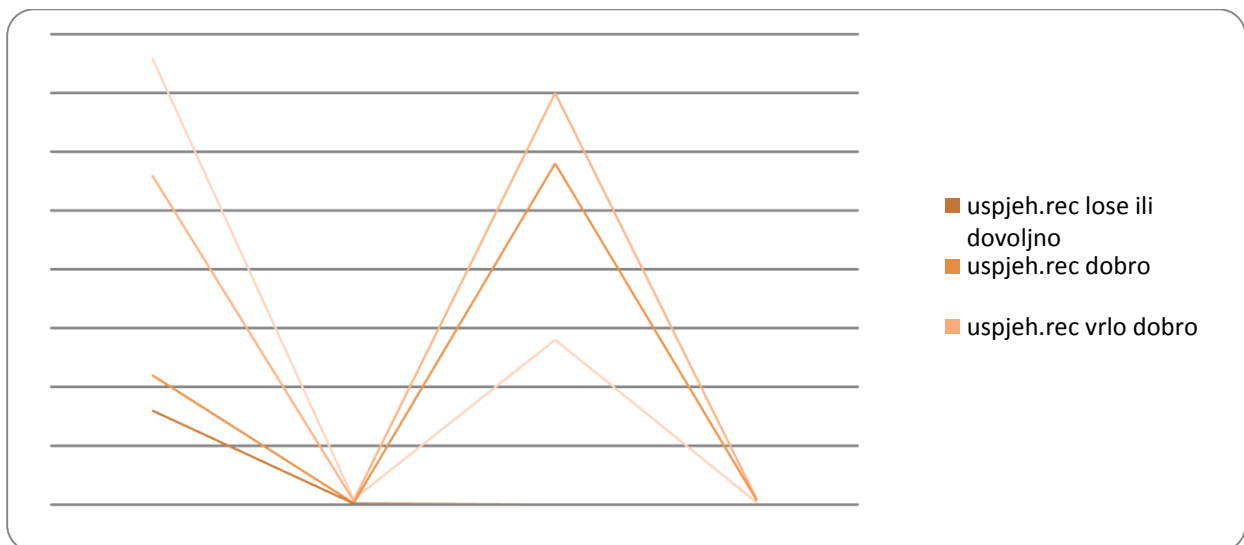
Class=3,4

			School success.rec				Total
			sufficient	good	Very good	excellent	
Town	Konjic	Count	8	11	28	38	85
		% within Grad	9,4%	12,9%	32,9%	44,7%	100,0%
	Jablanica	Count	0	29	35	14	78
		% within Grad	,0%	37,2%	44,9%	17,9%	100,0%

Table 12: Pearson's correlation coefficient between „school success“ and „urban's environment“of students III i IV classes

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.705 ^a	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	31,475	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,093	1	,148
N of Valid Cases	163		

Graphic 6: Relation between „school success“ and „urban's areas“of students III i IV classes;



The hypothesis is partially confirmed. There is no statistically significant correlation between students in the first and second grades in the academic achievement of students, in different urban areas or at $p < 0.05$ or 5% probability of error, while in the final grades (third and fourth grades) there is an exclusively statistically significant correlation between the same variables, at a probability of 0.01 or 99% certainty of occurrence. This tells us that students of the same chronological age and the same type of school show a great difference in achievement when it comes to initial (I and II) classes, given in different socio- cultural backgrounds or cities. The achievements of "younger" students are more compatible with the type of school tested in different cities, than those of "older" classes, where the correlation between learning and urban impact is almost imperceptible. The link between the academic achievement of older

students and the urban environment is minimal, as students of both towns Konjic and Jablanica achieved a similar ratio of bad and excellent grades in the final classes. Thus, we can say that pupils of the elementary classes (I and II), in Konjic schools, showed extremely bad school achievement, of 22.9%, while of excellent students are almost six times less, in the number of 5.7%; 9.4% of older students are with poor passage, while 44.7% are excellent of older in the same school.

First grade students (I and II), in Jablanica schools, showed bad school performance at a percentage of 13.1%, while excellent students were slightly less, at a percentage of 11.5%; Older students with bad grades are 0%, while those with excellent grades are 17.9%. In both schools, there are more bad students in the "younger" classes, than in the "older" ones.

This can be interpreted as the inability to adapt younger adolescents to the requirements of the curriculum, in secondary schools in different urban areas. The difference between primary and secondary education is quite large, because the examination criteria and the curriculum in the secondary school are much more demanding. Secondary education is still represented by the traditional system and the redundant curriculum. Primary education in BiH is, on a continuous and progressive basis, based on the implementation of the Bologna system, through the representation of a nine- year "step by step" program. This program, unfortunately, is not completely correlated and upgraded with the traditional school, as it rests on different postulates of lighter criteria for student examination, shortened curriculum, descriptive evaluation, individualized teaching, cooperation and interaction, group work, intensive workshops, seminars, essays, conceptual designs, etc. Young adolescents from initial classes can also be interpreted by their lack of emotional maturity, which is reflected in flexibility, organization, confidence, self- criticism, altruism, diligence, persistence, etc. For all of the above reasons, it was logical to expect a decrease in the academic achievement of students in the first classes, in the schools of both cities surveyed. However, there are also differences in the learning of young people from unequal backgrounds, under different social influences, where younger adolescents are more vulnerable to the influence of the demographic and cultural value system. Eg. in the Konjic school, there is a much higher proportion of students with bad academic performance, than in the Jablanica school. Educational competition is much more expressed in larger urban's areas, so there is stronger exam criterion for students in Konjic.

This two environments are not very urban, but significant inequality is shown, according to statistical estimates. The city of Konjic is, in fact, a larger urban area, with a longer tradition of ethnological mentality and a larger population, as well as a more favorable demographic position towards the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Jablanica also has its resource values, from natural to human, which are more conservative and mentally preserved, probably due to the smaller population, which is, on the whole, observant. Given the population, the number of elementary schools in the Konjic municipality is much larger, so that variable and divergent criteria for assessing equal knowledge in different schools are expected. Establishing a universal criterion in secondary education, for all students from all schools, is a very difficult and time- consuming process in this area. Of course, this also involves meeting the students, through their previous level of knowledge and work habits, as well as individual mental and

affective abilities, as well as bringing them together into one unit. This does not means short and easy demand for the high school professors and their commitment towards students.

Equally, the fact that the curriculum is identical in both types of schools, tested in both cities, does not leave much space to mitigate the differences in academic achievement of first-grade students, given by the school differences (cultural characteristics of the cities surveyed).

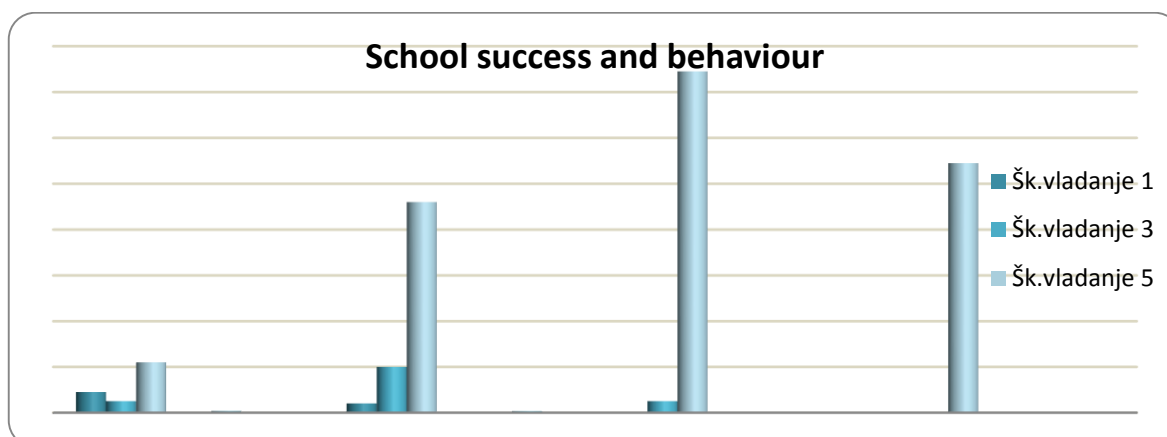
► *H3*: We can argue that there is no significant difference between school achievement and student behavior at school;

Table 13: *Hi square test between school achievement and school behaviour of students*

			School behaviour			Total
			1	3	5	
Success.rec	sufficient	Count	9	5	22	36
		% within Behaviour	69,2%	16,7%	5,9%	8,7%
	good	Count	4	20	92	116
		% within Behaviour	30,8%	66,7%	24,7%	28,0%
	Very good	Count	0	5	149	154
		% within Behaviour	,0%	16,7%	40,1%	37,1%
	excellent	Count	0	0	109	109
		% within Behaviour	,0%	,0%	29,3%	26,3%
Total		Count	13	30	372	415
		% within Behaviour	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 14: Pearson's correlation coefficient between „school success“ and „behaviour of students“

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	99.607 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	78,675	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	71,399	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	415		

Graphic 7: Showing relation between „school success“ and „school behaviour of students“**Table 15: Spearman's correlation coefficient between „school success“ and „behaviour of students“ in school**

			School behaviour	School success
Spearman's rho	School behaviour	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	.369**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000
		N	415	415
	School success	Correlation Coefficient	.369**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
		N	415	415

The hypothesis is confirmed. Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients show a statistically significant correlation between school achievement and adolescent behavior in the schools, tested on N= 415 students. A statistical significance of 99%, with a 0.01 or 1% probability of error, tells us that students who have excellent and very good grades, certainly show appropriate behavioral responses, both within school and in extracurricular activities. Whereas, bad students, coming from rather pedagogically neglected families, low educational status and socio- economic status, manifest their maladaptation to the demands of the environment, unethical, asocial and delinquent tendencies, through irresponsibility towards school achievement. Consequently, they also have worse grades in most subjects envisaged in the curriculum for the appropriate secondary school, which is a consequence of low self-esteem, self- criticism, negligence, insubordination, insincerity, egoism and other uncharacteristic personality traits, of such at educated youth. The wrong value system, which is far from academic self and more based on physical and traditional achievement, certainly does not bring prosperity to these young generations. There is no student who did not get a bad grade or at least a grade lower, than he or she expected. The reasons for school failure can be different and often several are interfered. The most common causes of misconduct are: poor child skills, loss of motivation, impaired attention and concentration, lack of work habits or

lack of previous knowledge, ineffective teaching methods, fear of questioning, negative attitudes toward school or inappropriate teaching methods for particular material. The child, when faced with excessive and overwhelming demands, fails and tries to defend himself by avoiding learning and taking a negative attitude. The problem also arises due to wrong planning of learning time and bad strategy.

CONCLUDING REMARK

In the mentioned hypotheses, there is analysing of statistical significance of the association between school achievement and adolescent school behavior, as well as the association between school performance of students in different classes, in different cities (chronological and demographic aspect).

Hypothesis H1, concerning the claim that there is a significant differences in school achievement among students of I and IV classes, of the same type of school, is confirmed. In all tested variables of this hypothesis, statistically significant correlation in school success was shown between the initial and final classes, that is the association of school success with the types of classes proved. Using Pearson's correlation coefficient, a statistically valid correlation was shown in Economics and Medicine highschool, with a probability of error of 1% ($p < 0.01$), with a high confidence of 99%, given the differences in school performance of the first and fourth classes of the same type of school. Tourism technique school also shows a statistically significant correlation in school performance, between the first and fourth grades, but at a significance of 95% or a probability of error of 5% ($p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis H2 assumes that there are significant differences in the academic performance of the same classes (of the same types of schools), in different urban areas- cities. The hypothesis is partially confirmed. There isn't a statistically significant correlation between pupils, of the first and second grades, in school achievement of students from different urban areas, neither at $p < 0.05$ or 5% probability of error, while in the final grades (third and fourth grades) there is an exclusively statistically significant correlation between the same variables, at a probability of 0.01 or 99% certainty of occurrence. This tells us that students of the same chronological age and the same type of school show a great difference in achievement when it comes to initial classes (I and II) through different socio- cultural environments or cities, to which younger students are more vulnerable.

Hypothesis H3 attempts to establish that there is no significant difference between school achievement and student behavior at school. The hypothesis is confirmed. Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients show a statistically significant correlation between school achievement and adolescent behavior in the schools tested students, on a sample survey of the total ($N = 415$) students. A statistical significance of 99%, with a 0.01 or 1% probability of error, tells us that students who have excellent and very good grades certainly show appropriate behavioral responses, both within the school and in extracurricular activities. Such is the situation only with traditional school grades and behaviour, which are currently being more evaluated in the old traditional numerical way (as well as individual- halo effect assessments,

without appreciation the student's skills of presentation, while the learning style of the student and his/ her certain personality traits are less noticeable by the teacher).

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Training Translators of Legal Texts

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In this study, the issue of how should translators, especially the translators of legal texts be trained in the contemporary world, which has become a Global Village,

I-First the trainer should teach why and how the legal discourse is different from daily language

II-Then the general characteristics of legal language, which are common in every legal language should be given,

III-As a third step, the origins of English legal language, the influences of other languages on it should be given. For example there are Anglo-Saxon, French and Latin influences on English legal language

IV-As the fourth step the general characteristics of English legal language should be revised

A translator should know these influences in order to determine his approach to the original text, the strategies he will use, and his targets.

V-The students or the future translators should be familiar with the translation tools or CAT tools in translating legal texts, because the use of translation technologies will be of much help in dealing with the translation of legal texts.

VI-Finally, translator training should be coordinated together with the industry. In the current demands of higher education, university-industry cooperation is an essential fact. Therefore the market and the needs and demands of the market should be considered in translator training, especially in the training of the translators of legal texts.

INTRODUCTION

To start with the first step, the students should know that Every field of expertise develops its own language features (Gibbons, 2003, p.36). The students should also know how and why the legal discourse is different from Daily language: Legal language is said to be a Jargon, which means it is a Technical terminology belonging to a certain craft, job or profession (Tiersma, 1999:106) or it is supposed to be an **Argot**: A specific way of communication used in a group, consciously or unconsciously, in order to isolate the group from non-members (Melinkoff, 1963:18)

- Specialized texts have a discourse which is different from daily language and discourse.
- Therefore, translators have to adopt a certain kind of approach to such texts.
- Law and medicine are the main areas of specialized texts.

As the second step the future translators of legal texts should know the general characteristics of all the legal documents:

1. Almost all the legal texts have archaic language, because

- References are made to **very old texts**, such as judicial decisions, wills, contracts quoted in support of legal arguments. This shows the continuing validity of rules, doctrines and thus brings about the concept of **precedent**: gives a conservative nature to the language of law as it substantiates its roots in the past. Due to the preservation of terms of art that were established centuries ago, legal language is marked by old fashioned syntax and antiquated vocabulary. It has a reason:
- It attributes an omnipresent quality to law signifying that
- it existed before,
- it exists now,
- and it will exist in the future.

Archaism is an old and outdated word or expression that is still in use in legal writing, which are believed to add some form of formality and seriousness to the contexts where they occur (Awe and Fanokun, 2018: p.5). For Veretina-Chiriac (2012, p.53), archaism is a typical indicator of legalisms and lawyerisms belonging to formal style which makes the document concise and precise. As Crystal & Davy (1969, p.207) point out, “it is especially noticeable that any passage of legal English is usually well studded with archaic words and phrases of a kind that could be used by no one else but lawyers.”

2. All the legal texts have official jargon: The ceremony in the courts adds to the formality: People rise from their seats when the judge appears in the court, they listen to the decision of the court while standing. The air of solemnity and formality is substantiated by the gowns and wigs of the British judges and the gowns of the Turkish judges and lawyers. Tiersma points out that this is to make the audience understand that what is going on at the courts is very solemn and has a gravity (1999:100)

3. The prominent feature of legal language is Complexity (Tiersma,2003:60): Legal language in general is famous for long and complex sentences. Many rules about various issues

are added to the present laws without deleting or cancelling the existing rules, information, concepts and conditions.

For eg: new laws are made to adjust legal rules to cope with the changes in technology or changes in social attitude or expectations. With the spread of computers law had to develop in many ways including the arrangement of rules about how to make contracts over internet. Laws concerning the computer frauds emerged, and in terms of the changes in the social life the issues such as human genetics and abortion, single parent families, open gay and lesbian relationships came on the agenda. The result is ever growing complexity of the sentences due to the newly added rules and regulations concerning these issues. Thus the sentences of legal texts grow into complexity.

III-In order to recognize and understand the features and characteristics of a legal language, the future translators have to be familiar with the influences on them. Therefore the third step is to teach the students the influences on the English legal language.

There are 3 influences on English legal language:

1- The Anglo Saxon influence: The Bretons trying to resist the Pict and Scotch attacks from the North called the Anglo Saxons for help, who came and settled to Angle-Land in 450 AC. Thus they influenced the legal language. The most important on Anglo Saxons on English legal language is the legal terminology which reflects alliteration. Words such as “hold harmless”, “aid and abet”, “any and all” were introduced to English legal language by the Anglo Saxons. The important thing for the future translators is that they do not have to imitate this alliteration when they are translating because in the ancient time when they are introduced into the language, the printing machine was not invented and the law was exercised orally, and this alliteration was made to ensure that the words having the same sound will remain more easily in people’s minds because of the repetition of the same sound recurrently. This information is very important for the translator: Should he translate the repetitions? No, he should not, but he should give the force of the repetitions.

2- The second influence on the English legal language is

Latin Influence:

Under the power of the Roman church, the language throughout Europe for written texts was Latin.

By the arrival Christian missionaries in England in 597 AC., Latin entered into the English legal language and some of its terminology were enshrined in legal texts. Latin phrases such as

Bona fide

Res judicata

Onus probandi / burden of proof

Mors civilis/civil death entered into English legal language. Translating them or not depends on the norms of the target culture

3-The third influence is French-Norman Influence, which came into existence by the Norman invasion in 1066. By this influence, some terms written following the rules of French grammar entered into the legal language, such as “Accounts payable”, “Attorney general”, “Notary public”, “Accounts receivable”, “Court martial”. The important thing for the future translator is that when translating from Turkish into English, they have to follow the correct word order in these technical word pairs.(Tiersma, 1999:9-15)

-Now the future translators should be familiar with some specific features of English legal language:

A) Repetition of synonymic words in English legal language: (Tiersma, 2003: 14)

In English legal language, two or more synonymous words are used together. The aim is to make sure that people who speak any of the three languages – namely Anglo-Saxon, Latin and French- will understand at least one of them

Eg: “The complaining party **presents, gives and exhibits** the subscribed petitions and articles.....”

Some of the word pairs are as below:

mind and memory, fit and proper, will and testament, to have and to hold, rest, residue and remainder, give and bequeath, acknowledge and confess, True and correct.

This information is very important for the future translator because if he knows the reason of this repetition, he does not attempt to do the same in his translation.

B)Using two or more words instead of one: to make possible to remember the concepts more easily.

“By means of”instead of “by”, now.....at this present moment of time, before.....no later than, after.....subsequent to, slowly.....at slow speed, if.....in the event that.

There is another and a very interesting reason for that: At that time when the law was written by the clerks, they were paid for every word they wrote down. Therefore they enjoyed being more expressive !!!....

C) Ambiguity in English legal language:

The language of law is not completely and totally precise, logical and clear, but also rather vague, sometimes imprecise (Onyemelukwe ve Alo 2017: 5(3): 57-64).

There are many ambiguous words in English legal language such as: due process
probable cause
reasonable
unreasonable

fair division

Eg: The damage shall be covered in a **reasonable period of time**.

And the same feature takes place in Turkish legal language too:

They secure flexibility in interpreting the laws

They ensure the adaptation of laws to changing conditions

They ensure their validity for new conditions which may appear in the future.

As obvious, there is a reason for the ambiguity, therefore the translator should not be tempted to interpret ambiguous terms or phrases, but reproduce the ambiguity as literally as possible.

There are specific kinds of ambiguity:

LEXICAL AMBIGUITY-POLYSEMY

There is sometimes lexical vagueness in polysemic words, written in the same way, but meaning different concepts.

Eg: Ex. APPROPRIATE

We appropriated funds to pay for the new machinery (meaning: we reserved funds)

We made the appropriate order as to cost. (We made the convenient order in comparison to cost)

Ex. COMMISSION

To act within one's commission (to act within one's mandate)

To work for a basic salary plus commission (to get a basic salary, in addition a commission)

A ship commissioned by the Ministry of Defence (a ship put into service by the Ministry of Defence)

2. SYNONYMS

Nuances of meaning should be clarified and translated accordingly in groups of terminology which means more or less the same.

Eg: abolish, repeal, cancel, annul, revoke, rescind, lift, terminate, etc.

As we have already mentioned there are pair of words by repeating 2 or 3 synonymic words one after the other, such as:

null and void:

False and untrue

Sole and exclusive

Final and conclusive
Alter and change
Force and effect
Fit and proper
Fair and equitable
Aid and abet
Full, true and correct
Rest, residue and remainder
Give, devise, and bequeath
Nominate, constitute and appoint
Cancel, annul, and set aside

Generally one of the synonymic words is Anglo-Saxon origin, the other is French and the third, if there is any, is Latin origin. And the aim is to make sure that every section of the society, speaking Anglo-Saxon, French or Latin, would understand at least one of the words. Therefore the future translator should know the reason of the repetition of such synonymic words in order not to be trapped to translate them into Turkish by using 2 or 3 synonymic words. Whereas he should translate them in a way compatible with the target language conventions, and should not repeat 3 synonymous words in Turkish, because by now he knows the reason of this repetition.

D) EVERYDAY VOCABULARY IN LEGAL TEXTS

It is one of the main problems for the legal translators. They are prone to translate literally and write down the first meaning they find in dictionaries. Semi technical vocabulary is a complex group as it contains terms that have one (or more) meaning in the everyday world, and another in the field of law. The translator must be particularly careful to take nothing for granted and be very cautious in selecting among the various options available. He should consult specialist dictionaries wherever something in the context alerts him to a usage different from the standard everyday language.

Ex. MOTION

Everyday = He is always in **motion** (he is always active)

Legal =The legal body issued **a motion for a resolution.**

Ex. PARTY

Everyday = There was **party** at the neighbors last night.

Legal = These **2 parties** have signed an agreement under the following terms and conditions.

Ex: HAND

Everyday: Part of our body

Legal: Signature

Ex: PRESENTS

Everyday: Submits

Legal: This legal document

Ex: ACTION

Legal: Bring an action to the court

E) TENSE IN ENGLISH AND TURKISH LEGAL SENTENCES

In the agreements, statutes, resolutions, contracts generally speaking, “shall” is used in the sentences. However, this does not indicate a future tense. This indicates an obligation, a sanction. So the grammar in the target text should not run in the future tense unless the formal syntax runs in future.

The tense of Turkish legal texts and the tense that should be used while translating the English legal documents into Turkish is PRESENT TENSE. This issue is one of the most fragile point in teaching translation of legal texts because the students are always prone to translate SHALL in English legal texts as future tense in Turkish.

F) Format of the legal documents:

Every legal document has a format. Where the source and target formats of a specific genre do not coincide, the translator should translate in conformity with the expectations of the target version. This is to say, a certificate for example must look like a certificate in the target version in order to be valid and officially accepted as such.

Some of the formats are as follows:

EU Documents:

- They start with the name of the body which issues the document: The Commission, The Council
- Then come the sentences with Having Regard To
- Then come the sentences with Whereas
- Then the sentence “Has adopted this Regulation, decision.. ” takes place
- Finally the Articles are written one after the other.

A power of attorney starts with “Know All Men By These Presents”, and a Contract in English starts with “On one part..., on the other part...”

V- As the fifth step the students should have awareness of the technical devices he should use while translating legal texts. The rapid development of technology has also put its mark on the translation market. The ability to use the translation tools is one of the prior qualities which a translator of legal texts should have. Before the use of CAT tools in translation, and especially in translation of legal texts, the translators would have lots of difficulties in doing their jobs. Now they have online dictionaries, glossaries and devices to share the translations with their colleagues at another and far away parts of the world. They can work together even if they are not together. With the help of CAT tools now they do not have to translate and write the same paragraphs which occur in the same text or in different texts. According to Massion the translators are in a completely different environment than they used to be: This environment is surrounded by mainly

translation technologies, partners abroad, peers and rivals. Massion gives the name “global translation village” (2012: 60).

VI- As the sixth step, the students must join a coop-programme. This is a programme which ensures the cooperation of industry and university. Every student’s co-op experience will look a little different depending on their program, interests, goals and work experiences. They have to complete six months altogether throughout the duration of their co-op degree. This largely depends on the requirements for their program and the specific sequence their study terms and work terms.

Coop Education Programmes have various benefits:

- It is a means of applying what the students have learned in the classroom to real-life work settings
- Get hands-on experience in their field of study
- Gain up to 6 months of meaningful, relevant work experience on their field
- Improve their interview skills and learn how to search for work
- Create connections through networking with employers and coworkers
- Explore alternate career paths and different work environments around the globe!
- Earn money to help pay for tuition and costs of living
- Learn more about themselves and their overall career direction

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The Importance of Criticism Ethics for Increasing Productiveness in Religious Sciences (in the Sample of “Tafsir”)

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ABSTRACT

The main goal of all sciences whose main subject is human, is to make life more livable. Likewise, the biggest aim of social sciences -especially religious ones- is to set up easier and more peaceful lives in the World, by solving problems in and among individuals. In fact, nearly everybody has a connection with religion no matter what degree he believes it. We can say that religion is directly connected with life and all humans gain something from what reach religion sciences in different studies. As their subject is ‘religious beliefs’ which is the deepest sense of human, religious sciences have got a special situation among all other ones. All the gainings in religious sciences increase the applicability of religious elements, especially holy books into life. It is the same for Bible, Torah and Holy Qoran which is the holy book of Islam. Understanding a holy book truly and apply it to life in a respectful manner with other believers is the main gate to solve many problems and finish wars in the World. So it is really very important to have an open mind in religious sciences. Just as that an open mind helps living in the world peacefully and quietly, a narrow mind leads to have big conflicts from very small details and trival points. So we can say that, mental improvement is important in all sciences but it has vital importance in religious sciences because of its direct connections and applicability to our daily life. In this study we will try to give an answer to the question that how we can reach an open mind about our own beliefs and other religions even we think that they are untrue. From this point we can say that, especially for the ones whose studying field is religions, it is very important to approach all the religions from a wide framework and increase productiveness in religious sciences.

Keywords: Social Sciences, Religious Sciences, Productiveness, Tafsir, Criticism Ethics.

INTRODUCTION

Productiveness is a compulsory in every part of life but it has a special importance in religious sciences. First of all, we have to reach a clear description of productiveness which involves all its different dimensions. Productiveness involves collecting all knowledge gained in the past and looking for new ones in the time being, then trying to reach some new conclusions by joining today's knowledge and the previous one. As we said before, productiveness in religious sciences, increases the applicability of holy books into life. Because life is changing in a great speed, all religions must be updated in accordance with life's new problematics and needs. This updating means productiveness in religious sciences and needs reading the holy books with a wide perspective.

To increase productiveness, we have to find out the obstacles and reasons that decrease the new gainings in religious sciences. As far as we searched, there are three main obstacles in front of productiveness in this field. First of them is fear, the second one is fanaticism which comes from fear itself and the third one is envy which is seen in every part of life including religious and scientific ones. In order to recover from them we have to analyse all these reasons one by one. Firstly, fear about doing or saying something wrong in religious life closes all the doors to new ideas, new evaluations and decreases the productivity. People who feel a deep fear about religion or its holy book, only believe strictly what the previous people said and they think entirely the same as their ancestors. They suppose that new ideas, methods and behaviours in religious parts of life is such a great evil and a fatal danger that God would punish severely the ones who searches for new explanations of verses, because of thinking differently from the classic and conservative style. In our opinion, the main problem about being afraid of thinking differently is clear. Sometimes people can not separate the main beliefs of religion which never changes, -like the Being of God, the Messengers, life after death etc.- from the manners and behaviours in daily life which can change easily and fast according to eras and places. Main principles must be same in all believers of a religion but there can be a great variety in thinking attitudes and life manners in different times and places. Seeing the main beliefs and life manners are just the same as each other, increases the fear and makes the people who study on religion, narrow minded ones. A narrow mind is the biggest obstacle in front of thinking and productiveness in religious sciences.

The second reason is fanaticism in mental and behavioural life of people. Fanaticism leads people to believe that the only true way of thinking in religious life is theirs. They can't stand the people who have different ways of thinking and who reach some other conclusions apart from theirs. They blame these people to go away from the real religion and even to become irreligious.

The third reason is fear about saying something new or different from what was said before. Underneath this fear, is there another idea that their ancestors

always thought in the best way and always reached the best answers about religious issues. Religious issues must be the same in every times and conditions of life, so if we say or think something different we will lose our beliefs. This kind of thinking keeps people even the scholars away from analysing and interpreting what was said before. People who have a great fear about speaking on especially some problematics of religion make their own mind narrower and narrower and they advise the same manner to others who try to find new solutions to these problematics. All these three main reasons and some seconder reasons decrease the productiveness in religious sciences and as time passes and the problems or conditions of daily life change, religion digresses from our lives step by step because of not being applied to our twenty-four hours of day. By thinking and behaving so, even a very religious person would give a big harm to religion he believes himself.

CRITICISM ETHICS IN RELIOUS SCIENCES

In religious sciences, increasing productiveness in the mean of the gainings we mentioned needs that those who study in religion approach to the ideas of previous eras and their own times with a positive and constructive wiew. At this point, criticism ethics take an important place. The manner of person who criticises the ideas of others who study in the same field, both may help increasing in productiveness and may lead to confine the field in a narrow site. Especially, that the destructive criticism manner becomes the policy of an institue, state or religious sect decreases the gainings in religious fields to the lowest level. This is the biggest harm to be given to this field. Getting criticism ethics both makes the person realise his own limitations in knowing something and gives him the ability of opening his mind to different thoughts and the courage of expressing his own ideas honestly and frankly. These are the basic conditions of increasing productiveness that we can't do without them especially in religious sciences.

People who study on religious sciences must have a constructive and useful method of approaching to other ideas and ways of thinking. In our opinion, there are two main principles to have before thinking on religion and criticising others. Firstly, we have to accept that as we are human beings and not perfect in any part of life, it is absolutely impossible to us to know everything. All our knowledge about world and life is in the extent of God permits or gives us. We may have a potential of learning, thinking, concluding or developing something but this potential is not unlimited. Besides that, we may always think, conclude and behave wrongly. Then, everything we say or claim can't be perfect or real everytime. Secondly, we always need others' mental power and life experiments to reach the best solutions about religious issues. Because of the fact that religion is a multi dimensional concept, it is directly connected many wiews and points of life. Having many different life styles and conditions from others', every one of human beings has a lot of different ways of thinking. For instance, it is not easy to apply a religious rule in a rich country and in a poor one samely. We can't see the same reaction to a religious practice in

illiterate people and well-educated people or in rural areas and metropol cities or eastern and western cultures etc. Religion needs to have a kind of wideness in order to be applied to varied life conditions of people. Having lived in a limited time and territory, any of us can't know or understand every aspects of different lives. Owing to the compulsory of living differently, we always need others' mental power to make religion more applicable to events especially in hard times and conditions. Then we have to listen and try to understand others with a respectful manner of approaching to new ideas.

When researching a solution or a revelation about a religious issue we have to collect all ideas including contrary ones. Then we have to analyse them by taking the time, place and situations in which they arose into consideration. For instance, about some discussed issues like polygamy, woman witness and portion in inheritance in Islamic law, are there many different ideas. In order to reach an extent and more applicable solution about them we have to analyse the cultural effects of an era and territory on people's life. Lives and cultures of the people who support polygamy and who are against it, are very different from each other. So we have to keep these differences in mind when interpreting contrary ideas about the subject.

SOME EXAMPLES OF CRITICISM ETHICS IN "TAFSIR"

In our article, we will try to explain the importance of criticism ethics for increasing productiveness in religious sciences with the sample of tafsir. As known, the science of tafsir explains the Qoranic verses especially which are relatively hard to understand at first look. For this purpose, we will make out the basic principles of criticism ethics in the framework of language and manner that some tafsir scholars used when criticising each other for the different explanations given about some verses whose meanings are discussable.

First of all we have to underline that, in Holy Qoran, there are two kinds of verses; the first group of them are about Allah, His being, His power, the messengers, the life after death etc. These verses are never discussed, because they all contain basic beliefs of Islam. So everyone who believes this religion has to accept them without any doubt. But there is another group of verses to which muslims have to believe but can interpret differently from each other. They are about daily life of human beings and can be interpreted differently from time to time or from place to place. When encountering contrary ideas about this kind of verses, tafsir scholars behaved in two different manners. We will search the true way and the wrong way of criticising others in the sample of two famous scholars of Islamic world; Gazzali and Fahreddin Razi.

We want to give the negative way of criticising in the sample of Gazzali. When explaining his own ideas and criticising other, he used a rough manner and language. In Holy Qoran are there some verses where some natural beings and events speak like a human. Mountains, angels, Hell etc, speak like a human to give

an important message to people. In Qoran, Allah asks or says something on different subjects to them and they answer Him. As an example, in the Sura of Kaf, when sinful people are being thrown to the great fire, Allah asks a question to the Hell and it answers:

“On the Day when We will say to Hell: ‘Are you filled?’ It will say: ‘Are there any more (to come)?’” (Sura of Kaf 50/30).

Another example is that, as mentioned in Qoran Allah creates mountains and some other things which human beings need for living. Then He orders the sky which is smoke at that time, to obey Him and it answers like a human and says it would obey Him willingly:

“He placed therein (i.e. the earth) firm mountains from above it, and He blessed it, and measured therein its sustenance (for its dwellers) in four Days equal (i.e. all these four ‘days’ were equal in the length of time), for all those who ask (about its creation). Then He Istawa (rose over) towards the heaven when it was smoke, and said to it and to the earth: ‘Come both of you willingly or unwillingly.’ They both said: ‘We come, willingly.’” (Sura of Fussilet 41/10-11).

The main question about this kind of verses in tafsir is that how it is possible for the beings except human to think, to speak or to answer a question. Some scholars think that Allah gives them a kind of capability to speak and they really speak like a human when asked anything. So this narration is about almost a real and visible event just like any occurrence in the world. But most of the scholars including Gazzali think that in fact, mountains, sky, Hell etc. never speak like a human. Events in these verses are not real but only a representation or simulation which are narrated in order to give a message to human beings about a very important subject of life in the world and life after death. For instance, in the sura of Kaf, Hell doesn’t speak in fact, but in order to explain the terrifying fire of Hell and the fearful response of being sinful in the other world, Allah makes an analogy between Hell and a very angry person. Hell resembles to a person who wants to take revenge on people who lived sinfully, cruelly to others, didn’t believe to Prophets and didn’t obey to God and His orders before death. Likewise, to explain the fact that every created beings must obey Him, Allah orders sky to obey but in fact He orders it to human beings with assimilation. The importance of this issue for the criticism ethics is that Gazzali criticised the ones who think that sky or Hell really speak like a human, in a very rough manner and rude words. He claims the people who think that the Hell or other natural beings speak like a human, to be foolish, idiot or stupid etc.⁹² He asks how it can be possible to think that something which haven’t got mental powers and speaking ability can understand a question that is asked and

⁹² Imam Gazzali, *Qavaidu’l-Akaid*, First Edition, (Beirut: Alemu’l-Kütüb), 153-154.

answer it just in the same manner that a human being does. To believe such a silly thing, one must have lost his own thinking ability and mental powers.

In the issue about whether something apart from human being can speak just as mentioned in Qoran or these verses are only a representation which are told to give a message to humans, most of the scholars share Gazzali's ideas. But it is very important to understand why some other people think just the opposite. When analysing an idea, especially if it is totally opposite of the majority's view, we have to take the cultural, social, historical and mental factors, which may lead people to think differently, in consideration. If we concentrate only on ideas shared by majority, we can't fully understand the odd ones and may not see some positive or true sides of them. Besides that anybody doesn't have a right to blame others to become foolish or idiot just because they think opposite of himself. This kind of approach decrease productiveness in religious sciences and narrows the thinking extent.

At that point we want to explain positive and useful method of criticising in sample of another famous Tafsir scholar, Fahreddin Razi. When explaining verses about discussed subjects in Islamic beliefs or rules, he uses a very constructive method of analysing different ideas. Firstly he defines border of a discussed subject in a verse and explains why this issue is very important in Islamic life and which problematics it contains. Then, he gives all different views and ideas he collected about the subject and explains the differences among them. In order to see different interpretations and explanations about it, he searches the issue not only in Tafsir references but also in many sources belong to other religious sciences like Fiqh, Hadith, Qalam etc. When interpreting the ideas, he questions different factors and evidences in religious sources that led scholars to think so about the issue. When criticising them he uses a very constructive language and manner in order not to miss the true and useful points of an idea. He approaches varied thoughts and comments from same distance and doesn't judge them immediately. After setting up the ideas of other scholars he explains his own opinions in a very coherent way. If he agrees one of the previous thoughts, he expresses it with reasons why he shares the idea. But if he doesn't agree any of them, he expresses what he thinks about the issue and how he gained this knowledge. While evaluating the issue, he approaches it from different angles like sociological, psychological, economical and cultural effects. He never thinks verses from only one side but thinks all of them as multi dimensional facts and tries to improve a view as wide and comprehensive as possible. So the conclusions he reaches about problematic matters are much more applicable to life than many other ideas.

In order to show his analysing and criticising method in discussed verses of Holy Qoran, we can mention his tafsir about third verse in sura of Nisa as an

example.⁹³ This verse is about polygamy where there are many arguments in both ancient times of Islam and today:

“And if you fear that you shall not be able to deal justly with the orphan-girls, then marry (other) women of your choice, two or three, or four but if you fear that you shall not be able to deal justly (with them), then only one or (the captives and the slaves) that your right hands possess. That is nearer to prevent you from doing injustice.” (Sura of Nisa 4/3)

Polygamy is a very difficult and multi dimensional subject in Islam. There are many people who accept it in every condition, who refuse it totally and who see it as a compulsory in some situations. Most of these people criticise opposite ideas severely and even sometimes blame each other of harming the religion itself. Razi gives a wide place to this subject in his tafsir book and explains the verse literally according to the rules of Arabic language word by word. He divides different aspects of polygamy (social, cultural, historical, economic aspects) in order to analyse it without missing any important points and emphasises polygamy's problematic sides. He narrates some sayings of Prophet Muhammed about polygamy and some events that happened in that time. Then he shares the idea of language scholars and fiqh (Islamic law). After telling opposite ideas, he makes long explanations about what part of them he accepts and what part he refuses and why. By using this kind of detailed search, he reaches many extensive conclusions which can be practised differently in times and regions. He proves his conclusions with the sayings of Prophet Muhammed and shows how to apply the basic rules of Islam to our daily life without being unfair to anyone in society. He probably searches many different ways of thinking in order not to forget or miss any aspects of issues in Quran. At that point we can see his philosophical manner of looking for true knowledge, because he opens his mind to all gainings of human beings.

An important point about the criticising ethics of Razi is that he says “we think so but God knows the best”. He never says that his idea is the truest one but he always accepts that he tries to reach true about everything but it may not be possible to reach true conclusions everytime.

The sentence of “God knows the best” is very important both for criticism ethics and researching manners. For criticism ethics, this sentence gives a very useful manner of approaching to scholars and other people, because it emphasises that human is a limited being in every part of life and so in reaching the true. Human can look for solutions to a problem, can research facts and can do his best to gain more and more knowledge about everything in life but his learning and understanding ability is limited owing to the fact that his mental power is not

⁹³ Fahreddin Razi, *Mefatihul-Gayb*, (Lebanon: Darul-Fikr), 177-184.

unlimited and perfect. However hard he tries to reach knowledge about something, he can't say that he knows the best and last reality. Only God is perfect in knowing everything and what He says is absolutely true. So, "God knows the best" defines His perfect position and human's limited place near Him by drawing a clear border between The Creator and created ones.

Knowing and accepting his own physical and mental place in the world, human beings gain a spiritual deepness and maturity. This maturity brings a kind of wisdom which makes it possible for people to listen each other more patiently and carefully. Because the sentence of "God knows the best" also means that human being may make mistakes when he say or claim something, the one who says it accepts that anyone except himself may reach a better explanation about a discussed verse or a better solution to a problem, too. When people especially scholars believe that every idea is worth to listening patiently and respectfully, they open their mind to a wider thinking. So that they could gain more and more ideas, knowledge, different considerations etc. when criticising others for their different manners of thinking. All these manners improve new researching methods in every field of science but especially in social sciences including religious ones. So, knowing and accepting one's own limitations about gaining "true" is the main condition of increasing productiveness in religious sciences.

As seen, Fahreddin Razi is a good sample of positive criticising ethics in religious sciences. He not only shows us how to analyse new ideas and knowledge about a discussed verse, but also helps us to think deeply on the difference of God's highest position from human's limited place in knowing something.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

If used in its perfect place, having different ideas is a kind of richness in both daily life and academic fields, because different ideas mean that there are varied views of thinking and perception about an issue. One of the main fields that we need different kinds of thinking is 'religion' and naturally 'religious sciences'. By using this mental richness, it is possible to gain more knowledge and solutions about our religious lives on condition that we approach to other ways of thinking with a respectful manner. At this point, criticising ethics takes an important role.

In this study we tried to explain true and wrong ways of criticising in especially in religious sciences in the sample of tafsir. Tafsir scholars followed two different ways of criticising when analysing others' ideas especially about discussed subjects and verses. Like Razi, some of them accepted human limitations in reaching facts of life and evaluated the ideas positively even if he hadn't accepted. Some others, like Gazali used had a hard manner when mentioning the ideas he hadn't seen as true. Although two of those scholars contributed to tafsir very much in many aspects, the criticising ethics of the first one is more useful in increasing productiveness in religious sciences.

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Politik Yeti ile İlgili Çalışmaların Bibliyometrik Analizi⁹⁴

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ulusal yazında politik yeti konusunda hazırlanan çalışmaların içerik ve yöntem bakımından incelenmesidir. Bu kapsamda Ulusal Tez Merkezine kayıtlı 2009 ve 2019 yılları arasında yazılmış 20 lisansüstü tez; türleri, yılları, anabilim dalları, amacı, kapsamı ve bulguları bakımından incelenmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular doğrultusunda, politik yeti konusunda ulusal alanda yapılan çalışmaların son yıllarda kayda değer biçimde arttığı anlaşılmıştır. Örgütsel davranış ve yönetim bilimlerinin temel çalışma konusu olan politik yetinin, işletme, eğitim bilimleri, kamu yönetimi, psikoloji, turizm işletmeciliği ve eğitim yönetimi ve denetimi gibi farklı sosyal bilimlerle birlikte disiplinlerarası bir şekilde ele alındığı gözlenmiştir. Politik yeti ile ilgili yapılan birçok araştırmada, bu yetinin iş tutumlarını ve çıktılarına etkilemede önemli bir rol oynadığı belirlenmiştir. Sonuç olarak, politik yetinin olumlu iş tutumlarına ve çıktılarına yol açtığı ve olumsuz bir takım iş tutumlarını ve çıktıları azalttığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Politik Yeti, Güç, Politika, Bibliyometrik Analiz.

Bibliometric Analysis of Studies Related to Political Skill

The aim of the study is to examine the content and methodology aspects of the studies on political skill in the national literature. In this context, twenty graduate theses written between 2009 and 2019 and registered at the National Thesis Center of Turkey were examined according to type, year, department, purpose, scope and finding. Findings of the study show that the studies conducted in the field of political skill nationally have increased considerably in recent years. It has been observed that the concept of political skill, which is the main study area of organizational behavior and management sciences, has been examined in an interdisciplinary manner with different social sciences such as business administration, educational sciences, public administration, psychology, tourism management, and educational administration and supervision. In many studies on the political skill, it has been found that this ability plays an important role in influencing job attitudes and outcomes. As a result, it has been determined that political skill leads to positive attitudes and outcomes, and reduces some negative attitudes and outcomes.

Keywords: Political Skill, Power, Politics, Bibliometric Analysis.

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GİRİŞ

Gücün söz konusu olduđu bir ortamda, bu gücü elde etmeye yönelik çabaların tamamı politika kapsamında değerlendirilmektedir. Dolayısıyla iş hayatında politik davranışlarla sıklıkla karşılaşilmektedir (Yıldız, 2019). Ancak yapılacak olan politik davranışların diğeri çalışanlar tarafından fark edilmesi, onun görünür olmasını sağlayabileceği gibi politik davranışında başlangıçtaki amacına ulaşmasını engelleyecektir. Bu sebeptendir ki yazında son zamanlarda önemi artan yeteneklerden birisi olan politik yeti kavramı, aslında bu politik davranışları politik olarak değerlendirmemeyi sağlayan bir yetenek olarak ön plana çıkmaktadır. Politik yeti kavramı, farklı ve karmaşık durumlarda bireylerin örgütsel ve bireysel çıkarlarını korumak adına kendi sosyal becerilerini ve davranışlarını kullanma yeteneklerini ifade etmektedir (Eryılmaz vd., 2017). Politik yeti sahibi olan bireyler, kendi kazanımlarına yarayacak şekilde diğerlerini anlamakta, etkilemekte ve istedikleri yönde eyleme geçirebilme kabiliyetine sahiptirler (Ferris vd., 2005a). Bu etkilemeyi de çoğu kez kurnazca, diğerlerinin anlamayacağı şekilde ve dolaylı etkileme yoluyla yapmaktadırlar (Ferris vd., 2009). Bu yönleriyle politik yetinin yazında birey, takım ya da örgüt düzeyinde önemli kazanımları olduğu ileri sürülmektedir (Atay, 2010).

Bu anlamda sosyal bilimlerde daha çok işletme, eğitim bilimleri, kamu yönetimi, psikoloji, turizm işletmeciliği ve eğitim yönetimi ve denetimi gibi alanlarda ele alınan politik yeti konusu, birçok bilimsel makale, tez ve tebliğ çalışmalarının da ortaya çıkmasında rol oynamıştır. Bu gelişmelerden hareketle yapılan araştırmada, politik yeti, *politik beceri* ve *politik yetenek* konusunu ele alan lisansüstü tezlerin içerik bakımından incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmada, zaman kısıtlılığından ve içerik olarak daha kapsamlı olmasından dolayı sadece Ulusal Tez Merkezi'ndeki lisansüstü tezlere odaklanılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarının, Türkiye'de politik yeti konusunda yapılacak araştırmalara mevcut durumun belirlenmesi açısından katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

KAVRAMSAL ÇERÇEVE

Politik Yeti

Politik yeti yapısı dört boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Bunlar sosyal beceriklilik, kişilerarası etki, ağ kurma yeteneği ve samimiyet (samimi görünme) boyutlarıdır (Ferris vd., 2005b). *Sosyal beceriklilik (social astuteness)*, sosyal ortamlardaki durumları, kişilerarası etkileşimleri ya da insanları iyi bir şekilde okuma, anlama, değerlendirme ve bu değerlendirmelerini kendi avantajına çevirebilme yeteneğini ifade etmektedir (Treadway vd., 2004; Harris vd., 2007; Ferris vd., 2009). *Kişilerarası etki (interpersonal influence)*, bireylerin diğerleri üzerinde bıraktıkları fark edilmesi zor olan ve bir o kadar da ikna edici olan kişisel tarzlarını ve yeteneklerini belirtmektedir (Ferris vd., 2009). *Ağ kurma yeteneği (networking ability)*, bireylerin farklı ağları kullanma ve ağ geliştirme yeteneğini vurgu yapmaktadır (Ferris vd., 2009). Göstermelik samimiyet/samimi görünme ya da içtenlik (apparent sincerity), gerçekçi, doğru, dürüst, açık ve içten görünme ve bu şekilde diğerleriyle samimi ilişkiler geliştirme yeteneğini tanımlamaktadır (Ferris vd., 2009).

Politik yeti ile ilgili yapılan birçok çalışmada, bu yeteneğin olumsuz birçok algı, tutum ve davranışı azalttığı; birçok olumlu algı, tutum ve davranışları ise azalttığı belirlenmiştir

(Yıldız, 2019). Bu çalışmalarda politik yetinin kariyer başarısında (Aryee vd., 1996), daha kaliteli bir lider-üye etkileşiminde, örgütsel sosyalleşmeye katkı sağlamada, müşteri tatmini artırmada (Treadway vd., 2005), işe alınma olasılığını artırmada, daha iyi performans değerlendirmeleri almada, kişisel itibarı yükseltmede, takım performansını yükseltmede, pozitif liderlik algısı yaratmada ve iş stresini ve gerginliği azaltmada anlamlı etkilerinin bulunduğu belirlenmiştir (Ferris vd., 2009).

YÖNTEM

Bu bölümde çalışmanın amacı, kapsamı, anakütlesi, örnekleme, yöntemi ve bulgularına yer verilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Araştırmanın temel amacı, son yıllarda önemli bir çalışma alanı haline gelen politik yeti ile ilgili yazılan ulusal tezlerin içerik ve yöntem bakımından incelenmesidir.

Anakütle ve Örneklem

Araştırmanın anakütlesini Ulusal Tez Merkezi'ne kayıtlı, 20 lisansüstü tez oluşturmaktadır. Bu nedenle örnekleme yapılmamış ve tüm tezler araştırma kapsamına alınmıştır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi

Araştırmada nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden olan içerik analizi tercih edilmiştir (Sarıhan ve Yıldız, 2018; Yıldız ve Tani, 2018). Politik yeti alanında yazılan 20 lisansüstü teze genel bir sınıflandırma yapıldıktan sonra içerik analizi uygulanmıştır. İçerik analizi içinde çeşitli kriterler belirlenmiştir. Bunlar; yazar adı, yayın yılı, yazım dili, türü, anabilim dalı, bilim dalı, örneklem büyüklüğü, sektör, yöntem olarak türü, tezin amacı ve tezin bulguları şeklindedir (bkz. Tablo 7).

İçerik Analizi Bulguları

Ulusal Tez Merkezi' Merkezi'nin gelişmiş tarama bölümünden “politik yeti, politik beceri ve politik yetenek” anahtar kelimeleri kullanılarak, veri tabanı içerisindeki mevcut tezlerin başlığında, özetinde veya içeriğinde politik yeti/beceri/yetenek (*İngilizcesi political skill*) konusunu ele alan 20 lisansüstü teze ait içerik analizi bulguları aşağıda detaylı olarak açıklanacaktır.

Tablo 1: Türlerine Göre Politik Yeti İle İlgili Lisansüstü Ulusal Tezler

Tez Türü	Tez Sayısı
Yüksek Lisans	14
Doktora	6
Toplam	20

Tablo 1’de görüldüğü üzere yazılan tezlerin büyük çoğunluğu yüksek lisans düzeyinde tezlerdir. Ancak doktora süresinin uzun olması bunda belirleyici bir unsur olarak belirmektedir.

Tablo 2: Yıllara Göre Politik Yeti İle İlgili Lisansüstü Ulusal Tezler

Tezin Yazıldığı Yıl	Tez Sayısı
2009	1
2011	1
2012	1
2014	2
2016	4
2017	3
2018	5
2019	3
Toplam	20

Tablo 3: Yöntemlerine Göre Politik Yeti İle İlgili Lisansüstü Ulusal Tezler

Yöntem Türü	Tez Sayısı
Nicel	20
Toplam	20

Tablo 3’de yapılan araştırmalar incelendiğinde, tüm araştırmaların yöntem olarak nicel araştırma tasarımını benimsediği dikkat çekmektedir.

Tablo 4: Anabilim Dallarına Göre Politik Yeti İle İlgili Lisansüstü Ulusal Tezler

Anabilim Dalı	Tez Sayısı
İşletme	12
Eğitim Bilimleri	5
Kamu Yönetimi	1
Turizm İşletmeciliği	1
Psikoloji	1
Toplam	20

Tablo 4’de görüldüğü üzere yazılan tezlerin büyük çoğunluğu işletme anabilim dalı ve alt bilim dalları (örgütsel davranış, yönetim ve organizasyon ve insan kaynakları yönetimi), eğitim bilimleri ve alt bilim dalları (eğitim yönetimi ve denetimi ve eğitim yönetimi, teftişi, planlaması ve ekonomisi), kamu yönetimi anabilim dalının insan kaynakları yönetimi ve geliştirme bilim dalı ve psikoloji anabilim dalında yazıldığı görülmektedir (bkz. Tablo 7). Politik yetinin örgütsel davranış disiplini içerisinde yer alan bir konu olması, işletme anabilim dalında bu konudaki tezlerin sayısında bir artışa yol açmıştır.

Tablo 5: Sektörlere Göre Politik Yeti İle İlgili Lisansüstü Ulusal Tezler

Sektör	Tez Sayısı
Eğitim	5
Bankacılık	3
Sağlık	1
Konaklama	1
Sivil toplum kuruluşu	1
Kamu sektörü	1
Kamu ve özel sektör	1
Özel sektör	3
Çeşitli sektörler	4
Toplam	20

Tablo 5’de yazarlar politik yeti ile ilgili araştırma yaptıkları sektörleri bu şekilde tanımlamışlardır. Buna göre özel sektör ağırlıklı olmak üzere kamu sektörü de araştırmacıların yoğunlaştığı sektörler arasındadır.

Tablo 6’da politik yeti ile ilgili yapılan çalışmalar bir bütün olarak incelendiğinde, birçok bireysel ve örgütsel düzeyde çalışmanın yapıldığı, ancak takım düzeyin çalışmaların ise yapılmadığı gözlenmektedir. En çok çalışılan konu, lider-üye etkileşim kalitesi olarak ön plana çıkmaktadır.

Tablo 6: Politik Yeti İle İlgili İlişki Kurulan Değişkenler

Değişken	Sayı	Değişken	Sayı	Değişken	Sayı
İnformel iletişim	1	Lider-üye etkileşimi	3	Performans değerlendirme	1
İyimserlik düzeyi	1	İş tatmini	1	Örgütsel bağlılık	1
Örgütsel muhalefet	1	Politik zekâ	1	İzlenim yönetimi taktikleri	1
Otantik liderlik algısı	1	Sübjektif kariyer başarısı	1	Etik liderlik	1
Yönetici etkinliği	1	Network kaynaklarına ulaşma	1	Sosyal zekâ	1
Yöneticiye güven	1	Psikolojik toplulukçuluk	1	Kariyer başarısı	2
Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları	1	Hesap verebilirlik	1	Tükenmişlik	2
Liderin yumuşak güç kaynakları	1	Kültürel sıklık-esneklik	1	Dönüşümcü liderlik	2
İşlemci liderlik	1	Mentorluk fonksiyonları	1	Bireysel performans	1
Serbest bırakıcı liderlik	1	Psikolojik güçlendirme	1	Birey-örgüt uyumu	1
Mentore olan güven	1	Örgüt kültürü	1		

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Türkiye’de 2009 ve 2019 yılları arasında yazılmış 20 lisansüstü tez, içerik analizi ile incelenmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular doğrultusunda, politik yeti alanında ulusal alanda yapılan çalışmaların son yıllarda kayda değer biçimde arttığı anlaşılmıştır. Örgütsel davranış ve yönetim bilimlerinin temel çalışma konusu olan politik yetinin, işletme, eğitim bilimleri, kamu

yönetimi, psikoloji, turizm işletmeciliği ve eğitim yönetimi ve denetimi gibi farklı sosyal bilimlerle birlikte disiplinlerarası bir şekilde ele alındığı gözlenmiştir. Politik yeti ile ilgili yapılan birçok araştırmada, bu yetinin iş tutumlarını ve çıktıları etkilemede önemli bir rol oynadığı belirlenmiştir. Sonuç olarak, politik yetinin olumlu iş tutumlarına ve çıktılarına yol açtığı ve olumsuz bir takım iş tutumlarını ve çıktıları azalttığı belirlenmiştir.

Diğer yandan doktora düzeyinde yeterli çalışmanın olmadığı, yıllara göre politik yeti konusundaki çalışmaların arttığı, nicel araştırmaların yoğunlukta olduğu, yabancı dille yapılan tezlerin oldukça sınırlı olduğu, işletme anabilim dalında yoğunlukla çalışmaların yapıldığı, özel sektör ağırlıklı ve genel olarak birey ve örgüt düzeyinde çalışmaların yürütüldüğü belirlenmiştir. Gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalarda, nitel araştırma tasarımlarının kullanılması ve takım düzeyinde araştırmaların yapılması önerilmektedir.

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Tablo 7: Politik Yeti İle İlgili Ulusal Tezlerin Bibliyometrik Analizi

A. K.	Yazar	Dili	Tür	Yıl	Anabilim Dalı	Bilim Dalı	Sektör ve Örneklem Boyutu	Nitel/Nitel	Amacı	Bulguları
Politik Yeti	Gülcü	Türkçe	Yüksek lisans	2019	Eğitim Bilimleri	—	Eğitim sektöründeki 211 öğretmen	Nitel	Okul yöneticilerinin politik yeti düzeyleri ile informal iletişimi kullanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.	Politik yetinin geneli ve alt boyutları ile informal iletişimin kullanılma sıklığı ve olumlu sonuçları arasında pozitif yönlü bir ilişki belirlenmiştir.
	Kurt	Türkçe	Yüksek lisans	2018	Eğitim Bilimleri	—	Eğitim sektöründeki 360 yönetici	Nitel	Politik yeti ile akademik iyimserlik düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.	Ortaokullarda görev yapan öğretmenlerin politik yeti algılarının akademik iyimserlik düzeylerini anlamlı bir şekilde etkilediği belirlenmiştir.
	Uğurlu	Türkçe	Yüksek lisans	2017	Eğitim Bilimleri	Eğitim Yönetimi ve Denetimi	Eğitim sektöründeki 400 yönetici ve öğretmen	Nitel	Politik yeti ile örgütsel muhalefet düzeyi arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.	Öğretmenlerin politik yetileri ile örgütsel muhalefet düzeyleri arasında olumlu yönde anlamlı ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir.
	Özkara	Türkçe	Doktora	2017	İşletme	—	Sağlık sektöründeki 316 hemşire	Nitel	Çalışanların bir üst yöneticilerinin sahip olduğu politik yetiye dair algısı ile bu yöneticilerinin lider etkililiğine ilişkin algısı, onlara duydukları güven ve kendi sergiledikleri altüstistik davranışlara dair değerlendirmesi arasındaki ilişkilerde üstlerinin sergilediği otantik liderlik tarzına ilişkin algısının aracılık etkisi incelenmiştir.	Yöneticinin politik yetisinin yüksek olarak algılanması, çalışanların yöneticinin otantik liderlik tarzına yönelik algısını olumlu olarak etkilemekte, bu durum da yöneticiyi etkili olarak tanımlamaya ve yöneticiye yönelik güveni artırmaktadır. Ayrıca bu algılamaya ve tanımlamalara da çalışanların rol ötesi (altüstistik/fedakârlık) davranışlarını olumlu olarak etkilemektedir.
	Eryılmaz	Türkçe	Doktora	2017	İşletme	İşletme	Ticari bankacılık sektöründe çalışan ve yönetici pozisyonunda olmayan 389 bankacı	Nitel	Liderin güç kaynakları ile lider-üye etkileşimi arasındaki varsayılan ilişki ve bu ilişkide politik yetinin düzenleyici rolü incelenmiştir. Ayrıca liderin güç kaynakları algısı, lider-üye etkileşimi ve politik yetinin iş tatmini üzerindeki etkileri de araştırma kapsamında incelenmiştir.	Liderin yumuşak güç kaynakları ile lider-üye etkileşimi arasındaki ilişkide politik yetinin düzenleyici rolü olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca politik yetinin alt boyutlarından kişilerarası etki ve ağ kurma yetisinin iş tatmini olumlu; samimiyet boyutunun ise olumsuz olarak etkilediği belirlenmiştir.
	Demirbağ	Türkçe	Doktora	2016	İşletme	İşletme	Bankacılık sektöründeki çalışanlar	Nitel	Politik yeti üzerinde politik zekânın etkisi ve politik yeti-sübjektif kariyer başarısı arasındaki ilişkide network kaynaklarının aracı rolü incelenmiştir.	Politik zekânın politik yetinin bir öncülü olduğu ortaya konulmuştur. Ayrıca politik yetinin de network kaynaklarını, onun da sübjektif kariyer başarısını olumlu olarak etkilediği belirlenmiştir.
	Altuncu	İngilizce	Doktora	2014	İşletme	Örgütsel Davranış	1369 özel sektör çalışanı	Nitel	Psikolojik toplulukçuluk ve hesap verebilirlik ilişkisi, politik yeti aracılığıyla incelenmiştir. Araştırmada, ayrıca kültürel sıklık-esneklik değişkeninin, psikolojik toplulukçuluk ve politik yeti arasındaki moderatör rolü incelenmiştir.	Psikolojik toplulukçuluğun politik yeti aracılığı ile hesap verebilirlik davranışını olumlu olarak etkilediği belirlenmiştir. Bununla birlikte sıkı kültürlerde psikolojik toplulukçuluğun politik yeti üzerindeki etkisinin daha yüksek olduğu tespit edilmiştir.
	Demirci	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2014	İşletme	İşletme	509 kamu çalışanı	Nitel	Statü, kıdem ve cinsiyet değişkenlerinin politik yetiye olan etkileri incelenmiştir.	Kıdem ile politik yeti arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir.
	Çıtak	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2011	İşletme	İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi	Çeşitli sektörlerden 172 yönetici	Nitel	Yöneticilerin politik yetileri ile örgütsel bağlılıkları arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığı incelenmiştir.	Yöneticilerin politik yetilerinin, duygusal ve normatif bağlılıklarıyla ve genel olarak da örgütsel bağlılıklarıyla pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu belirlenmiştir.
	Bayraktutar	İngilizce	Yüksek Lisans	2009	Kamu Yönetimi	İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi ve Geliştirme	Çeşitli sektörlerden 33 yönetici ve bunlara bağlı 164 çalışan	Nitel	İzlenim yönetimi taktiklerinin kullanımı ile yöneticilerin çalışanları hakkındaki performans değerlemeleri arasındaki ilişki üzerinde politik yetinin rolü incelenmiştir.	Çalışanların izlenim yönetimi taktiklerini kullanması ve politik yetiye sahip olmalarının, yönetici performans değerlemelerini anlamlı olarak etkilemediği belirlenmiştir. Ancak çalışmada politik yetinin alt boyutları ile izlenim yönetimi taktiklerinin alt boyutları arasında anlamlı pozitif ilişkiler belirlenmiştir.
Politik Beceri	Alioğulları	Türkçe	Doktora	2019	İşletme	—	Özel sektördeki 211 çalışan	Nitel	Politik beceri, lider-üye etkileşimi, etik liderlik arasındaki ilişki ve etik liderliğin çeşitli olumlu iş sonuçları üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir.	Liderin politik becerisinin lider-üye etkileşimi üzerindeki etkisinde etik liderliğin tam aracı rol üstlendiği belirlenmiştir.
	Yılmaz	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2019	İşletme	Yönetim ve Organizasyon	Özel sektördeki (sanayi kuruluşları) 492 çalışan	Nitel	Sosyal zekâ ve politik beceri düzeyinin kariyer başarısı üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir.	Politik becerinin, sosyal zekâ ile kariyer başarısı arasındaki ilişkide tam aracılık etkisinin olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 7'nin Devamı

Politik Beceri	Çokar	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2018	Psikoloji	—	143 sivil toplum kuruluşu çalışanı	Nicel	Kontrol odağı ve politik beceri düzeyinin tükenmişlik düzeyine etkisi incelenmiştir.	Politik beceriyle tükenmişlik arasında negatif yönlü zayıf bir ilişki belirlenmiştir.
	Nair	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2018	Eğitim Yönetimi ve Denetimi	Eğitim Yönetimi	Eğitim sektöründeki 593 öğretmen	Nicel	Liderlik stilleri ile politik beceri arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.	Politik becerilerin dönüşümcü liderlik stilini pozitif, işlemci ve serbest bırakıcı liderlik stillerini ise negatif yönde anlamlı olarak etkilediği belirlenmiştir.
	Yıldıztaş	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2018	Eğitim Bilimleri	Eğitim Yönetimi, Teftişi, Planlaması ve Ekonomisi	Eğitim sektöründeki 218 öğretmen	Nicel	Politik beceri ve örgütsel tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesidir.	Politik becerinin kişiler arası etki boyutunun örgütsel tükenmişliği azalttığı belirlenmiştir.
	Katı	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2016	İşletme	Yönetim ve Organizasyon	Bankacılık sektöründeki 325 çalışan	Nicel	Politik beceri ve lider-üye etkileşimi kalitesinin kariyer başarısı üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir.	Lider üye etkileşiminin, politik beceri ve kariyer başarısı arasındaki ilişkide kısmi aracılık etkisinin olduğu belirlenmiştir.
	Kabdulova	İngilizce	Yüksek Lisans	2016	İşletme	—	Kamu ve özel sektörün çeşitli alt sektörlerinden 151 çalışan	Nicel	Mentorluk ve psikolojik güçlendirme arasındaki ilişkide mentora olan güvenin ve mentorun politik becerisinin rolü incelenmiştir.	Mentore olan güven ve psikolojik güçlendirme arasındaki ilişkide politik becerinin düzenleyici etkisinin olduğu ve aynı zamanda mentorluk fonksiyonları ve psikolojik güçlendirme arasındaki ilişkide mentore olan güvenin aracılık ettiği belirlenmiştir.
	Cicerali	İngilizce	Doktora	2012	İşletme	Örgütsel Davranış	Çeşitli sektörlerden 154 çalışan	Nicel	Birleşme ve satın alma sonrası örgüt kültüründeki değişikliklerin bireysel ve örgütsel performansa etkilerinde, çalışanların kişilik ve politik becerilerinin düzenleyici rolü incelenmiştir.	Örgüt kültürünün bireysel performans üzerindeki etkisinde politik becerilerin düzenleyici etkisinin olmadığı belirlenmiştir.
Politik Yetenek	Kara Öztürk	Türkçe	Doktora	2018	İşletme	—	Çeşitli sektörlerden 283 yönetici	Nicel	Stratejik düşünme ve politik yeteneklerin dönüşümcü liderlik üzerindeki etkileri incelenmiştir.	Stratejik düşünmenin ve politik yeteneklerin alt boyutlarının, dönüşümcü liderliğin alt boyutları üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı etkilerinin olduğu belirlenmiştir.
	Bektaş	Türkçe	Yüksek Lisans	2016	Turizm İşletmeciliği	—	Konaklama sektöründeki 364 otel çalışanı	Nicel	Politik yeteneğin birey-örgüt uyumuna olan etkisi incelenmiştir.	Politik yeteneğin ağ kurma yeteneği boyutunun ve kişilerarası etki boyutunun birey-örgüt uyumuna etkisinin pozitif yönde olduğu, ancak sosyal zekâ boyutunun ise birey-örgüt uyumuna negatif yönde bir etkisinin olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Türkiye’de Yüksek Öğretim Coğrafya Programlarında Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerinin Yeri: Mevcut Durum, Sorunlar ve Çözüm Önerileri

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ÖZET

Bilgi teknolojilerinden biri olan Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri (CBS) son 20–30 yıldır bilgi teknolojilerindeki gelişmelere bağlı olarak gelişen yeni bir teknolojidir. Coğrafi verilerin depolandığı, düzenlendiği, analiz edildiği ve gösterildiği bir sistemdir. Veri tabanında yer alan mekânsal ve mekânsal olmayan coğrafi veriler bütünleştirilerek harita, grafik ve sözel gösterimler olarak sunulabilen bilgisayar tabanlı bir bilgi sistemi yöntemidir. Teknolojik gelişmelerle birlikte Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri (CBS) dünyada çeşitli uygulama alanları bulmuştur. Dünyada CBS, özellikle Avrupa ve Kuzey Amerika ülkeleri başta olmak üzere önemli bir yere sahiptir. CBS’nin yaygınlaştırılması için çeşitli projeler yapılmakta ve desteklenmektedir. Ülkemizde bu sistemin kullanılması çok yenidir. CBS, üniversite seviyesinde 100’den farklı akademik disiplinde araştırma aracı olarak kullanılmaktadır. Ancak CBS eğitime bakıldığında belli başlı disiplinlerin ön plana çıktığı görülmektedir. Günümüzde lisans ve yüksek lisans düzeyinde CBS eğitimi başta coğrafya, jeodezi ve fotogrametri olmak üzere yer bilimleri, çevre bilimleri, doğal kaynaklar, orman mühendisliği, inşaat mühendisliği, peyzaj mimarlığı, ekoloji, şehir ve bölge planlama gibi bölümlerde verilmektedir. Bu çalışmada coğrafi bilgi sistemlerinin Türkiye’de yükseköğretimdeki coğrafya programlarındaki yeri, sorunları ve çözüm önerileri üzerinde durulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: CBS, Coğrafya, Coğrafya Bölümleri.

GİRİŞ

Bilgiyi ve teknolojiyi pragmatik bir şekilde kullanabilmek, geliştirebilmek ve organize edebilmek 21. Yüzyılın önemli gereklilikleri içerisinde yer almaktadır. Günümüzde teknoloji hayatın her alanında yoğun şekilde kullanılmaktadır. Özellikle bilgisayar teknolojisinin kullanımı bu noktada önem taşımaktadır. Bilgisayar teknolojisi günümüzde birçok farklı alanda kullanılmaktadır. Bu alanlardan biri de coğrafyadır. Bir mekan bilimi olan Coğrafya alanında bilgisayar teknolojisinin kullanımı insan-mekan arasındaki ilişkinin ve coğrafyaya özgü karmaşık süreçlerin algılanması noktasında önemli bir araç olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Bilgisayar teknolojisiyle birlikte coğrafya alanında kullanılan diğer bir teknoloji ürünü ise Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri (CBS)'dir. CBS yeryüzüne ait verilerin gerçek koordinatları ile birlikte bilgisayar ortamına girilmesi, depolanması, güncellenmesi, değiştirilmesi, veriler üzerinde çok yönlü sorgulama ve analizlerin yapılabilmesi ve sonuçların çok farklı seçeneklerde harita, grafik ve tablo halinde gösterilebilmesi işlemlerinin yapılabildiği bilgisayar tabanlı sistem olarak ifade edilmektedir.

CBS, coğrafya öğretiminde insan- mekân ilişkisinin analiz edilmesinde ve konunun detaylı bir şekilde öğrencilere aktarılmasında yararlanılan en önemli araçlardan biridir. Dünya üzerinde var olan nesne ve olayları, analiz, işleme ve haritalama için kullanılan CBS teknolojisi, sorgulama amaçlı veri tabanlarını ve istatistiksel analizi kullanarak, bilginin sınıflandırılmasını sağlar. Bu özellikleri sayesinde CBS, diğer enformasyon sistemlerinin önüne geçmekte; önemi, ihtiyacı ve değeri her geçen gün artarak uygulamaları yaygınlaştırılmaktadır (Özgen ve Oban Çakıcıoğlu, 2009). CBS yöntemiyle yapılan çalışmaların kapsamı ve kabiliyet alanı klasik yöntemlerle yapılanlara göre çok geniştir. Ayrıca zamandan ve emekten tasarruf sağlaması, hata payının çok az olması, düzeltme imkanı sağlaması tercih edilmesindeki en önemli etmenlerdir. Yapılan çalışmalar bilgisayar ortamında gerçekleştirildiğinden, bireye teknolojik gelişmeleri takip etme ve yeni teknolojileri kullanma imkânı da tanımaktadır (Şimşek, 2008). Coğrafya öğretiminde CBS kullanımının yararları genel olarak şu şekilde özetlenebilir (Pınar, 2017):

- ✓ Mekânsal araştırma ve incelemelerde de CBS'ye de o ölçüde ihtiyaç vardır. CBS enstrümanlarından yararlanarak araziye ait hesaplamalar, sorgulamalar ve istatistikî analizler kolaylıkla yapılabilmektedir.
- ✓ CBS, coğrafya derslerinde kazandırılması gereken temel becerilerden olan coğrafi sorgulamanın öğrencilere kazandırılması sürecinde önemli bir rol üstlenmektedir. CBS, coğrafi sorgulamanın tüm aşamalarında etkin olarak kullanıla bilinmektedir. CBS, öğrencilere dünyada yaşanan küresel problemlere coğrafya biliminin bakış açısı ile nasıl yaklaşıldığını ve bu bakış açısı ile çözüm önerilerinin nasıl geliştirileceğini öğretmede yardımcı olmaktadır.
- ✓ CBS teknolojisi ile güncel yaşamda karşılaşılan problemlerin çözümünde bilginin etkin bir şekilde kullanılmasını sağlamaktadır. Risk haritaları oluşturularak mevcut verilerden hareketle potansiyel risk bölgeleri belirlenebilir.
- ✓ CBS ile konumsal veriler ve öznitelik verileri aynı anda analiz edilip sorgulanabilir ve istatistiksel olarak görselleştirilebilir. Bu sayede coğrafya derslerinde; mekânsal verilerin CBS ortamında sorgulanarak analiz edilmesi, istenilen bilimsel erişimi kolaylaştırmaktadır.

ARAŞTIRMANIN AMACI

Özellikle ABD ve batı ülkelerindeki coğrafya bölümleri 1980’li yıllardan itibaren CBS’yi eğitimden risk yönetimine kadar yaşamın her alanında yaygın olarak kullanmaya başlamışlardır. Sadece akademik çalışma şeklinde değil çeşitli projelerde yer alarak toplumun ihtiyacına aktif olarak cevap verebilen bir nitelik kazanmıştır. Türkiye’de coğrafya bölümleri ise bu konuda maalesef istenilen düzeye gelememiştir.

Türkiye’de Coğrafya mezunlarının sadece öğretmen olabilir düşüncesinden sıyrılarak gerçekte neler yapabildiğini gösterecek olanlara coğrafya bilimi mensuplarıdır. Bu sorunu çözmek için öncelikle reel hayatta coğrafyacıların aktif olarak rol alabileceğini göstermeli ve alması gereken alanlarda kendilerini ispat etmeleri gerekmektedir. Günümüz toplumlarının ve doğal çevrenin sorunlarına çözüm üretecek, geleceği planlayacak (şehir planı, arazi kullanımı, afet yönetimi, kent bilgi sistemleri gibi konularda) coğrafyacılar ihtiyacı vardır. Bu ihtiyaçlara cevap verebilmesi içinde üniversitelerimizde özellikle lisans eğitimi sırasında yeterli düzeyde CBS eğitimi verilmeli ve projeler yoluyla CBS çalışmaları desteklenmeli, üniversite, kamu ve özel sektörle işbirliği içinde olunmalıdır. Günümüzde aktif olarak toplumun problemlerine çözüm üretebilecek nitelik ve nicelikte coğrafyacı yetiştirilme zorunluluğu bulunmaktadır (Yiğit, Atol ve Dinç, 2011). Bu noktadan hareketle araştırmada Türkiye’de yer alan üniversitelerdeki coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS eğitiminin durumu, programdaki yeri, ders saatleri, laboratuvar durumları vb. ortaya konulmaya çalışılmıştır. Araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmıştır:

1. Türkiye’deki coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS dersleri var mıdır? Hangi dersler verilmektedir?
2. Coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS derslerinin haftalık saat ve kredi durumu nedir?
3. Hangi coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS laboratuvarı bulunmaktadır?
4. Hangi coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS anabilim dalı vardır?
5. Geçmiş yıllar ile karşılaştırıldığında (2003 ve 2011 yılları) CBS’de yaşanan gelişim süreci nasıldır?

YÖNTEM

Araştırmada durum çalışması kullanılmıştır. Veriler Yüksek Öğretim Programları ve Kontenjanları kılavuzundan (2019), ilgili üniversitelerin Web sayfalarından ve yapılan görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Aktif olan tüm coğrafya bölümlerinin akademik programları incelenmiş, CBS dersleri belirlenmiş, ders saati, kredi ve ACTS bilgileri alınmış, CBS laboratuvarı ve CBS anabilim dalı mevcudiyeti ortaya konmuştur.

BULGULAR

Türkiye’de Coğrafya bölümü bulunan üniversitelerdeki Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri ile ilgili derslerin adları, tipi (zorunlu/seçmeli), yarıyılları, teorik ve uygulama saatleri ve ACTS bilgileri Tablo 1’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 1: 2019 Yılı Müfredatına Göre CBS Dersi Olan Coğrafya Bölümleri

Bölüm Adı	Ders Adı	Tipi	Yarıyıl	T	U	E
AFYON KOCATEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	2	5
	Coğrafya’da CBS Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	5
	Uzaktan Algılamaya Giriş	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	3
AĞRI İBRAHİM ÇEÇEN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Bilgisayarlı Kartografya	Zorunlu	II.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	2	3
	Coğrafya ve Bilgi Teknolojileri	Zorunlu	VI.	2	2	5
AHI EVRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafya Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri İleri Analizleri	Seçmeli	VII.	3	0	3
AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	1	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	3	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	3
ANKARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	4	4	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	4	4	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri III	Zorunlu	VII.	2	2	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VII.	2	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri IV	Zorunlu	VIII:	2	2	4
	Mekânsal Analiz	Seçmeli	VIII.	2	2	4
ARDAHAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	5
	İleri Düzey Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Araştırmaları	Seçmeli	IV.	2	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	IV.	2	0	4
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafya Araştırmalarında Bilgisayar Kullanımı	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	VII.	2	0	4
BALIKESİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Bilgi Teknolojileri Uygulaması	Zorunlu	I.	2	2	5
	Bilgisayarlı Kartografya	Zorunlu	II.	2	2	6
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Seçmeli	VI.	2	2	5
	CBS’de Proje Tasarımı	Seçmeli	VII.	3	0	6
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VIII.	3	0	6
BİLECİK ŞEYH EDEBALI ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	6
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri ve Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	IV.	1	4	7
	CBS ve Uzaktan Algılama Arazi Uygulamaları	Seçmeli	VI.	1	3	7
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	V.	2	2	5
ÇANKIRI KARATEKİN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine (CBS) Giriş I	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine (CBS) Giriş II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	2	5
	CBS Uygulamaları I	Zorunlu	V.	2	2	5
	CBS Uygulamaları I	Zorunlu	VI.	2	2	5
DİCLE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Bilişim Teknolojileri	Zorunlu	I.	3	0	5
	CBS I	Zorunlu	III.	2	0	2
	CBS II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	2
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	3

EGE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları- I	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları- II	Seçmeli	VIII.	2	0	4
ERZİNCAN BİNALİ YILDIRIM ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sisteminde Analizler	Zorunlu	VIII.	2	2	4
FIRAT ÜNİVERSİTESİ	CBS'ye Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	2	0	3
	CBS ve Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	3
	Klimatoloji'de CBS	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	3
	Beşeri ve İktisadi Coğrafya'da CBS	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	3
	Jeomorfoloji'de CBS	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	3
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	3
	Coğrafya Eğitiminde CBS ile Sınıf İçi Uygulamalar	Seçmeli	VIII.	2	2	3
GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	CBS'de Proje Tasarımı	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	6
	Uzaktan Algılama Yöntemi ve Kullanımı	Seçmeli	VII.	3	0	4
GAZİOSMANPAŞA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	5
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VIII.	3	0	5
GİRESUN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	4
HARRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	IV.	3	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	4
İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Seçmeli	IV.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama ve Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	4
İZMİR KATİP ÇELEBİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	CBS ve Kartografya Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	II.	2	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VIII.	2	1	3
KAHRAMANMARAŞ SÜTCÜ İMAM ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	4
	Uygulamalı Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	4
	CBS ile Mekânsal Analiz	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	4
KARABÜK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	IV.	3	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri III	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VII.	3	0	5
	Uzaktan Algılama Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	VIII.	1	2	5
KASTAMONU ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	1	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	1	2	4
	UZAL-CBS Uygulamaları I	Seçmeli	VII.	1	1	3
	UZAL-CBS Uygulamaları II	Seçmeli	VIII.	1	1	3
KİLİS 7 ARALIK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	2	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	3
	CBS Tabanlı Mekânsal Analiz	Seçmeli	V.	2	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama I	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	3
	Uzaktan Algılama II	Seçmeli	VIII.	2	0	3

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	0	2
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	2	0	2
MEHMET AKİF ERSOY ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	2	1	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	IV.	2	1	5
	CBS ve Planlama	Seçmeli	VIII.	1	2	3
	CBS Uygulamaları	Seçmeli	VI.	1	2	3
MUNZUR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	5
	CBS Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	IV.	2	2	5
	CBS Tabanlı Mekansal Analiz	Zorunlu	V.	2	4	6
MUSTAFA KEMAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	5
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VII.	2	0	3
NAMİK KEMAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	V.	2	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulamaları	Zorunlu	VI.	2	2	4
NECMETTİN ERBAKAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Uygulama	Zorunlu	V.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-I	Zorunlu	III.	3	0	5
NEVŞEHİR HACI BEKTAŞ VELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-II	Zorunlu	IV.	3	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-III	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-IV	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VII.	1	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	5
NİĞDE ÖMER HALİSDEMİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Analizleri	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	5
	Hava Fotoğrafları ve Uzaktan Algılama	Zorunlu	VII.	3	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri	Seçmeli	V.	2	0	3
ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Uzaktan Algılama ve Hava Fotoğrafları	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-I	Zorunlu	III.	1	2	4
PAMUKKALE ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-II	Zorunlu	IV.	1	2	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VII.	1	2	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-I	Zorunlu	IV.	2	1	6
SAKARYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri-II	Zorunlu	V.	2	1	6
	Uzaktan Algılama Teknikleri	Zorunlu	III.	2	0	4
SÜLEYMAN DEMİREL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Uzaktan Algılama ve Hava Fotoğrafları	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	III.	1	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	IV.	1	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Seçmeli	III.	1	2	5
ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Seçmeli	IV.	1	2	5
	CBS ve Uzaktan Algılama I	Seçmeli	V.	1	2	4
	CBS ve Uzaktan Algılama I	Seçmeli	VI.	1	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri III	Seçmeli	VII.	1	2	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri IV	Seçmeli	VIII.	1	2	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemlerine Giriş	Zorunlu	IV.	2	0	3
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Zorunlu	V.	3	0	4
UŞAK ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Zorunlu	VI.	3	0	4
	Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VIII.	2	0	4
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri I	Seçmeli	III.	2	0	3
VAN YÜZÜNCÜ YIL ÜNİVERSİTESİ	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri II	Seçmeli	IV.	3	0	6
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri III	Seçmeli	V.	2	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri IV	Seçmeli	VI.	2	0	5
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri V	Seçmeli	VII.	3	0	6
	Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri ve Uzaktan Algılama	Seçmeli	VII.	3	0	5

Kaynak: Yüksek Öğretim Programları ve Kontenjanları kılavuzu (2019); İlgili üniversitelerin Coğrafya bölümleri

Tablo 1'e göre, 2019 yılı itibari ile Türkiye'de bulunan tüm coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS derslerinin mevcut müfredatta yer aldığı görülmektedir. CBS dersleri bazı üniversitelerde zorunlu bazılarında ise seçmeli olarak verilmektedir. Özellikle CBS'nin giriş düzeyinde verildiği dönemlerde teorik düzeyde verildiği ancak ileri düzey derslerde ise uygulama ağırlıklı olduğu görülmektedir.

Türkiye'de Coğrafya bölümü bulunan üniversitelerde Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Anabilim dalı olan üniversitelere ait bilgiler Tablo 2'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 2: CBS Anabilim Dalı Olan Üniversiteler

1	Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi
2	Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi
3	Karabük Üniversitesi
4	Namık Kemal Üniversitesi

Tablo 2'ye bakıldığında, Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi, Karabük Üniversitesi, Namık Kemal Üniversitesi olmak üzere toplam 4 üniversitede CBS anabilim dalı olduğu görülmektedir.

Türkiye'de Coğrafya bölümü bulunan üniversitelerde Coğrafi Bilgi Sistemleri Laboratuvarı olan üniversitelere ait bilgiler Tablo 3'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 3'te CBS laboratuvarı olan coğrafya bölümleri gösterilmektedir. Toplamda 12 üniversitede CBS laboratuvarı bulunmaktadır. Bunlar; Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi, Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi, Çanakkale Onsekiz Üniversitesi, Ege Üniversitesi, Harran Üniversitesi, Karabük Üniversitesi, Marmara Üniversitesi, Namık Kemal Üniversitesi, Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi, Sakarya Üniversitesi'dir.

Tablo 3: CBS Laboratuvarı Olan Coğrafya Bölümleri

1	Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi
2	Ahi Evran Üniversitesi
3	Akdeniz Üniversitesi
4	Ankara Üniversitesi
5	Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi
6	Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi
7	Ege Üniversitesi
8	Harran Üniversitesi
9	İstanbul Üniversitesi
10	Karabük Üniversitesi
11	Marmara Üniversitesi
12	Namık Kemal Üniversitesi
13	Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi
14	Sakarya Üniversitesi

SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Birçok alanda olduğu gibi coğrafyada da CBS teknolojisinin kullanımı oldukça önemli yer teşkil etmektedir. Hızla gelişmeye devam etmesi ve kullanım alanının yaygınlaşması CBS'nin günümüz şartlarında ne denli önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. CBS'nin coğrafya bölümlerinde kullanımının yaygınlaşması gelişen bu teknolojiye ayak uydurmakla mümkün olabilir. CBS'nin coğrafya bölümlerinde kullanılması ve yaygınlaşması geçmişten günümüze arttığı görülmektedir. Benzer bir araştırmada Korkmaz (2002)'in çalışmasına göre sadece 2002 yılı itibarıyla 5 üniversitenin coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS dersi vardı. Yiğit, Ataol ve Dinç (2011) çalışmasında 2011 yılı itibarıyla Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi Coğrafya Bölümlerinin tamamında CBS dersleri yer aldığı belirtilmiştir. İlgili araştırmada CBS derslerinin en fazla olduğu üniversitelerin Sakarya, İstanbul ve Ankara Üniversitesi olduğunu belirtmiştir. En az CBS dersinin olduğu bölüm ise 2 saat (2 kredi) ile Atatürk Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Coğrafya Bölümü olduğu bulunmuştur. Dicle ve Atatürk Üniversitesi eğitim fakültesi coğrafya öğretmenliği programlarında ise CBS dersine rastlanmamıştır.

Geçen zaman diliminde artan coğrafya bölümleri ve yeni açılan üniversitelerin coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS dersleri konulmuş ve ders kredisi artırılmıştır. Toplam 42 üniversitede yer alan coğrafya bölümü/öğretmenliği programlarının tümünde CBS derslerinin yer aldığı görülmektedir. Ulaştığımız veriler neticesinde Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi ve İzmir Kâtip Çelebi Üniversitesi Coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS derslerinin en az olduğu üniversitelerdir.

Bu araştırmada Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi, Karabük Üniversitesi, Namık Kemal Üniversitesi olmak üzere toplam 4 üniversitede CBS anabilim dalı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca toplamda 12 üniversitede (*Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi, Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali Üniversitesi, Çanakkale Onsekiz Üniversitesi, Ege Üniversitesi, Harran Üniversitesi, Karabük Üniversitesi, Marmara Üniversitesi, Namık Kemal Üniversitesi, Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi, Sakarya Üniversitesi*) yer alan coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS laboratuvarları yer almaktadır.

Ülkemizde coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS'nin kullanımı yaklaşık 20 yıl öncesine dayanmaktadır. İlk başlarda bazı lisans bölümlerinde teorik olarak verilen CBS dersleri daha sonra laboratuvarlarda uygulamalı öğretilen lisans ve yüksek lisans derslerine dönüşmüştür. Günümüzde coğrafya bölümlerinde CBS dersleri eğitim, araştırma amaçlı kullanılmakta ve CBS'nin coğrafya bölümlerinde yaygınlaştırılması üzerinde ki çabalar devam etmektedir.

CBS'nin coğrafya bölümlerinde kullanımı günümüzde halen yeterli olmasa da eskiye kıyasla artarak devam etmektedir. Coğrafya alanında CBS kullanımını artırmak ve CBS'nin önemine dikkat çekmek için coğrafya bölümlerinde verilen CBS dersleri, seçmeli dersler yerine zorunlu ders olarak verilmesi, ders saatlerinin artırılması ve derslerin CBS laboratuvarlarında uygulamalı olarak verilmesi bu konuda yapılması gereken önemli adımlardan bazıları olabilir.

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Futbolcular Özelinde, Türkiye’de Sporcuların Vergilendirilmesi

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ÖZET

Futbol gerek dünyada gerekse ülkemizde çok sevilen, ilgiyle takip edilen ve artık kendi ekonomisini oluşturmuş bir spor dalıdır. Gelir ve kazanç elde eden bütün bireyler gibi futbolcular da ilgili kanunlar gereği vergi mükellefi olarak kabul edilmiş ve vergi ödemekle yükümlü kılınmıştır. Hepimizin bildiği üzere özellikle profesyonel olarak, büyük ve köklü kulüplerde görev alan futbolcular yüksek miktarlarda gelir elde etmektedir. Milyon dolarlar ya da milyon liralara ifade edilen bu tutarları elde eden futbolcular, vergiye tabi tutulurken bazı özel hükümler sayesinde, aynı oranda gelir elde eden kişilere göre daha az vergi ödeyebilmektedir. Bu durum Türkiye’nin futbolcular için bir vergi cenneti olabileceği tartışmasını başlatmıştır. Geçtiğimiz günlerde Türkiye A Milli Futbol Takımı Teknik Direktörü Şenol Güneş’in “Futbolcular da vergi ödemeli” söylemi bu tartışmayı yeniden akıllara getirmiştir. Bu bağlamda çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye’de futbolcuların vergilendirilmesi konusunda mevzuatta yer alan uygulamayı açıklamak ve farklı ülkelerle karşılaştırma yaparak Türkiye’nin bu konuda vergi cenneti olup olmadığı sorusuna cevap aramaktır. Ayrıca çalışma kapsamında daha önceki dönemlerde geçerli vergilendirme uygulamaları hakkında bilgi verilerek, verilen teşviklerin futbol başarısı üzerindeki etkisi tartışılacaktır. Çalışma, futbolculara ödenen ücretlerin vergilendirilmesi ile sınırlandırılacak, futbolcuların transferi esnasında bir başka futbol kulübüne ödenen bonservis bedelleri kapsam dışı bırakılacaktır.

Anahtar Kavramlar: Sporcuların Vergilendirilmesi, Ücretlerin Vergilendirilmesi, Futbolcular Üzerindeki Vergi Yüğü.

Taxation of Athletes in Turkey with Special Emphasis on Football Players

ABSTRACT

Football is a kind of sports that loved and watched with interest both in our country and over the world. Football has made its own economy. Footballers are taxpayers like other people get income and made profit so they have to pay tax. As everybody knows footballers produce high income especially they play football in big and famous football clubs. In spite of gaining million dollars they pay less tax than other people who get equal income. Because there are lots of special provisions on tax laws to pay less tax. This has started a debate that “Is Turkey a tax heaven for footballers?”. This debate has remembered again after Coach of Turkish National Team Şenol Güneş’s explanation “Footballers have to pay tax too”. In this regard the aim of this study is explaining the rules in legislation of taxation of the footballers, comparing with the other countries and trying to find an answer to the question whether Turkey is a tax heaven for footballers. In the scope of the study we will give information about tax applications in the past and the effect of tax incentive on football achievement. The study is limited of wage of footballers so it does not include transfer fees.

Keywords: Taxation of Footballers, Taxation of Wages, Tax Burden on Footballers.

GİRİŞ

Türk Dil Kurumu (TDK) tarafından spor; “Bedeni veya zihni geliřtirmek amacıyla kiřisel veya toplu olarak gerekleřtirilen, bazı kurallara gre uygulanan hareketlerin tm” olarak tanımlanmıř ve sporcunun sporla uğrařan kimse olduėu ifade edilmiřtir. ok sayıda spor dalının var olduėu gnmzde en ok takip edilenin futbol olduėunu sylemek mmkndr. Gelineen noktada artık futbol sadece bir spor dalı olmaktan ıkmıř, milyonlarca liranın konuřulduėu ve elde edildiėi bir endstri haline gelmiřtir.

Futbolun bu kadar ok takip edilmesi ve sektrde faaliyet gsterenlerin bu denli yksek kazanlar elde etmesi futbolcular tarafından denen vergilerin tartıřılmasını beraberinde getirmiřtir. Futbolda uluslararası rekabetin yoėun olması dikkate alındıėında tartıřmalar da lke sınırlarının dıřına ıkmıř ve uluslararası karřılařtırma yapılmasını gerektirmiřtir.

lkemiz aısından bakıldıėında futbolcular gelir vergisi mkellefidir. 193 sayılı Gelir Vergisi Kanunu’nda (GVK) gelir “Bir gerek kiřinin bir takvim yılı iinde elde ettiėi kazan ve iratların safi tutarıdır” řeklinde tanımlandıktan sonra gelirin unsurları belirtilmiřtir. Kanunun ilerleyen maddelerinde futbolcular tarafından elde edilen gelirlerin cret sayılacaėı hkm altına alınmıřtır.

Futbolcular cret geliri elde eden diėer mkelleflere gre vergilendirme aısından farklı kurallara tabidir. Ancak bu farklılık vergi adaletini futbolcular lehine bozabilen niteliktedir. Dolayısıyla futbolcuların ok yksek oranlarda gelir elde etmesine raėmen dřk oranlarda vergi deyen mkellef grubu olduėunu sylemek mmkndr.

Bu baėlamda alıřmanın amacı, Trkiye’de futbolcular iin geerli vergilendirme kurallarını aıklamak ve Avrupa lkeleriyle karřılařtırmaktır. alıřma kapsamında cretin ve futbolcu cretlerinin vergilendirilmesi yasal erevesi doėrultusunda ele alınmıřtır. Ayrıca futbolcu cretlerinin vergilendirilmesi tarihsel sre iinde incelenmiř ve 1990’lı yıllardan itibaren geerli olan kanuni dzenlemeler aıklanmıřtır. Son olarak Trkiye ve Trkiye ile benzer uluslararası organizasyonlara katılan Avrupa lkelerinde geerli vergi oranlarına yer verilerek karřılařtırma yapılmıř ve Trkiye’nin futbolcular iin vergi cenneti olup olmadıėı sorusuna cevap aranmıřtır.

CRET KAVRAMI VE VERGİLENDİRİLMESİ

cret Kavramı

retim faktrlerinden biri olan emeėin, retim srecine dahil edilmesi sonucu elde edilen gelir cret olarak nitelendirilmektedir. creti diėer gelir unsurlarından ayıran en nemli zellik, emeėin karřılıėı olmasıdır. Nitekim Anayasa’nın 55 inci maddesinde “cret emeėin karřılıėıdır” ifadesiyle cret ve emek arasındaki iliřkiye vurgu yapılmıřtır. Anayasa’nın yine aynı maddesinde yer alan “Devlet, alıřanların yaptıkları iře uygun adaletli bir cret elde etmeleri ve diėer sosyal yardımlardan yararlanmaları iin gerekli tedbirleri alır” hkm ile alıřanların adil gelir elde etmelerine iliřkin, devlete pozitif dev vermiřtir. Bu durum cretin emek yoėun bir gelir unsuru olmasından ileri gelmektedir (Cořgun, 2014).

TDK tarafından “İş gücünün karşılığı olan para veya mal “olarak tanımlanan ücret, üretime katılan zihinsel ya da bedensel emekten doğabilmektedir (Öncel, Kumrulu ve Çağan, 2012). Dolayısıyla emeğin üretim sürecin fikren veya bedenlen dahil edilmiş olması karşılığından alınan bedel ücret olarak ifade edilir (Şenyüz, Yüce ve Gerçek, 2017). Bu bedel para şeklinde olabileceği gibi aynı ya da para ile temsil edilebilen menfaatler de olabilir.

GVK’nun 61 inci maddesine göre ücret, “İşverene tabi belirli bir işyerine bağlı olarak çalışanlara hizmet karşılığı verilen para ve ayınlar ile sağlanan ve para ile temsil edilebilen menfaatlerdir”. Tanımdan da anlaşılacağı üzere ücret bağımlı emeğin kazancıdır ve hizmet akdinin doğal bir sonucudur (Öncel, Kumrulu ve Çağan 2012). GVK’na göre ücretin ödenek, tazminat, kasa tazminatı (Mali sorumluluk tazminatı), tahsisat, zam, avans, aidat, huzur hakkı, prim, ikramiye, gider karşılığı veya başka adlar altında ödenmiş olması veya bir ortaklık münasebeti niteliğinde olmamak şartı ile kazancın belli bir yüzdesi şeklinde tayin edilmiş bulunması onun mahiyetini değiştirmez.

Ücretin Unsurları ve Ücret Olarak Vergilendirilecek Ödemeler

GVK’nun 61 inci maddesinde yer alan tanımdan hareketle ücretin unsurları şu şekilde ifade edilebilir (Şenyüz, Yüce ve Gerçek, 2017);

- Hizmet erbabının işverene tabi olması,
- Hizmet erbabının bir iş yerine bağlı olması,
- Hizmet karşılığı olarak bir ödemenin yapılması.

GVK’da ücret kavramı tanımlandıktan sonra mutlak olarak ücret sayılan ödemeler sıralanmıştır. Çünkü bazı ödemeler genel unsurlar itibariyle değerlendirildiklerinde ücret sayılıp sayılmayacağı konusunda tereddütler yaşanmaktadır. Bu tereddütlerin ortadan kaldırılması için böyle bir düzenleme yolu seçilmiştir. GVK’na göre mutlak olarak ücret sayılan ödemeler şunlardır;

1. İstisna dışında kalan emeklilik, maluliyet, dul ve yetim aylıkları;
2. Evvelce yapılmış veya gelecekte yapılacak hizmetler karşılığında verilen para ve ayınlarla sağlanan diğer menfaatler;
3. Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, İl genel meclisi ve belediye meclisi üyeleri ile özel kanunlarına veya idari kararlara göre kurulan daimi veya geçici bütün komisyonların üyelerine ve yukarıda sayılanlara benzeyen diğer kimselere bu sıfatları dolayısıyla ödenen veya sağlanan para, ayın ve menfaatler;
4. Yönetim ve denetim kurulları başkanı ve üyeleriyle tasfiye memurlarına bu sıfatları dolayısıyla ödenen veya sağlanan para, ayın ve menfaatler;
5. Bilirkişilere, resmi arabuluculara, eksperlere, spor hakemlerine ve her türlü yarışma jürisi üyelerine ödenen veya sağlanan para, ayın ve menfaatler;
6. Sporculara transfer ücreti veya sair adlarla yapılan ödemeler ve sağlanan menfaatler.

7. Hizmet sözleşmesi sona erdikten sonra; karşılıklı sonlandırma sözleşmesi veya ikale sözleşmesi kapsamında ödenen tazminatlar, iş kaybı tazminatları, iş sonu tazminatları, iş güvencesi tazminatları gibi çeşitli adlar altında yapılan ödemeler ve yardımlar.

Ücretin Vergilendirilmesi

Vergiye tabi ücretler gerçek ücretler ve diğer ücretler olarak üzere iki kısma ayrılmaktadır. Ücret gelirlerinin vergilendirilmesinde ilke olarak gerçek usul kabul edilmiştir. Vergi, gelirin gerçek ve safi tutarı üzerinden alınmaktadır (GİB, 2019, s. 9).

Gelir vergisinde gerçek kişilerin çeşitli kaynaklardan elde ettiği gelirler toplanarak yıllık beyanname ile beyan edilmektedir. Vergilendirme, beyan edilen toplam tutarın artan oranlı vergi tarifesine tabi tutulması suretiyle yapılmaktadır. Ayrıca bazı gelir unsurları için stopaj usulüyle vergilendirme yapılmaktadır.

Ücret gelirlerinin vergilendirilmesinde kabul edilen esas yöntem stopaj usulüdür. Bununla birlikte sınırlı sayıda ücretliyi ilgilendiren iki yöntem daha bulunmaktadır (Bilici, 2016, s. 39). Bunlardan ilki GVK'nun 64 üncü maddesinde "Diğer ücretler" başlığı ile düzenlenmiştir. Anılan usule göre Kanunda yazılı hizmet erbabının safi ücretleri takvim yılı başında geçerli olan ve sanayi kesiminde çalışan 16 yaşından büyük işçiler için uygulanan asgari ücretin yıllık brüt tutarının %25'idir. İkincisi ise beyanname verme usulüdür.

Ücret gelirlerinin vergilendirilmesinde bir diğer önemli nokta artan oranlılıktır. Stopaj usulü ile alınan vergilerden sadece ücretler artan oranlı vergi tarifesine tabi tutulmaktadır. Diğer gelir unsurları ise sabit oranlar üzerinden vergilendirilmektedir (Öz ve Akçay, 2003).

2019 yılında elde edilen ücret gelirleri için geçerli vergi tarifi aşağıdaki gibidir:

18.000 TL'ye kadar % 15

40.000 TL'nin 18.000 TL'si için 2.700 TL, fazlası % 20

148.000⁹⁵ TL'nin 40.000 TL'si için 7.100 TL fazlası % 27

148.000⁹⁶ TL'den fazlasının 148.000 TL'si için 36.260 TL fazlası % 35

SPORCU ÜCRETLERİNİN VERGİLENDİRİLMESİ

Sporcu ücretlerinin vergilendirilmesi yukarıda ifade edilen hükümler doğrultusunda değil, GVK'nun geçici 72 nci maddesi hükümlerine göre yapılmaktadır. Dolayısıyla sporcular aynı miktarda gelir elde eden diğer ücretlilere göre daha düşük oranlarda vergiye tabi tutulmaktadır.

Ülkemizde yıllar boyunca sporcuların gelirleri, gençlerin spora özendirilmesi ve kötü alışkanlıklardan uzak tutulması gibi gerekçelerle istisnaya tabi tutulmuştur (Elçi, 2017). Bu

⁹⁵ Ücret dışı gelirler için geçerli olan tarife; 98.000 TL'nin 40.000 TL'si için 7.100 TL

⁹⁶ Ücret dışı gelirler için geçerli olan tarife; 98.000 TL'den fazlasının 98.000 TL'si için 22.760 TL

durum Anayasa'nın "Sporun Geliştirilmesi ve Tahkim" başlıklı 59 uncu maddesi ile anayasal temele dayandırılmıştır. İlgili maddeye göre; "Devlet, her yaştaki Türk vatandaşlarının beden ve ruh sağlığını geliştirecek tedbirleri alır, sporun kitlelere yayılmasını teşvik eder. Devlet başarılı sporcuyu korur"

Gelir vergisi açısından tarihsel sürece bakıldığında sporcuların vergilendirilmesi için özel uygulamaların genellikle var olduğu görülmektedir. Özellikle futbolun daha fazla ilgi görmeye başladığı ve futbolcuların yüksek ücretler kazanmaya başladığı 1990'lı yıllardan itibaren kanuna eklenen geçici maddelerle futbolcu ücretleri üzerinden alınan vergi tutarları futbolcular lehine düzenlenmiştir. Bu bağlamda 1994. 1998, 2003, 2008 yıllarında yapılan değişiklikler önem arz etmektedir.

İlk olarak 1994 yılında 3986 sayılı Kanun ile GVK'na eklenen geçici 40 ıncı madde dikkat çekmektedir (İpek, 2003). Buna göre, sporculara transfer ücreti olarak yapılan ödemeler 01.05.1994-31.12.2000 tarihleri arasında gelir vergisinden istisna edilmiş, bu ücretler üzerinden %15 oranında tevkifat yapılacağı hüküm altına alınmıştır.

29.07.1998 tarihli 4369 sayılı Kanun ile gelirin tanımı değiştirilmiş ve GVK'nun geçici 40 ıncı maddesi yürürlükten kaldırılmıştır. Dolayısıyla 01.01.1999 tarihinden itibaren futbolcu ücretleri de diğer ücretler gibi normal vergilendirme rejimine tabi hale gelmiştir (Hacıköylü, 2001).

2003 tarihinde yeni bir değişiklik yapılmış ve 4842 sayılı Kanun ile GVK'na eklenen geçici 64 üncü madde gereği, 21.12.2007 tarihine kadar sporculara ücret olarak yapılan ödemeler geir vergisinden istisna edilmiş, %15 oranında tevkifat yapılmasına karar verilmiştir.

Bu konudaki son düzenleme 06.06.2008 tarih ve 26898 Mükerrer sayılı Resmi Gazete'de yayımlanarak yürürlüğe giren 5766 sayılı Kanun ile yapılmıştır. Anılan Kanunun 8 inci maddesiyle GVK'na hala uygulanmakta olan geçici 72 nci madde eklenmiştir. Günümüzde futbolcular GVK geçici 72 nci madde hükümleri doğrultusunda vergilendirilmektedir.

GVK'nun geçici 72 nci maddesi şu şekildedir;

"31.12.2019⁹⁷ tarihine kadar sporculara yapılan ücret ve ücret sayılan ödemelerden aşağıdaki oranlarda gelir vergisi tevkifatı yapılır.

a) Lig usulüne tabi spor dallarında;

- 1) En üst ligdekiler için % 15,
- 2) En üst altı ligdekiler için % 10,
- 3) Diğer liglerdeki için % 5,

⁹⁷Kanun maddesi ilk olarak yürürlüğe girdiğinde 31.12.2017 tarihine kadar uygulanması hüküm altına alınmış ancak 7063 sayılı Kanunla uygulanma süresi 31.12.2019 tarihine kadar uzatılmıştır.

b) Lig usulüne tabi olmayan spor dallarındaki sporculara yapılan ödemeler ile milli sporculara uluslararası müsabakalara katılmaları karşılığında yapılan ödemelerden % 5.

(2) Bu ödemeler üzerinden 94 üncü madde kapsamında ayrıca tevkifat yapılmaz. Bu gelirler için yıllık beyanname verilmez, diğer gelirler dolayısıyla beyanname verilmesi halinde de bu gelirler beyannameye dahil edilmez.

(3) Bu maddenin yürürlüğe girdiği tarihten önce yapılmış olan ücret ve ücret sayılan ödemelerin vergilendirilmesinde 31/12/2007 tarihinde yürürlükte olan hükümler uygulanır.

(4) Bu maddenin uygulanmasına ilişkin usul ve esasları belirlemeye Maliye Bakanlığı yetkilidir”.

Sporu daha etkin hale getirmek ve spordaki kayıt dışını engellemek amacıyla yapıldığı ifade edilen (TBMM, 2008) düzenlemenin gerekçesi “Sporculara ücret olarak yapılan ödemeler gelir vergisinden istisna edilerek bu ödemelerin Bakanlar Kurulunca belirlenecek oranda vergilendirilmesine yönelik kalıcı bir belirlleme yapılmakta ve 193 sayılı Gelir Vergisi Kanununun geçici 64 üncü maddesinde yer alan uygulamanın devamı sağlanmaktadır” şeklinde açıklanmıştır (TBMM Plan ve Bütçe Komisyonu, 2008).

Madde hükmünden de açıkça görüldüğü üzere, sporcuların vergilendirilmesinde performans gösterilen lig esas alınmaktadır. Dolayısıyla üst düzey liglerde mücadele eden sporcular daha yüksek oranda vergi öderken, alt liglerde görev alan futbolcular nispeten daha düşük vergi ödemektedirler. Buradan hareketle kanun koyucunun bir nevi amatör-profesyonel sporcu ayrımı yaptığını söylemek mümkündür (Öz ve Akçay, 2013).

YABANCI FUTBOLCULARIN VERGİLENDİRİLMESİ

Türkiye Futbol Federasyonunca (TFF) yürütülen Profesyonel Futbolcuların Statüsü ve Transferleri Talimatı’na göre “Yabancı uyruklu profesyonel futbolcuların hangi şartlarda ve liglerde oynayacağını TFF belirler. TFF bu belirlemeyle birlikte her bir kulübün oynatabileceği yabancı uyruklu futbolcu sayısını da birinci transfer ve tescil döneminden önce ilan eder”.

Yukarıda yer alan açıklamalardan yabancı futbolcuların Türkiye’de hizmet verebileceği anlaşılmaktadır. Burada sorulması gereken bu futbolcuların vergilendirilmesinin hangi esaslara göre yapılacağıdır.

Gelir vergisi açısından yabancı futbolcuların vergilendirilmesi konusunda mükellefiyet kavramı önemlidir. Kanunda belirtilen şartları taşıyanlar tam ya da dar mükellef olarak vergiye tabi tutulacaktır. Dolayısıyla Türkiye’de yerleşmiş olanlar ve resmi daire ve müesseselere veya merkezi Türkiye’de bulunan teşekkül ve teşebbüslere bağlı olup adı geçen daire, müessese, teşekkül ve teşebbüslerin işleri dolayısıyla yabancı memleketlerde oturan Türk vatandaşları tam mükellef olarak değerlendirilerek Türkiye içinde ve dışında elde ettikleri gelirlerin tamamı üzerinden vergilendirilirken, Türkiye’de yerleşmiş olmayan gerçek kişiler dar mükellef sayılarak sadece Türkiye’de elde ettikleri kazanç ve iratlar üzerinden

vergilendirilecektir. Ayrıca tam ya da dar mükellef olmalarına bakılmaksızın Türkiye ile uyruğunda bulundukları ülke arasında çifte vergiyi önleme anlaşması varsa, vergilendirme sorunu bu anlaşma hükümleri doğrultusunda çözülmektedir (Tosun, 2006).

ÜLKE ÖRNEKLERİ

Türkiye’de futbol oynayan sporcular Avrupa ülkelerindeki futbolculara göre vergilendirme açısından oldukça avantajlıdır. Çünkü Türk Vergi Sisteminde geçerli olan vergilendirme rejimi sosyal adaletin futbolcular lehine bozulmasına neden olan uygulamalar barındırmaktadır. Tam veya dar mükellef olup olmamasına bakılmaksızın bütün futbolcuların ücretlerinden kanunda belirlenen oranlarda stopaj yapılmaktadır ve anılan oranların yüksek olmadığı açıktır. Futbolcuların görev aldıkları lige göre farklı vergi oranları uygulamasını öngören Türkiye’nin futbolcular için bir vergi cenneti olduğunu söylemek mümkündür (Öz ve Akçay, 2013). Bu durum farklı ülkelerde uygulanan vergi oranları belirtildikten sonra daha açık bir şekilde ortaya koyulmuş olacaktır.

Ernst & Young tarafından 30 Avrupa ülkesi esas alınarak yapılan bir araştırmaya göre Türkiye, en az vergi oranına sahip beş ülkeden biridir ve lig usulüne göre farklılaşan oranda vergilendirme yapılan tek ülkedir (Ernst & Young, 2013). En düzüş oranlara sahip diğer ülkeler ise; Bulgaristan (%10), Çekya (%15), Macaristan (%16) ve Romanya (%16)’dır. Burada dikkat edilmesi gereken husus, Türkiye’de en yüksek vergi oranı %35 olmasına karşın futbolcular için özel bir düzenleme olması ve elde edecekleri gelirin tutarı fark etmeksizin maksimum %15 oranında vergi kesintisi yapılacak olmasıdır. Ayrıca birçok Avrupa ülkesinde futbolcular artan oranlı vergilendirmeye tabi iken Bulgaristan, Çekya, Macaristan, Romanya, Ukrayna gibi ülkelerde düz oranlı vergilendirme söz konusudur (Ernst & Young, 2013).

Türkiye ile benzer uluslararası organizasyonlarda yer alan diğer Avrupa ülkelerinde ödenen vergilerin ne kadar yüksek olduğunu anlayabilmek için ilgili ülkelerin vergi tarifelerine bakmakta fayda vardır. Gelir vergisinde en yüksek oranın %45 olduğu İngiltere’de vergi tarifesi aşağıdaki gibidir (GOV.UK, 2019);

Tablo 1: İngiltere Gelir Vergisi Tarifesi

Vergilendirilebilir Gelir	Vergi Oranı
12.500 £’a kadar	% 0
12.500 £ – 50.000 £	% 20
50.000 £ - 150.000 £	% 40
150.000 £ ve üzeri	% 45

Üst düzey liglerde futbol oynayan mükelleflerin kazancının en üst dilime tabi olacağı aşıkardır. Dolayısıyla İngiltere’de futbolcu ücretlerine uygulanan vergi oranının %45 olduğunu söylemek mümkündür. Başka bir ifadeyle Premier Liginde futbol oynayan bir futbolcu Türkiye Süper Ligdeki bir futbolcunun yaklaşık üç katı kadar vergi ödemek zorundadır.

En yüksek %43 oranında bireysel gelir vergisi ödenen İtalya’da vergi tarifesi şöyledir (European Union, 2019);

Tablo 2: İtalya Gelir Vergisi Tarifesi

Vergilendirilebilir Gelir	Vergi Oranı
15.000 €’ya kadar	% 23
15.000 € - 28.000 €	% 27
28.001 € - 55.000 €	% 38
55.001 € - 75.000 €	% 41
75.001 € ve üzeri	% 43

Bu oranlara ek olarak %0,7’den %3.3’e kadar bölgesel vergiler, %0’dan %0,9’a kadar değişen oranlarda belediye vergileri alınmaktadır (Deloitte, 2019). Dolayısıyla İtalya’daki bir futbolcunun Türkiye’de futbol oynayan meslektaşlarının üç katı kadar vergi yüküyle karşı karşıya olduğu söylenebilir.

Ek ödemeler (gelir vergisinden sonra %5,5 oranında dayanışma vergisi, %8 ya da %9 oranında kilise vergisi alınmaktadır) dikkate alınmadığında en yüksek oranın %45 olduğu Almanya’da vergi tarifesi aşağıdaki gibidir (KPMG, 2019);

Tablo 3: Almanya Gelir Vergisi Tarifesi

Vergilendirilebilir Gelir	Vergi Oranı
9.168 €’ya kadar	% 0
9.169 € – 55.960 €	%14
55.961 € – 265.326 €	% 42
265.327 € ve üzeri	% 45

En yüksek gelir diliminin diğer ülkelere oranla daha düşük olduğu İspanya’da vergi tarifesi şöyledir (tabloda yer alan vergi oranlarına İspanya’nın merkezi ve yerel vergileri dahil edilmiştir) (Spain Accountatns, 2019; Expatica, 2019; KPMG, 2019);

Tablo 4: İspanya Gelir Vergisi Tarifesi

Vergilendirilebilir Gelir	Vergi Oranı
12.450 €’ya kadar	% 19
12.450 € - 20.200 €	% 24
20.200 € - 35.200 €	% 30
35.200 € - 60.000 €	% 37
60.000 € ve üzeri	% 45

Futbol açısından önemli bir turnuva olan Dünya Kupası'nın son sahibi Fransa'da vergi tarifesi aşağıdaki gibidir (Expatica, 2019; Trading Economics, 2019);

Tablo 5: Fransa Gelir Vergisi Tarifesi

Vergilendirilebilir Gelir	Vergi Oranı
9.964 €'ya kadar	% 0
9.964 € - 27.519 €	% 14
27.519 € - 73.779 €	% 30
73.779 € - 156.244 €	% 41
156.244 € ve üzeri	% 45

Yukarıda yer alan oranlardan yola çıkarak, yıllık 1 milyon € kazanan bir futbolcunun ödeyeceği vergi tutarlarını hesapladığımızda karşımıza çıkan sonuç aşağıdaki tabloda özetlenmiştir.

Tablo 6: 1 Milyon Euro İçin Ödenmesi Gereken Vergiler

Ülke Adı	En Yüksek Oran	Ödenmesi Gereken Vergi (€)
İngiltere⁹⁸	% 45	426.577,555
İtalya	% 43	423.170
Almanya	% 45	425.087,76
İspanya	% 45	440.901,5
Fransa	% 45	429.836,05
Türkiye	% 15 ⁹⁹	150.000

Diğer Avrupa ülkelerinde de benzer sonuçlar karşımıza çıkacaktır. Çünkü bir çok ülkede uygulanan vergi oranları Türkiye ile karşılaştırıldığında oldukça yüksektir. Aşağıdaki tabloda Avrupa ülkelerinde geçerli olan ve futbolcular tarafından elde edilen gelirlere uygulanacak en yüksek vergi oranları yer almaktadır. Üst düzey liglerde futbol oynayan bir futbolcunun geliri en üst limitten vergilendirilecek kadar yüksek olacağı varsayılarak tablo, vergi tarifelerinin en yüksek oranları dikkate alınarak hazırlanmıştır.

⁹⁸ Sayısal örneğin hazırlandığı gün (8 Ekim 2019) geçerli olan rakamlar kullanılmıştır. EURO/GBP paritesi 0,8955, GBP/Euro paritesi 1,1138 olarak alınmıştır.

⁹⁹ En yüksek vergi oranı % 35 olmasına karşın, futbolcu ücretlerine uygulanacak oran % 15'tir.

Tablo 7¹⁰⁰: Avrupa Ülkelerinde Vergi Oranları

Ülke Adı	Vergi Oranı
İsveç	% 57
Avusturya	% 55
Danimarka	% 55
Belçika	% 53
Hollanda	% 51
Portekiz	% 48
Lüksemburg	% 48
İskoçya	% 46
Yunanistan	% 45
İsviçre	% 40
Norveç	% 38
Kıbrıs	% 35
Azerbaycan	% 25
Slovakya	% 25
Çekya	% 22
Ukrayna	%18
Hırvatistan	% 15
Macaristan	% 15
Bulgaristan	% 10
Kazakistan	% 10
Romanya	% 10
Rusya	% 10
Sırbistan	% 10

Kaynak: www.tradingeconomics.com, www.uefa.com adreslerinden alınan verilerle yazar tarafından oluşturulmuştur.

Ödenen vergiler ve geçerli olan vergi oranlarının futbol başarısı üzerine olan etkileri bu alanda tartışılan başka bir konudur. Daha kesin sonuçlara varmak için detaylı çalışmalar yapılması gerekir ancak ilk bakışta ödenen vergiler ve elde edilen ulusal ya da uluslararası başarılar arasında önemli bir bağıntı olduğunu söylemek güçtür. Çünkü son dönemde kazanılan uluslararası başarılarla bakıldığında vergi oranları yüksek olan ülkelerin önemli sonuçlar elde ettiği görülmektedir. Örneğin, futbolda en prestijli bir organizasyonlardan biri olan dünya kupasının son sahibi Fransa'dır. 2018 Dünya Kupasını kazanan Fransa'da futbolcular %45 oranında vergi ödemektedir. Benzer şekilde Avrupa kıtasının en prestijli turnuvaları olan UEFA

¹⁰⁰ Tabloda yer alan ülkeler, Avrupa kıtasında iki önemli turnuva olan UEFA Şampiyonlar Ligi (grup aşaması) ve UEFA Avrupa Liginde (grup aşaması) temsilcisi bulunan ülkelerdir.

Şampiyonlar Ligi ve UEFA Avrupa Ligi 2019 yılı şampiyonları İngiliz futbol takımlarıdır ve İngiltere’de de vergi oranı %45’tir. Anılan oranlar Avrupa’daki birçok ülkeye göre daha yüksektir.

Türkiye açısından bakıldığında da elde edilen başarılar ile uygulanan vergi oranları arasında anlamlı bir bağlantı kurulamamaktadır (Özpehriz ve Çelik, 2012). Türkiye’nin uluslararası alanda elde ettiği en önemli başarılar 2000 yılında Galatasaray’ın UEFA Kupası ve UEFA Süper Kupa şampiyonluğu ile A Milli Futbol Takımının 2002 Dünya Kupası’nda alınan dünya üçüncülüğüdür. Her iki dönemde de futbolcular üzerindeki vergi yükü günümüzde geçerli olan orana göre daha yüksektir çünkü o dönemlerde futbolcular artan oranlı vergilemeye tabi tutulmuştur. Türkiye FIFA sıralamasında 2002 yılında 9 uncu sırada iken 2019 yılında 36 ncı sıradadır (FIFA, 2019). Bu durum da futbol başarısı ile uygulanan vergi oranlarının ilişkilendirilememesine örnek olarak gösterilebilir.

SONUÇ

Futbol gerek Türkiye ve Avrupa’da gerekse dünyanın diğer ülkelerinde sadece bir spor dalı olmanın ötesinde bir sektör ya da bir endüstri olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Futbolda elde edilen kazançların yüksek oluşu, bu kazançları sağlayan bireylerin vergilendirilmesi için geçerli olan uygulamaları merak konusu haline getirmiştir. Hem sektörün içinde yer alanlar hem de sadece izleyici olarak takip edenler futbolcuların vergi ödeyip ödemediği ya da hangi esaslar dahilinde vergi ödediğini sorgulamaktadır.

Futbolcuların elde ettikleri gelirler 193 sayılı GVK uyarında ücret sayılmaktadır. Ancak vergilendirme esasları ücret geliri elde eden diğer mükelleflere göre farklılık göstermektedir. Normal şartlarda ücretler artan oranlı vergi tarifesi uygulanmak suretiyle vergilendirilmektedir. Ancak futbolcu ücretleri Kanunun geçici 72 nci maddesi hükmüne göre % 15 oranında vergiye tabidir. Futbolcuları için geçerli bu özel uygulama 1990’lı yıllardan itibaren uygulanagelmektedir.

Türkiye ile benzer uluslararası organizasyonlarda yer alan diğer Avrupa ülkelerine bakıldığında, vergi oranlarının çok daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Elbette Türkiye ile aynı oranlarda vergi uygulayan ya da bizde olduğu gibi düz oran üzerinden vergilendirme yapan ülkeler bulunmaktadır ancak futbol denildiği zaman ilk akla gelen ülkelerin vergi oranları oldukça yüksektir. Dolayısıyla Türkiye futbolcular için bir vergi cenneti olarak nitelendirilebilir. Futbolculara uygulanan vergi oranlarıyla futbol başarısı arasında olumlu bir bağ olduğunu söylemek mümkün olmamaktadır. Son yıllarda uluslararası başarı elde eden ülkelerin daha yüksek oranlarda vergi uygulayan ülkeler olduğu göze çarpmaktadır. Türkiye’de de elde edilen başarılar vergi oranlarının nispeten daha yüksek olduğu dönemlere denk gelmektedir.

Sonuç olarak söylemek gerekirse futbolcular da diğer mükellefler gibi artan oranlı vergi ödemelidir. Elde edilen gelirler ile kıyaslandığında çok düşük tutarlarda vergi ödenmesi futbol başarısına katkı sağlamadığı gibi vergi adaletini de bozucu niteliktedir.

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Polatlı İlçesi Tarım Coğrafyası¹⁰¹

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ÖZET

Polatlı ilçesinin ekonomisi geçmişten günümüze tarım ağırlıklı olmuştur. Bu çalışmada ilçede gerçekleştirilen tarımsal faaliyetler coğrafi açıdan ele alınmıştır. Polatlı tarıma elverişli iklim koşullarına, Sakarya Irmağı, Ankara Çayı ve Porsuk Çayı gibi zengin su kaynaklarına, verimli topraklara ve tarımsal üretime uygun yer şekillerine sahiptir. 328.272,70 hektar arazi varlığına sahip ilçede arazilerin 224.058,70 hektarı (%68'i) tarım arazisi olarak kullanılmaktadır. İlçe tarla alanlarında en fazla hububat üretimi yapılmaktadır. Aynı zamanda kuru soğan, şeker pancarı, ayçiçeği kavun ve karpuz üretimi önemli bir yere sahiptir. Ürünlerin pazarlanabileceği üretimi destekleyen Türkiye'nin en aktif ikinci tahıl borsasına sahiptir. Bununla birlikte son yıllarda sayısı artan besi çiftlikleri ilçenin hayvancılık açısından potansiyelini artırmaktadır. Polatlı İlçesi'nden D-200 Eskişehir-Ankara karayolu geçmesi ürünlerin pazarlanmasını kolaylaştırmaktadır. İlçede tarımsal faaliyetleri desteklemek ve çiftçiyi yönlendirmek amacıyla birçok tarımsal kuruluş faaliyet göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Polatlı, Tarım Coğrafyası, Tahıl Üretimi.

¹⁰¹ Bu çalışma "Polatlı İlçesi Tarım Coğrafyası" adlı yüksek lisans tezinden üretilmiştir. Karabük Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırmalar Koordinasyon Birimi tarafından desteklenmiştir. Proje Numarası: KBÜBAP-17-YL-455.

GİRİŞ

Genel anlamıyla tarım; bitkisel ve hayvansal ürünlerin yetiştirilmesi amacıyla yapılan bütün faaliyetlerdir. Ya da insanın toprağı işleyerek tarım ürünleri yetiştirmesi ve hayvancılık etkinliklerini sürdürmesidir (Doğanay, Özdemir ve Şahin, 2011, s.15). Tarımsal faaliyetlerin gerçekleştirilmesi başta sahanın iklimi olmak üzere, toprak yapısı, jeomorfolojik özellikleri, su kaynakları gibi doğal faktörler ile sulama, gübreleme, ilaçlama, tohum ıslahı, makine kullanımı gibi beşeri koşullara bağlıdır.

İnsanın hayatını devam ettirebilmesi için yeterli ve dengeli beslenmesi gerekmektedir. İnsanlar yaşamsal faaliyetlerini gerçekleştirmek için beslenme ihtiyacını tarımdan karşılamaktadır. Giyim ve enerji gibi birçok sektör de tarıma bağlıdır. Bu sebeple tarım geçmişten günümüze önemini yitirmeyen, değişim ve gelişim gösteren bir sektör olmuştur.

Ülkelerin ekonomisinde ve gelişmesinde etkili olan tarım beslenme ihtiyacının karşılamasının yanı sıra istihdam ve milli gelire olan katkısı, sanayi sektörünün ham madde ihtiyacını karşılaması, ihracata katkı sağlaması bakımından önem taşımaktadır. Tarım sektörü hem sanayi hem de ticaret sektörlerini destekleyen bir üretim alanıdır. Sanayide hammadde ihtiyacını doğrudan tarımdan karşılayan sanayi kolları bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle tarımla etkileşim içinde bulunan sektörler bir bütün olarak ele alınmalı ve değerlendirilmelidir.

Giderek artan dünya nüfusu tarımsal üretimden karşılanan gıda maddelerine olan ihtiyacı da artırmaktadır. İnsanların besin ihtiyacını karşılayabilmeleri için tarımsal üretimin, nüfusun ihtiyacını karşılayabilecek ölçüde devam etmesi gerekmektedir. Tarım arazilerinin korunması sağlanmalı ve bu alanlar daha da genişletilmeli, bununla birlikte tarımsal üretime verilen destekler artırılmalı ki sürdürülebilir gıda ve tarım üretimi gerçekleşsin.

Geniş düzlüklere, verimli topraklara ve önemli su kaynaklarına sahip Polatlı geçmişten günümüze tarımsal faaliyetlerin ön plana çıktığı bir ilçedir. İlçe halkının en önemli geçim kaynağını tarım sektörü oluşturmaktadır. Özellikle insanların temel besin kaynağı ekmeğın hammaddesi olan; buğday üretimi çok geniş alanlarda yapılmaktadır.

ARAŞTIRMANIN AMACI

Bu çalışmada Polatlı ilçesindeki tarımsal faaliyetler coğrafi açıdan ele alınmıştır. Bu kapsamda ilçenin iklim, toprak, su kaynakları, jeomorfolojik özellikleri incelenmiştir. Buradan yola çıkarak tarımsal ürün deseni ve yetiştirilen ürünlerin miktarları ve verim miktarları belirlenmiştir. Polatlı İlçesi İç Anadolu Bölgesi'nin kuru soğan deposu ve önemli tahıl üretim merkezlerinden biridir. Coğrafi konumu, iklim özellikleri, jeomorfolojik özellikleri, toprak yapısı ve su kaynakları bakımından tarım yapılmaya oldukça elverişlidir. Tahıl üretiminin yanı sıra pazarlama noktasında da önemli bir merkezdir. Polatlı Ticaret Borsası, Konya'dan sonra işlem hacmi en yüksek olan ticaret borsasıdır. Türkiye'de ilk lisanslı depoculuk Polatlı Ticaret Borsası'nda yapılmaya başlanmıştır. Her yıl ülke genelinden alım satım işlemleri gerçekleştirilmektedir. Önemli ulaşım yollarının da ilçeden geçmesi ürünlerin pazarlama

konusunda kolaylık sağlamaktadır. İlçe ilk çağlardan bu yana yüksek bir tarım potansiyeline sahiptir.

Bu araştırmanın amacı Polatlı'daki tarımsal faaliyetleri ortaya koymaktır. Bu kapsamda mevcut araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

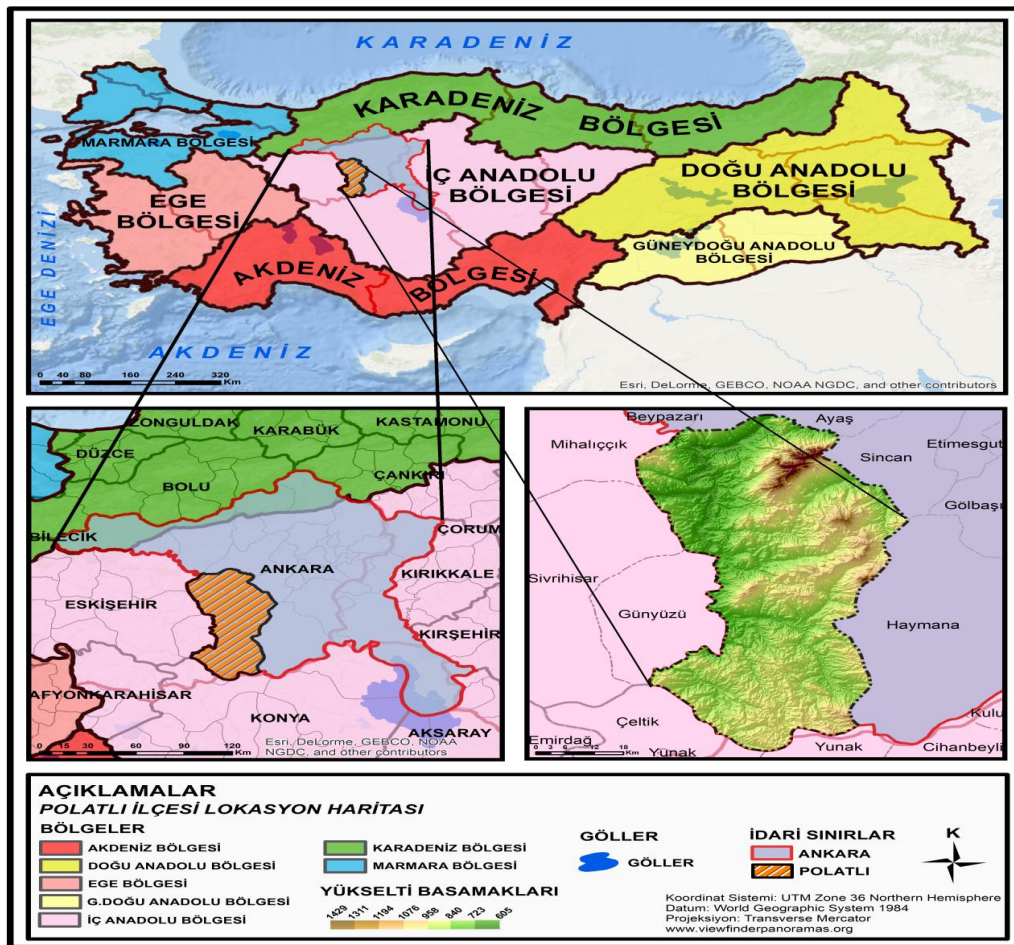
1. Polatlı'nın fiziki ve beşeri coğrafya özellikleri nelerdir?
2. Polatlı'nın tarım alanlarının özellikleri nelerdir?
3. Polatlı'da yapılan başlıca tarımsal faaliyetler nelerdir?

ARAŞTIRMANIN YÖNTEMİ

“Polatlı İlçesi Tarım Coğrafyası” isimli bu çalışmada “tarama modeli” kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak literatür taraması yapılmıştır. Konu ile ilgili yapılmış tez, makale, rapor vb. araştırmalar konu bütünlüğüne göre ayrılıp bir sentez oluşturulmuştur. Arazi çalışmasına çıkılarak sahada tarımsal faaliyetler gözlemlenmiş, tarım ve hayvancılık verileri ise TÜİK, ilçe gıda tarım ve hayvancılık müdürlüğünden temin edilmiş tablolar ve grafikler oluşturulmuştur.

Araştırma Sahasının Sınırları ve Coğrafi Konumu

Harita 1: Polatlı İlçesi Lokasyon Haritası



Araştırma sahası İç Anadolu Bölgesinde 39° 34' Kuzey enlemleri ile 32° 6' Doğu boylamları arasında yer almaktadır (Harita 1). Ankara İline bağlı olan Polatlı ilçesinin doğusunda Haymana, batısında Sivrihisar ve Günyüzü, kuzeyinde Beypazarı, Ayaş, kuzeydoğusunda Sincan, güneyinde Yunak ve Çeltik ilçeleri bulunur.

TARIM VE HAYVANCILIĞIN DOĞAL ÇEVRE FAKTÖRLERİ İLE İLİŞKİSİ

Jeomorfolojik Özellikleri

İlçenin en yüksek noktası (1440m) ile Kuzeyde bulunan Çile Dağıdır. Harita3 incelediğinde dağlık sahaların Kuzeyde yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir. Bu sahada kuzeyde Kayapınar Tepesi (1386 m), Ahlatlıbayır Tepesi (1221 m), Hantepesi (1383 m), Kızılyüksek Tepesi (1174 m) ve güneyde yükseltisi fazla olan Mangal Dağ (1414 m), Gökdağ Tepesi (1259 m) bulunmaktadır. Polatlı'nın güneybatısı ve kuzeybatısında ortalama yükseltinin (800 m) olduğunu söylemek mümkündür. Yükseltinin fazla olduğu alanlarda tarımsal faaliyetlerin sınırlılığı, tarım ürünlerinin tür bakımından az olmasının sebebi sıcaklığın yetersizliğine bağlı vejetasyon süresinin kısalığıdır. Bu sebeple bitkisel ürünlerin dikey dağılışını yükselti belirler (Bulut, 2006, s.4). İlçede Poyraz, Hacıtuğrul, Yağmurbaba ve Avşar Mahalleleri ortalama yükseltinin en fazla olduğu alanlardır. Bu mahallelerde yükseltiye bağlı sıcaklık azaldığı için tarım ürünlerinin hasadı diğer mahallelerden daha geç yapılmaktadır. Yine engebe ve yükselti bu bölgede biçerdöverlerin ve bazı tarım makinelerinin çalışmasını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

İklim Özellikleri

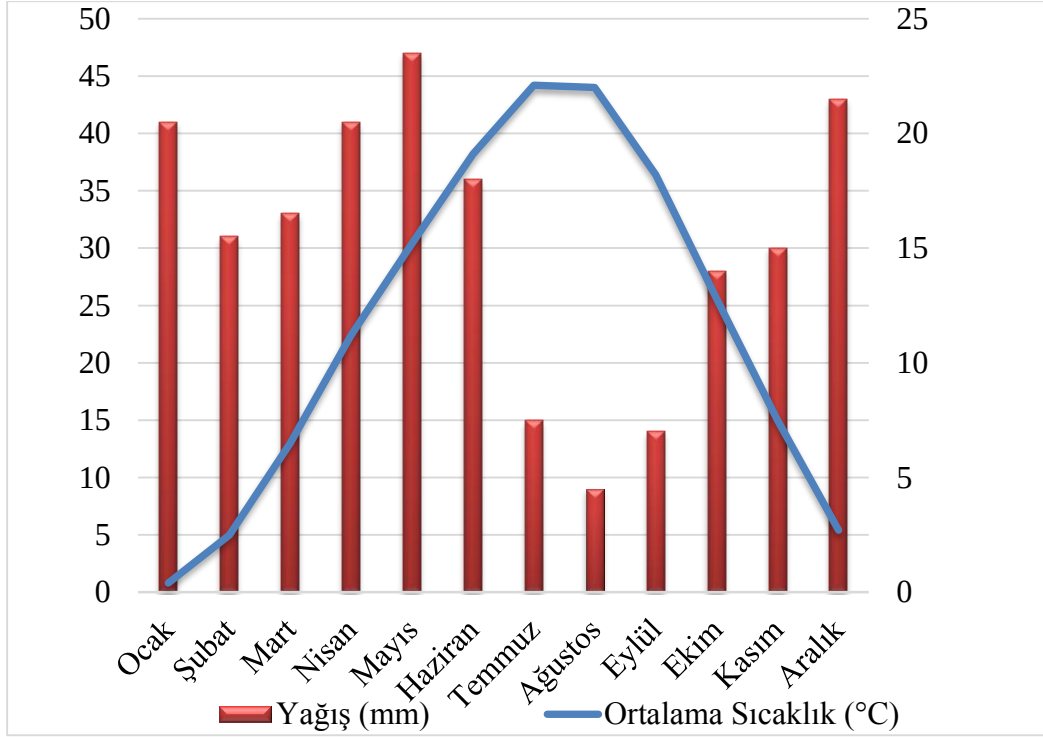
Polatlı'da genel olarak yazlar sıcak ve kurak kışlar soğuk ve yağışlı geçmektedir. Sahada iklim koşulları tarımı ciddi şekilde etkilemektedir. Çünkü Polatlı'da en fazla kuru tarım yapılmaktadır. Sulama imkânı bulunmayan bölgelerde bu aşırı sıcaklar verim düşüklüğüne sebep olmaktadır. Polatlı tarımsal üretim verilerini incelediğimizde kurak geçen yıllarda üretim miktarlarının önemli ölçüde azaldığı görülmektedir.

İlçede en yüksek sıcaklıklar temmuz ve ağustos aylarında görülmektedir. Temmuz ayı ortalama sıcaklığı 22,1°C, ağustos ayı ortalama sıcaklığı ise 22°C derecedir. Temmuz ayı minimum sıcaklık değeri 15°C, maksimum sıcaklık değeri 29,3°C'dir. Sıcaklıklar Ocak ayında -2°C ile 2°C arındadır. Mart ayından itibaren artmaya başlayan sıcaklıklar Temmuz ayında en yüksek değere ulaşır(Grafik1). Kuzey Yarım Küre ülkesi olmamız sebebiyle eylül ayı itibariyle tekrar sıcaklık değerleri düşmeye başlar.

Polatlı İlçesi en fazla yağış mayıs ayında 47 mm., nisan ayında 41 mm. olarak düşmektedir. Yağışlar kışın sıcaklıklar 0°C'nin altına düştüğü için kar şeklinde ilkbahar aylarında yağmur şeklinde düşmektedir. İlçede en çok yağışın ilçenin kuzeyine düşmektedir. En az yağış ise Eskişehir sınırına yakın olan batı kesimlere düşmektedir. Batıda yer alan sahalarda yağış az olmasına karşın elde edilen ürün miktarı ve kalitesi düşmemektedir. Bunun sebebi bu bölgede bulunan akarsular ve verimli alüvyal topraklardır. Bitkinin yağış isteği arttığı dönemlerde bu alanlara sulama yapılmaktadır. Polatlı ilçesi için Mart, Nisan ve Mayıs aylarında düşecek yağışlar oldukça önemlidir. Tahıl tarımı yoğunlukta kuru tarım alanlarında

yapıldığından tahılların başak çıkarmadan önceki sap tutma çiçeklenme döneminde gelen yağış verimi oldukça etkilemektedir. Tahılların başak çıkarma ve dane tutma döneminde yağış isteği yoktur. İlçede yetiştirilen su isteği yaz döneminde de fazla olan şekerpancarı, kuru soğan, ayçiçeği gibi ürünlerde yaz yağışları çok az olduğu için, verimi ve kaliteyi artırabilmek amacıyla sulama yapılmaktadır.

Grafik 1: Polatlı İlçesi Sıcaklık Yağış Grafiği (2018)



Kaynak: Meteoroloji Genel Müdürlüğü

Toprak Özellikleri

İlçede görülen toprak tipleri; kahverengi topraklar, alüvyal topraklar, kolüvyal topraklar, hidromorfik topraklar, organik topraklar, kırmızımsı kahverengi topraklar, kireçsiz kahverengi orman topraklarıdır.

Polatlı'da en yaygın olan toprak tipi kahverengi topraklardır. Polatlı'da kahverengi topraklar üzerinde kuru tarım alanlarında en fazla tahıl üretimi yapılmaktadır. Akarsuya yakın bölgelerde sulama imkânı bulunduğundan bu topraklar üzerinde yetiştirilen ürünlerde çeşitlenmektedir. Kuru soğan, şekerpancarı, ayçiçeği, kavun, karpuz gibi ürünlerde sulanabilen alanlarda görülmektedir. Polatlı'da kuzeyde ve güneyde yükseltinin arttığı eğimli sahalarda ise kolüvyal topraklar gelişim göstermektedir. Hacıtuğrul, Yağmurbaba, Afşar, Poyraz, Sivri Mahallerinde bu toprak tipi görülmektedir. Bu topraklar üzerinde ilçede en yaygın yetiştirilen tahıllardan buğday ve arpa tarımı yapılmaktadır. İlçede kırmızımsı kahverengi topraklar Karayavşan, Kayabaşı, Babayakup ve Kargalı Mahallelerinde yayılış alanı göstermektedir. Bu toprak üzerinde en fazla tahıl tarımı yapılmaktadır. Ancak yakınında akarsu bulunan mahallelerde şeker pancarı ve sebze üretimi de yapılmaktadır. Polatlı'da alüvyal topraklar akarsu yatakları çevresinde taşkın alanlarında görülmektedir. Özellikle Sakarya Irmağı,

Ilıcaözü Deresi, Ankara Çayı, Porsuk Çayı, Yeşilözü Deresi çevresinde yayılış alanı göstermektedir. Alüvyal toprakların tarımsal verimliliği yüksektir. Bu topraklar akarsuya yakın bölgelerde yer aldığı için su isteği yaz aylarında fazla olan kuru soğan, şekerpancarı, ayçiçeği, kavun, karpuz gibi ürünler yetiştirilmektedir. İlçede kuru soğan üretim alanları geniş yayılış alanına sahiptir. Özellikle akarsu kenarındaki bu verimli topraklar kuru soğan üreticileri tarafından tercih edilmektedir.

Su Kaynakları

Polatlı ilçesi Sakarya Irmağı, Porsuk Çayı, Ankara Çayı Babayakup Deresi, Ilıcaöz Deresi, Yaraöz Deresi, Şabanözü Deresi başta olmak üzere birçok irili ufaklı su kaynağına sahiptir. İlçenin en önemli su kaynağı olan Sakarya Irmağı Gülpınar Mahallesi Yaralı, Kocahacılı, Beşköprü, Gümüşyaka, Yenice, Eskikarsak, Tatlıkuyu, Karailyas, Beylikköprü, Yassihüyük ve Kıranharmanı, Yeniköseler ve Karacaahmet Mahallelerinin arazilerini sulamaktadır. İlçenin batısındaki tarım arazilerini sulayan Sakarya Irmağı bu bölgede yetiştirilen tarım ürünlerinin çeşitlenmesine sebep olmaktadır. Polatlı'da sebze yetiştiriciliğini etkileyen en önemli kaynak Sakarya Irmağıdır. Bu bölgede sadece tahıllar değil yaz aylarında su isteği fazla olan şekerpancarı, kuru soğan, ayçiçeği, mısır gibi ürünler yoğun olarak yetiştirilmektedir. Ankara Çayı Sarıoba ve Oğuzlar mahallelerinin topraklarını sulamaktadır. Sarıoba ve Oğuzlar Mahallerinde sebze ve sulu tarım ürünleri yetiştiriciliği önemli bir yere sahiptir. Özellikle yaz aylarında su sorunu diğer bölgelere göre daha az yaşandığı için yetiştirilen ürünün verim ve kalitesi artmaktadır. Bununla birlikte diğer su kaynakları da ilçede özellikle sulu tarım ürünleri ve sebze yetiştiriciliği açısından önemlidir.

POLATLI İLÇESİ TARIMSAL ÜRETİM

İlçe tarla alanlarında en fazla hububat üretimi yapılmaktadır. Bunun en önemli sebebi iklim koşulları ve toprak tipidir. Bununla birlikte ürünlerin pazarlanabileceği üretimi destekleyen Türkiye'nin en aktif ikinci tahıl borsasına sahiptir. Polatlı Ticaret Borsası ilçede tahıl üretimini destekler niteliktedir. Üretici ürününü kolayca pazarlayabileceği bir alan olduğu için tahıl üretimine öncelik tanımaktadır.

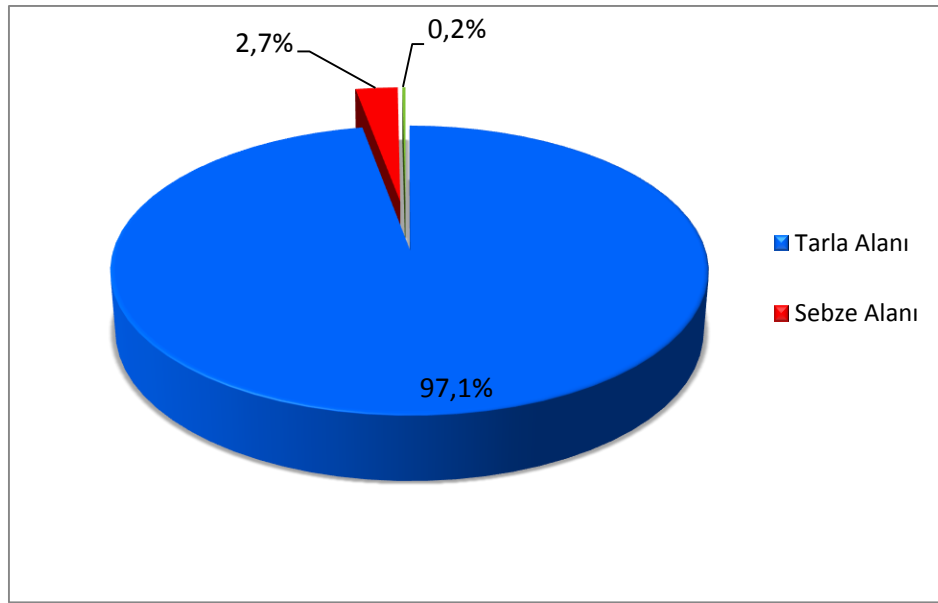
İlçenin toplam arazi varlığı 328.272,70 hektardır. Bunun yaklaşık 224.058,70 hektar kısmı tarım arazisi, 100.753,50 hektar çayır ve mera, 1.500 hektar ormanlık ve fundalık geriye kalan 1.960,50 hektarlık kısmı ise tarım dışı arazidir. Arazi varlığının büyük bölümünü tarım arazileri oluşturmaktadır. Tarla alanı 217.658 hektar, sebze alanı 6.038 dekar, bağ ve meyve alanı 362 dekadır (İlçe Gıda Tarım Ve Hayvancılık Müdürlüğü).

İlçe tarım arazilerinin yalnızca 6.038 da'lık (%2,7) alanında sebzecilik faaliyetleri yapılmaktadır. Daha çok sulama imkanı olan akarsu boyunda ki köylerde soğan, domates, salatalık, biber, ıspanak marul gibi sebzelerin üretimi yapılmaktadır. Özellikle marul, salatalık, domates, ıspanak üretimi Karailyas, Şabanözü Mahalleleri ve Gümüşlü' de yapılmaktadır. Sebzeler içerisinde en büyük paya soğan üretimi sahiptir.

Meyvecilik arazilerin %0,2'lik alanında yapılmaktadır. Genellikle ticari amaçlı olmayıp kendi meyve ihtiyacını karşılamak amacıyla yapılmaktadır. En fazla üretime sahip olan meyve kayısıdır.

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Grafik 2: Polatlı İlçesi Tarım Alanları Dağılışı (2018)



Kaynak: Polatlı İlçe Gıda Tarım ve Hayvancılık Müdürlüğü

Tahıllar

Tahıllar tarım ürünleri arasında en fazla üretimi yapılan gruptur. Bunun nedenlerine bakacak olursak; her türlü iklim koşuluna adapte olabilirler, deniz seviyesinden yüksek dağlık alanlara kadar yetiştirme özelliğine sahiptirler. İnsan beslenmesinde besin kaynaklarının %50'den fazlası tahıllardan sağlanmaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra hayvancılıkta da önemli yem grubudur (Bulut, 2006, s.35-36).

Bir sahanın tarımsal ürün deseni bölgenin coğrafi koşullarına bağlı olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Polatlı İlçesi'nde karasal iklim koşulları hakim olmakla birlikte kahverengi topraklar yaygındır. Bu koşullara en uygun tarım ürünü tahıllardır. Tahıl üretimi yapılan toprakların %81,73'lük kısmında buğday, %15,97'sinde arpa, %1,54'ünde yulaf, %0,61'inde çavdar ve %0,15'lik bölümünde ise mısır ekilişi yapılmaktadır (Polatlı Ticaret Borsası Ekonomik İstatistik ve Araştırma Raporu [PTBEİA], 2013).

1 Temmuz 1984 tarihinde kurulan Polatlı Ticaret Borsasında 2000 yılında ülkemizde ilk defa hububatların laboratuvar ortamında kalite ve sınıflandırılması yapılarak, bilgisayar ortamında alım-satımı gerçekleştirilmiştir. Aynı zamanda ilk lisanslı depoculuk faaliyetleri de

2011 yılında Polatlı’da başlamıştır. Lisanslı depo depolamaya uygun nitelikte ürünlerin sağlıklı koşullarda muhafaza edilmesi ve ticari amaçla depolanmasını sağlayan tesistir. Polatlı Ticaret Borsası 40.000 tonluk lisanslı depoya sahiptir. Her yıl işlem hacmi artan borsa sadece ilçe üreticileri ve borsa üyeleri değil; aynı zamanda İç Anadolu Bölgesinin üreticilerinin ürünlerini değerlendirildiği bir pazar haline gelmiştir. Hububat fiyatları günlük olarak değişmekle birlikte borsasının web sayfasından üreticilerin takip etmeleri mümkündür. İşlem hacminin her yıl artması borsanın bölgenin hububat pazarı haline geldiğinin bir göstergesidir. 2014 yılı verileri ürünlerin %40,38’i Polatlı İlçesinden, %59,62’sinin diğer il ve ilçelerden geldiğini göstermektedir (Polatlı Ticaret Borsası Ekonomik İstatistik ve Araştırma Raporu [PTBEİA], 2013).

Polatlı Ticaret Borsası ilçede tahıl üretimini destekler niteliktedir. Üretici ürününü kolayca pazarlayabileceği bir alan olduğu için tahıl üretimine öncelik tanımaktadır.

İç Anadolu bölgesinin büyük bir kısmına hizmet veren Polatlı Ticaret Borsasında işlem gören ürünlerin %26’sı ilçedeki un ve yem fabrikalarına, %74’lük kısmı ise yurt genelindeki un ve yem fabrikalarına pazarlanmaktadır (PTBEİA, 2013).

Tablo 1: Polatlı İlçesi 2018 Yılı Tahıl Üretimi

Ürünler	Ekiliş Alanı (Dekar)	Üretim (Ton)
Buğday	1.352.475	303.695
Arpa	319.740	81.056
Yulaf	13.845	3.184
Çavdar	3.993	1.078
Mısır	9.215	40.515

Kaynak: TÜİK

Polatlı İlçesi’nde en fazla üretimi yapılan tahıl buğdaydır. Tahıl üretimi yapılan arazilerin %81.73’ünde buğday üretimi yapılmaktadır. Temel besin maddesi olması, ilçenin iklim koşullarının, toprak özelliklerinin uygun olması ve pazar alanının geniş olması bunda etkili olmaktadır. Durum buğdayı ve diğer buğdaylar olmak üzere iki farklı buğday türü yetiştirilmektedir. Ancak durum buğdayı üretimi daha dar alanlarda yapılmaktadır. Bunun sebebi elde edilen verim miktarının düşük olmasıdır. İlçede buğday ekilen alanlar yıldan yıla büyük bir değişim göstermemekle birlikte çiftçinin tarlasını nadasa bıraktığı yıllarda ekiliş alanı nispeten azalmaktadır. 2018 yılı verilerine göre ilçe tarım alanlarının 1.352.475 dekarlık alanında buğday üretimi yapılmış 303.695 ton ürün elde edilmiştir (Tablo1).

Polatlı’da buğdaydan sonra en geniş ekiliş alanına sahip tahıl arpadır. Tahıl ekiliş alanlarının %15.97’sinde arpa üretimi yapılmaktadır. 2018 yılında 319.740 dekar alana ekilişi yapılan arpadan 81.056 ton ürün elde edilmiştir. Arpa ekilişi ilçede 2018 yılında artış göstermiştir. Aynı parselde 3 yıl üst üste aynı ürünü yetiştiren çiftçiye devlet tarımsal destekleme sağlamadığından çiftçi buğday üretimine alternatif olarak arpa üretimine yönelmiştir.

İlçede tahıl üretim alanlarının %1,54'ünde yulaf ekilişi yapılmaktadır. Ancak yulaf ekiliş alanları giderek daralmaktadır. Yulafın kullanım alanı sınırlı olması, maddi getirisinin az olması ve girdi maliyetlerinin yüksek oluşu ekiliş alanlarının darlmasına sebep olmaktadır. 2018 yılında 13.845 dekar alanda ekiliş yapılmış 3.184 ton ürün elde edilmiştir.

Polatlı'da çavdar ürün getirisi fazla olmadığı için çok tercih edilmemektedir. Tahıl üretim alanlarının yalnızca %0,61'inde çavdar ekilişi yapılmaktadır. 2018 yılında 3.993 dekar alana ekilişi yapılan çavdardan 1.078 ton ürün elde edilmiştir (Tablo1).

İlçede tarım arazilerinin 0,15'lik kısmında mısır üretimi yapılmaktadır. Tahıllar arasında en az ekiliş alanı olan ürün mısırdır. Polatlı Ticaret Borsası tarafından mısır üretimini teşvik etmek amacıyla 40.000 tonluk depolama kapaistesisi olan T.M.O silosuna Üçpınar Mahallesi yakınına 20.000 tonluk kurutma ünitesi kurulmuş, çiftçinin tek bir ürüne bağlı üretim yapmasını engellemek buğdayın yanında alternatif tarım ürünlerinin de ekilşini sağlamak için çalışmalar yapılmaya başlanmıştır. Mısır üretimi silajlık ve dane mısır olmak üzere iki şekilde yapılmaktadır. 2018 yılında 4.215 dekar alana dane mısır ekilişi yapılmış 5.618 ton ürün elde edilmiştir. 5.000 dekar alana silajlık mısır ekilişi yapılmış 35.000 ton ürün elde edilmiştir. Silajlık mısır üretimi özellikle besi hayvancılığının ilçede gelişmeye başlamasıyla artış göstermektedir (Tablo1).

Baklagiller

Baklagiller besin değeri yüksek olan ürünlerdir. Bu gruba nohut, fasulye, mercimek, soya ve bezelye gibi ürünler girer. İlçede bu bitkilerden daha çok nohut ve mercimek yetiştirilir. Polatlı'da baklagillerinden elde edilen verim ve kar oranı düşük olduğu için üretim alanı dardır.

Yeşil mercimek üretim alanları her yıl daralmaktadır. Çifçi devlet desteklemesi ve getirisi fazla olduğu için daha çok tahıl üretimine yönelmiştir. 2018 yılında sadece 200 dekar alana yeşil mercimek ekilişi yapılmış 18 ton ürün elde edilmiştir (TÜİK).

Polatlı'da nohut üretimi genellikle su istemeyen kıraç arazilerde yapılmaktadır. Hem tarımsal desteklemenin azalması hem de buğdayda verim ve karın artması nohut üretiminin azalmasına sebep olmuştur. 2018 yılında 8.500 dekar alana nohut ekilişi yapılmış 689 ton ürün elde edilmiştir (TÜİK).

Endüstri Bitkileri

İlçede yetiştirilen endüstri bitkileri şekerpancarı, ayçiçeği ve kimyondur. Şekerpancarı üretimi Polatlı'da sulamalı tarım metodu uygulanarak yapılmaktadır. Özellikle Sakarya Irmağı kenarında bulunan köylerde üretim yoğun olarak yapılır. Şeker pancarı üretiminde kota sistemi kullanılarak üretim gerçekleştirilmektedir. Çifçi kotası oranında üretim yapacağına dair fabrikaya taahhütte bulunur. Ankara Şeker Fabrikasının pancar ihtiyacının önemli bir kısmı Polatlı'dan karşılanmaktadır. Çiftçiler pancarı sözleşmeli olarak ettikleri için alacakları ürün bedeli bellidir. Pancar üretiminde kotalı sistem kullanıldığı için ürün mikraında çok büyük değişme görülmemektedir. Daha fazla üretim yapmak isteyen çiftçiler olmasına karşın kotalı

sistem sebebiyle bu mümkün olmamaktadır. 2018 yılı Tük verilerine göre 40.933 dekar alana ekiliş yapılan şekerpancarından 254.269 ton ürün elde edilmiştir.

İlçede ayçiçeği üretimi yağlık ve çerezlik olmak üzere iki şekilde yapılmaktadır.. Polatlı'da yağlık ayçiçeği üreticisinin kooperatifleşme kanalıyla ürünlerini değerinde satmasını sağlamak için kurulmuş Trakya Birlik bulunmaktadır. Ayçiçeği üretim alanlarında bir daralma söz konusudur. Bunun sebebi çiftçinin farklı alternatif tarım ürünlerine yönelmesi, ayçiçeği üretiminin zahmetli olmasıdır. Bakımı ayçiçeğine göre daha kolay olan mısır ve tahıllar üretici tarafından tercih edilmektedir. 2018 yılı TÜİK verilerine 14.560 dekar alana yağlık ayçiçeği ekiliş yapılmış 4.914 ton ürün elde edilmiştir. Çerezlik ayçiçeği üretimi ise 5.950 dekar alana yapılmış 2.080 ton ürün elde edilmiştir.

Polatlı İlçesinde TÜİK verilerine göre ortalama her yıl 35.000-40.000 dekar alandan 2.000-3.000 ton kimyon elde edilmektedir. Ancak 2018 yılında bu miktar azalarak 12.500 dekar alan ekiliş yapılan alandan 1.000 ton kimyon elde edilmiştir.

Sebzecilik

İlçe arazisinin %2,7'lik bölümünde sebze yetiştiriciliği yapılmaktadır. Sebze üretilen alanlar sınırlı olmakla birlikte genellikle su kaynağı olan köylerde sebzecilik faaliyetleri yapılmaktadır. Polatlı tarım arazilerinin % 48,32'sinde kuru soğan, % 26,35'inde kavun yetiştirilmektedir. Bunu sırasıyla, % 20,2 ile karpuz, % 2,02 ile domates, % 0,31 ile kabak, % 0,28 ile salatalık, %0,26 ile patlıcan, %0,19 ile ıspanak, % 0,18 ile marul, % 0,66 ile fasulye, % 0,61 ile taze soğan izlemektedir (Polatlı İlçe Gıda Tarım Ve Hayvancılık Müdürlüğü, 2018).

Polatlı İlçesi'nde kuru soğan ekimi mart-nisan aylarında yapılmaktadır. Sulu tarım ürünü olan soğan iklim koşullarına bağlı olarak değişmekle birlikte 6-7 kez sulanmaktadır. Yazlık soğanın hasadı ağustos ayında yapılırken, kışlık soğanın hasadı bitkinin yapısına bağlı olarak değişmekle birlikte eylül ekim aylarında yapılmaktadır. Şeker pancarında uygulanan kota sistemi sebebiyle çiftçi şeker pancarı ekeceği alana soğan ekmeye başlamıştır. Buda giderek çiftçilerin soğan üretimine yönelmesinin sebep olmaktadır. Polatlı Amasya'dan sonra Türkiye'de en fazla soğan üretimi yapan yerdir. Polatlı'da yapılan soğan üretimi iç piyasayı oldukça etkilemektedir. Türkiye'nin kuru soğan ihtiyacının %18'i Polatlı'dan karşılanmaktadır. Üretim fazlası olmasına karşın her yıl pazar sorunuyla karşı karşıya kalan soğanın, fiyatında bir dengesizlik söz konusudur. 2018 yılında 60.835 dekar alana kuru soğan ekiliş yapılmış 334.593 ton ürün elde edilmiştir.

İlçede kavun ve karpuz üretimi hem kuru hem de sulu tarım alanlarında yapılmaktadır. Sulu tarım alanlarında yapıldığında daha kaliteli ve fazla ürün elde edildiği için çok tercih edilmektedir. 2018 yılında ilçede hem kavun hem de karpuz ekiliş alanlarında bir daralma söz konusu olmuştur. Önceki yıllarda ortalama 20.000-25.000 dekar alana ekiliş yapılan karpuzun 9.000 dekar alana, ortalama 25.000-30.000 dekar alana ekiliş yapılan kavunun ekiliş 15.000 dekar alana yapılmıştır. Bunun sebebi Kavun ve karpuz üreticisi çiftçilerin Polatlı'da pazarlama noktasında her yıl sorunlarla karşılaşmalarıdır. Fiyat belirleyici bir kriter bulunmadığı için o yıl piyasada kavun miktarına göre fiyatlar belirlenip, satışlar gerçekleştirilmektedir. Özellikle

çiftçiler mahalle aralarında seyyar tezgahlarda ve Ankara-Eskişehir D-200 Karayolu üzerine kurdukları tezgahlarda satış yapmaktadırlar.

Tablo 2’de görüldüğü üzere dar alanlarda diğer sebzelerde yetiştirilmektedir. Bu sebzelerin üretimi daha çok akarsu kenarındaki mahallelerde gerçekleştirilmektedir.

Tablo 2: Polatlı İlçesi Sebze Üretimi (2018)

Ürün Çeşidi	Ekiliş Alanı (dekar)
Domates (sofralık)	1.350
Domates (salçalık)	900
Salatalık	367
Biber (sivri)	720
Bal Kabağı	270
Ispanak	210
Marul	200
Kabak (sakız)	310
Kabak (çerezlik)	860
Fasulye	850

Kaynak: Polatlı İlçe Gıda Tarım ve Hayvancılık Müdürlüğü

Meyvecilik

Ülkemizin iklimi ve toprak özellikleri göz önüne alındığında her bölgede farklı meyveler yetiştirildiği gözlenmektedir. Polatlı İlçesi’nde karasal iklim hakimdir. İlçede karasal iklime uyum sağlayabilen elma, kayısı, armut gibi meyveler yetiştirilmektedir.

Tablo 3: Polatlı İlçesi Meyve Üretimi

Ürün Çeşidi	Kapladığı Alan(dekar)
Armut	410
Ayva	110
Elma	860
Kayısı	980
Kiraz	270
Vişne	480
Ceviz	320
Erik	320
Üzüm (Sofralık)	300
TOPLAM	4.070

Kaynak: Polatlı İlçe Gıda Tarım ve Hayvancılık Müdürlüğü(2018)

Polatlı’da en fazla üretimi yapılan meyve 98,1 ha alanla kayısıdır. Onu 86,2 ha’lık alanla elma, 48,2 ha’lık alanla vişne 41,3 ha’lık alanla armut takip eder. İlçede ticari amaçla

meyvecilik faaliyetleri yapılmamaktadır. Yalnızca kendi meyve ihtiyacını karşılayabilmek amacıyla çiftçiler bahçelerinde meyve ağacı yetiştirmektedirler. 980 da'lık alanda en fazla kayısı ağacı olmasına karşın bu kayısılar ticari amaçla çok fazla değerlendirilememektedir.

Son 3 yıldır ceviz yetiştiriciliğine doğru bir yönelme söz konusudur. Özellikle Sarıhalil Mahallesi ve çevresinde ceviz bahçeleri yapılmaya başlanmışlardır. Ceviz üretimine yönelmenin sebebi ise ürünün kar oranında gözlenen yüksek artıştır. Aynı zamanda Kuşçu Mahallesi'nde kiraz bahçeleri bulunmaktadır.

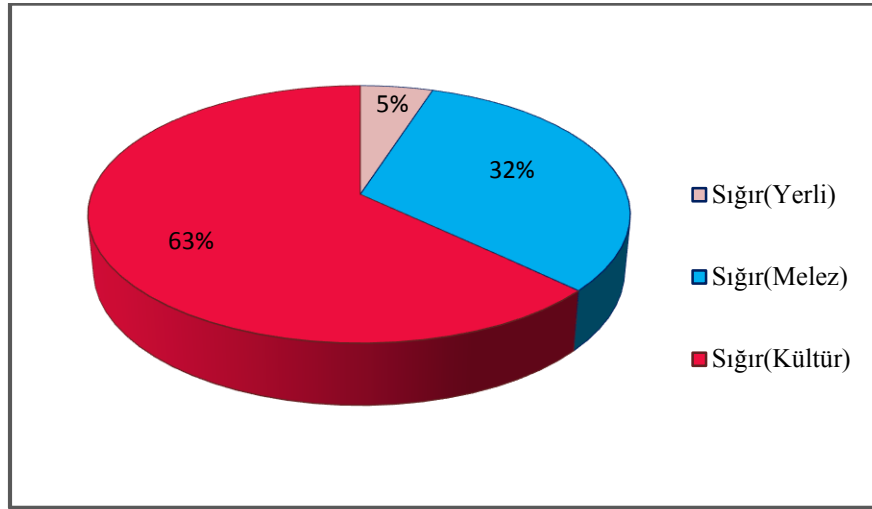
Hayvancılık

Hayvancılık gerek mera denilen otlak alanlarda, gerekse kapalı ortamlarda gerçekleştirilen evcil hayvanların beslenmesi, çoğaltılması ve pazarlanması faaliyetleridir. Hayvancılık faaliyetleri iklimlere, doğal bölgelere ve kültürler göre çeşitlilik göstermektedir (Bulut, 2006, s.188).

Polatlı İlçesi hayvancılık alanında önemli bir merkezdir. Büyükbaş hayvan yetiştiriciliği hem mera hayvancılığı hem de besicilik olmak üzere iki şekilde yürütülmektedir. Özellikle son yıllarda ilçede besi çiftliklerinin sayısında önemli bir artış söz konusu olmuştur. Büyükşehir Belediyesinin şehir merkezine yakın yerlerde besi çiftliklerine izin vermemesi üreticileri Polatlı'ya yöneltmiştir. Bununla birlikte ilçede arazi maliyetlerinin düşük olması, ciddi bir tarımsal üretimin ve yem fabrikalarının olması etkili olmuştur. Polatlı'da üretici yem fabrikalarına bağımlı kalmayarak çevresindeki tarım alanlarından hasat sonrası atıkları (saman, balya gibi) alarak kaba yem ihtiyacını daha düşük fiyata karşılayabilmektedir. Özellikle Üçpınar, Karapınar, Gündoğan, Tatlıkuyu, Türkkarsaklı, Sakarya mahallerinde besi çiftlikleri mevcuttur. Bu mahallelerin tercih edilmesinin sebebi Polatlı İlçe merkezine yakın, ulaşımın kolay olmasıdır. Besi hayvancılığı artarken ilçede mera hayvancılığında bir azalma söz konusudur. Bunun sebebi merada yetiştirilen yerli ırk sığırın et ve süt veriminin kar oranının düşük olması, kırdan kente gerçekleşen göçlerdir. . Mera hayvancılığının yoğun olarak yapıldığı yerler Kızılcakışla, Sarıhalil, Babayakup, Eskiköseler, Beylikköprü ve Macun mahalleleridir.

Polatlı'da yerli sığır, kültür sığır ve melez sığır olmak üzere üç sığır ırkı yetiştirmektedir. Son yıllarda özellikle yerli ırk sığır sayısında ciddi azalma söz konusudur. Bunun sebebi kültür ırkı ve melez ırkı sığırlardan elde edilen et ve süt miktarlarının daha fazla olmasıdır. 2018 yılı TÜİK verilerine göre ilçede 4.085 tane yerli ırk, 52.940 kültür ırkı, 30.750 melez ırkı sığır bulunmaktadır.

Polatlı ilçesinde Merinos ırkı ve Karaman ırkı koyun, kıl keçisi, tiftik keçisi yetiştirilen küçükbaş hayvan türleridir. Küçükbaş hayvancılık Karahamzalı, Şabanözü, Müslüm Kayabaşı mahallelerinde yoğun olarak yapılmaktadır. 2018 yılı Tük verilerine göre ilçede 70.350 tane yerli koyun, 40.440 tane yerli merinos koyun bulunmaktadır. İlçede keçi yetiştiriciliği yaygın olarak yapılmamakla birlikte kıl keçisi ve tiftik keçisi yetiştirilir. 2018 yılında ilçede 5.000 tane kıl keçisi, 10.000 tane tiftik keçisi bulunmaktadır.

Grafik 3: Polatlı İlçesi Büyükbaş Hayvan Dağılımı (2018)

Kaynak: TÜİK

İlçede kümes hayvancılığı çiftliklerde et tavuğu ve yumurta tavuğu yetiştiriciliği şeklinde yoğun olarak yapılmaktadır. Hindi, ördek, kaz gibi hayvanlarda sayıca az olsa da mahallelerde aile işletmeleri şeklinde geleneksel yöntemler kullanılarak yapılmaktadır. İlçede son yıllarda IPART devlet hibe destekli projeler kapsamında modern ve teknoloji sistemlerin bulunduğu çiftlikler kurulmaktadır. Üretimi gerçekleştikten kısa süre sonra tüketiciye ulaşması gerekmektedir. Polatlı fazla nüfuslu Eskişehir, Ankara gibi büyük şehirlere yakın olması, önemli karayolları üzerinde kolay ulaşım sağlanması gibi sebeplerden dolayı tavuk çiftliği yatırımcıları tarafından tercih edilmektedir. 2018 yılı TÜİK verilerine göre 2.500.000 et tavuğu, 200.000 yumurta tavuğu, 500 hindi, 150 ördek, 300 kaz bulunmaktadır.

Polatlı'da arıcılık yoğun olarak yapılan bir faaliyet değildir. Ancak bazı mahallelerde azami miktarda bal üretimi yapılmaktadır. Bunun ekonomik olarak fazla bir getirisi olmamaktadır. Polatlı üreticisinden ziyade her yıl bahar aylarında Aydın ve Muğla illerinden üreticiler gelerek bal üretimini burada gerçekleştirmektedirler.

SONUÇ

Çalışma sahamız olan Ankara İli Polatlı İlçesi İç Anadolu Bölgesi Yukarı Sakarya Bölümünde yer almaktadır. Sakarya Irmağı, Porsuk Çayı, Ankara Çayı gibi akarsuların beslediği verimli topraklara sahiptir. Sahanın büyük bölümünde kahverengi topraklar hâkimdir. Akarsu boylarında alüvyal topraklar bulunmaktadır. İlçe arazileri bir plato niteliği taşımaktadır. En yüksek noktası Kuzeyde (1440m) Çile Dağı'dır. Yükselti Güney ve Batı yönüne gidildikçe artmaktadır. Ancak bu yükselti tarımı sınırlandıracak nitelikte değildir. Tarıma elverişli geniş düzlüklerden oluşan sahada karasal iklim koşulları hâkimdir. En fazla yağışı ilkbaharda alan ilçede yazlar kurak geçer. Kurak geçen yaz aylarında akarsuya yakın bölgelerde sulu tarım ürünleri yetiştirilirken diğer bölgelerde kuru tarım ürünleri yetiştirilmektedir.

Polatlı'da tarım önemli bir yere sahiptir. İklim koşulları da göz önüne alındığında ilçede en fazla tahıl üretimi yapılmaktadır. Hatta İç Anadolu Bölgesi'nde Polatlı tahıl ambarı olarak bilinmektedir. Bunun sebebi sadece üretim değil aynı zamanda pazarlama ve depolama

açısından da potansiyelinin yüksek olmasıdır. 1984 yılında kurulan Polatlı Ticaret Borsası Konya'dan sonra en aktif ikinci borsadır. Borsa ilk kurulduğu yıllarda sadece Haymana, Beypazarı, Yunak gibi komşu ilçelerden alım satım gerçekleştirirken, şuan ülke genelindeki üreticilerinde pazar alanı haline gelmiştir. 2011 yılında Türkiye'de ilk kez lisanslı depoculuk faaliyetleri de Polatlı Ticaret Borsasında yapılmaya başlanmıştır. Bütün bunlar ilçede tahıl üretiminin daha da artmasına sebep olmuştur. Üretimi yapılan bu tahılların %30'luk kısmı ilçede bulunan un ve yem fabrikalarına %70'lik kısmı ise ülke geneline hammadde olarak pazarlanmaktadır.

Tahıllardan en fazla buğday üretimi yapılmakla birlikte onu arpa, yulaf, çavdar takip etmektedir. Son yıllarda çiftçiler mısır gibi alternatif tarım ürünlerine de yönlendirilmeye başlanmıştır. Mevcut 40.000 ton mısır kurutma ve depolama silosu bulunan ilçeye 20.000 ton daha mısır kurutma ünitesi ve depo imkanının sağlanması amaçlanmaktadır.

Akarsu kenarında sulama imkânı bulunan yerlerde kışlık kuru soğan üretimi yapılmaktadır. Yıllık ortalama 300.000 ton kuru soğan elde edilmektedir. Bu miktar Türkiye'nin kuru soğan ihtiyacının yaklaşık %18'lik kısmını oluşturmaktadır. Kuru soğanda yaşanan en büyük sıkıntı ise pazarlama noktasındadır. İlçede bir üretici birliği olmadığından dolayı her yıl fiyatlar değişkenlik göstermekle birlikte fiyatı belirleyen kalite bazında kriterler de yoktur. Soğan fiyatları, soğan tüccarları tarafından piyasada mevcut soğan miktarına ve ihracata bağlı olarak belirlenmektedir. Bunun yanı sıra çiftçiler fiyatların artmasını bekleyerek kar oranlarını artırmak düşüncesiyle soğanlarını depolarda bekletmektedirler. Depolarda bekleyip alıcı bulamayan tonlarca soğan ise çürüyerek atılmaktadır.

Polatlı'nın önemli ulaşım yolları üzerinde olması da pazarlama konusunda yarar sağlamaktadır. D-200 Ankara-Eskişehir kara yolu ilçeden geçmektedir. İç Anadolu Bölgesinden Egeye geçişte transit geçiş bölgesi konumundadır. Buda üretilen ürünlerin dağıtımını kolaylaştırmaktadır.

Polatlı'da son yıllarda hayvancılık önemli bir sektör haline gelmektedir. Özellikle besi çiftliklerinin ve tavuk çiftliklerinin sayıları artış göstermektedir. İlçede arazi maliyetlerinin düşük olması, ciddi bir tarımsal üretimin ve yem fabrikalarının olması, Eskişehir-Ankara Karayolu üzerinde ulaşımının kolay olması yatırımcıları Polatlı'ya yöneltmiştir.

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Türk Tipi Başkanlık Sistemi Hakkında Bazı Değerlendirmeler

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ÖZET

2017 yılında gerçekleştirilen halk oylaması sonucunda kabul edilen 6771 Sayılı Kanun ile Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Anayasası'nın 70 maddesi değiştirilmiştir. İlgili kanun ile birçok değişiklik yapılmakla beraber şüphesiz en kapsamlı ve önemli değişiklikler hükümet sistemine ilişkindir. 6771 sayılı kanun ile Türkiye'de hükümet sisteminin değiştiği konusunda bir tartışma bulunmamakla birlikte yeni sistemin hükümet sistemleri tipolojisinde nereye oturtulacağı netleşmiş değildir. Sistem en çok Başkanlık rejiminin özelliklerini göstermekle birlikte ondan ayrıldığı çeşitli noktalar da bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan muhtemelen en önemlisi, başkanlık sisteminin sine qua non niteliklerinden olan, organların karşılıklı olarak birbirlerinin görevlerine son verememesi kurumundaki farklılıktır. Zira başkanlık sistemi ile parlamenter sistem arasındaki karşılaştırmalarda, başkanlık sisteminin en büyük artılarından biri olarak sabit görev süresinin getireceği istikrar gösterilmektedir. Yasama ve yürütmenin birbirlerinin görev süresine son verebilmesi ise bahsi geçen istikrar girdisini etkisiz kılar niteliktedir. Benzer şekilde başkanın cezai sorumluluğuna ilişkin düzenlemeler Amerikan sisteminden farklılıklar sergilemektedir. Kanaatimizce ilgili düzenleme birçok açıdan problemler barındırmaktadır. Amerikan sisteminden farklılık göstermeyen konularda ise Amerikan sistemine ilişkin yorumların göz önünde tutulması gerekmektedir. Bunlara örnek olarak başkanlık sisteminin; katılığı sebebiyle anayasal krizlere sebep olabileceği, demokratik açıdan ve hesap verilebilirlik bakımından daha verimli olduğu, otoriterleşme eğilimi doğurabileceği veya toplumu kutuplaştırmaya itebileceği savları gösterilebilir. Bu metinde söz konusu eleştiriler sistematik ve anlamsal açıdan bütüncül bir şekilde alınmaya çalışılacaktır. Nihayetinde erkler ayrılığı prensibine dayanan hükümet sistemleri, erkler arasındaki güç dengesini korumak adına karşılıklı denetle-dengele mekanizmaları öngörürler. 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen sistemde ise terazinin dengesi yürütme lehine bir hayli bozulmuş görünmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Hükümet Sistemi, Başkanlık Sistemi, Parlamenter Sistem, Dengele- Denetle, Türk Tipi Başkanlık, Demokrasi.

Some Thoughts on the New Presidential System of Turkey

The 70th article of the Turkish Constitution has changed, as a result of the referendum held in 2017 and is adopted by the Law Number 6771. Despite the other notable changes, the most sweeping and significant changes are related to the new government system. Everyone undoubtedly agrees that the government system in Turkey is changed, but it is not clear where the new system fits into the governmental systems theories. Even though the new system shows the characteristics of the presidential regime at most, there are specific points where the new Turkish system differs from others. The most important of these differences is the lack of a check-and-balance system between the branches of the government, which is a sine qua non for a presidential system. Stability as a result of the fixed tenure of the president is considered the most significant advantages of a fixed-term presidential system in all comparisons between the presidential system and the parliamentary system. However, legislative and executive branches may terminate each other, and that makes stability claims ineffective. Furthermore, the regulations on presidential immunity differ from the American system. All these laws present problems in many aspects. We should consider the ideas about the matters that are not different from the American presidential system, in the same way. Those matters can be possibilities of constitutional crises because of its rigidity, the tendency of authoritarianism by its nature, and polarization of the society. Eventually, all government systems based on the principle of separation of powers envision a mutual control-balance mechanism to maintain the balance of power. It seems to be highly unbalanced in favor of the executive branch in the new system. The purpose of this article is to examine these critics systematically and semantically as a whole.

Keywords: The Government System, The Presidential System, The Parliamentary System, Check and Balance, Turkish Type Presidential System, Democracy

GİRİŞ

Hükümet sistemleri, siyaset bilimciler ile hukukçuların son yüzyıldır üzerinde hararetili tartışmalara giriştiği konuların başlarında yer almaktadır. Bir ülkenin her vatandaşının üzerindeki yönetim iktidarını kimin kullanacağını belirlenmesi gibi hayati bir meseleyle ilişkin olmasının da bunda payı olsa gerektir.

Hükümet sistemi tercihi dönemsel olarak hem iktidar hem de muhalefet partilerinin eleştirilerine maruz kalmasıyla da güncelliğini her daim korumaktadır. Ayrıca kimi zaman, bir örneğini Türkiye'nin son 10 yılda yaşadığı gibi, bu teorik tartışmalar pratiğe dökülme şansına da erişmektedirler¹⁰². Sistemler tartışılırken genellikle; etkinlik, istikrar, meşruluk, demokratiklik ve ülkelerin siyasal kültürü gibi girdiler göz önünde tutulmaktadır. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti açısından ise 1924 yılından beri muhtemelen en esaslı değişiklikler 16 Nisan 2017 referandumuyla onaylanan 21 Ocak 2017 tarih ve 6771 sayılı Anayasa Değişikliği Kanunuyla yapılmıştır¹⁰³. Esasında 2007, 2010 ve 2017 değişikliklerinin birlikte değerlendirilmesiyle ortaya çıkan resim daha anlamlı olacaktır ancak bu çalışmanın kapsamı gereği 2017 öncesi Anayasa değişikliklerine sadece yeri geldikçe değinilecektir.

6771 sayılı kanun ile Türkiye'nin hükümet sistemi değişmiştir. Ancak bu sistem çeşitli hükümet sistemlerinden eklektik olarak seçilmiş hukuki kurumların daha önce eşine benzerine rastlanmamış bir şekilde harmanlanması yoluyla elde edilmiş bir *Türk tipi başkanlık sistemidir*.

Klasik hükümet sistemleri tipolojisi olan başkanlık, yarı – başkanlık, parlamenter sistem üçlemesinden en çok başkanlık sisteminin özelliklerini taşıyan yeni sistem, organlarının birbirlerinin görevine son verebilmeleri gibi asli bir noktada ondan da sapmaktadır. Başkanlık sisteminin doğum yeri ve rol modeli olan Amerika uygulamasından başka çeşitli sapmalar da mevcuttur.

Çalışanın ilk bölümünde öncelikle hükümet sistemleri hakkında genel bir bilgi verilecek, ardından 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen hükümet sistemi çeşitli açılardan ele alınacaktır. İkinci bölümde ise yeni getirilen sistem siyasal sistemler perspektifinden değerlendirilmeye çalışılacaktır.

¹⁰² Örneğin 1950 – 1990 yılları arasında; Fransa'da yarı başkanlık sistemine, Brezilya'da başkanlıktan yarı başkanlığa ardından tekrar başkanlığa, İsrail'de başbakanı halkın seçtiği bir sisteme sonra tekrar eski sisteme son olarak Moldova'da yarı başkanlıktan parlamenter sisteme geçilmiştir. Bkz. H. T. Fendoğlu (2012). Başkanlık Sistemi. *İnönü Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 3 (1), s. 46. Ancak doktrindeki yoğun tartışmaların pratiğe dökülme noktasında aynı etkiyi gösteremediği, barışçı yollardan gerçekleşen hükümet sistemi değişikliklerinin sayılan örneklerle sınırlı olduğunu da eklemek gerekir. Bkz. L. Gönenç (2005). Türkiye'de Hükümet Sistemi Değişikliği Tartışmaları Olanaklar ve Olasılıklar Üzerine Bir Çalışma Notu. *Başkanlık Sistemi*. Ankara: Türkiye Barolar Birliği Yayınları, s. 3.

¹⁰³ İlki 1987 yılında olmak üzere 1982 Anayasasında toplam 21 kez değişiklik yapılmıştır. V. Coşkun (2017). 16 Nisan 2017 Tarihinde Kabul Edilen Anayasa Değişikliklerinin Değerlendirilmesi. *Dicle Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi* 22,(36), s.4.

6771 SAYILI KANUN İLE YAPILAN DEĞİŞİKLİKLERİN HÜKÜMET SİSTEMLERİ AÇISINDAN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Genel Olarak Hükümet Sistemleri

Günümüzde hükümet sistemleri arasında yapılan ayırmda, kural olarak, erkler ayrılığı prensibinin gerçekleşmiş olduğu demokratik devletler esas alınmaktadır¹⁰⁴. Erkler ayrılığı fikrinin düşünsel temelleri araştırıldığında Aristoteles'in *politika* adlı eserine kadar inilmesi mümkündür¹⁰⁵. Locke'ta da kendine yer bulan erkler ayrılığı ilkesinin günümüzdeki kullanımına temel oluşturan düşünür ise Montesquieu'dür¹⁰⁶. Erkler ayrılığı, en genel ve basit haliyle, tarih boyunca her devlette karşılaşılan yasama, yürütme ve yargı erklerinin farklı toplumsal güçlerin elinde olmasını ve bu sayede despotizmin önüne geçilmesini hedeflemektedir. Bu meyanda günümüzde erkler ayrılığı ilkesi, demokrasinin vazgeçilmez unsurlarından biri olarak görülmektedir.

Hükümet sistemleri açısından yapılacak olan sınıflandırmalarda, yasama ve yürütme organlarına ve bu organların karşılıklı ilişkilerine bakılması gerekmektedir¹⁰⁷. Klasik ayırma göre yasama ve yürütme organlarının arasındaki ayırmanın sert ya da yumuşak olmasına bakılmaktadır. Sert kuvvetler ayrılığı başkanlık sistemini yumuşak kuvvetler ayrılığı ise parlamenter sistemi niteler. Daha yakın tarihli olarak yarı başkanlık sistemi de hükümet sistemleri tipolojilerinde kendine yer bulmaktadır. Ancak yarı başkanlık sistemi olarak bir üst başlıkta toplanabilecek olan yeni tip hükümet sistemleri, başkanlık ve parlamenter sistemlerin kimi temel özellikleri alınarak oluşturulmuş melez sistemlerdir¹⁰⁸. Öğretide sıklıkla başvurulan¹⁰⁹ Arend Lijphart'ın getirdiği ölçütlere göre başkanlık sistemi ile parlamenter sistemi ayırmada şu hususlar göz önünde tutulmaktadır:

- Başkanlık sisteminde yürütme organı başkan denilen tek kişiden oluşurken parlamenter sistemde yürütme organı devlet başkanı ve hükümet olmak üzere iki başlıdır.
- Başkanlık sisteminde yürütmenin başı doğrudan halk tarafından seçilirken, parlamenter sistemde hükümet yasama tarafından belirlenir.
- Başkanlık sisteminde yürütmenin başı olan başkan yasamanın güvenine dayanmazken parlamenter sistemde hükümet yasama organının güvenine dayanır.

¹⁰⁴ Kuvvetler ayrılığının kavramsal zıddı olan kuvvetler birliği iki şekilde karşımıza çıkabilir: Yürütmede birleşme ya da yasamada birleşme. Yürütmede birleşme mutlak monarşiler veya diktatörlüklerde görülebilir. Yasamada birleşme ise meclis hükümeti adı verilen sistemdir. Meclis hükümeti İsviçre dışında olağanüstü ve krizli dönemlerde uygulanmıştır. Örnek olarak Türkiye'nin 1920 – 1923 dönemi gösterilebilir. K. Gözler (2011). *Anayasa Hukukunun Genel Teorisi Cilt I*. Bursa: Ekin Basım Yayın Dağıtım, s. 563.

¹⁰⁵ B. Yücel (2009). *Parlamenter Hükümet Sisteminin Rasyonelleştirilmesi ve Türkiye Örneği*. Ankara: Adalet Yayınevi, s. 7.

¹⁰⁶ M. E. Akgül (2010). Kuvvetler Ayrılığı İlkesinin Dönüşümü ve Günümüz Demokratik Rejimlerindeki Anlamı. *Ankara Barosu Dergisi*, 2010/4, s. 83. Yazar günümüzde kuvvetler ayrılığı ilkesinin, yasama ve yürütme kuvvetlerinde yürütme lehine birleşme şeklinde görüldüğünü ifade etmektedir. Bkz. Akgül (2010), s. 98.

¹⁰⁷ E. Özbudun (2015). Başkanlık Sistemi ve Türkiye. *Liberal Perspektif Analiz*, 1, s. 1; Coşkun (2017), s. 7; Yücel (2009), s. 35.

¹⁰⁸ B. Yücel (2003). Yarı – Başkanlık Sisteminin Hükümet Modeli Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı Bir Çalışma: Fransa Modeli ve Komünizm Sonrası Polonya. *Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 52, (4), s. 338. Öğretide başkanlık sisteminin de parlamenter sistemin bir türevidir olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Bkz. E. Kalaycıoğlu (2005). Başkanlık Rejimi: Türkiye'nin Diktatörlük Tehdidiyle Sınırı. *Başkanlık Sistemi*. Ankara: Türkiye Barolar Birliği Yayınları, s. 14 – 17.

¹⁰⁹ Örneğin U. Acar (2016). İstikrar Sağlama Aracı Olarak Yarı – Başkanlık Sistemi: Fransa ve Rusya Örnekleri. *Akademik Hassasiyetler*, III (6), s. 67; Gözler (2011), s. 566 vd.; Yücel (2009), s. 38;

Sayılan özelliklerin dışında başkanın yasama organını feshedememesi, aynı kişinin hem yürütmede hem de yasamada yer alamaması ve başkanın yasama organının çalışmalarına katılamaması da başkanlık sisteminin tali özellikleridir¹¹⁰. Bu özellikler de sert kuvvetler ayrılığının sonuçlarındandır ancak ifade edildiği üzere başkanlık sisteminin olmazsa olmaz koşulları değildir.

Genel itibarıyla hükümet sistemlerine ilişkin son olarak yarı başkanlık sisteminden bahsedilebilir. Duverger’in getirdiği ölçütler ışığında yarı başkanlık sistemi; *“halk tarafından genel oyla seçilen ve anayasayla önemli yetkilerle donatılmış bir devlet başkanlığı makamı ile yasama organının güvenine dayanan ve düşürülmediği sürece görevde kalan bir hükümetin bulunduğu siyasi örgütlenmedir”*¹¹¹.

6771 Sayılı Kanunun Yürürlüğe Girmesinden Sonra Türkiye’deki Hükümet Sistemi

Hükümet sistemleri hakkındaki genel yaklaşımlara bir önceki başlıkta değinilmişti. 16 Nisan 2017 referandumuyla onaylanan 21 Ocak 2017 tarih ve 6771 sayılı Anayasa Değişikliği Kanununun 2018 yılında yapılan seçimler sonucu yürürlüğe girmesiyle Türkiye’de hükümet sistemi değişmiştir. Ancak yeni kurulan sistemin, hükümet sistemleri tipolojisinde nereye oturduğu konusu tartışmaya açıktır.

Şöyle ki sistemin kuvvetler birliğine dayanmadığı açıktır, bu sebeple meclis hükümeti, mutlak monarşi ya da diktatörlük¹¹² olduğunu ileri sürmek mümkün görünmemektedir. Dolayısıyla sistemin parlamenter sistem, yarı başkanlık ve başkanlık sistemlerinden hangisine girdiğinin incelenmesi gerekmektedir.

Yeni modelin parlamenter sistem olduğunu iddia etmek güç görünmektedir. Zira yukarıda da ifade edildiği üzere parlamenter sistemde yürütme organı çift başlıdır ve devlet başkanı monarşilerde irsi olarak, cumhuriyetlerde ise parlamento tarafından seçilir. Benzer şekilde sistemin yarı başkanlık olarak nitelendirilmesi de zordur. Zira yarı başkanlık sisteminde yürütme organı çift başlıdır. Geriye bir tek sistemin başkanlık sistemi olarak değerlendirilmesi ihtimali kalmaktadır ancak bu noktada da pürüzler bulunmaktadır.

Şöyle ki başkanlık sisteminde başkan meşruiyetini yasamadan değil doğrudan halktan alır. Bu sebeple de başkanın görev süresi sabittir, yasama tarafından (impeachment hariç) görevden alınamaz. Nitekim öğretide bu hususun başkanlık sisteminin belirleyici özelliklerinden olduğu ifade edilmektedir¹¹³. Türkiye uygulamasında ise Anayasanın 116. maddesi¹¹⁴ gereğince hem yasama hem de yürütme, kendi seçimlerinin de yenilenmesi

¹¹⁰ Gözler (2019), s. 756

¹¹¹ M. Duverger’den aktaran Yücel (2009), s. 66.

¹¹² Diktatörlük kısaca yasama, yürütme ve yargının tek bir kişinin veya grubun elinde toplandığı rejimdir. Otoriter diktatörlük ise *“sınırlı bir plüralizme yer veren, ideolojiye değil zihniyete dayanan, yaygın ve yoğun bir siyasal mobilizasyon ve katılma yaratmayan rejimler”* şeklinde tanımlanabilir. Bkz. Juan Linz (1984). *Totaliter ve Otoriter Rejimler*. Çeviren Ergun Özbudun. Ankara: Siyasi İlimler Türk Derneği Yayınları, s. 25 vd. aktaran Gözler (2011), s. 555 – 556.

¹¹³ Yücel (2009), s. 50.

¹¹⁴ 1982 Anayasası md. 116: *“Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, üye tamsayısının beşte üç çoğunluğuyla seçimlerin yenilenmesine karar verebilir. Bu halde Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi genel seçimi ile Cumhurbaşkanlığı seçimi birlikte yapılır. Cumhurbaşkanının seçimlerin yenilenmesine karar vermesi halinde, Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi genel seçimi ile Cumhurbaşkanlığı seçimi birlikte yapılır...”*

kaydıyla, karşı tarafın görev süresine son verebilmektedir. Başka hiçbir ülkede olmayan bu uygulama nedeniyle sisteme, öğretilde *neverland hükümet sistemi* yani *hiçistan hükümet sistemi* adı verilmektedir¹¹⁵. Söz konusu düzenleme belki de anayasa değişikliği paketi içerisindeki en eleştiriye açık hükümlerdendir. Şöyle ki karşılıklı seçimlerin yenilenmesi kararının alınabilmesi başkanlık sisteminin en büyük artısı olarak gösterilen istikrar ve etkinlik gerekçelerini hükümsüz kılmaktadır¹¹⁶. Ayrıca meclisin seçimleri yenileyebilmesi için gerekli olan 360 oy mevcut siyasal kompozisyon içerisinde muhalefet partilerinin ulaşabileceğinin çok üzerindedir. Mevcut siyasal kompozisyonun ötesinde; meclis çoğunluğunu elinde bulunduran bir partinin genel başkanının, Cumhurbaşkanı olması halinde (özellikle de katı disiplinli partilerin mevcudiyetinde) meclisin seçimleri yenileme kararı alabilme yetkisi ancak kağıt üzerinde kalacaktır.

Yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi başkanlık sisteminde impeachment hariç başkanın görev süresi sabittir. Bu bağlamda impeachment cezai sorumluluğa ilişkin olmasının yanında bir tür denetle – dengele mekanizmasıdır¹¹⁷. Nitekim İngiltere’de bakanların siyasi sorumluluğu cezai sorumluluklarından doğmuştur¹¹⁸. 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen sistem bu noktada da başkanlık sisteminden ayrılmaktadır ve kanaatimizce ilgili 105. madde¹¹⁹ anayasa değişiklikleri içerisinde en problemli olanlardandır.

Öncelikle sorumsuz cumhurbaşkanı anlayışı parlamenter sistemin yapısından kaynaklanmaktadır¹²⁰. Benzer şekilde monarşilerde de devlet başkanı kural olarak sorumsuzdur. Sembolik yetkilere sahip, tarafsız, uzlaştırıcı ve hatta kutsal devlet başkanı sadece vatana ihanet suçundan yargılanabilmektedir. Başkanlık sisteminde ise çok güçlü yetkilere sahip dolayısıyla sorumluluğu daha fazla olması gereken başkan mevcuttur.

Madde ile ilgili ilk olarak ele alınabilecek noktada, impeachment başkanın cezai sorumluluğunu gerektiren vatana ihanet, rüşvet ve diğer ağır cürüm ve kabahatler için söz

¹¹⁵ Gözler (2019), s. 765.

¹¹⁶ Coşkun (2017), s. 24; Özbudun (2015), s. 13.

¹¹⁷ B. Yücel (2016). Devlet Başkanı Sorumsuzluğunun Hükümet Sistemine Yansımaları ve Türkiye Uygulaması. *Anadolu Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi, Prof. Dr. Akar Öcal Armağanı*, s. 124.

¹¹⁸ E. Teziç (2004). *Anayasa Hukuku*. İstanbul: Beta Basın Yayın Dağıtım, s. 431.

¹¹⁹ 1982 Anayasası md.150: “Cumhurbaşkanı hakkında, bir suç işlediği iddiasıyla Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi üye tamsayısının salt çoğunluğunun vereceği önergeyle soruşturma açılması istenebilir. Meclis, önergeyi en geç bir ay içinde görüşür ve üye tamsayısının beşte üçünün gizli oyuyla soruşturma açılmasına karar verebilir.

Soruşturma açılmasına karar verilmesi halinde, Meclisteki siyasi partilerin, güçleri oranında komisyona verebilecekleri üye sayısının üç katı olarak gösterecekleri adaylar arasından her siyasi parti için ayrı ayrı ad çekme suretiyle kurulacak onbeş kişilik bir komisyon tarafından soruşturma yapılır. Komisyon, soruşturma sonucunu belirten raporunu iki ay içinde Meclis Başkanlığına sunar. Soruşturmanın bu sürede bitirilememesi halinde, komisyona bir aylık yeni ve kesin bir süre verilir.

Rapor Başkanlığa verildiği tarihten itibaren on gün içinde dağıtılır, dağıtımından itibaren on gün içinde Genel Kurulda görüşülür. Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, üye tamsayısının üçte ikisinin gizli oyuyla Yüce Divana sevk kararı alabilir. Yüce Divan yargılaması üç ay içinde tamamlanır, bu sürede tamamlanamazsa bir defaya mahsus olmak üzere üç aylık ek süre verilir, yargılama bu sürede kesin olarak tamamlanır.

Hakkında soruşturma açılmasına karar verilen Cumhurbaşkanı, seçim kararı alamaz.

Yüce Divana seçilmeye engel bir suçtan mahkûm edilen Cumhurbaşkanının görevi sona erer.

Cumhurbaşkanının görevde bulunduğu sürede işlediği iddia edilen suçlar için görevi bittikten sonra da bu madde hükmü uygulanır”.

¹²⁰ Yücel (2016), s. 125 vd.

konusudur¹²¹. Türk sisteminde ise cezai sorumluluğu gerektiren herhangi bir suç için Yüce Divan'a gidilmesi gerekecektir.

İkinci olarak bu usulün işletilmesi için aranan çoğunluklardan bahsedilebilir. Soruşturma önergesi için 300, soruşturmanın açılması için 360 ve Yüce Divana sevk kararı için 400 milletvekili oyu gerekmektedir. Bu oranların her biri oldukça yüksektir. Türkiye özelinde disiplinli partilerin varlığı ve Cumhurbaşkanının aynı zamanda partisinin genel başkanı olması kriterleri de eklendiğinde maddedeki usulün işletilmesi imkansız hale gelmektedir. Aynı gerekçelerle soruşturma komisyonunda siyasi partilerin güçleri oranında üye sahibi olacağı hususu da eleştiriye açıktır.

Üçüncü olarak maddede “Yüce Divanda seçilmeye engel bir suçtan mahkum edilen Cumhurbaşkanı” ifadesi kullanılmaktadır. Dolayısıyla seçilmesine engel bir suçtan mahkum olmaması halinde görevine devam edecektir. Benzer şekilde hakkında Yüce Divana sevk kararı alınmış olan Cumhurbaşkanı görevine devam edecektir. Özellikle görevle ilgili suçlarda yargılama süreci boyunca Cumhurbaşkanının yani yürütme kudretinin tamamını elinde bulunduran kişinin görevine devam etmesi oldukça sakıncalı sonuçlar doğurabilir.

Hukuk tekniği bakımından eleştirilebilecek bir nokta da Anayasa Mahkemesinin görev ve yetkilerinin düzenlendiği 148. maddeye¹²² ilişkindir. Maddede Cumhurbaşkanının göreviyle ilgili suçlarından ötürü Yüce Divan sıfatıyla Anayasa Mahkemesinde yargılanacağı ifade edilmektedir¹²³. Dolayısıyla pozitif hukuk açısından Cumhurbaşkanının göreviyle ilgili olmayan suçlarından ötürü yargılanması Anayasa Mahkemesinin görevleri arasında değildir.

İlgili düzenlemeye yöneltilebilecek bir diğer eleştiri noktası da Cumhurbaşkanının görevi süresi içinde işlemiş olduğu iddia edilen suçlar için ömür boyu bu maddenin sağlamış olduğu yargısal korunmadan faydalanacak olmasıdır. Kanaatimizce bu nokta hukuksal eşitlik ilkesini oldukça zedeler niteliktedir. Son olarak Amerikan sistemindeki impeachment uygulaması; çift meclisli yapı, disiplinsiz iki partinin mevcudiyeti ve jüri uygulamasıyla¹²⁴ kendine has bir kimlik kazanmaktadır¹²⁵.

Başkanlık sisteminde yürütmenin görev süresinin sabit olması bir başka sakıncayı daha beraberinde getirmektedir. Şöyle ki görev süresinin sabit olmasının tamamlayıcı unsuru yeniden seçilme sınırlamasıdır. Bu husus bir güvenlik ihtiyacından öte sistemin *sine qua non* niteliklerindendir ve belki de otoriterleşmenin önündeki en önemli frenleme mekanizmasını teşkil eder. Bu bağlamda başkanlık anayasalarında yeniden seçilme sınırlamasının olması

¹²¹ Yücel (2009), s. 48.

¹²² 1982 Anayasası md. 148/5: “Anayasa Mahkemesi Cumhurbaşkanını, Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi Başkanını, Cumhurbaşkanını yardımcılarını, bakanları, Anayasa Mahkemesi, Yargıtay, Danıştay Başkan ve üyelerini, Başsavcılarını, Cumhuriyet Başsavcılarını, Hakimler ve Savcılar Kurulu ve Sayıştay Başkan ve üyelerini görevleriyle ilgili suçlardan dolayı Yüce Divan sıfatıyla yargılar.”

¹²³ 6771 sayılı kanun öncesine ilişkin olsa da hala geçerliliğini koruyan bir eleştiri noktası da şudur: Anayasa mahkemesi TBMM'nin oylama sonucunda gerçekleştirdiği suç tespiti ile bağlı mıdır? Bkz. İ. Köküarı (2009). *Anayasa Mahkemesinin Kararlarının Türleri ve Nitelikleri*. İstanbul: On İki Levha Yayıncılık, s. 105 – 106'dan aktaran Yücel (2016), s. 130.

¹²⁴ Bu noktada jüri sisteminin felsefi temellerinin Cumhurbaşkanının yargılanması noktasında daha da öne çıkacağı söylenebilir. Zira seçilmiş Cumhurbaşkanını seçilmişlerin temsilcileri yargılayacaktır, atanmış hakimler değil.

¹²⁵ Yücel (2009), s. 48 – 49.

yadsınamaz öneme haizdir¹²⁶. Lakin bu sınırlama da mahzurlu olabilir. Örnek üzerinden gitmek gerekirse; çok büyük bir oydaşma ile koltuğa gelen, yönetme yeteneğine sahip hatta muhalefetin dahi örtülü rızasını alabilen ve iki dönem boyunca siyasal tecrübe kazanmış bir aday dahi olsa başkanlık sisteminde tekrar seçilmesi mümkün değildir.

Hükümet sistemleri birbirleriyle karşılaştırılırken meşruiyet, istikrar ve etkinlik girdileri göz önünde tutulmaktadır¹²⁷. Meşruiyet konusu siyasal sistemle ilintili olduğundan bir sonraki başlıkta incelenecektir. İstikrar ve etkinlik meseleleri ise hükümet sistemleri karşılaştırmalarında gerek Türkiye özelinde gerekse de dünya bazında uzun süredir tartışılmaktadır. Öğretide de başkanlık sistemine gerekçe olarak, *istikrarsız ve yavaş işleyen*¹²⁸ yapısıyla parlamenter sistemin, Türkiye'nin ihtiyacı olan etkin yönetim için yetersiz kaldığı düşüncesi sıklıkla ifade edilmektedir¹²⁹. Nitekim Anayasa değişikliği öncesi kamuoyunda başkanlık sistemi için en sık gösterilen gerekçe istikrardır. Daha önce de ifade edildiği üzere başkanlık sisteminde (cumhurbaşkanlığı sisteminde değil!) yürütmenin görev süresi sabittir. Bu bağlamda dar anlamda bir istikrar sağlayacağı şüphesizdir. Ancak bu istikrarı siyasal sistem istikrarı olarak algılamamak gerekmektedir¹³⁰. Nitekim Sartori'nin ifade ettiği şekliyle hükümette kalma ile istikrar arasında doğrudan bir korelasyon olduğu savı da eleştiriye açıktır¹³¹. Ayrıca şunu da belirtmek gerekir ki hükümette kalma süresi ile istikrar eşanlamlı olarak kullanılsa dahi her istikrarlı hükümetin etkin olacağı sonucuna ulaşmak da mümkün gözükmemektedir¹³². Bu noktada başkanlık sisteminin daha istikrarlı olduğu kabul edilse dahi Türkiye için gerekliliği tartışmaya açıktır. Zira 2003 yılından bu yana Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi yasama çoğunluğunu elde etmekte ve tek başına hükümet kurabilmektedir¹³³. Ayrıca altını çizerek belirtmek gerekir ki:

*“Başkanlık rejimini tasarlayanlar için amaç 18. yüzyıldaki Kral III. George yönetimindeki İngiliz idaresi gibi bu ‘istibdat’ (tyranny) rejiminin ortaya çıkmasını engellemektir. Onun için Başkanlık rejimi tasarlayıcısı Amerikalılar için ‘iyi hükümet’ etkin karar veren, dediğini yaptıran hükümet değildir. Bu görüşe göre iyi hükümet ‘birbirini denetleyen, dengeleyen’ ve hatta frenleyen güçlerin, çatışan çıkarların uzlaşabildiği konularda kanun yapabildiği, diğer konularda ise hiçbir şey yapamadığı hükümettir”*¹³⁴.

Başkanlık sisteminin en çok eleştirilen yanlarından biri ise katı erkler ayrılığının bir sonucu olarak parlamenter sistemdeki esnekliğin bulunmamasıdır¹³⁵. Bir başka ifadeyle

¹²⁶ Linz (1995), s. 157.

¹²⁷ Yücel (2009), s. 39.

¹²⁸ Parlamenter sistemin başkanlık sistemine oranla daha hantal bir yapıya sahip olduğu eleştirisi gerçekçidir. Ancak kanaatimizce bir sistemin yavaş işlemesi salt negatif bir unsur olarak görülmemelidir. Örneğin yürütmenin ihtiyaç duyduğu bir düzenleme için meclise başvurmak zorunda kalması ya da en azından bakanlar kurulunda görüşmesi ilgili düzenlemenin daha çoğulcu olmasına ve karar alma süreçlerinin rasyonalizasyonuna ve kararlar üzerinde daha çok düşünülmesine katkı sağlayabilir.

¹²⁹ Gönenç (2005), s. 1; Özbudun (2015), s. 2.

¹³⁰ Özbudun (2015), s. 2.

¹³¹ Yücel (2009), s. 94.

¹³² Yücel (2009), s. 99.

¹³³ Öğretide sağlam bir tek parti çoğunluğu tarafından desteklenen parlamenter bir başbakanın başkanlık sistemindeki başkandan daha güçlü olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Bkz. Özbudun (2015), s. 5.

¹³⁴ Kalaycıoğlu (2005), s. 16.

¹³⁵ Linz (1995), s. 147.

başkanlık sistemi kilitlenmelere ve anayasal krizlere daha eğilimlidir. Nitekim ampirik veriler başkanlık sisteminde demokrasinin kesintiye uğrama ihtimalinin parlamenter sisteme oranla daha fazla olduğunu göstermektedir¹³⁶. Ayrıca sistemin katılığı istikrara olumlu etkide bulunsa da başarısız bir başkanın görev süresinin sona erdirilememesi sonucunu da beraberinde getirmektedir. Ancak söz konusu eleştiri Türkiye sisteminde çözüme kavuşturulmuş görünmektedir. Her ne kadar mevcut siyasal kompozisyonda; karizmatik lider kültü, disiplini partiler ve yasama çoğunluğunu elinde bulunduran iktidar partisi olguları bir araya geldiğinde meclisin başkanın görev süresine son vermesi zor gözükse de en azından teoride kendi partisinin güvenini kaybeden bir başkan seçime götürülebilecektir. Elbette bu durumda meclisin kendi seçimlerinin de yenilenmesini göze alması gerekmektedir.

Parlamenter sistem ile başkanlık sistemi arasında yapılan karşılaştırmalarda; parlamenter sistemde seçmenin iradesinin yürütmeye dolaylı olarak yansıdığı dolayısıyla demokratik açıdan daha verimsiz olduğu ifade edilmektedir¹³⁷. Söz gelimi bir seçmen oy verdiği parti koalisyon kurduğunda başbakanın kim olacağını veya daha sıklıkla bakanların kim olacağını bilmemektedir. Elbette bu eleştiri bir hakim partinin olduğu durumda geçerliliğini yitirecektir. Benzer bir durum olası koalisyon hükümetlerinin başarısızlığında daha ön plana çıkmaktadır. Zira bu halde koalisyon ortakları başarısızlıktan ötürü birbirlerini veya hükümet sistemini suçlama eğilimi göstereceklerdir. Bahsi geçen husus hesap verilebilirlik konusuyla da yakından ilintilidir. Başkanlık sistemini savunanlar başkanın yürütmeden tek başına sorumlu olması sebebiyle bu sistemin hesap verilebilirlik açısından daha elverişli olduğunu ileri sürmektedirler ki bu iddiada haklılık payı mevcuttur¹³⁸. Ancak şunun belirtilmesi gereklidir seçmen tepkisini ancak bir sonraki seçimde gösterebilecektir. Özellikle de kişisel özelliklerin partinin önüne geçtiği seçim yarışlarında, ve başkanın ikinci döneminde olması halinde, herhangi bir hesap verilebilirlik durumu söz konusu olmayacaktır.

Türkiye’ye uyarlanma bağlamında başkanlık sisteminin en büyük handikaplarından biri de siyasal üslubun sertleşmesi ve toplumsal kutuplaşmanın artması ihtimalidir. Linz’in aşağıdaki ifadeleri ise günümüz Türkiye’sine ışık tutar niteliktedir:

“Bir başkanla seçmen kütlesi arasındaki dolaysız ilişkinin belki en önemli sonuçları, başkanın tüm halkın tek seçilmiş temsilcisi olduğu hakkında besleyebileceği duygu ve bunun beraberinde gelen kendi taraftarlarını ‘halk’ın tümüyle karıştırma tehlikesidir. Başkanın otoritesinde mevcut olan plebisitçi unsur, onun karşılaştığı engelleri ve muhalefeti çok can sıkıcı gibi gösterebilir. Başkan, bu düş kırıklığı içinde kendi politikalarını halk iradesinin yansıması, muhaliflerinininkini ise dar çıkarların bencil planları olarak tanımlama eğilimine

¹³⁶ Özbudun (2015), s. 2 – 3. “Alfred Stepan ve Cindy Skach’in OECD üyesi olmayan ve 1973-1989 döneminde en az bir yıl demokratik rejim altında yaşamış bulunan 53 ülke üzerindeki araştırmasına göre, bunlar arasında parlamenter rejimle yönetilenlerin yüzde 61’i, 1973-1989 arasında en az on yıl sürekli olarak demokratik rejimi sürdürmüşlerdir; başkanlık sistemiyle yönetilenler arasında ise bu oran, sadece yüzde 20’dir. Benzer şekilde, aynı dönemde parlamenter rejimle yönetilen ülkelerin ancak yüzde 18’i bir askeri darbeye maruz kalmış olduğu halde, başkanlık sistemiyle yönetilenlerde bu oran yüzde 40’tır.” Özbudun (2015), s. 5.

¹³⁷ Gözler (2018), s. 87.

¹³⁸ Özbudun (2015), s. 7 – 8.

girebilir. ... Muhalefete karşı soğuk kayıtsızlık, saygısızlık, hatta açık husumet yönündeki bu kaygı verici eğilim hafife alınamaz”¹³⁹

Başkanlık sistemiyle ilgili eleştirilerden bir diğeri de sistemin otoriter rejimlere dönüşebilme ihtimalidir¹⁴⁰. Nitekim Latin Amerika uygulamalarında; ekonomik azgelişmişlik, gelir farklarının büyüklüğü, demokratik siyasal kültürün zayıflığı ve siyasal mücadelenin aşırı ölçüde kutuplaşmış olmasının da etkisiyle demokratik sistemin akamete uğramasına yol açmıştır¹⁴¹. Bahsi geçen girdilerin Türkiye için de geçerli olduğu pekala ileri sürülebilir.

Hükümet sistemleri incelenirken yasama ve yürütme organları arasındaki ilişkiler bağlamında hem parlamenter sistemde hem de başkanlık sisteminde karşılaşılan bir yetki olarak vetodan da bahsetmek gerekmektedir. Amerikan sisteminde başkan önüne gelen bir kanun teklifini on gün içerisinde geri gönderirse, söz konusu teklifin tekrar başkanın önüne gelebilmesi için hem senato hem de temsilciler meclisinde üçte iki çoğunlukla kabul edilmesi gerekmektedir. Türkiye’deki sistemde de Anayasanın 89. maddesi¹⁴² gereğince Cumhurbaşkanı tarafından meclise yeniden görüşülmek için kanunun yeniden Cumhurbaşkanı tarafından gönderilebilmesi için üye tam sayısının salt çoğunluğu gerekmektedir. İlk bakışta aranan çoğunluğun Amerikan sistemine oranla daha az olduğu dolayısıyla yasamayı güçlendirdiği ya da daha doğru bir ifade ile yürütmeyi daha az güçlendirdiği ileri sürülebilir. Ancak disiplinli partilerin olduğu Türkiye sisteminde, özellikle de mevcut durumda olduğu gibi iktidarın yasama çoğunluğuna sahip olduğu durumlarda, yasamanın başkanın onaylamadığı bir kanun için üye tam sayısının salt çoğunluğuna ulaşması zor gözükmemektedir. Bu bağlamda sistemin denetle – dengele mantığının işlerliği sorgulanabilir hale gelmektedir.

Hükümet sistemleri ele alınırken hem parlamenter sistem hem başkanlık sistemi açısından oldukça önem arz eden bir diğer nokta da bütçe meselesidir. Hem parlamenter sistemde hem de başkanlık sisteminde bütçenin onaylanması yasama organının elindedir. Bu bağlamda bütçe yasama organının yürütme organı üzerinde sahip olduğu nihai silahtır¹⁴³. Zira bütçesi onaylanmayan bir yürütme hiçbir faaliyet yürütemeyecektir. Ancak 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen sistemde bu dengele – denetle mekanizması fiilen işlevsiz hale getirilmiştir. Şöyle ki Anayasanın 161. maddesi gereğince bütçe kanunu çıkarılamadığında geçici bütçe kanunu çıkarılacaktır. Bu da mümkün olmazsa yeni bütçe kanunu kabul edilinceye kadar bir önceki yılın bütçesi yeniden değerlendirilme oranına göre artırılacak uygulanacaktır. Kanaatimizce söz konusu düzenleme eleştiriye son derece açıktır.

Sayılan eleştirilere ek olarak şu hususun da altının ısrarla çizilmesi gerekmektedir: Başkanlık sisteminin rol modeli olan Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’nde, sistemin başarılı olarak yürütmesinin ardında; *ideolojik ilkesizlik, zayıf ve disiplinsiz partiler, yerel sorunların aşılmasına ilişkin siyasetlerin geliştirilmesi* hususlarının yer almaktadır¹⁴⁴. Bu noktalara

¹³⁹ Linz (1995), s. 152.

¹⁴⁰ Gönenç (2005), s. 2. Öğretide bu iddianın lüzumundan fazla abartılmaması gerektiği de ifade edilmektedir. Bkz. Özbudun (2015), s. 4.

¹⁴¹ Özbudun (2015), s. 4.

¹⁴² 1982 Anayasası md. 89: “Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, geri gönderilen kanunu üye tamsayısının salt çoğunluğuyla aynen kabul ederse, kanun Cumhurbaşkanıca yayımlanır;...”

¹⁴³ Gözler (2018), s. 269.

¹⁴⁴ Yücel (2009), s. 45.

devletin federatif yapıda olması da eklenebilir. Zira bu vesileyle birçok kamu hizmeti federe devletler ya da yerel yönetimlerce yerine getirilmektedir¹⁴⁵. Türkiye’de ise sayılan şartların hiçbirisi mevcut değildir. Bu bağlamda sistemin Amerika uygulamasından sapması muhtemel görünmektedir.

6771 SAYILI KANUN İLE YAPILAN DEĞİŞİKLİKLERİN SİYASAL SİSTEMLER¹⁴⁶ AÇISINDAN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Eşitlik, seçim, demokrasi, anayasa, iktidar, meşruiyet, laiklik, cumhuriyet ve giderek modern devlet kavramları birbirleriyle oldukça girift bir ilişkiler ağı sergiler. Bunlardan birindeki değişim diğerlerini doğrudan etkiler. Sayılanlara ek olarak ilgili toplumun siyaset kültürü, ekonomik altyapısı, etnik kimlik tartışmaları, parti sistemleri ya da seçim sistemleri de eklenebilir. Burada varılmak istenen sonuç şudur: Yukarıda sayılan kavram setlerinde, belirli bir ülkedeki belirli bir dönemde yapılan tercihlerin başka bir coğrafya da başka bir tarihte aynı sonuçları doğurmasının beklenmesi beyhude bir çabadan öteye gidemeyecektir. Bir başka ifadeyle; *III. Fransız Cumhuriyeti, Donald Trump dönemi Amerika’sından veya Viktorya dönemi İngiltere’sinden daha demokratiktir* şeklindeki bir önerme, *başkanlık sistemi parlamenter sisteme göre daha demokratiktir* ya da *Cumhuriyet monarşiye göre daha demokratiktir* önermelerinden çok daha işlevseldir.

Siyaset bilimi, hukuk ve sosyoloji benzeri birçok sosyal bilimin de inceleme alanına giren yukarıdaki kavramların ilişkisine şu şekilde örnek verilebilir: Modern devletin tanımlanmasında merkezi kavramlardan biri egemenliktir. Aydınlanma düşüncesinin de büyük katkısıyla artık demokratik cumhuriyetlerde egemen iktidarını ne tanrıdan ne soyundan ne de salt şiddet tekelinden sağlamaktadır. Atatürk’ün veciz ifadesiyle *egemenlik kayıtsız şartsız milletindir*. Ancak ne var ki oldukça istisnai örnekler¹⁴⁷ dışında günümüzde milletin egemenliği doğrudan kullanması mümkün gözükmemektedir. Bu sebeple millet, eşit oyla kendisi gibi eşit olan birine seçim yoluyla yönetme hakkı tanır. Dolayısıyla seçmenlerin iktidara rıza göstermelerinin altından kendi iradelerini temsil ettikleri düşüncesi yatar. Bir başka ifadeyle;

“(Y)urttaşlar kendi yaşam alanlarına sınırlamalar ve yükümlülükler getiren ... insan yapımı olan (kutsal bir iradenin ifadesi olmayan), değişime açık (bugün bir çıkarı korurken yarın aynı çıkarı reddeden) normlara, bu normlar kendileri

¹⁴⁵ Özbudun (2015), s. 3.

¹⁴⁶ Sosyal bilimler alanında çalışanların aşına olduğu üzere terminoloji seçimi esasında önem arz eden ancak çoğunlukla gerektiği özenin gösterilmediği bir konudur. Örneğin demokratik, otoriter ve totaliter yönetim biçimleri kimi zaman “rejim” başlığı altında siyasal sistemin bir unsuru olarak incelenmektedir. Bkz. E. Kalaycıoğlu (2017). *Anayasalar Hakkında Bir Not*. <https://sarkac.org/2017/03/anayasalar-hakkinda-bir-not-ersin-kalaycioglu/> (erişim tarihi 10.5.2019). Kimi zaman ise “siyasal yapı” başlığı altında ele alınmaktadır. Ö. Anayurt. (2018). *Anayasa Hukuku Genel Kısım*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık. Kimi zamansa demokrasi konusu ayrı bir başlık altında ele alınmaktadır. Bkz. K. Gözler (2018). *Anayasa Hukukuna Giriş*. Bursa: Ekin Basım Yayın Dağıtım, s. VII; N. K. Öztürk (2018). *Anayasa Hukuku*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık. Siyasal sistem – siyasal rejim kavramları arasındaki ilişki için bkz. A. Çeçen (1977). *Siyasal Rejimlerin Sosyal Yapıları*. Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi 34 (1), s. 105 – 108. Bu çalışmada siyasal sistem kavramıyla kastedilen demokratik, otoriter ve totaliter yönetimlerdir.

¹⁴⁷ 2012 yılı itibarıyla doğrudan demokrasi sadece İsviçre’nin Glarus Kantonunda ve Appenzell Innerhoden Yarım Kantonunda uygulanmaktadır. Bkz. Gözler (2018), s. 107.

tarafından, kendi kolektif varlıklarını koruyup geliştirecek şekilde yapıldığı için ya da bu inanç hakim hale geldiği için uyarlar”¹⁴⁸.

Öğretide siyasal sistemler; demokratik sistemler, otoriter sistemler ve totaliter sistemler şeklinde üçlü bir ayrıma tabi tutulmaktadır. Ancak en nihayetinde bunlar Weberian *ideal tiplerdir*. Yani bir siyasal sistemler skalası çizilecek olursa bir uçta gerçek hayatta karşılaşamayacak kadar demokratik sistem imgesi bulunurken¹⁴⁹ diğer uçta gerçek hayatta karşılaşamayacak kadar totaliter rejim imgesi bulunur. Somut siyasal sistemlerse bu skalanın içerisinde yer alırlar ve skalada hangi tarafa yakınlarsa o şekilde sınıflandırılabilirler. Bu meyanda Türkiye için de anlam ifade ettiği düşünülen *gri bölgelerden* bahsedilebilir.

Bu gri bölgelere; yarı demokrasiler, sözde demokrasiler, eksik demokrasiler, göstermelik demokrasiler, seçimsel demokrasiler, illiberal demokrasiler, modern otoriterizm, delegasyoncu demokrasiler, yarışmacı otoriterizm ve popülist rejimler gibi çeşitli isimler verilmektedir¹⁵⁰. Sayılanlardan delegasyoncu demokrasi; halkın seçim yoluyla başkana gelecek seçimlere kadar ülkeyi dilediği gibi yönetme konusunda sınırsız bir yetki verdiği varsayımına dayanır. Bu sistemlerde “*başkan, milletin tecessüm etmiş hali ve onun çıkarlarının başlıca koruyucusu ve tanımlayıcısı olarak kabul edilir*”¹⁵¹. Yarışmacı otoriterizmde ise; demokratik kurumlar şeklen vardır, seçimler de yapılır ancak seçim yarışı eşitsizler arası bir yarışır. Muhalif medya susturulur ve yargı bağımsız değildir. Hatta yargı organı muhalifler üzerinde bir baskı kurmak ve onları sindirmek için kullanılır. Popülist rejimlerde ise, ülkeyi yöneten popülist lider halkı yalnızca kendisinin temsil ettiğine inanır. Muhalifleri kendi eşiti olarak görmez. Onları haksız taleplerde bulunan hainler olarak görür. Popülizme göre anayasacılığın gerektirdiği tüm denge ve denetleme mekanizmaları gereksiz ayak bağıdır.

Öğretiden bir tanımla demokrasi; “*yönetenlerin, yaptıklarından dolayı, seçilmiş temsilcilerinin rekabeti ve işbirliği yoluyla, dolaylı olarak hareket eden vatandaşlar tarafından, kamusal alanda sorumlu tutuldukları bir yönetim biçimidir*”¹⁵². Bir siyasal sistemin demokratikliği siyasi karar alma mekanizmalarının demokratik bir süreç şeklinde işlemlerini ve bu sürecin en önemli kısmını oluşturan seçimin iktidar partisi ve diğer partilerin adil bir ortamda yarışmasını gerektirir¹⁵³. Benzer şekilde demokratik yapıların, aslında devletin demokratik olmayan yapılar tarafından yönetildiğini örten göstermelik yapılar olması ve hükümet kararlarının demokratik süreçten tamamen bağımsız şekilde alınması bir sistemin *istikrarlı demokrasi* olarak nitelendirilmesini engeller¹⁵⁴.

¹⁴⁸ A. M. Özdemir (2014). Temsil Kurumu Cumhuriyet Projeleri ve Anayasa Bağlamında Başkanlık Sistemi. *Türkiye'nin Hukuk Sisteminde Yapısal Dönüşüm*. Ankara: İmge Kitabevi, s. 50.

¹⁴⁹ Buna normatif demokrasi adı da verilebilir. Bkz. Gözler (2018), s. 103.

¹⁵⁰ Bu paragraf Gözler (2018), s. 106'dan özetlenmiştir. Gözler de ilgili bölümü çoğunlukla Özbudun'un *Anayasalcılık ve Demokrasi* adlı eserinden alıntılanmıştır.

¹⁵¹ Delegasyonu demokrasi hakkında daha fazla bilgi için bkz. Özbudun (2015), s. 9 – 10.

¹⁵² P. C. Schmitter ve T. L. Karl. Demokrasi Nedir ... Ne Değildir. (1995). *Demokrasinin Küresel Yükselişi*. Ankara: Yetkin Yayınları, s.68.

¹⁵³ Yücel (2009), s. 90.

¹⁵⁴ H. Eckstein (1967). Bir İstikrarlı Demokrasi Teorisi. Çev.: E. Özbudun. *Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi* (24), 1, s. 42.

Öğretide bir sistemin demokratik olarak nitelenebilmesi için asgari olarak şu şartları taşıması gerektiği ifade edilmektedir¹⁵⁵. Etkin siyaset makamları seçimle belirlenmelidir. Seçimler düzenli olarak tekrarlanmalıdır. Seçimler serbest ve adil olmalıdır (genel oy, eşit oy, gizli oy ve açık sayım ilkeleri uygulanmalıdır). Birden çok siyasal parti olmalıdır. Muhalefetin iktidar şansı mevcut olmalıdır. Temel kamu hakları (düşünce ve ifade özgürlüğü, basın özgürlüğü, toplantı ve gösteri yürüyüşü yapma özgürlüğü vb.) tanınmış ve güvence altına alınmış olmalıdır.

6771 sayılı Anayasa değişikliği kanununa siyasal sistem ile ilgili olarak getirilebilecek ilk eleştiri meşruiyet tabanına ilişkindir. Hükümet sistemine ilişkin değişiklik, yaratacağı çok yönlü ve yoğun etkiler sebebiyle gündelik siyasal kararların ötesinde bir meşruiyet tabanını gerektirir¹⁵⁶. Oysa ki 6771 sayılı kanun için yapılan referandumda ülkedeki toplam seçmen sayısı olan 58.291.898 kişinin yalnızca 25.157.463'ü evet oyu vermiştir¹⁵⁷. Bu ise yaklaşık %43'lük bir oy oranına tekabül etmektedir.

2017 Anayasa değişikliklerinden siyasal sistemi ilgilendiren bir diğer düzenleme Hakimler ve Savcılar Kurulu'nun teşekkülüne ilişkindir. Anayasanın 159. maddesi gereğince 13 üyeden oluşan kurulun altısı doğrudan Cumhurbaşkanı kalan yedisi ise meclis tarafından seçilecektir. Meclis tarafından seçilecek üyelerde ilk önce 400 oy, ilk oylamada bu sayıya ulaşamaması halinde 360 oy, bu sayı da bulunamazsa en çok oy alan iki aday arasından ad çekme usulü uygulanacaktır. Sonuç olarak yargı organının en önemli ayaklarından olan Hakimler ve Savcılar Kurulu'nun üyelerinin seçiminde Cumhurbaşkanının hem doğrudan hem de parti genel başkanı sıfatıyla milletvekilleri üzerinden dolaylı olarak oldukça ağırlığa sahip konumda olduğu gözlenmektedir¹⁵⁸. Bu durumun erkler ayrılığı prensibine ve demokratik bir sisteme ters düştüğü açıkça ifade edilebilir.

Bölümün girişinde de bahsedildiği üzere seçim sistemindeki tercihler ile demokrasi arasında doğrudan bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Bir başka ifadeyle seçim sistemleri demokrasinin planlanmasında hayati bir unsur olarak rol almaktadır¹⁵⁹. Bu ilişkiye üçüncü sacayağı olarak siyasal partiler eklenebilir. Seçim sistemleri çoğunlukla teknik bir mesele olarak görülmekte ve hukukçular ya da siyaset bilimciler dışında pek ilgiye mahzar olmamaktadır. Oysa seçim sistemindeki küçük bir değişiklik (çoğunluk – nispi temsil, tek turlu- iki turlu, seçim barajı vs.) birçok örnekte ilgili ülkenin yönetim şeklini (özellikle de parlamenter sistemde) doğrudan değiştirebilmektedir. Geniş anlamda seçim sistemi hem oyları meclis sandalyelerine dönüştürmekte uygulanan yöntemi hem de seçim çevrelerinin büyüklüğü¹⁶⁰, seçim barajları, artık sandalyelerin dağıtım şekli veya liste usulü gibi çeşitli girdileri kapsamaktadır¹⁶¹.

¹⁵⁵ Gözler (2018), s. 104 – 105.

¹⁵⁶ Gönenç (2005), s. 5.

¹⁵⁷ <http://www.ysk.gov.tr/doc/dosyalar/docs/2017Referandum/2017HO-Ornek135.pdf> (Erişim tarihi: 13.05.2019)

¹⁵⁸ Özbudun (2015), s. 13; Coşkun (2017), s. 25.

¹⁵⁹ A. Lijphart (1995). Yeni Demokrasiler İçin Anayasal Tercihler. *Demokrasinin Küresel Yükselişi*. Ankara: Yetkin Yayınları, s. 185

¹⁶⁰ Bu noktada geniş anlamda seçim sistemi bağlamında seçim çevrelerinin belirlenmesi açısından *Gerrymandering* kavramından bahsedilebilir. Söz konusu kavram, seçim çevrelerinin belli bir siyasal partiyi ya da adayı kayırmak amacıyla çizilmesi uygulamasıdır. Bkz. Gözler (2018), s. 124.

¹⁶¹ E. Özbudun (1995). Seçim Sistemleri ve Türkiye. *Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 44 (1-4), s. 522. Yazar dar anlamda seçim sistemi anlamına gelecek şekilde seçim formülleri kavramını kullanmaktadır.

6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen seçimlere ilişkin getirilen bir değişiklik Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi'nin 550 olan milletvekili sayısını 600'e çıkarmasıdır. Temsil oranının az da olsa artmasını sağlayabilecek olan değişikliğin olumlu bir gelişme olduğu ifade edilebilir. Nitekim Avrupa Birliği ülkeleri ile bir karşılaştırma yapıldığında Türkiye'nin gerek vekil başına düşen seçmen sayısında gerekse de vekil başına düşen nüfusta ortalamanın altında olduğu görülmektedir¹⁶². Ancak Türkiye açısından temsili demokrasinin önündeki belki de en önemli engellerden biri olan %10'luk seçim barajına ilişkin herhangi bir değişiklik yapmaktan kaçınılmıştır. Mevcut seçim barajı Avrupa ortalamasının bir hayli üzerindedir¹⁶³.

2017 Anayasa değişikliklerinden seçimlere ilişkin bir diğer düzenleme ise Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi'nin görev süresine ilişkindir. Anayasanın 77. maddesi gereğince milletvekilliği ve cumhurbaşkanlığı seçimleri beş yılda bir aynı günde yapılacaktır. Kanaatimizce bu düzenleme de eleştiriye açıktır. Şöyle ki cumhurbaşkanının mensup olduğu parti ile meclis çoğunluğunu (ve özellikle de anayasa değişikliği için yeterli çoğunluğu) elinde bulunduran partinin aynı olması durumunda aşırı bir güç yoğunlaşması ortaya çıkabilecek, denetle - dengele mekanizması işlevsiz hale gelebilecektir. Tam tersi senaryoda ise yani cumhurbaşkanı ile meclis çoğunluğunun farklı partilerden olması halinde sistem krize girebilecektir¹⁶⁴.

Seçim sistemindeki bir diğer önemli handikap ise vekil adaylarının belirlenmesine seçmen iradesinin neredeyse etkisiz olmasıdır¹⁶⁵. Esasında parti içi demokrasi kavramıyla yakından ilintili olan bu husus demokratik bir siyasal sistem tesisi için elzem görünmektedir. Bu bağlamda öğretilde, dar bölge iki turlu seçim sistemine geçilmesi önerisi sunulmaktadır. Bu sistem, seçmenin kimi vekil olarak seçtiğini bilmesini ve seçmen ile vekilin daha fazla yüz yüze irtibat kurmasını sağlamasıyla; hem demokratik meşruiyet ve temsili güçlendirecek hem de parti içi demokrasinin gelişmesine katkı sunacaktır¹⁶⁶.

Seçim sistemi ve demokrasi ile sıkı bir ilişki içerisinde olan üçüncü kavram siyasal partilerdir. Gerçekten de siyasal partiler hem temsili demokrasinin en belirleyici araçları hem de hükümet sistemlerinin biçimlendirilmesindeki etkili siyasal aktörlerdir¹⁶⁷.

Bu çalışma kapsamında Türk tipi başkanlık sistemine ilişkin ileri sürülen eleştirilerin birçoğunda disiplinli parti yapısına vurgu yapılmıştır. Menşei İngiltere olan disiplinli parti kavramı; parti yöneticilerinin parti üyeleri, milletvekilleri ve seçmenleri üzerinde sahip oldukları otoriteye gönderme yapmaktadır¹⁶⁸. Parti disiplini yasama, yürütme ve hatta yargı organı üzerinde çeşitli etkilere sahiptir¹⁶⁹. Burada ayrıca belirtmek gerekir ki, sosyal ve

¹⁶² Vekil başına düşen seçmen sayısı Avrupa Birliği ülkelerinde 40.497, Türkiye'de 103.544; vekil başına düşen nüfus ise Avrupa Birliği Ülkelerinde 53.764, Türkiye'de 143.166'dır. Coşkun (2017), s. 8.

¹⁶³ Türkiye'ye en yakın oran %7 ile Rusya'dadır. Avrupa ortalaması ise %4 - %5 bandında gezinmektedir. Bkz. Gözler (2018), s. 134.

¹⁶⁴ Coşkun (2017), s. 11 – 12; Özbudun (2015), s. 14.

¹⁶⁵ Coşkun (2017), s. 8.

¹⁶⁶ Coşkun (2017), s. 8 – 9.

¹⁶⁷ Yücel (2009), s. 103.

¹⁶⁸ Yücel (2009), s. 105.

¹⁶⁹ M. Çakır ve S. Çağlayan (2014). Parti Disiplini ve Lider Sultasının Egemenliğin Kullanımı Üzerindeki Olumsuz Etkileri: Türkiye ve İngiltere Örnekleri Üzerinde Karşılaştırmalı Bir İnceleme. *Kocaeli Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 5 (9).

ideolojik olarak kutuplaşmış ülkelerde disiplinli partilerin doğumu yasama ve yürütme arasındaki çatışmaları genellikle alevlendirmektedir¹⁷⁰.

Daha önce de ifade edildiği üzere başkanlık sisteminin Amerika uygulamasındaki başarısının ardında, öğretide sıklıkla işaret edildiği üzere, disiplinsiz partilerin varlığı olgusu yatmaktadır. Başkanlar kimi konularda kendi partilerinin desteklerinden mahrum kalırken kimi durumlarda da rakip partinin desteğine mazhar olmaktadır ve bu durum ülkenin siyasi atmosferine uzlaşmacı bir hava katmaktadır. Türkiye örneğinde ise partiler hem çok disiplinlidir hem de parti genel başkanları parti siyasetinin belirlenmesinde başat role sahiptir.

Kanaatimizce 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen sistem bu noktada da eleştiriye açıktır. Şöyle ki yürütmenin başı bir diğer ifadeyle başkan bu görevinden ötürü birçok önemli yetkiye haiz olmakla birlikte partisinin genel başkanlığı sıfatını da taşımaya devam etmektedir. Dolayısıyla başkanlık seçimini kazanan partinin yasama çoğunluğunu da elde etmesi halinde yasama ve yürütme kuvvetleri fiilen tek kişide birleşmiş olacaktır. Zira yakın geçmişin de gösterdiği üzere Türkiye’de, “*vekillerin kaderi genel başkanlarının iki dudağı arasındadır*”¹⁷¹. Bu bağlamda parti içi demokrasi kavramından bahsedilebilir. Genel anlamda parti içi demokrasi, parti örgütünün demokratik esaslar çerçevesinde oluşturulması ve oligarşik eğilimler ile baskıların kaldırılması anlamına gelmektedir¹⁷². İlk bakışta disiplinli parti anlayışıyla çelişki içerisinde gibi görülebilecek olan parti içi demokrasi, esasında parti üyesinin iradesinden başlayan demokratik bir süreç içerisinde belirlenecek olan parti yönetiminin hem daha etkin hem de daha meşru bir yönetim sergilemesini sağlayabilecek, disiplinin de inanç ve güven temelli olarak ortaya çıkmasına sebep olabilecektir¹⁷³. Bu bağlamda Türkiye açısından siyasi partilerin parti içi demokrasi konusunda geri kalmakta oldukları rahatlıkla söylenebilir. Son olarak Başkanlık sisteminde başkanlık kazanılabilecek en büyük ödül olduğundan ve dolayısıyla ancak en büyük partilerin bunu kazanabilmesi şansı olması sebebiyle parti sistemi iki partili bir hale evrilme eğilimi gösterir¹⁷⁴. Özellikle yasama ve yürütme organlarının seçimlerinin aynı anda yapılması halinde büyük partilerin bu avantajı parlamentoya da yansımaktadır¹⁷⁵.

SONUÇ

Hükümet sistemlerine ilişkin tartışmalar hemen her dönem siyaset bilimcilerin ve hukukçuların gündeminde olmuştur. Türkiye özelinde 2007 yılından sonra söz konusu tartışmalar teorik bir önem arz etmenin ötesinde pratiğe de yansımıştır. 1924 yılından beri hükümet sistemine ilişkin en önemli değişiklikler 6771 sayılı kanun ile yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada da söz konusu değişikliklerden hükümet sistemine ve siyasal sisteme ilişkin olduğu düşünülenler eleştirel bir bakış açısıyla ele alınmaya çalışılmıştır.

¹⁷⁰ J. J. Linz (1995). Başkanlık Sisteminin Tehlikeleri. *Demokrasinin Küresel Yükselişi*. Ankara: Yetkin Yayınları, s. 145.

¹⁷¹ Coşkun (2017), s. 15.

¹⁷² Yücel (2009), s. 108.

¹⁷³ Yücel (2009), s. 111.

¹⁷⁴ Lijphart (1995), s. 186.

¹⁷⁵ Lijphart (1995), s. 186.

Erkler ayrılığı prensibi doğrultusunda yasama ve yürütme organları arasındaki siyasal ilişkilere göre şekillenen hükümet sistemleri; başkanlık yarı – başkanlık ve parlamenter sistem başlıkları altında incelenmektedir. Bu bağlamda başkanlık sisteminde yürütme organı başkan denilen tek kişiden oluşurken parlamenter sistemde yürütme organı devlet başkanı ve hükümet olmak üzere iki başlıdır. Başkanlık sisteminde yürütmenin başı doğrudan halk tarafından seçilirken, parlamenter sistemde hükümet yasama tarafından belirlenir. Başkanlık sisteminde yürütmenin başı olan başkan yasamanın güvenine dayanmazken parlamenter sistemde hükümet yasama organının güvenine dayanır. Yarı başkanlık sisteminde ise halk tarafından seçilen ve önemli anayasal yetkilerle donatılmış bir başkanın yanında yasama organının güvenine dayanan bir hükümet bulunmaktadır. 6771 sayılı kanun ile getirilen sistem bu noktada başkanlık sisteminin asli özelliklerinden olan organların birbirlerinin görevine son verememesi noktasında menşeinden ayrılmaktadır. Devlet başkanının cezai sorumluluğuna ilişkin Anayasanın 105. maddesi birçok açıdan ciddi problemler barındırmaktadır. Başkanlık sisteminin toplumsal kutuplaşmayı artırma, siyasal üslubun sertleşmesi ve otoriterleşme eğilimi gösterme özellikleri Türkiye açısından çeşitli sıkıntılar doğurmaya gebe dir. Hükümet sistemlerinin ve erkler ayrılığının temel mantığı olan denetle – dengele mekanizmaları 6771 sayılı kanun ile neredeyse işlevsiz hale getirilmiştir. Örneğin Başkanın kanun tekliflerini geri göndermesi veya bütçe kanunu gibi kurumlar yürütme lehine törpülenmiştir.

Siyasal sistemin demokratikliği açısından da yeni sisteme çeşitli eleştiriler getirilmesi mümkündür. Bu bağlamda ilgili anayasa değişikliğinin küçük bir oy farkı ile onaylanması, Hakimler ve Savcılar Kurulunun teşekkülü üzerinde Başkanın iradesinin hakim olması, yüksek seçim barajı ve başkanın aynı zamanda partisinin genel başkanı olması gibi demokratik ilkeler ters düşebilecek başlıklardan bahsedilmiştir.

Sonuç olarak mevcut siyasal iktidar referandum yoluyla ülkedeki hükümet sistemini değiştirmiştir. Başkanlık sisteminin özünden kaynaklanan kimi dezavantajların yanında, sistemin çeşitli girdileri ile oynanmak suretiyle ortaya eşi benzeri görülmemiş bir hükümet sistemi çıkarılmıştır. En çok başkanlık sisteminin özelliklerini barındıran bu sistemin doğum yeri ve en başarılı örneği olan Amerika uygulamasına benzer sonuçlar doğurması zor görünmektedir. Zira Ülkenin siyaset kültürü, disiplini partiler, ideolojik katılık ve üniter devlet yapılanması sistemi Amerikan uygulamasından uzaklaştırmaktadır.

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Öğretmenlerin Sınıf Yönetimi İlkelerine Uyma Düzeylerine İlişkin Öğrenci Görüşleri

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ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın amacı, öğrencilerin gözünden öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetim yeterliklerini belirleyebilmektir. Araştırma, betimsel tarama modelinin kullanıldığı nicel bir araştırma niteliğindedir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılının ikinci döneminde Ankara ili Mamak ilçesinde öğrenim gören 401 ortaokul öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada veri toplamak amacıyla Gündüz ve Can (2013) tarafından geliştirilen 33 maddeden oluşan “Öğretmenlerin Sınıf Yönetimi İlkelerine Uyma Düzeyini Belirleme Ölçeği” kullanılmıştır. Verilerin değerlendirilmesinde tanımlayıcı istatistiksel yöntemleri olarak yüzde, ortalama, standart sapma kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca iki bağımsız grup arasında verilerin karşılaştırılmasında t-testi, ikiden fazla bağımsız grup arasındaki niceliksel verilerin karşılaştırılmasında Tek Yönlü (One way) ANOVA testi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın bulgularından hareketle ortaokul öğrencilerinin görüşlerine göre öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma boyutunda daha yüksek olduğu ancak sınıf düzeyi değişkeni açısından anlamlı bir farklılığın bulunmadığı sonucunda ulaşılmıştır. Ayrıca ortaokul öğrencilerinin görüşlerine göre öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin her iki boyutta da cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmadığı sonuçlarına ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sınıf, Yönetim, Sınıf yönetimi, Öğrenci, Öğretmen.

GİRİŞ

Toplumda oluşan deęişmeler okuldaki yönetici ve öğretmenlerin de düşünce ve davranışlarında deęişmeleri zorunlu kılar. Okul yöneticisi ve öğretmenler bu gelişmelerin öncüsü ve gerekli yeniliklerin uygulayıcısı olma durumundadırlar (Çalık, 2009). Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetim becerilerinin öğrencilerin başarıları üzerinde büyük etkiye sahip olduğu bilinmektedir. Etkili bir eğitim ancak yüksek yeterliğe sahip öğretmenler ve özellikle etkili bir sınıf yönetimi ile mümkündür. Bu nedenle Türkiye'de 1997-1998 öğretim yılından beri öğretmen yetiştiren yükseköğretim kurumlarının eğitim programlarına sınıf yönetimi zorunlu bir ders olarak konulmuştur (Çelik, 2008).

Sınıf yönetimiyle ilgili eğitim bilimleri alanyazını incelendiği zaman, birbirinden farklı tanımların yapıldığı görülmektedir. Çünkü her bir tanım, kendi bakış açısıyla ilgili felsefeyi de yansıtmaktadır. Geleneksel yaklaşımlar disiplini ve öğretmen odaklı sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımını ön plana çıkarırken, çağdaş yaklaşımlar demokratik ortamı ve öğrenci odaklı sınıf yönetimini ön plana çıkarmaktadır. Sınıf yönetimi, sınıfta var olan maddi ve manevi öğelerin örgütün amaçları doğrultusunda etkili ve verimli bir biçimde kullanılması olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bir başka tanıma göre, yönetsel stratejilerin etkili, etkin öğretimi kolaylaştırarak ve öğrenme çevresini oluşturarak bunun devam ettirilmesidir (Arslan, 2012). Sınıf yönetimi, eğitsel etkinliklerin öğretmen kılavuzluğunda, katılanlarca yönetilmesidir. Sınıf yönetimi mekânın, öğrencilerin ve kaynakların yönetimidir. Uygun öğrenme çevresi hazırlama, bu çevredeki olanak ve ortamı, kuralları, öğrenme düzenini, süreçlerini oluşturma ve kullanma, sınıf yönetimi olarak adlandırılır (Başar, 2008).

Sınıf yönetimi, öğrencilerin akademik, duygusal ve sosyal gelişimlerini sağlayan etkinliklerin gerçekleştirilmesi şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (Evertson ve Weinstein, 2006). Başka bir ifadeyle, öğretmenin sınıfın öğrenme ortamını öğrencilerin gelişim özelliklerine göre düzenleme ve üst düzeyde öğrenmeyi sağlamada sahip olduğu uzmanlıktır (Stronge, Tucker ve Hindman, 2004). Öğretmenin sınıf yönetimi yeterliği, öğrencilerin ilgi, yetenek ve beklentilerini anlama becerileri ile ilişkilendirilmektedir (Aydın, 2014).

Sınıf yönetimini etkileyen faktörlerden biri de öğrenci motivasyonu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin (özellikle sınıf öğretmenlerinin) etkili bir öğretim yapabilmesi için etkili sınıf yönetimi konusundaki öğretmen rollerinde güncel gelişmeler olup olmadığını bilmesi; olduyorsa ne tür gelişmeler olduğunu öğrenerek buna göre yeni düzenlemelere gitmesi öğretmen, yönetici, veli ve tüm eğitimcilerin işlerini kolaylaştıracak, öğrenmeyi daha etkili hale getirecektir.

Geleneksel eğitim sisteminde öğretmenin temel görevi; öğrencilere, sınıfın bütünü denetlemeyi sağlayan bir sınıf disiplini içinde, belli bir konu alanı ile ilgili bilgi, beceri ve tutum kazandırmaktır. Öğretmen merkezli bu yaklaşımda dikkat *konu*, *yöntem* ve *sınıf disiplini* üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır. Çağdaş eğitim anlayışı ise öğrenci merkezlidir. Öğrencinin öğrenme sürecine aktif katılımını, yaparak- yaşayarak öğrenmesini, kendi öğrenmesinin sorumluluğunu üstlenmesini gerektiren bu anlayış, öğretmenin sınıf yönetimi becerilerini de çok daha önemli kılmıştır. Günümüzde sınıf yönetimi kavramı, geleneksel eğitimdeki, öğrencileri kontrol etme

ve sınıfta disiplin sağlama anlayışından farklı bir açılımla ele alınmaktadır. Öğrencilerle *etkili iletişim kurabilme*, sınıf içi problemlerin çözümünde öğrencilere *özyeterlik ve içsel kontrol kazandırma*, çatışmaları minimum düzeye indirerek *öğretim verimliliğini yükseltme* sınıf yönetimi becerileri olarak çağdaş öğretmende aranan temel yeterlilikler arasında sayılmaya başlanmıştır (Spaulding, 1992).

Etkin bir sınıf yönetimini sağlayabilmek için öğretmenin öncelikle öğrencileri ile ve öğrencilerin kendi aralarında etkili bir iletişim kurmalarını sağlaması zorunludur. Öğretmenlerin etkili iletişim becerilerini sınıflarında yaşama geçirebilmeleri, öğretmen olarak sınıftaki rollerini ve bu rollere kaynaklık eden inançları ayrıntılı biçimde analiz etmelerini gerektirmektedir. Gordon (1996), öğretmenin sınıftaki rolü ile ilgili yerleşmiş inançların sınıf içindeki iletişim örüntüsünü belirlemede etkili olduğunu belirtmektedir.

Öğretmenlerin aldığı eğitim benzer olmasına rağmen sınıf yönetimi tutumlarında önemli farklılıklar görülmektedir. Bu farklılıklar, öğretmenlerin kişilik özelliklerinden, düşünce yapılarından, eğitime ve öğrenciye bakış açılarından kaynaklanmaktadır (Erdem, 2012). Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetiminde otoriter, kayıtsız, serbestlik tanıyan ve öğretim liderliği tutumları sergilediği gözlenmektedir (Dunbar, 2004).

Olumlu sınıf ikliminin temelinde, öğrencilerin öğretmenleri ve birbirleriyle karşılıklı sevgi ve saygıya dayalı bir iletişim ve etkileşim içinde olmaları yer almaktadır (Evertson ve Emmer, 2013). İyi öğretmenlerin beş temel özelliğinden söz edilebilir. Bu özellikler coşkulu olma, açıklık, planlılık, motive edicilik ve öğrencileri sevmedir (Filene, 2005).

Sınıf yönetimi, eğitimin en önemli basamağını oluşturmaktadır. Eğitimin temel hedefi olan öğrencilerde istendik davranışlar kazandırılması ailede başlamakta ve sınıflarda devam etmektedir. Eğitimin temel öğelerini oluşturan öğretmen, öğrenci, müfredat ve araç-gereçler sınıfın içinde yer almaktadır. Bu nedenle, eğitim yönetiminden istenilen sonuçların alınması, sınıf yönetiminin başarısına bağlıdır (Başar, 2013).

Günümüzde bir öğretmenin sahip olması gereken en önemli niteliklerden biri sınıf yönetimi alanında yeterli olmasıdır (Şentürk ve Oral, 2008). Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimine ilişkin güçlü bir yeterlilik algısına sahip olması, istenmeyen davranışlarla başa çıkmada, performanslarını artırmada ve yaptıkları işe karşı güdülenmelerini sağlamada ve stresi kontrol altına almayı öğretmede önemli bir etkiye sahiptir (Kushner, 1993).

Alanyazına göre, öğretmenin sınıf içinde sergilediği davranışlar öğrenci başarısını büyük ölçüde etkilemektedir (Morin, 2003; Marzano, Marzano ve Pickering 2003). Öğretmenin sergilediği sınıf yönetimi davranışlarının amacı, dersliğin öğrenciler için güvenli ve öğretimsel etkinlikler için uygun duruma getirmektir. Uygun öğrenme ortamında öğrenmenin sağlanması ve öğrenci başarısının artması beklenir. Öğretmenin sınıf yönetimi amacıyla sergilediği davranışlar, öğrenci başarısının belirleyicisi olduğuna göre, öğretmenin öğrenci başarısını artıracak davranışlar sergilemesi beklenir (Fenwick, 1998). Sınıf yönetimi büyük ölçüde, öğrencilerin kişisel ve psikolojik gereksinimlerine dayandırılmalıdır. Öğretmenler, iyi bir sınıf yönetimi sağlamak için öğrenci gereksinimlerini ve bu gereksinimlerle ilintili olan

davranışların ilişkisini anlamaları ve sınıfta öğrencilerin kişisel gereksinimlerini karşılayacak düzenlemeler yapmaları gerekir.

Bu bağlamda yapılan araştırma ortaokulda görev yapan öğretmenlerin, sınıflarında sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine ne düzeyde uyduklarının belirlenmesine çalışılmıştır. Bu amaçla yapılan çalışmada şu sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

- Öğrenci görüşlerine göre, öğretmenler, sınıflarında, sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine ne düzeyde uymaktadırlar?
- Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerine ilişkin öğrenci görüşleri arasında cinsiyet ve sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmakta mıdır?

YÖNTEM

Model

Bu araştırma nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden tarama modelinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Karasar'a (2010) göre, tarama modeli mevcut durumu olduğu gibi yansıtmaya çalışan, araştırmada incelenen birey veya nesneleri kendi koşulları içerisinde değerlendirmeye çalışan bir bilimsel araştırma türüdür. Büyüköztürk, Kılıç-Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz ve Demirel'e (2010) göre ise tarama modeli araştırmanın amacına uygunluğu, var olan durumu ortaya koyması, büyük örneklem üzerinde çalışma olanağı sunması, bir konuya ya da olaya ilişkin katılımcıların görüşleriyle ilgili fikirler vermesi gibi özellikleri nedeniyle kullanılan bir araştırma türü olarak tanımlanmaktadır

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılının ikinci yarısında Ankara ili Mamak İlçesinde bir okulda öğrenim gören 401 ortaokul öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunun seçiminde amaçlı örneklem yöntemlerinden kolay ulaşılabilir durum örnekleme kullanılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan ortaokul öğrencilerine ait demografik bilgiler tablo 1'de verilmiştir.

Bu öğretmen adaylarından 197'si kız (%49,1) ve 204'ü kadındır (%50,9). Çalışma grubunu oluşturan adayların 60'ı (%15) 5. sınıf öğrencisiyken 65'i (%16,2) 6., 156'sı (%38,9) 7. ve 120'si (%29,9) de 8. sınıf öğrencisidir.

Tablo 1: Çalışma grubuna ait demografik bilgiler

Değişkenler	Demografik Özellikler	Sayı (f)	Yüzde (%)
Cinsiyet	Kız	197	49,1
	Erkek	204	50,9
	Toplam	401	100
Sınıf Düzeyi	5	60	15,0
	6	65	16,2
	7	156	38,9
	8	120	29,9
	Toplam	401	100

Veri Toplama Aracı

Araştırmada veri toplamak amacıyla Gündüz ve Can (2013) tarafından geliştirilen 2 alt faktörden oluşan “*Öğretmenlerin Sınıf Yönetimi İlkelerine Uyma Düzeyi Belirleme Ölçeği*” kullanılmıştır. Kullanılan ölçek 33 maddeden oluşmuş olup tarafımızdan yapılan analiz neticesinde tüm ölçeğin Cronbach Alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı .91 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Öğretmen Öğrenci İlişisine Yönelik İlkeler Uyma Boyuna ait güvenilirlik .87 iken Eğitim Öğretime Yönelik İlkeler Uymaya ait güvenilirlik .80 olarak bulunmuştur.

Verilerin Analizi

Araştırma kapsamında öncelikle ölçekte yer alan demografik özelliklerin, frekans ve yüzdelik dağılımları bulunmuştur. Uygulama sonrasında elde edilen verilerin analizinde spss paket programı yardımıyla t testi, tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) teknikleri kullanılmıştır. Analizlerde hata payı .05 olarak alınmıştır.

BULGULAR VE YORUM

Araştırmaya katılan ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerine ilişkin dağılım Tablo 1’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 2: Ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimine yönelik ilkelere uyma düzeyleri

<i>Değişkenler</i>	$\bar{X}$	S
ÖÖİYİU	3.20	.69
EÖYİU	3.38	.58

ÖÖİYİU: Öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisine yönelik ilkelere uyma; EÖYİU: Eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma

Tablo 2 incelendiğinde, ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma boyutunda daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir ($\bar{X} = 3.38$).

Araştırmaya katılan ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin cinsiyet değişkenine göre farklılığı için yapılan t-testi sonuçları Tablo 3’de verilmiştir.

Tablo 3: Ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimine yönelik ilkelere uyma düzeylerinin cinsiyete göre t-testi sonuçları

<i>Değişkenler</i>	<i>Kız</i> (<i>n</i> = 197)		<i>Erkek</i> (<i>n</i> = 204)		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	$\bar{X}$	S	$\bar{X}$	S		
ÖÖİYİU	3.25	.73	3.14	.65	1.53	.13
EÖYİU	3.42	.60	3.34	.56	1.30	.19

Tablo 3 incelendiğinde, ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisine yönelik ilkelere uyma [$t(399) = 1.53, p > .05$] ve

eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma [$t(399) = 1.30, p > .05$] boyutlarında cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmadığı görülmektedir.

Araştırmaya katılan ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre farklılığı için yapılan tek yönlü ANOVA sonuçları Tablo 4'te verilmiştir.

Tablo 4: Ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimine yönelik ilkelere uyma düzeylerinin sınıf düzeyine göre ANOVA sonuçları

<i>Değişkenler</i>	<i>5. sınıf</i> (<i>n</i> = 60)		<i>6. sınıf</i> (<i>n</i> = 65)		<i>7. sınıf</i> (<i>n</i> = 156)		<i>8. sınıf</i> (<i>n</i> = 120)		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>	$\bar{X}$	<i>S</i>		
ÖÖİYIU	3.30	.63	3.09	.66	3.26	.69	3.12	.73	1.83	.14
EÖYIU	3.42	.59	2.27	.48	3.43	.59	3.35	.61	1.34	.26

Tablo 4 incelendiğinde, ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisine yönelik ilkelere uyma [$F(3, 397) = 1.83, p > .05$] ve eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma [$F(3, 397) = 1.34, p > .05$] boyutlarında sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmadığı görülmektedir.

SONUÇLAR

Ortaokullarda görev yapan öğretmenlerin, sınıflarında, sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla yapılan çalışmada araştırma bulgularına göre ortaokul öğrencilerinin görüşlerine göre öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma boyutunda daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir.

Ayrıca ortaokul öğrencilerinin görüşlerine göre öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisine yönelik ilkelere uyma ve eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere boyutlarında cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmadığı görülmektedir. Gündüz ve Can (2013) tarafından yapılan çalışmada da benzer sonuca ulaşılmıştır. İlk ve ortaöğretim okullarında görev yapan öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerine ilişkin öğrenci görüşleri arasında cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı farklılık bulunmamıştır. Benzer bir şekilde yapılmış birtakım çalışmalarda (Bolat, 2002; Yalçın, 2007) araştırmamızın bu bulgusunu destekler mahiyettedir.

Son olarak ortaokul öğrencilerinin sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uyma düzeylerinin öğretmen-öğrenci ilişkisine yönelik ilkelere uyma ve eğitim-öğretime yönelik ilkelere uyma boyutlarında sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre anlamlı bir biçimde farklılaşmadığı görülmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçlarından hareketle öğretmenler hem hizmet öncesinde hem de hizmet içinde verilen eğitim etkinlikleriyle sınıf yönetimi ve ilkeleri konusunda yeterli hale getirilmesi ve sınıf yönetimi ilkelerine uygun davranışlar göstermeleri konusunda ayrıca bir eğitime tabi tutulmaları gerekmektedir.

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Basın Özgürlüğü Konulu Çalışmaların Bibliyometrik Analizi¹⁷⁶

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ulusal ve uluslararası yazında basın özgürlüğü konusunda hazırlanan çalışmaların içerik ve yöntem bakımından incelenmesidir. Bu kapsamda Ulusal Tez Merkezi'ne kayıtlı 1990 ve 2018 yılları arasında yazılmış 42 lisansüstü tez; türleri, yılları, anabilim dalları, amacı, kapsamı ve bulguları bakımından incelenmiştir. Aynı zamanda Web of Science veri tabanında basın özgürlüğü konulu çalışmalar yılına, türüne ve içeriklerine göre çeşitli başlıklar altında sınıflandırılmıştır. Elde edilen bulgular doğrultusunda, basın özgürlüğü alanında hem ulusal hem de uluslararası yazında yapılan çalışmaların son yıllarda arttığı anlaşılmıştır. İletişim bilimlerinin temel çalışma konusu olan basın özgürlüğünün, hukuk ve siyaset gibi farklı sosyal bilimlerle birlikte disiplinlerarası bir şekilde ele alındığı gözlenmiştir. Aynı zamanda basın özgürlüğü konulu çalışmaların genellikle medya üzerindeki baskıyı ve sansürü vurgulamayı amaçladığı anlaşılmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Basın, Basın Özgürlüğü, Bibliyometrik Analiz.

Bibliometric Analysis of Studies Related to Freedom of the Press

The study aims to examine the content and methodology aspects of the studies on freedom of the press in the national and international literature. In this context, forty-two theses written between 1990 and 2018 and registered at the National Thesis Center of Turkey were examined according to type, year, department, purpose, scope and finding. At the same time, studies related to freedom of the press in the Web of Science database are classified under various headings such as year, type and content. Findings of the study show that the studies conducted in the field of freedom of the press both nationally and internationally have increased considerably in recent years. It has been observed that the concept of freedom of the press, which is one of the main topics of communication sciences, has been examined in an interdisciplinary manner with different social sciences such as law and politics. Additionally, it is determined that the studies on freedom of the press generally aim to reveal pressure and censorship on the media.

Keywords: Press, Freedom of the Press, Bibliometric Analysis.

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GİRİŞ

Dünyada otoriter rejimlerin tekrar güçlenmesi, kitle iletişim araçları üzerindeki devlet gözetiminin artması, basının tekelleşmesi ve ifade özgürlüğünün engellenmesine dair eleştiriler ve endişeler günden güne artmaktadır. Basının kamuoyunu oluşturma, iktidarın faaliyetlerini denetleme ve eleştirme görevi (Gezgin, 2006: 165) düşünüldüğünde, özgür ve tarafsız olmasının ne kadar mühim olduğu daha iyi anlaşılmaktadır. Günümüzde basın, kamuoyunu oluşturan ve insanların neyi nasıl düşüneceklerini etkileyen önemli bir unsurdur. Kamuoyunu inşa eden ve serbest düşünceyi de mümkün kılan bir araçtır (Atabek, 2002). Bu noktada basın tarafsız ve çok sesli faaliyet yürütmesi beklenilmektedir. Ancak ideal düşüncede yaratılmak istenen basın ile gerçek dünyadaki basın kurumu birbirini her zaman tam anlamıyla yansıtmamaktadır. Demokratik yönetim şekline sahip ülkelerde bile basının işleyişine dair aksaklıklar ve kimi ülkelerde özellikle ciddi sıkıntılar baş göstermektedir. Bu kapsamda Türkiye de basının özgürleşmesi sürecinde çetin bir savaş veren ülkelerin başında gelmektedir.

Sınır Tanımayan Gazeteciler Örgütü (Reporters Without Borders), fikir ve bilgi özgürlüğünü savunan bir sivil toplum kuruluşu olarak dünyanın tüm ülkelerindeki basın özgürlüğünü endekslediği yıllık bir rapor yayınlamaktadır. 2019 raporuna göre Türkiye 180 ülke arasından 157. sırada yer almaktadır. Aynı zamanda bu rapora göre yine Türkiye ortalama her yıl biraz daha basın özgürlüğünde gerilemekteyken, Kuzey Kore, Türkmenistan, İran gibi ülkelerle neredeyse benzer bir kategoride değerlendirilmektedir (RSF, 2019). Bir başka sivil kuruluş Freedom House yine ülkeler bazında basın araştırmaları yaparak yayınladığı Özgürlük ve Medya 2019 raporunda, Türkiye'yi basının durumu en kötü olan ülkeler arasında raporlanmıştır. Aynı raporda 2016 yılından bu yana 150 haber merkezinin kapatıldığı ve yüzlerce gazetecinin çeşitli suçlamalara maruz kaldığı vurgulanmıştır (Freedom House, 2019). Gazetecileri Koruma Komitesi (CPJ) ise dünya genelinde tutuklu gazetecilerin önemli bir kısmının Türkiye'de bulunduğunu ve basın ve iktidar arasında derin bir çatışmanın olduğunu dile getirmiştir (CPJ, 2018). Şüphesiz bu kuruluşlar Batı merkezli olup hazırladıkları raporların tarafsız olmadığı veya tam olarak doğruyu yansıtmadığı da iddia edilebilir. Ancak en azından dünyada Türkiye'nin basın özgürlüğü konusunda iyi bir itibarının olmadığını gözler önüne serebilmektedir.

Türkiye, Çin ve İran gibi basının devlet tarafından tam kontrol altına alındığı bir ülke değildir. Basın dördüncü bir kuvvet olarak toplum adına denetim faaliyetini yerine getirmeye ve çok sesliliği sağlamaya çalışmaktadır. Ancak Türkiye'de medya sahipliğinin son yıllarda önemli ölçüde el değiştirdiğine ve medyadaki muhalif görüşlerin susturulduğuna dair endişeler söz konusudur. Tam anlamıyla özgür basının olup olamayacağı ise ayrıca bir tartışma konusudur. Amerika gibi kendisini özgürlükler ülkesi olarak pazarlayan bir ülke de bile basının durumu mükemmellikten çok uzaktır (RWF, 2019). Horkheimer (2018) basının toplumu daha iyi bir noktaya ulaştırmak için değil, yeni ideolojilerin, yaşam tarzlarının ve düşüncelerin benimsetilmesi için kullanılan bir araç olduğunu dile getirmektedir. Dolayısıyla basının varlığı yönetim gücünü elinde bulunduralar tarafından kimi zaman tehdit, kimi zaman ise elde edilecek iyi bir propaganda unsuru olarak görülmektedir. Ancak yine de mümkün olan en yüksek seviyede basının tarafsız ve bağımsız olmasını sağlamak, daha adil ve eşitlikçi toplum yaratmak için bir gerekliliktir. Bu anlamda Türkiye'de basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı yapılmış bilimsel

araştırmaların dikkate değer olabileceği düşünülmüştür. Bu motivasyonla bu bildiride, mevcut duruma dair tespitler yapan lisansüstü tezlerin ulaştığı sonuçların nelere işaret ettiğinin anlaşılması amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Basın özgürlüğünün temel bir insan hakkı olması ve bu hakkın Türkiye’de zaman zaman ihlal edildiği eleştirileri göz önünde bulundurularak ve Türkiye’de basın kendi sorunlarının bizzat önemli bir gündem maddesi olması sebebiyle bu bildiride, Türkiye’de basın özgürlüğü konulu lisansüstü tezlerin bibliometrik analizinin yapılması amaçlanmıştır. Lisansüstü tezlerde konuyla alakalı olarak önemli bir sorun tespit edilip edilmediğinin anlaşılması da ayrıca amaçlanmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi

Araştırmada nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden bibliometrik analiz/içerik analizi tercih edilmiştir (Sarıhan ve Yıldız, 2018; Yıldız ve Tani, 2018). Ulusal Tez Merkezi’ne kayıtlı 1990 ve 2018 yılları arasında yazılmış 42 lisansüstü tez; türleri, yılları, anabilim dalları, amacı, kapsamı ve bulguları bakımından incelenmiştir. Aynı zamanda Web of Science veri tabanında basın özgürlüğü konulu çalışmalar yılına, türüne ve içeriklerine göre çeşitli başlıklar altında sınıflandırılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları

Ulusal Tez Merkezi’nin gelişmiş tarama bölümünden “basın özgürlüğü” anahtar kelimesi kullanılarak, veri tabanı içerisindeki mevcut tezlerin başlığında, özetinde ve tam içeriğinde basın özgürlüğü (İngilizcesi freedom of the press) konusunu ele alan 42 lisansüstü teze ait içerik analizi bulguları aşağıda açıklanacaktır.

Tablo 1: Türlerine göre

Tez Türü	Tez Sayısı
Yüksek Lisans	35
Doktora	7
Toplam	42

Toplamda 42 lisansüstü tezin 35’i yüksek lisans düzeyindeyken, 7’si doktora düzeyinde yazılmıştır. Aradaki fark oldukça fazla olmakla birlikte, genel olarak yüksek lisans tezlerinin sayısının doktora tezlerinden daha fazla olmasından dolayı bu sonuç beklenilmekteydi. Ancak aradaki farkın oldukça yüksek olması ve basın özgürlüğü gibi Türkiye’nin önemli bir sorunu ile alakalı daha fazla sayıda lisansüstü tezin yazılmış olması da beklenebilirdi.

Tablo 2: Yıllarına göre

Tez Yılı	Tez Sayısı	Tez Yılı	Tez Sayısı
1990	1	2008	2
1991	1	2009	1
1995	2	2010	2
1996	1	2011	4
1998	2	2012	3
2000	1	2013	1
2002	2	2014	6
2004	2	2015	1
2005	1	2016	4
2007	2	2018	4

Basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı ilk lisansüstü tez 1990 yılında yazılmış olmakla birlikte, yıllık anlamlı bir artış gözlenmemektedir. Örneğin 2014 yılında toplam 6 tez yazılırken, 2017 yılında hiç tez yazılmamıştır. Bu nedenle yazılan tez sayısında anlamlı bir artış veya azalışın bahsetmek mümkün değildir. Lisansüstü düzeyinde çok çalışılan bir konu olmadığını söylemek mümkün olsa da tez sayısının yıllar içerisinde bir birikime ulaştığı da gözden kaçırılmamalıdır.

Tablo 3: Bilim dallarına göre

Bilim Dalı	Tez Sayısı
İletişim Bilimleri	22
Hukuk	16
Siyasal Bilimler	2
Uluslararası İlişkiler	1
Görsel Sanatlar	1

Basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı olarak en fazla tez iletişim bilimlerinde yazılmış olup hukuk, siyasal bilimler, uluslararası ilişkiler ve görsel sanatlar alanlarında da tezler yazılmıştır. Basın ve medya çalışmaları İletişim Fakülteleri'nde okutulduğu için en fazla iletişim bilimlerinde çalışılması anlamlı bir sonuçtur. Hukuk alanı ise basını kamu hukuku içerisinde ele aldığı için yine disiplinlerarası bir konu olarak çalışıldığı söylenebilmektedir.

Tablo 4: İletişim bilimleri Anabilim Dallarına göre

Anabilim Dalı	Tez Sayısı
Gazetecilik	19
Halkla İlişkiler	2
Radyo ve Televizyon	1

İletişim bilimine bağlı anabilim dalları arasında yapılan sınıflandırmaya göre açık ara bir farkla basın özgürlüğü konusunu Gazetecilik çalışmaktadır. Basının durumunun radyo, televizyon, kamuoyu veya algı yönetimi bağlamlarında halkla ilişkiler ve radyo ve televizyon

anabilim dalları ile yakından ilgili olduğu düşünüldüğünde, her iki anabilim dalının konuyu Gazeteciliğin bir çalışma alanı olarak gördüğü düşünülmektedir.

Tablo 5: Yazılan tezlerin konu bağlamlarına göre

Konu Bağlamı	Tez Sayısı
Türkiye’deki basın özgürlüğü ile ilgili sorunlar, mevcut durum, anayasal düzenlemeler	24
Kavramsal çalışmalar, genel	7
Dünyadaki mevcut durum	5
Kişilik hakları bağlamında	3
İnternet	2
Özel hayata müdahale ve basın özgürlüğü	1

Basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı tezler altı farklı bağlamda toplanmıştır. Buna göre Türkiye’deki mevcut sorunları ve bu sorunları gidermek amacıyla yapılan anayasal düzenlemeleri inceleyen tezler yoğunluktadır. Diğer bir ifade ile tezlerin büyük bir çoğunluğu basın alanındaki yasal düzenlemeleri konu edinmiştir. Öte yandan sadece basın özgürlüğünü kavramsal açıdan ele alan tezler de mevcuttur. İnternet ve yeni iletişim teknolojilerinin enformasyon sektöründe önemli bir değişim yaratmasına rağmen, internetin basınla ilişkisini ele alan yalnızca iki tez yazılmıştır.

Tablo 6: Kullandıkları yöntemlere göre

Yöntem	Tez Sayısı	Yöntemin Türü
İçerik çözümlemesi	17	Nitel
Kavramsal tartışma/Literatür taraması	12	Nitel
Mülakat	3	Nitel
Örnek vaka analizi	1	Nitel

Lisansüstü tezlerin tamamında nitel yöntemler tercih edilmiş olup nicel yöntemlerle yazılan herhangi bir teze rastlanmamıştır. Nitel yöntemlerden ise içerik çözümlemesi en fazla tercih edilmiş olup özellikle hukuk alanında yapılan düzenlemeler çözümlenmeye çalışılmıştır. İçerisinde herhangi bir araştırma bulunmayan 12 tez ise sadece kavramsal tartışma yapmakla yetinmiştir. Saha araştırması yapan 3 tez ise alandaki uzman kişilerle yüz yüze mülakat gerçekleştirmiştir. Örnek vaka analizi yapan bir tez de ise basın özgürlüğü ile ilişkilendirilen bir olay çözümlenmiştir.

Tablo 7: Ulaştıkları sonuçlara göre

Yazar	Tarih	Sonuç
Avcı, Kemal	1998	Basın kuruluşları sermayedelerin elinde olduğu için tekelleşmektedir. Türkiye’de değişen her iktidara rağmen basın değişen iktidarın ideolojisinin yanında yer almıştır. Basın hep Ankara merkezli hareket etmiştir.
Temiz, Özgür	2007	Türkiye kabul ettiği uluslararası sözleşmeler ve kendi anayasasınca yüklenmiş olduğu tekelleşmenin önüne geçilmesi ve kanunlara uygun sınırlandırmalar getirilmesi ilkesine uymadığı tespit edilmiştir.
Salihpaşaoğlu, Yaşar	2007	Basın özgürlükleri koruyan, haksızlıklar karşısında duran ve haksızlık yolsuzluk yapanları deşifre eden özelliğini yitirmiş yeni sahiplerinin menfaatleri ve ilişkileri doğrultusunda çalışan istediği haksızlığı gören, istediğini örten bir silâh haline dönüşmüştür.
Yılmaz Avcı, Kübra	2014	Türk anayasalarında basın özgürlüğü ile ilgili yasal mevzuatta birçok açıdan olumlu düzenlemeler yapılmıştır. Basın özgürlüğü anayasal güvence altına alınmıştır. Ancak uygulamada devleti koruma ve devlet ideolojisine aykırı olan ifadeleri cezalandırma düşüncesi hâkimdir.
Vardal, Z. Burcu	2014	Ülkemizde kanun maddeleri sıklıkla değiştirilmekte ve AİHS’ye uygun hale getirilmeye çalışılmaktadır. Ancak bu çabaların basına karşı açılan davaların veya tutuklu gazetecilerin sayısında herhangi bir iyileşme göstermediği açıktır.

Tablo 7’de beş tezin ulaştığı sonuçlar örnek olarak ele alınmıştır. Tezlerin büyük bir kısmında (kavramsal tartışmayla yetinenler dışında) Türkiye’de basın özgürlüğünün olmadığı veya iyi durumda olduğuna dair çıkarım yapılmamıştır. Aksine yukarıdaki beş tezin sonucunda da görüldüğü üzere anayasal düzenlemelerin oldukça başarılı bir şekilde yapılmasına rağmen, uygulamada sıkıntıların yaşandığı dile getirilmiştir. Tezlerin ulaştıkları sonuçlar oldukça önemlidir, çünkü derinlemesine araştırma sonucunda yazılan lisansüstü tezler, Türkiye’de basın özgürlüğü anlamında iyileştirme çalışmalarının yapılması gerektiğini ve günlük hayattaki uygulamaların çeşitli hak ihlallerini doğurabildiğini göstermektedir. Bu tezlerin eksiklikleri mutlaka göz önünde bulundurulmakla birlikte, yine de sonuçları bir gösterge olarak değerlendirilebilir.

Aynı zamanda bu çalışma kapsamında Web of Science veritabanından basın özgürlüğü anahtar kelimesi altında toplam kaç çalışma olduğu, bu çalışmaların hangi alanlarda yapıldığı, hangi yılda yazıldığı ve hangi ülkelerde en çok çalışıldığı da incelenmiştir. Konunun dünyada ne kadar ele alındığı ve çalışıldığı anlaşılmaya çalışılmıştır. Ancak bu bildiride lisansüstü tezler incelendiği için doğrudan bir karşılaştırma yapmak doğru sonuç vermeyecektir. Bu nedenle sadece basın özgürlüğü konusunun dünyada ne kadar çalışılmaya değer görüldüğü ile ilgili bir saptama yapmakla yetinilmesi doğru görülmüştür.

Tablo 8: Basın özgürlüğünü çalışan alanlar

Alan türü	Çalışma Sayısı
İletişim	146
Tarih	97
Siyaset Bilimi	86
İnsan Bilimleri	77
Hukuk	58
Ekonomi	18
Sosyal Sorunlar	17
Uluslararası İlişkiler	15
Sosyoloji	11
Diğer	219

Tablo 9: Yıllara göre dağılım

Yıl	Sayı
2019	16
2018	23
2017	31
2016	25
2015	26
1975	1

Basın özgürlüğünü Türkiye’deki gibi en çok iletişim alanı çalışmakla birlikte; tarih, siyaset, hukuk ve sosyoloji gibi çok geniş yelpazede pek çok alan çalışma konusu etmektedir. Şüphesiz bu alanların her biri konuyu farklı açılardan ve bağlamlardan ele almakta, bu durum ise konunun pek çok yönden anlaşılmasına olanak tanımaktadır. Basın özgürlüğü disiplinlerarası bir konudur. Yıllara göre dağılımda yine anlamlı bir sonuca ulaşılamasa da her yıl pek çok çalışmanın yayınlandığı anlaşılmaktadır.

Tablo 10: En çok çalışan ülkeler

Ülke	Sayı
Amerika	207
İngiltere	25
Almanya	16
Avustralya	15
Çin	14
Kanada	13
İspanya	13
İsveç	7
İtalya	6
Türkiye	4

Tablo 11: Çalışma türü

Çalışma Türü	Çalışma Sayısı
Makale	320
Kitap değerlendirme	158
Kitap bölümü	58
Editör yazıları	41
Tam metin bildiri	19
Kitap	3

Basın özgürlüğü alanında en çok Amerika çalışma yapmış olup diğer ülkeler ile arasında oldukça fark yer almaktadır. Bununla birlikte pek çok Batı ülkesinde konuyla alakalı çalışmaların yer aldığı anlaşılmış ve Türkiye’den sadece 4 araştırmaya ulaşılmıştır. Şüphesiz ifade özgürlüğü gibi yan konularla ilişkilendirilerek bir arama yapılsaydı Türkiye’den de yapılan çalışmaların sayısı artabilirdi. Ancak sadece basın özgürlüğü anahtar kelimesi ile daha dar bir araştırma yapılması tercih edilmiştir. Basın özgürlüğü konulu çalışmaların ise en çok makale türünde yazıldığı anlaşılmaktadır. Tek başına kitap çalışmasının ise oldukça sınırlı sayıda kaldığı gözlenmektedir. Ancak akademik yazında basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı olarak çok büyük bir literatür bulunmakta ve hem ulusal hem de uluslararası boyutta çok sayıda kitap

yazılmaktadır. Bu kitapların ve geniş literatürün tamamının Web Of Science’de taranmadığı düşünüldüğünde, kesin ve genel saptamalar yapmak zor olmaktadır.

SONUÇ

Basın özgürlüğü ile alakalı olarak Türkiye’de yazılan tezlerin sayısı oldukça sınırlı kalmıştır. Aynı zamanda tezlerde yöntem olarak nitel yöntemlerden içerik analizi ağırlık basmakta ve nicel yöntemlere ise hiç yer verilmemiştir. 12 tez sadece kavramsal olarak açıklamalar yaparak literatür derlemesi şeklinde tamamlanmıştır. Dolayısıyla bu tezlerin içerisinde mevcut duruma ve sorunlara ilişkin herhangi bir veri bulunmamaktadır. Basın özgürlüğü ile ilgili halkın algısını ölçen çalışmalara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Yine basın sahipliğinin Türkiye’de nasıl değiştiği ve şekillendiği ile alakalı tezler de ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.

Tezlerin en önemli bulgusu basının özgürlüğüne dair Türkiye’de anayasal düzenlemelerin oldukça başarılı bir şekilde yapılmasına rağmen, uygulamada aynı başarının gösterilemediğinin vurgulanmasıdır. Dolayısıyla bundan sonraki çalışmalarda medya kuruluşlarında çalışan gazeteci, editör veya diğer çalışanların ne gibi sorunlarla yüzleştikleri ve bu sorunların nelerden kaynaklandığının araştırılmasına öncelik verilmelidir. Uluslararası kuruluşların Türkiye için yayınladıkları basın özgürlüğü raporlarının geçerliliğini inceleyen tezler de yine faydalı olabilecektir.

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Evanjelist Teolojinin Orta Doğu'daki Krizlere Etkisi

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ÖZET

Ortadoğu coğrafyası stratejik önemi, üç semavi dinin merkezi olması ve çok kültürlü yapısıyla tarihin kaydettiği en önemli bölgelerden birisidir. Bu yönleriyle, Ortadoğu her tarihsel dönemde dünyanın tamamını ilgilendiren bir coğrafya olmuştur. Öyleki bu bölge, tarih boyunca krizlerin, çekişmelerin ve mücadelelerin hep var olduğu bir alan olmuştur. Göstergeler de bu durumun artarak devam edeceği yönündedir. Bu çalışma Evanjelist teolojinin Ortadoğu'daki krizlere etkisini tartışmaktadır. Çalışmanın üç aşaması bulunmaktadır. Birinci adımda, Evanjelizm kavramı açıklanmaktadır. İkinci adımda, Evanjelizmin tarihi seyri ve stratejisi ortaya konulmaya çalışılmaktadır. Üçüncü ve son adımda ise Evanjelistlerin inançları çerçevesinde bölgenin geleceğini yeniden şekillendirirken ortaya koydukları stratejileri ve bunun yansımaları üzerinde durulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Evanjelist Teoloji, Ortadoğu, Kriz.

The Effect of Evangelist Theology on the Crises in the Middle East

ABSTRACT

The Middle East is one of the most important regions of history with its strategic importance, being the center of three heavenly religions and its multicultural structure. With these aspects, the Middle East has been a geography that concerns the whole world in every historical period. In fact, this region has been an area where crises, conflicts and struggles have existed throughout history. Indicators indicate that this situation will continue increasingly. This paper discusses the effect of Evangelist theology on the crises in the Middle East. This study has three stages. In the first step, the concept of Evangelicalism is explained. In the second step, the historical course and strategy of Evangelicalism is tried to be put forward. The third and final step, focuses on the strategies and reflections of the evangelicals' beliefs in reshaping the future of the region.

Keywords: Evangelist Theology, Middle East, crisis.

GİRİŞ

Ortadoğu coğrafyası mücadelelerin, krizlerin, kaosların, terörün ve vekalet savaşlarının eksik olmadığı dünyanın en stratejik bölgelerinden biridir. Bu coğrafyayı önemli kılan etmenlerin başında ise Ortadoğu'nun üç semavi dinin merkezi olmasının yanı sıra çok kültürlü bir yapıya ve yeraltı kaynakları bakımından çok zengin bir potansiyele sahip olması gelmektedir. İnsanlık tarihi açısından Ortadoğu gerek dinlerin beşiği olması ve bu dinlerin kutsal sembollerini içeren beldelere ev sahipliği yapması ve gerekse de jeopolitik değeri açısından hiçbir zaman önemini kaybetmemektedir.

Ortadoğu coğrafyası sahip olduğu bu özellikleriyle her tarihsel dönemde dünyanın tamamını ilgilendiren bir coğrafya olmuştur. Bu sebeple bölge, tarih boyunca krizlerin, çekişmelerin ve mücadelelerin hep var olduğu bir alan olmuştur. Göstergeler de bu durumun artarak devam edeceğini işaret etmektedir.

Tarihte meydana gelen savaşlara bakıldığında güvenlik, toprak kaygısı, zenginleşme, denizlere açılma, sömürme, savunma vb. pek çok sebep zikretmek mümkündür. Ancak savaşan tarafları buna iten en önemli etmenlerden birinin din ve kutsalları olduğunu unutmamak gerekir. Bu açıdan tarih dini inanç ve kutsal semboller uğruna yapılan savaşlarla ve bunların getirdiği yıkımlarla doludur. Ortadoğu coğrafyası da insanların kendilerince kutsal saydıkları sembollerle dolu bir bölgedir. Bu yüzden tarih boyunca Ortadoğu'da bu kutsal semboller uğruna farklı din mensupları arasında pek çok savaş çıkmıştır. Bölgede yaşayan farklı din bağlularının yüzyıllardır zihinlerinde oluşturdukları kutsal sembollerin başında Kudüs gelmektedir. Bu nedenle Kudüs sadece Ortadoğu kökenli üç evrensel dinin en önemli kutsal beldelerinden biri değil aynı zamanda bölgesel bunalımın etkisinin küresellik kazandığı bir merkezdir.

Tarihte Ortadoğu'ya ve özellikle Kudüs'e sahip olmak amaçlı yapılan haclı seferlerinden sonra 1990-1991 Körfez savaşıyla başlayan ve 2003'te Irak'ın işgaliyle devam eden savaşlara topyekun bakıldığında, Ortadoğu bölgesinin farklı çıkar hesaplarıyla hareket eden küresel güçlerin bir oyun sahası olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Bunun bir göstergesi olarak başta ABD olmak üzere müttefiklerinin Ortadoğu'ya demokrasi, özgürlük, insan hakları vb. kavramları götürmek adına meşrulaştırmaya çalıştıkları bir işgal girişimi söz konusudur. Bu işgalin arkasında ise demokrasi ve özgürlük götürme gibi iddiaların tam aksine başta petrol olmak üzere bölgedeki yeraltı kaynaklarını sömürme, kendi ekonomik ve siyasi çıkarlarını sürdürme olduğu konusunda herkeste tam bir mutabakat vardır. Zira bölgede artarak devam eden krizin ve kaosun insanlara özgürlük, demokrasi ve olmayan insan haklarını getirmediği çok açıktır.

Bu nedenle bölgeye demokrasi götürmek adına binlerce insanın öldürüldüğü ve öldürülmeye devam edildiği, milyonlarca insanın yurtsuz kaldığı ve kalmaya devam ettiği ve milyonlarcasının da mülteci durumuna düşürüldüğü bir Ortadoğu savaşını tamamen ekonomik ve siyasi çıkarlara bağlamak pek inandırıcı değildir. İşin temeline inildiğinde eksik kalan tarafların olduğu hissedilmektedir. Çünkü Ortadoğu'da yaşayanlar ABD ve müttefiklerinin vaat ettiği demokrasi, özgürlük gibi kavramları çoktan unutmuş ve eski günlerini mumla arar hale

gelmiştir. Dolayısıyla Ortadoğu'da yaşanan mücadelenin, krizin ve kaosu sebebi olarak görülen ve gösterilen saikler ikna edici özelliğini kaybetmektedir.

Yukarıda dile getirildiği gibi Ortadoğu'nun üç semavi dinin merkezi olmasının yanı sıra bu üç dinin kutsal mabet ve sembollerine ev sahipliği yapması ve özellikle kadim Yahudilik ve Hristiyanlık inançları doğrultusunda yeniden şekillendirilmeye çalışılması, bölgede süren mücadele, kriz ve kaosu bu açıdan değerlendirilmesi gerektiğinin emarelerini taşımaktadır. Bu gerçek, yöneticilerin yaptıkları açıklamaların satır araları iyi okunduğunda karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

ABD Başkanı George W. Bush'un Irak işgalini “Bu bir Haçlı seferidir” diyerek tavsif etmesi ve gerçek niyetini belli etmesi (Çetin, 2014, s. 2), ABD ve İsrail'in Ortadoğu'da savaş, kriz ve kaos çıkarma istemelerinin gerçek nedenlerinden birinin ve belki de en önemlisinin din ve kutsalları adına olduğu aşıkardır.

Bu çerçevede Ortadoğu'yu kendi inanç ve kutsalları doğrultusunda şekillendirmek isteyen en önemli dini gruplardan birisi de Evanjelistlerdir. Bu çalışma Evanjelist teolojinin Ortadoğu'daki krizlere etkisini tartışmaktadır. Çalışmanın üç aşaması bulunmaktadır. Birinci adımda, Evanjelizm kavramı açıklanmaktadır. İkinci adımda, Evanjelizmin tarihi seyri, stratejisi ve ABD'deki siyaset üzerindeki etkisi ortaya konulmaya çalışılmaktadır. Üçüncü ve son adımda ise Evanjelistlerin inançları çerçevesinde bölgenin geleceğini adım adım yeniden şekillendirirken ortaya koydukları stratejiler, öngörüler ve bunun yansımaları üzerinde durulmaktadır.

Evanjelizm Kavramı

Evanjelizm, “İncilcilik” demektir. İncil kelimesi Türkçe'ye Aramice (Süryanice) “engilyun” kelimesinden geçmiştir. Onlar da bu kelimeyi Habeşçe yoluyla Eski Yunanca “euangēlion” kelimesinden almışlardır. Bu kelime Yunanca'da “iyi haber, müjde, asıl haber” anlamlarına gelmektedir. İsa'nın gerçek öğretisi anlamına da gelen Evanjelizm, 1520'lerde Reformist yazarlar arasında yaşanan polemiklerde “évangelique” ve “evangelisch” şeklinde kullanılmaktaydı. Evanjelist'in günümüzdeki tam karşılığı ise “İncili yayan”dır (Öcal, 2018; Bedir, 2013, s. 74).

Evanjelik kelimesi bir takım yeni-ortodoks (neo-ortodoks) teologlara göre Kutsal Kitaba inanan (gospel believer) anlamında kullanılmaktadır. Daha yaygın anlamıyla Evanjelik kavramı 18. yüzyıldan 19. yüzyılın başlarına kadar başta Britanya ve ABD olmak üzere İngilizce konuşulan birçok bölgede şekillenen farklı hareketlerin genel ismi olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır (Bedir, 2013, s.75).

Tüm bu açıklamalardan hareketle Evanjelizmin asıl ilham kaynağının elbette ki İncil olduğu şüphe götürmez bir gerçekliktir. Bir başka ifadeyle İncil'i oluşturan kitaplardır. Bunlar; Matta, Markos, Luka ve Yuhanna tarafından yazılmış dört kitaptır. Hristiyanlıkta Matta, Markos, Luka ve Yuhanna İncilleri kanonik inciller olarak kabul edilir ve bunların ilahi etki ile

yazıldıklarına inanılır. Bu nedenle Hristiyan otoritelerince kabul edilip doğrulanmış İncil'lerin her birine “Evanjel” denmektedir.

Kavramın İngilizce'de kullanım şekline bakıldığında Euangelion kelimesinin İngilizce'ye ‘İncil’ şeklinde geçtiği ve bu anlamda kullanıldığı bilinmektedir. Bu nedenle Euangelizein, euangelizesthai kelimeleri de ‘İncil’i vazetmek’ şeklinde tercüme edilmektedir. 1920’lerden 1960’lara kadar kavramın bu şekildeki kullanım seyri yaygın bir şekilde sürmüştür. Daha sonraları kavram 1970’lerden itibaren Ekümenik ve Evanjelik Protestan çevrelerle Katolik çevrelerde yaygın olarak kullanılmaya başlanmıştır. Bu bakımdan Evanjelizm kavramı, İncil’in öğretilerini yayma faaliyetleri veya bu faaliyetler üzerine teolojik düşünceler anlamlarında kullanılmaktadır. Buna karşın Evanjelizasyon kavramı ise İncil’i yayma süreci veya İncil’i yayma alanını daha da genişletme şeklinde kabul görmektedir (Bedir, 2013, s.75).

Hangi kültürde ne şekilde kullanılırsa kullanılsın kavram mutlaka İncil ile ilişkilendirilmektedir. Bu açıdan genel anlamıyla Evanjelizm kavramının İncil’ler hakkında vaaz vermek anlamında kullanıldığı görmekteyiz. Verilen vaazlar da Hz. İsa üzerinde yoğunlaşmakta ve asıl amaç Hristiyan olmayanları bu dine davet etmektir. Bugün Yeni Ahit dediğimiz İncil’i oluşturan dört ayrı kitaba verilen İngilizce genel isim “gospel”dir. Gospel kelimesi de Eski İngilizce “god spel” yani “Tanrı’dan gelen güzel haberler” anlamına gelmektedir ki bu da eski Yunanca euangelion kelimesinin doğrudan tercümesidir (Öcal, 2018; Bedir, 2013, s. 75).

Evanjelizmin Tarihi Seyri ve Stratejisi

Protestan Hristiyanlık, 16. yüzyılda Katolik kilisesini protesto ederek Avrupa’nın dinsel ve sosyo- ekonomik algısına yeni bir yön vermiştir. Protestanlık katı Katolik anlayışa getirdiği sert eleştirilerle Hristiyan dünyasında yeni bir çığır açmış ve daha özgürlükçü bir anlayış doğurmuştur. Kutsal Kitap merkezli Protestan bir hareket olan Evanjelizm de Protestan reform hareketinden sonra ortaya çıkmıştır.

Evanjelizm adını ilk kullanan kişi ise Reform hareketinin lideri Martin Luther’dir. Luther’in Evanjelizmin doğuşuna katkısı ise kutsal kitap hakkındaki görüşleriyle ortaya çıkmıştır (Yaylar, 2011, s. 8; Geçici, 2007, s. 145; Kılıç, 2008, s. 75). Luther bu kelimeyi, kurduğu Evanjelist kilisesi hareketi için kullandığı bilinmektedir. Luthere göre Katolik kilisesi İncil ve Hz İsa’dan uzaklaşmış ve kendisini tam anlamıyla batıl inançların girdabına kaptırmıştır. Bu açıdan Evanjelizm "Kutsal kitaba yönelmek” anlamında kullanılmaktadır. Fakat burada Kutsal kitaptan kastedilen yalnızca İncil değildir. İncil ile beraber aynı zamanda Eski Ahit denilen Tevrat ve onunla birlikte Zebur, öteki adıyla Mezmurlar da kastedilmektedir (Yaşaraoğlu, 2018).

Günümüzde Evanjelizmin en büyük merkezlerinden biri kuşkusuz ki ABD’dir. Evanjelizmin ABD’ye yerleşmesinde çeşitli etmenlerin rolü olmuştur. Bu etmenlerin başında Evanjelizmin Avrupa’da kök salmasını sağlayan Avrupalı Protestan misyonerlerin Amerika’ya göç etmesi gelmektedir. Bu göçlerin sonucunda Evanjelizm ABD’ye kadar uzanmış ve bu kıtada dal budak salarak yerleşmeye başlamıştır. Bir diğer etmen sömürgeciliktir. Özellikle 18.

yüzyıldan itibaren sömürgecilik faaliyetlerinin artması Evanjelizmin Amerika kıtasına geçmesini sağlamıştır. Ayrıca İngiltere’de Anglikan bir papaz olan John Nelson Darby’nin 1870’lerden itibaren ABD’ye yaptığı seferlerin katkısını da unutmamak gerekir. Bu seferlerden sonra Evanjelik düşünce ABD’de hız kazanmaya başlamıştır (Vural, 2003, s. 10).

Evanjelizmin Amerika’daki temellerinin atılmasında ise üç ismin rolü büyüktür. Bunlar İngiliz George Whitefield (1715-1770), Methodizm’in kurucusu John Wesley (1703-1791) ve Amerikalı filozof ve teolog Jonathan Edwards (1703-1785)’tir. Bu üç isim Amerika’daki en büyük Protestan mezhebi olan Baptistlerin ve Metodistlerin oluşumunun temel taşlarını atmıştır (Bedir, 2013, s. 81-82).

ABD’de 1820’lerde genelde Hristiyanlık inancı için kullanılan Evanjelizm 19. yüzyıldan itibaren iki ayrı koldan ilerlemeye başlamıştır. Evanjelizm ilk olarak Charles G. Finney ile Amerikan halkının dönüşümünün sağlanması ile devrimcilik anlamı kazanmıştır. Bugünkü Evanjelizm ise Amerika’daki Hristiyan toplumunun tutucu kanadını temsil etmektedir.

Diğer taraftan John Nelson Darby Plymouth Kardeşliği hareketini kurmuş ve radikal bir dini yorumu temsil etmeye başlamıştır. Bu hareketle Darbyistler kendilerini “Hristiyan siyonistler” olarak adlandırmaya başlamıştır. Bu adlandırmanın temel nedeni Kitab-ı Mukaddes’i ele alış tarzlarından kaynaklanmaktadır. Yahudilerin Filistin topraklarında İsrail’in kurulmasını savundukları gibi Darbyistler de aynı şeyi onlardan daha ateşli bir şekilde savunmaktadırlar. Çünkü dispensalizm inancına göre Mesih’in dünyaya yeniden gelmesi için bazı şartlar vardır ve bu inanca göre Tanrı, dünya hayatını yedi bölüme ayırmıştır Bunlar: 1. Yahudilerin Filistin’e geri dönmeleri ve kendilerine ait toprağı olan bir devlet kurmaları, 2. Kudüs’ün başkent yapılması, 3. Mescid-i Aksa’nın yıkılıp yerine Süleyman tapınağının inşa edilmesi, 4. Tüm insanlara İncil’in vaaz edilmesi, 5. Tribölasyon: Yahudiler ve iman edenlerin eziyet görmesi, 6. Armagedon savaşı, 7. İnananların (Hristiyanların) semaya yükseltilmesi (Vural, 2003, s. 29). Darby, önderlik ettiği bu akıma muafiyetçilik akımı ismini vermiş ve kurmuş olduğu Plymouth Kardeşliği Hareketi için ülkeyi şehir-şehir, kasaba- kasaba, karış karış gezmiş ve etkileyici vaazlar vererek bir hayli mürit toplamayı başarmıştır. Bu sayede Darby’nin “Tanrı, Tanrı’nın Krallığı’nı temsil eden insanlara imtiyaz vermiştir ve İsrail Kitab-ı Mukaddes’in Kıyamet zamanında önemli rol oynayacaktır öğretisi” geniş kitlelerce benimsenmiştir (Yaşaroğlu, 2018).

ABD’de Evanjelistlerin Siyasete Yön Vermesi

Avrupa’dan ABD’ye gelen Evanjelizm, zamanla ABD’de aynı kökten beslenen farklı kollara ayrılmış ve oldukça geniş bir alana yayılmıştır. Aynı zamanda Amerika’nın bir ulus olarak yükselmesinde önemli etkilere sahip olan Amerikan Evanjelizmi, kendi içerisinde önemli ayrılık hareketleri yaşamış ve çeşitli tepkilere ve eleştirilere göğüs germek zorunda kalmıştır.

Günümüzde Evanjelizmin, Amerika'daki Hristiyan toplumunun en tutucu ve radikal dinci kanadını oluşturduğu, hatta kapitalizmin gizli dininin Evanjelizm olduğu ve diğer ezoterik ve masonik yapıların bu dinin mezhepleri konumunda bulunduğu iddia edilmektedir.

Din, Amerikan siyasi hayatına yalnızca Evanjelik ve fundamentalist cemaatlerin etkileriyle girmemiş bilakis Amerika'nın politik geçmişi din ile her zaman iç içe olmuştur. Gerçekte Batı uluslarının birçoğu da kiliseler tarafından kurulmuş ve din bu ulusların ayrılmaz birer parçası olmuştur. Bu bağlamda koloni dönemi Amerikan siyasi tarihine baktığımızda, genel olarak Katolik ve Protestanlar arasında geçen siyasi bir çekişmenin baş gösterdiğini görürüz. Bu dönemde iki kesim arasındaki çekişmeler bazen Demokratların safında, bazen de Cumhuriyetçilerin safında yer alma uğruna meydana gelen hadiselerle şahitlik etmiştir (Bedir, 2013, s. 92). ABD siyasetinde hatırı sayılır bir gücü olan Evanjelikler 1970'lere kadar önemli ölçüde Demokratlara destek vermişler ancak bu tarihten sonra desteklerini Cumhuriyetçilerden yana kaydırmaya başlamışlardır (Vural, 2003, s. 10).

ABD'de 1970'lerden itibaren suç oranlarının ve ahlaki yozlaşmaların artması, İncil'i Tanrı'nın doğrudan ve yanılmaz buyruğu olarak gören büyük muhafazakar Hristiyan yapılanmaları tedirgin etmeye başlamış, bu bağlamda muhafazakar Protestanlık içerisinde The New Christian Right oluşumu ortaya çıkmış ve etkili toplumsal yapısı nedeniyle kısa zamanda yayılmıştır. Bu hareketin toplumsal tabanda hızla yayılmasında ve örgütlenmesinde medyaya malolmuş ünlü Evanjelistlerin olması ve bu televizyon fenomenlerinin ahlak ve siyaset konularındaki görüşlerinin payı büyüktür. Bu kişiler çok sayıda izleyiciyi kendilerine çekmeyi başarmakta zorlanmamışlardır. Bununla birlikte Baptist vaiz Jerry Falwell tarafından Haziran 1979 yılında örgütlenen ve 1980 yılında ulusal çapta 400.000 üyesi olduğunu ve 48 eyalette politik kurullarda yer aldıklarını açıklayan Evanjelik Moral Majority grubu da dini bir cemaat olarak siyasi arenada etkili olmaya başlamıştır. Pat Robertson ise 1990'larda Cumhuriyetçi Parti içinde etkili bir güç haline gelen Hristiyan Koalisyonu adında bir örgüt kurmuştur. Bunun arkasından E. E. McAteer Memphis, Tennessee'de Religious Roundtable adıyla bir örgüt kurmuştur. Moral Majority, Christian Voice ve The National Federation for Decency gibi Hristiyan sağ örgütler de geniş seçim bölgelerinde ötenazi, kürtaj, homoseksüellik, pornografi, cinsellik eğitimi gibi konular etrafında birlikte hareket ettikleri propaganda faaliyetleri yürütmüşlerdir (Bedir, 2013, s. 93).

Amerikan siyasi arenasındaki etkinlikleriyle ön plana çıkan başta Evanjelistler olmak üzere çeşitli dinsel örgütlenmeler, ABD'deki başkanlık seçimlerine müdahil olmuşlar ve nüfuzlarını kullanarak seçmenleri etkileme yönünde çalışmalar yapmışlardır. Bu meyanda Evanjelistler Jerry Falwell ve Pat Robertson gibi ünlü vaizlerin önderlik ettiği kampanyalarla Jimmy Carter'a karşı Ronald Reagan'a destek vermişlerdir. Bu durum 1980'de Evanjeliklerin Amerikan siyasetindeki varlıklarını hissettiren somut örneklerin başında gelmekteydi. Yukarıda üzerinde durduğumuz gibi ABD çapında üyeleşen ve pek çok eyalette siyaseten etkili olan Moral Majority grubunun ve diğer Hristiyan sağ örgütlenmelerin 1980 Kasım seçimlerinde etkili oldukları, hatta Cumhuriyetçi parti programının şekillenmesinde önemli rol oynadıkları bilinmektedir.

Evanjelistlerin ADB devlet başkanlığı seçimlerinde sahip olduğu güç ve oynadıkları rol ise karşılıksız kalmamıştır. Nitekim Ronald Reagan ve Baba George H. W. Bush'un seçimlerinde önemli rol oynayan Yeni Hristiyan Sağ'ın gösterdiği çabalar, iki başkan döneminde de kendi yapılanmalarını güçlendirmeleri konusunda herhangi bir yaptırımla ve zorluklarla karşılaşmamalarını sağlamıştır. Bu anlamda özellikle Başkan Reagan'ın siyaset anlayışında İncil'in literal yorumlarının etkisini inkar etmek mümkün değildir (Hallsell, 2003, s. 125). Evanjelistlerin yardımıyla ABD başkanlığına seçilen başkanlarının birçoğu yeniden doğuşçu (born again) Hristiyan olduklarını gizlemekten hiç kaçınmamışlardır. Başta Jimmy Carter olmak üzere Ronald Reagan ve Başkan George W. Bush yeniden doğuşçu/Evanjelik olduğunu açıkça ifade etmişlerdir (Erickson, 1993, s. 190).

Yukarıda isimlerini zikrettiğimiz iki ünlü Evanjelist vaiz Jerry Falwell ve Pat Robertson'ı 1988 seçiminde aktif olarak görmekteyiz. Bu yıl yapılan seçimde Cumhuriyetçi başkanı aday göstermek için yapılan kampanyalara katılmışlar ve destek vermişlerdir. Yine Bill Clinton'un Amerikan başkanlığında başarılı sayılan iki döneminden sonra, 2000 yılında yapılan başkanlık seçimlerinde, Demokratların adayı Al Gore'un başkan olması beklenirken, tartışmalı bir seçim neticesinde Evanjeliklerin destek verdiği ve kendisi de bir Evanjelik olan oğul George W. Bush başkan seçilmiştir. Bu da Evanjeliklerin Amerikan siyasetindeki etkisini gözler önüne seren başka bir göstergedir (Vural, 2003, s. 19-20).

Evanjelizm Lutherci Protestanlık ile başlamış Püritenizmle olgunlaşmıştır. Çünkü Püriten anlayışın en önemli özelliklerinden biri, inancın pratik hayatta uygulanmasına verdiği önemdir. Püritenlere göre, dindar bir hayat tarzı ve buna bağlı olarak disiplinli ahlaki yaşantı, insanların da merak ettiği seçilmişliğin bir işareti, daha doğrusu sonucudur. Bu nedenle Püritenler dindar hayat tarzına çok önem verirler ve dini pratikler konusunda diğer Protestan Hristiyanlardan oldukça ileri gitmişlerdir. Püritenlerin dini hayatını teşkil eden uygulamaları arasında; kutsal kitaba verdikleri önem bağlamında vaaz, dini sohbetler, ibadet, dua, aile terbiyesi ve duygu birliği şeklinde saymak mümkündür (Güngör, 2005, s. 21).

Jimmy Carter, Ronald Reagan ve Baba Bush'un başkanlıkları döneminde ABD'de adım adım gelişen Evanjelizm, 11 Eylül 2001 saldırılarından sonra Başkan Oğul Bush ile küresel emperyalizmi yönlendiren esas güç haline gelmiştir. ABD Başkanı George Bush'un, 20 Eylül 2001 Perşembe geces, Temsilciler Meclisi ve Senato'nun ortak toplantısında yaptığı meşhur "teröre karşı savaş" (war on terror) konuşmasında "haçlı seferi" (crusade) benzetmesi yapmıştır. Başkan Bush'un bu konuşmasından sonra küresel güçler güvenlik konseptlerini değiştirmişler ve dünya çapında adına terörizmle savaş dedikleri benzeri görülmemiş bir döneme girmişlerdir. Bu dönemden sonra özellikle Müslümanlar hedefe konmuş ve dünya çapında adına İslamofobi dediğimiz bir algı yaratılmıştır. Bu algı üzerinden küresel kapitalizme bir hayli maddi katkı sağlanmıştır. Bu yüzden denilebilir ki eğer Başkan Bush 20 Eylül 2001'de yaptığı meşhur teröre karşı savaş konuşmasında haçlı seferi benzetmesini yapmasaydı, belki bugün ne Müslümanların ne de Hristiyanların Evanjelizm kavramıyla ilgili bir meseleleri olmayacaktı ve bu kavram bu kadar tartışılmayacaktı.

Neticede görüldüğü üzere Evanjelik hareket ABD'de bir taraftan siyasetle yakınlaşarak politik olarak halkı yönlendirebilecek bir kapasite kazanmaya diğer taraftan da belli başlı ABD

başkanlarının dinsel tercihlerine şekil vermeye devam etmektedir. Özellikle ABD'nin dünya siyasetine yön vermeye başladığı II. Dünya Savaşı sonrasındaki soğuk savaş döneminin konjonktürel ortamından da istifade eden Evanjelik hareket halen Ortadoğu bölgesi başta olmak üzere küresel çapta etkisini arttırarak sürdürmektedir.

Evanjelik Teolojinin Ortadoğu Hakkındaki Öngörülleri

Fundamentalist Evanjelikler ve özellikle dispensasyonel tarihselciliği savunanlar, Ortadoğu coğrafyasında meydana gelen olayları Kutsal Kitap kehanetlerinin gerçekleşmesi yönünde yorumlayan düşünceleri sebebiyle İsrail devletine karşı bir sempati duymaktadırlar. Bu yüzden ABD'nin Ortadoğu siyasetinin önceliğinin İsrail olduğu ve Amerikan kongre üyeleri tarafından açıklanmamakla birlikte öteden beri ABD'nin İsrail'e önemli miktarda maddi destek sağladığı bilinmektedir (Hallsell, 2003, s. 118).

Evanjelik inanca göre; Tanrı'nın Evanjelik Protestan Hristiyanlar için olan uhrevi yani cennetle ilgili ve Yahudiler için de dünyevi, yeryüzüyle ilgili olmak üzere iki planı vardır. Buna göre diğer dinlere mensup insanlar Tanrı için önem taşımazlar. Tanrı'nın Yahudilerle ilgili planı gereği Yahudiler, vaat edilmiş topraklara dönüp Büyük İsrail'i kuracak ve dünyaya egemen olacaklardır. Evanjelikler işte bu plana destek olacaklar ve sonuçta kurtuluşa kavuşacaklardır. Kendileri için kurtuluş ise bu dünyada değil ahirette gerçekleşecektir. Eski Ahit (Tevrat ve Zebur) ve Yeni Ahit (İncil)'ten oluşan Kitabı Mukaddes'e göre, İsa Mesih'in yeryüzüne yeniden inebilmesi için Yahudilerin, "Kenan Diyarı" olarak da adlandırılan ve kendilerine Tanrı tarafından vaat edildiğini (arz-ı mev'ud) iddia ettikleri topraklarda toplanması gerekmektedir.

Evanjelistler, kıyametin 2000'li yıllarda Ortadoğu'da çıkacak bir kaosun ardından kopacağına inanmaktadırlar. Bu yüzden de bu bölgede kaos oluşturacak her türlü etkinliğe destek vermektedirler. Çünkü, onlara göre; kaos sonrasında İsa Mesih gelecek ve onlar da İsa Mesih sayesinde dünyaya hâkim olacaklardır. Bu yüzden de İsa Mesih'in dünyaya gelmesi için kaos hızlandırılmalıdır. Yine onlara göre; İsa Mesih'in dönmesi için Yahudilerin vaat edilmiş topraklara kavuşması ve Mescid-i Aksa'nın yıkılıp yerine, eskiden var olan, Süleyman Tapınağı'nın da yeniden inşa edilmesi gerekmektedir (Kılıç, 2008: 65-86). Özellikle 11 Eylül 2001 saldırılarından sonra, Evanjelistlerin öngörülleri doğrultusunda, Ortadoğu'da krizler ve kaoslar hiç bitmemektedir. Evanjelistler bu nedenle Ortodoks Yahudilerden destek görmektedir. Evanjelistlere göre Kudüs Evanjelizmin merkezi haline getirilecektir. Bunlar da Tanrı'nın isteğiyle gerçekleştirilmektedir.

İsa Mesih geldikten sonra içinde Müslümanların da olduğu büyük bir ordu ona karşı savaşacaktır. Bu savaş Armagedon denilen yerde gerçekleşecektir. Kelime anlamı Megido Tepesi demek olan Armagedon, Müslümanlar ile Yahudiler arasında yaşanacağı ifade edilen söz konusu büyük savaşın Yahudi ve Hristiyan kaynaklarındaki adıdır. İslami kaynaklarda ise bu kavram Melheme- i Kübra (büyük ve kanlı savaş) olarak geçmektedir (Yıldırım, 2010, s. 195-196). Megido Dağında yani Armagedonda yapılacak savaşta içinde Müslümanların olduğu ordu yenilecektir.

Genel kabule göre dünya her geçen gün kötüye gitmektedir. Bu nedenle Tanrı'nın müdahalesi kaçınılmazdır. İşte Mesih'in dönüşüyle başlayacak bu yeni dönemde Kudüs yakınlarındaki Armagedon'da İsa Mesih'in ordusuyla içinde Müslümanların da olduğu şeytanın ordusu arasında büyük ve kanlı bir savaş yaşanacak ve şeytanın ordusunun mağlup edilmesi sonrasında (yukarıda maddeler halinde sıralandığı üzere) 7. dönem başlayacaktır. Tüm bu süreçten etkilenmeyecek olanlar ise yeniden doğmuş olarak tanımlanan ve karışıklıktan önce göğe yükselecek Hristiyanlardır. Burada dikkat çeken nokta doktrinde göğe yükselişin literal olarak ele alınması, böylece vakit geldiğinde günlük işleriyle meşgul olan gerçek Hristiyanların işlerini bırakıp evlerinden, arabalarından ve bulundukları ortamlardan çıkarak göğe yükseleceklerine ve gökyüzünden yeryüzündeki kargaşayı seyredeceklerine dair olan inançtır (Albayrak, 212, s.132).

Evanjelist teolojinin tüm bu öngörülerini doğrultusunda;

1. Tanrı tarafından seçilmiş bir ırk olan Yahudiler için 1948 yılında İsrail devleti kurulmuş ve Yahudilerin vaat edilmiş topraklara (arz-ı mev'ud) kavuşması için çalışmalar hızlandırılmıştır.
2. Kıyametin 2000'li yıllarda Ortadoğu'da çıkacak bir kaosun ardından kopacağına dair Evanjelist inancın bir yansıması dahilinde Ortadoğu'da 1990-1991 Körfez savaşıyla başlayan ve 2003'te Irak'ın işgali, Tunus, Mısır, Libya ve Suriye ile devam eden krizler ve savaşlarla kaos sarmalının tüm Ortadoğu'yu teslim alması sağlanmıştır.
3. Günümüzde Müslümanların ilk kiblesi olan Mescid-i Aksa'ya İsrail'in izniyle girilmeye başlanması ve Mescid-i Aksa'nın yıkılıp yerine, eskiden var olan Süleyman Tapınağı'nın yeniden inşa edilmesi için Mescid-i Aksa'nın altının kazılmaya başladığı iddiaları gündemden hiç düşmemektedir.

Süleyman Mabedi'nin yıkılması Yahudilikte bir çok değişikliğin meydana gelmesine neden olmuştur. Süleyman Mabedi'nin ayakta olduğu zaman zarfında yerine getirilebilen bazı ibadetler mabedin yok olmasından sonra ortadan kalkarken Süleyman Mabedi'nin anısına bazı yeni uygulamalar da Yahudiliğe dahil edilmiştir. Yahudilikte Süleyman Mabedi'nin yıkılmasıyla ilgili olmayan neredeyse hiçbir dua ve geleneksel uygulama yer almamıştır (Güngör, 2005, s. 121).

Yahudiliğin vazgeçilmez unsurlarından biri olan ve yaklaşık on asır hizmet ettikten sonra yıkılan ve Yahudilerin gönlünde onulmaz bir yara bırakan Süleyman Mabedi ile ilgili Yahudi literatüründe değişik efsaneler yer almaktadır. Yıllar boyunca Süleyman Mabedi mistik ve sembolik anlamlarla yoğrulmuştur. Bu mekanın, ilk yer olduğu için dünyanın merkezi olarak kabul edildiği ifade edilmiştir. Ayrıca mabedin, Hz. Adem'in yaratılması için tozların geldiği, Hz. Adem'in burada ilk kurbanını sunduğu, Hz. Adem'in mezarının burada bulunduğu ve Habil ile Kabil'in kurbanlarını sundukları yer olduğuna inanılmıştır. Bunun yanında, Nuh tufanının, Süleyman Mabedi'nin temel taşının kaldırılması neticesinde yer altındaki suların gün yüzüne çıkmasıyla meydana geldiğine, tufandan sonra Nuh'un ilk kurbanını burada sunduğuna ve tarihi bir çok olayın burada zuhur ettiğine inanılmaktadır. Tüm bunlardan dolayı, Süleyman Mabedi'nin Yahudiliğin kutsal tarihinin maddi hatırası olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Sembolik bir anlatıda da Süleyman Mabedi'nin önemini ifade etmek için dünya, gözbebeği ile kıyaslanmaktadır. Bu anlatıya göre, gözün beyaz kısmı okyanusları, siyah kısmı (iris) dünyayı, gözün ortasındaki siyah yer (gözbebeği) Kudüs'ü ve gözbebeğinde oluşan görüntü de Süleyman Mabedi'ni sembolize etmektedir. Yahudi inancına göre, Kudüs İsrail topraklarının

merkezi, Süleyman Mabedi Kudüs'ün merkezi, Kutsallar Kutsalı Süleyman Mabedi'nin merkezi, Ahit Sandığı Kutsallar Kutsalı'nın merkezinde yer alırken dünyanın merkez noktası olarak kabul edilen Temel Taş (Even Şetia) da Ahit Sandığı'nın önünde yer alıyordu. Bunun gibi Süleyman Mabedi'nin kutsiyet derecesi de içten dışa doğru azalıyordu. Buna göre, en kutsal yer Kutsallar Kutsalı, ondan sonra da sırayla Kutsal Yer, sunak ile eyvanın arasındaki bölge, kahinler avlusu, İsraililer avlusu, kadınlar avlusu şeklinde devam ediyordu (Güngör, 2005, s. 122-123). Yahudilikte bu kadar önem verilen ve çeşitli sembollerle kutsallaştırılan Süleyman Mabedinin yeniden inşası Evanjelist teolojinin önemli öngörülerinin başında gelmektedir.

4. Evanjelistlerin büyük desteğiyle seçilen ABD Başkanı Donald Trump seçilmeden önce siyasi bir vaat olarak takdim ettiği Kudüs'ü İsrail'in resmi başkenti olarak tanıma kararnamesini 6 Aralık 2017 tarihinde imzalamıştır (<http://www.hurriyet.com.tr>). 6 Aralık 2017'de ABD Başkanı Donald Trump tarafından açıklanan Kudüs'ün İsrail'in başkenti olarak tanınması ve ABD'nin Tel Aviv'deki büyükelçiliğinin Kudüs'e taşınması kararı gerilen İsrail-Filistin ilişkilerinin daha da şiddetlenmesine neden olmuştur (Çakır, 2019, s. 35).
5. Kudüs'e taşınan ABD büyükelçilik binası 14 Mayıs 2018'de resmen açılmıştır (<https://www.yenicaggazetesi.com.tr>). 14 Mayıs 2018'de ABD büyükelçiliğinin Kudüs'teki açılış programını protesto eden 55 Filistinli İsrail askerlerinin kurşunlarıyla hayatını kaybetmiştir (Çakır, 2019, s. 35).
6. ABD Dışişleri Bakanı Mike Pompeo'nun 22 Mart 2019'da Yahudilerin Purim Bayramı için gittiği Kudüs'te Hristiyan televizyon kuruluşu CBN'e mülakat vermesi ve bu mülakatta programın sunucusunun, Antik Pers İmparatorluğu döneminde Kral Ahasuerus'u Yahudilerin öldürülmesine ilişkin bir plandan vazgeçirdiğine inanılan Kraliçe Ester'e gönderme yaparak *"Yahudiler bugün Purim Bayramı'nda Kraliçe Ester'in Tanrı'nın yardımıyla Yahudileri yok olmaktan kurtarmasını kutluyor. Trump da, Ester gibi Tanrı tarafından Yahudileri kurtarmak için gönderilmiş olabilir mi?"* şeklindeki sorusuna; *"Bir Hristiyan olarak bunun kesinlikle mümkün olduğuna inanıyorum. Tarihi doğru biliyorsam, burada 3 bin yıla, 2 bin yıla dayanan olağanüstü bir inanç tarihini ve yönetimimizin Orta Doğu'daki bu demokrasinin; bu Yahudi devletinin ayakta kalmasını sağlamak için yaptıklarını görebiliyoruz. Burada Tanrı'nın rolü olduğuna eminim. Başkan Donald Trump, Tanrı tarafından İsrail'i İran'a karşı korumak için dünyaya gönderilmiş olabilir"* şeklinde yanıt vermiştir (<https://t24.com.tr>).
7. ABD Dışişleri Bakanı Mike Pompeo, 22 Mart 2019'da Yahudilerin Purim Bayramı için gittiği Kudüs'te, Netanyahu ile birlikte Mescid-i Aksa'nın yerine yeniden inşa edilmesi planlanan Süleyman Tapınağı'nın maketinin önünde verdiği pozunu twitter hesabında paylaşmıştır. Pompeo'nun bu paylaşımı tepkilere neden olmuştur (Özcan, 2019).
8. Başkan Trump, 25 Mart 2019'da "Golan Tepeleri üzerinde İsrail'in egemenliğini ABD'nin resmen tanıdığını" ilan eden başkanlık kararını imzalamıştır. Bu imzaya dünyanın pek çok yerinden büyük tepkiler gelmiştir (<https://www.aa.com.tr>).
9. Trump'ın yönlendirmesiyle Yahudi damadı ve başdanışmanı Jared Kushner'in mimarı olduğu ve "Yüzyılın Antlaşması" şeklinde lanse edilen ve tabir caizse Filistinlileri hiçe sayan ve Filistin için ölüm fermanı olan bir antlaşma üzerinde çalışmalar hızlandırılmıştır. Trump'ın damadı Kushner ve İsrail ile birlikte "yüzyılın antlaşması" adını verdikleri bu antlaşma ile Filistinlileri tamamen parçalanmış ve yurtsuz bırakacak bir süreç başlatılmıştır (<https://www.setav.org/arap-dunyasi-ve-kudus/>).

Ortadoğu coğrafyası genelinde ancak Filistin ve Kudüs özelinde Evanjelik teolojinin öngörülleri doğrultusunda uygulamaya konulan tüm bu gelişmeler Ortadoğu'nun adım adım yeniden şekillendirildiğinin emarelerini taşımaktadır.

SONUÇ

Ortadoğu bölgesi tarihin yazıldığı bir coğrafyadır. Üç semavi dinin merkezi ve zengin yeraltı kaynaklarının bulunduğu bir yerdir. Bu nedenle bu bölge, gerek stratejik önemi ve doğal zenginlikleri ve gerekse de dinlerin beşiği olması yüzünden tarih boyunca krizlerin, kaosların ve mücadelelerin eksik olmadığı bir yerdir. Dolayısıyla Ortadoğu coğrafyası siyasi ve ekonomik çıkarlar kadar dini teolojiler tarafından da yeniden dizayn edilmek istenmektedir. Bu çerçevede Ortadoğu'yu kendi inanç ve kutsalları doğrultusunda şekillendirmek isteyen en önemli dini grupların başında Evanjelistler gelmektedir.

Evanjelizm, ilk kez Protestan Reformu sırasında Luther ve onun bağlıları için kullanılmıştır. Ancak bugün için Evanjelizm, Amerika'daki Hristiyan toplumunun tutucu kanadını ifade etmektedir. ABD'de son zamanlarda etkisini artıran Evanjelizm zamanla öyle bir güce ulaşmıştır ki bu sayede Amerikan Başkanlarının dış politikasını belirleyecek seviyeye gelmiştir. Bu politika, kayıtsız şartsız İsrail'in desteklenmesini ve bölgenin Eski Ahit'in tasvir ettiği şekilde yeniden yapılandırılmasını öngörmektedir. Yahudilere ve Siyonizm'e olan ilginç bağlılıkları ise Evanjellikleri Hristiyanlık içinde oldukça farklı bir yere oturtmaktadır.

Evanjellikler, Eski Ahit'te yer alan Yahudilerin Tanrı'nın seçilmiş halkı olduğunu kabul etmektedir. Bu nedenle kutsal toprakların Yahudilerin malı olduğuna, Yahudilerin Mesih'in gelişi ile birlikte bir dünya egemenliği kuracaklarına ve kehanetlerinin gerçekleşeceğine inanmaktadırlar. Bu yüzden kendilerine düşen en büyük misyonun Yahudilerin egemenliğine destek olmak olduğunu düşünmektedirler.

Görüldüğü üzere Ortadoğu'da Evanjelistlerin ve Yahudi Fundamentalistlerin amaçları birbirleriyle örtüşmektedir. Bu yüzden bu iki grup arasında stratejik bir iş birliği bulunmaktadır. Fundamentalist Yahudiler Ortadoğu'da kendi inançlarının gereği olarak gerçekleştirmeye çalıştıkları faaliyetlerinde Evanjelistlerin desteğini almaktadır. Fundamentalist Yahudilere ve Evanjelist Hristiyanlara göre; İsa Mesih'in dönmesi ve krallığını kurması ve Tanrı'nın kıyamete zorlanması için Ortadoğu'nun İsa Mesih'in dönüşüne hazırlanması yani Fırat ve Dicle arasındaki çok geniş bir alanın burada yaşayan Müslümanlardan temizlenmesi gerekmektedir.

Ortadoğu coğrafyasını kendi teolojilerine uygun olarak yeniden dizayn etmek isteyen Evanjelistlerin çeşitli öngörülleri vardır. Bunlar; Yahudilerin Filistin'e geri dönmeleri ve kendilerine ait toprağı olan bir devlet kurmaları, Kudüs'ün başkent yapılması, Mescid-i Aksa'nın yıkılıp yerine Süleyman tapınağının yeniden inşa edilmesi, tüm insanlara İncil'in vaaz edilmesi, tribülasyon yani Yahudiler ve iman edenlerin eziyet görmesi, Armagedon savaşı ve inananların (Hristiyanların) semaya yükseltilmesi şeklindedir.

Evanjelist teolojinin bu öngörülerinden bir kısmının gerçekleşmesi ve diğer maddelerin hayata geçirilmesi için verilen mücadeleye bakıldığında tehlikenin farkına

varmamak mümkün değildir. Neticede Osmanlı'nın Ortadoğu'dan çekilmesiyle başlayan krizler, kaos, kan ve göz yaşı hiç bitmemekte aksine artarak devam etmektedir.

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Birlikte Barış ve Uyum İçinde Yaşama: İslam, İnsan Hakları ve Terör

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ÖZET

İslam insanlar arasında barış ve uyumu tesis etmek ve birlikte sağlıklı ve sakin bir çevrede yaşayabilmek için çevreyi de korumayı gaye edinen bir dünya dinidir. İslam zaten terim olarak barış anlamında olup bütün insanları birbirinin kardeşi olarak kucaklamaktadır. Bundan dolayı İslam herkesi Hz. Adem ve Havva'nın çocukları olarak bir aile şeklinde tanıyan tüm evrensel insan haklarını desteklemektedir. İslam gerçek ve evrensel bir din olduğu iddiasıyla insanlık ve yaşadığı çevre için güvenli bir ortamı yeniden inşa etmeye katkıda bulunabilmek amacıyla insan hakları konularında tartışmaya da açıktır. Günümüz insan hakları fikri İslam gibi insanları aynı aile olarak görmekte olup ancak ilham aldığı ilahi kaynaklara olan referanstan yoksundur. O halde insan hakları evrensel olduğunu iddia ettiğine göre ilahi asılları tarafından temellendirilip desteklenmeye muhtaçtır. Bu bağlamda Müslümanlar 632 yılında Hz. Peygamber'in Veda Hutbesi'nden bu yana bir kez daha bütün dünyaya net bir insan hakları mesajını tesis ve teyit ederek evrensel değerlerini yeniden ilan etmelidirler. Terör insanlık tarafından barış, ahenk, kardeşlik ve dayanışmayı tahrip eden insanlığın en çok bilinen düşmanıdır. Terörün planlayıcıları tarih boyunca dini ve özellikle de İslam medeniyetinin temeli olarak bilinen İslami referanslar olan Kur'an ve Sünnet vasıtasıyla kendi illegal ve gayri insani maksatları için meşruiyetlerini desteklemeye çalışmaktadırlar. Hedeflerine ulaşabilmek için kafalarında yalnız öldürme düşüncesini taşıyan teröristler ırk, milliyet, din ve her hangi bir fikir ayrımı yapmamak üzere eğitilip yetiştirilmektedir. Bu tebliğde İslam ve insan hakları arasındaki ilişki ele alınarak İslami kaynaklarla medeniyet tarihini kendi kanunsuz ve temelsiz amaçları için yorumlayan terörist ideoloji reddedilecek ve bir aile olarak insanlığın birlikte barış ve uyum içinde yaşayabileceğini destekleyen bir çalışmaya yer verilecektir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İslam İnsan Hakları, İnsan Hakları, Terör, Terörist, Kur'an, Sünnet, İslam Tarihi.

Living Together in Peace and Harmony: Islam, Human Rights and Terror

ABSTRACT

Islam is a world religion aiming to establish peace and harmony among human beings and protect the environment in order to live together in a healthy and peaceful habitat. The term Islam itself, carries the meaning of peace, embracing all human beings within brotherhood to each other. Hence Islam fully supports universal aspects of human rights with respect for humanity as one family, all being and living together as children of Adam and Eve. Islam as claiming to be a true and universal religion is open to discuss human rights issues in order to make contribution to re-building a safe environment for humanity and its habitat. The idea and rules of human rights today are claimed to be universal embracing humanity as one family as Islamic values, however, making no reference made to the divine sources inspired from. Human rights, therefore, need to be resourced and supported also by its divine origins in order to claim universality and brotherhood. Muslims, in this context, need to re-declare its universal values worldwide, confirming and setting up a clear human rights message to the whole world once more since the last Sermon of the Prophet Muhammad, AD 632. Terror is the most well-known enemy of all human beings targeting to break the peace, harmony, brotherhood and fraternerty of humanity. Masterminds of terror have been trying to support its legitimacy via religious and specifically well-read Islamic references such as the Qur'an and the Sunnah which are basis of the Islamic culture and so on throughout the history for their illegitimate and inhuman purposes. Terrorists bearing one thing only, which is killing, in mind to hit their target, are being educated and trained for not to make any discrimination among any nation, religious belief and any idea. In this paper the relation between Islam and human rights will be examined in the context of supporting peace and harmony among humanity as one family, refuting terrorists ideology of reading and interpreting Islamic resources and its cultural history in order to support their illegitimate and ungrounded aims.

Keywords: Islamic Human Rights, Human Rights, Terror, Terrorist, the Qur'an, the Sunnah, Islamic History.

GİRİŞ

İslam insanlar arasında barış, sevgi, merhamet ve ahengi sağlamak için gelen bir barış dinidir (Okumuş; 439). Kur'an'da "*Allah, sizinle din uğrunada savaşmayan ve sizi yurtlarınızdan çıkarmayanlara iyilik yapmanızı ve onlara âdil davranmanızı yasaklamaz. Çünkü Allah, adaletli olanları sever.*" (Kur'an, Mümtehin: 8) buyurulmaktadır. İslam dini böylece iki temel kaynağından ilki olan Kur'an'ın ifadesiyle her daim barışsever ve sulhtan yana olduğunu beyan etmektedir.

İslam barış ortamı ve ahengin tesisini sağlamak gayesiyle birlikte insanın insanca yaşayabileceği sağlıklı ve huzur veren sakin bir çevreyi de hayatın merkezine insanla beraber taşımaktadır. İslam insanın insanca yaşayabilip hakkıyla Allah'a kulluk edebilmesini amaç edindiği için aynı zamanda insana ilişkin olana da ilgili ve bu yüzden de çevrecidir.

Kur'an'ı tebliğ eden Hz. Peygamber de bu anlamda kadınlar ve çocukların öldürülmesini yasaklamış (Sahihi Müslim 1744; Buhari 3015) ve "...hiyanet etmeyin, aşırıya gitmeyin, yeni doğmuş bir çocuğu da öldürmeyin." (Sahihi Müslim 1731; Tirmizi 1408) demiştir. Ayrıca müslümanlarla barış halindeki toplumdan bir kişiyi öldürenin cennetin kokusunu alamayacağını da ifade etmiştir. (Sahihi Buhari 3166; İbni Mace 2686). İnsana bu kadar kıymet veren İslam dini Hz. Peygamber'in ifadesiyle işkence ederek *ateşle cezalandırmayı* da kesinlikle yasaklamıştır (Ebu Davud, 2675). Hz. Peygamber bir kişinin haksız yere hayatına kastetmeyi en büyük günah olan Allah'a şirkten sonra ikinci büyük günah olarak ifade etmiştir (Sahihi Buhari, 6871; Sahihi Muslim,88). Hz. Peygamber bunu kıyamet günüyle ikazda bulunarak ahirette hesabı görülecek ilk davaların öldürme olaylarının olduğunu da vurgulamaktadır (Sahihi Muslim, 1678; Sahihi Buhari, 6533).

Doğayı oluşturan bitkiler ve burada yaşayan diğer canlılar da bu fikirlerden ilhamla güzellikle muamele edilme yönüne teşvik edilerek onlara da zarar vermek yasaklanmıştır. Bu bağlamda Hz. Peygamber bir kediyi hapsederek onu aç susuz bırakarak ölümüne sebep olan bir kadının bu yüzden cehenneme gideceğini ifade ederek insanlığın şefkat ve merhamette bütün canlıları kapsadığını vurgulamıştır (Müslim, 2422; Buhari, 2365).

"Merhamet edene Allah da merhamet eder. Siz yeryüzündekilere -bütün canlılara- merhamet edin ki, göktekiler - Allah ve melekler- de size merhamet etsin." (Ebu Davud, Edeb: 66; Tirmizi, Birr: 16) diyen Hz. Peygamber susamış bir köpeğe merhametinden dolayı su veren kişinin bu davranışı sayesinde günahlarının Allah tarafından affedildiğini ifade ederek sevgi, şefkat ve merhameti diğer canlılara da göstermenin en güzel örneğini vermiştir. Hz. Peygamber kendisine hayvanlara bir iyilik yapıldığında sevap olup olmadığı sorulduğunda hangi canlı olursa olsun yapılan her bir iyiliğin karşılığı olduğunu ifade etmiştir. (Buhari, Şirb 9; Müslim, Selam 153, (2244)). İslâm Dininin canlılara şefkat ve merhameti teşvik etmesi her bir canlıya birinci derecede ehemmiyet verdiğinin birer göstergesidir. Alemlere rahmet olarak gönderilen Hz. Peygamber'in (Kur'an, Enbiya: 107) "Merhamet etmeyene merhamet olunmaz" (Riyâzü's-Sâlihîn, 225) ifadesiyle birlikte uyum, ahenk ve barış içerisinde yaşamının temel harçlarından olan merhametin bu önemine vurgu yaptığı açıktır.

İslam'da gıda ihtiyacını karşılamak ya da ibadet niyetiyle kesilen kurbanlık hayvanlara da iyi muamele edilmesi istenmiştir. Hz. Peygamber “Bir hayvan kestiğinizde bunu en iyi şekilde yapınız. Hayvanın acı çekmesini asgariye indirmek için bıçağınızı keskin hale getiriniz.” (Muslim 1955; Tirmizi 1409) diye uyarmıştır.

Bundan dolayı temel İslami kaynaklar olan Kur'an ve Sünnet'in özünde görüldüğü üzere İslam her türlü terör ve şiddete karşıdır. Terörizm İslami geleneğe taban tabana zıttır. Müslüman ülkelerde görülen din kaynaklı şiddet ve terör eylemleri bu yüzden temel evrensel İslami değerleri temsil edemez. (Cordesman, 2017: 1) Şiddetin şiddeti doğurarak işi daha da kötüleştirmekten başka bir işe yaramadığı açık olduğundan İslam'ın temel kaynakları olan Kur'an ve Sünnet doğru olarak okunup yorumlandığında bunların şiddeti desteklemediği bariz bir şekilde görülmektedir.

Aslında klasik İslami metinlere bakıldığında bu durum açıkça görülmekte ve savunmasız sivillerin kendilerine, mallarına ve evlerine zarar vermek, masum erkek, kadın ve çocuklara zarar vermek ve onları bombalamak suretiyle öldürmek, şiddet, işkence, eziyet vb. eylemleri kesinlikle yasaklanmıştır. Gayri insani muameleler müslümanlar nazarında izin verilmeyen bir eylemdir. Bu yüzden barış, merhamet ve bağışlamadan yana olan bir dinin mensupları olarak müslümanların şiddet içeren eylem ve aktivitelerden uzak durmaları gerekir. Bir müslüman terör eylemine bulaşırsa en temel İslami ilkeleri ihlal ettiğinden dolayı terör suçlusu olarak görülür.

İslam esasında tüm insanlığın aynı aileden geldiğinden hareketle insanlığın kardeşliğini vurgular. İnsanlığın aynı aileden geldiğini vurgulayan İslam barış, uyum ve huzur içinde sağlıklı bir hayat tarzını bütün insanlığı kapsayıcı bir şekilde ortaya koymaktadır. İslam, insanlığı Hz. Adem ve Havva'nın çocukları olarak birlikte yaşayan bir aile olarak görmekte (Yayla, 2003; 144) ve birleşmiş Milletler tarafından 10 Aralık 1948 yılında ilan edilen İnsan Hakları Evrensel Beyannamesi'nde olduğu gibi bütün insanlığın kardeş olduğuna davet eden bir insan hakları felsefesini temel almaktadır. *İnsan Hakları Evrensel Beyannamesi* bu düşüncüyü “Bütün insanlar... birbirlerine karşı kardeşlik anlayışıyla davranmalıdırlar.” şeklinde ifade etmektedir (İnsan Hakları Evrensel Beyannamesi, madde: 1).

Barış, uzlaşma, huzur, uyum, iyilik ve güzellikten yana olan İslam kendinin gerçek ve evrensel bir din olduğunu ileri sürer. Bu sebeple insanlık ve insanın yaşayıp neşvünema bulacağı bir ortam için güvenli bir çevrenin yeniden tesisine katkıda bulunabilmek amacındadır. Bu yönüyle İslam ileri sürülecek evrensel insan hakları söylemleri ve müzakerelerine de açık bir din olduğunu göstermektedir (Yayla, 2011).

Günümüz insan hakları düşüncesi ve bu meyanda ileri sürülen ilkeler İslami değerler gibi insanlığı aynı bir aile olarak görmektedir. Bütün bunlarla birlikte insan hakları ile ilgili değerlerin ilham aldığı ilahi kaynaklarına referans yapılmaması bir eksikliktir. O yüzden günümüz insan hakları düşüncesi evrensel olduğunu ve tüm insanlığın kardeşliğini iddia ettiğine göre bu görüşler barış, uyum ve huzur içinde birlikte bir yaşam için ilahi asıllarıyla temellendirilmeye ihtiyaç vardır.

İslam'ı yaşayıp temsil eden Müslümanlar da aynı anne ve babanın çocukları olma evrensel ilkesinden hareketle kendi evrensel değerlerini insanlığa “Doğrudan doğruya Kur'an'dan alıp ilhâmı, Asrın idrakine söyletmeliyiz İslâm'ı” (Safahat) dizelerinde olduğu gibi yeniden ilan edip 632 yılındaki Veda hutbesinden bu yana tüm dünyaya bir kez daha açık ve net bir evrensel insan hakları mesajı olarak sunmalıdır (Bünyamin Erul, “Veda Hutbesi”, TDV İslam Ansiklopedisi, 42;591-593).

Terörün tek amaç ve hedefi vardır o da toplumdaki barış, huzur ve uyumu bozarak hem insan hakları hem de bahsi geçen İslami değerlerin savunduğu evrensel kardeşliği ortadan kaldırmaktır. Tam da bu sebepten terör insanlık için tarihte bilinen en büyük tehdit ve düşmanlıktır.

Terörün tezgahlayıcıları yaptıkları eylemleri meşru kılabilmek için tarih boyunca en güçlü toplumsal bağ olan dini kullanmaktadırlar. Teröristler özellikle İslam kültür ve medeniyetinin ana kaynakları olan *Kur'an* ve *Sünneti* kullanarak kendi eylemlerini Müslümanlar nazarında meşruymuş gibi göstermeye çalışmaktadır. Tarih boyunca kendi meşru olmayan hedefleri için böyle yapagelmışlerdir. “İşte bundan dolayı İsrâiloğulları'na şöyle yazmıştık: Bir cana kıymaya veya yeryüzünde fesat çıkarmaya karşılık olmaksızın kim bir kimseyi öldürürse bütün insanları öldürmüş gibi olur. Kim de bir canı kurtarırsa bütün insanların hayatını kurtarmış gibi olur. Şüphesiz peygamberlerimiz onlara apaçık deliller getirdiler. Ama bundan sonra da onların çoğu yeryüzünde taşkınlık göstermektedirler.” (Kur'an, Maide: 5/32) ifadesiyle Kur'an terörist eylemleri reddetmektedir.

Teröristin kafasındaki tek konu “öldürmek”tir ve terörist bu amaçla eğitilip yetiştirilmektedir. Teröristler insanlar arasında din, ırk vb. bir ayrım yapmadan öldürmek için eğitilmektedir. Teröristler sınıraşan ve sınırötesi eylemler yaptığından dolayı terör eylemleri aynı zamanda en büyük küresel tehditlerden biridir. Sadece insanlığa olan bir tehdit değil aynı zamanda insanın yaşadığı çevre ve insanlığın kültür mirasına da olan bir tehdittir.

Bu tebliğde İslam ile insan hakları arasındaki güçlü bağ ele alınarak insanlığın bir aile olduğundan hareketle insanlar arasında barış ve uyumu destekleyen, şiddet üreten bir toplumu değil merhamet toplumunu ele alan ve öldürmeyi değil yaşatmayı gaye edinen bir düşünce çalışmasına yer verilecektir. Çalışmada meşru olmayan gayelerini meşru hale getirmek için temel İslami kaynaklar olan Kur'an ve Sünnet yanı sıra İslam kültür, tarih ve medeniyetini de kendi amaçları doğrultusunda okuyup yorumlayabilecek bir terörist ideolojiye de karşı durularak İslam'ın, insanlığı barış içinde yaşatarak hem bu dünyada hem de ahirette mutlu kılmak için geldiğini ifade eden bir sonuca varılacaktır.

Birlikte Barış ve Uyum İçerisinde Yaşamak ve İslam

Birlikte var olmak barış, huzur ve uyum içinde yaşamayı gerektirir. Birlikte barış ve uyum içinde yaşamamanın koşullarının temeli aslında insan haklarına saygı anlayışı üzerine bina edilerek sağlanabilir. Bu sebeple toplumsal barış ve uyumun sağlanabilmesi için insan haklarına saygı üzerine yoğunlaşmanın söz konusu olduğu kanaati hakimdir (Lange, 2009; 68).

İnsanların başka milletlerle ve farklı din ve kültüre bağlı olanlarla birlikte yaşaması, aslında fitrî bir durumdur. İnsan bu konuda seçim yapma ve fitrata karşı çıkma hakkına sâhip değildir. İnsan, yaratılışı gereği sosyal bir varlıktır. Doğası gereği insanoğlunun tek başına yaşaması mümkün olmadığından hayatını sürdürebilmesi hemcinsleriyle birlikte yaşamasına bağlıdır. Allah “Ey insanlar! Doğrusu Biz sizleri bir erkekle bir dişiden yarattık. Sizi milletler ve kabileler haline koyduk ki birbirinizi kolayca tanıyasınız. Şüphesiz, Allah katında en değerliniz, O'na karşı gelmekten en çok sakınanızdır. Allah bilendir, haberdardır.” (Kur'an, Hucurat:13) diye buyurmaktadır.

Toplu yaşamının zorunluluğu, tabiatı gereği kişiler arasında etkileşim oluşturmakta ve aralarında olumlu bir iletişimi elzem kılmaktadır. Bu nedenle birlikte yaşama tabiatı itibarıyla hoşgörüyü de tahammülü de zorunlu olarak beraberinde getirmektedir. İslam aslında bir arada huzurlu yaşayabilmenin ve ahenk içerisinde herkesin temel hak ve özgürlüklerini hür bir şekilde kullanmalarını sağlayacak toplumsal yaşamın ilahi kaynaklı temel ilkelerini de tesis etmiştir. Bu sebeple “Dinde zorlama yoktur. Çünkü doğruluk, sapıklıktan ayırt edilmiştir. Artık her kim tâğutu inkar edip, Allah'a inanırsa, sağlam bir kulpa yapışmıştır ki, o hiçbir zaman kopmaz. Allah, her şeyi iştir ve bilir.” (Kur'an, Bakara: 256). Müslüman toplumlarında herkesin bir ahenk ve uyum ortamında sahip olduğu temel hak ve özgürlükler kısaca insan hakları kaynağını iki temel referans olan *Kur'an* ve *Sünnet*'ten almaktadır.

Nasıl Bir İslam Anlayışı

İslam kelime anlamı olarak “sulh-sükun” yani “barışa varabilme-Allah ile barış içerisinde olma, kişinin kendisiyle barışık olması- ve içinde yaşanılan çevre ve yaratıkların da Allah ile barış içerisinde” olmasıdır. Bütün bunları insan, kendini tamamen Allah'a hasrederek ve O'nun rehberliğini kabul ederek yapacaktır. Ayrıca Hz. Peygamber, “Selamı aranızda yayınız.” (Müslim, İman 93) buyurarak, insanlar arasında kardeşlik, yakınlık, dostluk ve güven duygularının canlı tutulmasını istemektedir.

İslam kelime olarak Arapça kökenlidir. S (س)- L (ل)- M (م) harflerinden oluşan “silm” kelimesinden türemiş olup kelime anlamı olarak “teslim olma”, “boyun eğme”, “taahhüt” ve “barış” anlamlarını taşımaktadır. İslam terim olarak genelde 610-632 yıllarında Allah tarafından Hz Muhammed'e indirilen tek ilahlı din diye bilinmektedir.

İslam ismi aslında “Bugün sizin için dininizi kemale erdirdim. Size nimetimi tamamladım ve sizin için din olarak İslam'ı seçtim.” (Kur'an, Mâide: 3) ifadesiyle Hz. Peygamber'e vahyedilen Kur'an-ı Kerim tarafından verilmiştir. Kur'an. 610-632 yıllarında vahyedilmesine rağmen İslam aslında Hz. Adem'le birlikte başlayan semavi din geleneğinin çıkış noktası olan “tevhit” yani Allah'ın bir olduğu inancının son defa olarak yinelenmesidir.

İslam bir din olmakla beraber sosyal açıdan bakıldığında dünya nüfusunun beşte birini teşkil eden inananları temsil etmektedir. İman ilkelerine ilaveten İslam aynı zamanda insan vicdanının dolayısıyla yaşamın merkezine Allah'ı yerleştiren mükemmel, tabii bir hayat tarzı ve davranış biçimidir (Muslim Population).

İslam özünde Allah'ın birliğine imanı ve Allah'ın emirlerine teslim olmayı gerektiren ilahi kaynaklı bir dünya görüşüdür. Hz. Muhammed İslam'ın özünü “İslâm, Allah'tan başka ilah olmadığına ve Muhammed'in Allah'ın Rasûlü olduğuna şehâdet etmen, namazı dosdoğru kılman, zekâtı (tastamam) vermen, ramazan orucunu (eksiksiz) tutman, yoluna güç yetirebilirsen Kâbe'yi ziyâret (hac) etmendir” (Buhârî, İman 1; Müslim, İman 1) diyerek veciz bir şekilde ifade etmiştir.

İslam ve İnsan Hakları

Kur'an'da “batılın zıddı” anlamında olarak zikri geçen “hak” (Kur'an, İsra: 81) kelimesinin en önemli anlamlarından biri de “mutabakat ve uyum” manasıdır. Bu bağlamda “esma-i hüсна”sından bir adı da “Hakk” olan Yaratıcı, Rahman suresinin başında hülâsa ettiği üzere uçsuz bucaksız muazzam bir ‘ölçü ve ahenk’ içerisinde yarattığı kainatı (Kur'an, Rahman: 7-9) çok değer verdiği insanın (Kur'an, İsra: 7) emrine vermiştir. “O, göklerde ve yerde ne varsa hepsini, kendi katından (bir lûtufl olmak üzere) size âmâde kılmıştır. Elbette bunda düşünen bir toplum için ibretler vardır.” (Kur'an, Câsiye: 13).

Yaratıcı çok değer verdiği insandan uyum ve ahenk içinde yarattığı nizamda hem doğal ve hem de sosyal dengeyi korumasını, yeryüzünde fesat çıkarmamasını (Kur'an, Bakara: 11) ve adaletin de ötesine geçerek insanlara hak ettiğinden daha fazlasını verme manasındaki “muksit” (Kur'an, Mümtehin: 8) olmasını da emretmiştir (Topaloğlu, 2006, 31: 141) Özetle kainattaki doğal mükemmel ahenk nasıl evren için gerekliyse, insanlar tarafından da hakkın doğru kullanılarak hak ihlallerinin önlenmesi insanlığın barış, uyum ve huzur içinde yaşaması için elzemdir.

Nitekim yeme, içme vb. günlük davranış tarzı sayılan örf ve adet kurallarından ülke yönetimine kadar hakların kullanımı konusunda genel ve özel şartları doğrudan ya da dolaylı olarak açıklayan İslam medeniyetinin kaynağı daha önce de belirtildiği üzere Kur'an ve Sünnet'tir. (Mâlik, Kader 3, II. 899; Müslim Kitap-15 Bab-19 Hadis 1218)

Kur'an ve Sünnet insanlar arasında çatışma çıkartmak değil, çıkabilmesi muhtemel hak ihlallerinin önüne geçebilmek ve problem kaçınılmaz olduğunda toplumsal barış, uyum ve ahenk içerisinde birlikte yaşayabilmek için bu sorunları barışçıl yollarla çözmek ve böylece insanları karanlıktan aydınlığa çıkarmak için vardır. (Kur'an, Bakara: 257; Maide: 16)

İslam'ın temel kaynağı olan Kur'an, insan ve yaşadığı tabii çevre için hayati bir öneme sahip olan yağmurun yağışı, bitkilerin yetişmesi ve hayvanların tabii oldukları çevre ile ilgili akışı da açıklar. (Kur'an, Nahl: 14-16) Bu nedenle Allah ile Kur'an ve tabiat arasında da mükemmel bir uyum bulunmaktadır. Son derece karmaşık, fakat uyumlu ve düzenli iç içe geçmiş sistemlerden oluşan tabiatın yaratıcısı ve yöneticisinin, yetkin sıfatlarıyla uyum içinde olması, onlardaki mükemmelliği aksettirmesi Allah ile tabiat arasındaki mutabakatı, uyumu gösterir. (Topaloğlu, 1997: 15: 152).

Doğa nizamındaki var olan uyum ve ahenk gibi İslam da insan haklarına saygılı ve hukuk düzenine bağlı bir hukuk devleti toplumunun tesisi ve sürekliliğini ifade eden kurallar

koymuştur. Dünyanın ilk birlikte yaşama tecrübesi diyebileceğimiz Hz. Adem ile Hz. Havva tarafından kurulan ve iki kişiden ibaret olan birlikte yaşamanın dahi kuralları ve hukuku olduğu bilinmektedir. (Kur'an, A'raf: 19) İslam birlikte barış, huzur ve uyum içerisinde yaşanması maksadına yönelik olarak toplumda temel hak ve özgürlükler bağlamında "din, akıl, can, nesil ve mal"ın korunmasını temel edinmiştir. (Boynukalın, 27:423-427)

İslam Hukuku'nu farklı kılan özelliklerin başında, bu hukukun kaynağını oluşturan Kur'an ve Sünnet'in insanlığın hayat akışını düzenlerken aynı zamanda insana ibadet etme imkanı sunabilmesidir. Dolayısıyla Müslüman toplumlarda hukuk hem maddi ve hem de manevi bir yaşam tarzını dengelemeye fırsat veren benzersiz bir özelliğe sahiptir.

İslam Medeniyeti'nin bütün çabası toplumda adaleti tesis etmektir. Bu medeniyet temelini de "insan hakları" düşüncesi meydana getirmektedir. Bu anlayış, bireyden topluma kadar herkesin en temel hak ve özgürlüklerinin korunmasını ve toplumsal yapının insan haklarına saygılı ve hukuk devleti ilkelerine bağlı bir "adil düzen" tesisini sağlamayı amaç edinmiştir. İslam bir ismi de Hak olan Allah'ın, kullarına ihsan ettiği en temel hak ve hürriyetlerin azami derecede kullanabilmelerine fırsat verilen bir insan hakları medeniyeti olarak da görülebilir.

Toplumsal hayata dokunuşta İslam ilkelerinin uygulanmasında din adamlarının önemi büyüktür. Din toplumsal hayatta barış, huzur, uyum ve nizam içerisinde yaşayabilmenin bağlarından olduğundan dindâr olanların da farklılıklar karşısında hoşgörü, musâmaha ve kardeşlik duyguları içinde hareket etmesini gerekli kılar.

İslâm cihâd anlayışı ise çoğu zaman kendi bağlamından çıkarılarak yanlış değerlendirmelere konu edilmektedir. Kur'an'da cihada izin veren âyette cihad konusunda konulan şartlar oldukça açıktır: "Kendilerine zulmedilenlere savaş ve cihad için izin verilmiştir." (Kur'an, el-Hacc: 39). Bu ayetin ışığında cihad açıkça "savaş yapmak, zulme ve saldırıyla karşı karşıya kalma" şartına bağlanmıştır. Ayetten anlaşıldığı üzere cihat kavramının savaş, saldırganlık ve teröre gerekçe olması asla mümkün görünmemektedir. Müslümanlar barış ve adaletin temsilcisi olarak uygulamalarında kendilerinden her zaman ve zeminde herkesin güvenebileceği kişiler olabilme inancını yitirmemeli ve kendilerine insanlar her konuda güvenebilmelidir. Nitekim Asr-ı Saadet'te Medine döneminde yapılan uygulamalar bu konuda açık bir fikir vermektedir. Hz. Peygamber'in yaptığı savaşların Kur'an ahlakına uygun olarak saldırıya karşı koyma niteliğinde olduğu açıkça görülmektedir.

Başka bir husus da birlikte barış, uyum ve huzur içinde yaşamanın en büyük düşmanı olan terörle İslam'ın özdeşleştirilmesidir. (Cordesman, 2) Bu aynı zamanda İslam'a karşı yapılabilecek ve ileri sürülebilecek en büyük haksızlığın temelini oluşturmaktadır. Bu haksızlığın kaynağı Müslümanım diyenler arasındaki davranış farklılığından kaynaklanmakta ve temelinde Müslümanla İslam'ı aynı görme alışkanlığı yatmaktadır. Doğal olan aslında Müslümanla İslam'ın aynı şeyler olmasıdır. Yanlış yapan Müslümanın hatasının bütün Müslümanlara, İslam'a izafe edilmesi ve Müslümanlık budur denmesi zikri geçen yanılgıya fırsat vermektedir. Yaklaşık bir asır öncesinden Mehmet Akif'in

“Kaç hakiki müslüman gördümse, hep makberdedir; Müslümanlık, bilmem amma, galiba göklerde dir;” dizelerindeki serzenişi birçok Müslümanda gördüğümüz gibi Muhammet İkbâl’in: “Kaçıp Müslümanlardan sığındım Müslümanlığa” sözleri de Müslümanlıkla Müslümanların ayrı şeyler olması gerektiğini veciz bir şekilde ifade etmektedir. Müslümanların hataları olabilir, ama İslam kendisi “hak medeniyeti” temelli semâvî bir dindir.

Kur’an’ın Hz. Peygamber’e “Biz seni ancak âlemlere rahmet olarak gönderdik.” (Kur’an, Enbiya: 107) ifadesiyle barış temelli bir din olarak İslam’ın özünde kardeşlik, şefkat, merhamet ve sevgi vardır. Ayrıca Hz. Peygamber de bu ilahi mesajın özüne uygun olarak “Selamı aranızda yayınız.” (Müslim, İman 93) buyurarak, insanlar arasında kardeşlik, yakınlık, dostluk ve güven duygularının canlı tutulmasını istemektedir. Yeryüzünde başka din ve kültür mensuplarıyla bir arada yaşamanın en güzel örneklerini Müslümanların verdiği aşıkardır (Yayla, 2016). Mekke’de başlayan İslâm dâvetinin ilk işi insanları sevgi ve kardeşlik duyguları ile kaynaştırarak aralarındaki düşmanlıklarını sona erdirmek ve böylece onları birlikte barış, uyum ve huzur içinde yaşamaya sevk etmek olmuştur. “Ey iman edenler! Hep birden barışa girin.” (Kur’an, Bakara: 208).

Hz. Peygamber Mekke’den Medine’ye hicret ettiğinde ilk iş olarak Mekkeli muhacirlerle Medineli ensar arasında kardeşlik köprüsünü inşa etmiş ve onların kaynaşmasını sağlayan ilk adımı kardeşlik üzere atmıştır. İslam’ın Medine’de oluşturduğu kardeşlik bağı bu şehirde yıllar yılı birbirleriyle mücadele eden Evs ve Hazrec kabileleri arasındaki düşmanlığı da sona erdirmiştir.

Medine’de yaşayan diğer din mensupları da İslâm toplumunda kendilerine özgün bir yer ve statüye en baştan layık görülmüştür. Nitekim Medine’deki Yahudiler ile Müslümanların bir arada barış, uyum ve huzur içerisinde yaşayabilmelerini düzenleyen “Medîne Vesîkası” tarihte birlikte yaşayabilmenin en güzel örneklerden birini ortaya koymuştur. “Medine Vesikası”nda Yahûdî ve Müslüman toplumların sâhip oldukları din ve vicdan hürriyeti açıkça belirtilmiştir. Yahûdîlere iç meselelerini kendi hukuk sistemlerine göre çözme yetkisi de verilmiştir. (Yayla, 2016)

Kur’ân-ı Kerîm özellikle ehl-i kitâbı ortak değerlerde buluşmaya çağırarak barış içinde birlikte yaşamanın imkanına işaret etmiştir. “De ki: Ey ehl-i kitâb! Sizinle bizim aramızda müşterek olan bir söze gelin: Allah’tan başkasına tapmayalım; O’na hiçbir şeyi eş tutmayalım ve Allah’ı bırakıp da kimimiz kimimizi ilâhlaştırmasın. Eğer onlar yine yüz çevirirlerse, işte o zaman: Şâhid olun ki biz Müslümanlarız! deyin.” (Kur’an, Âl-i İmrân, 64)

Günlük hayatın akışında İslâm peygamberinin bütün insanlara karşı yüksek bir hoşgörü ve güzel iletişim içinde bulunarak örnek davranış sergilediğine tarih şahit olmuştur. İslam Allah’ın yarattığı en değerli varlık olarak her “insana mutlak saygı” ilkesini hayatın merkezine yerleştirerek bunun bireye kazandırılması gereken ahlaki bir değer saymış (Kur’an, İsra: 70) ve böylece insanların adil bir seviyede ilişki içinde bulunmalarını tesis etmeyi hedeflemiştir. Hz. Peygamber’in örnek davranışları da ferdî planda olduğu gibi ictimai planda da aynen devam etmiştir. (Müslim, Cenaiz, 78:1596)

Müslümanlara açıkça düşmanlık yapan, maddî ve mânevî zarar veren ve harp hukukunun gereği savaş hâlinde bulunanlar müstesna olmak üzere (Kur'an, Bakara: 190-193) diğerleriyle iyi geçinilmesi yolu tavsiye edilmiştir. Barışa ve huzura zarar verenlere ceza verilmekle birlikte bunda da zulüm ve haksızlığa yönelme olmamıştır (Kur'an, Maide: 8).

Hz. Peygamber'den sonra I. Halife Hz. Ebu Bekir de Peygamber'in izinden giderek orduyu savaşa gönderirken "yaşlı, çocuk, kadın, din adamları ve çevreye" dokunulmaması emrini askerlerine bizzat kendisi vermiştir. (Fayda: 10: 104)

Hz. Peygamber (s.a.)'in Medîne'de bir anlaşma yapmak için bulunan Necran heyetine Mescid-i Nebevi'de ibadet etmelerine imkan vermiş olması, diğer dinlere gösterilen din ve ibadet özgürlüğünün; insaniyetin, şefkat ve merhametle birlikte yaşama tecrübesinin çok önemli bir tarihi örneğidir (Sönmez, 137).

Müslümanların diğer din mensûplarına tanıdığı insânî güvenlik ve insan haklarının, dîni özgürlük ve hoşgörünün pek çok örnekleri vardır. Nitekim bunlardan biri II. halîfe Hz. Ömer'in şu uygulamasında görülmektedir. Hz. Ömer bizzat Mescid-i Haram'da cuma namazı sırasında hutbe okurken gelen bir Hristiyan'ı kabul ile şikâyetini dinledi. Hudûddaki Müslüman gümrükçülerin muâmelelerinden şikâyet eden bu zâtın mürâcaatı üzerine Hz. Ömer derhal olaya müdâhale ile adâleti sağladı. Hz. Ömer kim olursa olsun ayırım yapmadan halkının haklarını sonuna kadar korumuştur (Çil; 245). Hz. Peygamber'den sonraki raşit halifeler döneminde farklılıkların ve diğer dinlere tabi olanların hak ve hürriyetlerinin her halükarda korunduğuna tarih böylece şahittir.

Müslümanlar yönetimleri altındaki Hristiyan ve Yahudileri kendi dinlerinde serbest bırakarak aynı zamanda her dini topluma muhtelif konularda birçok imtiyaz tanımış ve dini liderlerine özel bir statü verilmiştir. Bu bağlamda birlikte barış, uyum ve ahenk içinde yaşanabilecek bir ortak medeniyet tesisinin en güzel örneğini Endülüs Müslümanları Avrupa ve dünyaya göstermiştir. Buna rağmen Rönesans'tan sonra Endülüs medeniyetinin köklerinin Batılılar tarafından kurutulduğuna tarih şahittir (Özdemir; 850 vd.). Avrupa kıtasında yaşayan milletlerin İslamiyet'le tanışması, Endülüs Müslümanları ile Selçuklu ve Osmanlı Türkleri sayesinde olmuş böylece İslam medeniyetinin sunduğu farklı din ve kültürlerle birlikte barış, uyum ve huzur içerisinde adilane bir hayat tarzı güzel örnek teşkil etmiştir (Yazıcı; 832 vd.).

Terör

Terör insan haklarının ve toplumsal barışın düşmanıdır. Terör eylemlerinin hedefinin insanın bizzat kendisi ve yaşadığı çevre olması bunun en büyük kanıtıdır. Günümüzde artık bir meslek, bir yaşam tarzı haline dönüşen terör konusunda Rus anarşizminin babası Michael Bakunin (1814-1876) ve öğrencisi Nechayev teröristi " *...medenî dünyanın tüm yasal, manevî ve diğer kurumları ile ilişkisini kesen kişidir... Yalnızca bir tek bilim tanır: Yok etmek.* " şeklinde tanımlamıştır ("Teröristlerin Kitle Psikolojisi").

İslam, zikri geçtiği üzere her halükarda sulh, barış ve uyum içinde yaşamadan yanadır. İslam insan yaratılışının doğası olan farklılıkların değil bundan dolayı çıkarılan terör ve şiddetin

karşısındadır. Konu insan ve insanın onur ve kişiliğine sıkı sıkıya bağlı olan haklar olduğu için insan haklarına saygı merkezli sosyal, ekonomik ve siyasal bir yol izlenmesi söz konusudur (Kamu, 2011; 24). Bundan dolayı devletlerin kırılğan ya da ihtilafta olduğu veya uyuşmazlığa düştüğü durumlarda güvenliğin sağlanması için uyguladıkları ilke ve prensipler de *insan haklarına saygıyı* ön plana almak zorundadır (Anayasa: madde 2).

“Ey îmân edenler! Bir topluluk diğer bir topluluğu alaya almasın. Belki de onlar, kendilerinden daha hayırlıdır...” (Kur’an, Hucurat; 11) ifadesiyle İslam dini insanların şeref ve onurlarıyla oynamayı, haysiyetlerini rencide etmeyi, onları küçümsemeyi, alay etmeyi dahi yasaklamıştır. Allah Teâlâ bana: *“Birbirinize karşı öylesine alçakgönüllü olun ki, hiç kimse diğerine karşı haddi aşıp zulmetmesin. Yine hiç kimse, bir başkasına karşı böbürlenip üstünlük taslamasın!”* diye vahyetti (Müslim, Cennet, 64; Ebû Dâvûd, Edeb, 40) diyen Hz. Peygamber aynı zamanda müslümanı elinden ve dilinden kimsenin zarar görmediği ve insanların her konuda kendisinden emin oldukları kimse olarak tanımlayarak (Buhârî, Îmân 4-5) şiddet ve terörün kökünü kazıyacak prensipleri ortaya koymuştur.

Hz Peygamber’in şiddet kullanmadığına tarih şahittir. "Rabbinin yoluna hikmetle, güzel öğütle davet et ve onlarla, en güzel olan neyse o yolla mücadele et. Şüphe yok ki Rabbin, kendi yolundan sapanları en iyi bilendir ve O, gerçeğe kılavuzlananları en iyi bilendir." (Kur’an, Nahl; 125) diyen Kur’an-ı Kerim insanların Allah yoluna hikmet ve güzel öğütle davet edilmesini isteyerek şiddet ve baskıyı daha baştan reddetmiştir.

"Allah'tan rahmet ile onlara yumuşak davrandın! Şayet sen kaba, katı yürekli olsaydın, hiç şüphesiz etrafından dağılıp giderlerdi." (Kur’an, Al-i İmran; 159) ifadesiyle Kur’an Hz. Peygamber’e insanları incitmemenin ne kadar doğru ve etkin bir davranış olduğunu hatırlatmıştır. Bunun için Peygamberin kendisi de: "Allah Teala beni şiddet uygulayan birisi olarak göndermedi; bilakis eğitici ve kolaylaştırıcı olarak gönderdi." (İbn-i Hanbel, III; 328) diyerek kendinin şiddet uygulayan değil bizzat eğitici ve kolaylaştırıcı olarak gönderildiğini açıkça vurgulamıştır (Kayadibi; 92). İnsan onur ve kişiliğine çok zarar vereceğinden ve kişileri olumsuz etkileyip toplumsal barışı da tehlikeye atacağından tarih şahit olduğu üzere İslam toplumunda şiddete yer verilmesine asla müsaade etmemiştir. Toplumsal yaşamın hangi zemin ve tarihinde olursa olsun şiddet uygulayan bir anlayışın Müslümanlıkla alakası yoktur ve tamamen dönemin mevcut yanlışlıklarının ürünü olarak değerlendirilebilir ve bu dinin felsefe ve ruhuna aykırı düşen fikir ve davranışların İslam’a mal edilmesinin tam bir haksızlık olacağı aşikardır.

İslam dünyasında zaman zaman yeşeren ya da yeşertilen terörün asıl nedeni aslında politik ve ekonomik eşitsizliklerle açlık, sefalet, eğitimsizlik, sağlık vb. çözüm bekleyen sorunlardır. Müslümanların büyük çoğunluğu hem inanç hem de düşünce bağlamında teröristlere ve eylemlerine karşıdır. Müslüman halkın büyük çoğunluğunun önceliği iş bulabilmek, iyi yönetilen devlet ve güvenlik konularıdır. (Cordesman, 3) Bunun için İslam dünyasında temel İslami değerlerle birlikte siyasi ve iktisadi eşitsizlikleri ortadan kaldırarak güçsüzleri güçlendirmek, açları doyurmak, sefaleti yok etmek, evsizleri konut sahibi yapmak, gençleri eğitmek ve hastaları iyileştirmek vb. temel konular halledilirse terör ve şiddet eylemleri dine referans yapılarak gerekçelendirildiğinde zaten inandırıcı da olamayacağı açıktır (Schafer).

Günümüzde İslami temelli olduğunu iddia eden terör örgütleri aslında tarihi gerçekleri yansıtmıyor. Eğer bu terör örgütleri İslami temelli olsalardı VII. Yüzyıldan bu yana var olan İslam tarihinde bir yerleri olurdu. Bu sözde İslam'dan esinlendiğini ileri süren terör örgütlerinin tarihi aslında çok geriye de gitmemektedir.

SONUÇ

İslam isminden anlaşılacağı üzere barış ve uyum dinidir. İnsanlığın aynı aileden geldiğini vurgulayan İslam barış, ahenk ve huzur içinde sağlıklı bir hayat tarzını bütün insanlığı kapsayıcı bir şekilde ortaya koymaktadır. İslam *İnsan Hakları Evrensel Beyannamesi*'nde olduğu gibi bütün insanlığın kardeş olduğuna davet eden bir insan hakları felsefesini asırlar öncesinden ifade etmiştir. Bu yüzden İslam insanlık için barış, uzlaşma, huzur, uyum, iyilik ve güzellikten yana olduğundan gerçek ve evrensel değerlere sahip bir din olduğunu ileri sürmekte haklıdır.

İslam aynı zamanda insanlığın bir aile olarak birlikte barış, uyum ve ahenk içerisinde kardeşçe yaşamının rehberliğini de sunan bir ilkeler dinidir. Temel İslami kaynaklar olan Kur'an ve Sünnet özde bu birlikteliği bozacak her türlü terör ve şiddete de karşıdır. Bundan dolayı terörizm İslami geleneğe taban tabana zıttır. Din kaynaklı şiddet ve terör eylemleri bu yüzden temel evrensel İslami değerleri temsil edemez. Klasik İslami metinler de aslında savunmasız sivillere, mallarına, evlerine zarar vermek, masum erkek, kadın ve çocuklara zarar vermek ve onları bombalamak suretiyle öldürmek, şiddet, işkence, eziyet vb. eylemlere kesinlikle cevaz vermemiştir. Gayri insani muameleler yerine barış, merhamet ve bağışlamadan yana olan bir dinin mensupları olan bir müslümanın şiddet içeren eylemlerden en azından düşünce olarak uzak durması gerekir.

Terörün tek amaç ve hedefi vardır o da toplumdaki barış, huzur ve uyumu bozarak hem insan hakları hem de bahsi geçen İslami değerlerin savunduğu evrensel kardeşliği ortadan kaldırmaktır. Tam da bu sebepten terör insanlık için tarihte bilinen en büyük tehdit ve düşmanlıktır. Teröristler insanlar arasında din, ırk, dil vb. bir ayırım yapmadan öldürmek için yetiştirilmektedir. Teröristler sınıraşan ve sınırötesi eylemler yaptığından yalnız insanlığa olan bir tehdit değil aynı zamanda insanın yaşadığı çevre ve insanlığın kültür mirasına da olan en büyük küresel tehditlerden biridir.

Günümüz insan hakları düşüncesi de İslam gibi insanlığı bir aile olarak görmekte olmasına rağmen bu değerlerin ilham aldığı ilahi kaynaklarına referans yapılmaması bu husustaki en büyük eksikliğidir. O yüzden çağdaş insan hakları ilkelerinin barış, uyum ve huzur içinde birlikte yaşam için ilahi asıllarıyla temellendirilmeye ihtiyaç vardır. Müslümanların da aynı ailenin çocukları olarak kendi evrensel değerlerini 632 yılındaki Veda hutbesinden bu yana tüm dünyaya bir kez daha açık ve net bir evrensel insan hakları mesajı olarak sunma görev ve zorunluğu vardır.

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Türk Hukuk Sisteminde Taşıma İşleri Komisyoncusu

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ÖZET

Türk Ticaret Kanunu'nun (TTK) "*Taşıma İşleri*" başlıklı dördüncü kitabının, altıncı ve son kısmında 917 - 930. maddeleri arasında, "*Taşıma İşleri Komisyoncusu*" düzenlenmiştir. Söz konusu kısımda TTK'nın 917. maddesinde Taşıma Komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi hüküm altına alınmıştır. Anılan maddenin ilk fıkrasına göre, "*taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile komisyoncu eşya taşıtmayı üstlenir. Bu sözleşme ile gönderen, kararlaştırılan ücreti ödeme borcu altına girer*". Taşıma İşleri Komisyonculuğu sadece eşya taşımada söz konusudur. Bu bakımından yolcu taşıma bakımından Taşıma İşleri Komisyonculuğu söz konusu değildir. Çalışmamızda Taşıma İşleri Komisyonculuğu sözleşmesinin unsurları, tarafların hak ve borçları, tarafların sorumlulukları, yardımcılarından dolayı olan sorumlulukları ele alınıp konu yargı kararları ile beraber incelenecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Taşıma İşleri Komisyoncusu, Taşıma Sözleşmesi, Tacir Yardımcıları, Taşıma İşleri Komisyoncusunun Sorumluluğu, Yardımcı Kişinin Fiili, Yardımcının İhmali.

Freight Forwarder in the Turkish Legal System

ABSTRACT

In the last part of the fourth book titled "Transportation Works" of the Turkish Commercial Code (TCC), "Freight forwarder" was organized between the articles 917 - 930. In the mentioned section, Article 917 of the Turkish Commercial Code (TCC) has been taken under the contract of the Transport Commission. According to the first paragraph of the aforementioned article, " Freight Forwarder agreement with a broker takes you to move goods. Posted by with this agreement, the payment of the agreed fee debt fall under". Freight forwarding is involved in the transportation of goods only. This is out of the question in terms of passenger transport in terms of freight forwarding. In our study, the elements of the freight forwarding contract, the rights and obligations of the parties the responsibilities of the parties, the responsibilities for the Vice will be discussed. In this sense, together with the subject of judicial decisions will be examined.

Keywords: Freight Forwarder, Carriage Contract, Merchant Assistant, The Responsibility of A Freight Forwarder.

GİRİŞ VE KONUNUN TAKDİMİ

GENEL OLARAK TAŞIMA İŞLERİ KOMİSYONCULUĞU VE TANIM

Karayolu Taşıma Kanunu¹⁷⁷'nin 3. maddesinde taşıma tanımlanmıştır. Buna göre taşıma, yolcunun taşıta bindiği veya eşyanın taşımacıya teslim edildiği yerden varış noktasına götürülmesini ifade eder. TTK da ise taşıma konusunda bir tanım bulunmamaktadır.

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu¹⁷⁸ eşya taşımayı bir ücret karşılığında üstlenen kişidir. Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile gönderen, kararlaştırılan ücreti ödeme borcu altına girer.

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile komisyoncu¹⁷⁹ eşya taşımayı üstlenir¹⁸⁰. Komisyoncunun asli ödevi eşyayı taşımak değildir (Arkan, 2018: 254; Arkan, 1980: 313; Misili, 2015:271). Komisyoncunun asıl borcu taşıma işinin organize edilmesidir¹⁸¹. Bununla birlikte komisyoncu, eşyayı bizzat taşıma borcu altında olmasa da, taşınacak olan eşyanın belirlenen zamanda varma yerinde olmasını sağlama borcu altındadır (Tüzün, 1968:65; Misili, 2015:271).

Türk Ticaret Kanununa göre, taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, bir ücret karşılığında eşya taşımayı üstlenen kimsedir (TTK m. 917/1)¹⁸². Komisyoncu kendi adına ve müvekkili hesabına

¹⁷⁷ 4925 sayılı Karayolu Taşıma Kanunu, RG., Tarih, 19/7/2003 Sayı : 25173.

¹⁷⁸ Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu için literatürde bir kısım yazarlar sadece *forwarder* terimini kullananmaktadır bkz. Misili, s. 270. TTK'da "taşıma işleri komisyoncusu", Kanunun gerekçesinde ise, "taşıma işleri yüklenicisi" denilmektedir (Bozer / Göle, s. 141).

¹⁷⁹ Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu için bundan sonra komisyoncu deyimi de kullanılacaktır.

¹⁸⁰ Yargıtay 11. HD., E. 2016/10995 K. 2018/4114 T. 30.5.2018 tarihli bir kararında, "Davacı vekili, müvekkilinin uluslararası nakliyat ve gümrükleme işleri ile uğraştığını, davalıya taşıma işleri komisyoncusu olarak verdiği hizmet karşılığı düzenlediği ve tebliğ ettiği fatura bedellerinin ödenmediğini ileri sürerek fazlaya ilişkin dava ve talep haklarının saklı kalması kaydıyla davalıdan 8.153,00TL alacaklı olduğunu tespit ve tahsili ile alacağa 14.07.2011 ihtarname tarihinden itibaren avans faizi uygulanmasını talep ve dava etmiştir. Davalı vekili, müvekkilinin yurtdışından aldığı şampuan ve sair doğal sağlık malzemelerinin taşınması için davacı ile anlaştığını, taşıma işini ... Şirketi'nin yaptığını, taşıma esnasında hasar meydana geldiğini, hasardan davacının sorumlu olduğunu, davacıya bu nedenle borçlu olmadığını savunmuştur.

Mahkemece iddia, savunma, bilirkişi raporu ve tüm dosya kapsamına göre, taraflar arasında taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi yapıldığı, taşınanın dava dışı ... şirketi tarafından gerçekleştirildiği, taşıma sırasında eşyaların zarar gördüğü, 6762 sayılı TTK'nın 809. maddesine göre taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun eşyanın fili taşıyıcısı tarafından taşınması sırasında oluşan hasardan sorumlu tutulmayacağı, davalı tarafın taşıyıcı seçiminde gereken özenin gösterilmediğini iddia ve ispat edemediği, o halde taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun tüm ücrete hak kazanacağı, kararlaştırılan ücretin 9.213,67 TL olup yapılan kısmi ödemeden sonra davacının 8.153,06 TL alacağı kaldığı gerekçesiyle davanın kabulü ile 8.153,00TL'nin 12.08.2011 tarihinden itibaren işleyecek avans faiz oranı ile birlikte davalıdan tahsiline karar verilmiştir.

Kararı, davalı vekili temyiz etmiştir. Dava, taşıma ve gümrükleme hizmeti nedeniyle düzenlenen faturaya dayalı alacak istemine ilişkindir. Davacı, kendisinin taşıma işleri komisyoncusu olduğunu ve ücrete hak kazandığını, taşımayı fiilen ... şirketinin yaptığını iddia etmiştir. Davalı ise, davacının taşıyıcı sıfatını haiz olduğunu, taşınan emtiada gerçekleşen hasardan sorumlu olduğunu savunmuştur.

6762 sayılı TTK 814/1. maddesine göre, aksine mukavele olmadığı takdirde komisyoncu eşyayı kendi vasıta ve adamları ile taşıyabileceği gibi kendi yerine geçen taşıyıcılara da taşıtabilir. Bu halde komisyoncu taşıyıcı sayılır. Somut olayda havayolu taşınmasını fiilen ... firması yapmış ise de, ... firmasının davalıdan navlun bedeli istediğine dair dosyada bilgi ve belge bulunmadığı gibi, dosya içerisinde bulunan faturaya göre davacı, davalıdan ithalat, ordino ve navlun ücreti talep etmiştir. Davacının taşıma işini bizzat yapacağı yönünde aksine bir anlaşma bulunmayıp yukarıda ifade edilen yasal düzenleme gereği davacı eşyayı kendi yerine geçen başka bir taşıyıcıya taşıtmış olsa da, taşıyıcı sayılacağından kaideten hasardan sorumlu olacağının kabulüyle bir değerlendirme yapılması gerekirken, yanılığlı değerlendirme ile davacının taşıma işleri komisyoncusu olduğunun kabulü ile yazılı şekilde karar verilmesi doğru olmamış, bozmayı gerektirmiştir."

¹⁸¹ KARAN, Hakan, Law on the International Carriage of Goods, 3rd. Edt., Ankara 2013, .s. 61; MİSİLİ, s. 271. Bkz. İstanbul BAM, 13. HD., E. 2018/507 K. 2019/236 T. 20.2.2019.

¹⁸² 6762 sayılı eski TTK'nın 808. maddesi uyarınca, "ücret mukabilinde kendi namına ve bir müvekkil hesabına eşya taşıtmayı sanat ittihaz etmiş olan kimseye taşıma işleri komisyoncusu denir". anılan hükmün ikinci fıkrasında da "bu ayırımdaki hususi

hareket ederek eşya taşıtmayı üstlenir. Bu anlamda komisyoncu dolaylı temsilcidir. Bu durum TTK m.917/1 hükmünde belirtilmemiş olsa da, anılan madde hükmünün gerekçesinde ikinci paragraftan anlaşılmaktadır. Ayrıca TTK m. 922.1 hükmünde "komisyoncunun kendi adına ve onun hesabına yaptığı sözleşmelerden doğan alacaklarını..." şeklindeki açıklama da komisyoncunun dolaylı temsilci olduğunun kanundaki ifadesidir.

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu TTK m. 917-930. maddeleri arasında hüküm altına alınmıştır. Bunlar saklı kalmak şartıyla, TBK'nun Komisyon Sözleşmesi başlıklı 11. Bölümünde düzenlenmiş olan hükümler¹⁸³ ve eşya taşımaya ilişkin hususlarda da taşıma sözleşmesindeki hükümler uygulanır. Bu bağlamda taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, gönderen ile taşıyıcı arasında uzman aracı konumunda bulunarak, malların bir yerden başka bir yere taşınmasını kendisi üstlenmeden organize eder (Karan, 2013: 62; Misili, 2015: 273).

UNSURLARI

Sözleşmeye Dayanması

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu bir sözleşmeye dayanır. TTK m. 917/1 hükmüne göre, taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile komisyoncu eşya taşıtmayı üstlenir.

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu ile müvekkil arasında yapılan bu sözleşme bir şekle tabi değildir. Bu anlamda sözleşme sözlü dahi kurulabilir (Değirmenci, 2019: 29). Yapılan sözleşme, müvekkile ait belirli bir eşyayı taşımak içindir. Bu anlamda sürekli değildir (Ayhan / Çağlar, 2017: 537).

Sözleşmenin Konusu Eşyanın Taşınmasıdır

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, kendisine gönderen tarafından teslim edilen eşyayı taşıttırmayı üstlenir (Adıgüzel, 2018: 298). Başka bir ifade ile komisyoncu, eşyanın yer değiştirmesini, bir yerden başka bir yere taşınmasını sağlar. Bu sözleşmede söz konusu olan eşyadır. Dolayısıyla, yolcu taşınmasına aracılık yapılması halinde komisyon sözleşmesine ilişkin hükümler değil, vekalet hükümleri uygulanır (Arkan, 2018: 254; Arkan, 1988: 313, 314; Ayhan/Çağlar, 2017: 537, 538).

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu bütün taşıma yöntemleri bakımından söz konusu olabilir. Bu konuda hava, deniz veya tren yolu ile yapılan taşımalarda özel bir kanuni düzenleme olmadığı için, her taşıma yönteminde taşıma işleri komisyonculuğuna ilişkin hükümler uygulanabilir (Adıgüzel, 2018: 298).

Aracılık Faaliyetinin Devamlı Olması

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun yaptığı aracılık faaliyeti devamlı olmalıdır (Arkan, 2018: 254; BOZER/GÖLE, 2018: 142). 6762 sayılı eski TTK'nın 808. maddesine göre, "ücret mukabilinde kendi namına ve bir müvekkil hesabına eşya taşıtmayı sanat ittiha etmiş olan

hükümler baki kalmak şartıyla komisyon mukavelesi ve eşyanın taşınmasına ilişkin hususlarda, taşıma mukavelesi hakkındaki hükümler taşıma işleri komisyonculuğuna da tatbik olunur.

¹⁸³ TBK m. 546/3 uyarınca, taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu hakkındaki özel hükümler saklıdır.

kimseye taşıma işleri komisyoncusu denir." Bu bakımdan, taşıma işleri komisyonculuğunun varlığı bakımından bu işin meslek edinilmiş olması gerekmektedir (Akdeniz, 2013: 16)¹⁸⁴. Eski kanundaki anılan bu hüküm, "taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu bir ticari işletme faaliyetidir" (TTK m. 917/2) şeklinde değişikliğe uğramıştır. Dolayısıyla anılan TTK m. 917/2 hükmünün meydana getirdiği bir sonuç ta, taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun aracılık faaliyetini devamlı olarak yapan kişi olarak kabul edilmesidir (Arkan, 2018: 254). Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu işini sürekli olarak yapan komisyoncu, bu işi meslek edinmiş olmalıdır (Ayhan/Çağlar, 2017: 537, 538).

Ücret

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu yaptığı iş karşılığında ücret alır (TTK m. 917/1). Ücret almadan taşıma işinin yapılması durumunda ise vekalet hükümleri uygulanır (Arkan, 1980: 314; Arkan, 2018: 255; Ayhan/Çağlar, 2017: 538). Ücret sözleşmede ayrı olarak belirlenebilir. Bununla birlikte, taşıma ücretini de kapsayan götürü bir bedel olarak da kararlaştırılabilir (Akdeniz, 2013: 87).

TTK m. 920 hükmüne göre, eşyanın taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana teslimi üzerine, komisyoncunun ücreti ödenir. Bu anlamda, eşyanın taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana teslimi¹⁸⁵ ile ücret muaccel olur (Bozer/Göle, 2018: 142).

Ücret olarak taşıma giderlerini de içeren tek bir bedel kararlaştırılmışsa, taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, taşımaya ilişkin olarak, taşıyıcının veya taşıyanın hak ve yükümlülüklerine sahip olur. Bu durumda komisyoncu, giderlerin ödenmesini, ancak bunun olağan olduğu durumlarda isteyebilir (TTK m. 921).

TARAFLARIN BORÇLARI

Taşıma İşleri Komisyoncusunun Borçları

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi karşılıklı borç doğuran, ivazlı bir sözleşmedir. Gönderenin ücret ödemeyi borçlanması karşılığında komisyoncu malların taşınması işini organize eder (Akdeniz, 2013: 31; Misili, 2015: 283). Taşıma işleri komisyoncunun asli görevi, taşıma işini organize etmek başka bir deyişle, taşıma faaliyetini ayarlamak, düzenlemektir. Ancak, komisyoncunun taşıma işini de üzerine almasına hukuken bir engel bulunmamaktadır (Karan, 2013: 62; Misili, 2015: 275). Konu TTK m. 918/1 de hüküm altına alınmıştır buna göre komisyoncunun temel yükümlülüğü; taşıma işini örgütlemesini, taşıma yolunu, araçlarını ve taşıyıcıyı belirleyerek, taşıma için gereken taşıma, ardiye ve taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmelerini yapmak ve taşıyıcıya gerekli bilgi ve talimatları vermek

¹⁸⁴ Bkz. 11. HD., E. 2007/5940 K. 2008/7616 T. 09.06.2008.

¹⁸⁵ Yargıtay 11. Hukuk Dairesi, E: 2003/12020, K.: 2004/5851, kararında "... TTK'nun 808 nci maddesi hükmüne göre, ücret mukabilinde kendi namına ve bir müvekkil hesabına eşya taşıtmayı sanat etmiş olan kimseye taşıma işleri komisyoncusu denir. Aynı kanun'un 810 ncu madde hükmüne göre ise, somut olayda olduğu gibi, komisyoncunun deruhte ettiği iş, kendi namına bir taşıyıcıyı seçerek taşıma sözleşmesi yapmaktan ibaret olduğu taraflar arasındaki akitten açıkça anlaşıldığı takdirde, eşyayı taşıyıcıya teslim ettikten sonra komisyoncu ücretini istemeye hak kazanır. Bu itibarla, davalının taşıma nedeniyle sorumluluğunun başlaması için yükün davalının gönderdiği araca yüklenmesi ve taşımanın bu araç ile yapılması gerekmektedir. Aksi halde, davalının gönderdiği araca değil, başka araçla taşıma yaptırılmışsa, doğan zarar ile davalı arasında nedensellik bağı kurulamayacağından, davalının sorumluluğuna da gidilemeyecektir."

böylece gönderenin tazminat haklarını teminat altına almak yükümlülüklerini kapsar. Bu yükümlülüklerini yerine getirirken tedbirli bir komisyoncu gibi işlem yapmalı, müvekkilinin çıkarlarını korumalı ve talimatlarına uygun hareket etmelidir. Dolayısıyla komisyoncu koşullara en uygun olan rotayı ve taşıtı belirlemelidir. Örneğin eşya gereken taşıma koşullarına göre, soğuk yada sıcak hava donanımına sahip bir taşıtla taşınmalıdır (Arkan, 1980: 314, 315)¹⁸⁶.

Komisyoncunun yükümlülüklerinin kapsamına ayrıca, taşımaya ilişkin olarak kararlaştırılmış olan eşyanın sigortalanması, ambalajlanması, işaretlenmesi ve gümrüklenmesi gibi edimlerin yerine getirilmesi de girer. Aksi öngörülmedikçe, komisyoncu, sadece bu edimlerin yerine getirilmesi için gereken sözleşmeleri yapmakla yükümlüdür (TTK m. 918/2, 919/1).

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu edimlerini yerine getirirken, gönderenin menfaatlerini gözetmekle ve onun talimatlarına uymakla yükümlüdür (TTK m. 918/4). Bu bağlamda komisyoncu, durumun gereklerine göre en uygun olan taşıma yolunu ve taşıtı belirleyerek ve buna uygun olan taşıma sözleşmesini yapar (Arkan, 2018: 255).

Komisyoncu üstlendiği taşıma işini bizzat ifa etmelidir. Komisyoncunun kendisinin yaptığı veya yapacağı sözleşmeler ile komisyon sözleşmesinden kaynaklanan borçlarının ifası için başkalarını vekil tayine ancak, müvekkilinin buna açık veya zımnen rıza gösterdiği hallerde veya durumun gereklerine göre, vekil tayin etmeye mecbur kaldığı hallerde yetkilidir (Arkan, 1980: 317; Arkan, 2018, 256) (BK m. 506/1).

Gönderenin Borçları

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile komisyoncu eşya taşıtmayı üstlenirken, gönderen kararlaştırılan *ücreti* ödeme borcu altına girer (TTK m. 917/1). Ücret ödeme borcu gönderenin sözleşmeden kaynaklanan en önemli borcudur. Ücret taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesinde belirlenebilir. Ancak ücret sözleşmede belirlenmemişse, komisyoncu tacir olduğu için yada tacir olmasa da, yapılan faaliyetin ticari işletme faaliyeti olmasından dolayı komisyoncu ücrete hak kazanacaktır (Arkan, 2018, 255; Adıgüzel, 2018: 304; Akdeniz, 2013: 87, 88.). Ücretsiz yapılan komisyonculuk bakımından BK'nun vekâlet hükümleri uygulanır (Arslanlı, 1960: 202).

Komisyon ücretinin muaccel olacağı zaman TTK m. 920'de düzenlenmiştir. Buna göre, eşyanın, taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana teslimi üzerine, komisyoncunun ücreti ödenir. Böyle olmakla beraber, taraflar, ücretin muacceliyeti bakımından, TTK m. 920'deki düzenlemeden farklı bir muacceliyet zamanı belirleyebilirler. Bu bağlamda ücretin gönderilen tarafından ödeneceği sözleşme ile kararlaştırılabilir. Ayrıca ücret için, eşyanın taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana tesliminden önceki bir tarihte muacceliyet tarihi olarak belirlenebilir (Akdeniz, 2013: 88; Adıgüzel, 2018: 305). Ücret olarak, komisyon ücreti olarak sözleşmede belirlenebileceği gibi,

¹⁸⁶ Bkz. İstanbul BAM, 13. HD., E. 2018/507 K. 2019/236 T. 20.2.2019.

taşıma ücretini de içine alan tek bir götürü bedel de belirlenebilir (Akdeniz, 2013: 87; Adıgüzel, 2018: 305).

Taraflar arasında herhangi bir ücretin kararlaştırılmaması durumunda ise belirlenen yol güzergâhı ve taşıma yöntemine göre piyasadaki normal komisyon ücreti dikkate alınarak taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun ücreti belirlenmelidir. Komisyon ücretinin mutlaka belirli bir miktar para olması gerekmez, parayla ölçülebilen bir çıkarın sağlanması da ücret olarak kabul edilebilir (Hirş, 1948: 749; Arkan, 1982: 15; Aydın, 2019: 13).

Gönderen taşınacak eşyayı taşıyıcıya teslim etmezse taşıma işleri komisyoncusuna karşı temerrüde düşecektir. Komisyoncu bu durumda ücret isteme hakkına sahiptir (TBK m. 539). Komisyoncu, başka sebeplerle işin yapılamaması durumunda, ancak emeğinin yerel âdete göre belirlenecek karşılığını isteyebilir (TBK m. 539/2). Başka bir ifadeyle, gönderenin kusuru yoksa, komisyoncu, ancak emeğinin yerel âdete göre belirlenecek karşılığını isteyebilir. Buna göre, sözleşmede kararlaştırılan ücreti isteyemez (Akdeniz, 2013: 90; Adıgüzel, 2018: 305). Komisyoncu, vekâlet verene karşı dürüstlük kurallarına aykırı davranır, özellikle ona satın aldığından fazla veya sattığından eksik bir bedel bildirirse, ücret alma hakkını kaybeder (TBK m. 540).

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu yaptığı *masrafları* TTK m. 921 hükmüne dayanarak gönderenden talep edebilir. Buna göre, taşıma ücretinden ayrı olarak yapılan giderler de gönderenden istenebilir (Akdeniz, 2013: 91-95; Adıgüzel, 2018: 306 dn. 576).

Gönderen, taşınacak eşyayı, taşıma sırasında karşılaşılabilecek olağan tehlikelere karşı koruyucu bir *ambalaj* içinde teslim etmeli ve *işaretlemelidir*¹⁸⁷. TTK m. 919/1 e göre, "*Gönderen, gerektiğinde eşyayı ambalajlamak ve işaretlemekle ve gerekli belgeleri sağlamakla, ayrıca taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun edimlerini yerine getirebilmesi için gerekli olan bilgileri ona vermekle yükümlüdür. Yük tehlikeli bir eşya ise gönderen, taşıma işleri komisyoncusuna tehlikenin niteliğini, alınması gereken önlemleri yazılı olarak ve zamanında bildirmekle yükümlüdür*".

Yargıtay 11. HD., E. 2014/15805 K. 2015/1280 T. 4.2.2015 kararında, "Davacı vekili hasardan davalı taşıyıcının sorumlu olduğunu ileri sürerken. Davalı vekili ise, sorumluluğun taşımayı yapan alt taşıyıcıya ait olduğunu, zararın eşyanın paketlenmesinden kaynaklandığını, bu nedenle mevcut zarardan yükleyicinin sorumlu olduğunu iddia etmiş, Yargıtay 11. HD. de

¹⁸⁷ Yargıtay 11. HD., E. 2016/9854 K. 2018/2571 T. 10.4.2018 tarihli bir kararında, "... Davalı ... vekili, dava konusu taşımada komisyoncu olduklarını, taşıma işini yapması için diğer davalı THY ile anlaşma sağladıklarını, hasarın süresinde ihbar edilmediğini, Varşova Konvansiyonu gereğince sorumluluklarının da sınırlı olduğunu bu savunarak davanın reddini istemiştir. Davalı THY vekili, dava konusu hasarın süresinde ihbar edilmediğini, zararın hatalı paketlemeden kaynaklandığını, sorumluluklarının sınırlı olduğunu savunarak davanın reddini istemiştir.

Mahkemece tüm dosya kapsamına göre; davacı şirkete nakliyat poliçesi ile sigortalı olan yükün hava yolu ile taşınması sonucunda hasarlı teslim edilmesinden dolayı davalıların taşıma işleri komisyoncusu sıfatı ile sorumlu bulunduğu, taşıyıcının sorumluluğu istisna haller hariç olmak üzere sınırlı sorumluluk olduğu, sınırsız sorumluluk hükümlerinin dava konusu olayda uygulama kabiliyeti bulunmadığı, sınırlı sorumluluk limitinin üzerinde olduğu iddia edilen gerçek zararın hesabına gerek bulunmadığı gerekçesiyle davanın kısmen kabulü ile 1.400,17 TL'nin tahsiline, fazlaya ilişkin talebin reddine karar verilmiştir."

"...davalının taşıma işleri komisyoncusu olarak dava konusu hasardan sorumlu olduğu...", yönünde karar vermiştir.

Gönderenin taşıma işleri komisyoncusuna eşyanın taşınması konusunda gerekli *belgeleri sağlama ve bilgileri verme* yükümlülüğü vardır (TTK m. 919/1, 2,b,c). TTK m. 919/1 hükmü uyarınca, gönderenin bütün belgeleri sağlamak ve taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun edimlerini yerine getirebilmek için gerekli olan bütün bilgileri ona vermekle yükümlüdür. Burada resmi belgeler için gerekli olsun olmasın bütün belgeler kast edilmektedir (Akdeniz, 2013: 98).

Gönderenin resmi belgelerin eksikliğinden, yokluğundan veya gerçeğe aykırı olmasından doğan giderleri ve zararı karşılamakla yükümlü tutulması (TTK m.919/2) bakımından Yargıtay verdiği bir kararında (Yargıtay 11. HD., E. 2014/10604 K. 2014/20064 T. 18.12.2014) davacının Rusya'daki bir limana gönderilen ve komisyoncu tarafından zamanında gümrükten alınmayan konteynırları dolayısıyla, gerekli belgeleri verdiğini, bildirimleri yaptığını ispat ederek tazminatın davalıdan tahsili ile davacıya verilmesine hükmetmiştir.

Bunun istisnası ise, gönderenin tüketici olmasıdır. Gönderen tüketici ise, taşıyıcıya karşı sadece kusuru oranında sorumludur ve buna göre zarar ve giderleri tazmin eder (TTK m.864/4). Tüketici de TTK m. 864/5 de tanımlanmıştır. Buna göre tüketici, sözleşmeyi ticari veya meslekî faaliyeti ile ilgili olmayan bir amaçla yapan gerçek ya da tüzel kişidir.

Yük *tehlikeli bir eşya* ise gönderen, taşıma işleri komisyoncusuna tehlikenin niteliğini, alınması gereken önlemleri yazılı olarak ve zamanında bildirmekle yükümlüdür (TTK m.919/1).

Gönderen sözleşmenin ifası sebebiyle taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun uğradığı zararları tazmin etmelidir. TTK m. 919/2 hükmüne göre, "*Gönderen, kendisine herhangi bir kusur yüklenmese bile taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun;*

- a) *Eşyanın yetersiz ambalajlanma ve işaretlenmesinden,*
- b) *Yükün tehlikesi hakkında yeterli bilgi verilmemesinden veya*
- c) *Eşya ile ilgili resmî işlemler için gerekli olan belgelerin ve bilgilerin eksikliğinden, yokluğundan ya da gerçeğe aykırılığundan, kaynaklanan giderlerini ve zararını karşılamakla yükümlüdür. 864 üncü maddenin ikinci ilâ beşinci fıkraları burada da uygulanır".*

Görüldüğü üzere bu madde hükmüne göre, gönderenin sorumluluğu kusursuz sorumluluktur. Anılan hükmün son fıkrasına göre ise, gönderenin tüketici olması halinde kusur sorumluluğu söz konusudur (Tandoğan, 1961: 68; Akdeniz, 2013: 101).

HAPİS HAKKI

Komisyoncu, taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesinden doğan bütün alacakları için Türk Medenî Kanununun 950 - 953. maddeleri uyarınca eşya üzerinde hapis hakkına sahiptir. Taşıyıcının rehin hakkının kapsamının düzenlendiği, 891. maddenin birinci fıkrasının

ikinci cümlesi ile üçüncü fıkrası hükümleri de bu konuda kıyas yoluyla uygulanır (TTK m. 923/1). Burada, Taşıyıcının rehin hakkının kapsamı ile taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun rehin hakkının kapsamı eşdeğer kabul edilmiştir (DEĞİRMENCİ, 2019: 34). Ayrıca, TTK m. 923. madde hükmünden anlaşıldığı üzere komisyoncu, sözleşmeden doğan *bütün alacakları* için, eşya üzerinde rehin hakkına sahiptir.

TAŞIMA İŞLERİ KOMİSYONCUSUNUN SORUMLULUĞU

Komisyoncunun Eşyanın Ziyat ve Hasarından Sorumluluğu

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, zilyetliğinde bulunan eşyanın ziyatından ve hasarından sorumludur. 876 - 878., 880 ve 881. maddeler ile, 882. maddenin birinci, ikinci ve dördüncü fıkraları ve 883, 885 - 887. maddeler kıyas yoluyla uygulanır (TTK m. 928/1). Buna göre komisyoncunun sorumluluğu bakımından, TTK'daki taşıyıcının sorumluluğunun düzenlendiği maddelere kıyas yoluyla uygulanır.

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumlu olabilmesi için eşyanın komisyoncunun zilyetliğindeyken zarar görmesi gereklidir¹⁸⁸. Ayrıca komisyoncu, Kanunda hüküm altına alınan sorumluluktan kurtulma hallerinden birine dayanmamış olmalıdır (Adıgüzel, 2018: 308).

Taşıyıcının sorumluluğunun hukuki niteliği bizim de katıldığımız görüşe göre, yumuşatılmış bir kusursuz sorumluluktur (Adıgüzel, 2018: 308). Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumluluğunun kusur sorumluluğu olduğu şeklindeki aksi görüşler de mevcuttur (Akdeniz, 2013: 109, 110).

Zira, 928/1. maddeye göre, kıyas yoluyla taşıma işleri komisyoncusuna uygulayacağımız hükümlerden bunu anlamaktayız. Anılan hükümlere göre, zarar varsa taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumluluğu karine söz konusudur. Komisyoncu, kaçınamayacağı ve sonuçlarını önleyemeyeceği bir olayı ve bu olay dolayısıyla zararın oluştuğunu ispatlarsa karineyi çürütebilecektir (Adıgüzel, 2018: 308).

¹⁸⁸ Yargıtay, 11. HD., E. 2016/8053 K. 2018/1397 T. 26.2.2018 kararında, "...Davalı vekili, süresinde ihbarın yapılmadığını, muayene yükümünün yerine getirilmediğini, konişmentodaki "...." kayıtları uyarınca yükleme istifleme, boşaltma, tahliye işlemlerinin taşıyana ait olmadığını, hasarın deniz taşıması esnasında meydana gelmediğini savunarak davanın reddini istemiştir. Davalı temsilcisi, kendilerinin taşıma işleri komisyoncusu/forvarder olduğunu, emtianın yükleneceği boş konteynırları firmasının deposuna gönderdiklerini, konteynır dolularının tarafından yapıldığını, ardından konteynırların asıl taşıyıcı olan ait gemiye götürüldüğünü, bu firma tarafından da konteynırların gemiye yüklendiğini, yükleme ve istiflemeyen müvekkilinin bir sorumluluğunun bulunmadığını savunarak davanın reddini istemiştir. Mahkemece, iddia, savunma, bilirkişi raporu ve tüm dosya kapsamına göre, taşımanın kapalı konteynırlarla yapıldığı, bu konteynırların hasarlı olduğuna ilişkin bir belgenin sunulmadığı, konişmento kayıtlarına göre yükleme ve istiflemenin yükleyene ait olduğu, bizzat gönderen tarafından yüklemenin yapıldığı, konteynırların mühürlendikten sonra gemiye konulduğu, yüklemenin nasıl yapıldığının ve kaymayı önlemek için gerekli tedbirlerin alınıp alınmadığının taşıyan tarafından kontrol edilemeyeceği, hasarın da yükleme ve istiflemenin iyi yapılmamasından kaynaklandığı, davalıların hasardan sorumlu olmadıkları gerekçesiyle davanın reddine karar verilmiştir". Bursa BAM, 5. HD., E. 2018/1425 K. 2019/223, 2.4.2019 tarihli bir kararında, "... Satıcı ile düzenlenen sözleşmede nakliye bedeli alıcıya aittir. Bu nedenle alıcının dava açma hakkı vardır. Taşıma komisyoncusu taşımadan kaynaklı zarardan TTK 928 maddesi zilliyetliğinde bulunan eşyanın hasar ve ziyatından sorumludur. Bu sebeple davalının istinaf itirazları yerinde değildir". şeklinde karar vermiştir.

Zararın oluşmasına, gönderenin bir davranışı veya eşyanın özel bir ayıbı da sebep olmuşsa, tazminat borcunun doğmasında ve kapsamının belirlenmesinde bu olguların ne ölçüde etkili olduğu dikkate alınır (TTK m. 928/3)¹⁸⁹.

Eşyanın Zıyaı veya Hasarı Dışında Kalan Zararlardan Dolayı Sorumluluğu

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, zilyetliğinde bulunan eşyanın zıyaı veya hasarı dışında kalan bir zarardan sadece 918. madde uyarınca kendisine düşen bir yükümlülüğü ihlal etmesi hâlinde sorumludur. Tedbirli bir tacirin göstereceği özene rağmen zarar önlenemeyecek ise komisyoncu sorumluluktan kurtulur (TTK m. 928/2).

Bunun yanında komisyoncunun TTK m. 928/2 hükmü uyarınca sorumlu olarak kabul edilmesi durumunda, zararın kendisi tarafından ödenmesi ve ayrıca gönderenin yoksun kaldığı kârı da tazmin etmesi söz konusu olabilir. Bu durumda komisyoncu hakkında, taşıyıcının sorumluluğunu taşımaya konu eşyanın taşınmak için teslim alındığı yer ve zamandaki kıymetiyle sınırlandıran TTK 880. madde hükmü uygulanmaz (Arkan, 2018: 257; AYDIN, 2019: 52).

Komisyoncunun taşınmasını üstlendiği eşyanın teslimindeki *gecikmeden* doğan hasar ve zararlardan sorumluluğu TTK m. 928/2'nin yaptığı atıfla TTK m. 918'de sayılan yükümlülüklerini ihlal edip etmemesine bağlı olacaktır. Eşyanın geç teslimi nedeni ile eşyanın bozulması gibi sebeplerle eşyanın hasara uğraması veya zayi olması halinde de komisyoncu zarardan kusuru ile sorumlu olacaktır (Akdeniz, 2013: 115; Adıgüzel, 2018: 309; Bilgili/Demirkep, 2012: 146, 147; Aydın, 2019: 177, 178).

Yardımcı Kişiler Dolayısıyla Sorumluluğu

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun kendi çalışanlarının ve taşımanın yapılması için faydalandığı kişilerin görevlerini ifa ederken yaptıkları fiil ve ihmallerinden komisyoncu kendi fiil ve ihmali gibi sorumludur (TTK m. 929)¹⁹⁰.

Bu durum taşıyıcının yardımcıları dolayısı ile olan sorumluluğu ile benzerdir. Dolayısı ile taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumluluktan kurtulması da TTK m. 928 e göre olacaktır.

Kişinin kendi işlerini tek başına yürütmesi genellikle çok zordur. İşin hacmi, teknik bilgi ve ihtiyaçlar başka kişilerin yardımlarını gerektirebilir. Bir işin görülmesinde veya yürütülmesinde katkıda bulunan yardımcı kişiler, değişik hukuki ilişkiler içerisinde çalıştırılabilirler (EREN, 2018: 642). Bu kapsamda, borcun ifasını yada bir borç ilişkisinden doğan hakkın kullanılmasını iş sahibinin kendisine bıraktığı kişiyi de *yardımcı kişi* olarak adlandırmaktayız (TANDOĞAN, 1961: 436; AKDENİZ, 2013: 120). Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun *yardımcı kişilerini*, "taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun adamları" (TTK m.

¹⁸⁹ Bkz. İstanbul BAM, 13. HD., E. 2018/507 K. 2019/236 T. 20.2.2019.

¹⁹⁰ TTK m. 929 hükmünün gerekçesinde CMR'nin 3. maddesindeki düzenlemenin aynen kabul edilmesi ilkesinin benimsendiğinden söz edilmektedir. Ayrıntılı bilgi için bkz. AKDENİZ, s. 120 vd.

929/1,a) ve "taşımanın yerine getirilmesi için hizmetlerinden yararlanan kişiler" (TTK m. 929/1,b)¹⁹¹ olarak ikiye ayırabiliriz (Göle/Bozer, 2018: 144; Akdeniz, 2013: 121)

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun adamları, onun işletmesinde çalışanlardır. TTK m. 929 hükmünde geçen adamlarının ifadesine rağmen bu kişiler tüzel kişi de olabilirler (Akdeniz, 2013: 121). Bunlar bir hizmet sözleşmesi ile komisyoncuya bağlıdırlar (Adıgüzel 2018: 309).

Taşımanın yerine getirilmesi için hizmetlerinden yararlanan kişiler ise, bir hizmet sözleşmesi ile komisyoncuya bağlı değildirler (Adıgüzel 2018: 309). Komisyoncu bunların hizmetlerinden yararlanır. Gerçek veya tüzel kişi olabilirler. Bunlar ifa yardımcısıdırlar (Akdeniz, 2013: 122).

ZAMANAŞIMI

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu bakımından zamanaşımı konusu TTK m. 930'da hüküm altına alınmıştır. Buna göre, ile ilgili hükümlerden doğan istemler ve haklar bir yılda zamanaşımına uğrar (TTK m. 930/1). Zamanaşımının başlangıcı, zamanaşımına uğramış bir istem veya hakkın def'i olarak ileri sürülebilmesi bakımından ve zararın taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun kasten veya pervasızca bir davranışla ve böyle bir zararın meydana gelmesi ihtimalinin bilinciyle işlenmiş bir fiilden veya ihmalden doğması hâlinde 855. madde hükümleri uygulanır.

TTK m. 855/2 de, taşıma sözleşmesinde zamanaşımının eşyanın gönderilene teslimi ile başlayacağını düzenlendiğini görüyoruz. Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu bakımından anılan hükmün uygulanmasını ele alacak olursak, taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun ücreti eşyanın taşıyıcıya teslimi ile muaccel olmaktadır. Dolayısıyla buna ilişkin zamanaşımı süresi de eşyanın taşıyıcıya teslimi ile başlar (Akdeniz, 2013: 143).

Gönderen veya gönderilen, taşıyıcıya karşı olan haklarını, bir yıl içinde 18. maddenin üçüncü fıkrasına uygun şekilde istemiş olmaları şartıyla, def'i olarak her zaman ileri sürebilirler (TTK m. 855/4).

SONUÇ

Komisyoncunun temel yükümlülüğü; taşıma işini örgütlemesini, taşıma yolunu, araçlarını ve taşıyıcıyı belirleyerek, taşıma için gereken taşıma, ardiye ve taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmelerini yapmak ve taşıyıcıya gerekli bilgi ve talimatları vermek böylece gönderenin tazminat haklarını teminat altına almak yükümlülüklerini kapsar. Bu yükümlülüklerini yerine getirirken tedbirli bir komisyoncu gibi işlem yapmalı, müvekkilinin çıkarlarını korumalı ve talimatlarına uygun hareket etmelidir. Dolayısıyla komisyoncu

¹⁹¹ İstanbul BAM, 12. HD., E. 2017/733 K. 2018/863, 3.7.2018 tarihli kararında, "...Davacı İstinafi Yönünden; Dosyada bulunan ... Nakliyat başlıklı 14/10/2015 tarihli yükleme fişinden davalı Ltd. Şti vekilinin cevap dilekçesindeki arabulucu olarak kabul ettiği etkinlik tanımlaması ile daha sonraki beyanlardan davalı ...Nak.firmasının taşıma işlerini örgütlediği ve organize ettiği anlaşılmaktadır. 6102 sayılı TTK'nın 917 v.d maddeleri kapsamında tanımlanabilecek bu faaliyet doğrultusunda taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumluluğu TTK 929/1-b maddesinde düzenlenmiş olup;adı geçen maddeye göre: Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu, taşımanın yerine getirilmesi için yararlandığı kişilerin, görevlerini yapmaları sırasındaki fiil ve ihmallerinden, kendi fiil ve ihmali gibi sorumludur..." Yüksek Mahkeme tarafından, taşımanın yerine getirilmesi için hizmetlerinden yararlanan kişiler dolayısıyla komisyoncunun sorumlu olacağı belirtilmiştir.

koşullara en uygun olan rotayı ve taşıtı belirlemelidir. Örneğin eşya gereken taşıma koşullarına göre, soğuk yada sıcak hava donanımına sahip bir taşıtla taşıtılmalıdır.

Komisyoncunun ödevlerine, taşımaya ilişkin olarak kararlaştırılmış olan eşyanın sigortalanması, ambalajlanması, işaretlenmesi ve gümrüklenmesi gibi edimlerin yerine getirilmesi de girer. Aksi öngörülmedikçe, komisyoncu, sadece bu edimlerin yerine getirilmesi için gereken sözleşmeleri yapmakla yükümlüdür.

Taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesi ile komisyoncu eşya taşıtmayı üstlenirken, gönderenin de kararlaştırılan *ücreti* ödeme borcu vardır. Ücret ödeme borcu gönderenin sözleşmeden kaynaklanan en önemli borcudur. Ücret taşıma işleri komisyonculuğu sözleşmesinde belirlenebilir. Ancak ücret sözleşmede belirlenmemişse, komisyoncu tacir olduğu için yada tacir olmasa da, yapılan faaliyet ticari işletme faaliyeti olduğundan komisyoncu ücret isteme hakkına sahiptir.

Komisyon ücretinin muaccel olacağı zaman TTK m. 920'de düzenlenmiştir. Buna göre, eşyanın, taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana teslimi üzerine, komisyoncunun ücreti ödenir. Böyle olmakla beraber, taraflar, ücretin muacceliyeti bakımından, TTK m. 920'deki düzenlemeden farklı bir muacceliyet zamanı belirleyebilirler. Bu bağlamda ücretin gönderilen tarafından ödeneceği sözleşme ile kararlaştırılabilir. Ayrıca ücret için, eşyanın taşıyıcıya veya taşıyana tesliminden önceki bir tarihte muacceliyet tarihi olarak belirlenebilir.

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusu yaptığı *masrafları* TTK m. 921 hükmüne dayanarak gönderenden talep edebilir. Buna ek olarak, taşıma ücretinden ayrı olarak yapılan giderler de gönderenden istenebilir.

Gönderen, taşınacak eşyayı, olağan tehlikelere karşı koruyucu bir *ambalaj* içinde teslim etmeli ve *işaretlemelidir*.

Gönderenin resmi belgelerin eksikliğinden, yokluğundan veya gerçeğe aykırı olmasından doğan giderleri ve zararı karşılamakla yükümlü tutulması konusunda Yargıtay verdiği bir kararında (Yargıtay 11. HD., E. 2014/10604 K. 2014/20064 T. 18.12.2014) davacının Rusya'daki bir limana gönderilen ve komisyoncu tarafından zamanında gümrükten alınmayan konteynırları dolayısıyla, gerekli belgeleri verdiğini, bildirimleri yaptığını ispat ederek tazminatın davalıdan tahsili ile davacıya verilmesine hükmetmiştir. Bunun istisnası ise, gönderenin tüketici olmasıdır. Gönderen tüketici ise, taşıyıcıya karşı sadece kusuru oranında sorumludur ve buna göre zarar ve giderleri tazmin eder (TTK m.864/4).

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun sorumlu olabilmesi için eşyanın komisyoncunun zilyetliğindeyken zarar görmesi gereklidir. Ayrıca komisyoncu, Kanunda hüküm altına alınan sorumluluktan kurtulma nedenlerinden herhangi birine dayanamamış olmalıdır.

Taşıma işleri komisyoncusunun kendi çalışanlarının ve taşımanın yapılması için yararlandığı kişilerin yaptıkları fiil ve ihmallerinden komisyoncu kendi fiil ve ihmali gibi sorumludur.

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Multinational Banks Operating in Turkey and Their Profit Transfers

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ABSTRACT

In globalized world economy, capital flows among the countries have been increasingly rapidly. Multinational companies have been earning great attention with their high capitals, high sales and high profit levels. In addition to multinational companies specialized on production, multinational companies specialized on services have been paid greater attention on the literature. Banking industry is one of them. Large part of literature discusses the role of foreign banks in the national economy while the others study the profit transfer of foreign banks. In Turkey, 21 of the 46 banks are owned by multinationals, 46% percent of banking industry is concentrated by multinationals. Here, in this paper, after analyzing literature on foreign bank multinationals profit transfers of multinationals operating in Turkish banking industry will be analyzed. The reasons and effects will be under revision.

Keywords: Multinational Banks, Banking Industry in Turkey, Profitability of Banks, Profit Shifting.

INTRODUCTION

In globalized world economy, capital flows among the countries have been increasingly rapidly. Multinational companies have been earning great attention with their high capitals, high sales and high profit levels. In addition to multinational companies specialized on production, multinational companies specialized on services have been paid greater attention on the literature. Banking industry is one of them. Large part of literature discusses the role of foreign banks in the domestic economy while the others study the profit transfer of foreign banks.

In this paper, the banking industry in Turkey will be analysed. In analysis, firstly, the concept of multinational banks will be given. The challenge towards multinational banks will also be studied in the first part. To be able to study the profit shifting feature of the banking industry, three categories of banks, banks with state capital, banks with national capital and banks with foreign capital will be studied.

MULTINATIONAL BANKS AS FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT

In Europe, the first banks had been established at 15th century. Commercial banks from the center or developed metropolitan countries invaded the periphery or underdeveloped countries in the World. This is considered as the first era of imperialism in economy penetration by Odle (1981). They were also very much present, along with the plantation. Enterprises and the mining concerns in the scramble for Africa and Asia in the fourth quarter of the nineteenth century.

After World War II, in new economic order, capital movement became one of the important subject to be discussed since destructured World need capital to be restructured. In the post 1945, the majority of the multinational corporations from developed economies were in the manufacturing sector. However, the U.S.A as a developed economy's dominance in financial sector were apparent in addition to military and political power have been started to recognized in international markets in that era (Odle, 1981). At that period, financial intermediaries have not been under discussions. Other factors affecting entries of multinational markets were to have very small branch, subsidiary, or affiliate in the periphery in relation to the center. Odle (1981) also discusses the matter from the perspective of collusion and cartelization of banks through fixing the prices, interest rates and other services. This is still open to discussion. Odle (1981) considers the total assets in the periphery territories considered are a rival to the center.

Currently, Bank of International Settlements (2019) defines foreign direct investment is an investment in a Country by enterprise which is a resident entity of another country (Bank of International Settlements, 2019) <https://www.bis.org/publ/cgfs22bde3.pdf>). In this definition, the location of the headquarter of company is the main determinant of the multinationals (Birkinshaw et a, 2006: 698). The location of the company is the main determinant on definition of the multinationals (Birkinshaw et al. 2006: 698). By the removal of barriers on capital movement, an additional criteria has been needed to define and treat

multinationals. The place of location for main team, staff functions and the corporate legal seat gained importance (Braunerhjelm, 2003). In general multinationals offer more efficient and qualified strategic knowledge.

The cost and benefit of multinational banks have been largely discussed in the literature. Total assets and penetration to the local markets would also be an important consideration for the host country and rivals. The other important discussion subject is on double taxation. Local corporate income taxation makes penetration of banks differentiated. A foreign subsidiary's profits are positively related to the corporate income tax in the parent country. Double taxation of dividend income reduces banking-sector FDI in terms of foreign-bank assets. Interest margins is that the local corporate income tax affect workers by lower wages. Higher international taxation of a foreign subsidiary's income initiate profit shifting to the parent bank.

Pigott is one of the first who studies the policies increased foreign bank activities Pacific Basin region(Pigott, 1986).

According to Stiglitz (1993) domestic foreign banks may incur large capital costs at the in the case firm. Trademarks and reputation of multinational banks offers advantage in favour of multinationals. This makes banking industry oligopolistic market structure whereas the competition gets lower.

Huizinga, Voget ad Wagner (2014)study national double taxation. They find a higher local corporate income tax does not lead to higher interest margins as well as interest margins of banks cover the dividends paid by foreign subsidiaries.

Dharmapala and Riedel (2013) studied the shocks faced by parents banks at European Union. The results of study show existence of tax motivated profit shifting occurs. Dharmapala and Riedel (2013) find a smaller effect of profit shifting from the parent level than Huisinga and Laeven (2008).

Gruber (2013) search for profit shifting for 754 multinational corporations in the USA during the period between 1996 and 2004. Gruber (2013) foreign profits as a percentage of its total profits and changes in the share of foreign profits are negatively related to the average foreign tax rate.

Baaji and the others (2015) studied 100 largest multinational banks in the Netherlands where chief headquarters have been relocated as to move chief departments outside the home country(Baaji et al, 2015).

TURKISH BANKING SYSTEM

In Turkey, the first bank were called the " Galata Bankers" in İstanbul. Officially, the first bank has been at 1846. It was "Banque de Constantinople"(İstanbul Bankası). At 1856, Ottoman Bank (Bankı Osmani Şahane) was established at London to operate in İstanbul(Akgüç, 2007). Ottoman Banks would be considered as the first foreign bank of Turkey under the

definition of International Monetary Bank. The headquarter of the bank was at London, the U.K. The first bank with national capital is Ziraat Bankası. During the first half of the 19th century in the Ottoman Empire, foreign banks operate with the adoption of systems used in the European Banks. (<https://www.ziraatbank.com.tr/en/our-bank/about-us/history-of-our-bank>). In table 1, the list of foreign banks operated in Turkey at early years of Republic.

Table 1: The Foreign Banks Operating in Turkey at Early Years of Republic

	Position
Osmanlı Bankası/Ottoman Bank	Merged with Türkiye Garanti Bankası at 2002
Bank Marmaras Blank ve Sürekaşı	Shut down by 1929
Ionian Bank Ltd.	Shut down by 1929
Selanik Bankası	Acquired by TDİF
Credit Lyonnais	
Deutsche Orient Bank	Shutdown by 1945
Deutsche Bank	Shutdown by 1945
Banco Di Roma	Continue its operation
Banco Commerciale Italiana	Shut down by 1977
Bank Marmaras Blank ve Sürekaşı	Shut down by 1929
Hollantse Bank Uni N.V.	Purchased by ABN Amro Bank
American Express Comp.Inc.	Shut Down by 1933
Banque Francaise Des Pays Orient	Shut down by 1933
Commercial Bank of the Near East	Shut down by 1956

Source: Akgüç (2007) <https://dergipark.org.tr/download/article-file/426364>

Until the 1980s, the banking industry in Turkey was concentrated in Turkish capital, regulated with rigid principles and rules. It can be said that it was not liberalized. Due to change in economic system to liberalism by 1980, Turkey's banking industry structure change also. The number of banks with Turkish capital or foreign capital increased very rapidly.

Table 2: Banks Operating After 2001 Financial Crises

National Bank	Acquiring Bank or Institution	
Demirbank	HSBC Bank A.Ş.	Sold Saving Deposit Insurance Fund of Turkey by 2002
Citibank	Nova Bank,(later turned to Bank Europa and Millenium Bank)	Sold By Saving Deposits Insurance Fund of Turkey by 2002
Türk Dış Ticaret Bankası	Fortis Bank N.V. S.A.	Acquired 89% of shares at 2005.
Finansbank A.Ş.	National Bank of Greece	Acquired 46% of shares at 2006.
Denizbank A.Ş.	Dexia Participation Belgique	Acquired 46% of shares at 2006.
Bank Pozitif Kredi ve Kalkınma Bankası	Bank Hapalim in BM Bank	Acquired 58% of shares at 2006.
Tar Yatırım Bankası	Meripp 1 inch European Azset Holding	Acquired 99% of shares at 2006.

By 1991, the number of multinational banks increased to 24 among 88 banks operating in Turkey. The number of banks increased 81 by 1994. However, due to financial crises in Turkey, the number of banks decreased. Specifically, the banks with national bank decreased to four. Three of them are publicly owned banks, the other one is the bank established at the early years of Republic to utilize limited capital accumulated in the Turkish economy. Due to the mergers and shutdown of some banks, the number of the banks decreased to 21 before the 2001 financial crises.

In Turkey, banking system are based on banks established either by national capital or foreign capital and/ or foreign banks or banks branches of banks established abroad (Başak, 2008). % 54 banks operating in Turkey are foreign banks while 46 % of the banks are with Turkish capital.

Table 4: Summary Specification of Banks in Turkey/ (Million TL)/ 2018

	Assets	Financial Assets	Credits Given	Deposits	Credits Taken	Loans from Money Market	Tax	Profit
Publicly Owned Banks								
T.C.Ziraat Bankası A.Ş.	537.156	143.606	370.946	331.066	34.172	68.351	1.467	7.961
Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.	378.422	115.694	250.624	248.855	11.916	38.162		2.522
Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası A.O.	331.356	90.703	221.547	179.408	41.350	28.724	776	4.154
Private B. with Turkish Cap.								
Türkiye İş Bankası	416.388	121.722	260.195	245.269	44.793	9.072	1.489	6.769
Yapı Kredi Bankası	348.044	114.742	211.338	202.549	37.349	1.546	1.091	4.667
Akbank								
Banks with Foreign Capital								
Türkiye Garanti Bankası	359.477	115.892	223.288	218.058	31.941	45	566	6638
QNBFinansbank	157.416	53.619	95.295	87.090	18.166	4.715	150	2.410
Denizbank	137.658	33.992	87.176	84.129	15.213	1.386	268	2.183
ING Bank	58.519	19.044	38.061	32.339	11.845	23	240	1062

Source: TBB, 2019 https://www.tbb.org.tr/Content/Upload/Dokuman/7604/Bankalarimiz_2018.pdf

Multinational Banks and their Profits in Turkish Economy

Banks or other companies, the legal framework must be defined. All the bank established in Turkey is subject to international law. Similar to the establishment of banks, their activities, their earnings, their profits and taxations can be evaluated under the law of foreigners. Similarly article 3 of Code of Banks with the issue number 3182 defined National Bank. This definition makes differences with national bank and foreign bank. However with decree at force

with issue number 512 made a change in the definition. This new definition gives up the term of "national bank". So there is no differences among banks on definition (Başak, 2008). Table 5 shows the change in tax rate applicable to the banks in accordance with the law on foreign banks.

Table 5: Changes on Tax Rate Applied to Banks with limited Liability

Bank Law with the issue number 5520	Official Journal	Official Journal Number	Withholding Rate
2000/1712	20.12.2000	24266	16
2001/2846	17.08.2001	24496	20
2002/4370	29.06.2002	24800	20
2003/6575	30.12.2003	25332	22
Article 4 of Income Tax Code of Turkey with issue number 67	30.12.2004	25687	15
5520	21.06.2006	26205	15
	2017		22

Source: Official Journal

Table 6 shows the number of banks with foreign capital and established in terms of multinational criteria. Garanti Bankası, Denizbank and QNB Finansbank are the leading foreign banks in Turkish Banking industry.

Table 6: Banks with National Capital and Multinational Capital

	National Capital/ Total Capital	Foreign Capital / Total Capital
Türkiye Ziraat Bankası A.Ş.	100	
Türkiye Halk Bankası A.Ş.	100	
Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası A.O.	100	
Türkiye İş Bankası	100	
Yapı Kredi Bankası	40	
Akbank	75	25
Garanti Bankası		100
DenizBank		100
QNB Finansbank		100

Literature Review on Foreign Banks Operating in Turkey

Isık and Hassan(2002)studied cost and profit efficiency of the Turkish Banking Industry. They analyzed cost and profit efficiencies of the Turkish commercial banks between 1988 and 1996. Isık and Hassan (2002) used non standard profit efficiency model. The study investigates the profit efficiency of the Turkish banks in comparison with cost efficiency.

Mercan and the others (2003) analysed the effect of scale and mode of ownership on the financial performance of the Turkish Banking sector just after the 2001 banking crises in Turkey.

Önal and Sevimeser (2006) studied “efficiency” of the banks operating in Turkey. Banks was categorized according to the ownership structures during the period between 1980-2004. The results showed that foreign banks are the most efficient banks in the sector, followed by state-owned banks and the private banks with national origin capital. However, the trends of the performance of the banks are similar. Banks with state owned capitals had lower level of profitability and activities (Önal and Sevimeser, 2006).

Gungor (2007) analysed profitability of 29 national and multinational banks operating in Turkey during the period between 1990 and 2005. Since the study covers the period before and after the radical change made on Turkish Banking system at 2002. Güngör pay attention the ownership of the banks. The study show that micro and macro economics factors affected the local and foreign banks similarly. Similarly, the foreign banks entrance to Turkish banking systems are as follows:

- the foreign banks and Turkish banks have been affected at the same level.
- in the period between 1980 and 2004, foreign banks are higher level activities.

Sakarya (2010) analysed the capital efficiency ratios of foreign banks for the period from to Analyse shows foreign banks had lower level of capital efficiency ratio in comparison to national banks. Quality of assets owned by foreign banks were higher than Turkish capital owned banks. In their profitability analyses, it is recognized national banks profitability were higher than foreign banks operating in Turkey.

Anbar and Alper(2011) studied bank specific determinants as internal factors are determined by bank’s management decisions and policy objectives, such as asset size, capital adequacy, asset quality, liquidity, deposit and income-expenditure structure. Anbar and Alper (2011) used eight bank-specific characteristics as internal determinants of bank profitability: asset size; capital adequacy; Liquidity; deposits

Profitability of Foreign Banks in Turkey

The bank-specific variables are derived from income statements and balance sheets of commercial banks. The financial statement data is collected from Statistical Bulletin of Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency (BRSA), websites of the banks and Istanbul Stock Exchange. With regard to the macroeconomic variables, the data of economic growth, inflation rate and interest rates are obtained from Turkish Statistical Institute. The profitability of foreign banks has been measured on:

- return on assets ratio
- return on equity ratio
- total interest income

The table show return on asset. This ratio shows that for the deposits banks, publicly owned banks had higher return on assets than the foreign banks at 2008. At 2018, the foreign banks had higher return on asset than the publicly owned banks.

Table 7: Return On Assets Ratio in Turkish Banking System (%)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
General	2	2,6	2,4	1,8	1,8	1,6	1,4	1,2	1,5	1,7	N.a.
Deposits Banks	1,9	2,5	2,4	1,8	1,8	1,6	1,4	1,2	1,	1,6	
Publicly Owned B.	2,1	2,8	2,5	1,7	1,9	1,8	1,5	1,5	1,6	1,7	1,2
Banks with Turkish	2	2,5	2,6	1,9	1,9	1,7	1,4	1	1,5	1,6	1,5
Banks with Foreign Capital	1,5	1,9	1,6	1,6	1,5	0,7	0,8	1,2	1,4	1,7	1,6

Return on equity is another ratio very frequently used ratio. At 2008, state owned banks return on equity had 22.9 %, foreign banks' return on equity ratio is 11.4%. At 2018, this ratio changed to 13.5 % for the state owned banks and 14.3% for the foreign banks.

Table 8: Return On Equity Ratios in Turkish Banking System (%)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
State Owned Banks	22,9	31,3	26	17,7	18,5	17,7	15,3	14,7	16,1	17,6	13,5
Private Banks with Turkish Capital	16,9	21,0	19,4	15,0	14,9	14,2	12,4	9	13,5	14,0	13,2
Banks with Foreign Capital	11,4	14,3	11,4	12,4	12,0	6,3	8,0	11,0	12,3	14,	14,3

Source: Prepared for this study

Table 9: Tax Burden / Profit Ratio %

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
State Owned Banks											
T.C.Ziraat Bankası	19.31%	11.05%	10.91%	12.81%	19.40%	11.53%	20.39%	15.05%	12.93%	15.40%	18.45%
Türkiye Halk Bankası	15.65%	13.30%	13.38%	9.08%	18.96%	6.58%	19.16%	18.43%	24.08%	32.19%	17.92%
Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası	23.90%	13.11%	16.51%	10.28%	22.05%	13.75%	26.07%	25.39%	15.69%	17.11%	18.68%
Private Banks with Turkish											
Türkiye İş Bankası	16.90%	12.69%	11.80%	14.14%	16.37%	10.09%	19.19%	18.98%	7.53%	14.83%	22.00%
Yapı Kredi Bankası	16.41%	12.41%	12.38%	13.84%	21.33%	5.84%	#DIV/0!	31.94%	18.89%	22.72%	23.38%
Akbank	21.95%	11.81%	0.00%	10.45%	20.10%	8.29%	15.07%	18.71%	13.38%	19.71%	
Foreign Banks											
Türkiye Garanti Bankası	21.60%	11.85%	10.33%	8.63%	17.10%	10.31%	17.96%	19.38%	8.19%	17.14%	8.53%
QNBFinansbank	0.00%	12.77%	15.43%	12.15%	13.64%	13.76%	19.50%	7.94%	15.63%	28.57%	6.24%
Denizbank	16.55%	12.24%	10.62%	17.64%	21.31%	24.45%	26.11%	33.86%	12.14%	13.73%	12.28%

Source: <https://www.ziraatbank.com.tr/tr>; <http://www.isbank.com.tr>; <https://www.akbank.com.tr>; <https://www.denizbank.com/> <https://www.qnbfinansbank.com/> <https://www.yapikredi.com.tr> <https://www.halkbank.com.tr> <https://www.vakifbank.com.tr> <https://www.garantibvva.com.tr/t>

Table 9 shows tax burden /profit ratio. Total profit earned by the banks in terms of Million TL. Profit earned with state owned banks and private banks with Turkish capital have

higher level of profits. Tax burden/profit ratio is higher at the state owned banks and private banks with Turkish banks than the foreign banks.

In addition ration analysis, one of the other methodology to measure profit shifting behaviour of multinational companies is transfer pricing. Transfer pricing refers to setting of prices on transactions of transfers between parts of the same firm, as distinct from the "arms length" setting of market prices between different producers. Transfer pricing may be defined in a broader sense and in narrow sense. Further in a broader sense transfer pricing is of two types. Firstly transfer pricing pertaining to products, merchandise and services which is reflected by over or under-voicing exports and imports. Transfer Pricing in Banking Sector may be:

- Free Services
- Letter of Credits/Bills on Collection Basis
- Derivative Products

The narrow definition refers to one of manipulation of prices of goods and services between units with a common control centre so as to maximize global profits. According to Venu (1983, p.2) transfer pricing can be extended to cover licensing agreements and management contracts, services such as insurance and banking, and the like. In general, it can be said to exist if a country pays too much or receives too little for goods or services bought or sold whether due to ignorance or lack of bargaining skill. Second type of transfer pricing practices is that Tax transfer pricing which is reflected by a transaction wherein funds are taken at host country and kept in a tax haven (low tax country).

**Table 11: Comparison of Banks' Assets, Total Credits and Total Deposits
(As of Percentage) 2018**

	Group Share Total Assets	Group Share Total Credits	Group Share Total Deposits	Industry Share Total Assets	Industry Share Total Credits	Industry Share Total Deposits
Deposit Banks	100	100	100	93,0	91,1	100
State Owned Banks	36,7	39,1	37,3	34,1	35,7	37,3
Private Banks with national capital	37,0	35,5	36,7	34,4	32,4	36,7
Foreign Banks	26,3	25,3	26,0	24,4	23,0	26,0

Source: The Association of Banks

In this perspective, one of the other assessment methods is to asses transfer pricing of foreign banks. The comparison of interest rates offered by banks would be the first method. Table 11 shows total assets, total credit, total deposits of deposits bank in Turkey and comparing each banks group classified according to its capital. State owned banks had higher total assets in comparison to foreign banks. However, foreign banks had higher profitability in their operations.

Table 12 shows the interest rate charged by the Banks. Foreign Banks charge higher interest rates than the state owned banks and private banks with Turkish Capital.

Table 12: Interest Rate Charged by the Banks

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
State Owned Banks											
T.C.Ziraat Bankası	3.08%	2.73%	3.27%	1.96%	3.47%	2.67%	4.55%	3.52%	3.11%	3.45%	2.77%
Türkiye Halk Bankası	2.34%	3.18%	4.24%	2.53%	5.57%	2.03%	4.60%	3.13%	3.63%	5.19%	1.23%
Türkiye Vakıflar Bankası A.O.	2.81%	2.56%	3.25%	1.94%	3.68%	2.36%	4.02%	3.60%	2.56%	2.97%	2.29%
Private Banks with Turkish Capital											
Türkiye İş Bankası	2.41%	2.95%	3.59%	3.46%	4.05%	2.37%	4.03%	3.05%	1.67%	2.85%	3.83%
Yapı Kredi Bankası	2.43%	2.50%	4.38%	3.59%	4.35%	2.00%	0.00%	3.88%	3.10%	3.84%	
Akbank	3.86%	3.52%	0.00%	2.91%	5.35%	2.14%	3.61%	3.96%	3.58%	5.15%	1.50%
Banks owned with Foreign Capital											
Türkiye Garanti Bankası	4.03%	3.36%	3.42%	2.53%	4.14%	2.43%	4.38%	3.79%	1.98%	4.09%	
QNBFinansbank	0.00%	2.13%	3.72%	2.27%	2.21%	1.33%	3.02%	0.86%	2.16%	4.19%	0.92%
Denizbank	1.95%	2.55%	2.03%	5.01%			4.49%	3.79%	2.06%	2.44%	1.83%

Source: <https://www.ziraatbank.com.tr/tr/>; <http://www.isbank.com.tr/>; <https://www.akbank.com.tr/>;
<https://www.denizbank.com/> <https://www.qnbfinansbank.com/>
<https://www.yapikredi.com.tr/><https://www.halkbank.com.tr/> <https://www.vakifbank.com.tr/>
<https://www.garantibbva.com.tr/t>

CONCLUSION

One of the objectives of 1980 liberalization policies of Turkey was to attract foreign private capital investment to Turkish economy since an additional capital would accelerate the growth of the economy. Private companies investing at overseas countries look for their own benefit to raise their profits.

In this research the profitability of the banks operating in Turkey and classified according to their capital structure have been analysed for the period of 2008 and 2018. In the literature large number of the research done for this purpose. However, most of the studies covers the period 2008 in general. In this paper, the ratio analyses have been done by using the data given the Association of Turkish Banks and balance sheets of Banks have been According the most frequently used ratios have been calculated in addition to profitability analyses. In Turkey, state owned banks have higher assets. However, foreign banks have higher profitability and they pay less tax in comparison to the state banks and private banks with Turkish capital.

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Sağlık Bilimleri Alanında Öğrenim Gören Üniversite Öğrencileri için Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği (SB-ÖSÖ) Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması

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ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın amacı, Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı'nda öğrenim gören üniversite öğrencilerine yönelik Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği (SB-ÖSÖ) Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışmasının gerçekleştirilmesidir. Ölçek kendini ifade etmeye dayalı beşli likert tipindedir. Çalışma grubu 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılında Kırklareli ilinde sağlık bilimleri alanında öğrenim gören, üniversite öğrencileri arasından, kolayda örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilmiş 890 üniversite öğrencisinden oluşmaktadır. Geçerlik işlemlerinde yapılan AFA sonucunda 36 maddeden oluşan ölçeğin 4 faktörlü yapısının olduğu, toplam varyansın %50.15'inin, açıklandığı, açıklanan varyans yüzdelerinin faktörler için %5,33 ile %28,04 arasında değiştiği hesaplanmıştır. Güvenirlik işlemleri sonucunda Cronbach's alpha katsayısının alt boyutlar arasında $\alpha_{\min}=.77$ $\alpha_{\max}=.91$ arasında değiştiği saptanmıştır. Madde analizlerinde madde toplam ve madde kalan analizleri için tüm değerler $p<.001$ düzeyinde anlamlı bulunmuş, öte yandan ayırdedicilik analizlerinde tüm madde ve faktörlerin ayırdedici ($p<.001$) olduğu saptanmıştır. Ölçeğin test tekrar test korelasyonları da anlamlıdır. Ayrıca yapılan DFA sonucunda $\chi^2/df=2.21>3.00$ olduğu; diğer model iyiliği göstergelerinin (RMSEA=.04<0.08; RMR=.06<0.08; NFI=.91>.90; CFI=.95>.90; GFI=.91>.90; AGFI=.90>.90; IFI=.95>.90) uygun referans aralıklarında bulunmaktadır. Araştırmanın sonunda ölçeğin Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı'ndaki üniversite öğrencileri için geçerli-güvenilir bir ölçek olarak kullanılabileceğine dair sonuçlar ortaya konmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Öğrenme, Öğrenme Stilleri, Sağlık Bilimleri Öğrencileri, Ölçek Geliştirme

ABSTRACT

The study aims to develop Learning Styles Scale for health sciences college students. The scale is based self-report on the five point likert type. Sample of the study is consist 890 students Kırklareli. As a result of factor analyses scale of 36 items was determined had four factor; explained 50.15% at the total variance (min: 5,33%; max: 28.04%). As a result of reliability analyses Alpha coefficient was found to vary between .77 and .91. All values for item total and item reminder analyses were found to be significant at .001 level and also all the items and factors were descriptive. Test-retest correlations were significant also. In addition, the results of DFA $\chi^2/df=2.21>3.00$; other model goodness indicators (RMSEA=.04<0.08; RMR=.06<0.08; NFI=.91>.90; CFI=.95>.90; GFI=.91>.90 AGFI=.90>.90; IFI=.95>.90) within the appropriate reference ranges. It was seen that the scale of the study could be as a reliable scale for health sciences university students.

Keywords: Learning, Learning Styles, Health Sciences Students, Scale Development.

GİRİŞ

Eğitim hakkı, insanların temel hak ve özgürlükleri arasında yer almakta ve 10 Aralık 1948'de kabul edilen İnsan Hakları Evrensel Bildirgesiyle de hemen hemen tüm Dünya ülkelerince kabul edilmiş bulunmaktadır. “Eğitim hakkının tüm haklar içerisinde özel bir önemi vardır. Eğitim hakkı diğer hakların bilinmesinde, kullanılmasında ve korunmasında anahtar role sahiptir. Bu anlamda eğitim hakkı bireylerin yaşam hakkından düşünce ve ifade özgürlüğü ile seçme hakkına kadar tüm hakların kullanılmasının ön koşuludur. Yaşam hakkının varlığı ve korunması eğitime bağlıdır. Yaşam hakkının yanı sıra çocuğun bedensel, zihinsel, sosyal ve ahlaki gelişimi için eğitime ihtiyaç vardır” (Akyüz, 2010).

Tüm insanların eğitim hakkına sahip olduğu uzlaşıyla kabul edilmiş olsa da verilen eğitimin her bireyde aynı düzeyde öğrenmeye neden olmadığı bilinmektedir. “Öğrenmenin ne olduğu ve nasıl gerçekleştiği ise uzun yıllar merak konusu olmuş ve öğrenme ile ilgili çalışmalar psikoloji ve eğitim bilminde oldukça önemli bir yer tutmuştur”(Açıkgöz, 2009). Öğrenme süreci ile ilgili ilk araştırmalar Davranışçı Kuramın temsilcileri tarafından yapılmış ve bu kuramcılar, uyaranların ortaya çıkardığı tepkileri gözleyerek öğrenmeyi açıklamaya çalışmışlardır. Ancak algılama, benlik, dikkat, problem çözme vb. bilişsel süreçleri açıklamada yetersiz kaldığı için 1970’lerden itibaren etkisini kaybederek yerini, günümüzdeki bilişsel psikolojinin temellerini atan ve öğrenmeyi algı ilkeleriyle açıklama yoluna giden Gestalt akımına bırakmıştır. “Gestalt’çılara göre öğrenme; bütünü kendiliğinden kurulan uyarıcı-tepki bağlarıyla değil, insan zihninin uyarıcıları örüntüleyici gücüyle algılayarak o bütüne tepki yapma biçiminde gerçekleşmektedir”(Bakırcıoğlu, 2010).

“Farklı biyolojik yapıları sahip olan ve farklı çevrelerden gelen bireylerin olaylara bakış açısı ve onları yorumlayışı birbirinden farklıdır. Bu farklılıklar bireylerin geçmişteki yaşantıları, ilgileri, yetenekleri, öğrenme biçimleri vb. birçok özelliğinden kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu durum eğitim ortamına da yansımaktadır. Öğrencilerin girişteki özellikleri farklı olduğu için öğrenme-öğretme süreçlerindeki konumları ve bu süreçlerin sonundaki başarı durumları da farklılık göstermektedir” (Açıkgöz, 2009). Bu yüzdendir ki aynı şekilde, aynı sınıfta eğitilen çocuklardan bazıları başarılı olurken bazıları ise başarılı olamayıp; “yeteneksiz”, “tembel” yakıştırmalarıyla bir ömür boyu sürecek etiketlenmeye maruz kalmaktadırlar. Oysa “Rogers’e göre olumlu benliğin oluşumunda, kişinin kendini kabul etmesi başkalarının onu kabul ettiğine, beğendiğine, önemseydiğine inanması ile gerçekleşmektedir” (Akt. Bakırcıoğlu, 2010). “Benlik gelişimi bireyin kendisini değerli bir insan olarak hissetmesini, kapasitesine güvenmesini ve farklılıklarına değer vermesini vurgular. Benlik gelişiminin sonul hedefi kendini gerçekleştiren insandır. Kendini gerçekleştiren insan kendini ve başkalarını olduğu gibi kabul eder; özerktir, yaratıcıdır ve yaşamdan zevk alır. Kendisi ve çevresiyle barışıktır, demokratik tutumlara sahiptir. Okul ortamı küçük yaşlardaki çocukların benlik gelişimi üzerinde büyük etki yapar. Çocukların kendilerini değerli bir insan olarak hissetmeleri, kapasitelerine güvenmeleri ve farklılıklara değer vermeleri aile ve çevrede olduğu kadar okulda karşılaştığı davranışa bağlıdır” (Özden, 2011).

Okulda öğretmenleri ve arkadaşları tarafından başarısız ve yeteneksiz olarak görülen çocuğun olumlu bir benlik geliştirmesi mümkün görünmemektedir. “Okuldaki öğrenme ortamı çocuğun ihtiyaçlarına yanıt verdiği ve olumlu bir sınıf ortamı oluşturulduğu takdirde, çocuk

bireysel özelliklerine uygun, zenginleştirilmiş bir programla karşı karşıya gelecek ve gurup tartışmaları yoluyla aktif katılım sergileyecektir. Böyle bir ortam, çocuğu başarılı olma yolunda destekleyecektir” (Yavuzer, 2011). “Her türlü eğitimde kilit noktası öğretmenlerin kişilik yapılarıdır. Elbette konforlu bir okul, geniş ve aydınlık sınıflar, iyi bir eğitim planı, gerekli bütün araçlar amaçlanan ve istenen öğelerdir, ancak bunlar yeterli değildir”(Ataç, 2002). Tüm bu çevresel etmenleri en etkili şekilde değerlendirerek kullanabilecek kişi öğretmen iken, tam aksi şekilde bunlardan en minimum düzeyde fayda sağlanmasına neden olacak kişi de yine öğretmendir. Ayrıca öğretmenin kişiliği, öğrencileri anlayabilmesi ve onlara karşı hoşgörülü davranabilmesi açısından da çok önemlidir. Öğrenme üzerine öğretmenlerin etkisi bu kadar büyük iken; “öğretmenin ve öğrenmenin iki ayrı işlev, iki farklı süreç olduğu gerçeğini de unutmamak gerekir.

“Öğretmek ve öğrenmek arasındaki farklılıktan biri de, öğretme süreci bir kişi tarafından yürütülürken, öğrenme sürecinin başka bir kişide oluşmasıdır. Bu çok açık, ancak üzerinde düşünülmesi gereken bir konudur: Çünkü öğretme- öğrenme sürecinin verimli bir şekilde yürütmesi için, öğretmenle öğrenci arasında özel bir ilişki, özel bir bağ veya köprü kurulmalıdır” (Gordon, 2010). Bu köprü kurulmadığı durumlarda ise eğitimden istenen verimin alınması pek mümkün olamayacaktır. Burada yine en büyük görev öğretmenlere düşmektedir. Özellikle öğrenmedeki bireysel farklılıklar konusunda hoşgörülü olmak, bu bağın kurulmasında bir önkoşuldur. Çünkü “öğrenme kişinin parmak izi kadar kendine özgü ve bireyseldir. Herkes farklı şekillerde öğrenir ve herkesin, anlama ve hatırlama düzeyi birbirinden farklıdır. Başarılı öğrenciler, en kolay nasıl öğrendiğini belirleyen ve kendine uygun öğrenme teknikleri geliştirebilen kişilerdir” (Komisyon, 2005). Aksine başarısız öğrenciler ise kendi için doğru öğrenme yöntemini henüz keşfedememiş kişilerden oluşmaktadır. Her öğrencinin farklı şekillerde öğrenmesine hoşgörü göstermeyen bir öğretmen öğrencilerin öğrenme kapasitesinden psikolojisine kadar çok büyük bir çerçevede olumsuz bir etkiye sahip olacaktır.

“Günümüz eğitim anlayışı öğrenenlerin özelliklerini daha iyi anlamaya ve bunu öğretim ortamına nasıl yansıtacağımızla ilgili çalışmalar yapmaya daha çok yöneltmiştir. Bu çalışmaların odak noktalarından birini de öğrencilerin öğrenme stilleri oluşturmaktadır” (Hasırcı, 2006). Bireyde öğrenmeyi etkileyen ve etkili bir eğitim için öğretmenler tarafından iyi bilinmesi gereken özellikler içerisinde “Öğrenme Stilleri (biçimleri) araştırma konusu olmuş ve bu kavram ilk olarak 1960 yılında Rita Dunn tarafından kullanılmıştır. “Dunn’a göre öğrenme stilleri her bir öğrencinin yeni ve zor bilgiyi öğrenmeye hazırlanırken, öğrenirken ve hatırlarken farklı ve kendilerine özgü yollar kullanmasıdır”(Boydak, 2015).Öğrenme stilleri ile ilgili otuz yıl öncesinde çok sınırlı bilgi ve araştırma mevcutken günümüzde dünya çapında oldukça fazla araştırma ve geliştirilmiş model mevcuttur. Bu araştırma ve modeller daha çok gelişimin belli dönemlerine yönelik hazırlanmışken, “Dunn’un modeli ve çeşitli versiyonlarının ilişkili olduğu araçlar anaokulu, ilköğretim, ortaöğretim ve yetişkin nüfus için dizayn edilmiş ve uygulamaya koyulmuştur” (Dunn ve Griggs, 2000). Genel olarak öğrenme stilleri biyolojik özellikler ile açıklanmaya çalışılırken, Dunn ve Dunn sosyolojik ve çevresel uyarıcıların önemini vurgulamaktadır (Gencel,2006). Dunn, çeşitli çevresel ve fiziksel faktörlerin eğitimin anlaşılabilirliği için, eğitim programlarının ve eğitim ortamlarının en verimli ve etkili koşullarda düzenlenmesinde sorumlu olduğundan dolayı, öğrenme üzerinde önemli olduklarını

vurgulamaktadır (Sims ve Sims, 1995). Öğrenme stilleri “bir sınıftaki öğrencilerin; gürültü, aydınlatma, oturma düzeni, hareket ve gruplama ile ilgili gereksinimlerine göre düzenlenmesi ile ilgilidir. Öğrenme stilleri öğrencilerin duyarak mı, konuşarak mı, yaparak-yaşayarak mı yoksa bunların birleşmesiyle mi daha iyi öğrendiğini belirler” (Açıkgöz, 2009). Dunn’a göre öğrenme stillinde, bireylerin tepkileri; çevresel, duygusal, sosyal, fiziksel ve psikolojik olarak beş kategorik öğeye dayanmaktadır. Bir bireyin ihtiyaçlarının ya da tercihlerinin her bir kategori içinde toplanması onun öğrenme stildir. Dunn’un modeli bir şeyi nasıl öğrendiğimizi, ister gerçekleşsin ister gerçekleşmesin, ihtiyaçların ve tercihlerin etkilerinin kapsamlı bir şekilde betimlendiği bir bileşendir (Sims ve Sims, 1995). Öğrenme stili, yaşamın her anında davranışları etkiler ve bu özelliklere göre eylemler yapılır (Güven ve Kürüm, 2006). Dolayısıyla bunun belirlenmesi bireylerin meslek seçimine, problemlere yaklaşımına ve amaçlarını nasıl belirleyeceklerine yardım eder. Bunun yanı sıra, bir öğrenen olarak bireyin zayıf ve güçlü yanlarını da anlamasına yardım eder (Aşkar ve Akkoyunlu, 1993). Alışkanlıklar, stratejiler ya da tutarlı tutumlara ilişkin öğrenme, özellikle de tasarlanmış eğitsel öğrenme ki; bireysel bir rol oynamaktadır (Pritchard, 2009). “İşte bu yüzden öğrenme stili her birey için kendine özgüdür” (Aşkar ve Akkoyunlu, 1993).

“Coffield (2005)’e göre öğrenme stilleri etkili öğrenmeyi desteklemek için bir katalizör olabilir. Öğrenme stillerinin öğrencilerde kullanılması sayesinde öğrenmenin daha etkili ve verimli olması muhtemeldir ve tamamiyle şaşırtıcı olmayacaktır”(Akt.Reid, 2005). Burada devreye öğretmenler girmektedir. “Öğrenme stillerini sınıflarında uygulamak isteyen öğretmenler onu anlamaya çalışırlar ki bunu yapmak anlaşılması zor olmayan bir çabadır”(Sims ve Sims, 1995). Günümüzde büyük bir emek gerektirmeden öğrenme stilleri ve nasıl uygulanmaları gerektiği konusunda bilgi edinilebilmektedir. Öğrenme stillerinin öğretmenler tarafından öğrenilmesi sayesinde, öğretmen öncelikle kendi öğrenme stillinin farkına varacak böylece kendi gibi öğrenen öğrencileri olduğu gibi farklı yollarla öğrenen öğrencilerinin de varlığından ve onlara nasıl faydalı olabileceğinden haberdar olacaktır. Böylece farklı öğrenme stillerine sahip öğrencilere daha iyi empati kurup belki de kendine anlamsız gelen tavır ve davranışların farklı şekillerde öğrenen bireyler için ne kadar gerekli olduğunu daha iyi anlayıp onlara daha iyi yardımcı olabilecektir. “Eğer bireylerin stillerinin ne olduğu belirlenirse, bu bireylerin nasıl öğrenebileceği ve nasıl bir öğretim tasarımı uygulanabileceği de daha kolay bir biçimde kestirilebilir. Böylece öğretici öncelikle kendisi sonra da öğreneni için buna uygun ortamlar oluşturulabilir” (Babadoğan, 2000). Eğitimde kilit noktası kabul edilen öğretmenlerin öğrenme stillerini bilmeleri ve her öğrenciye bu bilinçle yaklaşarak eğitim vermeleri eğitimin hakkının temininde önemli rol oynayacaktır. Çünkü eğitimin eşitliği, tüm öğrencilere eşit imkânların sunulmasıyla değil, her öğrenciye, hangi öğrenme stili ile öğrenebiliyorsa o öğrenme stillinin gerektirdiği koşulların sağlanmasıyla mümkün olacaktır. Hal böyleyken öğrenme stillerinin öğrencilere etkileri bazında, psikolojik boyutunu da unutmamak gerekir: “Öğrencilerin işitsel, görsel dokunsal ve devinimsel algı süreci üzerindeki güvenlerinin farklılık gösterdiğini, kendilerinin, akranlarının ve otoritelerin yönlendirmesiyle öğrenmelerindeki motivasyonun gücünü ve bu güçle sürecin sonuçlanması için duyguların sorumluluğunu kabul etmek gerekir”(Sims ve Sims, 1995). Öğrenme stilleri tespit edilen öğrenci hangi yolla daha iyi öğrenebileceğini bilecek ve böylece kendi stili yoluyla öğrenme konusunda özgüveni arttırdığı için daha yüksek bir öğrenme motivasyonu, duygularını kontrol ederek; gereksiz kaygı gibi

durumlardan başarısız olma durumları ortadan kalktığı için öğrenme en üst düzeyde gerçekleşebilecektir. Bu da öğrenme stilleri kullanılmadığı durumlarda “başarısız” olarak nitelendirilen çocukların aslında doğru şekillerde eğitilirse her çocuk gibi başarıyı yakalayıp öğrenmede yüksek performans gösterebileceklerini kanıtlayacak ve böylece her çocuk başarının tadına varıp eğitim anlamında ilerleme sağlayabilecektir. Akademik benliğin olduğu çocukluk evresinde başarıyı yakalamak sonraki dönemlerdeki akademik başarının temelini oluşturduğu için önem arz etmektedir.

Öğrencilerin öğrenme stillerinin belirlenmesinde, Otrar (2006) tarafından geliştirilen ve sekiz alt boyut içeren Marmara Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği (ÖSÖ-M); Otrar, Gülten, Özkan (2012) tarafından geliştirilen “İlköğretim Öğrencilerine Yönelik Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği (AÖS-İ)”; 9-11 yaş çocuklarının öğrenme stillerinin belirlenmesinde kullanılmak üzere Şimşek (2007) tarafından geliştirilen Marmara Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği değişik yaş guruplarında kullanılmak amacıyla alana sunulmuştur. Ayrıca Kolb tarafından geliştirilen, Yaşantısal Öğrenme Kuramına dayalı Öğrenme Stilleri Envanteri (1985), çeşitli araştırmacılar (Aşkar ve Akkoyunlu (1993); Evin-Gencel (2007)) tarafından Türkçe’ye uyarlanarak alana sunulmuştur. Ancak sağlık bilimlerinde okuyan öğrenciler için özel olarak oluşturulmuş bir öğrenme stilleri ölçeği bulunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle sağlık alanında öğrenme stillerinin belirlenmesinde bir boşluk oluştuğu görülmüş ve böylece bu boşluğu doldurmak adına bu ölçeğin hazırlanmasına karar verilmiştir. Bu çalışma kapsamında geliştirilen ölçeğin kuramsal dayanakları ise Dunn ve Dunn’ın öğrenme stilleri yaklaşımına göre hazırlanmıştır.

Bu araştırmanın amacı; Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı’nda öğrenim gören üniversite öğrencilerinin, öğrenme stillerinin belirlenmesine yönelik geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı geliştirilmesidir. Hangi alanda olursa olsun eğitimin amacı hedeflenen bilgi ve becerileri kazandırıp davranış değişikliği elde edebilmektir. Sağlık alanında çalışacak öğrenciler alanları ile ilgili bilgi ve becerileri kazandıkları eğitim yıllarında öğrenme stilleri göz önünde bulundurularak eğitilirse daha donanımlı çalışanlar olarak alanda hizmet verebileceklerdir. Özellikle sağlık alanında hizmet verecek personelin insani sorumlulukları düşünüldüğünde alanındaki bilgileri edinmenin ne kadar hassas ve elzem olduğu anlaşılabilir. Çünkü her bireyin eğitim hakkı olduğu gibi sağlık hizmetlerinden en iyi şekilde yararlanma hakkı da bulunmaktadır. Bu da ancak mesleki donanımını en iyi şekilde kazanmış bir sağlık personeliyle mümkündür. Bunun sağlanması için sağlık alanında çalışacak, sağlık bilimlerinde okuyan üniversite öğrencilerinin öğrenme stillerinin belirlenmesi gerekmektedir. Geliştirilecek ölçeğin bu anlamda alandaki bir boşluğu dolduracağı umulmaktadır. Öğrenme stilleri ile kültür arasında bir bağlantı olabileceği varsayılarak, sağlık alanına uygun bir ölçeğin ülkemizde oluşturulup, örneklem üzerinde denenerek hazırlanması ile daha duyarlı ve hassas ölçümler yapabileceği düşünülmektedir. Geliştirilecek ölçeğin yeni araştırmalar için veri sağlanmasına yönelik olarak yaygın bir etki oluşturabileceği de değerlendirilmektedir.

YÖNTEM

Bu bölümde araştırmanın yöntemsel detaylarına ait model, çalışma grubu, verilerin toplanması ve veri analizi süreçlerine ait bilgilere yer verilmiştir.

MODEL

Araştırma, Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı'nda öğrenim gören üniversite öğrencileri için öğrenme stilleri ölçeği (SB-ÖSÖ) geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması olarak gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırma kapsamında Kırklareli'nde öğrenim görmekte olan Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı'ndaki üniversite öğrencileri arasından kolayda örnekleme yoluyla 890 öğrenciye ulaşılmıştır. Uygulama öğrencilere doğrudan araştırmacılar tarafından titizlikle uygulanmış ve veri kaybı yaşanmamıştır. Çalışma grubunun çeşitli kişisel ve demografik değişkenler açısından dağılımları aşağıda verilmiştir.

Tablo 1: Çalışma Grubunun Çeşitli Kişisel ve Demografik Değişkenler Açısından Dağılımları

Değişken	Grup	f	%	Değişken	Grup	f	%
Cinsiyet	Kız	706	79,3	Algılanan Gelir Düzeyi	Düşük	114	12,8
	Erkek	184	20,7		Orta	737	82,8
	Toplam	890	100,0		Yüksek	39	4,4
Eğitim Grubu	Önlisans	332	37,3	Günlük Ders çalışma süresi	Toplam	890	100,0
	Lisans	558	62,7		1'den az	391	43,9
	Toplam	890	100,0		1-2 saat	373	41,9
Bölüm	Çocuk gelişimi	317	35,6	Tercih ettiği çalışma zamanı	3-4 saat	126	14,2
	Tıbbi laboratuvar	43	4,8		Toplam	890	100,0
	Tıbbi sekreterlik	51	5,7	Reh. Destek alma durumu	Sabah	105	11,8
	Optisyenlik	23	2,6		Öğlen	35	3,9
	Sağ. Kur. ve işletme	237	26,6		Akşam	496	55,7
	Tıbbi tanıtım ve paz.	74	8,3	Reh. Destek alma durumu	Değişken	254	28,5
	Diyetetik ve bes.	85	9,6		Toplam	890	100,0
	Hemşirelik	25	2,8	Reh. Destek alma durumu	Evet	313	35,2
	Ebelik	35	3,9		Hayır	577	64,8
	Toplam	890	100,0		Toplam	890	100,0

Madde Hazırlama Süreci ve Verilerin Toplanması

Ölçek geliştirme sürecinde öncelikle alanyazın taranarak, benzer konularda yapılmış ulusal ve uluslararası araştırmalar incelenmiştir. Doküman incelemesi, araştırılması hedeflenen olgu ve olaylar hakkında bilgi içeren yazılı materyallerin analizini kapsar. Bu amaçla Otrar (2006); Otrar, Gülten, Özkan (2012); Şimşek (2007) gibi ölçekler incelenmiştir. İlgili alan yazın ve belirtilen ölçeklerden edinilen bilgilere göre dört öğrenme stilini ölçen toplam 80 madde oluşturulmuştur. Hazırlanan maddeler alanda uzman 11 kişi tarafından incelenmiştir. Uzman görüşlerine bağlı olarak maddelerde gereken düzeltmeler yapılmıştır. Bu işlemler sonucunda

(Lawshe analizi) ölçekten 10 madde çıkartılmış ve 7 madde uzmanların önerileri doğrultusunda düzeltilmiştir. Taslak ölçek 70 maddeden oluşturulmuştur. Asıl uygulamaya geçmeden önce taslak ölçekte ve maddelerde fark edilmemiş herhangi bir imla, ifade veya biçim sorunu olabileceği varsayımı ile taslak ölçek ile bir pilot uygulama gerçekleştirilmiştir. Pilot uygulama araştırmacı tarafından 48 kişilik bir grup ile yapılmıştır. Pilot uygulama esnasında yapılan gözlemler, öğrencilerden gelen sorular ve öğrencilerin geri bildirimleriyle bazı düzenlemelerin yapılmış, yapılan düzenlemelerin ardından asıl uygulamaya geçilmiştir. Uygulamalar 2016-2017 eğitim-öğretim yılında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Gerçekleştirilen uygulamalarda toplam 890 öğrenciye ulaşılmış, bu verilerle ölçek geliştirmeye dair analizlere başlanmıştır.

Geçerlik analizleri bağlamında öncelikle temel bileşenler analizi ve varimax döndürmesi ile açımlayıcı faktör analizi (AFA) ardından doğrulayıcı faktör analizi işlemleri yapılmıştır. Kuramsal olarak faktörler arasında bir korelasyon beklenmediğinden bağımsız faktör elde edilmesi öngörülmüş, bu sebeple dik döndürme tekniklerinden varimax tekniği tercih edilmiştir. Öte yandan AFA ile elde edilen faktör yapısı doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) ile de test edilmiş ve uyum indeksleri hesaplanmıştır. Ek olarak madde-toplam korelasyonlarına da yer verilmiş, güvenilirlik için de iç tutarlılık (Cronbach's Alpha) ve dış tutarlılık (test-retest) analizi gerçekleştirilerek sonuçlar tablolar halinde sunulmuştur.

BULGULAR

Tablo 2: Faktör Analizi Öncesi Madde Toplam Korelasyonları (N=890)

GÖRSEL		İŞİTSEL		DOKUNSA		KİNESTETİK	
Madde	r	Madde	r	Madde	r	Madde	r
GÖR01	.632	İŞT01	.484	DOK01	.555	KİN01	.421
GÖR02	.330	İŞT02	.508	DOK02	.574	KİN02	.456
GÖR03	.636	İŞT03	.442	DOK03	.646	KİN03	.574
GÖR04	.590	İŞT04	.435	DOK04	.646	KİN04	.513
GÖR05	.671	İŞT05	.363	DOK05	.686	KİN05	.500
GÖR06	.581	İŞT06	.402	DOK06	.473	KİN06	.484
GÖR07	.603	İŞT07	.548	DOK07	.499	KİN07	.494
GÖR08	.377	İŞT08	.212	DOK08	.621	KİN08	.468
GÖR09	.631	İŞT09	.297	DOK09	.697	KİN09	.473
GÖR10	.701	İŞT10	.575	DOK10	.685	KİN10	.526
GÖR11	.439	İŞT11	.496	DOK11	.666	KİN11	.457
GÖR12	.661	İŞT12	.428	DOK12	.589	KİN12	.574
GÖR13	.478	İŞT13	.478	DOK13	.480	KİN13	.458
GÖR14	.462	İŞT14	.462			KİN14	.478
GÖR15	.672	İŞT15	.420			KİN15	.452
GÖR16	.633	İŞT16	.393			KİN16	.491
GÖR17	.511	İŞT17	.430			KİN17	.457
		İŞT18	.464			KİN18	.470
		İŞT19	.539				
		İŞT20	.372				
		İŞT21	.344				
		İŞT22	.423				

Öncelikle faktör analizleri öncesinde her bir alt boyut için en yüksek ölçücülüğü olan maddeleri belirlemek amacıyla Pearson çarpım moment korelasyonu tekniği kullanılarak her öğrenme stili alanı için ayrı ayrı madde-toplam korelasyonlarına bakılmıştır. Pearson analizinin tercih edilmesinin nedeni değişken dağılımlarının normal, değişkenlerin sürekli ve ilişki varsayımının lineer (doğrusal) olmasıdır.

Tabloda görüldüğü üzere, maddelerin içinde yer aldıkları öğrenme stili grubunun toplam puanıyla korelasyonunu belirlemek için gerçekleştirilen Pearson analizi sonucunda bazı maddelerin elenmesine karar verilmiştir. İlke olarak her stil alanı için en yüksek korelasyon değerine sahip 10'ar maddenin alınması, madde sayısı ne olursa olsun madde-toplam korelasyonları $r \leq .30$ küçük olması durumunda maddenin (item) ilgili gruptaki maddelerle aynı yapıyı yeterli düzeyde ölçmediğine hükmedilerek elenmesi benimsenmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlara ait özet tablosu aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Tablo 3: Faktör Analizi Öncesi Madde Toplam Korelasyonları Özet Tablosu

Stil Alanı	Madde sayısı	$r_{\min}$	$r_{\max}$	Elenen Madde	Kalan Madde
Görsel	17	.330	.701	7	10
İşitsel	22	.212	.575	12	10
Dokunsal	13	.473	.697	3	10
Kinestetik	18	.421	.574	8	10
Toplam	70	-	-	30	40

Tablodan anlaşılabileceği gibi; görsel alan için analizi 17 madde alınmış, 7 madde elenmiş, madde-toplam analizinde $r_{\min}=.330$; $r_{\max}=.701$ olarak hesaplanmış; işitsel alan için analizi 22 madde alınmış, 12 madde elenmiş, madde-toplam analizinde $r_{\min}=.212$; $r_{\max}=.575$ olarak hesaplanmış; dokunsal alan için analizi 13 madde alınmış, 3 madde elenmiş, madde-toplam analizinde $r_{\min}=.473$; $r_{\max}=.697$ olarak hesaplanmış; kinestetik alan için analizi 18 madde alınmış, 8 madde elenmiş, madde-toplam analizinde $r_{\min}=.421$; $r_{\max}=.574$ olarak hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçta toplamda 30 madde bu aşamada elenmiş ve kalan 40 madde ile faktör analizlerine başlanmıştır.

Tablo 4: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği KMO ve Bartlett's Testi Değerleri

Kaise-Meyer-Olkin	Örnekleme	.939
Yeterliliği		
	Ki-kare değeri	16565.334
Bartlett Değeri	S.Derecesi	780
	p	.000

Tablo 4'te görüldüğü üzere; Kaiser Meyer Olkin değeri $KMO=.930$ ve Bartlett testi sonucu ($B=16565.33$; $p<.001$) anlamlı çıktığından veriler faktör analizine uygun olduğuna hükmedilerek faktör analizi işlemleri sürdürülmüştür.

Tablo 5: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Maddeleri için Ortak Yük Değerleri

Maddeler	Initial	Extraction	Maddeler	Initial	Extraction
Madde 1	1.000	.634	Madde 21	1.000	.539
Madde 2	1.000	.656	Madde 22	1.000	.600
Madde 3	1.000	.608	Madde 23	1.000	.548
Madde 4	1.000	.692	Madde 24	1.000	.578
Madde 5	1.000	.570	Madde 25	1.000	.600
Madde 6	1.000	.714	Madde 26	1.000	.466
Madde 7	1.000	.663	Madde 27	1.000	.608
Madde 8	1.000	.606	Madde 28	1.000	.647
Madde 9	1.000	.620	Madde 29	1.000	.593
Madde 10	1.000	.730	Madde 30	1.000	.470
Madde 11	1.000	.582	Madde 31	1.000	.501
Madde 12	1.000	.644	Madde 32	1.000	.516
Madde 13	1.000	.435	Madde 33	1.000	.531
Madde 14	1.000	.605	Madde 34	1.000	.478
Madde 15	1.000	.594	Madde 35	1.000	.659
Madde 16	1.000	.556	Madde 36	1.000	.421
Madde 17	1.000	.582	Madde 37	1.000	.632
Madde 18	1.000	.673	Madde 38	1.000	.673
Madde 19	1.000	.510	Madde 39	1.000	.675
Madde 20	1.000	.485	Madde 40	1.000	.371

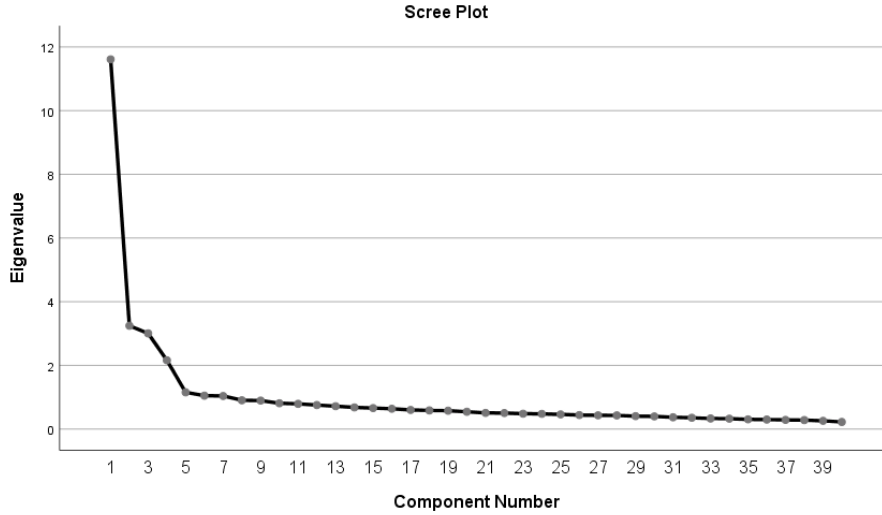
Tablo 5’de görüldüğü üzere; tüm maddeler .30’un üzerinde ortak yük değeri almışlardır. Alınan en düşük yük değeri .371 (madde 40; en yüksek yük değeri ise .730 (madde 10) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu işlemin ardından açıklanan toplam varyanslar için işlemlere devam edilmiştir.

Tablo 6: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Açıklanan Toplam Varyans Miktarı

Faktör	Başlangıç Öz Değerleri			Toplam Faktör Yükleri			F. Yük. Döndürülmüş Top.		
	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %
1	11.611	29.029	29.029	11.611	29.029	29.029	5.270	13.175	13.175
2	3.246	8.114	37.143	3.246	8.114	37.143	5.174	12.935	26.110
3	3.005	7.513	44.656	3.005	7.513	44.656	3.760	9.399	35.509
4	2.160	5.399	50.055	2.160	5.399	50.055	3.577	8.942	44.451
5	1.155	2.887	52.941	1.155	2.887	52.941	2.014	5.036	49.487
6	1.050	2.624	55.566	1.050	2.624	55.566	1.870	4.674	54.161
7	1.039	2.598	58.164	1.039	2.598	58.164	1.601	4.003	58.164
8	.904	2.260	60.423						
....	...	...	...						
38	.282	.704	98.794						
39	.259	.649	99.442						
40	.223	.558	100.000						

Tablo 6’da görüldüğü üzere; eigen değeri 1’den büyük toplam varyansın %58.164’ünü açıklayan 7 faktör ortaya çıkmıştır. Birinci faktör varyansı %29.029; yedinci faktör varyansı %2.898’ini açıklamaktadır. Bu veriler doğrultusunda çizilen yamaç-eğim (scree-plot) grafiği aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Şekil 1: Yamaç Eğim Grafiği



Şekil 1’de sunulan çizilen yamaç-eğim (scree-plot) grafiğinde dördüncü faktörden sonra faktörlerin güçlü şekilde ayrılmadığı, aynı şekilde dördüncü faktörden sonra eigen değerinin 2’nin altına indiği gözlemlenmektedir. Bu sebeple faktör analizi eigen değeri 2 alınarak yenilenmiştir.

Tablo 7: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Açıklanan Toplam Varyans Miktarı

Faktör	Başlangıç Öz Değerleri			Toplam Faktör Yükleri			F. Yük. Döndürülmüş Top.		
	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %
1	11.611	29.029	29.029	11.611	29.029	29.029	5.270	13.175	13.175
2	3.246	8.114	37.143	3.246	8.114	37.143	5.174	12.935	26.110
3	3.005	7.513	44.656	3.005	7.513	44.656	3.760	9.399	35.509
4	2.160	5.399	50.055	2.160	5.399	50.055	3.577	8.942	44.451
5	1.155	2.887	52.941						
....	...	...	...						
38	.282	.704	98.794						
39	.259	.649	99.442						
40	.223	.558	100.000						

Tablo 7’de görüldüğü üzere; eigen değeri 2’den büyük toplam varyansın %50.055’ini açıklayan 4 faktör ortaya çıkmıştır. Birinci faktör toplam varyansın %29.029’unu; dördüncü faktör toplam varyansın %5.399’unu açıklamaktadır. Bu işlemin ardından maddelerin faktörlere dağılımı incelenmiştir. Bu amaçla temel bileşenler analizi ardından varimax dik döndürme tekniği (Rotated Component Matrix) uygulanmış ve elde edilen sonuçlar aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Tablo 8: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Faktör Analizi Sonrası Dönüştürülmüş Bileşenler Matrisi

Maddeler	Bileşenler (Faktör)			
	1	2	3	4
Mad 10	.751			
Mad 03	.746			
Mad 05	.738			
Mad 01	.727			
Mad 15	.699			
Mad 12	.684			
Mad 07	.683	.309		
Mad 09	.681			
Mad 16	.672			
Mad 04	.650			
Mad 49		.769		
Mad 50		.710		
Mad 43		.694		
Mad 40		.678		
Mad 48		.669		
Mad 44		.668		
Mad 42		.663		
Mad 41		.618		
Mad 47		.606		
Mad 51		.604		
Mad 19			.733	
Mad 27			.722	
Mad 24			.717	
Mad 18			.678	
Mad 36			.660	
Mad 20			.602	
Mad 28			.577	
Mad 30			.549	
Mad 35			.531	
Mad 31			.434	
Mad 56				.652
Mad 55				.650
Mad 64	.324			.647
Mad 57				.645
Mad 66		.309		.590
Mad 59	.306	.345		.577
Mad 58				.569
Mad 62				.568
Mad 68				.540
Mad 61				.528

Tablo 8’de görüldüğü üzere; maddeler dört faktörde toplanmış ve tüm maddeler yer aldıkları faktörde kabul edilebilir düzeyde yük değerlerine almışlardır (en düşük madde yük değeri .354, en yüksek madde yük değeri .930). Ancak bazı maddelerin binişik madde

durumunda olduğu yani birden fazla faktörden .30'un üzerinde yük aldığı görünmektedir. Söz konusu maddelerin (7, 59, 64 ve 66. maddeler) elenerek faktör analizinin tekrarlanmasına karar verilmiştir.

Tablo 9: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği KMO ve Bartlett's Testi Değerleri

Kaise-Meyer-Olkin	Örneklem	.930
Yeterliliği		
	Ki-kare değeri	13972.841
Bartlett Değeri	S.Derecesi	780
	p	.000

Tablo 9'da görüldüğü üzere; Kaiser Meyer Olkin değeri KMO=.930 ve Bartlett testi sonucu (B=13972,84; $p<.001$) anlamlı çıktığından verilerin faktör analizine uygun olduğuna hükmedilerek faktör analizi işlemleri sürdürülmüştür.

Tablo 10: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Maddeleri için Ortak Yük Değerleri

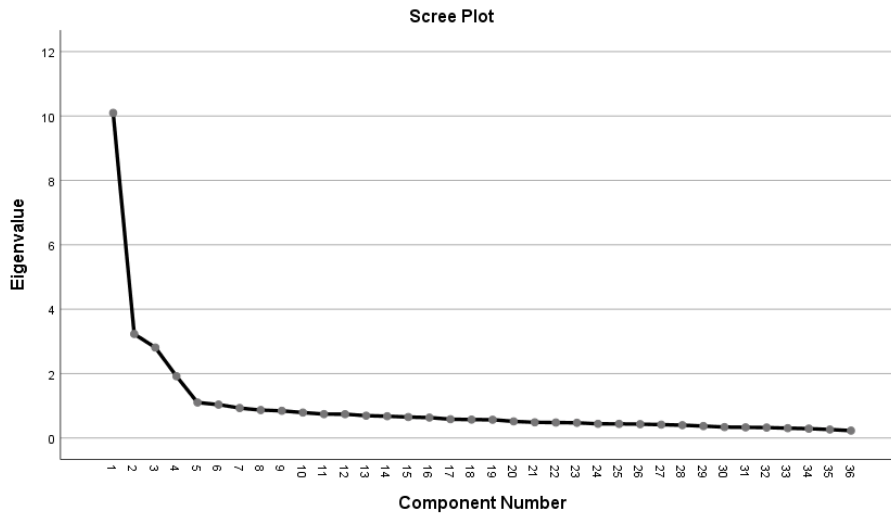
Maddeler	Initial	Extraction	Maddeler	Initial	Extraction
Mad 01	1.000	.565	Mad 36	1.000	.457
Mad 03	1.000	.576	Mad 40	1.000	.457
Mad 04	1.000	.481	Mad 41	1.000	.513
Mad 05	1.000	.624	Mad 42	1.000	.477
Mad 09	1.000	.494	Mad 43	1.000	.484
Mad 10	1.000	.654	Mad 44	1.000	.544
Mad 12	1.000	.565	Mad 47	1.000	.406
Mad 15	1.000	.601	Mad 48	1.000	.502
Mad 16	1.000	.503	Mad 49	1.000	.578
Mad 18	1.000	.392	Mad 50	1.000	.530
Mad 19	1.000	.503	Mad 51	1.000	.417
Mad 20	1.000	.358	Mad 55	1.000	.374
Mad 24	1.000	.504	Mad 56	1.000	.361
Mad 27	1.000	.449	Mad 57	1.000	.303
Mad 28	1.000	.430	Mad 58	1.000	.313
Mad 30	1.000	.441	Mad 61	1.000	.365
Mad 31	1.000	.381	Mad 62	1.000	.373
Mad 35	1.000	.446	Mad 68	1.000	.312

Tablo 10'da görüldüğü üzere; tüm maddeler .30'un üzerinde ortak yük değeri almışlardır. Alınan en düşük yük değeri .303 (madde 57); en yüksek yük değeri ise .654 (madde 10) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu işlemin ardından açıklanan toplam varyanslar için işlemlere devam edilmiştir.

Tablo 11: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Açıklanan Toplam Varyans Miktarı

Faktör	Başlangıç Öz Değerleri			Toplam Faktör Yükleri			F. Yük. Döndürülmüş Top.		
	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %	Eigen	Vary. %	Küm. %
1	10.095	28.043	28.043	10.095	28.043	28.043	5.334	14.817	14.817
2	3.229	8.970	37.013	3.229	8.970	37.013	5.240	14.555	29.372
3	2.810	7.804	44.817	2.810	7.804	44.817	4.447	12.353	41.725
4	1.920	5.334	50.152	1.920	5.334	50.152	3.033	8.426	50.152
5	.978	2.717	52.869						
....	...	...	...						
34	.290	.805	98.634						
35	.263	.730	99.364						
36	.229	.636	100.000						

Tablo 11’de görüldüğü üzere; eigen değeri 1’den büyük toplam varyansın %50.152’sini açıklayan 4 faktör ortaya çıkmıştır. Birinci faktör toplam varyansın %28.043; dördüncü faktör toplam varyansın %5.334’ünü açıklamaktadır. Bu veriler doğrultusunda çizilen yamaç-eğim (scree-plot) grafiği aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Şekil 2: Yamaç Eğim Grafiği

Şekil 2’de sunulan ve çizilen yamaç-eğim (scree-plot) grafiğinde dördüncü faktörden sonra faktörlerin güçlü şekilde ayrılmadığı gözlemlenmektedir. Bu sebeple ölçeğin dört faktörlü olarak kabul edilerek işlemlere devam edilmesi kararlaştırılmıştır. Bu işlemin ardından maddelerin faktörlere dağılımı incelenmiştir. Bu amaçla temel bileşenler analizi ardından varimax dik döndürme tekniği (Rotated Component Matrix) uygulanmış ve elde edilen sonuçlar aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Tablo 12: Taslak Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Faktör Analizi Sonrası Dönüştürülmüş Bileşenler Matriksi

Faktörler							
Faktör 1	Yük	Faktör 2	Yük	Faktör 3	Yük	Faktör 4	Yük
Mad 10	.765	Mad 49	.771	Mad 19	.740	Mad 56	.705
Mad 03	.744	Mad 50	.715	Mad 24	.725	Mad 55	.687
Mad 05	.740	Mad 43	.699	Mad 27	.720	Mad 62	.665
Mad 01	.735	Mad 40	.683	Mad 18	.682	Mad 57	.599
Mad 12	.703	Mad 44	.678	Mad 36	.664	Mad 58	.557
Mad 15	.696	Mad 42	.671	Mad 20	.602	Mad 61	.531
Mad 09	.690	Mad 48	.669	Mad 28	.576	Mad 68	.491
Mad 16	.678	Mad 41	.631	Mad 30	.557	-	-
Mad 04	.650	Mad 47	.612	Mad 35	.536	-	-
-	-	Mad 51	.606	Mad 31	.429	-	-

Tablo 12’de görüldüğü üzere; maddeler dört faktörde toplanmış ve tüm maddeler yer aldıkları faktörde kabul edilebilir düzeyde yük değerlerine sahip oldukları görülmüştür(en düşük madde yük değeri ,429 en yüksek madde yük değeri ,771). Tüm maddelerin yalnızca bir faktörden yüksek yük aldıkları binişik madde bulunmadığı görünmektedir. Bu sebeple ölçeğin açımlayıcı faktör analizi sonlandırılmış ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi işlemlerine geçilmiştir.

Üç aşamalı AFA sonucunda 70 maddeli taslak ölçek 36 maddeye inmiş ve dört faktör elde edilmiştir. Ölçeklerin isimlendirilmesi için madde formları incelenmiş birinci faktörün Görsel (9 madde), ikinci faktörün dokunsal (10 madde), üçüncü faktörün, işitsel (10 madde), dördüncü faktörün de kinestetik (7 madde) olarak isimlendirilmiştir.

Tablo 13: DFA İçin Uyum İndeksleri VE Referans Aralıkları

Uyum Ölçüm Göstergeleri	Uyum İyiliği Referans Aralıkları	
	Mükemmel Uyum	İyi Uyum
χ^2	-	-
p değeri	$.05 \leq p \leq 1.00$	$.01 \leq p \leq 0.05$
df	-	-
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3.00$	$3 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5.00$
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$
SRMR	$0 \leq SRMR \leq 0.05$	$.05 \leq SRMR \leq 0.08$
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI \leq 0.95$
CFI	$.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq CFI \leq 0.95$
GFI	$.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq GFI \leq 0.95$
AGFI	$.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$.85 \leq AGFI \leq 0.90$

Doğrulamalı faktör analizinde çeşitli uyum göstergeleri incelenmektedir. Bu uyum indeksleri ve referans aralıkları yukarıdaki tabloda verilmiştir (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu, Büyüköztürk, 2012; Haşlamam, 2005; Hayduk, 1987; Hu ve Bentler, 1999; Joreskog ve Sörbom, 2001; Kline, 2011; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger ve Müller, 2003; Schumacker ve Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick ve Fidell, 2007; Tezcan, 2008; Subaş ve Çetin, 2017). Açıklayıcı faktör analizinde tespit edilen öğrenme stilleri ölçeğinin 36 maddesinin 4 faktörde toplanmasını sınamak için yapılan DFA analizinde elde edilen ilk bulgular aşağıda sunulmuştur:

Tablo 14: İlk Önerilen Model Uyum İyiliği Göstergeleri

χ^2	p	Df	χ^2/df	RMS EA	RMR	NFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	IFI
2559.21	.000	623.00	4.11	.06	.07	.83	.86	.85	.84	.86

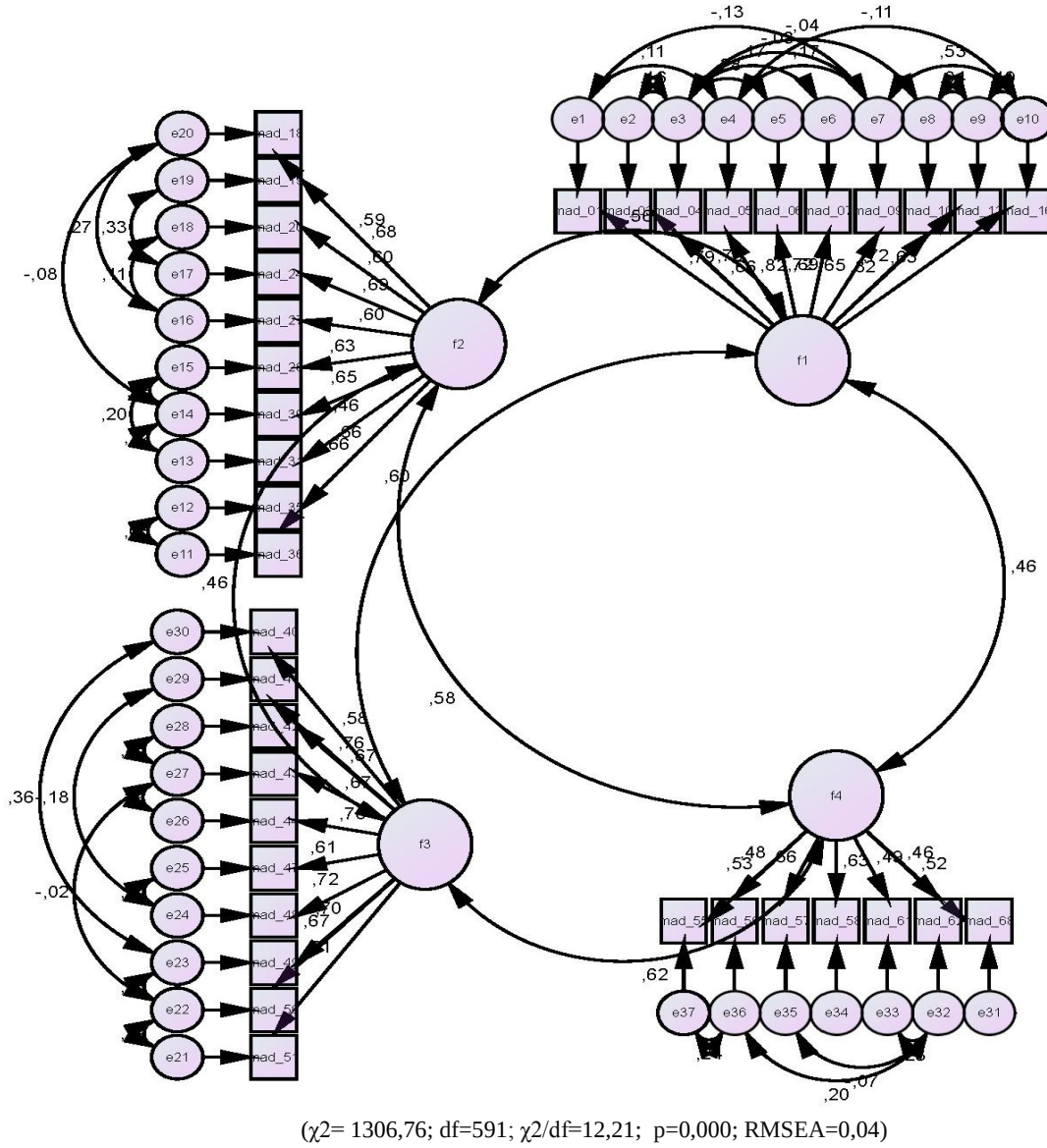
DFA analizinde χ^2/df 'nin 5'in altında olması kabul edilebilir, 3'ün altında olması ise iyi uyum göstergesidir. Elde $\chi^2/df=4,11$ ile uyum kriterini karşılamaktadır. Ancak tek gösterge bu değildir. Ölçeğin *RMSEA*, *RMR*, *NFI*, *CFI*, *GFI*, *AGFI*, *IFI* gibi diğer göstergelerinin literatürde önerilen referans aralıklarında olmamasından dolayı programın önerdiği modifikasyon indeksleri uygulanarak model yeniden sınanmış ve aşağıdaki bulgular elde edilmiştir.

Tablo 15: Kabul Edilen Model Uyum İyiliği Göstergeleri

χ^2	p	Df	χ^2/df	RMS EA	RMR	NFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	IFI
1306.76	0.000	591.00	2.21	.04	.06	.91	.95	.91	.90	.95

İkinci basamak olarak yapılan DFA sınaması sonrasında $\chi^2/df=2,21>3,00$ olduğu, diğer model iyiliği göstergelerinden *RMSEA*=0,04<0,08; *RMR*=0,06<0,08; *NFI*=0,91>,90; *CFI*=0,95>,90; *GFI*=0,91>,90; *AGFI*=0,90>,90; *IFI* =0,95>,90 değerleri ile uygun referans aralıklarında oldukları görülmektedir. Modelin uyum iyiliği göstergelerinin uygun referans aralıklarından olduğu için modelin uygunluğu kabul edilmiş ve diğer parametrelerine geçilmiştir.

Şekil 3: Öğrenme Stilleri ölçeğinin, DFA Sonucu Standardize Edilmiş PATH Diyagramı



Yol diyagramında, elde edilen tüm standardize edilmiş değerlerin .700'e yakın olması ve 1.00'dan küçük olması gerekir (Brown ve Moore, 2013; Kline, 2011; Hu ve Bentler, 1999). Yukarıda AMOS grafik menüsü ile hazırlanmış PATH diyagramında (Şekil 3) ve aşağıda regresyon tablosunda (Tablo 16) görüldüğü gibi, öğrenme stilleri ölçeğinin standardize edilmiş regresyon ağırlıklarının en düşük .491; en yüksek .823 olduğu ve söz konusu değerlerin istatistiksel olarak $p < .001$ düzeyinde anlamlı olduğu belirlenmiştir

Tablo 16: Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Standardize Edilmiş Regresyon Tablosu

Regresyon Ağırlıkları	Ham tahmin katsayısı	sh	Kritik Oran	p	Std.Tahmin Katsayısı
Mad 01	1.000				.789
Mad 03	.879	.039	22.691	.000	.760
Mad 04	.822	.044	18.613	.000	.657
Mad 05	1.003	.038	26.681	.000	.822
Mad 07	.920	.043	21.285	.000	.720
Mad 09	.885	.050	17.586	.000	.648
Mad 10	.997	.040	24.902	.000	.823
Mad 12	.947	.045	20.959	.000	.716
Mad 16	.838	.047	17.905	.000	.627
Mad 36	1.000				.661
Mad 35	1.026	.062	16.487	.000	.660
Mad 31	.810	.072	11.287	.000	.462
Mad 30	.960	.063	15.153	.000	.646
Mad 28	.923	.062	14.863	.000	.628
Mad 27	.967	.068	14.203	.000	.595
Mad 24	1.058	.066	16.044	.000	.687
Mad 20	.988	.069	14.306	.000	.596
Mad 19	1.084	.068	15.918	.000	.681
Mad 18	.892	.063	14.188	.000	.595
Mad 51	1.000				.605
Mad 50	1.072	.064	16.828	.000	.667
Mad 49	1.148	.073	15.762	.000	.703
Mad 48	1.111	.070	15.775	.000	.718
Mad 47	.959	.068	14.154	.000	.614
Mad 44	1.136	.068	16.668	.000	.762
Mad 43	1.084	.071	15.181	.000	.672
Mad 42	1.101	.072	15.229	.000	.670
Mad 41	1.085	.066	16.522	.000	.761
Mad 40	.958	.071	13.555	.000	.576
Mad 68	1.000				.523
Mad 62	.943	.102	9.231	.000	.457
Mad 61	.960	.096	10.007	.000	.491
Mad 58	1.135	.097	11.667	.000	.628
Mad 57	1.119	.094	11.887	.000	.657
Mad 56	1.037	.105	9.875	.000	.485
Mad 55	1.097	.104	10.545	.000	.531

Tablo 16’da görüldüğü üzere; standardize edilmiş regresyon katsayılarının tamamının kabul edilebilir aralıklarda ve $p < .001$ düzeyinde anlamlı olduğu görülmektedir.

Tablo 17: Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği İçin Önerilen Modelin Varyans Değerleri

Varyans	Parametre Tahminleri	sh	Kritik Oran	p
f1	.650	.051	12.81	.000
f2	.467	.048	9.68	.000
f3	.426	.048	8.92	.000
f4	.332	.047	6.98	.000
e1	.394	.024	16.20	.000
e2	.368	.021	17.52	.000
e3	.579	.032	17.86	.000
e4	.314	.021	15.22	.000
e5	.520	.028	18.26	.000
e7	.704	.039	17.97	.000
e8	.307	.019	15.90	.000
e9	.553	.031	17.73	.000
e10	.705	.038	18.74	.000
e11	.600	.036	16.89	.000
e12	.635	.038	16.90	.000
e13	1.129	.060	18.74	.000
e14	.599	.035	16.98	.000
e15	.609	.035	17.38	.000
e16	.795	.045	17.79	.000
e17	.583	.035	16.58	.000
e18	.829	.046	17.92	.000
e19	.635	.038	16.67	.000
e20	.679	.038	17.74	.000
e21	.737	.040	18.40	.000
e22	.609	.034	17.87	.000
e23	.574	.032	17.75	.000
e24	.493	.030	16.34	.000
e25	.648	.036	18.12	.000
e26	.396	.024	16.42	.000
e27	.608	.034	17.81	.000
e28	.634	.036	17.85	.000
e29	.364	.023	15.90	.000
e30	.788	.042	18.60	.000
e31	.879	.050	17.73	.000
e32	1.118	.063	17.84	.000
e33	.964	.054	18.00	.000
e34	.656	.041	16.17	.000
e35	.545	.035	15.37	.000
e36	1.160	.064	18.04	.000

Tablo 17’da görüldüğü gibi; DFA sonucunda, öğrenme stilleri ölçeğinin varyans (en düşük .332; en yüksek 1.18) ve kovaryans değerlerinin tümünün kabul edilebilir aralıklarda ve istatistiksel olarak $p < .001$ düzeyinde anlamlı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu bulgulardan sonra, AFA ile yapı geçerliliği sınanıp başarılı olan öğrenme stilleri ölçeğinin DFA sonucunda da uygun bir model olduğu kabul edilmiştir. Bu analizlerle ölçeğin geçerlik işlemleri tamamlanmış ve güvenilirlik hesaplamalarına geçilmiştir.

Tablo 18: Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Alt Boyutları Belirlenen Güvenirlik Katsayıları

Alt Boyut / Puan	Madde Sayısı	Cronbach Alpha	Test-Tekrar Test		
			n	r	p
Görsel	9	.920	53	.811	.000
Dokunsal	10	.891	53	.792	.000
İşitsel	10	.858	53	.863	.000
Kinestetik	7	.844	53	.765	.000
Ölçek Toplam	36	.933	53	.897	.000

Tablo 18’de görüldüğü üzere; ölçeğin iç tutarlık katsayıları oldukça yüksek olarak belirlenmiştir. Cronbach alpha değeri $\alpha_{\max} = .920$ ile $\alpha_{\min} = .844$ arasında değişmektedir. Ölçek toplamı için alfa değeri $\alpha = .933$ olarak hesaplanmıştır. Öte yandan dış tutarlık güvenilirliğini belirlemek için üç hafta arayla gerçekleştirilen uygulamalarla elde edilmiş puanlar arasında yapılan Pearson korelasyon analizi sonucunda elde edilen değerler $r_{\max} = .863$ ile $\alpha_{\min} = .765$ arasında yer almaktadır. Bu değerler ölçeğin yüksek bir güvenilirlik düzeyinde ölçüm yapmakta olduğunu teyit etmektedir. Bu işlemlerin ardından maddeler yeniden numaralandırılıp yansız biçimde atanarak ölçeğe son şekli verilmiştir. Ölçeğin alt boyutlarına ilişkin örnek maddeler aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Tüm istatistiksel işlemlerin ardından ölçeğin dört faktörlü bir yapı ile Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı’ndaki öğrencilerinin öğrenme stillerini geçerli ve güvenilir olarak ölçebilecek psikometrik yeterlikleri karşıladığı kabul edilmiştir.

Tablo 19: Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği Alt Boyutları için Örnek Maddeler

Alt Boyut	Maddeler
Görsel	- Hazırladığım ödevlerde görselliğe önem verip ayrıntılara dikkat etmem öğrenmemi kolaylaştırır. - Görsellerle çalışma olanağı bulduğum derslerde başarımla daha yüksektir.
Dokunsal	- El becerilerimi kullanabildiğim derslerde daha kolay öğrenirim. - Eğer yeni bir şeyler öğrenmek zorundaysam deney yaparak öğrenmeyi tercih ederim.
İşitsel	- Yeni bir konuyu derste dinleyerek öğrenmeyi tercih ederim. - Bir konuyu okumak yerine o konuyu bilen birisinden dinlemeyi tercih ederim.
Kinestetik	- Çalışacağım yerde ve yöntemde özgür ve rahat olmak öğrenme isteğimi artırır. - Uygulama yapılan derslerde daha etkili öğrenmeler yaşarım.

TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmada, Sağlık Bilimleri Alanı'nda öğrenim görmekte olan üniversite öğrencilerinin öğrenme stillerini ölçmek amacıyla geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı geliştirilmesi hedeflenmiştir. Bu bağlamda daha önce sağlık bilimleri alanındaki öğrenciler için literatürde yer almayan bir ölçek geliştirilmiş ve alandaki boşluk doldurulmuştur.

Ölçme aracı uzman görüşünden geçtikten sonra 70 madde halinde geçerlik ve güvenirlik analizlerine alınmış ve çeşitli sebeplerle 34 madde elenerek 36 madde ile son halini almıştır. Elenen maddelerin 30'u ilgili özelliğin ölçülmesi için hazırlanmış maddelerle düşük korelasyon gösterdiği için dördü de döndürme işleminde birden fazla faktörden yük alan binişik maddeler olması sebebiyle ölçek dışında çıkarılmıştır. Kinestetik öğrenme stilini ölçen maddeler arasında binişik madde sayısının daha yoğun olmasının, bu özelliğin doğası gereği dokunsallık ve görsellik ile yakın ilişki içermesiyle açıklanabileceği değerlendirilmiştir. Bu yakınlığın maddelerin ayırdediciliği açısından bir zafiyet doğurduğu düşünülebilir.

SB-ÖSÖ için faktör analizi işlemlerinde Temel bileşenler analizi kullanılmış ve bu analiz bağlamında her bir maddenin ortak yük (communalities) değerinin %30'dan daha düşük olmamasına özen gösterilmiştir. İlk aşamadaki 40 madde ile gerçekleştirilen faktör analizi sonrasında ortak yük değeri en düşük .371 olarak tespit edilmekle birlikte altı maddenin %40'dan daha yüksek; 23 maddenin de %50'den daha yüksek değere sahip olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Daha sonraki faktörleme işlemlerinde maddelerin ortak yük değerleri başlangıç değerlerinden daha düşük bulunsun da (minimum .303) kabul edilebilir standartları karşıladığından bir madde eliminasyonuna sebep olmadığı değerlendirilmiştir.

SB-ÖSÖ'nün faktör yapısı hem açıklayıcı hem de doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ile test edilmiş ve AFA analiz grubu ile ölçeğin açıklanan toplam varyansı %50.152 olan dört faktör içerdiği, DFA ile de bu yapının uyumlu olduğu belirlenmiştir. Elde edilen tüm uyum indeksi değerleri ölçeğin yapı geçerliğinin kabul edilebilir standartlar arasında olduğunu teyit etmektedir. Ancak AFA analizinde elde edilen eigen değerlerinin eşit/yakın olmaması ve arasındaki farklılıkların büyüklüğü dikkat çekmektedir. Özellikle düşük eigen değerleri ile daha sonra yapılabilecek karşılaştırma analizlerinden daha duyarlı davranılmasının yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

SB-ÖSÖ'nün güvenirlik değerleri de iç tutarlık ve dış tutarlık analizleri ile belirlenmiştir. Madde yapısı homojen olmadığından ve kuramsal olarak maddeler arasında bir korelasyon beklenmediğinden alternatif güvenirlik testleri (yarılama/split-half) kullanılmamıştır. İç tutarlık göstergesi olarak Cronbach alfa katsayısı ve dış tutarlık için de test-tekrar test modeli üzerinden Pearson korelasyonu kullanılmıştır. Alfa katsayıları tüm faktörler için 70'den yüksektir ve ölçek toplamı için .933 gibi son derece yüksek bir değere sahiptir. Bu değerler SB-ÖSÖ'nün yüksek bir iç tutarlığa sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Test tekrar test korelasyonları için de 53 kişilik bir örneklem grubunda yaklaşık üç hafta (19 gün) arayla yapılan uygulamalara bağlı olarak hesaplanan en düşük r değeri .765 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değerler de SB-ÖSÖ'nün psikometrik ölçütleri karşılayacak düzeyde güvenirliğe sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Alanyazında Sağlık Bilimleri öğrenciler için geliştirilmiş başka bir öğrenme stilleri ölçeği bulunmadığından uyum geçerliği sınanamamıştır. Gelecekte geliştirilmesi durumunda ölçek performanslarının benzeşikliğinin test edilmesi önerilebilir. SB-ÖSÖ'nün kullanılması ile elde edilen verilerin genellenebilirliğini artırmak amaçlı çalışmanın farklı ve daha büyük örneklemelerle yinelenmesi araştırmacılara önerilir. Ayrıca çalışma nitel araştırmalarla da desteklenerek elde edilen sonuçların karşılaştırılmasının yararlı olacağı değerlendirilmektedir.

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Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî'nin Düşüncesinde Allah'ın Hikmeti Meselesi

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ÖZET

XV. yüzyılda İslâm düşüncesinin önemli düşünürlerinden biri Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî'dir (ö. 1501). Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî, *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-kadîme* ve *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-cedîde* adlı eserleri yazmıştır. Kelime manası “bilmek” olan hikmet, “h-k-m” kökünden türetilmiştir. İslam felsefesinde hikmet, “insanın gücü ölçüsünde ebedi ve külli şeyleri, onların inniyetini, mahiyetini ve sebeplerini bilmesi” şeklinde tanımlanmıştır. Hikmet Allah'a nisbet edildiğinde “en değerli varlıkları en üstün bilgiyle bilmek” manasına gelmektedir. Devvânî, *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-cedîde* adlı eserinde Allah'ın varlığının ve birliğinin isbâtı, zat-sıfat ilişkisi ve Allah'ın sıfatları ve âlemin mükemmelliği düşüncesinden hareketle Allah'ın cömertliği (cûd) ve hikmeti konularını ele almaktadır. Zât-sıfat ilişkisinde, Allah'ın sıfatlarını zâtının aynı olduğunu söyleyen Devvânî, âlemde çok mükemmel bir düzen olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Ona göre âlemin bu harikulade mükemmelliğinin sebebi de varlığında hiçbir sebebe muhtaç olmayan, en yetkin varlık olan Vâcibü'l-Vücûd'dur. Bu tebliğde Celâleddîn Devvânî'nin *Risâle fi İsbâti'l-Vâcibî'l-Cedîde* adlı eserinden hareketle Allah'ın hikmeti ve âlemin mükemmelliği konusunu ele alınacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî, Hikmet, Âlem, Cömertlik, Düzen.

The Problem of God's Hikmah in the Thought of Jalâl al-Dîn Dawânî

ABSTRACT

Jalâl al-Dîn al Dawânî (d. 1501) is one of the important thinkers of Islamic thought in the 15th century. He wrote books named as *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-kadîme* and *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-cedîde*. The concept of hikmet that meaning is “knowing”, is a noun derived from the root “h-k-m”. In the Islamic philosophy, hikmah is defined as “the knowledge of eternal and universal things, of their essences, of their quiddity, and of their causes, as far as is within man's capacity.” Hikmah when it is a attribution of God, means as “consists in thinking the most excellent thing through the most excellent knowledge”. In the book, *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-cedîde* which is the basic of that work, Dawani discusses about some topics such as the evidence of existence and unity of God, the relation between essence and attributes of God, the attributions of God, and the generosity of God (cûd) in relation with the perfectness of the universe, and the wisdom of God. Accepting as one or the same the essence and attributions of God, Dawani accepts that there is a perfect order in the universe. According to Dawani, the perfect order of the universe stems from wajib al-wujud, the authority of asset or God. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the hikmah of God and the perfection of the world according to Jalâl al-Dîn Dawânî's work that is the basic of *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibî'l-cedîde*.

Keywords: Jalâl al-Dîn Dawânî, Hikmah, Universe, Providence, Order.

GİRİŞ

İslam metafizik düşüncesinde Allah'ın varlığı, birliği, zâtı ve sıfatları bir problem olarak incelendiği görülmektedir. Bu problemlerinden biri de hiç kuşkusuz Allah ve âlem ilişkisini açıklayan Allah'ın hikmeti meselesidir.

İslam düşüncesinde önemli bir yere sahip olan Celâleddin ed-Devvânî, İsfahan Okulu'nun önemli hocalarından biridir. Düşünür, İslam entelektüel geleneğinin farklı ve birbirine zıt olan düşüncelerini birbiriyle uyumlu bir şekilde bir araya getirebilen bir ilmî kişiliğe sahiptir. Zira Devvânî, bir taraftan Sühreverdî'nin (ö. 1191) *Heyâkilü'n-nûr* adlı eserine şerh yazarken diğer taraftan da Nasîrüddîn Tûsî'nin (ö. 1274) *Kitâbü't-Tecrîd*'ine şerh kaleme almıştır. Dolayısıyla Devvânî'nin ilmî kimliğinde hem kelimeler hem de felsefenin, hatta tasavvufun yansımalarını görmek mümkündür. Bununla birlikte Devvânî, İslam düşüncesinin en önemli meselesi olan isbât-ı vâcib problemi ile ilgili biri gençliğinde, diğeri de ilmi bakımdan yetkin olduğu ileri yaşlarında olmak üzere iki eser telif etmiştir. Düşünür, gençliğinde yazdığı *Risâletü İsbatî'l-vâcibi'l-kadîme*'de tenkitçi bir üslup ile isbât-ı vâcib konusunda kelimacılar ve filozoflar tarafından ileri sürülen çeşitli burhanları ele almıştır. İleri yaşlarında yazdığı *Risâletü İsbatî'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde*'de ise başta mârifetullah olmak üzere, Allah'ın varlığının ve birliğinin isbatı, Allah'ın sıfatları, bu sıfatların âleme yansımaları ve Allah-âlem ilişkisi bağlamında âlemin mükemmelliğini incelemiştir.

Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî, Allah'ın hikmeti problemini öncelikle *Risâletü İsbatî'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde* adlı eserinde bir bölüm halinde ele almaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra *Ahlâk-ı Celâlî* adlı eserinde de hikmet kavramını incelemektedir. Devvânî'nin düşüncesinde Allah'ın hikmeti probleminin tartışılması hedeflenen bu çalışmada, öncelikle onun zikredilen eserlerinden hareketle ve kendinden önceki düşünürlerin fikirleriyle mukayeseli olarak hikmet kavramı ve Allah'ın hikmeti meselesi ele alınacaktır.

Felsefî bir Kavram Olarak Hikmet

Hikmet kelimesi, sözlüklerde “yargıda bulunmak” manasına gelir. Arapça’da “h-k-m” kökünden türetilen “hüküm” kelimesi ile aynı manaya gelen hikmet, “hüküm vermek, hükmetmek, iyileştirmek amacıyla menetmek, düzeltmek” anlamlarında kullanılmıştır. Hikmet ve hüküm “bilmek (ilim)” ve “anlamak (fıkıh)” anlamlarında eş anlamlı kelimelerdir. (Kutluer, 1998; Topaloğlu-Çelebi, 2015) Ayrıca “tam isabet, her şeyi yerli yerine koyma” manasındadır (Topaloğlu-Çelebi, 2015). Bir tasavvuf terimi olarak hikmet “Eşyanın sırlarını öğrenmek, sonuçların sebepleriyle irtibatını anlamak, gereken şeyi gerekli şartlarıyla gerektiği gibi bilmek.” (Kâşânî, 2004) manasına gelmektedir.

Klasik Arapça sözlüklerde hikmet kelimesinin, felsefî olarak “insanın gücü ölçüsünde nesnelerin mahiyet ve hakikatlerinin bilinmesi” şeklinde tanımlandığı görülmektedir (Cürçânî, 1985; Devvânî, 2019). Hikmet kelimesinin felsefe terimi yerine kullanılması “bilgelik sevgisi” manasına gelen philosophia kelimesinde dolaydır. Philosophia kelimesi “sevgi” manasına gelen “philéo” ve “bilge, bilgelik” anlamındaki “sophos” kelimelerinden türemiştir. Dolayısıyla philosophia kelimesi “bilgelik sevgisi” manasındadır. (Peters, 2004, s. 289) İslam filozofları da

philosophia kelimesinin anlamının “bilgelik sevgisi” olmasından hareketle felsefe terimi yerine “bilmek, hüküm vermek” gibi manalara gelen hikmet kelimesini kullanmayı tercih etmişlerdir. Bununla birlikte hikmet kelimesinin Kur’an-ı Kerim’de sıklıkla geçmesi Müslüman filozofların bu terimi kullanmalarında bir tercih sebebi olduğunu söylemek mümkündür (Bayrakdar, 1998).

İslam felsefesinde hikmet kavramı, hem insan hem de Allah için kullanılan bir kelimedir. Nitekim hikmet, insan için bir taraftan “varlıkların hakikatini bilmesi” manasında “el-ilim” terimi ile eş anlamlı iken diğer taraftan insanın ahlâkî erdemlerinden biridir (Kutluer, 1998). Devvânî de hikmeti “el-ilim” kavramı çerçevesinde kullanarak, “varlıkların durumlarıyla ilgili bir ilim” şeklinde tarif etmektedir (Devvânî, 2019). Bu aynı zamanda hikmetin veya felsefenin teorik ve pratik şeklinde ayrımını ifade etmektedir. Bu bağlamda Fârâbî (ö. 950), hikmeti nazarî ve amelî şeklinde ikiye ayırarak, hikmet bilgisinin insana gerçek mutluluğun (es-saadetü’l-kusvâ) bilgisini kazandıracağını ifade etmektedir. Ona göre gerçek mutluluğa ulaşmanın yollarını ise amelî hikmet verir. Dolayısıyla filozof, insanı nihai mutluluğa ulaştıracak olanın hikmet olduğunu belirtmektedir. (Fârâbî, 1986)

Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî’nin *Ahlâk-ı Celâlî* adlı eserinde zikrettiği gibi, İbn Sînâ (ö. 1037) ise felsefenin amacını “insanın bilme gücü ölçüsünce bütün şeylerin hakikatine vakıf olması” şeklinde ifade ederek, var olan şeyleri iki kısma ayırmaktadır. Filozof, *el-Medhâl (Mantiğa Giriş)* adlı eserinde var olanların bir kısmının insanın seçme ve fiili ile olmadığını, diğer bir kısım şeylerin de insanın seçmesi ve fiili ile ilgili olduğunu söylemektedir. Bunlardan ilk kısmına nazarî (teorik) felsefe (hikmet), ikinci kısmına ise amelî (pratik) felsefe adının verildiğini belirtmektedir. İbn Sînâ, nazarî felsefenin amacını hakikati bilme; amelî felsefenin amacını da yapılacak olan şeyleri bilme ve yapma olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Başka bir ifadeyle, nazarî felsefenin amacı düşüncenin, yani hakikatin bilinmesi, amelî felsefenin amacı da yapılması gereken iyi fiillerin ne olduğunun bilinmesidir. Filozof, bu şekilde insanın hakikatin bilgisini elde edeceğini ve bu bilgi doğrultusunda fiilini gerçekleştirerek nefsinin yetkinleştirebileceğini belirtmektedir (İbn Sînâ, 2006; Devvânî, 2019).

Görüldüğü üzere hikmet, teorik olarak “el-ilim” manasında insanın hakikatin bilgisini elde etmesi anlamına gelmektedir. Ahlâkî manada hikmet ise insânî nefsin üç gücünden biri olan aklî gücünün itidal noktasıdır. İslam filozofları, daha önce Platon tarafından ortaya konulan, insanî nefsin aklî güç (el-kuvvetü’n-nâtıka/el-âlîme), öfke gücü (el-kuvvetü’l-gadabiyye) ve arzu gücü (el-kuvvetü’ş-şeheviyye) şeklinde üç gücü olduğu düşüncesini benimsemişlerdir. İslam felsefesinde ilk defa Kindî (ö. 866?) tarafından dile getirilen bu nefis teorisine göre nefsin sahip olduğu bu güçlerden aklî güç insanın nefsi ile ilgili olurken, öfke ve arzu gücü de beden ile ilgilidir (Kindî, 2014). Bu güçlerden aklî gücün itidali hikmet, öfke gücünün itidali şecaat ve arzu gücünün itidali ise iffettir. Ahlâk felsefesinde zikredilen bu güçlerin itidal noktaları fazilet, ifrat ve tefriti ise rezilet kabul edilmektedir. İslam ahlâk düşünürlerine göre mezkûr ahlâkî faziletler, kendiliğinden iyi değil, en yüce mutluluğa (es-saadetü’l-kusvâ) ulaştırması bakımından iyi kabul edilmiştir. (İbn Sînâ, 2005a; İbn Miskeveyh, 1967)

Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî de *Ahlâk-ı Celâlî* adlı eserinde İbn Sînâ’nın zikrettiği gibi, insanî nefsin aklî gücü, öfke gücü ve arzu gücü olmak üzere üç gücü olduğunu ifade etmektedir.

Devvânî, insanın aklî gücüne melekî nefis ve nefs-i mutmaine adını vermektedir. Bu güç, insanın temyiz ve şeylerin hakikatleri üzerine düşünme arzusunun ilkesidir. Öfke gücünü ise nefs-i levvâme şeklinde adlandırmaktadır. Bu güç yiğitlik, egemenlik, yükselme ve makam isteğinin ilkesidir. Diğer güç olan arzu gücü de nefs-i emare olarak adlandırılmaktadır. Devvânî, bu gücün besin isteği ve yeme, içme gibi haz isteğinin ilkesi olduğunu belirtmektedir. Devvânî, insanın aklî gücün itidal halinin hikmet olduğunu ve bu güç ile ilim ve bilgi elde ettiğini ifade etmektedir. Dolayısıyla Devvânî, ahlâkî manada bir fazilet olarak hikmeti insanın aklî gücünün itidal hali şeklinde ifade etmektedir. (Devvânî, 2019)

Devvânî'den önce Kindî, ahlâkî bir fazilet olarak hikmeti “düşünce gücüne ait bir fazilettir. Bilgelik küllî varlıkların hakikatini bilme ve bu bilgiyi hakikat doğrultusunda gerektiği gibi kullanmadan ibaret” şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. (Kindî, 2014) Devvânî ise hikmeti hem nazarî hem de amelî olarak ikiye ayırmakta ve ahlâkî manada hikmetin insanın kudret ve ihtiyarına bağlı ilim, yani amelî hikmet şeklinde belirtmektedir (Devvânî, 2019).

Hikmet kavramı Allah'ın bir ismi olarak kullanıldığında “en değerli varlıkları en üstün bilgiyle bilmek” (Fârâbî, 2018; Gazzâlî, 1971) manasını ifade etmektedir. Nitekim Fârâbî, *el-Medînetü'l-Fâzıla* adlı eserinde hikmeti “en üstün şeyin en üstün bilgi ile akledilmesi” (Fârâbî, 2018) şeklinde tanımlayarak Allah'ın hakîm olmasını açıklamaktadır. Benzer şekilde İbn Sînâ da İlk Felsefe adını verdiği metafizik ilmini hikmet şeklinde adlandırmakta ve onu “en üstün bilinene dair en üstün bilgi” (İbn Sînâ, 2004) şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Filozofa göre hikmet, bilinenlerin en üstünü olan yüce Allah'a ve O'ndan sonra gelen sebeplere dair en üstün olan kesin bilgidir. Başka bir ifadeyle hikmet ilmi, bütün varlıkların en uzak sebeplerinin bilgisidir ki, bu da Allah'ı bilmektir. (İbn Sînâ, 2004)

Görüldüğü üzere hikmet terimi, bir taraftan insan için nazarî olarak gücü yettiği ölçüde varlığın mahiyet ve hakikatini bilmesi, amelî olarak da her şeyi yerli yerince yapması manasına gelirken; diğer taraftan Allah için hükmünde gözettiği üst maksatları ifade etmektedir. Esasen Allah'ın hakîm ismi “işleri gereği gibi sağlam ve kusursuz yapan” manasına gelmektedir (Topaloğlu-Çelebi, 2015).

Allah'ın Hikmeti Problemi

Celâleddîn ed-Devvânî'nin ilmi bakımdan yetkin olduğu ileri yaşlarında yazdığı *Risâletü'İsbâtî'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde* adlı eserinde öncelikli amacının mârifetullah olduğu söylenebilir. Başka bir ifadeyle Devvânî, hayatının ileri yaşlarında yazdığı *Risâletü'İsbâtî'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde* adlı eserinde Allah'ın varlığının ve birliğinin isbatı ile birlikte Allah'ın zatı ve sıfatlarını, kaza-kader problemini, hikmet ve cömertlik kavramları çerçevesinde Allah'ın âlemle ilişkisini tartışmakla, gerçekte Allah'ı tanımayı gaye edinmiştir diyebiliriz (Toksöz, 2014a). Nitekim Devvânî bu eserinde imkân ve hudûs delillerini kullanarak Allah'ın varlığının isbatını yapar.

Allah'ın hikmeti problemine ilişkin Devvânî, *Risâletü'İsbâtî'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde* adlı eserinin bir bölümünde yer vermiştir. O, ismi mezkûr eserinde Allah'ın hikmetini “Allah'ın hikmeti O'nun fiilinin bilinmesi ve ilminin ortaya çıkmasından ibarettir.” (Devvânî, 2002)

şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Devvânî'nin Allah'ın hikmeti ile ilgili tanımından İlâhî hikmetin hem Allah'ın ilim ve kudret sıfatı ile hem de âlemdaki mükemmel düzen ile yakından ilişkili olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Nitekim Devvânî, Allah'ın ilminin cehalete benzemeyen en mükemmel bir ilim; O'nun kudretinin acziyetin bulaşmadığı kâmil bir kudret olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Ayrıca Devvânî, âlemi ve içindeki varlıkların mükemmelliğine işaret ederek yaratılan bütün varlıkların harikulade oluşunu Allah'ın sanatı olarak değerlendirmektedir. Hatta Allah'ın sanatının ince hikmetleri kapsadığını ve bu sebeple, insan aklının bu ince sanatı anlamakta tereddüt ettiğini düşünmektedir. Bu konuda Devvânî, astronomi (hey'et) ve anatomi (teşrîh) ilmini örnek verir. Şöyle ki, astronomi ve anatomi ilmi ile meşgul olan bir kimse gerek âlemde gerekse insan organizmasındaki mükemmelliği gördüğünde bu eşsiz düzene hayran kalır. (Devvânî, 2002)

Âlemdaki harikulade düzen, İslam düşüncesinde Devvânî'den önce tartışılan ve ele alınan bir konudur. Nitekim Gazzâlî (ö. 1111), *el-Maksadu'l-esnâ fî şerhi Esmâ'llahi'l-hüsnâ, Makâsıdu'l-felâsife, Tehâfütü'l-felâsife* ve *İhyâ'u 'ulûmi'd-dîn* adlı eserlerinde âlemden mükemmel bir düzenin varlığından söz etmektedir. Ona göre harikulade olan bu düzenin sebebi de Allah'ın hikmet ve inayetidir. Devvânî'nin *Risâletü İsbatî'l-vâcibi'l-cedide* adlı eserinde işaret ettiği gibi, Gazzâlî, ismi mezkûr eserlerinde yıldızların sayısından ve ölçülerinden, yeryüzünün ve canlı varlıkların organizmalarından örnekler vererek bütün var olanların en mükemmel bir şekilde var olmasının Allah'ın hikmeti gereği olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Hatta *Cevâhiru'l-Kur'ân* adlı eserinde “en küçüğün en büyüğün açıklayıcısı” olması prensibinden hareketle ilâhî hikmeti açıklamaktadır. (Toksöz, 2014b)

Gazzâlî'nin vermiş olduğu “en küçüğün en büyüğün açıklayıcısı” olması örneği, esas itibarıyla Miladi II. Asırda yaşamış olan Galen'nin (ö. 201) İslam dünyasına erken dönemde tercüme edilmiş olan *De Usu Partium* (Galen, 1968) adlı eserindeki örneklerle benzerlik göstermektedir. Nitekim Galen, *De Usu Partium*'da pire örneğini vererek, en küçük görünen canlılarda bile ilâhî hikmetin yansımasının görüldüğünü belirtmektedir (Galen, 1968). Benzer şekilde Gazzâlî de sivrisinek, arı ve örümcek gibi küçük hayvanlardan örnekler vererek ilâhî hikmete işaret etmektedir. Gazzâlî, insanın aklının bu tür mucizeleri anlamakta aciz kaldığını belirterek ismi mezkûr eserlerinde şu ifadelerle yer vermektedir: “Biz tahtakurusundaki, karıncadaki, arıdaki veya örümcekteki mucizeleri, yuvalarının yapış tarzındaki, yiyeceklerini toplamalarındaki harikası anlatmak isteseydik, bunu yapmaktan aciz kalırdık.” (Gazzâlî, 2006; Gazzâlî, 1983) Ayrıca Gazzâlî, *Cevâhiru'l-Kur'ân* adlı eserinde arının balmumu ile yaptığı petek örneğinden hareketle âlemden harikulade düzenden ve ilâhî hikmetten söz etmektedir (Gazzâlî, 2006). Gazzâlî, *İhyâ'u ulûmi'd-dîn* adlı eserinde de insanı örnek vererek Allah'ın inayet ve hikmetini anlatmaktadır. Ona göre Allah insana her türlü ihtiyacını bahşetmiştir. Nitekim ona varlığının devamını sağlayan baş, kalp gibi organları, temel ihtiyacı olan göz, el, ayak gibi azaları, bedeninin süsü olan saç, kaş, göz rengi gibi azaları yaratmıştır. (Gazzâlî, 1983)

Devvânî, âlemden harikulade şekilde olan bu mükemmel düzenin temel ilkesinin Allah'ın ilmi olduğunu düşünmektedir. Zira Devvânî, *Risâletü İsbatî'l-vâcibi'l-cedide* adlı eserinde Allah'ın ilminin mahiyet itibarıyla insandan farklı olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Ona

göre Allah'ın bilmesi varlıkların var olma sebebidir. O'nun bilgisinde insanın bilgisinde olduğu gibi, herhangi bir değişim söz konusu değildir. Dolayısıyla Allah hem kendi zâtını hem de kendi dışındaki varlıkları bilir ve O'nun bilgi sıfatı zâtıyla özdeştir. Bu bağlamda Devvânî, Allah'ın kendi zâtı ile ilgili bilgisinin kendi dışındaki varlıkların var olma sebebi olduğunu söylemektedir. (Devvânî, 2002)

Âlemdeki mükemmel düzenin ilkesinin Allah'ın bilgisi olduğunu söyleyen Devvânî, O'nun varlık vermesini ilâhî hikmet çerçevesinde açıklamaktadır. Şöyle ki, Devvânî'ye göre var olan bütün varlıkların var olma sebebi Allah'ın inâyeti, yani cömertliğidir (cûd). Devvânî, cömertliği tıpkı İbn Sînâ gibi, “herhangi bir karşılık beklenmeyen şey” (Devvânî, 2002) şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Nitekim İbn Sînâ da *el-İşârât ve 't-Tenbîhât* adlı eserinde cömertliği mecazî ve gerçek şeklinde ikiye ayırmakta ve gerçek cömertliği “gerekeni karşılıksız vermek” (İbn Sînâ, 2005b) şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda gerek İbn Sînâ gerekse Devvânî'nin herhangi bir karşılık beklentisiyle yapılan iyiliklerin cömertlik sayılmadığı, buna karşılık hiçbir karşılık beklentisi olmadan yapılan iyilikleri cömertlik olarak kabul edildiği düşüncesinde oldukları görülmektedir. Dolayısıyla İbn Sînâ ve Devvânî'nin ortaya koydukları fikirlerinden gerçek cömertin yaptığı fiillerinde herhangi bir gayesi olmayan Mahzâ İyî olan Vâcibü'l-Vücûd olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Zira Devvânî'ye göre Allah'ın dışındaki varlıklar, fiillerinde dünyada veya ahirette sevap kazanma veya günahattan kurtulma, insanlardan övgü alma, nefsinin yetkinleştirme, üzüntülerden kurtulma gibi herhangi bir şekilde karşılık beklentisi içinde bulunduklarından dolayı gerçek cömert kabul edilmemektedir. Hâlbuki Allah, herhangi bir karşılık beklentisi olmaksızın sebebi olduğu varlıklara iyilikleri inayetiyle vermektedir. (Devvânî, 2002)

Devvânî, *Risâletü İsbâti'l-vâcibi'l-cedîde* adlı eserinde iyiliklerin herhangi bir karşılık beklentisi olmaksızın Allah tarafından verildiğini ifade etmektedir. Bu bağlamda o, âlemde görülen bazı kötülükler hakkında birtakım açıklamalarda bulunur. Ona göre eşyada, yani mümkün varlıklarda bazı kötülükler ve noksanlıklar vardır. Fakat eşyada bu tür kötülüklerin bulunması Allah'ın iradesiyle gerçekleşmiş veya bazı varlıklara cimrilik etmesi sebebiyle olmuş değildir. Zira Devvânî, mümkün varlıklarda görülen bazı kötülük ve noksanlıkların onların kendi zatlarından, yani tabiatlarından kaynaklandığını düşünmektedir. Bu çerçevede Devvânî, “Sana ne iyilik gelirse Allah'tandır. Ne kötülük gelirse kendindendir.” (Nisâ 4/79) mealindeki ayeti örnek verir. Mezkûr ayetten de anlaşıldığı üzere Devvânî, eksikliğin hiçbir şekilde Allah'a nispet edilemeyeceğini vurgular. Çünkü ona göre Allah, her türlü yetkinliğin sahibidir. O'nun kudreti ve hikmeti tamdır ve O'nun fiillerinde hiçbir şekilde eksiklik söz konusu değildir. Hatta bu bağlamda Devvânî, İbn Sînâ gibi, Allah'ı her türlü yetkinliğin üstünde olduğunu “fevka't-tamâm” ifadesiyle izah eder. Şu halde Devvânî'ye göre âlem, en mükemmel bir düzen ile Allah'ın ilmine ve hikmetine uygun bir şekilde var olmuştur. Başka bir ifadeyle, âlemde var olan harikulade düzen Allah'ın inayet ve hikmetinin gereğidir. (Devvânî, 2002)

Sonuç olarak Devvânî'nin düşüncesine göre âlemde harikulade bir düzen vardır. O, âlemdeki bu mükemmel düzeni Allah'ın sanat olarak ifade etmektedir. Ona göre âlemde bulunan bu mükemmellik, akılların bir nebze yakalamakta tereddüt ettiği en ince hikmetleri kapsamaktadır. Ancak âlemdeki bu harikulade düzen Allah'ın ulaşmak istediği bir gaye

değildir. Aksine Allah, âlemin var olma sebebidir. Başka bir ifadeyle, âlemin varlık sebebi, Allah'ın inayeti ve cömertliği, yani hikmetidir.

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