



ISBN 978-9940-540-33-3

ACADEMIC STUDIES

IN SOCIAL, HUMAN AND ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

2018



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Editors

**Hasan BABACAN
Marijan PREMOVIĆ**

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Prof. Hasan BABACAN, Ph.D.
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First Edition • © September 2018 /Cetinje

ISBN • 978-9940-540-33-3

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web: www.ivpe.me

Tel. +382 41 234 709

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Print

Ivpe

Cetinje, Montenegro

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PREFACE

The specialist as we know in the modern age is a creation of modernity. Up until the modern age, scholars were known for their expertise in social areas. From Avicenna (Ibn-i Sina) and Hezarfen Ahmet Celebi to Leonardo da Vinci and Galileo many Medieval, Renaissance and Enlightenment scholars were polymath, mastering knowledge from several fields. The needs of the modern age created specialists focusing deeply on one field. At the convergence of post-modernism and the age of the internet, social, cultural and economic realities of increasingly diverse societies have created a new need for the revival of polymath. Emerging globalization in the post-Cold War triggered rapid social change that cannot be explained from the perspective of a single discipline. This reality increased the focus on social science studies.

In this book, there are studies of scientists working on in various fields of Social Sciences and Humanities. These fields are listed under the titles of Accounting, Banking, Communication, Economics, Philology, Fine Arts, International Relations, Management and Strategy, Marketing, Management and Organization, Philosophy and Tourism.

It is our sincerest wish that these valuable works of our scientists will contribute to the scientific world.

Hasan BABACAN, Marijan PREMOVIĆ

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ACCOUNTING

AN EXAMINATION OF THE APPLIED PUNISHMENTS BY THE CHAMBER OF PROFESSIONALS FOR ACCOUNTING PROFESSIONAL MEMBERS: CASE OF TURKEY (2008-2014)

Alper Tunga ALKAN*

1. Introduction

Supervision activities has also an important effect on accounting profession, as in every profession. When responsibility area of the members of accounting profession are taken into consideration, it reveals that it is necessary for them to be supervised from time to time, in order to be able to determine whether or not they perform their legal duties and authorities in a reliable way. Just as elimination of shortcomings identified will more increase the value attributed on care of society , it will also enable the problems between the members of profession to be reduced to the minimum level.

As a result of the tasks the members of accounting profession realize, the reliability of information obtained from the aspect of decision makers is a subject that has been discussed. On the other hand, when the difficulty of the decision makers' of interest to examine the information, presented to them, directly achieving its resource, and social costs it will bring with it are considered, the importance of supervision activities increases much more.

Especially in the last years, that some events such as Euron, which reduce the value of accounting profession, on the cares of society, were experienced revealed that it must be supervised, besides the transactions carried out by the members of accounting profession, the members of profession themselves. In the discussions under consideration, the general idea is in the form that, for the trust felt to the member of profession to be able to increase, and for a positive opinion to be able to form in the direction of its trueness and impartiality, in the necessary conditions, supervising the members of profession became obligatory.

Although supervision of the members of profession increases the value of profession in the eyes of the decision makers, it also makes a contribution to the solution of problems, experienced among the members of profession and between the members of profession and taxpayers. Especially, in terms of identifying the problems and using the learning culture toward the problems as an educational instrument, the fact that the concept supervision toward the members of profession becomes

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established provides the continuity of accounting profession in a certain standards, and building of future of profession in a certain standards.

In this study, first of all, supervision of the members of accounting profession and disciplinary penalties to be faced by subjecting to this supervision are discussed at the theoretical level. Secondly, the activities toward the realized in Turkey and findings obtained are evaluated together. Finally, in Turkey, on the basis of the years 2008-2014¹, stating the numbers of the members of accounting profession and the total of the penalties imposed and considering 10 provinces, where the most and least members of accounting profession are present, an evaluation was made.

2. In Turkey, Supervision of The Members of Accounting Profession and Sort of Discipline Punishment

In Turkey, the members of accounting profession can be supervised by three different methods. The first of these are supervisions carried out by chambers of profession; the second, finance ministry, and third, supervisions, which can be expressed as “partial control” during certified cross-examination. In this study, in the direction of the study, only the sort of supervision carried out by chamber of profession is discussed..

In the study of interest, in the examinations carried out, in the scope of legislation taking as a subject the accounting profession, under the title of “supervision of the members of profession”, even though any expression is not met, including in the law of profession, numbered 3568, and the regulations determined below, the expressions of “the crimes, related to the duty, disciplinary penalties, and penalty provisions, which can be defined as supervision activities, take place.

In the scope, the law of profession, numbered 3568, the relevant items, in which the information about “the crimes related to duty”, “disciplinary crimes” and “criminal provisions” are given place, were discussed in detail in the Disciplinary Regulation of the Law of “Independent Accounting and Certified Financial Advisory, published in Official Newspaper”, dated of 31.10.2000 and numbered 24216, According to this, disciplinary investigation about the members of profession is realized in the 4 forms. These are a) the notice and complaint of the relevant person b) the demand of any of the rules of relevant chamber, c) the demand of any of association rules, and the investigations conducted about the head of members of chamber or association board, considered responsible, through the decision of the relevant chamber or association board.

¹ The data used in the analysis covers the years 2008 – 2014 and datas for 2008 - 2009 and 2010 are compiled in the form of 2010 as a whole where the data is obtained (www.turmob.org.tr). For this reason, the period between 2010 and 2014 is generally evaluated.

As they take place in the regulations, the states, where the member of profession will be deemed guilty and the penalties he/she will receive as a result of supervision are collected in the 4 main title as the penalties of notice, reprimand, retention from professional activity temporally, and dismissing from profession For these sanctions to be able to be under consideration, the states and behaviors deemed crime are summarily arranged as in the following Table 1:

Table 1. In Turkey, the states deemed crime for the members of accounting profession and the penalties they will receive

Punishment	Status Deemed Crime
Notice	Remaining indifference and uninterested to the works of customers; behaving against the subjects of contract, which will be made on the professional subjects with the customers; behaving against the provisions of circulars and directives, published by association; that member of profession does works, which does not match with the solemnity and honor of the profession; not submitting the information to the chamber completely and truly; becoming a part of interest conflicts; not submitting the information and documents required by chamber.
Reprimand	Renewing any actions requiring the penalty of notice in a three years' period; the use of title that are not possessed; accepting the work without considering the written service contract; arranging the false and misleading document; not complying with the advertisement prohibition; collecting the wage different from the fee tariff; making work suggestions and implementations about the taxpayers of the other members of profession; providing advantage in competition; making unreal notice and complaint about the other member of profession;
Retention from professional activity temporally	Repeating any state and action requiring the penalty of reprimand; working the hidden service contract; making cooperation against the laws and regulations; not complying with the prohibition of commercial activity; deliberately using the authority to sign and supervise declaration against the true,
Dismissing from profession	Two times in five years after being punished with retention from the activity, committing again the action requiring this punishment; receiving heavy imprisonment due to the crimes related to the profession; causing the tax punishment deliberately; hiring the license of profession to another person; making transaction using the name of the other members of profession.

3. Literature: The Studies On Supervision On The Accounting Profession Taking Place In Turkey

In both international and national literature, although there are many studies about the accounting profession, the number of those studying on supervision of member of profession is considerably limited . In this study, besides a few numbers of study related to the subject of study, although basically another dimension of the accounting profession is taken as a

subject, the relevant sections of the studies mentioning about supervision of the members of accounting profession are given place.

A study including a common subject with this study was carried out by Banar ve Aslan (2009). In this study including the period of 2000-2008 about disciplinary penalties received by the members of accounting profession, due to the fact the disciplinary penalties imposed are not announced to the public in accordance with the law of profession, being based on the activity reports, the penalties the members of profession received according to the regions in Turkey are numerically examined.

Uzay and Tanç (2004), in the study they carried out, attracting attention the presence of unfair competition between the members of profession, reveal the results in the way that the taxpayers evaluate the members of the accounting professions.

In the study, carried out by Arıkan (2004), the problems related to the accounting profession were discussed in the various titles. The conclusion of the study is an unfair competition was experienced between the members of accounting profession. In addition, in the studies, by using the expression that “in the follow of the constraints made about undeclared employees , the chamber must be able to be utilized as intervener”, in the follow of those performing the accounting profession as undeclared, it is emphasized that professional chambers remained ineffective.

Arıkan (2000), who also serves head of chamber of independent accountants and financial advisors, points out unfair competition as one of the most serious problems the members of the accounting face with. The author writes about the elements engendering the unfair competition and puts then in order as undeclared offices, license hiring, unfair competition created by the dependent employees, unfair competition via announcement, advertisement, and signboard, unfair competition created by customers, and unfair competition crested by the members of profession, lowering price and conceding about quality.

According to the results of study carried out by Kalaycı and Tekşen (2006), the great majority of the members of profession suggest that their colleagues keep books cheaply and, thus, thinks that the accounting profession loses value on the cares of society. On the other hand, the members of the accounting profession requires from the chambers, to which they subject about to find solution the unfair competition between their colleagues is an emphasis on the increasing importance of the concept supervision.

In the study, where “Survey of Members of Accounting Profession” is evaluated by Yereli (Apak, 2006), using the expression that “the subjects such as “unfair competition, service quality, and wage problem, and etc.

must be taken under follow and control and the necessary solution ways must be founded ”, it is emphasized that it is necessary to supervise the members of profession.

In the study, carried out Bilen (2008), the important results attracts attention, determined in the way that there is an intensive competition among the members of accounting profession; that the fees the profession members receive are not standard; that the mistakes the profession members make in view of their ambitions and ignorance are charged on the profession; that the members of profession exhibit unethical behaviors; and that the lack of supervision impedes that the profession is applied more seriously.

According to the study, carried out by Özulucan et al.(2010) all over Turkey, the distrust of taxpayers toward the members of accounting profession leads them not to care accounting, in turn, the members of profession. This situation stalemates the solution of problems experienced between taxpayers and members of profession.

When all of these studies are evaluated, it is seen that, in the literature, the main existing problems related to the subject of supervision are collected under three titles as unfair competition, fee, and problems related to ethics and chamber of profession.

4. Methodology

In scientific studies, the theoretical and field studies are commonly given place. In this study under consideration, using literature review as well as statistical data, an applied method was preferred.

The data used in the empirical part of the study were obtained from the activity reports, published in the official website of , TURMOB. The activity reports of interest includes the years of 2009 and 2014. But, since the imposed disciplinary penalties taking place in the official website are collectively presented in the activity reports of year 2010, as combining the data of 2008, 2009, and 2010, the information was tabulated in the way of 2010 and 2014.

While the findings are evaluated, as statistical method, frequency distribution was used. The reason for this is that the detailed information is not given about penalties and that only numerical values according to the sorts of penalties . In summary, using the number of members of profession and data on the sorts of amount of punishment imposed, analysis was carried out.

5. Results and Discussion ²

In Turkey, total 2075 penalty were imposed on the members of accounting profession between 2008-2014. 289 of these penalties are called as the other penalties (decision of no-prosecution, not imposing penalty, etc.). This situation was not included in the evaluation. The number of total penalties included in the table 2 is 1786.

In Turkey, there were 78,569 members of accounting profession in 2011; 80,414 in 2011; 85,417 in 2012; 88,147 in 2013, and 91,457 in 2014. Also, 782 discipline penalty was imposed between the years 2008-2010; 470, in 2011; 173, in 2012; 133 in 2013; and 228 in 2014. Thus, the total number of files that becomes definite between the years of 2008-2014 was determined as 1786. The distribution of these penalties according to their sorts is like in Table 2:

Table 2. Distribution of penalties according to the sorts and years

Sort of Penalty	2008-2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Toplam	%
Notice	257	188	33	27	39	544	30,46
Reprimand	292	156	51	46	69	614	34,38
Retention from professional activity temporally	150	91	56	44	76	417	23,35
Dismissing from the profession	83	35	33	16	44	211	11,81
Total	782	470	173	133	228	1786	100

When the values presented in the activity reports are examined, in Turkey, in the categories of penalties imposed on the members of accounting profession, there is reprimand (614) in the first order; notice (544), in the second order; retention from professional activity (417), in the third order; and dismissing from profession (211), in the last order. In this context, the most imposed sort of penalty by chamber of profession on the members of accounting profession is reprimand with the share of 34.88%.

The other remarkable point is that the penalties are mostly between the years of 2008-2010. However, since the values of interest include a process of three years, a healthy analysis cannot be carried out. When this situation is ignored, it is seen that the penalty is imposed the most in 2011 and that is followed by the years of 2014, 2012, and 2013. In addition, the penalties of notice, reprimand, retention from activity is imposed the most in 2011;

² First it should be noted that; the main reason of the differences in number of professionals between cities is the differences in the number of taxpayers. In this study, only the number of professionals and penalties were considered.

that dismissing from the profession was imposed the most in 2014; and that the year all penalties were imposed the least was 2013.

In Turkey, the number of members of the accounting profession according to the provinces and total of the imposed discipline penalties coming from SMMM chambers in respect with the sort of penalty, which is expressed as file, made decision on it, is stated in Table 3.

Table 3. In Turkey , the number of members of the accounting profession according to the provinces in the years of 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 and total of the imposed discipline penalty.

	Provinces	Number of Members of Accounting Profession					The imposed disciplinary penalty					Total of penalties
		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2008-2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	
1	Adana	1846	1821	1943	1988	2037	16	15	12	9	8	60
2	Adıyaman	144	145	154	161	174	3	1	1	0	1	6
3	Afyonkarahisar	415	424	450	465	472	8	0	0	0	1	9
4	Aksaray	152	148	156	154	153	1	2	0	0	0	3
5	Alanya	429	451	479	494	510	0	0	3	1	1	5
6	Amasya	196	172	184	190	190	2	1	0	1	1	5
7	Ankara	10008	10180	10703	11056	11480	27	17	7	14	64	129
8	Antalya	2475	2508	2684	2780	2632	29	11	5	4	4	53
9	Artvin	83	77	83	87	86	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	Avdun	766	743	791	781	801	13	13	6	1	3	36
11	Balıkesir	927	887	913	923	949	6	3	5	3	0	17
12	Bartın	102	78	108	106	106	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	Batman	130	131	134	139	145	0	0	0	0	1	1
14	Bilecik	122	116	125	126	130	1	0	0	0	0	1
15	Bitlis	48	51	52	56	57	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	Bodrum	257	266	278	282	290	0	1	2	1	2	6
17	Bolu	303	299	308	306	307	3	4	0	2	2	11
18	Burdur	216	207	217	216	222	1	3	0	0	2	6
19	Bursa	3643	3761	3975	4091	4252	23	56	8	5	22	114
20	Çanakkale	388	384	396	399	403	5	0	0	0	3	8
21	Çankırı	104	103	104	101	101	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	Çorlu	-	265	286	290	292	0	3	0	0	0	3
23	Çorum	395	337	394	393	397	2	2	1	2	1	8
24	Damirli	1001	999	1082	1090	1110	4	5	2	0	2	13
25	Diğer	339	355	376	382	421	10	0	0	0	0	10
26	Diyarbakır	205	175	213	222	222	4	9	1	0	1	15
27	Edirne	373	282	375	380	380	11	7	1	0	4	23
28	Elazığ	214	198	209	205	206	3	1	0	0	0	4
29	Erzincan	129	127	134	132	135	0	0	0	0	0	0
30	Erzurum	287	274	281	282	282	0	2	1	0	0	3
31	Eskişehir	769	753	787	793	805	16	7	1	2	0	26
32	Fethiye	-	-	253	256	251	0	0	3	0	0	3
33	Gaziantep	1389	1436	1501	1571	1631	19	13	6	5	6	49
34	Giresun	200	192	204	205	206	0	0	0	0	0	0
35	Gümüşhane	64	62	62	61	62	1	0	0	0	0	1
36	Hatay	885	570	599	597	607	38	7	2	2	1	50
37	İsparta	324	313	328	327	332	1	0	0	0	0	1
38	İskenderun	-	303	320	330	332	0	2	0	1	3	6
39	İstanbul	27929	29647	31764	33238	34923	214	132	36	25	45	452
40	İzmir	5595	5743	6068	6270	6453	81	43	25	15	19	183
41	Kahramanmaraş	441	450	449	469	498	0	0	1	0	0	1
42	Karabük	181	174	187	189	190	0	0	0	0	0	0
43	Karaman	188	189	194	197	202	2	0	0	0	0	2
44	Kars	116	114	120	121	123	4	0	1	0	0	5
45	Kastamonu	207	191	194	194	198	1	0	0	0	0	1
46	Kayseri	946	1015	1082	1129	1187	15	4	1	6	1	27
47	Kırıkkale	180	159	175	174	171	7	0	3	0	0	10
48	Kırklareli	288	268	278	275	278	18	1	0	0	0	19
49	Kırşehir	115	110	120	118	119	0	1	0	0	0	1
50	Kocaeli	1130	1189	1290	1358	1422	8	6	5	6	2	27
51	Konya	1848	1868	1949	1974	2045	13	8	4	0	7	32
52	Kütahya	302	292	310	313	318	5	7	2	0	0	14

53	<u>Malatya</u>	387	391	401	416	424	12	2	4	1	1	20
54	<u>Manavgat</u>	-	-	-	-	275	0	0	0	0	0	0
55	<u>Manisa</u>	790	779	802	820	842	16	13	5	10	9	53
56	<u>Mardin</u>	196	186	198	210	217	1	0	0	0	0	1
57	<u>Merzin</u>	1529	1506	1563	1583	1616	56	35	7	4	0	102
58	<u>Muğla</u>	817	847	635	650	667	6	1	2	1	1	11
59	<u>Muş</u>	28	31	31	33	36	0	1	1	0	0	2
60	<u>Nevşehir</u>	242	240	243	236	234	0	0	0	0	0	0
61	<u>Niğde</u>	124	123	124	125	122	0	2	0	2	0	4
62	<u>Ordu</u>	338	329	344	356	339	1	2	2	1	0	6
63	<u>Osmaniye</u>	120	117	134	137	146	0	0	0	0	0	0
64	<u>Rize</u>	210	197	208	206	206	3	3	0	0	0	6
65	<u>Sakarya</u>	739	707	768	786	808	13	3	1	2	2	21
66	<u>Samsun</u>	801	790	804	797	803	7	1	0	1	1	10
67	<u>Sinop</u>	88	85	87	85	84	0	0	0	0	0	0
68	<u>Sivas</u>	305	310	326	327	331	2	1	2	2	1	8
69	<u>Sanlıurfa</u>	310	324	340	358	379	0	0	0	1	0	1
70	<u>Tekirdağ</u>	643	393	415	439	452	26	2	0	1	0	29
71	<u>Tokat</u>	209	209	219	216	220	2	0	1	0	0	3
72	<u>Trabzon</u>	534	510	538	540	549	1	15	1	2	5	24
73	<u>Uşak</u>	247	306	319	325	330	1	0	0	0	0	1
74	<u>Van</u>	212	240	267	270	274	10	0	0	0	0	10
75	<u>Yalova</u>	207	204	223	224	226	9	2	1	0	1	13
76	<u>Yozgat</u>	205	202	205	207	203	1	0	0	0	0	1
77	<u>Zonguldak</u>	395	386	402	385	379	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Total	78569	80414	85417	88147	91457	782	470	173	133	228	1786

Resource: Table has been prepared by compiling data derived from <http://www.turmobil.org.tr/TurmobilWeb/FaliyetRaporu.aspx>

Note: Although there are 81 provinces in Turkey, all over country, 81 Chambers of Independent Accountant and Financial Advisors. 4 of these chambers are in the districts. These are the districts Alanya, Fethiye, Manavgat and Bodrum.

As seen in Table 3, in 2014, while the most members of profession are in the İstanbul with 34923 the least members of profession are in the province Muş with 36 people.

When the table is generally evaluated, while the most penalty was imposed in the provinces İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir, in the eleven provinces (Artvin, Bartın, Bitlis, Çankırı, Erzincan, Giresun, Karabük, Manavgat, Nevşehir, Osmaniye and Sinop), it is seen that no penalty was not imposed.

After this stage, two different ways will be followed in the analysis First of all, being based on the number of profession, penalties will be examined; secondly, the imposed penalties will be proportioned to the number of member of profession.

Table 4. 10 provinces, where the number of members of profession are the most and detail of penalties imposed

Province	Sorts of Penalty	Number of the imposed discipline penalties									
		2008-2010	%	2011	%	2012	%	2013	%	2014	%
İstanbul	Notice	47	21,96	36	27,27	8	22,22	6	24,00	11	24,44
	Reprim	92	42,99	66	50,00	13	36,11	7	28,00	12	26,67
	Retent Temp.	43	20,09	25	18,94	10	27,78	8	32,00	19	42,22
	Dismiss	32	14,95	5	3,79	5	13,89	4	16,00	3	6,67
	Total	214	100,00	132	100,00	36	100,00	25	100,00	45	100,00
Ankara	Notice	11	40,74	6	35,29	-	-	1	7,14	4	6,25
	Reprim	12	44,44	8	47,06	-	-	-	-	14	21,88
	Retent temp	1	3,70	3	17,65	2	28,57	9	64,29	19	29,69
	Dismiss.	3	11,11	-	-	5	71,43	4	28,57	27	42,19
	Total	27	100,00	17	100,00	7	100,00	14	100,00	64	100,00
İzmir	Notice	27	33,33	23	53,49	4	16,00	2	13,33	3	15,79
	Reprim	27	33,33	7	16,28	6	24,00	6	40,00	2	10,53
	Retent Temp.	17	20,99	9	20,93	8	32,00	6	40,00	13	68,42
	Dismiss.	10	12,35	4	9,30	7	28,00	1	6,67	1	5,26
	Total	81	100,00	43	100,00	25	100,00	15	100,00	19	100,00
Bursa	Notice	7	30,43	40	71,43	4	50,00	-	-	6	27,27
	Reprim	8	34,78	10	17,86	1	12,50	5	100,00	15	68,18
	Retent Temp.	7	30,43	6	10,71	2	25,00	-	-	1	4,55
	Dismiss.	1	4,35	-	-	1	12,50	-	-	-	-
	Total	23	100,00	56	100,00	8	100,00	5	100,00	22	100,00
Antalya	Notice	6	20,69	5	45,45	-	-	1	25,00	-	-
	Reprim	18	62,07	4	36,36	3	60,00	2	50,00	4	100,00
	Retent Temp.	3	10,34	1	9,09	1	20,00	1	25,00	-	-
	Dismiss	2	6,90	1	9,09	1	20,00	-	-	-	-
	Total	29	100,00	11	100,00	5	100,00	4	100,00	4	100,00
Konya	Notice	1	7,69	4	50,00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprim	9	69,23	3	37,50	4	100,00	-	-	1	14,29
	Retent Temp.	3	23,08	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	71,43
	Dismiss.	-	-	1	12,50	-	-	-	-	1	14,29
	Total	13	100,00	8	100,00	4	100,00	0	0	7	100,00
Adana	Notice	3	18,75	9	60,00	2	16,67	1	11,11	2	25,00
	Reprim	7	43,75	2	13,33	3	25,00	5	55,56	3	37,50
	Retent Temp	5	31,25	2	13,33	7	58,33	3	33,33	-	-
	Dismiss.	1	6,25	2	13,33	-	-	-	-	3	37,50
	Total	16	100,00	15	100,00	12	100,00	9	100,00	8	100,00
Gaziantep	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprim	5	26,32	2	15,38	1	16,67	-	-	-	-
	Retent Temp	14	73,68	6	46,15	3	50,00	3	60,00	5	83,33
	Dismiss	-	-	5	38,46	2	33,33	2	40,00	1	16,67
	Total	19	100,00	13	100,00	6	100,00	5	100,00	6	100,00
Mersin	Notice	7	12,50	19	54,29	3	42,86	1	25,00	-	-
	Reprim	23	41,07	11	31,43	2	28,57	1	25,00	-	-
	Retent Temp.	12	21,43	3	8,57	1	14,29	1	25,00	-	-
	Dismiss	14	25,00	2	5,71	1	14,29	1	25,00	-	-
	Total	56	100,00	35	100,00	7	100,00	4	100,00	0	0
Kocaeli	Notice	1	12,50	2	33,33	3	60,00	2	33,33	1	50,00
	Reprim	5	62,50	-	-	-	-	4	66,67	-	-
	Retent Temp	1	12,50	2	33,33	2	40,00	-	-	-	-
	Dismiss.	1	12,50	2	33,33	-	-	-	-	1	50,00
	Total	8	100,00	6	100,00	5	100,00	6	100,00	2	100,00

When regarded to 10 provinces, where there are the most members of profession, it comes to our face the provinces İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir, Bursa, Antalya, Konya, Adana, Gaziantep, Mersin, and Kocaeli. These provinces are also the ones having the highest population density and, in turn, taxpayer density.

In the first order of list, İstanbul takes place. In İstanbul, between the years of 2008-2012, while the most imposed penalty was reprimand, in the years of 2013 and 2014, the penalty retention temporarily takes place in

the first order. In the time period of interest, the penalty received the least in the time period of interest is the penalty of dismissing from profession.

In the province Ankara taking place in the second order of the list, the most imposed penalty in the years of 2012 and 2014 is retention from profession, while in 2013, the penalty of retention from the professional activities became the most imposed penalties. The least imposed penalty, in the years of 2012-2014, the retention from professional activities temporarily, in 2013, no reprimand was imposed. In 2014, the least imposed penalty was notice.

There is İzmir in the third number of the list. In İzmir, in the years of 2008-2010 notice and reprimand were the most imposed penalties; in 2011, notice; in the years of 2012 and 2014, retention from professional activities, temporarily; and in 2013, reprimand. In the province of interest, except for 2012, in the other slices of time, while the least imposed penalty was retention from profession, in 2012, it became notice.

When it is generally considered, in the time interval of interest, while the penalty received in these provinces was reprimand (433), the least received penalty is retention from profession (157).

Table 5. 10 provinces, where there are the members of profession in the least number and details of penalties received

Province	Sorts of Penalties	Number of disciplinary penalties									
		2009-2010	%	2011	%	2012	%	2013	%	2014	%
Muş	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	1	100,00	1	100,00	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	1	100,00	1	100,00	0	0	0	0
Bitlis	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Gümüşhane	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	1	100,00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	1	100,00	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sinop	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Artvin	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Çankırı	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bartın	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Karselir	Notice	-	-	1	100,00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	1	100,00	0	0	0	0	0	0
Niğde	Notice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50,00	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	1	50,00	-	-	1	50,00	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	1	50,00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	0	0	2	100,00	0	0	2	100,00	0	0
Kars	Notice	4	100,00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Reprimand	-	-	-	-	1	100,00	-	-	-	-
	Retention temporarily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dismissing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	4	100,00	0	0	1	100,00	0	0	0	0

10 provinces, where there are the member of profession in the least number, in other words, having the least share in terms of the number of member of profession are Muş, Bitlis, Gümüşhane, Sinop, Artvin, Çankırı,

Bartın, Kırşehir, Niğde and Kars, respectively. These provinces of interest are the ones, both whose population density is not more, and where the number of taxpayer is less.

In the province Muş, taking place in the first order of list, in the selected slice of time, in only the years of 2011 ve 2012, while only one the penalty of dismissing from profession, no other penalty was not imposed.

There are Bitlis in the second order of list. In this province, no penalty was not imposed in the period specified.

In the province Gümüşhane in third order that follows Bitlis, only in the years of 2008 and 2010, one reprimand was imposed..

When generally regarded to, in the selected time intervals, in these provinces under consideration, it is seen that in total, 5 penalty of notice, 3 reprimand, and 2 retention from professional activity temporally were imposed.

Table 6. With proportioning of penalties to the number of members of profession, the provinces receiving the penalty in the most number.

Item No	2008-2010		2011		2012		2013		2014	
	Provinces	%	Provinces	%	Provinces	%	Provinces	%	Provinces	%
1	Kırklareli	6,25	Düzce	5,14	Muş	3,23	Niğde	1,60	Manisa	1,07
2	Van	4,72	Muş	3,23	Kırıkkale	1,71	Manisa	1,22	Edirne	1,05
3	Yalova	4,35	Trabzon	2,94	Fethiye	1,19	Bolu	0,65	Trabzon	0,91
4	Hatay	4,29	Edirne	2,48	Malatya	1,00	Sivas	0,61	İskenderun	0,90
5	Tekirdağ	4,04	Kütahya	2,40	Kars	0,83	Kavseri	0,53	Burdur	0,90
6	Kırıkkale	3,89	Mersin	2,32	Aydın	0,76	Amasya	0,53	Çanakkale	0,74
7	Mersin	3,66	Aydın	1,75	Bodrum	0,72	Çorum	0,51	Batman	0,69
8	Kars	3,45	Niğde	1,67	Adıyaman	0,65	Adana	0,45	Bodrum	0,69
9	Malatya	3,10	Rize	1,63	Kütahya	0,65	Kocaeli	0,44	Bolu	0,65
10	Diyarbakır	2,95	Bursa	1,52	Alanya	0,63	Trabzon	0,37	Adıyaman	0,57

Note: The total number of members of profession and the imposed penalties are specified in Table 2.

Besides the different population and taxpayer densities, that the members of profession are also in the different densities in terms of numerical distribution requires making proportion in calculating the share of penalty distribution on the basis of provinces. In the analysis of penalties imposed toward this in terms of their rates to the number of members of profession, a different situation emerges.

In the years of 2008-2010, 6.25% of 288 members of profession, who are present in Kırklareli, received penalty. This is followed by Van, Yalova, Hatay, Tekirdağ, Kırıkkale, Mersin, Kars, Malatya, and Diyarbakır, respectively.

In 2011, 5.14 % of 175 members of profession in Düzce received penalty. This is followed by Muş, Trabzon, Edirne, Kütahya, Mersin, Aydın, Niğde, Rize, and Bursa, respectively.

In 2012, 3.23% of 31 members of profession in Muş received penalty. This is followed by Kırıkkale, Fethiye, Malatya, Kars, Aydın, Bodrum, Adıyaman, Kütahya, and Alanya, respectively.

In 2013, 1.60% of 125 members of profession in Niğde received penalty. This is followed by Manisa, Bolu, Sivas, Kayseri, Amasya, Çorum, Adana, Kocaeli and Trabzon, respectively.

In 2014, 1.07% of 842 members of profession in Manisa received penalty. This is followed by Edirne, Trabzon, İskenderun, Burdur, Çanakkale, Batman, Bodrum, Bolu, and Adıyaman, respectively.

When generally regarded to, with proportioning of penalties to the number of members of profession, although the table of province that emerges shows diversity, it is possible to interpret as an indicator of that management mechanism does not work actively.

6. Conclusion

The profession of accounting, in terms of its responsibility to their shareholders, is evaluated as the most important professions. The members of accounting profession have responsibilities, on the one hand, to their taxpayers (clients), on the other hand, both to investors and to the government, in turn, to all society, because of the case of “tax”.

When the responsibility area is taken into consideration, in the accounting profession, whose output is information, the rate of fault should be at the minimum level or even if there should not be any fault. Just as the smallest fault may cause to make faulty decisions about the future of taxpayers, it will also lead investors to make the wrong decisions and, making the wrong statement to the government, to pay for the faulty tax and, hence, to commit a crime toward all society.

When it is considered that the area of social responsibility is extremely large, supervision of the members of the accounting profession and elimination of the problems, identified as a result of supervision activity, have a great importance. However, the point that should be pay attention here is that the source of fault in the frequently made transactions is correctly identified and, in this context, that the members of accounting professions should be trained by chambers of profession. In addition, the

penalty sanctions to be applied should have a deterrent feature. Although penalty sanctions are determined by the laws, due to inadequate supervision activities, the necessary actions cannot be taken in place and in time. In Turkey, since supervision of the members of accounting professions subjects to the demand and complaint, this case impedes the effective and continuous supervision. Just as the presence of a systematic supervision that does not depend on the complaint and demand will lead the members of profession to exhibit more careful attitudes and behaviors, at the same time, due to its deter feature, without needing any disciplinary penalty, the faults to be kept at the minimum and acceptable level.

According to the findings that are obtained in the study, as a result of supervisions carried out between the years 2000-2014 in Turkey, it was identified that 1786 members of professions received penalty. Among the penalties, reprimand takes place in the first order. When the members of professions, to whom the penalty was imposed, are evaluated on the basis of the province, where they are in active, it was determined that the most penalty was imposed in the province Istanbul. Then the number of penalties, imposed in the provinces of Ankara, İzmir, Bursa, Antalya, Konya, Adana, Gaziantep, Mersin, and Kocaeli, are taken into consideration, it is seen that these take place among the first ten provinces. The ordering of provinces, where the penalties at the least number is imposed, was identified as the provinces (Muş, Bitlis, Gümüşhane, Sinop, Artvin, Çankırı, Bartın, Kırşehir, Niğd, and Kars), where the members of accounting profession in the least number are in active.

Another conclusion of the study, even though an increase, which can be considered important, is seen in the number of the members of accounting profession in Turkey, is that the penalties imposed on the members of profession, do not exhibit in the same rate. As the reason for this, it is possible to produce several different scenarios. That is, it is possible to introduce this situation as the educational activities about making conscious the chambers of profession, deterrence of penalty, the deficiency of supervision or not being able to make effectively, and not efficiently operating of the complaint and demand mechanism in Turkey.

As a conclusion, it is necessary to continuously and effectively realize the supervisions toward the members of profession in a certain intervals without depending on any demand or complaint. Thanks to this, enabling the members of profession both to develop themselves and more effectively work, the increase of value of profession in care of society will be under consideration.

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FRAUD OF THE EMPLOYEES AND SOLUTION PROPOSALS FOR THESE FRAUDS: X DENTAL HOSPITAL CASE STUDY

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1. Introduction

According to the Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (ACFE) 2018 Report, most of the "fraud" concept, which means "all kinds of accounting games made to deceive and mislead the business employees" is carried out by the employees of the business. According to the report, 44% of 2,690 fraudcases in 125 countries are made by business employees, 34% by business management, 19% by business owners or partners, and 3% by others. In addition, the magnitude of the damage suffered by the operator is directly proportional to the authorization of the persons. Although 44% of the scam is carried out by employees, the size of the employee's frailty remains at \$ 50,000, while the executives fraud by \$ 150,000 and the owner's or partners' fraud are reported as \$ 850,000. Without a doubt, it is much easier for business associates or senior executives to access their documents and business records than their business counterparts (<https://s3-us-west-2.amazonaws.com/acfe-public/2018-report-to-the-nations.pdf>).

The type of fraud is examined by the ACFE in three parts: "abuse of assets", "fraud on financial statements" and "corruption". "Abuse of assets" is seen in 89% of the fraud cases which are set out in the ACFE 2018 Report, while "financial statement fraud" is seen in about 10% of cases and "corruption" in 34% (As it can be understood from the rate, multiple cases occur at the same time in the business). In addition, damages caused by abuse of assets to the victims are estimated to be around \$ 114,000, financial statement fraud and corruption incidents totaling \$ 1,050,000.

In our study, "business employees" in the category of "cheaters" were deal twith and tried to examine the fraud they committed. In order to beter understand the events, a case study of a Dental Hospital involving the "abuse of assets" fraud has been studied. The main reason for choosing a Dental Hospital is there quest for the examination of fraud in the health sector in Turkey and that a small number of academic studies have been accomplished on this subject.

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In our study, literature research was done first, then the concept of "fraud" was tried to be explained and in the last part, "case study" was carried out. The case study has been dealt with in terms of the reasons of tendency of the employees to wards fraud and prevention of the frauds made. In the creation of the case, the hospital's managers, employees and supervisors were interviewed to get information about the fraud and its consequences, and in the light of this information, the incident was modified by changing the names of the events, persons and institutions .

2. Literature Review

In the study done by Raeand Subramaniam (2008), it was aimed to develop two separate models for the development of employee malware and internal control procedures. In order to achieve this goal, a questionnaire was applied to 64 businesses in Australia. Two models called "logistic regression" and "multiple regression" were used and consequently the first model shows that the quality of internal control procedures has a moderate effect on employee behaviors; while the second model shows that internal control procedures are significant and have positive impacts with three key factors: the institutional ethical environment, the scope of staff risk management training, and the level of effectiveness of internal audit.

In the study conducted by Ahmad and Norhashim (2008), it is aimed to investigate the relationship between employees' behaviour in the business and their attitudes towards the control environment. The study was conducted by giving a questionnaire form to 433 employees in Malaysia. The results of the regression analyses made describe the elements of the control environment that can affect employees' attitudes towards the fraud, thus emphasizing the elements that need to be given more attention. This emphasis is the information system that can develop an appropriate control environment.

In the study conducted by Ulucan Özkul and Özdemir (2013), it was thought that it would be appropriate to use "proactive" solutions instead of "reactive" solutions as measures taken in the prevention of deceptions made by business employees. Therefore, 12 human resources managers were interviewed having at least 10 years experience in institutionalized enterprises in Istanbul and Bursa .As a result of the study, it was revealed that the human resources managers were responsible for the hiring of the fraud operating employee and for the fraud they were making .

In the study conducted by Şen (2013), it was aimed to reveal the answers to the questions about the reasons for the detection and detection and the prevention of the employee frauds and the causes of the frauds and it has been aimed to guide the business people, investors, third parties closely related to the business and state institutions about business fraud. .

It has also been revealed that the most important opportunities to mobilize fraud action are the organizational structure and management of enterprises and the application of "institutionalization and corporate governance principles" which is the most effective way to prevent these opportunities from occurring by going to the way of disclosure by the case study method.

In the study conducted by Öksüz (2015), 100 production enterprises, which are thought to have a certain production process and organizational structure with the method of "judicial sampling" from non-random sampling methods in Antakya's 280 production enterprises, were selected as voluntary and a questionnaire was applied to the people at the management level. As a result, only 10% of the 100 companies experienced "no cheating". In fraudulent enterprises, the reason for cheating has been detected "theft of assets according to the absence of inventory counts and the late recognition of this event".

In the study by Omar et al. (2016), it was aimed to focus on a specific industry (automotive industry) and to investigate the fraud that business people make, prevent them and to learn the reasons for committing them. Two basic techniques have been used when collecting data: the first is the various reports including the employees' deceits, and the second, interviews with business employees. As a result of the study, it is revealed that the tendency of abuse of assets, especially cash and stock theft, is very high. On the other hand, no significant difference was found in the results, whether it was the executive or lower-level employees. It has also been found that most of the frauds and abuses come from the sales department.

In the study done by Karakaya (2016), it has been analysed in the ACFE 2014 Cheating Report that small and medium sized enterprises are faced with more fraud because of institutional structures that have not been sufficiently replenished and (ERP) system is recommended to the small and medium-sized enterprises adopting the principle of separation of duties, establishing a high internal control system structure based on COSO, introducing employees to the culture of the company and culturally focusing on 'we' instead of 'I', establishing and following computerized business processes.

In the study conducted by Aslanzade (2017), it has been examined the ACFE's 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014 and 2016 Cheating Reports and the characteristics of employees who cheat, and the reasons for which the fraud generally applies. As a result, about 67% of the cheaters are male and 33% are female; 56% of the cheaters are high school graduates, 44% are graduates of undergraduate and graduate degrees; but it is understood that graduates of undergraduate and graduate degrees experience higher

losses than high school graduates. The "abuse of assets" is the highest level of cheating, and the "financial table makeup" is the least cheating type.

3. Concept of Fraud

3.1. The Definition of Fraud

The fraud is described in the Turkish Language Association's Large Turkish Dictionary as "a lie to deceive, mislead, cabinet, game".

The accounting fraud is generally defined as "any activity or conduct in which a manager, officer or third party in an enterprise operates, in an intentionally unfair, unlawful and unlawful manner, by one or more persons" (Türedi & Alicı 2014).

In another definition, the accounting fraud is "to act or act in a manner that violates national and international legislation in a printed and digital environment in such a way that they will be subjected to material damage except to the knowledge of the relevant interest circles in the course of the occurrence, documentation, recording and reporting of the accounting event to the interest circles concerned" (Erol 2008).

The Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (ACFE) defines fraud as "the attack of assets and resources of the entity by entrusted persons (manager, officer, employee)" (ACFE 2018).

In brief, all kinds of accounting deliberations that are deliberately made to deceive and mislead business are called "accounting fraud". To be able to talk about the existence of the frailty, the following elements are required (Yakar 2010):

- A person or organization must consciously make an unrealistic presentation about an important situation or event.

- The victim (the person or organization that made the presentation and will be referred this way hereafter) should believe in unreal presentation.

- The victim should trust in the unreal presentation and act accordingly.

- The victim must have suffered financial loss due to the unreal presentation.

3.2. Intra-Business Fraud: Employees

Cheaters can be from within the business or from outside the business. While "business executives" and "business employees" can be given as examples for those who commits fraud inside the enterprise, "sellers, customers" can be given as examples for non-business cheaters.

It is observed that about 12.4% of the partners of the business, about 34% of the business managers and about 67.8% of the business people are committing fraud(Bozkurt 2016). As it has the biggest share among the cheaters, our study is only about "the fraud committed by the business employees".

3.2.1. Reasons for Pushing Employees to Cheat: Fraud Triangle

The "Fraud Triangle" (Tarhan Mengi 2012), conducted by Donald R. Cressey, and named by Joseph T. Wells, reveals the reasons for employees to push for fraud under a triangle.

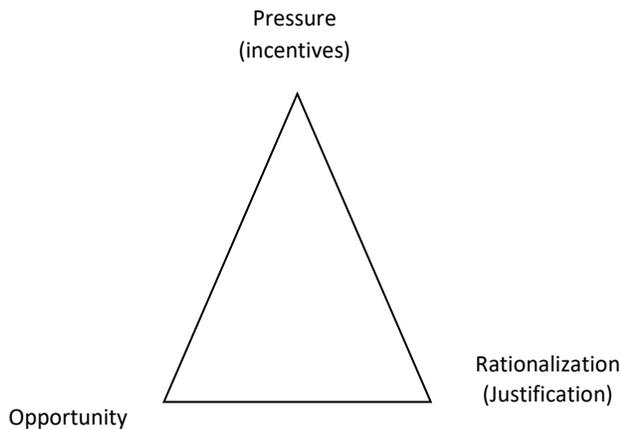


Figure 1. Fraud Triangle

Resource: ACFE, <https://www.acfe.com/fraud-101.aspx>

Pressure or incentives are physical and psychological constraints, both internal and external, which are one of the most fundamental reasons driving enterprise workers to fraud.

It is possible to examine the element of oppression in 3 subheadings (Bozkurt 2016):

a. **Financial oppression** can often be cited as "the need of a person to keep himself and his family better, high health expenditures, money ambition, personal debts".

b. Examples of **bad habits causing oppression** include "the need to find money in high amounts for people who are addicted to alcohol, drugs, or gambling."

c. Examples related to the **business oppression** can be referred as "cheating people living more easily than their colleagues, dissatisfaction with the job of the person, not getting the promise that they are expecting, not seeing enough of the admissions superiors".

Opportunity is the gap that an employee sees to be able to commit fraud if the operator's internal control system is never present or effective.

Opportunities can be illustrated as following (Bozkurt 2016):

- a. The lack of internal control structure,
- b. The existence of weak business policies,
- c. The existence of secret agreements with third parties,
- d. Inadequacy in the evaluation of work qualities of employees,
- e. The absence of the disciplinary environment punishing the fraud,
- f. The weak flow of information between employees,
- g. The indifference of the top management,
- h. Inadequate audit work in quality and quantity.

Justification or **rationalization** is the fraud making himself believe that he has the right to commit fraud.

Justification, in other words, is a premise that the fraud has made up. These terms can generally be listed as follows:

- a. My salary has not been raised for years.
- b. The money I get is not much, it does not ruin the business.
- c. My child was ill, what else would I do?
- d. Ahmet also steals, they never see him.

From a general point of view, factors such as an employee's high debt, being given difficult targets to reach, drugs and gambling addiction put pressure on the employee; while the salary system based on prime, share based payments, financial successes and gains, money ambition, good life desire, increase personal reputation may lead employees to fraud. (Okutmuş & Uyar, 2014)

3.2.2. Types of Fraud Committed By the Employees

Business employees are falsifying the present state of the business in exchange for certain benefits.

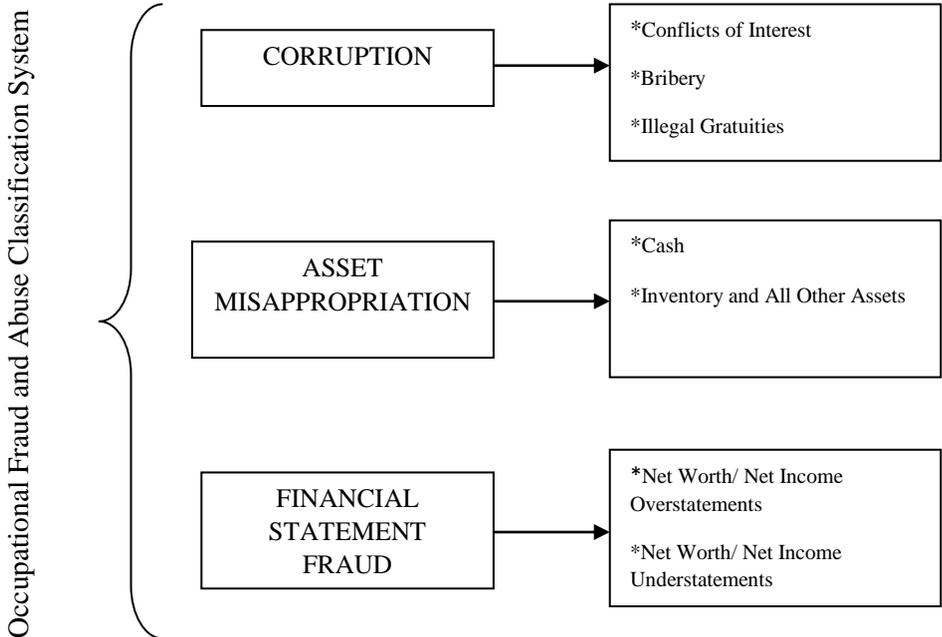


Figure 2. Occupational Fraud and Abuse Classification System

In Figure 2, according to ACFE 2018 Report To The Nations, the fraud schemes are divided into three parts as "corruption, misuse of assets, frauds on financial statements". Corruption takes place by "taking bribes and illegal gratuities, economic extortion (taking it through compulsion and threat) and conflicts of benefit"; abuse of assets takes place by "receiving cash and receiving stock / tangible assets" in two parts; and the fraud in the financial statements takes place in two parts: "showing the income/value higher than it actually is and showing income / value lower than it actually is".

The commitment of these frauds happens in the following ways (Göksu 2011):

- Embezzlement of the money collection made before it is registered (cash receipt)
- Attempting to embezzle the money which appears in the records and then trying to remove it from the records by making various make-ups (cash receipt and financial table showing low income)
- Making payments that should not be done (getting cash)
- Creating extraordinary expenditures (showing low income)

- Making payments to oneself by creating non-realistic debts (taking cash and showing low income)
- Transferring money to one's own account by playing with the bank records (taking cash and showing low value)
- Inflating expense items by issuing counterfeit documents (showing low income or showing too much)

In addition to these, the following methods are also carried out:

- Entering into the purchase and sale of goods and services by the co-operation of their close associates and sharing money received (taking bribes), or entrusting business to them in exchange of getting a commission (illegal gratification)
- Making their colleagues commit fraud by threatening them and provide personal benefits (economic extortion)
- Taking electronic materials such as projectors, laptops and tablets, which are among the fixtures of the operator, to the house or taking them out to the disposal (taking stock or tangible assets)

3.2.3. How to Understand Employees' Fraud

The fraud, or even the business executive who decides to do so, clearly reflects this on his behaviours and makes it obvious when he is observed carefully. Generally, the fraud the employee makes is understood as following:

- The clothing of the business employee evolves.
- There happens a change in the places the employee goes such as restaurant, cafeteria etc. .
- The employee does not take time off work as much as possible in order not to get noticed he is committing fraud.
- In contrast to the above, in some cases, suddenly he decides not to come to work. In such cases, he often commits fraud with the management's senior manager.
- If the business employee is given by a senior manager with someone who will do the same job himself or with an intern, he looks down upon the other person and does not want him accompanied.
- If the employee is somebody who constantly complains that he is broke, he stops complaining abruptly.

Apart from this, besides the changing behaviours of the employee, there are some indications of fraud that can be understood by the accounting department (Bozkurt 2016):

- Various complaints about the employee who commits fraud start to be taken.
- There is a problem of missing documents in business.
- Changes are made on the documents.
- There are irregularities in document ordering.
- Counting deficiencies and surplus start to be frequent in the cash register.
- Bank accounts that have not been used in the long run start to work.
- There is a large amount of money in the cash register.
- There is an increase in scrap and waste.
- Corrections are frequently made in receivables and payables.
- Purchase invoices are concentrated in a specific vendor.
- Payments are made to a certain number of people at high sums.
- Sales without upload or transport documentation are increasing.
- Discount rates vary according to the person.
- Some or most of the documents do not have authoritative signatures.

3.2.4. Prevention of the Business Employees' Fraud

The penalties given by the Turkish Criminal Code are firstly taken into consideration for the prevention of deceit, and then the actions that need to be held by the top management of the business are dealt with.

3.2.4.1. The Prevention of Fraud with Turkish Criminal Law

In Article 141 of the Turkish Criminal Law (Türk Ceza Kanunu-TCK), the "theft" crime is dealt with as follows: A person who takes a movable property belonging to someone else without its owner's consent to make a profit is given a 'one to three years imprisonment'

When the theft is committed to the property allocated to the public benefit or service, regardless of who the crime belongs to, or when the property is exposed to articles or items that have been exposed to their use, the thief is sentenced to 'three years to seven years' imprisonment.

Article 155 of the TCK has dealt with the issue of "abuse of trust": *A person who on behalf of himself or someone else, owns his possession on the property transferred to him for possession or use for a certain purpose, or who disqualifies the fact of such transfer, upon the complaint, is punished with 'six months' imprisonment and judicial fine of two years'. If the crime is committed against the estate of the profession and the arts, trade or service, or whatever reason, providing that it is treated as a requirement of the authority to administer someone else's property, the thief is sentenced to seven years imprisonment and a fine of up to three thousand days' imprisonment.*

Article 157 of the TCK refers to the crime of "simple fraudulent transaction and fraud" as following :*A person who deceives someone with fraudulent act and receives benefit by one's disadvantage receives prison sentence from 'one year to five years and judicial money punishment '.*

Article 158 of the TCK deals with the "quality fraud" offense as such: *if the fraud is committed ; by the use of information systems, by banks or credit institutions as vehicles, by the use of dangerous situations or difficult conditions in which the person is in possession, by the weakness of the perception ability of the person and by the loss of public institutions and organizations, , the offender is sentenced to three years to ten years imprisonment and up to five days' foreclosure punishment.*

In addition, Article 168 of the TCK refers to "effective regret" as such: *It has been stated that after the theft, abuse of trust, fraud crimes have been completed and for this reason, before the commencement of the proceedings, if the perpetrator, arbitrator or assistant personally feels sorry and is completely free of the damage he has suffered by returning or indemnification, the punishment to be imposed will be reduced by two thirds.*

As explained by the TCK, the losses incurred by the business employees to the business generally happen in the forms mentioned in the articles. According to the above mentioned clause, the employer's penalties will be at least 1 year and the maximum will be 10 years and if the "effective regret" is used, this will be reduced to two thirds of the penalties. For this reason, there are already reductions in penalties which are not too high.

3.2.4.2. Prevention of Fraud by the Management in Business

The greatest task of reducing employee fraud falls to business partners / owners and top managers.

Firstly, business management should show an honest attitude. There is an understanding that an executive who is recognized as not being honest will overlook to the fraud to be done.

When recruiting, the management should review the applicants' resumes correctly and collect information about them in order to understand whether they are open to fraud. Management should not be in a hurry to hire a first-time applicant if it does not directly recruit what it needs, or if the employer needs immediate staff.

Once recruitment is made, the management must provide training to its staff and transfer the organizational culture to its employees. Staff should be attached to the business with a sense of belonging.

Business management should absolutely institutionalize the business. In an institutionalized enterprise, the job description, authorities and organizational structure of the employee should be clearly defined. To ensure this, the administration may print a handbook.

Weaknesses in the internal control structure of the operator have to be eliminated. An enterprise's internal control weakness or absence of an internal control system may be eliminated by an external independent auditor.

Management should evaluate the success of its employees. While doing so, it should not only look at the point where it is financially operating, but also rewarding them by looking at the behavior patterns of business employees. Appreciated employees are expected to increase their enthusiasm for business.

Management must equip the business with an active camera system.

Management should make maximum use of the computer technology system, and especially it should not let filling in accounting documents in handwriting.

Management should not sit in the constant atmosphere, and often visit staff. Along with visits to ask for his wellness, he must threaten the employees with sudden raids, such as counting stocks from time to time or counting the cash register. This should not be done on certain days of the week or the month so that employees cannot pinpoint the day and get prepared.

4. X Dental Hospital Case Study and Solution Proposal

In this part of the study, it has been tried to explain the fraud employees of the company perform and in academic sense, and the case of Dental Hospital has been discussed which we cannot see much in Turkey. The hospital's name is not given and is designated as X. In order to obtain the information the external auditor of the hospital (an external auditor was consulted after the occurrence of the event), the hospital staff and hospital administrators were consulted, the names of the people were changed and the events were edited.

Case study: X Dental Hospital

Suzan YILMAZ was a 24-year-old young mother who had been a mother at an early age and separated from her spouse due to incompatibility of temperament. Her son, Mehmet, was only 3 years old, and Suzan was only able to meet her son's needs with her 400 TL alimony, but she could not get it regularly every month. Suzan was living in a rented house and her father was going to supply some of the rent.

She saw the "employee procurement admission" to X Dental Hospital which was newly opened in Istanbul by Dr. Ahmet T., Dr. Melike K. and Dr. Mahmut A. and she immediately applied for a job for the "front desk / consultation" staff. Her husband had not allowed her to work before, and after getting divorced, she had worked as a secretary in a small office but she had failed.

When Ms. Eylül asked her "why should we hire you?" she said "Because I am very ambitious, I am a quick learner and I need money a lot, also I have one little son." Ms. Eylül was pleased with this response and hired her without asking about her past work place and her life.

Indeed, Suzan learned things very quickly. The hospital had a reputation shortly after it had opened and the appointment lists were overflowing after reaching an agreement with the Social Security Institution (SGK). The hospital provided services such as aesthetic filling, tooth whitening, dental treatments for children, dental and gingival operations, tooth extraction, cyst and tumour operations, bridge treatments, prosthetic treatments, implant treatments, laser treatments, dental treatments and also there was a dental prosthesis lab.

Because of the labour shortage, they decided to buy additional staff. And the number of employees rose to 7 in the first month. 3 doctors started looking at the average of 45 patients a day. Occasionally, when implantation, dental bleaching services were involved, the number of patients dropped to 35 due to the extension of time in these procedures.

While all the staff outside the doctors go out to dinner between 12:00 and 13:00, Suzan, the youngest employee of the hospital, was sitting in the office alone during those hours and while all the staff returned to their homes at 19:00 in the evening, she was closing the hospital with the security officer.

It did not take long for Suzan to start showing suspicious behaviour. First, Ms. Eylül realized that Suzan's way of dressing had begun to change and started wearing dresses from expensive brands. And she asked Ms. Serap who worked at the insurance transactions, "Did you notice the change in Suzan?" Ms. Serap said, "Of course, I work with my husband. Although we have double salary, I cannot get these clothes. Her

house is also rent. Do you think the same thing as I do? " They were going to tell the doctors about the situation, but without evidence in their hands they could not explain the events and eventually could fall into a bad situation.

One week after this talk, a female patient started yelling in front of the "consultation". At that time, Suzan's shift companion, another consultant, Sinem, was on duty. While trying to persuade the patient and apologizing, Ms. Eylül came out and asked about the noise. The patient said that he / she was present there for the tooth extraction and tooth whitening process and that the girl in charge (Suzan) was saying that the credit card POS device was out of order and that he / she should pay cash if possible. When the patient wanted the bill, she said there would not be a detailed bill and it would be sent to his/her address. When the patient started screaming, she said Suzan ran to the toilet with an excuse. The patient said that the same employee did not give the bill to her/him in the two previous incidents and that she only gave a case fence and said, "when I was going home, I realized that this hospital were refusing to give me a bill." Ms. Eylül repeatedly apologized to the patient by calming the patient and talking to the accounting department immediately, indicating that a detailed bill would be sent to him/her and that this employee would also be spoken of.

Ms. Eylül and Ms. Serap looked at the information of the patient immediately. They were going to look at the hospital's system before talking to Suzan. The system had the patient's ID number and name. But as she/he said, the patient had not come to the hospital more than once. It was only once registered under the name "check". There was an oddity in this case because the patients were recorded as "examination" first, they did not pay the examination fee when they arrived within 10 days and the information was written as "control".

They thought they could not get much information out of the system, but they also had to look at the cash register before making the charges. They did not find anything when they looked at the cash registers. Because on most of the documents, the "document editor" part was empty. While Sinem's name was clearly visible in his hand-held case fills, Suzan's name was virtually absent. Sometimes different signatures were seen in the form of rounding and scribbling. The pages were not ripped off. There were no problems with the serial and line numbers. However, neither they could find the name of the patient nor could they find information about the identity of the author of the document. There was not much to do. They decided to tell the hospital's doctors.

After the meeting, especially Dr. Ahmet said that this situation should be transferred to a financial police.

Financial police and auditor

I received a telephone call on Sunday. It was a close friend, a financial policeman. He was calling from my cell phone. "We have a little problem. Can you help? We think a hospital employee is committing a fraud. "Of course, I will help," I said. First of all, I wanted to go to the hospital with the police to get all the information. In order to catch a fraud, you need to know the trickery and its organizational scheme. We learned this first in our trainings. I learned that the hospital is newly established and has been looking after the patient for 7 months. So even if we examine all the records, our work will not last very long. Because, how much the history of the business is based on, the number of documents and information to be examined will be so much in quantity.

Because of the popularity of a newly established hospital, too many patients were looked after. Looking at the average of 35-50 patients per day means that an average of about 12-17 per doctor per day. Depending on the length of the procedure, the number of patients examined varied. The hospital was popular, but there was absolutely no effective internal control system. More precisely, the hospital did not have an internal control system. Although the hospital was new, a camera recording system was not installed. In addition, it had not yet been switched to the patient fingerprint system. The hospital management said that they applied to this system and that the system would be set up this month.

Because doctors did not understand such technical work, they followed only the number of patients per day and did not follow the fees paid by the patients. Besides this, even if it was a contracted hospital with SGK, there were many paying customers. And looking at too many patients during the day, the doctors went home tired and were not too busy with administrative work.

I started to examine the documents used by the hospital and the computer programs they used in the patient tracking system. When I looked at the computer program, I found a program that many hospitals use. Some of the patient data were processed in detail and some were not processed properly. There were even those who did not comply with ID numbers and patient names. Central civil registration system had no update feature in the program. The addresses of some of the patients were not entered, and some of the cell phone numbers were missing a number. I thought it was made deliberately, so the patients could not be reached. I looked at the date order and I sorted up to the day of the first missing data entry date. The first date was 1 month after Suzan, who allegedly committed a fraud, started working at the hospital. However, everyone was innocent until it became clear that she was guilty. Of course I would

act on the basis of 'professional skepticism'. However, I would not go over the possibility that a single employee was guilty.

Billing was done electronically, but sometimes there were times when the system was down. For this reason, the patients were temporarily given a voucher, the detailed bill was issued when the patient was insistent, and was sent directly to the address of the patient. Apart from that, like many private hospitals, they did not give detailed bill.

In this case, I was going to start by looking at the information of the complaining patient. The identification number and patient name were correct, but the address information was not entered correctly and the cell phone number was entered with a missing number. So, this employee named Suzan might have intentionally missed out on this information, or indeed another employee had made a mistake, and Suzan could not have sent a detailed bill to the address, although she wanted to act well. According to my experiences, the first option could be right. But we could not blame anyone without proving it. For this reason, I approached to the hospital's vouchers.

Created cash vouchers (receipts) were manual documents. Above on the document there was "serial and sequence number, middle part below patient name and surname, identification number information, the amount received and the signature of the issuer of the receipt below" . I have reviewed the documents that have been created since the establishment of the hospital. In the documents that were created at the time of the first establishment, the records created by the people named Sinem and Merve were very clear. Patient identity numbers and names were matched. There were signatures of the organizers. The first two months, the documents were arranged. However, after a while I realized that the documents were more of a scribble, that the organizer's information was written in a complicated way, that sometimes it was only the signature and not the name of the organizer, and that the signatures began to change shape. I looked at the date of the faulty records, it was about a month after Suzan's entry into the job. Therefore, she entered the patient information incorrectly, so that someone else could not easily reach it, and mostly tried to get money in cash , besides she was trying not to give a receipt to the patients and when she needed to give a receipt she was trying to write the patient's name in a bad hand and not to be read the bottom part. Apparently, she both filled in the vouchers faulty she had given, and signed a different signature each time. There was enough information and documentation to blame her. But absolutely, I had to talk to her myself and follow my behaviour in accordance with my working principles and to get a confession from her

I called Suzan. "Suzan, now you should tell us all over," I said. She was very confident and cool. "I did not do anything. You cannot blame me without your proof." According to the records we examined, I said that the records were falsified, that some of the patients' information was missing in the system, that the receipts were not filled in correctly, and that these events started one month after she was hired. Besides, when I told her that the same documents were hand-filled in more detail by his previous colleagues, her face became crying, and in this way, I felt that I was on the right track. Also, I said I had also spoken to colleagues and that while she was putting cash money into the pocket, she was seen by a colleague (which I just told her to get her to talk, might not even be ethical). Her face became worse when I was saying it, and she did not even ask who said it. I also added that the information of the female patient coming in the last day was entered by "control", but the patient was shown as being there first. "Here you are, Suzan," I said. "If you had written 'examination', not 'control' there, you would not have been suspected by Ms. Eylül and things probably would not come to this point. Now tell me" I said.

She began to speak with an endless cry and sobbing:

When she was first hired, she said that she came here with new dreams and hopes, that she started here without a lot of work experience but realized that the minimum wage was not enough. She said she had one little son and that she was not even able to meet the needs of the child with the money she had taken from her husband, and that the minimum wage she received from her workplace was enough to pay for the rent and the household electricity and water expenses. It was the first time that she had worked honestly. About 20 days. There was no specific system for the identification of patients. She also noticed that there were no cameras around. Also, when she saw that the payments could be collected in cash, there were ways to earn new revenue.

When she came to work one day, the POS device had a technical problem and a technician would be in charge for it. By the time of the technical blame, 3 patients had arrived between noon. Someone was a paid patient and came to implant. Since the patient did not have social security, it cost her/him 1,210 TL and said that she had to take it in cash because there was no POS device. The patient immediately withdrew money from an ATM nearby, and he/she immediately went to the doctor's office without asking for a receipt (because it was very difficult to catch the doctor alone, often by appointment hours). The patient did not ask for a receipt after he left the doctor. He rushed out. She waited in case it would come to the patient's mind taking a receipt, she had waited for two days and thought the patient did not care. This gave her an idea: if it were not POS, the money would not be recorded. There was no mechanism in

the hospital to inspect it. Also, the other colleague Sinem was having her meal, and there were no witnesses. If she had a chance she could get the whole of the money, if she did not, she could have only a part.

The patient did not come back. The receipt had not been arranged. But if someone noticed, he/she could have reached the patient and asked about the transaction and the amount he/she paid. For that reason, she entered the patient's information incomplete on the screen. She had left a number missing, like she did not notice the cell phone number. In fact, she could never enter the information on the screen. This time, however, the doctor could be curious about his patient. If he asked a question about it, at least there would be a name on the screen. So she could make a statement about herself. The interesting side was that the doctor did not ask any questions about this patient and did not notice the situation.

She noticed that the hospital was "a systematic" in the financial direction; no one asked anything in this building, there was no control. She was trying not to leave the workplace, so that someone else could realize and check the records. One day he was on a diet, one day he was feeling sick. He did not go out to eat with these excuses. In the afternoon, somehow she lingered in and out with security. She knew that the security officer was not educated in financial matters.

In the beginning, the small sums she received in cash began not to suffice. Her eyes were greedy, she started to wear more beautiful clothes, she changed her mobile phone too. In this beautiful life, she did not realize that the risk of getting caught up was rising. Even the uniforms given to them by the hospital had pockets. She was thinking that no one had seen her while picking up the cash. There was no camera already in operation. How could they prove it?

1. Causes of fraud in this case

Oppression: The pressure here is pushing Suzan to fraud was financial contented. That is, the pressure came out with the desire of the person to live more comfortably.

Opportunity: As a result of opportunities, lack of effective internal control, lack of technical knowledge and time for doctors to examine them, and the inability of supervisors to perform audits at the hospital, Suzan had the opportunity to commit it.

2. The type of fraud

In fact, Suzan's fraud was "the abuse of assets - getting cash".

3. Realization of the fraud

The fraud was realized first of all by Human Resources Manager Ms. Eylül due to the changes in the employee's clothes and behaviour. Upon

this, upon their request to seize the trick with Ms. Serap , they started to search for "audit evidence".

By chance, they realized where to start on the shouting of a patient and they noticed that the information in the system did not match the information given by the patient by scanning the patient's information. The patient reported that he/she had come to the hospital several times before, that the same employee did not want to give the receipt to him/her, but when they entered the system they found that the patient had come once and that he/she was mistakenly entered as "control"

After that, the incident was transferred to the financial police. The financial police first brought an external auditor who was a specialist and started the work with the external auditor, recognizing the hospital. And when he realized that the internal control system was incomplete at the hospital, he set out the tasks by identifying where the employee could commit fraud.

First, he noticed that the fingerprint system that was used to identify the camera system and the patients was not in the hospital yet.

Later, in the computer program used by the hospital, he noticed that the patient identification information was only entered by the hospital and could not be updated from the central civil registration system. For this reason, the mistake in the credentials of the patient could not be corrected through the system.

The hospital, like many other hospitals, did not issue detailed receipt unless the patient persisted. Since they only had petty receipts(vouchers), he had examined them. As a result of the investigation, he noticed that the vouchers were filled by hand and did not want to blame anyone at first. However, receipts were properly filled in when the hospital was first established, and problems began to appear in the next few days. He later reviewed the histories and saw Suzan's incomplete entry date on receipt of incomplete information.

Going on to this incident with a small bluff, he made Suzan confess that she was cheating.

4. Recommendations for the prevention of fraud

a. An efficient camera system should have been installed in the hospital before the hospital started taking the patients. It was late.

b. The hospital had to set up a "fingerprint" system in order not to make mistakes about the identity information of the patients. This process was too late.

c. The hospital's computer system was not the kind that would provide updates on the internet. The proceedings were entirely at the discretion of

the person entering the information. In this case, an effective control system was not installed.

d. During recruitment, due to the need for too many hospital employees, the Human Resources manager, Ms. Eylül, should not have hired a person who said that she was "needy" without doing enough review. Administrators are required to hire staff by conducting adequate research in this regard, and after they have hired, they should regularly train their staff to teach the job and to avoid negative consequences.

e. At the hospital, the electronic billing system had to be switched instead of hand receipts. Nevertheless, if the receipts had been audited on time, the employee could have a deterrent effect without cheating yet.

f. At the hospital, no staff should have been left alone. There must have been more than one staff member doing the same job, observing a certainty. Organizing fraud would be much more difficult than cheating alone.

g. Uniforms worn by business employees should have been pocketless, in such a way that they would not have the opportunity to receive cash.

5. Discussion and conclusion

According to the ACFE 2018 Report, about 44% of the 2,690 fraud cases in 2017 are committed by business employees. Unfortunately, it is regrettable that, although the size of the fraud that business employees make is around \$ 50,000, it is regrettable that 44% of the frauds are made by business employees. Although the numerical damages seem to be small, the reason is that the employees of the business cannot reach documents, accounting records, business management as easily.

In Turkey, although the number of academic studies regarding fraud are too much, from case to case, especially related to the Dental Hospital it is almost impossible to come across cases of fraud. For this reason, in this study, in order to better understand the fraud cases, the Dental Hospital sample was tried to be analysed. While the case was being created, some information was obtained from the staff of the cheated hospital staff, and in addition to this, an external auditor was interviewed and the events were organized. For this reason, the names given in the case example are not real names.

In the case of the study subject, after entering the business employees work, there were very serious differences in their behaviour and they were examined by Human Resources Manager and Director of Insurance Affairs. The fact that a client who came to the hospital and raised a fight had also accelerated the examination, and the event was reported to the financial police.

In order to conduct the investigation in a transparent way, the police first discovered the facts that a certain person did not go through the fact that a certain person was guilty, but first acquired general information about the business and discovered the events that could lead to fraud in the business. He looked at the fraudulent dates and noticed that it took place very shortly after the hiring of the suspicious employees. Still speaking to the staff, he made sure she accepted the crime.

In the event of the study, the business operator had to do the following:

1. Sufficient research should have been done while staffing. In the case, the Human Resources Manager did not conduct the research, she only looked at the outward appearance and the needs of the hospital emergency workers.

2. When the staff was picked up, they had to be educated on behalf of the right job and the sense of belonging to the workplace. In the event, before any training was passed, the business employee, the operator's invoices and documents were delivered and the staff left alone and went out in the afternoon.

3. The business should use the technology properly. Not only the camera system, but also the patient's fingerprint system and the internet-based computer program had to be completed when the hospital operation was still in its inception phase. Eventually, the hospital was set up before the fingerprint system and the camera system were started and the patient started to be accepted. It was a big mistake. In addition, a package program was used, which allowed the patient's information to be entered incompletely. The program was not internet based and did not allow patient information to be updated.

4. The hospital administration should not allow employees to receive cash. If credit card or debit card had been accepted, she would not be able to receive cash (at some businesses in Turkey they cannot get cash. Only the card system is working. In addition, in many enterprises engaged in collection with cash, they should be careful with the pockets of their uniforms of business employees and with the tables they work on, especially in order not to steal any money.

5. The manual document filled by the employees was not correct. They absolutely had to make computer aided accounting transactions.

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BANKING

ON CONCOMITANTS OF UPPER RECORD STATISTICS AND ACTUARIAL APPLICATIONS OF A PSEUDO-PARETO DISTRIBUTION

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1. Introduction

Pareto Distribution is usually probability models with various form and kinds. These distributions are used in a wide perspective from social and natural sciences to actuarial and financial application. Distribution of income over several income levels, lifetime of individuals, remaining life of physical systems and loss amounts in excess of certain levels are the particular topics that the Pareto distributions are especially used for probability modeling.

Mardia (1962) introduced a Pareto distribution family which is now known as the multivariate Pareto distribution of the first kind. Thereafter, different forms and families of univariate and multivariate Pareto distribution have been developed. Kotz et al. (2000) presented an almost complete account of these developments. A relatively recent review of the Pareto and generalized Pareto distributions was given by Arnold (2008). Research on various Pareto distributions with their application aspects in many actual life matters have been in continual progress. The use of the Pareto distributions in the financial and actuarial risk areas is of particular concern for the present paper.

Study of records was initiated by Candler (1952) and after that contributions of numerous researchers have enriched the field of theory of records and its ramifications. Since then, a rich literature has grown on the statistical theory and methodology for the data analysis and inference about the record values as seen in Ahsanullah (1995), Arnold et al. (1998) and Ahsanullah and Nevzorov (2000).

In the following sections; begins with the definitions and distributions of the upper record values and their concomitants. A next step is introduced bivariate Pseudo- Pareto distribution and the distributional properties of the upper record values and their concomitants are derived for the new distribution and derivation of the survival analysis models are presented and some interpretations and implications about these models are provided for reliability and actuarial modeling.

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2. Concomitants of Upper Record Statistics

Record values and record statistics have been widely used in the theory of statistical sciences. Upper record values and their concomitants have been studied by number of statisticians. Ahsanullah et al. (2010) defined the distribution of concomitants of upper record statistics for Bivariate Pseudo-Weibull distribution. Shahbaz et al. (2010) obtained of bivariate concomitants of record.

Let $\{(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$ be a random sample from a bivariate distribution function $F(x, y)$ of a random vector (X, Y) . The values in the random sample are observed as the realizations of the $\{(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots\}$ sequence of identically distributed bivariate random variables with a common joint distribution function $F(x, y)$. The $\{X_i\}$ sequence from $\{(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots\}$ is itself is a sequence of random variables with a common distribution function F_X which is the marginal distribution of X from the joint distribution function $F(x, y)$. Further, T indicate the time of observations on (X, Y) such that $T_0 = 1$, and $T_r = \inf \{k : k > T_{r-1}, X_k > X_{T_{r-1}}\}$. Letting $R_r = X_{T_r}$, the sequence $\{R_r\}$ is defined as the sequence of the upper records of $\{X_i\}$, and the corresponding Y -coordinates Y_{T_r} , denoted by $R_{[r]}$, are defined as the sequence of concomitants $\{R_{[r]}\}$ of the upper records by Resnick (1987), Ahsanullah (1995) and Arnold et al. (1998).

The probability density function of the r -th upper record R_r is defined as

$$f_{R_r}(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(r)} f(x) [H(x)]^{r-1} \quad (1)$$

where $H(x) = -\ln[1 - F(x)]$.

The probability density function for the concomitant of the r -th upper record is also given by Ahsanullah (1995) as:

$$f_{R_{[r]}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y|x) f_{R_r}(x) dx. \quad (2)$$

Under the assumptions of the model, the expressions given above hold for any bivariate distribution $F(x, y)$.

3. Concomitants of Record Values for Bivariate Pseudo- Pareto Distribution

A pseudo-distribution is a function that contains linear combinations of the underlying random variables in its parameters and satisfies all properties that are required to be a probability distribution function. This distribution class has strong applications in stochastic processes, finance and insurance where application on an actual distribution can not be performed.

Pseudo distributions and concomitants of order and record statistics have widely studied by researchers. Among them, the following are relevant works for the subject matter of our paper. Diaz-Garcia et al. (1997) presented a pioneering work on Pseudo-Wishart distributions, Filus and Filus (2006) applied their new class of pseudo-distributions, Shahbaz et al. (2011) introduced (2011) gave new results on the concomitants of upper record statistics for a bivariate Pseudo-Weibull distribution, Shahbaz and Ahmad (2011) studied a Pseudo-Rayleigh distribution, Yörübulut and Gebizlioğlu (2013, 2014) introduced a bivariate Pseudo-Gompertz distribution and focused on its order statistics, upper record statistics and their concomitants, below Gebizlioğlu and Yörübulut (2016) introduced a bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution and focused on its order statistics and their concomitants.

A bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution is a compound distribution of a pair of random variables $\{X, Y\}$ whose marginal distributions are Pareto type distributions.

The bivariate Pseudo-Pareto probability density function of X and Y is obtained from $f_{X,Y}(x, y) = f_X(x; a_1, b_1) f_{Y|X=x}(y; \phi(x), b_2 | x)$ as

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = a_1 b_1^{a_1} x^{-a_1-1} \phi(x) b_2^{\phi(x)} y^{-\phi(x)-1}, \quad (3)$$

$$\phi(x) > 0, a_1 > 0, x > b_1, y > b_2$$

where X and Y are correlated due to the $\phi(x)$ function. These density and distribution functions can be used for the probability modeling on loss amounts under risky conditions.

Gebizlioğlu and Yörübulut (2016) present below a bivariate Pseudo-Pareto probability distribution model with a shape parameter specification

$\phi(x) = \ln(x)$ for the marginal density of Y . Bivariate probability density and cumulative distribution functions with this specification arise as

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = a_1 b_1^{a_1} x^{-a_1-1} \ln(x) b_2^{\ln(x)} y^{-\ln(x)-1}, \quad a_1 > 0, x > b_1, y > b_2$$

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \int_{b_2}^y \int_{b_1}^x a_1 b_1^{a_1} x^{-a_1-1} \ln(x) b_2^{\ln(x)} y^{-\ln(x)-1} dx dy$$

$$= a_1 b_1^{a_1} \left(\frac{b_1^{-a_1} - (e^{a_1})^{-\ln(x)}}{a_1} + \frac{-b_1^{-\ln\left(\frac{e^{a_1} y}{b_2}\right)} + x^{-\ln\left(\frac{e^{a_1} y}{b_2}\right)}}{\ln\left(\frac{e^{a_1} y}{b_2}\right)} \right) \quad (4)$$

where the $F_{X,Y}(x, y)$ satisfies all the conditions to be a proper cumulative distribution function, including the property that $\lim_{x, y \rightarrow \infty} F_{X,Y}(x, y) = 1$.

The Bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution with $b_1 = 1$ and $b_2 = 1$ is defined as the compound distribution of X and Y with density function

$$f(x, y) = a_1 x^{-a_1-1} \ln(x) y^{-\ln(x)-1} \quad (5)$$

The joint distribution function of the distribution is given as:

$$F(x, y) = 1 - x^{-a_1} + a_1 \frac{(x^{-a_1 - \ln(y)} - 1)}{a_1 + \ln(y)}, \quad a_1 > 0, x > 1, y > 1 \quad (6)$$

Probability statements with respect to the random events that are defined on the the right tails of $F_{X,Y}(x, y)$ are expressed better with the complementing cumulative distribution function (complementing CDF) for the bivariate case:

$$S_{X,Y}(x, y) = \Pr\{X > x, Y > y\} = 1 - F_X(x) - F_Y(y) + F_{X,Y}(x, y).$$

Complementing CDFs are named also as survival functions in life sciences and systems reliability analysis. A cumulative distribution function with a heavy right tail, in comparison to its light right tailed situation, indicates that observing large values of underlying variables is more likely. Complementing CDF of $\{X, Y\}$ can be obtained

$$S(x, y) = x^{-a_1} - a_1 \frac{(x^{-a_1 - \ln(y)} - 1)}{a_1 + \ln(y)}.$$

Essential theory and methodology about the complementing CDFs can be found in London (1997), among others, where the matters of estimation for complementing CDFs are lucidly presented and several applications are provided. The complementing CDF function converges to the $\{x, y\}$ surface at a faster rate as the value of the shape parameter a_1 is increased. If the rate of convergence is faster on the X values in comparison to Y , then Y is considered to be more risky. That is, if $\{X, Y\}$ pair stands for anticipated loss amounts, the risk attribution for Y due to its more likely large values, is more than what it is for X .

$$F_X(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow b_2} F_{X,Y}(x, y) = 1 - b_1^{a_1} x^{-a_1},$$

Using equation (1), the probability density function for the r -th record value is derived as;

$$f_{R_r}(x) = \frac{a_1 x^{-a_1 - 1}}{\Gamma(r)} \left[-\ln(x^{-a_1}) \right]^{r-1} \quad (7)$$

The conditional density function, derived from expression (5),

$$f(y|x) = \ln(x) y^{-\ln(x)-1}, \quad y > 1, \quad x > 1,$$

in connection with expression (7), leads to the probability density function of the concomitant of the r -th record value for the bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution;

$$f_{R_{r1}}(y) = \frac{a_1}{\Gamma(r)} \int_1^{\infty} \ln(x) y^{-\ln(x)-1} x^{-a_1 - 1} \left[-\ln(x^{-a_1}) \right]^{r-1} dx$$

Clearly, the probability distribution of the concomitant of the r -th order upper record value is

$$f_{R_{r1}}(y) = \frac{ra_1^r}{y(a_1 + \ln(y))^{r+1}}, \quad y > 1, \ln(y) > 0, a_1 > 0, r = 1, 2, \dots \quad (8)$$

The distribution function corresponding to this density function is obtained as

$$F_{R_{r1}}(y) = 1 - \frac{a_1^r}{(a_1 + \ln(y))^r}, a_1 \neq 0, \ln(y) \neq 0, \frac{a_1}{\ln(y)} \geq 0, r = 1, 2, \dots \quad (9)$$

By using (9), the p -th percentile of the distribution is:

$$\xi_{[r]p} = \text{Exp} \left(\frac{a_1 (1 - (1 - p)^{1/r})}{(1 - p)^{1/r}} \right) \quad (10)$$

The median can be easily obtained by using $p = 0.5$ in (10). The following Table 1 contains for $p = 0.5$ percentile of the distribution. These values are obtained for $r = 1(1)10$ and for $a_1 = 1(1)10$ given in Table1.

Table 1: The median of the concomitants of record statistics for Pseudo-Pareto distribution

a_1	r									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	2.71	7.38	20.08	54.59	148.41	403.4	1096.6	2981	8103	22026
2	1.51	2.28	3.46	5.24	7.93	12.00	18.16	27.48	41.59	63.93
3	1.29	1.68	2.18	2.82	3.66	4.75	6.16	7.99	10.37	13.45
4	1.20	1.46	1.76	2.13	2.57	3.11	3.75	4.54	5.48	6.63
5	1.16	1.34	1.56	1.81	2.10	2.44	2.83	3.28	3.81	4.42
6	1.13	1.27	1.44	1.63	1.84	2.08	2.35	2.66	3.01	3.38
7	1.10	1.23	1.36	1.51	1.68	1.86	2.07	2.29	2.55	2.82
8	1.09	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.57	1.72	1.88	2.06	2.25	2.47
9	1.08	1.17	1.27	1.37	1.49	1.61	1.75	1.89	2.05	2.22
10	1.07	1.15	1.24	1.33	1.43	1.53	1.65	1.77	1.90	2.04

From above Table 1 we can readily see that $\xi_{[r;n]0.5}$ decreases with the increase in the value of a_1 whereas with the value increases with the increase in the value of r .

The mode can be obtained from (8) as:

$$R_{[r]} = 1 + \text{Exp}(- (r + 1 + a_1)) \quad (11)$$

The following Table 2 contains mode of the distribution can be obtained by using (11). These values are obtained for $r = 1(1)10$ and for $a_1 = 1(1)10$ given in Table2.

Table 2: The mode of the concomitants of record statistics for Pseudo-Pareto distribution

a_1	r									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.0498	1.0183	1.0067	1.0025	1.0009	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
2	1.0183	1.0067	1.0025	1.0009	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
3	1.0067	1.0025	1.0009	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
4	1.0025	1.0009	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
5	1.0009	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
6	1.0003	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
7	1.0001	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
8	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
9	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
10	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000

From above Table 2 we can readily see that $R_{[r]}$ decreases with the increase in the value of a_1 whereas with the value decreases with the increase in the value of r but 1 takes the value whereas with the increase in the value of a_1 and r .

4. Complementing CDF and Hazard Function for the r -th Record Statistic and its Concomitant

Complementing CDF and hazard functions are the most critical probability functions for risk analysis and reliability studies since they can describe the right tail behaviors of the loss amount variables under concern. Hazard functions are derived from the complementing distribution functions and they are used to express the conditional intensity of the occurrence of risk events.

The random vector (X, Y) to represent paired lifetimes of components of a physical system or lifetimes of human beings in a population. The coupling of Y with X can be expressed by some analytical functions in order to associate Y with X up to the investigation and modeling interests of the researchers. Several probability distribution models can be considered for the random lifetimes vector (X, Y) . Life distribution models are discussed in depth by Marshall and Olkin (2007).

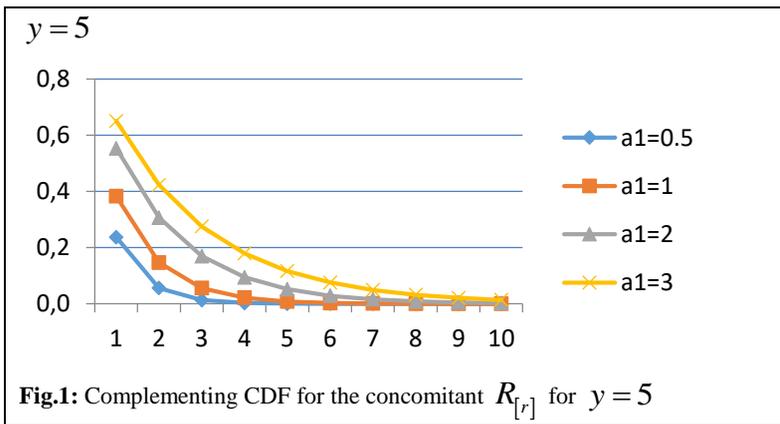
Under the bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution, the complementing CDF for the concomitant of the r -th order upper record value is then obtained as

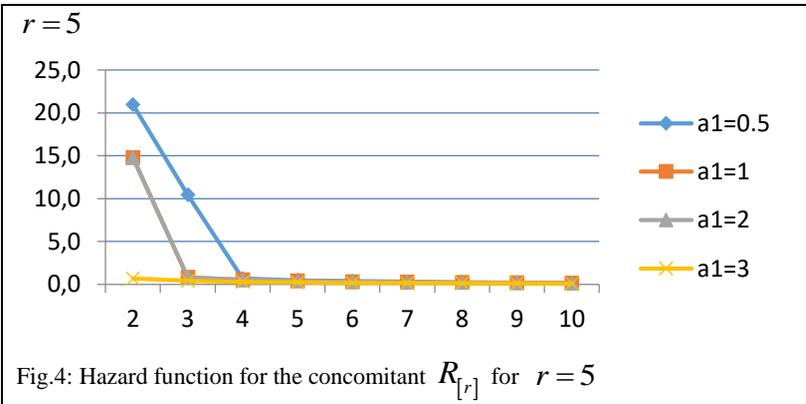
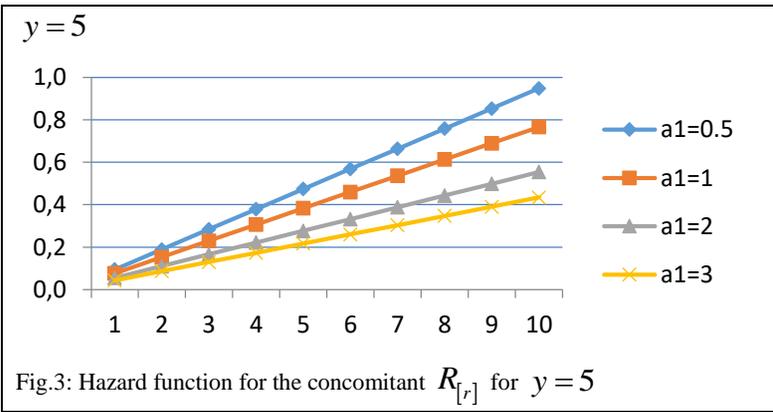
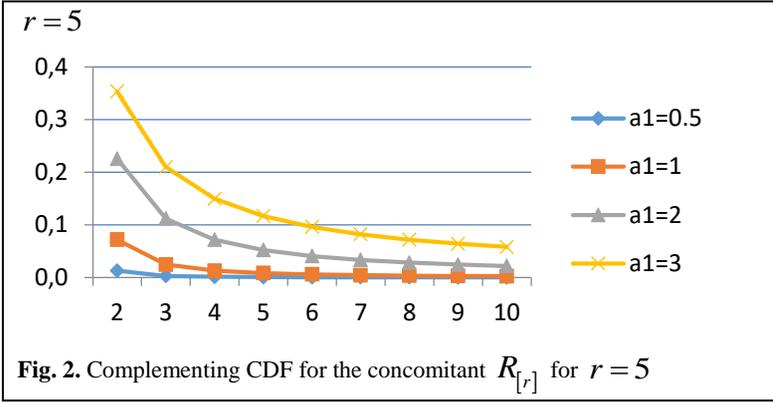
$$S_{R_{[r]}}(y) = \frac{a_1^r}{(a_1 + \ln(y))^r}, \quad a_1 \neq 0, \ln(y) \neq 0, \frac{a_1}{\ln(y)} \geq 0 \quad r = 1, 2, \dots \quad (12)$$

The hazard or mortality rate function for the concomitant variable $R_{[r]}$ under the bivariate pseudo-Pareto distribution is, then, obtained as

$$h_{R_{[r]}}(y) = \frac{f_{R_{[r]}}(y)}{S_{R_{[r]}}(y)} = \frac{r}{y(a_1 + \ln(y))}, \quad a_1 \neq 0, \ln(y) \neq 0, \frac{a_1}{\ln(y)} \geq 0, \quad r = 1, 2, \dots \quad (13)$$

Record values are the successive maxima values that are matters of interest in many lifetime related events. So, they are usually used in the investigations that focus on the survivals and deaths as the core of analysis. The age specific lifetime and remaining life time analysis can be precisely based on the order value r and the magnitudes of the record and concomitant values x and y , respectively. The behaviours of the complementing cumulative distribution and hazard functions, in case of the bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution, have some particular features.





The value of the complementing CDF of the concomitant the $R_{[r]}$ decreases as the r and y values increase, as obvious. However, it is notable that the rate of decline in the complementing CDF for the given r

values, is faster for the increasing values of the distribution parameter a_1 . On the other hand, the value of the hazard function of the concomitant $R_{[r]}$ increases, naturally, as r increases; but it is also notable here that it assumes larger values as y and a_1 values decrease. The overall level of values of the hazard function gets lower as a_1 values increase, and the rate of this decline is higher for the small values of y and a_1 . Figure 1 –Figure 4 upper depicts these characteristic behaviours.

5. Reliability analysis and the actuarial modeling for insurance.

An effective utilization of the complementing cumulative distributions and hazard functions can be pursued particularly in the physical system reliability analysis and the actuarial modeling for insurance. In these areas, the survival of the systems and the lives, at any time point, are functions of the age specific future lifetimes of the system components or the individuals. The termination of the survival statuses of the system components or the lives are the causes of the costs. The physical systems managers or the insurers have to foresee these costs in order to do the commensurate capital allocations.

There exists numerous actuarial valuation and pricing models in the literature concerning the life statuses of the lives that participate in the insurance plans. For these models and their details, we refer to Pitacca et al. (2009), Gerber (1997) and Promislow (2006).

As an example, consider a whole life insurance case with a portfolio of policies that each is written on two lives, and their lifetimes, represented by the random vector (X, Y) , are distributed according to the bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution introduced in this paper. Assume that for every policy, the policy owner is the first live whose lifetime is denoted by X and the paired live is the second person. Further, assume that the policies provide contingent insurances that pay benefits to the beneficiaries, who are either the first live or other individuals designated in the policy, upon the death of the second live. The reader may see Gerber 1997) and Promislow (2006) for the concepts and models about the whole life insurance and the contingent insurances. Suppose that an insurer draws a random samples of size n , $\{(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$, from a large population of active whole life insurance policies for the purpose of benefit payment liability assessments. As a matter of insurance liability management strategy, attention may be on the successive maxima of the ages of the active policy owners. Then the focus can be on the record ages of a chosen order r and on its concomitant, $(R_r, R_{[r]}) = (X_{T_r}, Y_{T_r})$, for the aim of

securing reserves for the benefit payment liabilities to accrue. The possibility that the insurer fails to meet these kind of liabilities is a risk and it has to be prevented beforehand. In this regard, the whole life insurer is concerned about the complementing cumulative distributions function of the paired lives with ages of (x, y) at the time of the sample where x is the r -th order age of the first live and y is the age of the r -th order concomitant. Due to the contingency of the insurance upon the death of the second live, it is critical to compute the probability that the r -th concomitant live of age y will live for ν years more, at least. This probability is expressed as

$$P\left(R_{[r]} > y + \nu \mid R_{[r]} > y\right) = S_{R_{[r]}}(y + \nu) / S_{R_{[r]}}(y) = {}_{\nu}P_y,$$

where the complementing CDF $S(\cdot)$ can be calculated according to equation (12), above. The hazard function in (13), with y replaced by $y + \nu$, expresses the intensity of the probability that a $y + \nu$ old r -th concomitant live dies immediately. Let $C(y + \nu)$ be a positive valued function of y and ν as the benefit amount to be paid on the contingent death occurrence. At the time of the sample, a life insurer needs to know the required reserves to be available in the next ν years. Following Gerber (1997) and Promislow (2006) the actuarial present value of this amount can be calculated by

$$V(y) = \int_0^{\infty} C(y + \nu) e^{-\delta\nu} ({}_{\nu}P_y) h_{R_{[r]}}(y + \nu) d\nu,$$

where $h_{R_{[r]}}(y + \nu)$ is the hazard function for the concomitant live at age $y + \nu$, δ is the so called force of interest and $e^{-\delta\nu}$ is the continuously compounding discounting factor with maturity ν .

6. Conclusion

Bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution and develops the distributions of its upper record statistics and their concomitants. The results and their applicability to the real life situations seem worth engaging in further research on the subject matter. The idea of using variable-concomitant pairs, in addition to the usual variable-variable pair of random variables, increases the application dimensions and utility of the distribution and the other findings, presented here, in wider perspectives. Furthermore, it is worthwhile to try different types of the proposed Pseudo-Pareto distribution by positing several shape parameter functions other than the

one we adopted here. But, more studies on these kind of parametric models are needed for sure in the multivariate modeling endeavours.

The record values from a sequence of observations indicate the important features of extremities about the populations that they are observed from. These extremities with certain orders can be even coupled with some other variables which are in the capacity of their concomitants so that some analysis in larger scopes can be conducted.

This paper achieves to show a bivariate Pseudo-Pareto distribution and its upper records that are the complacency for the survival and hazard modeling and their extensions to the applications besides reliability analysis and actuarial modeling where age bound lifetime durations are of concern.

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COMMUNICATION

COMMUNICATIVE CIVIC-LESS: A REVIEW OF ONLINE POLITICAL AND CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND PARTICIPATION

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Introduction

“A thought which does not result in an action is nothing much, and an action which does not proceed from a thought is nothing at all.”

Georges Bernanos (1955)

The dramatic growth of digital technologies particularly highlighted in politics raised scholars' attention for its potential to influence political participation and civic engagement. Despite huge of attention, it has been still debatable how social networks facilitate civic engagement and how much “active” is an average online activist. Political participation is defined as the involvement of groups and individuals at various levels in the political system to have an impact on political decision-making and actions. Over the past decades, changes in conventional communication systems and emergence of social media expanded the scope of the term and we have been observing a growing interest in new modes of political participation and research exploring the role of online media in facilitating participation (Carpentier, 2011; Vromen, 2017; Dahlgren, 2013). The participation mediated by digital social media platforms is considered to promote new forms of mobilization and civic engagement. Some examples of individual mobilization to protest all over the world are 2009 Iranian presidential election protests, Twitter hash tag #BringBackOurGirls in response to Boko Haram's kidnapping of hundreds of Nigerian school girls and Arab Spring supposed to jumpstart democracy through social media. However, the internet initially considered as a solution for the decline in conventional modes of political participation, has been questioned about its positive impacts in recent years and there is no consensus among researchers examining the effect of new communication systems on civic and political engagement. Much research investigating the impact of internet use on civic and political engagement has revealed conflicting findings and increased debates about whether the Internet would contribute to declines in civic life as users may misinterpret their online actions as enough to promote change.

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Although some scholars argue that online acts such as posting a political status update or following a political candidate online represent new forms of political participation and these online acts are online equivalents to offline, for some scholars online acts do not have any connection with offline politics. Focus here is not to applaud social media for citizen engagement thanks to expanding sources of information or public sphere but rather review the potential of online activism to bring about social or political change. Although it is not possible to say social media activism distracts people from civic and political issues and deepen their disengagement, there is not enough evidence to support its positive contribution to participatory democracy. A large number of studies conducted on social media impact on offline political participation provided inconclusive results (Boulianne, 2009; Gustafsson, 2012; Vissers, Hooghe, Stolle, & Maheo, 2011). On the other hand, participation in online environments might be encouraging a rise in “slacktivism”, a term used to describe online effortless actions claimed to bring about political or social change such as joining online campaigns or signing online petitions of which offline impact is still debatable. Online acts could raise awareness but promoting a social or political change requires going from awareness to action. This paper reviews existing literature addressing the impact of civic engagement and participation and claims that if online acts are not supported by offline activities, the change will not come, as not all political acts should be considered equal. Although some modes of online participation work within representative democracies, others are more expressive and their impact on formal decision-makers is debatable. The first section of the paper defines different forms of engagement and participation and presents a review of existing literature on political participation, both in its conventional and online formats and helps to reframe online political participation by examining some positive impacts claimed to influence political participation and civic engagement. Following this, the second section identifies some major critiques launched against online participation and evaluates whether participation through the Internet could have any connection with offline politics. In the third section, mobilizing role of social media is reviewed from different perspectives. Finally, the conclusion sums up the discussions.

1. New Modes of Political and Civic Engagement and Participation

At the beginning this section, we have drawn a conceptual distinction between political and civic participation. The term ‘political participation’ was used to address an activity having the intent of influencing some political outcome or to exercise control over decision-makers at a governmental or non-governmental level (definition adapted from Nie et al., 1989) while “civic participation” was used to address both political and non-political activities focused on problem solving and helping others

(definition adapted from Zukin et.al., 2006; Park & Perry, 2008). Furthermore, we have drawn another conceptual distinction between 'participation' and 'engagement'. Here we used the term 'participation' to address participatory behaviours while, 'engagement' was interpreted in psychological rather than behavioural terms and included "knowledge, beliefs, opinions, attitudes, or feelings about either political or civic matters" (definition adapted from Barrett & Brunton-Smith, 2014). The earliest references to political participation are found in the works of the ancient Greek political thinkers, Plato and Aristotle. In the Athenian democratic states citizenship of the state implied an active participation in the government and all citizens had to take part in government even though only the male Greek citizens were allowed to vote, not foreigners and slaves because they were not considered citizens. Although citizens participated in a direct democracy where they controlled political process, it was not ideal of equal freedom and rights. In comparison to direct democracies, representative democracies, according to which many countries including Turkey operate, allow citizens to vote for representatives to rule the country on their behalf. In both models of democracy, participating is regarded necessary. The actions taken for political participation included in previous studies have not significantly changed and they vary from legal to illegal or from conventional to unconventional modes of participation. The most common view explains political participation as the attempt to influence some political outcome or to exercise control over decision-makers at a governmental or non-governmental level (Nie et. al, 1989; Brady, 1999; Kalaycıoğlu, 1984). Voting is the most prominent form of political participation but it is regarded the least active form of participation. It goes beyond voting and implicates taking part in different political activities such as joining a political organization, working in an election campaign, contacting public officials or donating money to a candidate (Milbrath& Goel, 1977). Although the acts included in political participation have not dramatically changed, the concept has gained new dimensions and expanded to civic activities. In 1993, Robert Putnam introduced a new concept, civic engagement characterized by an active, public-spirited citizenry, by egalitarian political relations, by a social fabric of trust and cooperation. In a civic community, citizenship means equal rights and obligations for all. Such a community is not bound together by vertical relations of authority and dependency, rather by horizontal relations of reciprocity and cooperation. Horizontal networks of civic engagement allow citizens to solve dilemmas of collective action. Citizens have strong views on public issues, but they are also tolerant of others' opinions. However, Putnam declined to mention any explicit definition of civic engagement and included all sorts of informal social activities in associational involvement and political participation. Following Putnam's introduction of the term,

Ekman & Amna (2012) proposed a typology, which implies a sequential progression from civic engagement to political participation. People engage in society in a number of different ways such as discussing politics, following political issues, donating money or recycling for environmental reasons. People might be organised to solve local problems or to improve conditions groups in society. They place all those activities under the heading civil participation, which they also think of as latent political participation. Recycling, for example, if done for environmental reasons, is not considered “political participation” in their typology, since the action is not directly aimed at any specific actor. However, it could be viewed as an act of civic engagement. Table 1 shows different forms that political and civic participation and engagement may take (Barrett & Brunton-Smith, 2014). Participation and engagement may be exhibited in relationship to several different community and institutional levels, including the local, municipal, regional, national, transnational, and supranational level.

Table 1. Different forms of conventional political participation, non-conventional political participation, civic participation, and political and civic engagement

Forms of conventional political participation	Forms of non-conventional political participation	Forms of civic participation	Forms of political and civic engagement
Voting	Protests, demonstrations, marches	Informally assisting the well-being of others in the community	Paying attention to the news media (newspapers, magazines, television, radio, Internet)
Membership of a political party	Signing petitions	Community problem solving through organizations/membership of community organizations/attending meetings of these organizations/expressing one’s point of view at these meetings/participating in the activities of these organizations/holding an office in these organizations	Following political or civic affairs
Running for political election	Writing letters/emails to politicians or public officials		Having political or civic knowledge or beliefs
Working on political election campaigns for candidates or parties	Writing letters/emails/phone calls with a political content to the media (both old and new media)		Having political or civic skills
Donations to political parties	Writing articles/blogs with a political content for the media (both old and new media)		Understanding political or civic institutions
Trying to persuade others to vote	Using social networking sites on the Internet to join or like groups which have a political focus	Membership of other non-political organizations	

Using social networking sites on the Internet to distribute or share links which have a political content to friends and contacts	(e.g. religious institutions, sports clubs, etc.)/ attending meetings of these organizations/ expressing one's point of view at these meetings/ participating in the activities of these organizations/holding an office in these organizations	Understanding political or civic values
Wearing or displaying a symbol or sign representing support for a political cause	School-based community service	Holding opinions about, and attitudes towards, political or civic matters
Distributing leaflets which express support for a political cause	Undertaking organized voluntary work	Having feelings about political or civic matters
Participating in fundraising events for a political cause	Translation and form-filling assistance for non-native speakers	
Writing graffiti on walls which expresses support for a political cause	Sending remittances to others living elsewhere	
Participating in other illegal actions (e.g. burning a national flag, throwing stones, rioting, etc.) in support of a political cause	Donations to charities	
Membership of political lobbying and campaigning organizations/attending meetings of these organizations/expressing one's point of view at these meetings/participating in the activities of these organizations/holding an office in these organizations	Fundraising activities for good causes	
	Consumer activism: Boycotting and preferential buying	

As listed in the table, the internet supplements traditional methods of participation and engagement (e.g. writing articles) and creates new outlets for participation (e.g. joining groups which have political focus). The era

of new media is viewed, in terms of three overlapping phases of development. The first phase began in the late 1980 and early 1990s is characterised by the dominant presence of entertainment media formats and old-fashioned communication technologies in the political realm, which lacked a public service imperative, and driven by profits. The second phase, initiated in the mid-1990s, was marked by the arrival of new political platforms (the Internet, World Wide Web, and the e-mail) which subverted the top-down structure of traditional communication. The third phase in the evolution of political media was marked by the Web 2.0 applications, which allowed higher level of interactivity. While in the second phase audience members could comment on articles written by journalists, in the Web 1.0 era, users can generate their own content by using wikis and social networking sites (Medvic, 2011: 148). The use of online media to both consume and produce content has transformed people from content consumers to content producers. The central question however is whether Web 2.0 has fundamentally altered the dynamics of participation. The first approach argues that social media have not changed the fundamental dynamics of participation; rather level and diversity of participation have increased to the point that they are supersized. The second approach argues that the widespread use of social media has created a new model of participation (Theocharis, 2015:186)

One of the key pillars of a strong democracy is the widespread participation of its citizens in the political process. However, according to research conducted in many liberal democratic states rates of political participation are low and tend to decline (Parvin, 2009). Following the research, two fundamental lines of critique have emerged to counter the claims of the decline. Promoters of the decline thesis highlight the disappearance of traditional forms of participation while ignoring the participation styles and new methods, which are rapidly replacing the old. By contrast, other scholars claim that citizens, especially the younger generations, prefer participating in “looser and less hierarchical informal networks” (Stolle&Micheletti, 2005:3) which have expanded the scope of the term “political participation”. It is therefore the literature on political participation and civic engagement in recent decades has addressed the use of digital networks to reduce the participation deficit of representative democracies. Putnam (1995) in contrast addressed the technological transformation for leisure for the decline of civic engagement. According to him, media particularly television, are radically privatizing and individualizing our use of leisure time and drive a wedge between our individual and collective interests. As media were mainly used for entertainment purposes, it had a negative impact on civic engagement and health of a representative democracy.

Recent studies using civic engagement and political participation as common dependent variables to explore the political impact of digital networks suggest that the internet might replace declining forms of participation through providing new channels for citizens to engage in politics. Within this set of scholars, one group asserts that the Internet will help to activate citizens who are already predisposed or interested in politics as the Internet reduces the costs of time and effort to access political information sources and provides more convenient ways of engaging in politics (e.g., online petitions). However, these opportunities are appealing to people who are interested, knowledgeable, and already engaged in the offline political process. On the other hand, the second group asserts that online media have the potential to mobilize politically inactive populations and a broader set of citizens may engage in politics thanks to the convenience offered by the Internet. Increased information access may reduce knowledge inequality observed between gender, socio-economic classes and different age groups. In brief, both groups claim that the Internet may reinvigorate civic life through increasing information dissemination, promoting political discussion, developing social networks, and creating an alternative venue for political expression and engagement (Boulianne, 2009). Furthermore, the internet is considered to reduce traditional participation inequalities as external supporters are easier to reach and mobilise, offline acts could be coordinated rather effortlessly (Knudsen & Stage, 2012). Online venues allow space for dialogue despite the mainstream media controlled by the government and change how activists communicate, collaborate and demonstrate. Even though conventional media rely heavily on a one-to-many paradigm, digital media allow people to interact with politics and through creating opportunities for many-to-many communication.

2. The Impact of Online Participation on Political Decision Making

Contemporary debate over the influence of the internet swings between reinforcement and mobilization theories. The reinforcement hypothesis takes a technological determinist perspective and predicts that new communication technologies will reduce the costs of communication and information acquisition and create an open, decentralized, and interactive space thereby empowering marginalized citizens and increasing democratic participation. In contrast, mobilization theory holds that new media will support the existing distribution of political power. Despite the potential of the Internet to decentralize and create more opportunities for participation in the political process, only the elite or individuals with access to technology will benefit from it (Stanley & Weare, 2004; Winneg, 2009). The public-sphere which conciliates between society and state, in which the public organizes itself into a bearer of public opinion (Habermas et.al, 1974) is now largely dependent on the communication media system

including television, radio, and the print press, as well as a diversity of multimedia and communications systems, among which the Internet and horizontal communication networks are playing a critical role (Castells, 2008) Online media are therefore considered to expand political information sources and create new platforms for people to discuss politics and expand public sphere.

Initial impacts expected to transform representative democracy into a form of direct participation of all citizens with equal opportunities have not been fulfilled so far and an increasing number of scholars grow more skeptical. Although they consider online participation highly effective in terms of building communities of people who cannot gather in the physical world because of the geographical boundaries and promoting awareness of issues, they also claim that the internet could have detrimental effects on traditional political participation. According to a study investigating online, offline political engagement, and the role of social networking sites in people's political activities, social networking sites are not a separate realm of political activity for most politically active SNS users. "Political social networking site users" are frequently active in other aspects of civic life. Traditional political activities are most common among the well educated and financially well-off, regardless of whether they take place online or offline. Although income-related differences are more modest on social networking sites, civic engagement is still most prevalent among people with higher educational levels. Younger adults engage in many political acts just as likely as older adults are, and are much more likely to be politically active on social networking sites (Smith, 2013).

Boulianne (2009) in her analysis of 38 studies tested the relationship between Internet use and political engagement between the years 1995 – 2005. According to the meta-data established, there was little evidence to support the argument that Internet use contributes to civic decline. The average positive impact which is small in size appears to be positively affected by factors that have long been established as standard predictors of offline political participation. In a similar study, Bimber (2001) investigated the relationship between online political information and likelihood of offline political participation. He detected a weak and non-significant linkage between two variables and concluded that political participation is not directed by the access or cost of political information. Studies questioning the impact of online acts on political participation did not suggest any negative effects on offline participation. However, none of them suggested strong positive effects in real life. Furthermore, they have been criticised and dismissed as clicktivism or slacktivism if not being complemented by offline forms of participation (Gladwell, 2010; Halupka, 2014; Karpf, 2010; Morozov, 2012; Shulman, 2009). Online activities may make the individual feel active despite having little impact on political

decisions and they may distract citizens from traditional modes of participation.

Clicktivism, slacktivism or armchair activism are some of the new terms added to the dictionary after the emergence of social media. Heavily criticized by many for encouraging people to passively click to support a cause rather than taking real action, the terms describe simple measures to support an issue or social cause, which requires minimal personal effort. They are commonly associated with actions like sharing a video about a social cause, changing Facebook status in support of a cause or signing online petitions. According to slacktivism or clicktivism critics, these online actions are just for participant gratification and lack real engagement and commitment. People develop a sense of values and alliances what is shared and said online, however slacktivism is the lowest common denominator in terms of action (Howard, 2014). The internet helps people construct a socially aware image of themselves and they feel that they make a difference through online acts. Morozov (2012) who is dismissive of the internet as a political tool pointed out parallels between online activism and social loafing phenomenon. Discovered by Max Ringelmann, social loafing proved that people put much less effort into a task when other people are also doing it. As it is impossible to evaluate individual contribution in a group, people inevitably begin slacking off. The same problem may be observed for much of today's "Facebook" activism. Once people join a group, they move at the group's own pace, even though they could be much more effective on their own.

According to Godhes (2016), governments can manipulate social media better than activists can. Despite early promises of anonymity online, there is no longer any privacy on the net because of commercial and government surveillance. He asserts that social media have degraded the experience of participating. People pay attention to a cause for a short amount of time and fail to engage fully in the struggle. Furthermore, social media might demobilize people as it enable armed actors to threaten or even coordinate direct violence against them. For instance, in the midst of the Libyan uprising in 2011, Muammar Qaddafi's regime coopted the country's cell phone network and sent text messages ordering people to go back to work. In addition to demobilizing effect, the internet makes people much easier to be tracked and feeds disinformation for government propaganda. Disinformation spreads online much faster than conventional media and people's tendency to select political information sources confirming their prior beliefs may divide societies rather than uniting them for a common cause.

Gladwell (2010) argued that digitally networked participation fails to achieve committed collective action since the platforms of social media are

built around weak ties. However, high-risk activism requires the “strong-tie” phenomena in which participants are fully engaged and motivated in the movement. Social media is a tool for building networks, which are the opposite of hierarchies in structure and character, and it is not controlled by a single central authority. Decisions are made through consensus, and the ties that bind people are loose. He makes a clear distinction between traditional activism and online activism. Traditional activism implies sacrifices and physical devotion however online activism is easy, people can get thousands of people to sign up for a donor registry. It is not risky financially or personally, such an act does not confront them socially entrenched norms and practices. People take action to gain social acknowledgment and praise as individuals in their most trusted circles do so, too. He uses an example of a rights and freedoms movement in the southern U.S. in 1960 to argue that such events took place without social media. Although he acknowledges the speed and vastness of social media networks, he claims that they only spread the information without motivating the hardcore commitment a real social or political change requires.

3. Will the Revolution Be Really Retweeted?

“Change your facebook profile picture to a cartoon from your childhood. The goal? To not see a human face on fb till Monday dec. 6. Join the fight against child abuse copy & paste to your status and invite your friends to do the same”.

A Facebook campaign against child abuse by asking users to change their profile picture to that of their favourite cartoon character went viral around the world. However, the campaign did not accomplish anything, as it did not provide any suggestions of how changing profile picture to a cartoon persona would protect children from harm. In fact, the campaign was great for garnering attention about the issue; however, even if given enough awareness, problems are not solvable. In 2009, a Danish psychologist Anders Colding-Jørgensen (2009) created a Facebook protest group as a part of a psychological experiment that went from 125 to 27.500 members in two weeks. The cause of the group was fictitious and the group protested against the demolition of the Stork Fountain- a famous Danish fountain. Several people were on to the experimental nature of the group (it was revealed by the experimenter in the discussion forum) and they felt a healthy need to warn the members of the group that the event was fake. However, it was very difficult for these people to communicate to others that the group was “not real”. This was mainly because people did not use the group for information, but as a “badge”, to communicate their support for the cause to themselves and others. Many people in the group reported that after reading the group description, they joined. Some members shared the group to

friends or wrote a message on the wall, but very few of the wall posts were containing direct messages or questions directed at other people. Jørgensen concluded that Facebook-groups are brilliantly suited for promoting (or branding) a single cause, which people join if the group fits within their values and online identity. However, a Facebook-group will not work in any kind of democratic movement, which needs horizontal communication and decision power,

In a study evaluating the actions of the members of the Save Darfur Cause on Facebook, researchers used complete records on the donation and recruitment activity of 1.2 million members to provide a detailed first look at a massive online social movement. The cause was one of the largest on Facebook and managed to raise roughly \$100,000 over the period measured by the researchers. The trend of giving closely follows the increase in the number of members, but only a few members actually donate. In total, 99.76% of the cause's members did not give. Of the few that did give, 94.72% did only once. This means the majority of the money given by what the researchers call a small group of hyperactivists. Researchers also measured recruitment the majority did not undertake. Some 72% of members never recruited another member. The top 1% of donors and recruiters wielded an important impact over the cause. They accounted for recruiting more than 60% of all members and 47% of funds raised. The research demonstrated that despite socially patterned donation and recruitment behaviour, the vast majority of members recruited another member into the cause and contributed no money to it. Facebook conjured an illusion of activism rather than facilitating the real thing. (Lewis et.al. 2014)

After the Arab Spring, marked by a series of revolutionary anti-government protests and demonstrations beginning from Tunisia and spreading to parts of North Africa and the Middle East started in 2011, researchers had a long debate over the role that social media played in uprisings challenging existing authoritarian regimes. Social media have been argued to cause revolution in the debate for a long time however according to skeptic researchers; its effect is often exaggerated. They claim that social media played a role of communication, helping mobilizing, planning and coordinating however; it was just a tool rather than the driving force. Data from the Pew Research Center's Global Attitudes Project supports this conclusion with its findings that the majority of people were not online. Nearly two-thirds (65%) of the total population did not use the internet. When looking specifically at those with a college education, use of social media for obtaining political information was more prevalent than in other segments of the population. Although most of the country was disconnected from the internet, 84% of those who were online reported that they visited social networking sites for news about Egypt's

political situation. These findings highlight social media's important role in spreading information, but do not indicate that social media was a mobilizing force in the uprisings. (Brown et.al. 2012)

The "Kony 2012" video, produced by the US advocacy group "Invisible Children", called for the arrest of Ugandan indicted war criminal Joseph Kony and aimed to raise awareness to bring him to justice. It inspired a public outcry and the video was watched tens of millions times. "Kony tried to invoke a kind of distributed citizenship in which people from across the globe engaged in a collective project for a political change not defined by or restricted to a particular geographical location or polity but defined by shared meanings and collaborative creativity and action". (Meikle, 2014) However, Mr Kony has not been found and U.S. and Ugandan armies stopped to track him down in 2017. Critics indicated many factors why the campaign failed and the main problem was the video sought to raise awareness of the issue rather than implementing solutions and taking a complicated issue and reducing it a video without taking complex political and socioeconomic issues of Uganda left people convinced that participating in the campaign is enough to capture Kony. Awareness does not help when the issue is something people are unable to control.

Another example of online campaigns failed to promote tangible change is the "Bring Back Our Girls" that united the people in outrage over hundreds of schoolgirls abducted in Chibok by the terrorist group Boko Haram. People on social media rallied around a call to #bringbackourgirls to demand action and the hashtag gained immense popularity and had been used over 1 million times in three weeks' time. Some of the girls managed to escape but online efforts have not resulted in the return of majority of the girls and the campaign has become another example of the limited influence of online protests, as the leader of Boko Haram was not on Facebook. According to Gilmore (2016), "We were helping ourselves. When we tweeted #BringBackOurGirls we were "signaling" — letting those around us know that we care about others, we are empathetic, we can be relied upon to help those in needs. In other words, we are useful members of the tribe". The campaign raised awareness about black girls but also demonstrated that online acts such as sharing or retweeting does not substitute for physical action. We engage in personal branding rather than politics and social media platforms are means of social gain rather than social change.

Conclusions

Despite the increased importance of online media in facilitating new forms of civic engagement and political participation, there is still much research that needs to be done to assess the impact of online media. Studies conducted have not provided any strong evidence to suggest that Internet

activism is replacing traditional political participation and scholars have begun to approach online activism campaigns, which attempt to change the world through social media with suspicion. The Internet raises awareness about contemporary civic and political issues and may help mobilize citizens; however, being involved in effortless political activities online has not the potential to replace traditional forms of participation. Awareness widens people's understanding of civic and political issues, however it cannot convert bystanders into engaged activists. It requires active and extensive offline participation as commenting or sharing an issue on the web could provide satisfaction, generate publicity and help people to create a socially aware identity, but their impact on catalyzing change is questionable.

There is no doubt that online media have changed how people engage and participate in politics. The internet is an effective way to increase awareness, help people engaged in a dialogue about issues and increase the speed and efficiency of causes through allowing people with the same views and ideas to come together and feel part of a larger community or movement. However, sharing a political cause is not the same as going on a protest. Traditional modes of participation are more difficult than online counterparts in which people retweet or join a group having a political focus without attending a single demonstration. Online modes of participation provide individual satisfaction, the feeling of doing something good, however commenting on civic and political issues restricts the engagement and participation to the comment section on social media. There are more effective ways to participate in politics involving real forms of sacrifice such as raising money for a cause or joining a public protest. While online modes of civic and political participation remain to be successful in disseminating information and raising awareness, as they are built around weak ties and fails to bring a change if not not being complemented by offline forms of engagement and participation.

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MEDIA USE IN TURKEY: AN UPDATE ABOUT THE MEDIA CONSUPTION IN TURKEY

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1.Introduction

Among the mass media, radio came to Turkey in the period when it was invented while television arrived in Turkey at a time much later than its invention. The emanation of the internet in Turkey corresponded to the end of the first half of 2000s. Today, all the mass media are densely used in Turkey. As is the case all around the world, the internet carried mass media to a different stage also in Turkey and deeply affected the habits towards the consumption of the media content. In this context, the media consumption underwent a great change especially after the spread of the internet.

This study aims to examine the media consumption habits of university students who are also named as the individuals belonging to Y Generation. The previous generations grew up among television and printed media while the today's generation in which university students are included grew up in close relation with the internet. This, as a result, unavoidably influences consumption habits. Today, television is no longer a device that is only and separately watched due to the emanation of the use of double screen but the use of television as a "background sound" gained popularity. Media consumers are now able to consume media through mobile, desktop or laptop devices. Hence, determining the media consumption habits of university students will be useful in anticipating the future purposes of use of media and the media consumption trends.

2.Media Consumption Concept

Today's societies are exposed to a great flow of information and the mass media influence all the stages of people's lives. Considering the contemporary communication opportunities, it can be seen that a great communication and correspondence opportunity has arisen globally. The new media which has been superseding the traditional media is becoming more and more powerful in the recent years. Today, the people who use the new media are able to apply to social media websites as a means of getting news and information on a regular basis as well as using them as socializing agents (Soylemez, 2014: 99).

A consumption culture has started spread due to these opportunities provided by the mass media. Media undertook the greatest role in the expansion of such consumption culture. Accordingly, consumption culture grows bigger and becomes denser through media. The media has a

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significant role in relation to the change experienced in the consumption culture of today's rapidly changing world; however, the media also is affected by the expansion of fast consumption culture and undergoes a transformation. Therefore, we see that the media and consumption culture are two different areas which trigger and contribute to the development of each other (Kiskac, 2018: 68).

The consumption of the media has also started to undergo a transformation due to such changing consumption perception and culture. A new perception of media consumption started to gain popularity instead of traditional media consumption in compliance with the new media including the use of double screens. Hence, preferences have also started to change. Even though consumption culture is conveyed through the program types in the media, not only television but also the new media tools are significant parts of this process. A certain lifestyle, new products, consumption materials and goods are offered to the audience through the content of serials and movies etc. shown on television and the internet. Thus the audience are captured by consumption culture through television and, at the same time, media consumption increases due to such phenomenon. Therefore, there is an mutual interaction between media consumption and consumption culture.

3. Media Consumption Approaches in the Literature

Since the appearance of the mass media, there have been various theories that attempted to explain the power and the place of these tools in the economic, political and social orders. The technological and sociological developments, in particular, in the 19th and 20th centuries affected the mass media tools and, therefore, the mass media theories.

When the mass media are analysed in the historical process, the studies that focused on 'influence' are divided into three categories as the period of strong effects, the period of limited effects and the period of long term effects. The beginning of the 20th century which is claimed to have great influences on individuals by pushing individuals into the background and making the audience adopt the mass media messages as desired is called the period of strong effects. The mid-20th century is the period of limited effects during which there were various studies which considered individuals as well as the mass media and which revealed that the mass media tools had limited-indirect influences on the audience. The researches of the recent period found out that the process of influence imposed on individuals by the mass media tools is a long-term process. Besides, it was stressed that social factors and various effects such as culture, belief and family structure are also of great importance in respect to these processes (Severin and Tankard, 1994: 104-105).

⇒ ***The Period of Strong Effects:*** In this period, the mass media tools are believed to have a manipulation power on people and, therefore, they are

frequently applied to by political authorities as a means of propaganda. The fact that the 'effects' of the mass media tools, which was the most prominent characteristic of 'traditional' communication researches, was dwelt upon in the first period of the mass media tools is not something coincidental. On the contrary, the main motivation was that the mass media aimed to manipulate the attitudes and behaviours of people in such period.

⇒ ***The Period of Limited Effects:*** The researches carried out between 1940 and 1960 on communications are defined as the second period researches. The main characteristic of this period is that the previous studies which featured the 'effect' were denied and the effect of the mass media on people was claimed to be very limited. Those who think about mass media generally focus on the influences of mass media tools on people. The people who view the issue from a point of view of liberal paradigm, also known as the sovereign paradigm, dwell upon the positive functions of mass media tools such as illumination, development, democratization. The supporters of this paradigm define the audience of mass media tools as active and rational individuals with freewill. According to such approach, individuals watch or listen to any mass media tool they choose, get what they want and refuse what they do not want. That is, the decision and control are in the hands of individuals. Therefore, people obtain much practical information in daily life through mass media tools (Gungor, 2011: 231).

⇒ ***Critical Approach:*** Those who approach to the subject with a critical point of view claim that the condition is not simple that much. According to them, people are born into predetermined conditions and their identities take form in relation to the prevailing values, beliefs, judgments, rules and ideologies of the society. This approach further claims that mass media tools are supporters of such condition. Generally, the content produced in the media does not contradict the sovereign values of a society. In particular, the criticisms in the studies of Adorno and Horkheimer on "mass culture" and "culture industry" revealed the contributions of production relations of capitalism and power relations to social consent and supervision production, and each became a reference for the critical works that are conducted since the 70s. The first type of structuralist media studies deepened their interest on literary and media texts and basically sought for the interpretation and representation issues (Gungor, 2001: 231).

4.The Influences of Media Consumption on Individuals

It is generally challenging to determine the influences of media consumption since today's adults, youth and children are grown up and have been arranging their days with media. Therefore, there are micro scale researches in relation to media instead of the studies that dwell upon the influences of media. Even though the first period examined the social, mental and physical impacts of media consumption, it has become almost impossible to reveal these influences for individual are intermingled with media. For this reason, the studies that focus on the influences of media consumption on individuals conduct their analyses under various titles

such as the micro scale influences on family life, leisure time and education.

The Influence of Media Consumption on Family Life: Television broadcast, in particular, influences individuals in their habits such as eating, sleeping and hanging out, all of which are considerable parts of family life. The change of sleeping hours, late sleeping and late rising, adjusting eating habits according to the television programs, minimizing outdoor times, adopting personal programs by considering the broadcast of international sports events and similar other cases are the most apparent influences of media consumption of family life. In addition to these, the opportunity to save programs to watch at a later time or to watch them online with high data transfer started to decrease this effect (Aziz, 2013: 256).

The Influence on Leisure Time: Media consumption affects individuals' leisure time activities. The fact that radio and television can bring music and entertainment to individuals as sound and image caused a decrease in visits to entertainment places when the two devices came out for the first time. Today, we can see that internet has become a factor, especially after the expansion of it, that increased media consumption for it contains too much content.

The Influence on Education: Media consumption was used for education purposes and undertook a role in the development of social training when television and radio were invented for the first time. However, today media consumption is associated with the diminishing academic success. Especially the escalation of internet use may lead to negative results in the academic successes of students starting from kindergarten.

5.The Previous Studies Conducted on Media Consumption

In parallel to the changing media consumption perception, both academicians and the professionals of the sector frequently carry out researches on media. This helps us to track the trends of media consumption. In this chapter, we will present examples from both sectoral and academic researches that are performed on media consumption.

5.1. The Market Researches Conducted on Media Consumption

Sectoral researches on media are carried out in virtually all the countries of the world. For example; the study titled “Total Audience Report” conducted by Nielsen in 2016 on the media consumption in the US asserted that the Americans over 18 spent every day an average of 11 hours 22 minutes for media consumption in the last quarter of 2016. In the course of following two years, total daily media consumption showed 1 hour 50 minutes increase or, in other words, a 20% increase. In addition to traditional channels such as television and radio, online devices such as

smart phones, Apple TV and Roku and the services that offer streaming video on demand (SVOD) such as Netflix, Hulu and Amazon Video had an impact on such increase. Figure 1 reflects the TV watching times of age groups in the last quarter of 2016 according to the Nielsen Report.



Figure 1. Weekly TV Watching According to Ages Source: (Nielsen, 2016)

It has been put forth in Nielsen’s report that consumers are forced to give up their traditional media watching processes due to the retailers’ alteration in digital media strategies. According to the report, the influence of digital channel on retailing increase as individuals spend more time on digital media in the daily lives. In this process, digital interaction and participation gain new shapes with the contribution of more wireless connection and more developed media business models. The companies in the industry create new strategies in order to put these models into operation as consumers start to gain control over digital experience (Nielsen, 2016).

In 2017, Atlantic Media Strategies carried out a study in order to anticipate the consumption trends of 2020. According to the report of Atlantic Media Strategies, it has been predicted that media consumption of masses will decrease in the following years. The report explains that this decrease is a result of the increased role of smart phone cameras in media consumption. However, the increase will shift from social media platforms to video content search. Besides, it is predicted that 2 billion people will use digital assistants and half of all the query searches will be made through voice search until 2021. Furthermore, smart phone cameras will lead to new platforms for content sharing by augmented reality (AR). Companies like Facebook, Apple, Microsoft and Google made great investments in technology. It is expected that AR will reach 120 billion-dollar sales before 2021 comes. The report also envisages that masses will spend the same time to watch television while surfing the web, that is, they will use double screen. An average person will spend a bit more than daily 2,6 hours on the internet and will watch television daily for 2,7 hours. (Harkins, 2017).

Zenith Australia performed a study in 2017 which anticipated that the mobile consumption share in global media consumption will increase to 26% in 2016 which was 19% in 2016 (Zenith, 2017). The 2017 version of Media Consumption Forecasts Report indicates that mobile internet

consumption increases at a rate of 44% between 2010 and 2016 due to the expansion of mobile devices, the developments in technology and the increased availability of mobile compatible contents. A part of such extra consumption time was “stolen” from traditional media. However, the proliferation of mobile technology ensured that users can reach to more platforms and places as they had never achieved and contributed to the consumption of general media. In 2016, an average person consumed media for 456 minutes while it had been 411 minutes in 2010. Figure 2 represents the change in total media consumption according to years.

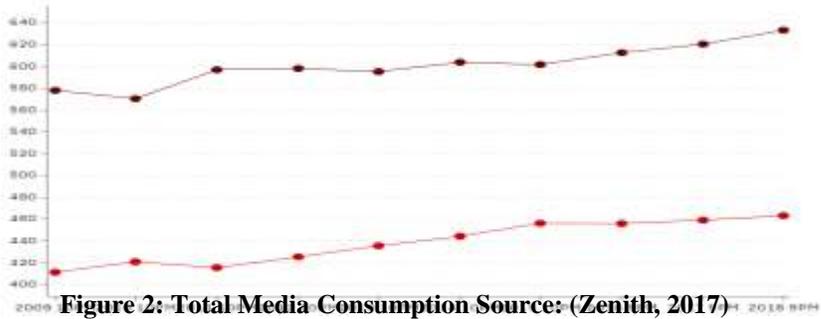


Figure 2: Total Media Consumption Source: (Zenith, 2017)

The report specifies that traditional media constituted 69% of global media consumption by 2017 even though the internet rises rapidly. The companies in media industry initiated offline versions of their activities and such uses were handled as internet processes in the report. This means that traditional media can compensate the lost time by webcasting even though traditional media consumption decrease 13% in the last seven years.

The role of television is still significant in traditional media. In 2017, the average television consumption was 170 minutes while internet use was 140 minutes. The report predicts that the 30 minutes gap of consumption time in 2017 will decrease to 7 minutes in 2019.

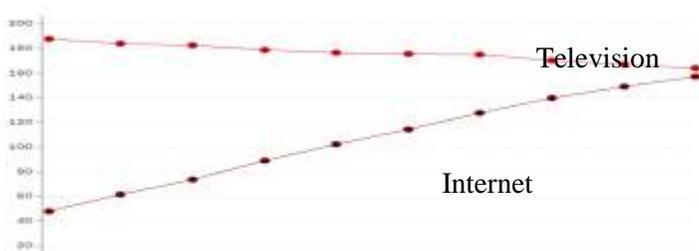


Figure 3: Television and Internet Consumptions Source: (Zenith, 2017).

The report also anticipates that the use of mobile internet in internet consumption will increase to 78% in 2018. It should be stated that mobile share in total internet consumption was 71% in 2016.

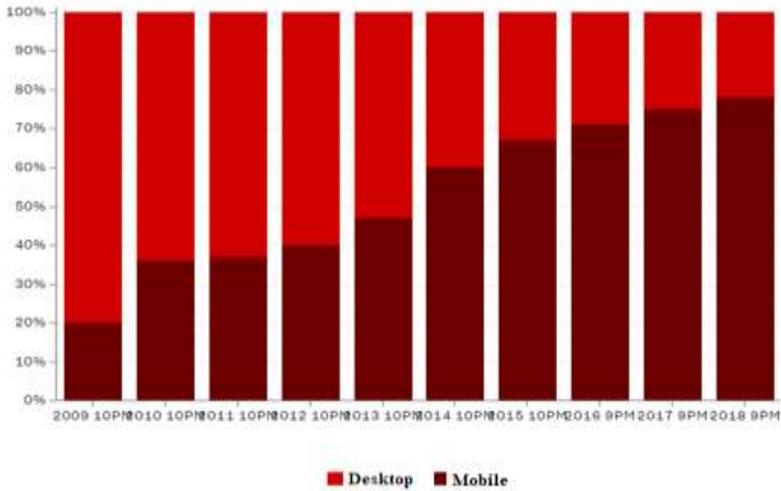


Figure 4: The Mobile Share in Internet Use Source: (Zenith, 2017).

comScore created an extensive report on the future of media consumption by applying to data from Canada, the USA, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, the United Kingdom, Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, India, Indonesia and Malaysia. The report published as ‘The Global Digital Future in Focus 2018’ handled certain subjects such as multiple platform uses according to countries and total media consumption. According to this report, multiple platform use has a 46% share in total media consumption. Figure 5 gives multiple platform use according to countries.

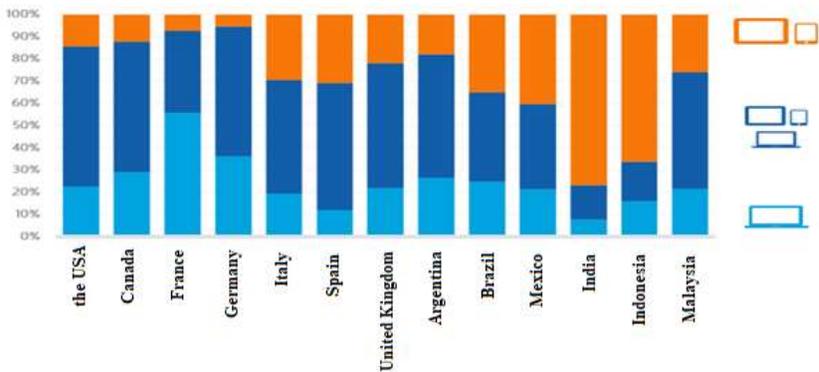


Figure 5: Multiple Platform Use According to CountriesSource: (comScore, 2018).

The report revealed that mobile media consumption time is twice longer than desktop media consumption time. Argentina is the leading country as regards to mobile media consumption time with the highest score. Italy attracts attention as the country with the shortest mobile media consumption time.

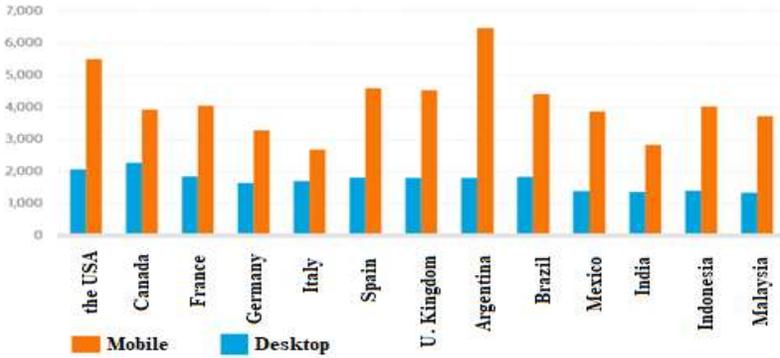


Figure 6: Media Consumption Time According to Countries Source: (comScore, 2018).

Beside the rest of the world, there are also sectoral researches on media performed in Turkey. One of the first studies that intend to analyse the media consumption of the youth in Turkey was carried out in 2012 by Youth Insight. According to the results that are obtained in consequence of online and face-to-face interviews with 4300 young people from universities, high school, business lines and unemployed population, the youth consume media in a fast and multiple way as they adopt new generation mass media faster than the other sections of the society and change their life perspectives, values, consumption habits and socializing styles with the technological transformation. According to the research, the youth who spend their time online more than 40 hours in a week see internet as a phenomenon that ‘tie their hands’ when it lacks (Youth Insight, 2012).

In 2015, Starcom Mediavest Group Business Intelligence prepared a report titled Media Consumption Trends in Turkey 2015. According to the information stated in the report, television access diminished to 77% in 2015 from 81% in 2014. In this process, internet penetration increased, and the use of mobile phones went up to 35% from 31%. (Starcom Mediavest Group Business Intelligence, 2015).

In 2015, Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism conducted a study in 18 countries including Turkey titled Digital News Report. Turkey has a performance above the average (88%; the average is 80%) in relation to digital news consumption. 55% of Turkish participants specified that the main medium was PC for them as regards to digital news consumption while 28% asserted that they read the news through their mobile phones. The rate of Turkish participants who said that they received the news through their tablets was 6%. Furthermore, Turkey, among the other studied countries, was the country where social media was the most popular source of news with 67%.

In the report published as Research on Changing Trends in Media Consumption, Stroer Kentvizyon revealed that television sustained its place in media consumption, but the growing urban movement and the expansion of technology use made outdoor and internet consumption surpass printed media and radio. Indoor media consumption shows an increase from morning to evening. Television and internet are the most followed media at homes for they are always within arm's reach. Printed media following rates are very low while even the newspapers are read digitally. The rate of people who follow the internet in early hours is higher but change to television increase in late hours when people are at home (Stroer Kentvizyon, 2018).

Though the developing technology renders it possible to watch television outdoors, this mostly accessed and utilized platform in Turkey is watched at homes only. 4 of each 10 people interviewed do not follow any platform while not at home. Such result is a considerable finding that outdoors have an unrivaled effect in their lives when not at home. The fact that they don't watch television except for at home confirms the proposition by Stroer that states 'One who is not captured by television is captured by the open air'.

5. 2. The Academic Studies Conducted on Media Consumption

Media consumption is analysed by various disciplines as well as communication sciences. Media consumption researches are practiced on different areas for all age groups from kindergarten group to adults. This chapter will narrate the results of academic researches where media consumption is analysed by various disciplines.

Genuneit, Brockmann, Schlarb and Rothenbacher (2018) carried out a study which investigated the effect of media consumption in early childhood on sleeping quality. According to the results obtained from the study, it was found out that the children of 39% of parents never read books but consumes media, and that, in contrast to reading books, media consumption decreases the quality of sleep in children aged 2-3.

Uhls and Robb (2017) also conducted a study on the media consumption of children. Uhls and Robb stated that media consumption can both be positive and negative, and emphasized the importance of parental observance for children's media consumption. In this context, they pointed out that parents should become role models for their children in order that they can control the media consumption of their children and stressed the prominence of establishing precise and clear rules as regards to media consumption. According to the researchers, thus the media consumption of children can be adjusted to an acceptable time and fit into family's media consumption plan.

Struckmann and Karnowski (2016) carried out a study on media consumption in order to describe the news consumption in changing media

ecology. In this study which conceived that the rapid and prevalent expansion of smart phones, tablets and similar other devices can affect news consumption and carry it to “niches in time and space”, it was inferred that situational conditions affect the choice of device for news consumption, desktop is the most utilized platform for news consumption and mobile devices have supportive roles before desktop devices for news consumption.

Lee, Lindsey and Kim (2017) carried out a study in order to determine the effect of news consumption by social media and news loading on the perception of journalism norms and applications. According to the results attained with the study, social media news consumption is associated with the speed of journalism. Besides, social media news consumption is also related with the rejection of traditional journalism norms. Finally, news consumption interacts with news loading and affects the quality of perceived news.

As regards to the researches on media consumption carried out in Turkey, Demir (2008) performed a qualitative study on the media consumption of young women of Elazığ. National television channels of Turkey mostly centre on Istanbul in newscasting and program preparation processes even though there are sociocultural differences between eastern and western parts of Turkey. In an environment that is shaped by rapid social changes, the “other Turkish” individuals living in Eastern Turkey far from Istanbul need the guidance of media in order to comprehend the social reality in which they live. According to the results obtained by the study, the young women discover that there are different lifestyles as they tend to media consumption and they cannot free themselves from the grip of customs and traditions when they want to behave like their peers in Istanbul. The life as the young woman see and the life as they experience contradict each other (Demir, 2008).

Balci ve Kocak (2017) realized a study in order to reveal the relation between media consumption and life satisfaction. According to the results of the study, there is a significant positive relation between the life satisfaction levels of university students and the frequency of their weekly television watching while there is a significant negative relation between their life satisfaction and the frequency of internet and social media use. It is arresting that daily social media use times decrease as the life satisfaction of the participants increase. Those who have lower life satisfaction use social media more frequently as a habit. Similarly, the frequency of social media use as a way of making use of leisure time decreases as the life satisfaction of the participants increases. Hence, it was revealed that media consumption is directly proportioned with life satisfaction.

Sener and Ozturk (2015) carried out a study on 115 university students between 17-27 ages with which they examined the program / content

preferences of university students on traditional and digital media. According to this study, the participants stated that they watched television daily for 1,4 hours while the time spent for the internet reached up to 6 hours. The rate of going to the movies is 2,2 monthly. The participants declared that they mostly watched comedy, action, adventure, talk show and movie programs on television. In cinema, they preferred comedy, action and science fiction / fantasy movies.

Sepetci and Mencet (2017) realized a study in order to determine the media utilization habits and educational internet utilization of the students of Akdeniz University. According to the results of this study; the program types the students watch on television, the time they spend on social media, their habits of reading books, newspapers and periodicals and the quality of time spent on the internet do not differ from the rest of the country. The use of social media as a means of education is insufficient at both student and academic member levels.

6. The Purpose and the Method of the Study

This study which was performed in order to describe the media use behaviours of university students is a qualitative research. A qualitative research seeks out manners, behaviours and experiences. It may take a longer time to contact with individuals as part of a study since the necessary subjects are manners, behaviours and experiences (Dawson,2015:19).

This study was conducted by qualitative field research and carried out to determine the media consumption habits of university students. As regards to qualitative field research, observation is not made for comprehending a single matter but an entirety. Examination is performed in natural conditions and there are no manipulated experiment conditions. In qualitative design, data is collected by questionnaire and the answers are assessed filtering through statistical processes. The present conditions are tried to comprehend and explain as they are (in the present situation) (Erdogan, 2012:159).

Especially after the recent expansion of wideband internet and the intrusion of mobile media in every part of life, media consumption has started to undergo a change and the internet started to replace traditional media tools. Even though researches claim that television is still the most consumed media tool, it is probable that the internet will usurp the throne of television in the near future. Particularly, the fact that the individuals of Y generation (millennials) were born and grew up with the internet will lead media consumption to shift more towards the internet both today and in the future. In this context, it is of great importance to determine the media consumption habits of university students belonging to Y generation (millennials) in order that the industry professionals and academicians can

establish an idea about the future media consumption. In this context, this study focuses on the media consumption habits of university students.

6.1 The Population and Sample of the Research

The population of this study consists of the university students who receive education all around Turkey while the sample is made up of 1100 students, in total, who take education in the universities of Istanbul. This study avails of purposeful sampling among non-probabilistic sampling methods. Purpose sampling examines purposive individuals who were preselected (Erdogan, 2012:210). In this study in which university students are accepted as sampling, 'convenience sampling' was used which is applied to for the purposes described by Patton (1990).

6.2 The Limitations of the Research

This study may not reflect the media consumption habits of the nation and of the nation-wide university students for it was performed only in one city. For this reason, it will be useful to conduct further studies on the university students of various cities in order to add a complementary characteristic to this one.

6.3 Data Collection tools and the Collection of the Data

For the purpose of this research, the researcher created a questionnaire form which consisted of 10 multiple-choice statements in the first chapter, 5 Likert type statements in the second chapter and 39 statements in total as well as personal information such as sex and age. Likert type scale is generally a double-sided scale with a neutral point, two positive and two negative stages which add up to five choices in total (Erdogan,2012:248). The questionnaire form was distributed to the students by face-to-face interview and the data was collected by the questionnaire responsible. Questionnaire is a data collection method applied by asking written questions and receiving written answers. In social sciences, it is usually a method practiced in order to obtain written information about the condition, manner, behaviour, knowledge and opinion of an individual (Dasdemir,2016:92).

6.4 The Findings of the Research:

This part of the study represents the findings obtained in this research.

6.4.1 Personal Features Analyses

Of the university who participated in this research, 51,82 were males while 48,18 were females. 65,45% of the participants belonged to 18-25 age group while 30% belonged to 26-34 age group. 32,73% of the participants stated that they use 3-4 hours of internet every day.

Table 1. Personal Features

Sex:	N	%	Internet Use Time	N	%
Male	570	51.82	Less Than 1 Hour	30	2.73
Female	530	48.18	1-2 Hours	120	10.91
Age	N	%	3-4 Hours	360	32.73
18-25	720	65.45	5-6 Hours	270	24.55
26-34	330	30.00	7-8 Hours	240	21.82
35 or Above	50	4.55	More Than 8 Hours	80	7.27
Total			1100	100	

6.4.2 The Descriptive Statistics for Media Consumption

All the participants have smart phones and spend approximately 2 hours on the internet using their mobile phones. There are 190 students who have tablets and they are on the internet 1-3 hours through their tablets. The number of participants who have laptops is 400. These participants are generally on the internet from 1 to 3 hours through their laptops. Finally, the number of the participants who own a desktop is 4.

Table 2. Daily Use Time for Channels

	Less Than 1 Hour	1-2 Hours	2-3 Hours	3-4 Hours	More Than 4 Hours	Total
Smart Phone	30	120	310	360	280	1100
Tablet PC	10	110	70	0	0	190
Laptop	0	240	130	30	0	400
Computer	10	20	10	0	0	40
Total	500	490	520	390	280	

The university students participated in the study were asked what programs types they watched mostly on television and they were allowed to give more than one answer. For this reason, the total number of answers is higher than the total number of participants. According to this, the participants mostly watched sports programs on television (16,98%) while the religious programs were the least watched programs (1,35%).

Table 3. The Most Frequently Watched Program Types on Television

	N	%
Sports	630	16.98
Documentary	520	14.02
Movie	460	12.40
Serials	430	11.59
Newscast and news programs	420	11.32
Music-Entertainment	280	7.55
Travel Programs	250	6.74
Discussion	210	5.66
Tabloid Programs	190	5.12

Economy Programs	170	4.58
Cartoons	100	2.70
Religious Programs	50	1.35
Total	3710	100.00

The university students participated in the study were asked what programs types they listened to mostly on radio and they were allowed to give more than one answer. For this reason, the total number of answers is higher than the total number of participants. According to this, the participants mostly listened to music-entertainment programs on radio (42%). The least listened programs were religious programs (1%).

Table 4. The Most Frequently Listened Program Types on Radio

	N	%
Music-Entertainment	840	42.00
Newscast and news programs	450	22.50
Sports	210	10.50
Economy Programs	170	8.50
Tabloid Programs	150	7.50
Discussion	130	6.50
Travel Programs	30	1.50
Religious Programs	20	1.00
Total	2000	100.00

The young people who were given questionnaires were asked what movie genres they preferred in cinema among national and foreign productions and were allowed to give multiple answers. The participants mostly preferred comedy (18,99%), drama (17,16%) and romantic comedy (15,79%) among national movies while they mostly chose adventure (10,49%), crime (10,07%) and thriller and comedy (9,09%) movies among foreign productions.

Table 5. The Most Preferred Genres in Cinema

National	N	%	Foreign	N	%
Comedy	830	18.99	Adventure	750	10.49
Drama	750	17.16	Crime	720	10.07
Romantic Comedy	690	15.79	Thriller	650	9.09
Family	560	12.81	Comedy	650	9.09
Adventure	250	5.72	Science Fiction	540	7.55
Thriller	230	5.26	Historical	530	7.41
Action	210	4.81	Action	490	6.85
Crime	180	4.12	Biography	470	6.57
Historical	170	3.89	War	460	6.43
Science Fiction	13	2.97	Romantic Comedy	360	5.03
Biography	11	2.52	Drama	340	4.76

Mystery	10	2.29	Fantastic	340	4.76
Fantastic	70	1.60	Mystery	310	4.34
Sports	50	1.14	Sports	250	3.50
War	40	0.92	Family	130	1.82
Animation	0	0.00	Animation	130	1.82
Western	0	0.00	Western	30	0.42
Total	4370	100.00	Total	7150	100.00

The participants were asked how many times they enter to social media platforms in a day. According to this, the participants generally enter to Facebook and Facebook Messenger less than 5 times, to Twitter more than 10 times and to Whatsapp and Instagram more than 5 times in a day. It was found out that LinkedIn and Swarm-Foursquare did not grab attention much, that entry to LinkedIn was less than 5 in a day and that the number of participants who did not have a Swarm-Foursquare account is much higher than those who have.

Table 5. Daily Going Online Frequency on Social Media Platforms

	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More
Facebook	100	690	210	50	0
Twitter	50	40	210	350	410
Instagram	20	80	570	230	150
Whatsapp	0	40	310	460	210
Facebook Messenger	30	1070	0	0	0
LinkedIn	310	790	0	0	0
Swarm-Foursquare	750	350	0	0	0

6.4.3 The Descriptive Statistics for Media Consumption Purposes

As regards to the consumption purposes intended for television, newspaper-periodical, internet and social media platforms, the descriptive statistics of the university students of research sample are given in Table 7.

Television: The participants mostly use television for making use of leisure time and entertainment (mean deviation: 4,07; standard deviation: 0,978). For television, the purpose of use with the lowest value is guidance and relaxation (mean deviation: 3,47; standard deviation: 0,758).

Newspaper - Periodical: The participants mostly use newspaper-periodical for making use of leisure time and entertainment (mean deviation: 3,28; standard deviation: 1,003). For newspaper-periodical, the purpose of use with the lowest value is social escape (mean deviation: 2,88; standard deviation: 0,967).

Internet: The participants use the internet mostly for making use of their leisure time and entertainment (mean deviation: 4,38; standard deviation: 0,688). and for information and social interaction (mean deviation: 4,39; standard deviation: 0,712).. For the internet, the purpose

of use with the lowest value is observation, guidance and relaxation (mean deviation: 3,77; standard deviation: 0,733).

Social Media: The participants mostly use social media for personal presentation (mean deviation: 4,48; standard deviation: 0,787). For social media, the purpose of use with the lowest value is observation, guidance and relaxation (mean deviation: 3,63; standard deviation: 0,784).

Table 6. The Descriptive Statistics for Media Consumption Purposes

	Television		Newspaper - Periodical		Internet		Social Media	
	\bar{X}	SS	\bar{X}	SS	\bar{X}	SS	\bar{X}	SS
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	4.07	0.978	3.28	1.003	4.38	0.688	4.45	0.713
Information and Social Interaction	3.77	0.966	2.97	1.132	4.39	0.712	4.38	0.781
Observation- Guidance- Relaxation	3.47	0.758	3.01	0.999	3.77	0.733	3.63	0.784
Social Escape	3.78	0.781	2.88	0.967	4.13	0.763	4.21	0.814
Economy	3.57	0.924	3.03	1.135	4.42	0.826	3.97	0.799
Personal Presentation					4.13	0.811	4.48	0.836
General	3.73	0.881	3.03	1.047	4.20	0.755	4.19	0.787

6.4.4 Statistical Analyses

This chapter features the T Test and ANOVA analyses which were performed in order to determine whether the purposes of use of television, newspaper-periodical, internet and social media platforms vary according to the sexes and ages of the participants.

Television Use

Unpaired T Test was availed of in order to determine whether the consumption purposes of television of the participants vary according to their sexes. In consequence of the analyses, it was found out that the purposes of use of all the subdimensions varied according to the sexes of the participants except for observation, guidance and relaxation subdimension ($p=0,067 > 0,05$) (p values of all subdimensions are higher than the extreme value which is 0,05). According to this, the females apply to television as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment more frequently compared to the males ($\bar{X}_{Female} > \bar{X}_{Male}$), while the males watch television as a means of information and social interaction, social escape and economy more frequently compared to the females ($\bar{X}_{Male} > \bar{X}_{Female}$).

Table 7. T Test of Television Consumption Purpose According to the Sexes

Sex:		N	\bar{X}	SS	t	p
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	Male	570	4.01	1.089	2.781	0.021
	Female	530	4.13	1.088		
Information and Social Interaction	Male	570	3.85	0.976	2.967	0.016
	Female	530	3.69	0.967		
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	Male	570	3.57	0.857	0.968	0.067
	Female	530	3.37	0.891		
Social Escape	Male	570	3.89	0.723	2.675	0.033
	Female	530	3.67	0.747		
Economy	Male	570	3.77	0.792	2.783	0.023
	Female	530	3.37	0.811		

ANOVA analysis was used to determine whether television consumption varies according to ages. In consequence of the ANOVA analysis, it was seen that television consumption varied according to ages in all subdimensions except for social escape subdimension ($p=0,184 > 0,05$) (p values of all subdimensions are lower than the extreme value which is $0,05$). Tukey analysis was used in the determination of this difference. In consequence of Tukey Test, it was found out that the 18-25 age group watch television as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,013 < 0,05$), information and social interaction ($p=0,003 < 0,05$), observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,016 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the 26-34 age group. On the other hand, the participants who are above 35 watch television as a means of economy more frequently compared to the 26-34 age group ($p=0,047 < 0,05$).

Table 8. ANOVA Analysis of Television Consumption Purpose According to**Ages**

Age	N	\bar{X}	SS	F	p	Difference	
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	18-25	720	4.13	0.768	2.875	0.013	1-2
	26-34	330	4.10	0.986			
	35 or Above	50	3.98	0.927			
Information and Social Interaction	18-25	720	3.80	0.781	3.004	0.003	1-2
	26-34	330	3.83	0.729			
	35 or Above	50	3.68	0.938			
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	18-25	720	3.50	1.002	2.967	0.016	1-2
	26-34	330	3.53	1.005			
	35 or Above	50	3.38	0.997			
Social Escape	18-25	720	3.81	0.983	0.967	0.184	
	26-34	330	3.81	0.928			
	35 or Above	50	3.72	0.991			
Economy	18-25	720	3.48	1.005	1.967	0.047	2-3
	26-34	330	3.60	1.043			
	35 or Above	50	3.63	1.067			

Newspaper and Periodical Use

Unpaired T Test was availed of in order to determine whether the consumption purposes of newspaper and periodical of the participants vary according to their sexes. In consequence, it was found out that none of the subdimensions of consumption purpose showed difference according to the sexes (p values of all subdimensions are higher than the extreme value which is 0,05).

Table 9. T Test of Newspaper and Periodical Consumption Purpose According to the Sexes

Sex:		N	\bar{X}	SS	t	p
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	Male	570	3.33	0.789	0.961	0.089
	Female	530	3.23	0.681		
Information and Social Interaction	Male	570	3.01	0.787	0.896	0.097
	Female	530	2.93	0.829		
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	Male	570	3.04	0.819	1.072	0.075
	Female	530	2.98	0.879		
Social Escape	Male	570	2.90	0.918	1.002	0.071
	Female	530	2.86	0.982		
Economy	Male	570	3.05	0.963	0.681	0.297
	Female	530	3.01	0.819		

ANOVA analysis was used to determine whether newspaper and periodical consumption varies according to ages. In consequence of the ANOVA analysis, it was found out that none of the subdimensions of consumption purpose showed difference according to the ages (p values of all subdimensions are higher than the extreme value which is 0,05).

Table 10. ANOVA Analysis of Newspaper and Periodical Consumption Purpose According to Ages

Age		N	\bar{X}	SS	F	p
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	18-25	72	3.36	0.678	0.978	0.278
	26-34	33	3.32	0.783		
	35 or Above	5	3.16	0.876		
Information and Social Interaction	18-25	72	3.05	1.082	0.648	0.487
	26-34	33	3.01	1.065		
	35 or Above	5	2.85	1.198		
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	18-25	72	3.09	0.891	0.798	0.275
	26-34	33	3.05	0.887		
	35 or Above	5	2.89	0.972		
Social Escape	18-25	72	2.96	0.916	0.815	0.206
	26-34	33	2.92	0.945		
	35 or Above	5	2.76	0.891		
Economy	18-25	72	3.11	1.002	0.866	0.215
	26-34	33	3.07	1.057		
	35 or Above	5	2.91	1.129		

Internet Use

Unpaired T Test was availed of in order to determine whether the consumption purposes of the internet of the participants vary according to their sexes. In consequence of the unpaired T test results, it was found out that all of the subdimensions of consumption purposes showed difference according to the sexes (p values of all subdimensions is lower than the extreme value which is 0,05). According to this, the males use the internet as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,006 < 0,05$), observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,012 < 0,05$), social escape ($p=0,034 < 0,05$) and economy ($p=0,041 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the females while the females use the internet as a way of information and social interaction ($p=0,009 < 0,05$) and personal presentation ($p=0,000 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the males.

Table 11. T Test of Internet Consumption Purpose According to the Sexes

Sex:		N	\bar{X}	SS	t	p
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	Male	570	4.43	1.008	4.091	0.006
	Female	530	4.33	1.073		
Information and Social Interaction	Male	570	4.35	0.976	3.981	0.009
	Female	530	4.43	0.986		
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	Male	570	3.80	0.681	3.675	0.012
	Female	530	3.74	0.622		
Social Escape	Male	570	4.15	0.712	2.761	0.034
	Female	530	4.11	0.782		
Economy	Male	570	4.44	1.078	2.868	0.041
	Female	530	4.40	1.192		
Personal Presentation	Male	570	4.14	1.119	4.354	0.000
	Female	530	4.26	1.096		

ANOVA analysis was used to determine whether internet consumption varies according to ages. In consequence of the ANOVA analysis, it was found out that internet consumption showed difference in all the subdimensions according to the ages (p values of all subdimensions are higher than the extreme value which is 0,05). Tukey analysis was used in the determination of this difference. In consequence of Tukey Test, it was found out that the 18-25 age group use the internet as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,041 < 0,05$), social escape ($p=0,015 < 0,05$), personal presentation ($p=0,037 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the 26-34 age group. Furthermore, the students of 26-34 age group consume the internet for making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,041 < 0,05$), observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,033 < 0,05$) and economy ($p=0,016 < 0,05$) less frequently compared to 35+ age group. Finally, the students of 18-25 age group consume the internet for information and social interaction ($p=0,036 < 0,05$),

observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,033 < 0,05$) and personal presentation ($p=0,037 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to 35+ age group.

Hence, the uses for sociability and fun such as making use of leisure time and entertainment, information and social interaction, social escape and personal presentation increase as the age decreases while the more rational uses such as observation, guidance and relaxation and economy increase as the age also increases.

Table 12. ANOVA Analysis of Internet Consumption Purpose According to Ages

Age	N	\bar{X}	SS	F	p	Difference	
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	18-25	720	4.46	0.678	3.076	0.041	1-2
	26-34	330	4.42	0.781			2-3
	35 or Above	50	4.26	0.719			
Information and Social Interaction	18-25	720	4.47	0.819	3.657	0.036	1-3
	26-34	330	4.43	0.824			
	35 or Above	50	4.27	0.823			
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	18-25	720	3.65	0.781	3.712	0.033	1-3
	26-34	330	3.81	0.792			2-3
	35 or Above	50	3.85	0.719			
Social Escape	18-25	720	4.21	0.971	4.013	0.015	1-2
	26-34	330	4.17	0.956			
	35 or Above	50	4.01	0.946			
Economy	18-25	720	4.50	0.861	4.001	0.016	2-3
	26-34	330	4.30	0.899			
	35 or Above	50	4.46	0.719			
Personal Presentation	18-25	720	4.28	0.788	3.365	0.037	1-2
	26-34	330	4.24	0.799			1-3
	35 or Above	50	4.08	0.913			

Social Media Use

Unpaired T Test was availed of in order to determine whether the consumption purposes of social media of the participants vary according to their sexes. In consequence of the unpaired T test results, it was found out that all of the subdimensions of consumption purposes showed difference according to the sexes (p values of all subdimensions is lower than the extreme value which is 0,05). According to this, the males use the social as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,008 < 0,05$), observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,011 < 0,05$), social escape ($p=0,038 < 0,05$) and economy ($p=0,033 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the females while the females use the social media as a way of information and social interaction ($p=0,011 < 0,05$) and personal presentation ($p=0,000 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the males.

Table 13. T Test of Social Media Consumption Purpose According to the Sexes

Sex:	N	\bar{X}	SS	t	p	
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	Male	570	4.50	0.994	4.078	0.008
	Female	530	4.40	1.059		
Information and Social Interaction	Male	570	4.42	0.962	3.961	0.011
	Female	530	4.34	0.972		
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	Male	570	3.66	0.667	3.689	0.013
	Female	530	3.60	0.608		
Social Escape	Male	570	4.23	0.698	2.701	0.038
	Female	530	4.19	0.768		
Economy	Male	570	3.99	1.064	2.891	0.033
	Female	530	3.95	1.178		
Personal Presentation	Male	570	4.54	1.105	4.375	0.000
	Female	530	4.42	1.082		

ANOVA analysis was used to determine whether social media consumption varies according to ages. In consequence of the ANOVA analysis, it was found out that social media consumption showed difference in all the subdimensions according to the ages (p values of all subdimensions are higher than the extreme value which is 0,05). Tukey analysis was used in the determination of this difference. In consequence of Tukey Test, it was found out that the 18-25 age group use social media as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,045 < 0,05$) and personal presentation ($p=0,029 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to the 26-34 age group. Besides, university students of 35+ age group use social media for observation, guidance and relaxation ($p=0,028 < 0,05$) and economy ($p=0,005 < 0,05$) more frequently compared to 26-34 age group. Finally, 18-25 age group use social media for making use of their leisure time and entertainment ($p=0,045 < 0,05$), information and social interaction ($p=0,038 < 0,05$) and personal presentation ($p=0,029 < 0,05$) more frequently and for economy ($p=0,005 < 0,05$) less frequently compared to 35+ age group.

Hence, the uses for sociability and fun such as making use of leisure time and entertainment, information and social interaction, social escape and personal presentation increase as the age decreases while the more rational uses such as observation, guidance and relaxation and economy increase as the age also increases.

Table 14. ANOVA Analysis of Social Media Consumption Purpose According to Ages

Age	N	\bar{X}	SS	F	p	Difference	
Use of Leisure time and Entertainment	18-25	720	4.53	0.664	3.172	0.045	1-2
	26-34	330	4.49	0.767			1-3
	35 or Above	50	4.33	0.705			
Information and Social Interaction	18-25	720	4.46	0.805	3.398	0.038	1-3
	26-34	330	4.42	0.810			

	35 or Above	50	4.26	0.809			
Observation, Guidance and Relaxation	18-25	720	3.51	0.767	3.812	0.028	2-3
	26-34	330	3.67	0.778			
	35 or Above	50	3.71	0.705			
Social Escape	18-25	720	4.09	0.957	4.865	0.010	2-3
	26-34	330	4.25	0.942			
	35 or Above	50	4.29	0.932			
Economy	18-25	720	3.85	0.847	4.891	0.005	1-3
	26-34	330	4.01	0.885			
	35 or Above	50	4.05	0.705			
Personal Presentation	18-25	720	4.56	0.774	3.883	0.029	1-2
	26-34	330	4.52	0.785			
	35 or Above	50	4.36	0.899			1-3

Conclusion

This study was carried out in order to determine the media consumption habits of Turkish university students who receive education in Turkey. According to the results obtained in this research, all the university students have smart phones. They mostly watch sports, documentaries, movies and serials on television while they mostly listen to music-entertainment, newscast and sports programs on radio. In cinema, mostly comedy, drama and romantic comedy genres are preferred among Turkish productions while adventure, crime, thriller and comedy movies are the leading genres that are preferred among foreign movies.

When we analyze the social media consumption, we can see that the participants generally enter to Facebook and Facebook Messenger less than 5 times, to Twitter more than 10 times and to Whatsapp and Instagram more than 5 times in a day. Therefore, it is possible to claim that the popularity of Facebook and Facebook Messenger has gone into a decline in social media consumption. Instagram and Whatsapp are the most frequently consumed social media platforms.

The students consume television, the internet and newspaper-periodical mostly for making use of their leisure time and entertainment while the main purpose of consumption of social media is personal presentation.

In consequence of the statistical analysis made in order to determine whether media consumption varied according to sexes and ages, it was observed that the females used television for making use of their leisure time and entertainment more frequently compared to the males while the males used television for information and social interaction, social escape and economy more frequently compared to the females.

The males use the internet as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment, observation, guidance and relaxation and economy more frequently compared to the females while the females use the internet as a way of information and social interaction and personal presentation

more frequently compared to the males. As regards to social media consumption, the males use the social media as a way of making use of their leisure time and entertainment, observation, guidance and relaxation and economy more frequently compared to the females while the females use the social media as a way of information and social interaction and personal presentation more frequently compared to the males.

It is also a subject of this study whether media consumption vary according to ages. Accordingly; as regards to the internet consumption, the uses for sociability and fun such as making use of leisure time and entertainment, information and social interaction, social escape and personal presentation increase as the age decreases while the more rational uses such as observation, guidance and relaxation and economy increase as the age also increases. Similarly; as regards to the use of social media, the uses for sociability and fun such as making use of leisure time and entertainment, information and social interaction, social escape and personal presentation increase as the age decreases while the more rational uses such as observation, guidance and relaxation and economy increase as the age also increases.

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JOB SATISFACTION IN TURKISH CALL CENTERS

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Introduction

“I need money until I find a job. I don’t consider this as a career. We just get burnt out and have no career plans.” (employee, university graduate, Istanbul)

Women workers in the growing call centre sector of Turkey are facing many challenges. Although they discuss some positive aspects of the job such as helping people, the negative sides of the work dominate the workers’ views about their jobs. This study aims to understand the working conditions of women in Turkish call centres and the factors that affect their satisfaction from their jobs.

Call centres are hubs of communication that connect customers and providers through the use of various forms of communication such as telephone, web, fax and email. With nearly 10 million call tables worldwide, the sector is also growing in Turkey. Both the market share and the number of employees in the sector have increased over the last years: while in 2007 the number of call centres in Turkey was 250, this increased to 940 in 2008 with 35.000 workers in the sector and the market share rose to 250 million dollars (Man & Selek Öz 2009, p: 85).

Mostly female workers are employed in call centres worldwide (Ng & Mitter, 2005). In Turkey the higher rate of female employment in this sector is striking because the overall rate of female labour force participation is much lower (around 29%) than the OECD countries. As girls’ educational attainment has increased globally and the values that approve women’s paid employment have been accepted more widely, female labour force participation has increased in the OECD countries (Thévenon, 2013). However despite some positive developments in Turkey, the female labour force participation is still lower than the OECD average. Therefore the case of call centres, in which 70% of the workforce is composed of women, deserves the scholarly attention it gets in the last decade.

Working in call centres demands good communication with the customers and this is associated with ‘feminine’ personality traits, such as being kind and comforting even to difficult customers (Hochschild, 2012; Mirchandani 2005). Women are regarded as more manageable, more chatty, lively and tolerant (Belt, Richardson & Webster 2000). A gendered

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division of labour is prevalent globally, where women work at low-status jobs; patriarchal relations remain intact, through gender-based division of labor, by which “women are chiefly responsible for different tasks than are men” (Chafetz 1991, p: 77). As power and authority are distributed unequally in society, managing acts are also unequal for different groups of people, affecting women more deeply (Man & Selek Öz 2009; van Jaarsveld & Poster 2013).

Call centre work is mainly conceptualised with the idea of Taylorism, which is about the organisational techniques that discipline labour, regards the worker as a mechanic unit and aims increased productivity in the work place. The control is not only on the physical labour but also on managing emotions and giving the impression that one enjoys her work (Man & Selek Öz 2009, p 78). Call centre workers engage in an intersection of white and blue collar work; having high school and above level of education and working in office jobs on the one hand and performing tiring and repetitive tasks, having minimal control over the work process on the other. The major problems in this sector have been identified as high labour turnover, sickness absence rates, problems with motivation and commitment caused by an intrinsically demanding labour process, lack of promotion opportunities in flat structures, and loss of staff following an investment in training (Bain and Taylor 1999). The heavy work load in this sector reduces employees’ satisfaction (Keser 2006; Dellagi & Bouslama 2014; Malouche & Bouslama 2015). Call centres are regarded as the new sweatshops of capitalism (Man & Selek Öz 2009, p: 81).

The satisfaction of the call centre workers mainly comes from being employed at all, while they suffer from many problems that lower their job satisfaction. Two major approaches that explain the factors affecting job satisfaction are Job Demand Control Model (JDC) and Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (ERI) (de Jonge et al 2000) and these will guide our analysis of the call centre workers’ job satisfaction. According to JDC model, the joint effects of low decision latitude and heavy job demands create mental strain (Karasek 1979). The psychological demands of the job from the worker and having control over the work process determine the workers’ satisfaction from the job; when they have demanding jobs with minimal control their mental strain increases. The stress factors such as time pressure and mental difficulties constitute high demands from the worker. ERM model focuses on the balance (or the lack thereof) between the efforts made by the worker and the rewards s/he receives. High-cost and low-gain conditions bring the most stress to the employee (Siegrist 1996). Money, esteem and status control are the components of rewards for the employees. The joint effects of various factors influence job satisfaction and pay level is only marginally affecting it (Judge et al 2010). Both models provide valuable insight for understanding the conditions in

the Turkish call centres. Our findings show that the mismatch between efforts and rewards is the largest problem that reduces the workers' job satisfaction. In addition high demands of the job due to time pressure and culture-specific issues that cause conflict between job demands and social norms on gender also affect job satisfaction negatively.

1. Methodology and Data

This study is based on a mixed methods research. This helped us examine the factors that influence job satisfaction while having a better understanding of the research participants' views. The quantitative section includes questionnaires with 1448 women employees from 6 Turkish cities (Ankara, Erzurum, Istanbul, Izmir, Kocaeli and Samsun) that were conducted between 11 November and 10 December 2014. The research participants' average age is 26,8 and they work in the fields of telecommunication, finance and logistics within the public and private sectors. The questionnaires cover the overall satisfaction with the firm and the evaluation of their jobs on various items such as the work environment, opportunities for self-development, management, payment policies, cooperation and communication, performance, relations with the management and company's reputation. Open-ended questions were also used in order to determine the respondents' fears and suggestions for improvement.

The study's trust level was measured as 95%. Likert scale was used in asking the close-ended questions. The answer options ranged from 1 (least suitable) to 5 (most suitable). In addition to measuring the success level for each item, an impact-success axis was calculated for each category. This meant that for each item, the research participants reported how satisfied they are as well as how important that particular item is for themselves. So for instance if an item is very important yet evaluated very negatively, the item would be placed in the urgent improvement area.

After the quantitative phase was completed, 3 focus groups with a total of 24 female employees and in-depth interviews with 16 employer representatives were conducted. These covered the reasons for working in the job, working conditions, relations between workers and managers, solidarity among the employees and the problems they face.

2. The components of women's job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex issue. The joint effects of multiple factors should be considered in order to understand job satisfaction (de Jonge et. al. 2000). Some components of it emerge as having more powerful effect on workers than some others. In this section 9 components of job satisfaction are presented from most problematic to most positively-evaluated.

The overall job satisfaction is 2,94 out of 5, which is slightly under moderately satisfied. While only 22,2% of the respondents are satisfied with their jobs (total % of satisfied and very satisfied), 42% were somewhat satisfied and 30% were unsatisfied (total % of unsatisfied and very unsatisfied). The most satisfied province was Erzurum (4/5) and the least was Ankara (2,66/5). Below the participants' responses to each category and their answers in the impact-success axis will be presented.

2.1. Wage policies and social benefits

This category has been the least successful one and only 30,2% of the respondents found the wages and benefits in their company either successful or very successful. The average rating of 2,90 fell behind the overall satisfaction level (2,94).

Wage and social benefit policies are the workers' most critical problem. Not only the absolute wages¹ but also comparison between themselves and other employees either with the similar rank jobs in other companies (item 2) or within the company (item 1) reduces their satisfaction. Moreover there is an imbalance in effort-reward mechanisms which negatively affected the employee well-being (de Jonge et. al 2000; Wieclaw et. al. 2005).

The success-impact axis shows that in addition to the two items discussed above (items 1 and 2), item 5 is also within the list of urgent improvement. Since the job is physically demanding, workers need to take regular breaks and have quiet spaces where they can relax. Table 1 below shows each individual item and their score:

Table 1: Level of Satisfaction with Wage Policies and Social Benefits:
Items and Scores

1.In our company, similar wages and social benefits are provided for the jobs with similar qualities.	2,90
2.I am content with my wage compared to other people who do comparable jobs in other companies.	2,61
3.My company's transportation facilities are sufficient.	3,22
4.My company's catering facilities are sufficient.	3,47
5.In my company there is a suitable environment to spend time outside of work.	3,02
6.The health benefits in my company are sufficient.	3,10

2.2. Providing opportunities for self-improvement

The second least successful category concerns the workers' opportunities of self-improvement. 35,8 % of the respondents rated it

¹ As of 2014 the average wage was 1086 TL (nearly 500 USD).

successful or very successful and the average rating was 3,13. The employees value self-improvement and extending knowledge during the work. Given that 54,5% of the research participants have either college, university or higher degrees, they expect their work environment to provide them in-job training, facilities for self-development and opportunities for promotion upon successful completion of these. So the categories 1 and 2 can be seen as interrelated because lack of self-improvement opportunities implies the lack of promotion chances. The work organisation and the uniform tasks constrain the employee's skill development (Belt, Richardson & Webster, 2000) which causes them to regard their job as temporary.

The least successful item in this category is item 2, facilities for personal and professional development. In terms of the success-impact axis, the most urgent issue is the promotion decisions. This shows that the employees expect their managers to acknowledge their performance and create mechanisms that would promote their success.

Table 2: Level of Satisfaction with Opportunities for Self Improvement: Items and Scores

1.The company provides trainings that I need for my personal and professional development.	3,24
2.There are facilities in my workplace such as libraries that would contribute to my personal and professional development.	2,58
3.Decisions about promotion are taken fairly in my company.	2,78
4.My company extends my authority and responsibilities according to my personal and professional development.	3,06
5.In my company internal resources are evaluated first for the new tasks.	3,42

2.3. The evaluation and appreciation of work

The evaluation and appreciation of work was rated 3,15. 39,5 % of the respondents found their company successful or very successful in terms of evaluation and appreciation of the work done. The most problematic item in this category is number 5 which shows that the employees work under stress which negatively affects their lives. The reward mechanisms for individual success and the division of labour among the employees have also been rated poorly.

Although the stress level in the job is reported to be high and this is found in the secondary improvement zone. The stress factor is somewhat expected in the sector because all centre work involves non-stop human interaction and dealing with customers' complaints. It may also be self-

imposed in order to perform better and to get incentive bonuses (Tuten and Neidermeyer, 2002). The items that need urgent improvement are having a right work plan in which division of labour is done properly and individual success is acknowledged and rewarded. While the goals and expectations are made clear to the employees (items 3 and 4), the arrangements of the labour division and reward mechanism require urgent improvement.

Table 3: Level of Satisfaction with the Evaluation and Appreciation of the Work Done: Items and Scores

1.Division of labour among workers and the working conditions support the work process efficiently.	3,26
2.Division of labour among workers who do similar jobs is balanced.	3,22
3.I know the targets and standards regarding my duties and responsibilities.	4,07
4.I know how my work effects my company's work outcomes.	4,05
5.My job does not cause stress on a level that affects my life negatively.	2,89
6.My colleagues care about the work I do.	3,62
7.I can learn new things in my job.	3,81
8.Our success is noticed and appreciated.	3,32
9.Workers' individual efforts beyond expectation are rewarded.	3,09
10.I know how individual success is rewarded in my company.	3,18

2.4. Performance management

38,9% of the research participants found their company either successful or very successful on performance management. Their average rating was 3,18. The employees' lack of power in the decision making process has a significant effect on job satisfaction (Sell & Cleal 2011) and it is the largest problem within performance management. The group discussions also demonstrate that the targets to receive bonuses are almost impossible to reach. The workers feel that no matter how hard they work, their performance will not be rewarded, which lowers their overall satisfaction.

Interestingly the two problems discussed above are not among the urgent improvement zone; they appear in the second-urgent group. According to the research participants the fairness of performance evaluations should be urgently improved. Table 4 shows the items that were evaluated in this category:

Table 4: Level of Satisfaction with Performance Management

1.My opinions are considered when my targets are determined.	2,91
2.The performance evaluations in my company are fair.	3,04
3.Performance evaluations in my company are done according to clear criteria.	3,18
4.Our company has a written system for performance management which is known by every employee.	3,44
5.We regularly meet with my supervisor and evaluate my performance.	3,39
6.The results of performance evaluation play a big role in our company's promotion decisions.	3,32
7.Our performance is rewarded financially.	3,01
8.In the laying off decisions, the primary criterion is the performance level.	3,20

2.5. Work environment

The physical attributes of the workspace influences job satisfaction in call centres (Barnes, 2007). Working in shifts, issues associated with computer work, densely packed rooms, insufficient noise isolation and heat often cause occupational health problems (Houlihan, 2002; Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). In the overall the respondents rated the workplace and working conditions more positively than the other categories, with an average of 3,44 and 46,2 % of them rated this category as either successful or very successful.

In this category the lowest rated item is 4, which indicates that noise in the workplace is a problem. The success-impact axis measurements show that it is necessary to make the workplace more comfortable and pleasant urgently. Fixing the noise problem emerges in the secondary urgent improvement zone. The workers in the study might see this as an acceptable part of their job. Nevertheless, background noise is reported to be one of the most critical issues that cause occupational health problems in call centers (Houlihan, 2002; Valcour,2007; d'Errico, Caputo, Falcone, Fubini, Gilardi, Mamo & Coffano, 2010). Reducing noise hazards for call center operators who suffer from noise shock is crucial (Reville, 2006).

Table 5: Level of Satisfaction with Work Environment: Items and Scores

1.The heating, cooling and air conditioning are suitable in my work place.	3,41
2.The lighting in my workplace is sufficient.	3,69
3.My workplace is clean and tidy.	3,38
4.There is not a disturbing level of noise in my workplace.	3,16
5.Policies concerning health and safety are carried out effectively.	3,43

6.While doing my work I have access to all the materials, tools and equipment I need.	3,56
7.My workplace is suitable to do my job comfortably and pleasantly.	3,38

2.6. Higher management

The relatively higher ranking in this category shows that the workers' problems are due to the nature of the job rather than the management. The overall ranking is 3,49 and 49,2% of the respondents are either satisfied or very satisfied with the higher management.

The lowest ranked items 3 and 4 reveal that the company's decision making and communication mechanisms do not reflect the workers' concerns. The workers need to be ensured by the management that their opinions matter. Despite the relatively high ranking of the items, the issues about the higher level management are held important by the research participants and have a large impact on their evaluations. Consequently several items (1, 2, 3 and 4) emerge in the urgent improvement zone, when they are evaluated in terms of success-impact axis. The individual items are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Level of Satisfaction with the Higher Management: Items and Scores

1.The higher management sets an example with their behavior that suits the company's values.	3,44
2.When needed, we can easily access the higher level managers in our company.	3,33
3.I trust the decisions of the higher management of our company.	3,22
4.Our company's higher management has an open, honest and transparent communication style.	3,21
5.Our company abides the laws and work ethics.	3,49
6.In our company everyone has social rights.	4,05

2.7. Cooperation / communication

Cooperation and communication was rated 3,56 and 51% of the research participants were either satisfied or very satisfied with this category. The lowest mark was given to the item 2 signaling that the work environment can be improved in order to promote solidarity and cooperation. The fact that workers are not allowed to talk to each other during work makes solidarity unlikely. Nevertheless the research participants report that their coworkers would help them when needed. In the success-impact axis the items 2, 3 and 4 require urgent improvement.

These are important for developing a better work environment and giving the workers a sense of control over the work process, which highly improves job satisfaction.

Table 7: Level of Satisfaction with Work Cooperation/Communication: Items and Scores

1.In our company the tools for information flow, such as e-mails, are used efficiently.	3,69
2.The relations and communication environment in our company support solidarity and cooperation.	3,43
3.I am involved actively and efficiently in the decision making regarding my job.	3,50
4.The employees in my company respect each other.	3,59
5.I can easily get help from my colleagues when needed.	3,98

2.8. Company's reputation

The company reputation received 3,68 points and 55,7% of the research participants reported that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with it. The rankings are higher in this category; all items are above 3,50 points. Item 1 emerges in the secondarily urgent improvement section in the success-impact axis.

Table 8: Level of Satisfaction with Company's Reputation: Items and Scores

1.Our company is preferred by the people who work in this sector.	3,53
2.Our company has a good image and reputation.	3,69
3.Our company is beneficial for society.	3,71

2.9. Supervisors

With an average of 3,73 points this category was measured as the most successful one. The workers' problems are attributed to the sector and the employers and supervisors are evaluated positively. 58,7 % of the research participants found this aspect successful or very successful.

The success-impact axis shows that supervisors should have an ensuring and determined attitude toward the employees, support their development and appreciate their achievements. Although the supervisors are evaluated generously, the workers complain about not having sufficient chances for self-development and for not being rewarded for their hard work.

Table 9: Level of Satisfaction with Supervisors: Items and Scores

1.My supervisor gives us confidence with his determined attitude against difficulties.	3,60
2.My supervisor gives feedback about my job and my personal development.	3,65
3.My supervisor contributes to my personal development with his/her knowledge.	3,55
4.I can easily communicate my opinions, wishes and expectations about my job to my supervisor.	3,74
5.My supervisor shares with us the developments about our job and our company.	3,70
6.My supervisor appreciates my success in the job.	3,62

3. Overall satisfaction and working conditions

The overall evaluation of job satisfaction is slightly under moderately satisfied. While the relations with supervisors and managers and the company reputation are positively rated, wage and social benefit policies, opportunities for professional development and a transparent evaluation and reward system are the most problematic areas. Two factors increase the workers' expectations: first due to the physical and psychological demands of call centre work, the workers demand either higher wages or shorter shifts to compensate for the hard work. Second the employees' education level raises their expectations; they value the rewarding of individual progress and demand opportunities for self-development. The mismatch between their educational backgrounds, the efforts they make during the work and the material rewards in return constitutes the main cause of their low satisfaction.

A detailed analysis of the working conditions reveals the challenges facing the workers. People work in call centres 9 hours on average and some of this time includes night shifts. 11,3 % work from noon till 22:00 or later. Night shift workers are not always provided with transport facilities and this is an additional challenge, especially for women, both due to safety concerns and due to conflicts with gender norms discussed above.

Regular breaks are necessary due to the difficult working conditions. Health risks due to constant sitting, talking and listening through headphones cause spinal and hearing problems. They report having 60 minutes lunch break and 12,8 minutes of additional rest time on average. Because the incentives are given only to those who perform exceptionally well, many workers do not use their resting time at the expense of risking their health. Some research participants report not leaving the call table

during lunch so as not to lose any time.

The workers develop negative attitudes about their jobs as they their duration of employment in the company increases. The decrease in the job satisfaction is presented in Table 10 below:

Table 10: Level of Satisfaction with Work over the Years: Items and Scores

	Less than 1 year	1-2 years	Over 2 years
Overall satisfaction	3,12	2,95	2,72
Evaluation of work and appreciation	3,58	3,15	2,68
Work environment	3,78	3,44	3,06
Opportunities for self-development	3,5	3,09	2,73
1 level higher management	4	3,74	3,43
Wage policy and social benefits	3,28	2,87	2,55
Cooperation / communication	3,77	3,59	3,31
Higher management	3,86	3,5	3,06
Company reputation	3,94	3,71	3,37

Furthermore the loyalty of the workers has been measured which is presented in Table 11 below:

Table 11: Level of Loyalty to Work Place: Items and Scores

1.I am proud of working here.	3,32
2.I advise my family and friends to work here.	3,27
3.If I were to start working again, I would work here.	3,20
4.The mission and vision of my company excites me.	3,18
5.My company cares about me.	3,17
6.The developments in my company give me hope.	3,15

Loyalty and attachment to the company is on a moderate level. Especially the items 2 and 3 reveal that a significant number of employees would not prefer to work there if they had the choice and would not want their family and friends to work in their job. Also the items 4, 5 and 6 show that the employees do not feel they are valued and they are not excited or hopeful about the developments in the company. The lowest ranked item is number 6 and 29,6 % of the respondents found the statement not suitable. This can be explained with the fact that the company's success is not

reflected to the employees' well-being. When the length of employment in the company is considered, the longer they work there, less loyal they feel.

Table 12: Level of Loyalty to Work Place: Items, Scores and Years

	Less than 1 year	1-2 years	Over 2 years
1.I am proud of working in here.	3,53	3,34	2,88
2.I advice my family and friends to work here.	3,5	3,19	2,86
3.If I were to start working again, I would work here.	3,53	3,13	2,83
4.The mission and vision of my company excites me.	3,61	3,31	2,99
5.My company cares about me.	3,57	3,17	2,71
6.The developments in my company give me hope.	3,55	3,16	2,70

Loyalty to workplace, which is already on a moderate level, decreases over time. The most visivle drop is in items 5 (my company cares about me) and 6 (the developments in my company give me hope). Familiarity with the work and gaining experience in the workplace are not helpful; the workers experience more negative feelings towards their workplace as they work for longer periods of time in the company.

The wages and other social benefits of the job emerge as the largest problem. The average wage of the participants is 1086 TL, slightly over the minimum wage at the time of data collection (891 TL in 2014).

Table 13: Distribution of Variations in Monthly Salary of the Respondents

Monthly net wage	Percentage %
Less than 1000 TL	62,7%
1001 – 2000 TL	31,3%
2001 – 3000 TL	1,0%
3001 – 4000 TL	0,2%
No answer	4,8%

The wages do not increase substantially, proportionate to experience or education level, which also reduces the satisfaction over time. The employers do not reward experience or education of the workers and they do not promote self-development within the job. The increase in wages as a result of education is limited. Neither education nor experience promises the employees a rise in their wages in the future (Table 14).

Table 14: Distribution of Variations in Monthly Salary of the Respondents by Duration of Work

Wage	<1 month	1-5 months	6-12 months	1-2 years	3-4 years	5-6 years	> 7 years
< 1000 TL	72,5 %	63,9 %	77,2 %	61,5 %	65,0 %	65,3 %	50,3 %
1001-2000 TL	21,5 %	33,3 %	18,0 %	35,2 %	31,8 %	30,3 %	34,7 %
2001-3000 TL	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	1,4 %	2,2 %	10,7 %
3001-4000 TL	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	0,0 %	4,3 %
No answer	6,0 %	2,9 %	4,8 %	3,3 %	1,8 %	2,2 %	0,0 %

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Table 15: Distribution of Variations in Monthly Salary of the Respondents by Their Levels of Formal Education

Wage	High school	Pre-college	University and higher
< 1000 TL	68,3 %	67,6 %	49,0 %
1001-2000 TL	26,2 %	29,6 %	46,4 %
2001-3000 TL	1,1 %	0,8 %	1,0 %
3001-4000 TL	0,0 %	0,0 %	1,0 %
No answer	4,3 %	2,0 %	2,5 %

Other benefits and arrangements reveal the workers' limited social rights. Paid annual leave is 2 weeks for 80,2% of the participants. 34,6 % of the respondents find this sufficient, 55% find it insufficient and 10 % did not respond. Also working overtime is a common issue in the call centres and 18,5% report that they never receive any payment for working overtime. 46% of the respondents work overtime at least once a week, 10% report working overtime every day.

Table 16: Frequency of Being Paid for Working Overtime

How often extra work is paid	% of answers
Mostly	52,8 %
Rarely	17,1 %
Never	18,5 %
No answer	11,6 %

In Turkey many companies cover the transport expenses of their employees, either as paying for their monthly travel cards or providing service buses in order to compensate for the low wages. 76,2 % of the respondents are provided travel expenses all the time and 4,5 % only when they work overtime. 10% do not get their transportation cost covered while 8,1 % did not answer the question.

Although these issues concern both genders, when we consider the gendered division of labour that assigns housework and childcare responsibilities to women and expect them to be wives and mothers first, we see that night shifts and working overtime conflict with traditional feminine roles. When the low prospects for promotion is added to this, women do not consider the job as a career and cannot benefit from the liberating effects of employment.

Most of the employees are not informed about their rights. For instance 56 % of the research participants do not know how long the maternity leave is and 27% did not answer the question. Turkish laws allow mothers to have 8 weeks before and 8 weeks after giving birth and that these weeks may be arranged differently according to the worker's demand. Also women with younger than 1 year old children are allowed 1,5 hours per day for breast feeding. Fathers on the other hand are allowed 1 week paid paternity leave. 61 % of the respondents had no opinion whether the maternity leave is sufficient. This can be understood as a result of the respondents' ages since 60,7% are under 30 and the young respondents may not have children. Also the difficulties of the job and the domestic expectations from women are hard to reconcile; there is pressure on women to leave their jobs or find a less demanding one once they start a family. This is so internalised that when asked about the matters that can be improved in the workplace, only 1,1% demanded childcare facilities within workplaces.

The location of the respondents influences their job satisfaction. The cities where the data were collected differ widely in terms of the life quality and cost of living. The respondents from Erzurum scored as the most satisfied group in all categories. They also scored the highest, 4 out of 5, in terms of overall job satisfaction. The specific conditions in Erzurum explain this: it is the least developed city among the 6 locations discussed in this study. Turkish Statistics Institute's Life Index study from 2015² reveals that Erzurum is the least developed among those 6 cities. Among the 81 provinces in Turkey, Istanbul was in rank 12, Ankara 24, Izmir 28, Kocaeli 30, Samsun 40 and Erzurum 59. Moreover due to the city's

² This index measured and ranked 81 Turkish provinces on various matters such as housing, work life, income, health, education, environment, security, civic participation, access to infrastructure, social life and life satisfaction.

patriarchal culture, women's participation to public sphere is a gain for the local women. Participants from Erzurum also refrained from complaining about their working conditions and non-response to the questions that may damage the company reputation was highest among them.

Table 17: Respondents' Answer to whether the Annual Leave Time is Sufficient by the Cities Under Study

%	Ankara	Erzurum	Istanbul	Izmir	Kocaeli	Samsun
Yes	27,81	40	31,72	9,59	92,86	34,6
No	59,6	20	62,11	78,08	7,14	55,0
No answer	12,58	40	6,17	12,33	0,00	10,3

Table 18: Respondents' Answer to whether They Get Paid for Working Overtime by the Cities Under Study

%	Ankara	Erzurum	Istanbul	Izmir	Kocaeli	Samsun
Mostly	50,33	23,85	57,71	16,44	92,86	43,84
Rarely	8,61	3,85	19,38	42,47	0,00	43,84
Never	25,17	25,38	17,62	31,51	0,00	2,74
No answer	15,89	46,92	5,29	9,59	7,14	9,59

Table 19: Respondents' Answer to whether the Employers Cover their Transport Expense by the Cities Under Study

	Ankara	Erzurum	Istanbul	Izmir	Kocaeli	Samsun
Always	73,51	53,08	82,38	87,67	100	13,70
Only when I work over time	4,64	3,08	4,85	5,48	0,00	8,22
Always outside of over time	0,00	0,00	0,88	0,00	0,00	0,00
Never	12,58	5,38	7,93	0,00	0,00	69,86
No answer	9,27	38,46	3,96	6,85	0,00	8,22

When these three questions are grouped according to the participants' place of residence, the highest percentage of non-response is from Erzurum. Due to having fewer job opportunities, respondents in this town are reluctant to complain about their job. A second highly satisfied groups seems to be Kocaeli, this is an industrial city close to Istanbul. The overall satisfaction of Kocaeli was 3,36 and the above questions reveal that benefits such as payment of overtime work and covering transportation costs are more available for them. These conditions are worst in Samsun and need to be improved.

The research participants were asked to name the first 3 issues that they

wanted to improve regarding their work. These are listed below in Table 20:

Table 20: Respondents' Demands for Improvements

Areas for improvement	%
1. Arrangement of the working hours	32,4
2. Increase in wages	31,7
3. Increase in break times	16,7
4. Transportation facilities for all shifts	11,1
5. Arrangement in leaves (annual, maternity etc.)	6,4
6. Cleanliness / hygiene	5,3
7. Increase in incentive bonuses	4,1
8. Arrangement of performance criteria	3,7
9. Increase in food quality	3,1
10. Caring about the employees	2,9
No answer	34,9

The respondents' fears were also investigated by an open-ended question, because their fears would help us understand the social context and interpret the components of job satisfaction more accurately.

Table 21: Respondents' Fears

What do you fear the most?	%
A dark street	26,1
Walking in a deserted street	20,8
Losing my job	13,8
I fear nothing	5,8
Losing loved ones	4,6
God	3,2
My father	2,7
Being treated unjustly	1,7
Animals (bugs, snakes etc.)	1,2
My boss	1,1
My husband	0,7
Losing my health	0,6
Other	4,9
No answer	20,0

The respondents' biggest fears emerge as dark and deserted places, which are scenes of crime and male violence such as mugging, harassment and rape. Some of these employees do not have access to safe transport to their homes at night, which intensifies their fears. Also losing their jobs entered the list, which is a consequence of high levels of unemployment in the country. All the cities' first two choices were the same (dark streets, deserted streets) except for Erzurum, where the biggest fear was losing their job. Also fear from one's boss was highest in this city. These indicate that being employed at all is a privilege for women in Erzurum and the thought of losing one's job causes anxiety.

Table 22: Respondents' Fears by the Cities Under Study

%	Ankara	Erzurum	Istanbul	Izmir	Kocaeli	Samsun
A dark street	23,84	4,62	29,52	17,81	42,86	20,55
Walking in a deserted street	15,23	6,15	25,99	17,81	14,29	24,66
Losing my job	21,85	23,08	11,45	13,70	0,00	12,33
I fear nothing	3,97	0,00	7,93	8,22	0,00	5,48
Losing loved ones	5,30	0,00	5,29	6,85	0,00	6,85
God	3,31	0,00	3,52	9,59	0,00	1,37
My father	1,32	4,62	1,76	0,00	14,29	0,00
Being treated unjustly	1,32	0,00	2,20	2,74	0,00	2,74
Animals (bugs, snakes etc.)	0,66	0,00	1,76	1,37	0,00	0,00
My boss	1,32	5,38	0,44	2,74	0,00	0,00
My husband	0,66	0,77	0,88	1,37	0,00	0,00
Losing my health	2,65	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,37
Other	3,31	0,00	3,96	4,11	21,43	5,48
No answer	22,52	56,15	14,98	17,81	7,14	21,92

4. Findings from the qualitative data

The qualitative findings reveal that almost all of the research participants regard their employment in call centres as temporary. Their limited satisfaction comes from having a job at all. Due to the high levels of unemployment³ in Turkey the employers are not pressured to increase the wages or to ameliorate the working conditions. The participants suggest

³ The employment data on Turkey (2005-2017) shows that the unemployment rate "increased to 11.7 percent in March of 2017 from 10.1 percent a year earlier"; and among youth, unemployment "rose to 21.4 percent from 17 percent". (Trading Economic, 2017) <https://tradingeconomics.com/turkey/unemployment-rate>.

that the work environment needs to be rearranged in order to prevent noise. They want the shifts to be shortened and the wages to be increased. Also the research participants demand reasonable break times and better organization of the shift work.

The participants of the qualitative focus groups do not plan to stay in their jobs in the future. A high-school graduate participant from Istanbul discusses the dilemma of appreciating work because of the fear of unemployment:

“I am sort of happy working here. Thank God I have a job and I am working. It (the job) is very hard but I am not unemployed. There are many unemployed people around me. If I had a better job opportunity, I would of course evaluate that.”

The monitoring of the employees over computers is another difficulty of the job: it highly limits their control over the work process. While the employer representatives are pleased because they can write the performance reports using concrete criteria, the workers' anxiety about their performance turns into a stress factor. Bain and Taylor (2000) explore the idea of panopticon in the call centre context. Monitoring through computers is not the only tool to control the workers and despite the difficulties of working in call centres, strategies for counter-resistance also exist. The employers resort to such strategies when they face problems as work by sabotaging and slowing down the work.

An additional difficulty is the unrealistic targets that are the prerequisites for getting incentive bonuses. Their verbal accounts confirm the findings of the quantitative part. A university graduate employee from Istanbul explains this:

“They set targets that are very hard to reach. Occasionally some people reach them but this is 1 person in 20. They do that, so they don't have to pay incentives, of course. We still work very hard in order to reach it.”

Moreover the research participants express health issues such as back and neck problems because of sitting all the time, hearing problems and nodules. Due to concerns about their health, call centre workers do not remain in the sector for too long, which causes a high circulation of workers.

Conclusion

Call centre work is intense in terms of both the physical and the emotional effort performed by the workers. The lack of balance between the perceived efforts and the rewards emerge as the core of the problem. The employees in this sector work under demanding and challenging conditions with scarce chances for self-improvement or promotion. The

fact that over half of them have some form of higher education degree also affects how they relate to work: they expect to earn higher wages and more prestige in their careers. The discrepancy lowers their satisfaction and negatively affects their feelings about the job. Their personal evaluations as well as objective criteria such as wages, incentives, working hours and extra facilities indicate this.

In the overall the research participants' satisfaction is slightly below moderate. The core issues that directly influence their working conditions such as economic rewards, promotion opportunities and the appreciation of the work were evaluated most negatively while the less important factors such as cooperation and relations with the supervisors were found to be more successful than the average scores. The most visible factors that determine job satisfaction in call centres can be explained with the ERI model: the imbalance between the heavy working conditions and the insufficient rewards reduce the workers' job satisfaction. The dissatisfaction is an issue beyond economic gains; the job is too stressful and tiring and it does not provide opportunities for self-development. It would take more than increasing the wages in order to raise the level of satisfaction. The shifts should be shortened and the workers' ideas should be taken into account so that the physical and psychological health risks are reduced. In addition to the effort-reward imbalance, the mental strain is a serious challenge. The workers have little opportunity to take initiatives; even their performance targets fail to consider their own opinions.

This study supports the main points that are addressed in the literature on call centres; there is a high concentration of women in this sector, the job satisfaction is low and the workers regard the job as temporary rather than as a career. In addition we have found that job satisfaction decreases over time and neither the workers' education level nor their work experience contribute to better working conditions, which lowers the satisfaction in the long run. Moreover cultural codes about gender in Turkey conflict with the heavy demands of working in this sector, especially with night shifts and flexible working schedules. Despite the employee representatives' claims of gender-neutrality, women experience additional stress.

In addition to learning from the problematic areas of work life in the call centres, better working policies may be developed with the help of the positively evaluated aspects of work. Most of the respondents are content with their management and with supervisors and they have a wish to get rewarded and promoted. Developing more transparent communication and division of labour, allocation of rewards on a just and achievable basis and empowerment of the workers by their supervisors would create a better work environment. These developments would also motivate women to

stay in paid employment and benefit from its liberating influences.

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ECONOMY

GENERALIZED MAXIMUM ENTROPY APPROACH IN REGRESSION MODEL

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1. Introduction

Entropy, an ancient Greek word, is derived from the combination of the Greek "tropē / transformation" and "en" prefix. In the 19th century, the French engineer Sadi Carnot first discovered the concept of entropy, which called the second law of thermodynamics in physics. Then the German physicist Rudolf Clausius described an important feature called entropy, which emerged directly from Carnot's principles (Srinivasan, 2001). The entropy approach, discovered by thermodynamics, has been widely applied in various fields of science (such as mathematics, statistics, econometrics, communication, education, engineering). The maximum entropy formulation is based on Shannon (1948) and Jaynes (1957a,b;1984). This term has been explored by several authors (see, for instance, Kullback (1959), Levine (1980), Jaynes (1984), Kapur (1989), Golan et al. (1996)). The development of the idea of entropy of random variables and processes by Shannon provided the beginnings of information theory and of the modern age of ergodic theory. Entropy and related information measures will be shown to provide useful descriptions of the long term behavior of random processes and this behavior is a key factor in developing the coding theorems of information theory (Gray, 2011).

Regression analysis is a commonly used method to identify relations between variables in statistical and econometric models. Traditional method for estimating of unknown parameters in linear regression model is ordinary least squares (OLS). However, this method is not preferred when at least two of the explanatory variables in the model are related to one another. This situation, called the multicollinearity problem, is one of the most significant problems within the linear regression model, and this has been well documented. Golan et al. (1996) considered the maximum entropy method in the regression framework to resolve the multicollinearity problem and proposed an estimator which they called the generalized maximum entropy (GME) estimator.

In order to explain GME, consider the linear regression model

$$y_t = \sum_{k=1}^K X_{tk} \beta_k + e_t, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

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or in matrix form as

$$y = X\beta + e \quad (1)$$

where y is an $N \times 1$ vector of sample observations on the dependent variable, X is an $N \times K$ design matrix, β is a $K \times 1$ vector of unknown parameters and e is an $N \times 1$ vector of unknown errors.

Golan et al. (1996) generalize the maximum entropy methodology to jointly estimate the unknown parameters and the unknown errors in the general linear model. Using the reparameterized unknowns, $\beta = Zp$ and $e = Vw$, Golan et al. (1996) rewrite the GLM, Eq. (1), as

$$y = X\beta + e = XZp + Vw$$

where Z is a $K \times KM$ matrix of support points, and p is a $KM \times 1$ vector of unknown weights such that $p_{km} > 0$ and $p'_k i_M = 1$ for all k where $i'_M = [1, 1, \dots, 1]$ and M is the number of support points. Each regression coefficient β_k as discrete random variable with a compact support interval consisting of $2 \leq M < \infty$ possible outcomes, where a support interval is defined as a closed and bounded interval of the real line in which each β_k is restricted to lie (see Caputo and Paris 2008). Similarly V is a $N \times NJ$ matrix of known support values for e and w is a vector of probability weights $NJ \times 1$ such that $w > 0$ and $w'_t i_J = 1$ for each t where $i'_J = [1, 1, \dots, 1]$, where J is the number of support values chosen for each error w_t .

We jointly estimate the unknown parameters and errors by solving the constrained optimization problem:

$$\text{Max}H(p, w) = -p' \ln(p) - w' \ln(w)$$

subject to the model constraint and the additivity constraints on p and w ,

$$y = X\beta + e = XZp + Vw$$

$$(I_K \otimes i'_M)p = i_K, (I_N \otimes i'_J)w = i_N$$

where \otimes is the Kronocker product (see Fraser 2000). For this problem, we can apply Lagrange method. The lagrangian is

$$\begin{aligned} L = & -p' \ln(p) - w' \ln(w) + \lambda' (XZp + Vw - y) + \gamma' (i_k - (I_K \otimes i'_M)p) \\ & + \delta' (i_N - (I_N \otimes i'_J)w). \end{aligned}$$

The GME parameter and error estimates are given by

$$\hat{\beta}_{GME} = Z\hat{p}$$

and

$$\hat{e}_{GME} = V\hat{w}$$

where \hat{p} and \hat{w} are the estimated probability vectors (see Campbell and Hill 2006).

Many alternative estimators have been developed for the problem of multicollinearity. Ridge regression is a very common way to hamper in this problem. Hoerl and Kennard (1970) introduced the ridge estimator. This estimator is given as

$$\hat{\beta}_k = (X'X + kI)^{-1} X'Y, \quad k > 0$$

where k is a biasing parameter.

We rewrite model (1) in canonical form

$$y = U\alpha + \varepsilon$$

where $U = XQ$, $\alpha = Q'\beta$, and Q is the orthogonal matrix whose columns constitute the eigenvectors of $X'X$. Then $U'U = Q'X'XQ = \Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_p)$, where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_p$ are the ordered eigenvalues of $X'X$.

Also, the Jackknifed Generalized Ridge estimator (JGR) is given by Singh et al. (1986) and Nyquist (1988). It is given by $\tilde{\alpha}_K = (\Lambda + K^*)^{-1}U'y$ with $K^* = (\Lambda + 2K)^{-1}K^2$. Nomura (1988) suggested that a reasonable choice is

$$\tilde{k}_N = \frac{p\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^p (\hat{\alpha}_i^2) / (1 + \sqrt{1 + \lambda_i (\hat{\alpha}_i^2 / \hat{\sigma}^2)})}$$

Erdugan and Akdeniz (2012) introduced the Jackknifed Generalized Ridge-Generalized Maximum Entropy (JGR-GME) estimator. The JGR-GME estimator is defined as

$$\hat{k}_{JGR-GME} = \min_K \left\| \hat{\beta}_{GME} - \tilde{\beta}_K \right\|_{\infty} = \min \left\| Z\hat{p} - (X'X + K^{**})^{-1} X'y \right\|_{\infty}$$

with $K^{**} = (X'X + 2K)^{-1} K^2$, subject to the JGR- interval $k \in [a_1, a_2]$ a_1 and a_2 denote the lower and upper bounds of the JGR-interval, respectively. The Z is a $(K \times KM)$ matrix of support values provided by the JGR trace function. The supports for the error component (matrix V) are usually defined by the empirical standard deviation of the noisy observations y .

2. Empirical Results

To illustrate the performance of estimators we consider a dataset which was discussed in Gruber (1998). It has also been studied in Akdeniz and Erol (2003), Zhong and Yang (2007), Yang et al. (2009). Table 1 gives data set concerned with the total national research and development expenditures as a percent of gross national product by country. In this example, the relationship between the dependent variable y the percentage spent by the United States and the four other explanatory variables X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_4 is examined. These explanatory variables represent the percent spent by France, West Germany, Japan and former Soviet Union, respectively.

Table 1 Total national research and development expenditures-as a percent of gross national product by country: 1972-1986.

Year	y	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4
1972	2,3	1,9	2,2	1,9	3,7
1975	2,2	1,8	2,2	2	3,8
1979	2,2	1,8	2,4	2,1	3,6
1980	2,3	1,8	2,4	2,2	3,8
1981	2,4	2	2,5	2,3	3,8
1982	2,5	2,1	2,6	2,4	3,7
1983	2,6	2,1	2,6	2,6	3,8
1984	2,6	2,2	2,6	2,6	4
1985	2,7	2,3	2,8	2,8	3,7
1986	2,7	2,3	2,7	2,8	3,8

Consider the following homogeneous linear regression model:

$$y = X\beta + e = \beta_0 + X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 + X_3\beta_3 + X_4\beta_4 + e.$$

The results for these data, with OLS estimation, are as follows (estimated standard errors, t -statistics and p -values are in parenthesis, respectively).

$\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$	(0.692 0.626 -0.115 0.287 0.026)
Standard Errors	(0.865 0.177 0.312 0.227 0.170)
t-statistics	(0.801 3.545 -0.369 1.263 0.151)
p-values	(0.460 0.016 0.727 0.262 0.886)

where $\hat{\sigma}_{OLS}^2 = 0.0016$, $R^2 = 0.98$ and the $mse(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = 0.9566$. These t -statistics are not significant at an alpha level of 5%. The matrix $X'X$ has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 312.9320$ $\lambda_2 = 0.7536$ $\lambda_3 = 0.0453$ $\lambda_4 = 0.0372$ and $\lambda_5 = 0.0019$ so the condition number is $K = \lambda_{\max} / \lambda_{\min} = 168129.285$ which is large and so there is multicollinearity.

Table 2 gives the sample correlation matrix and shows that there is a high correlation between X_1X_2 , X_1X_3 , X_2X_3 , while there is a weak correlation among others. However, as Belsley (1991) notes correlation and collinearity are not the same. It is possible to have data that are subject to collinearity when the correlation between pairs of explanatory variables is low (Fraser, 2000; Akdeniz et al 2011).

Table 2 The sample correlation matrix

	y	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4
y	1	0.9776	0.9080	0.9565	0.3482
X_1		1	0.8877	0.9248	0.3090
X_2			1	0.9621	0.1573
X_3				1	0.3276
X_4					1

Akdeniz et al. (2011) have applied maximum entropy estimation method to the Portland cement dataset and compared the generalized maximum entropy (GME) estimator, least squares and inequality restricted least squares (IRLS) estimator. Similar to their study, we consider to compare OLS, GME, Ridge and JGR-GME estimators for the total national research and development expenditures data. Firstly for support points of the parameters, Table 3 has prepared. This table gives parameter support points for each parameter. We choose $M=5$ support points for each parameter. The GME estimator is performed using the support $[-1,1]$ for

the constant and other coefficients. Namely $z'_i = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$, $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$.

Table 3 Parameter supports for GME

Variable	Parameter	Parameter support for GME	Prior Mean
constant	β_0	$z'_0 = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$	0
x_1	β_1	$z'_1 = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$	0
x_2	β_2	$z'_2 = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$	0
x_3	β_3	$z'_3 = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$	0
x_4	β_4	$z'_4 = \{-1 \ -0.5 \ 0 \ 0.5 \ 1\}$	0

We also need the error support for the GME estimates, so we initially construct the GME estimator with error bounds of $\pm 3\sigma$. However, since σ is not known we must replace it with an *OLS* estimate. We considered two possible estimates for σ : 1) $\hat{\sigma} = 0.04$ from the *OLS* regression, 2) The sample standard deviation of y is $s = 0.1958$. We obtained much better results using the more conservative value of the sample standard deviation of y Using the sample standard deviation of y , 3σ and 4σ rule the results are:

$$3\sigma \text{ for } v' = \{-0.6 \ -0.3 \ 0 \ 0.3 \ 0.6\}$$

$$4\sigma \text{ for } v' = \{-0.8 \ -0.4 \ 0 \ 0.4 \ 0.8\}$$

Figure 1 JGR-trace function

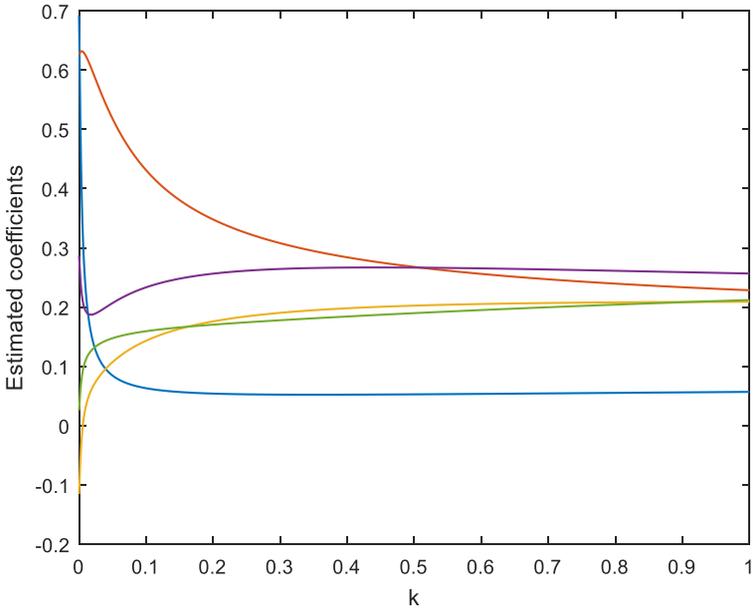


Figure 2 Selection of the JGR-GME parameter estimate

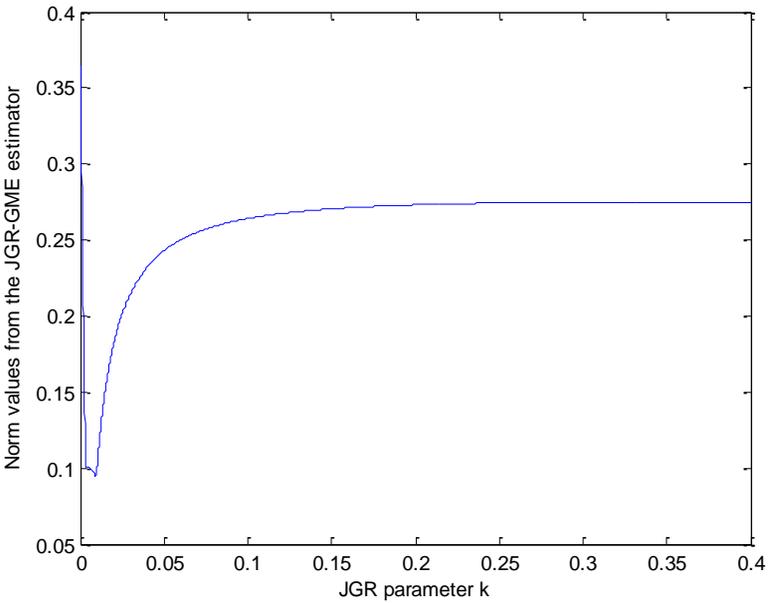


Figure 1 gives the JGR traces. Figure 2 illustrates the selection of the JGR parameter estimate \hat{k} from the JGR-GME estimator. From the JGR-

trace, the GME estimator is performed using the support $[0, 0.8]$ for the constant, $[0.1, 0.7]$ for the parameter β_1 , $[-0.2, 0.2]$ for the parameter β_2 , $[0.15, 0.35]$ for the parameter β_3 , $[0, 0.25]$ for the parameter β_4 . Table 4 gives parameter supports for JGR-GME estimator.

Table 4 Parameter supports for JGR-GME

Variable	Parameter	Parameter support for JGR-GME	Prior Mean
constant	β_0	$z'_0 = \{0 \quad 0.2 \quad 0.4 \quad 0.6 \quad 0.8\}$	0.4
x_1	β_1	$z'_1 = \{0.1 \quad 0.25 \quad 0.4 \quad 0.55 \quad 0.7\}$	0.4
x_2	β_2	$z'_2 = \{-0.2 \quad -0.1 \quad 0 \quad 0.1 \quad 0.2\}$	0
x_3	β_3	$z'_3 = \{0.15 \quad 0.2 \quad 0.25 \quad 0.3 \quad 0.35\}$	0.25
x_4	β_4	$z'_4 = \{0 \quad 0.0625 \quad 0.125 \quad 0.1875 \quad 0.25\}$	0.125

Now we can obtain parameter estimates, after all these preliminary preparations. These estimates are given in Table 5. It is also necessary to estimate the k values required for parameter estimates. The values of k are estimated as $\hat{k} = 0.0017$, $\tilde{k}_N = 0.0179$ and $\hat{k}_{JGR-GME} = 0.0096$ for the ridge estimator, JGR estimator and JGR-GME estimator, respectively. In Table 5, mse denotes scalar valued mean square error of the estimators.

Table 5 Parameter estimates

Parameter	OLS	GME-S3	GME-S4	Ridge	JGR	JGR-GME
β_0	0.692	0.0538	0.0564	0.0991	0.1568	0.2343
β_1	0.626	0.1801	0.1655	0.6346	0.6044	0.6250
β_2	-0.115	0.1994	0.1950	0.0577	0.0590	0.0294
β_3	0.287	0.2266	0.2093	0.1693	0.1872	0.1941
β_4	0.026	0.2614	0.2802	0.1371	0.1260	0.1096
mse	0.9566	0.7648	0.7832	0.7637	0.4335	0.4002

From Table 5 the estimated *mse* values are:

$$\begin{aligned} mse(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) &= 0.9566 > mse(\hat{\beta}_{GME-S4}) = 0.7832 > \\ mse(\hat{\beta}_{GME-S3}) &= 0.7648 > mse(\hat{\beta}_{ridge}) = 0.7637 > \\ mse(\hat{\beta}_{JGR}) &= 0.4335 > mse(\hat{\beta}_{JGR-GME}) = 0.4002 \end{aligned}$$

The *mse* value of the GME estimator is given by the bootstrap method. Akdeniz et al. (2011) explained in details the method of the bootstrap. The results show that estimates based on GME differ from OLS in terms of the signs and magnitudes of the estimates. Also, we can see that JGR-GME seems to be a more effective estimator in the MSE sense.

3. Conclusions

The method of OLS is easily applied to regression model. However this method does not work in multicollinear data. It can be seen from literature studies that ME methodology is applied to regression models. In the presence of multicollinearity, GME estimators can also be seen as a solution. In this study, the performances of estimators based on GME estimator are examined and compared to their scalar mean squared error values. Our results show that these estimators can be preferred to combat multicollinearity problems. Estimators based on GME might provide consistent parameter estimates over the unknown parameters.

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THE PHENOMENOLOGY OF ECONOMIC CRISES IN TURKEY*

Özer ÖZÇELİK** & Öner GÜMÜŞ***

1. Introduction

While phenomenology can be defined as the science of phenomena in a broad sense, it can be defined as description and analysis of every kind of emotional, esthetics, moral and religious experience in the strict sense (Çekin 2012: 3). Hence, Heidegger's ontology, Theodor Lipps' esthetics, Nikolai Hartman's ethics, Sartre's existential philosophy, Max Scheler's philosophical anthropology and worth esthetics show how phenomenology was used commonly in 20th century and from this viewpoint it has penetrated other areas such as sociology and psychology (Keskin t.y.: 4). In other words, phenomenology falls into the foundations of philosophy, logic and psychology directly and it falls into other areas indirectly (Öktem, 2005: 28). That's why, the phenomenology can also be used in economics. In this sense, the notion of phenomenology is examined in the first part.

Civilization arised from the necessity that no one can obtain too much water and food (Bahçe 2017: 1). This civilization approach bring neoliberalism. Neoliberalism is sum of ideas and policies emphasized minimal state, privatization, becoming localized, deregulation, limited taxation, decreased public expenditures, financial liberalization, investment, trade, fiscal discipline, and market (Bahçe & Gümüş 2014: 73). This created crisis. Most of the countries -especially developing countries- are caught unawares to the crisis. And one of these countries was Turkey The most eminent crises Turkey was caught were 1994 economic crisis, 2000 economic crisis and 2001 economic crisis.

In the second part the crisis told above is presented by using phenomenology. 1994, 2000 and 2001 economic crises are firstly presented by means of transcendental reduction which is the part of phenomenology. Therefore, at this part, the seen reasons are examined. Secondly, the unseen reasons of the crisis are examined by means of eidetic

* This study is derived from the master thesis of Economics "*The Phenomenology of Wealth Tax*" written by Öner Gümüş under the consultancy of Özer Özçelik in Kütahya Dumlupınar University Social Sciences Institute.

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reduction. In other words, the real reasons are presented within the scope of the general assessment. By this way, the study is ended.

2. The Notion of Phenomenology

The science of phenomena is called as phenomenology (Mengüsoğlu 1945: 49). The notion of phenomenology which cannot be seen as a philosophical method is a method trying to reach the information of secret quiddity included in the being (Erbaş 1992: 160). The phenomenologic notions related to the objects are aimed at showing presence, mean, variables and roots of being (Schrag 2006: 208). In this sense, it can be said that phenomenology has two missions (Çüçen 2006: 16):

- Taking the lid off the thing not explored,
- Uncovering the question provided forgetting.

From this aspect, phenomenology undertakes the mission to give a direction both description and interpretation of the situations (Çüçen 2006: 16). In other words, it can be accepted that adopting phenomenology as a method revealing the facts in description and explanation of a situation.

The phenomenologic method is examined under two stages (Silverman 1980: 704-705):

- **Transcendental Reduction (Epokhe):** The aim of this stage is to obscure taking a natural manner and to become general hypotheses invalid (Topakkaya 2009: 124). By this way, acceptances and foreknowledge related to objects are bracketed (Topakkaya 2009: 124).
- **Eidetic Reduction:** This is a stage of definition of the meaning or pure being of the object questioned (Silverman 1980: 705).

The features of phenomenology are as follows:

- Phenomenology examines the objects human forms in his pure conscious,
- Human conscious cannot be thought independent of nature and within this limit, it perceives the being. Phenomenology starts from this logic,
- Actions and preferences come from human being and phenomenology focuses on this existence,
- Meanings are shaped by undergoing the historical process,
- The beings included in the experiences people have obtains various meanings and phenomenology examine quiddity of these beings,
- People have a relationship with various beings and as a result of this relationship various experiences are obtained. Phenomenology makes various interpretations towards perception and approach associated with these experiences,

- Phenomenology rises in a real World included in out of the conscious and this reveals that phenomenology is closely related with practicalness.

In the last instance, phenomenology can be defined as a critical approach showing the difference between the thing which is absolute and the thing having a claim which is absolute (Şan 2017: 240-241). Put it differently, phenomenology reaches the quiddity of being by showing the difference between these two things and by seperating them from one another.

3. Transcendental Reduction of 1994 Economic Crisis (Epokhe)

The level of domestic borrowing in 1980s became a fundemental problem in the first part of 1990s and Exchange rate fluctuations as a result of effort decreasing sovereign spread as an attendance of this problem, devaluation and banking crisis caused deposits to decrease noteworthy (Sarigedik 2008: 9). Stated in other words, increasing domestic borrowing is one of the reasons outbreak of the crisis (Aydın 2003: 130). In addition, the expectation related to decreasing the value of Turkish Lira triggered the crisis and the deficits towards current account balance reaching 6,5 billion dollar became a determinant in this situation (Ongan Tunçcan 2004: 194). In 1989, capital liberalization was realized and as a result of this, capital inflow reached 9 billion dollar in 1993 and nearly half of this went to abroad (Kürkcü 2004: 54). Meanwhile, due to high interest rate, both inflation and unemployment rates increased; in other words, stagflation was risen and the efficiency of monetary policy decreased with stagflation (Coşkun 2004: 44).

Decreasing approximately half of the foreign Exchange reserves, doubling exchange rate, issuing debt securities with 400 % in 1994 and as a result of this raising interest rates excessively, increasing unemployment, appearance of devaluation, and chronic inflation caused government to take measure called 5 April decisions (Dönmez 2005: 69). However, despite of this precaution, the crisis remained on the agenda permanently and Turkey continued to need International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Kuran 2006: 46).

4. Transcendental Reduction of November 2000 Economic Crisis (Epokhe)

Even though the precautions for 1994 economic crisis is applied, structural problems went on and there were lots of problems such as high inflation rate and public debt which was not sustainable in 2000 and to figüre these problems out, Turkey negotiated with IMF and disinflation policies started to apply and this program was propped up by exchange rate stability predetermined (Demiral 2008: 127). The program resulted in positive effects (Kocadağ 2010: 110):

- In 1999, interest rate of treasury domestic borrowing decreased from 106 % to 37 %,
- Interbank market overnight interest rate decreased from 66.6 % to 34.1,
- Because devaluation risk disappeared, banks increased their open positions.

However, some reasons like slowdown of structural reforms, rising some problems in regulations made for the banks, decreasing capital inflow because of political uncertainty and insecurity of international capital to the markets resulted in November 2000 economic crisis (Ural 2003: 18).

5. Transcendental Reduction of 2001 Economic Crisis (Epokhe)

In 2001, prime minister Bülent Ecevit and president Ahmet Necdet Sezer disputed and this situation created the expectation that the program negotiated by IMF in 2000 and thereby arising the crisis which was supposed to stop in 2000 (Çiğdem 2012: 65-66). November 2000 economic crisis which was not avoided completely went on as February 2001 economic crisis (Karluk 2009: 440). Thus, in February 21st of 2001, overnight interest rates reached 5000 % and decayed banking system experienced a high crash because interbank payment system stopped (Uyan 2011: 64).

The reasons of November 2000 and February 2001 economic crises are reported by OECD as follows (Akarsu 2015: 89):

- Duty losses of Ziraat Bank and Halk Bank increased from 19 billion dollar in 1999 to 21 billion dollar in 2001,
- The share of public sector debt stock in GDP increased from 45 % to 62 %,
- Public banks increased nearly 18 billion dollar in terms of open positions,
- Open positions of banks increased to 20 billion dollar in terms of foreign currency,
- World Bank postponed the credit of 18 billion dollar because the privatization was not realized in time,
- Some subjects like the increase in petrol prices, valuation of Turkish Lira, devaluation of Euro affected balance of payments negatively,
- 1999 Marmara earthquake affected Turkish economy negatively owing to its high cost.

6. General Assessment

General assessment will be examined in three parts: eidetic reduction of 1994 economic crisis, eidetic reduction of 2000 economic crisis and eidetic reduction of 2001 economic crisis.

6.1.Eidetic Reduction of 1994 Economic Crisis

Turkish economy has a fragile structure. Therefore, running on the banks is not a desirable situation for the policy makers who want to manage this fragile structure. In this context, even if running on the banks is accepted as one of the reasons of 1994 economic crisis, the real reason is not this. The real reason is that owners of deposits are too rational. These deposit owners are generally foreigners.

Another reason of 1994 economic crisis is decreasing the value of Turkish Lira. Nevertheless, devaluation of Turkish Lira is necessary for foreign trade. Thus, policy makers desire to produce goods and services because such kind of situation increases both foreign trade and employment. However, an inverse situation shows just consumption economy. Even though this creates an economic recovery for a short-term period, it simultaneously creates inflation. That's why, it can be said that the real reason triggering economy crisis is not to produce goods and services for foreign trade.

Monetary policy defines the management of Money supply and prices have a relation with interest rates and other economic variables (Hubbard 2005: 8). If central bank increases Money supply, interest rate decreases and vice versa (Hubbard & O'Brien 2006: 824-825). Nevertheless, stagflation was experienced in 1994 economic crisis and the efficiency of monetary policy decreased (Coşkun 2004: 44). Thus, there was no mistake of policy makers in selection of monetary policy. The real of the crisis ought to be examined in the problem of situation.

Decreasing the level of output (recession) and increasing the general level of prices (inflation) is called as stagflation (Mankiw 2008: 813). Hence, it has to be paid attention to unemployment level and inflation in the situation of stagflation fundamentally.

Unemployment is a problem Turkey faces every term and participation of new unemployed people to labor force is an indication that this problem is going to go on (Eser & Terzi 2008: 230). Hence, unemployment is a problem of Turkey which has come from the past. In addition to this, although lots of precautions have been taken until 1970s, it is still a problem for Turkey (Terzi 2004: 60). As a result, one of the real reasons of 1994 economic crisis is chronic inflation and unemployment rather than inefficient monetary policies.

When looked the precautions, it can be understood that the fundamental of 5th April decisions is not solid. Devaluation of a serious level of Turkish Lira just to compensate foreign trade deficit was not a surprise to effect consumers in Turkey not producing competitive goods and services negatively. In addition, with the devaluation decision, the people who have small and middle income became impoverished much and a small part

having high income reached and this caused discrepancies in income to increase.

On the other hand, privatization of government business enterprises and closing these enterprises up created a decrease in state assets and Turkish State slid from social state to Merchant state one more step.

The decrease in agricultural support purchases shook agriculture sector and this situation caused Turkey to lost its speciality because Turkey had specialized in this area for years.

Receiving one-off tax levied burden of cost of inflation to title holders and employees and this destroyed the tax justice. Levying this tax on petroleum products increased transportation cost and this caused inflation by increasing the prices of goods and services. Hence, the reason of 1994 economic crisis is structural problems rather than economic and fiscal factors such as budget deficit, current account deficit. This creates the quiddity of 1994 economic crisis. Likewise, budget deficits in Turkey resulted from excessive rationality activities of policy makers rather than government activities. In addition to this, global economic activities like liberalization in world markets formed the fundamental of these deficits.

Turkey permanently gives deficits in transactions related to current account. The reason of this is that labor, capital and technologic activities which can create positive supply shocks cannot be realized. Therefore, the reasons of 1994 economic crisis is much more different than seen. As a phenomenological expression, when eidetic reduction is used, the reasons of 1994 economic crisis are not seen as simple; rather, they are more complicated and structural.

6.2.Eidetic Reduction of November 2000 Economic Crisis

Public borrowing can sometimes be desirable. For instance, a public borrowing to make investment can pay for itself in the long term and also can create income if the investment is productive. In this regard, it can be said that the real reason of November 2000 economic crisis is not unsustainable public borrowing; but unproductive investment and unproductive utilization.

IMF with which was entered into an agreement in 2000 to save from the negative effects of November 2000 economic crises gives credit based on monetarist approach and on condition that the countries have to do what IMF wants; and this credit alleviates current account balance even if the effect of the credit is light; the interest rate applied in capital markets is under the interest rate in world markets and maturity changes between 1 year and 3 years (Erdem 2009: 72-73). From this point of view, it can be asserted that imposed conditions by IMF and unsuccessful economic programs applied previous years are the reasons of the root of November 2000 economic crisis.

Foreign currency items in a bank assets and foreign currency items in a bank liabilities shows foreign currency position of a bank and foreign currency accounts in bank assets form receivables and foreign currency accounts in bank liabilities form debts and commitments (Selimler & Kale 2012: 41). So, if foreign currency liabilities is greater than foreign currency assets, it is called open position (Eğilmez & Kumcu 2006: 415). The demand for closing open positions by banks against of devaluation risk shows that the debt of banks is at a serious level. Nevertheless, the real reason of November 2000 economic crisis was not this; but that banks did not hold enough deposits. This situation indicates that the state protects sunk consumers because Turkey State is a social state. Therefore, the banks were in an overconfidence. In this context, it can be alleged that one of the real reasons of November 2000 economic crises was overconfidence of the banks and due to this they maintained their open positions. However, in a negative economic atmosphere, when banks want to close their open positions, they can cause crisis by creating liquidity problem. This situation is lied behind the November 2000 economic crisis.

Owing to Demirbank, the banks were in panic and this resulted from the structural problem. Because of such kind of structural problems, the availability of enterprises which decide in panic deepens the fragile of an economy. Hence, the fragile of Turkish economy can be seen a real reason of November 2000 economic crisis.

Individuals' habit in an economy can rise as a deterministic factor in crises. For instance, in a society which is inclined to using foreign currency -such kind of societies are called non-national societies-, national currency losses its value and this decreases foreign trade deficit. Notwithstanding, even if a society which is inclined to use national currency-such kind of societies are called national societies- does not compensate foreign trade deficit, it can obscure to rise a conflict among the people. Therefore, it can be said that deepening November 2000 economic crisis could be obscured by Turkish people because they were inclined to use national currency. In this regard, it is possible to see that November 2000 economic crisis did not deepen due to economic habit of Turkish people.

The notion of privatization which was also included in IMF program can be defined in two ways (Ersöz 2001: 32):

- **Privatization in the strict sense:** Passing the branch of a job or an industry from public sector to private sector.
- **Privatization in a broad sense:** Reconsidering the role of the state in economic and social life by looking at the necessities of the society from different perspectives.

In addition to these definitions, privatization can be defined as decreasing the share of state in production and ownership (Ersöz 2001: 32).

However, there are lots of debates among scientists about whether the privatization is good or bad. According to the scientists who have a view

that privatization is good, the followings are aimed with privatization (Kirmanoğlu 2009: 187):

- Decreasing the role of the state in economic decisions of enterprises,
- Spreading capital further down to the society,
- Realized technologic applications which create productivity by private sector which tries to maximize its profit,
- Decreasing public deficits.

According to the scientists who have a view that privatization is bad, the followings are aimed with privatization (Kirmanoğlu 2009: 188):

- Gaining advantage to private capital,
- Socialise capital expenditures,

The reason of that the privatization was not applied in the manner of correcting the fiscal structure in Turkey at that term can be evaluated within the scope of the aims of scientist looking at privatization negatively because capital deficits could not be decreased, public deficits could not be decreased, productivity application of private sector in technology could not be at the desired level and there is a desire of state to be in decision process. In other words, gaining advantage to private capital and the desire to levy the cost of economic crisis on society showed as factors lying behind the privatization. From this point of view, it is possible to see the real reason of November 2000 economic crisis that privatization is not suitable to Turkish economic life.

Another cost desired to levy on the society was additional charges concerning electricity and fuel in November 2000 economic crisis. Even if these applications were abandoned, it is asserted that this approach was important and negative with regard to show that the cost of crisis would firstly be levied on the society which came to managers' mind firstly. Likewise, the aim of state is to provide wealth to the society. Notwithstanding, when thought that there was not only the role of state; but also the role of IMF in management of the economy, it can be concluded that IMF runs behind its profit rather than running behind the wealth of society. Thus, desiring to realize wage increase can be accepted as an interest conflict between Turkey and IMF.

6.3.Eidetic Reduction of February 2000 Economic Crisis

With the development of economic discrepancies, the possibility of management buyouts by the rich appears and the reason of this is not that the rich are superior or have extensive information; but the reason is that functions related to management are realized as low-cost or realized without making payment and like a part time job (Weber 2012: 315). However, the individuals who have to work to live on have to sacrifice their time-namely, their income- and as long as the labor densifies, the sacrifice becomes unbearable and by this way, the owner of superiority

becomes not only the people with high-income but also the people obtaining income without working or because of concentration of labor (Weber 2012: 315). The most typical example of this is Gazi Erçel who was the president of Turkish Central Bank.

Gazi Erçel had deposit with 52 billion Turkish Lira and he converted his deposit into dollar in 19th of February over Exchange rate of central bank and after the Exchange rate left free his deposit increased to 94 billion and he earned 42 billion Turkis Lira (Karluk 2009: 442). After that, even if Gazi Erçel wanted to donate this deposit ton on-profit organizations, no organization accepted this deposit (Karluk 2009: 442). Then, 11st criminal court of first instance in Ankara gave prison sentence 11 months 20 days, gave punitive fine 136 New Turkis Lira and gave a sentence as removal of public Office for 2 months and 27 days (www.internethaber.com). In this regard, it is possible to say that one of the root causes of February 2001 economic crisis is opportunist bureaucrats like Gazi Erçel.

Increased open positions by banks -as was in November 2000 economic crisis- resulted from the belief of banks that the state would save them. And this proves that February 2001 crisis is continuation of November 2000 economic crisis. Thus, because an instutional opportunism showed up, it can be possible that one of the reasons is instutional opprtunism.

In OECD economic outlook report, one of the reasons of crisis was described as postponing credit with 780 billion dollar given by World Bank. Even if this can be seen as one of the reason of the crisis, how that taking this credit could solve the problems would become effective is controversial in a situation privatization is realized. Likewise, that there was no institution to produce goods and services and a borrowing made after this means that the country would be committed to international associations. That's why, that this situation is seen as one of the reasons of the crisis has a potential to rise as a wrong result when the dynamics of Turkey is considered.

Another reason of the crises was the valuation of Turkish Lira. However, this cannot be seen as a reason of the crisis. Because there was no production mechanism producing competitive goods and services, an economic recover would be experienced for a short-term period but after this term, current account deficit would increase and in addition to these, consumer entities would become poorer because import would exceed export.

Public sector debt stock is an indication stated to the world indebtedness the public has to pay by considering public assets (Derya Vayvada 2015: 1). When it is thought that the reason of increase in this deficit is not productive investments (becasue if there were productive investments, production and employment could be provided), it can be alleged that one of the real reasons of February 2001 economic crisis is inefficient resource allocation.

7. Conclusion

When an event is examined, the reasons lying behind it ought to be searched very well. Because if the diagnosis becomes right, the recovery comes quickly. The same situation is valid for the economic crises. When examined the real reasons of economic crises in Turkey, the unseen reasons can be explained as follows:

- Not to produce competitive goods and services,
- Some economic situations like stagflation,
- Chronic inflation and unemployment,
- Structural problems,
- Not to realize technological activities,
- Unproductive investments,
- Unsuccessful economic programs,
- The fragility of Turkish economy,
- Economic habits,
- Indecencies of privatization to Turkish economic life,
- Opportunist bureaucrats,
- Excessive rationality of economic institutions,
- Inefficient resource allocation.

When paid attention, it can be seen that these problems are still on the agenda of Turkey and if not solved, they will become more serious problems than that of past.

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HOW DID THE CBRT HANDLED 2008 GLOBAL FINANCIAL CRISIS?

Zeynep KARAS*

Introduction

2008 Global Financial Crisis is the worst of its kind since the Great Depression of 1929. According to many esteemed experts, both the Federal Reserve (Fed) and the European Central Bank (ECB) followed the wrong policies and caused the worst financial crisis since 1929. The countries have become more interdependent due to globalization and, as a result, most of the countries have started to rely on each other economically and financially to some extent. In a globalized world, collapse of a significant portion of financial markets controlled and influenced by the Fed and ECB caused a turmoil and financial shocks worldwide during 2008 crisis and many countries got into trouble.

The 2008 Global Crisis started in the United States Mortgage Market and turned into a liquidity and confidence crisis, and the financial markets, as well as the real economy, have sharply shaken the world economy. Due to the integrated structure brought by globalization, the shortage of liquidity and some other reasons in the US mortgage market affected the entire financial system and the real economy and these bad developments spread to other countries as well and started to circulate globally. With the impact of the 2008 global crisis, the US, Eurozone and Japan economies have shrunk significantly.

In 2008 global financial crisis, the financial sector was deeply hit throughout the world, first the banks and then the industrial sector started to bankrupt, a financial crisis occurred almost all over the world as an inevitable result. On the other hand, in Turkey, banks did not bankrupt and even declared profits. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that there was a real sector crisis in Turkey rather than a financial crisis and that the crisis in Turkey was different from the global crisis.

It would not be wrong or unfair to state that Turkey has not experienced the 2008 financial crisis as deeply as most of other countries, as a result of the precautions taken and reforms made by Turkey thanks to the lessons it has learned after the 2000-2001 crises.

In this work basically based on the PhD thesis of the author (Karas, 2016), there are two sections. In the following section, 2008 crisis experienced in Turkey will be focused on and, then, the measures and actions taken by the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey (CBRT) in

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terms of reducing and eliminating the effects of this crisis on the country's economy will be examined.

2. 2008 Financial Crisis in Turkey

The 2008 global financial crisis affected Turkey as well as it did other countries. Since the Great Depression, 2008 global crisis can be categorized as “unseen” due to its nature and destructive effects on many countries. It would not be unfair to say that the financial globalization and the proliferation of financial products are the main actors or the triggers of the crisis. In the following subsections, what was experienced in Turkey during 2008 crisis will be tried to be explained and some figures will be provided to explain some of the issues better.

The spread mechanism of the 2008 global crisis, which has led to a significant loss of production and welfare for many countries, has shown itself as instability in production and employment, due to the deterioration of global expectations, credit mechanisms and demand. The Turkish economy suffered the loss of production and welfare due to the global crisis by being affected by the same mechanisms as due to close credit and export/import relations with the countries concerned (Oktar and Dalyanci, 2010).

The Turkish economy also benefited from the liquidity abundance experienced in the world financial markets after 2001, but this liquidity abundance ended with the global crisis for the reasons mentioned above. Following the outbreak of the crisis, external borrowing costs and opportunities became difficult as a result of a significant decrease in funds provided from international markets and the need for high external sources adversely affected Turkey due to the savings deficit. In addition, the economic recession experienced by the global crisis in European economies, Turkey's biggest trading partner, caused Turkey's exports to these countries to decrease and thus the economy to slow down. The global crisis has also affected the Turkish economy with all the countries of the world (Ertugrul and Others).

After the 2001 crisis, Turkey gained financial expansion from international markets and the opportunity to find cheap loans. The rising Current Account deficits were initially met with hot money that preferred Turkey due to high interest rates, and then with direct investment financing obtained through mergers and privatizations. In this period, Turkey's external debt started to rise rapidly, and the total external debt stock, which was USD 129.6 billion at the end of 2002, increased by twice as much as in 2008. The main source of external debt has been the private sector. Given the contraction in global financial markets, Turkey, which entered into the 2008 crisis with a high current account deficit and a high external debt dependency, was waiting for a period of distress (Yeldan, 2009). In

the table below, Turkey's foreign debt from 2002-2015 was presented based on the Public Sector, the CBRT and the Private Sector.

Table 2.1. Turkey's Gross Foreign Debt on the Basis of Sectors (2002-2015)

Years	Public Sector *	CBRT*	Private Sector*	Total External Debt
2002	64.533 (50%)	22.003 (% 17)	43.060 (33 %)	129.596
2003	70.844 (49 %)	24.373 (17 %)	48.945 (34 %)	144.161
2004	75.668 (47 %)	21.410 (13 %)	64.061 (40 %)	161.139
2005	70.411 (41 %)	15.425 (9%)	84.914 (50 %)	170.750
2006	71.587 (34 %)	15.678 (8 %)	120.844 (58 %)	208.109
2007	73.525 (30 %)	15.801 (6 %)	160.686 (64 %)	250.012
2008	78.334 (28 %)	14.066 (5 %)	188.558 (67 %)	280.958
2009	83.513 (31 %)	13.162 (5 %)	172.265 (64 %)	268.940
2010	89.110 (31 %)	11.565 (4 %)	191.350 (65 %)	292.025
2011	94.280 (31 %)	9.334 (3 %)	200.296 (66 %)	303.909
2012	104.023 (31 %)	7.088 (2 %)	227.910 (67 %)	339.022
2013	115.944 (30 %)	5.234 (1 %)	267.875 (69 %)	389.054
2014	117.709 (29 %)	2.484 (1 %)	282.512 (70 %)	402.705
2015	112.955 (28 %)	1.327 (1 %)	283.756 (71 %)	398.038

Source. <https://www.hazine.gov.tr/tr-TR/Istatistik-Sunum-Sayfasi?mid=120&cid=12> (14/06/2016)

* : Percentages in brackets represent the percentage of total external debt.

When the table is closely examined, it is observed that total external debt has a steady increase as of 2002, and the share of private sector's external debt in total external debt has increased firmly from 33% to 71% while public sector's debt went down to 28% which was 50% in 2002. In summary, the external debt of the country has shifted from the public sector to the private sector.

Another negative reflection of the 2008 global crisis to Turkey has shown itself in exchange rates. The TL (Turkish Lira) / USD parity, which was 1.2 before the crisis, rose to 1.6 levels with the crisis and the TL / Euro parity rose to 2.1 levels in a short period of 4 months from 1.6 levels. This rise in foreign exchange rates resulted in the depreciation of TL in foreign

markets and the rise in Turkish deficits in foreign trade balances. The impact of the crisis on foreign trade became even more evident in 2009, and the decline in the demand of foreign trade partners for the products of Turkey's reduced exports and thus Turkey began to suffer from external demand (Sarpkaya, 2009).

Under the influence of the global crisis, risks have also increased in the foreign exchange and stock markets for the Turkish economy as a consequence of the increase in international financial risks. As of the last three months of 2008, when the global crisis was felt deeply in the Turkish economy, there was a decrease in capital inflows from abroad and also the outflow in foreign financial capital investments had a negative impact on the stock markets. One of the areas in which the global crisis affected the Turkish economy was the decline in imports and exports due to declining overseas demand. As a result of the crisis in 2009, there was a contraction of 15% in GDP on a quarter basis and a contraction of 5% in 2009 on an annual basis (Oktar and Dalyanci). In order to see the picture, the change of GDP between 2002 and 2014 is presented in detail in Table 2.2.

That the problems in outsourcing decelerated some economic activities, especially the investments and the decline in foreign demand have been influential in the slowdown in growth. In year 2009, when the impact of the crisis was more experienced, a contraction of 4.8% was observed. The decline in industrial production has been a trigger for contraction (Kaderli and Kucukkaya, 2012). These decreases in production have also brought about their dismissal. The unemployment rate rose up to 14% in 2009, when the effects of the crisis were felt intensively. Unemployment rates between 2002 and 2014 are presented in the table below.

Table 2.2. The GDP, Growth and Unemployment Rates (Yearly Basis)

Years	GDP – Million TL (Current Prices)	GDP- Million US dollars	Million TL (Fixed Prices)	Growth Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)
2002	350.476	230.494	72.520	6,2	10.4
2003	454.781	304.901	76.338	5,3	10.5
2004	559.003	390.387	83.486	9,4	10.8
2005	648.932	481.497	90.500	8,4	10.6
2006	758.391	526.429	96.738	6,9	10.2
2007	843.178	648.625	101.255	4,7	10.3
2008	950.534	742.094	101.922	0,7	11.0
2009	952.559	616.703	97.003	-4,8	14.0
2010	1.098.799	731.638	105.886	9,2	11.9

2011	1.297.713	773.980	115.175	8,8	9.8
2012	1.416.798	786.283	117.625	2,1	9.2
2013	1.567.289	823.044	122.556	4,2	8.7
2014	1.747.362	799.001	126.128	2,9	9.2

Source. <https://www.hazine.gov.tr/tr-TR/Istatistik-Sunum-Sayfasi?mid=249&cid=26#> (15/08/2015)

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.TOTL.ZS>, Access Date: 24/02/2016.

The global crisis also had an impact on inflation figures in Turkey, and in 2008, inflation increased by 20% compared to the previous year, while the target was 4%, it increased to 10.1%. In the figure below, the targeted and realized inflation rates between 2002 and 2015 are given.

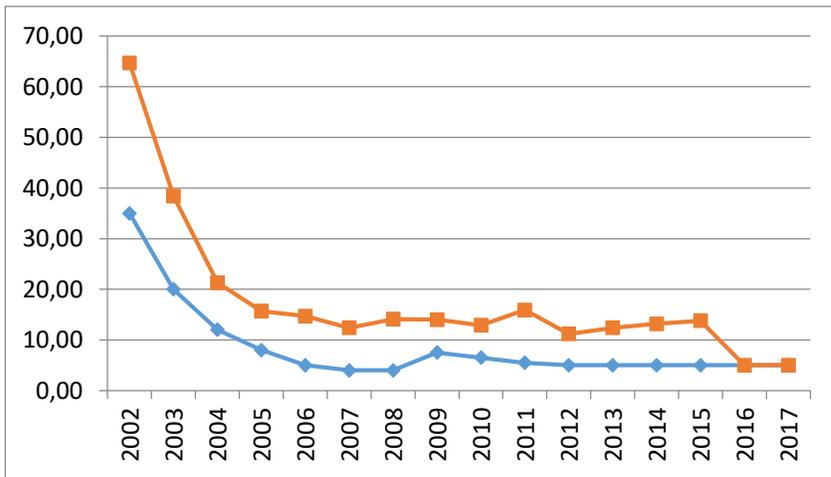


Figure 2.1. Targeted and Realized Inflation Rates (2002-2015)

(<http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/wps/.../enflasyon+hedefleri>, Access Date: 06/05/2016)

After the crisis in 2001, significant economic reforms were carried out in Turkey and monetary policy inflation targeting strategy was introduced. Since the economic conditions were not favorable during the 2002-2005 period, the CBRT tried to implement the “implicit inflation” targeting, a special type of inflation targeting strategy. As a result of these policies, inflation, which exceeded 60% in 2001, was reduced to 10% in 2005 and significant achievements were reached in price stability in the 2002-2004 period. The CBRT started to implement its explicit inflation targeting strategy by stating that the inflation rates that were reduced to single digits in 2006 constituted the confidence in monetary policy. The year-end inflation rates calculated by CPI in the medium term are shared with the public as 3-year targets by trying to keep them within a certain range (Serel and Bayir, 2013).

As of May 2006, capital inflows from Turkey resulted in a loss about 30% in TL and also the increases in food prices due to drought and financial difficulties caused inflation to rise above expectations. The CBRT suspended foreign exchange buying auctions, made various adjustments related to TL and foreign currency liquidity and prevented inflation to rise further. Oil, food and other commodity prices, which increased in the international markets in 2007 and after 2007, caused inflation to be exceeded by inflationary tendency. While the Central Bank had taken the inflation expectations under control at the beginning by highlighting the inflation indicators that ignored energy and food prices, the rise in energy and food prices has led to an increase in the inflation indicators in the economy and also a loss of value in TL due to the effects of domestic uncertainties (CBRT 2008).

3. The Stance of the CBRT in the Face of 2008 Crisis

In the period when the 2008 global crisis was effective in Turkey, the CBRT made the following arrangements to strengthen the foreign exchange liquidity of the banking system in order to effectively operate the foreign exchange market and to prevent potential problems in the liquidity flow:

In order to contribute to the increase the foreign exchange liquidity in the interbank foreign exchange market, brokerage activities of the Foreign Exchange Deposit Market in the presence of foreign exchange and effective markets were resumed by the CBRT on 9 October 2008, and the banking limits of foreign exchange and foreign exchange markets were revised on October 24, 2008 and doubled for each bank on October 24. On November 21, 2008, the maturity of the foreign exchange deposits, which banks can buy from the Central Bank in US dollars and euros, was increased from 1 week to 1 month, and the lending interest rates determined as 10% in this market were reduced to 7% for the US dollar and 9% for the euro. On December 5, 2008, the reserve requirement ratio for foreign currency was reduced from 11% to 9% and an additional foreign exchange liquidity was provided to the banking system of approximately USD 2.5 billion (CBRT, 2008).

On December 5, 2008, the Central Bank abolished the interest payment of foreign currency reserve requirements in order to encourage Turkish Lira deposits and loans, and increased the interest rate of Turkish Lira reserve requirements from 75% to 80% of the Bank's overnight borrowing interest rate, increasing the export rediscount loan limit to USD 1 billion by adding USD 500 million; export rediscount credits have brought ease of use to these credits by re-arranging the application basis and conditions. On February 20, 2009, the CBRT restructured the maturity of foreign currency deposits in US dollars and Euros, which banks could borrow from

the Central Bank to reduce lending rates from 7% to 5.5% for US dollars and from 9% to 6.5% for Euro (Elele, 2009).

According to article 40, clause (I), paragraph (c) of the CBRT Law, the CBRT Liquidity Support Loan Regulation, which specifies the procedures and principles regarding the loans that can be used, was published on January 29, 2009. Loans according to the Regulation; in the form of deposits, advances, monthly advances, for a maximum of one year, with the overnight lending interest rate determined by the Central Bank for the interbank money market operations, to be equal to twice the equity of the banks in the loan application against the collaterals accepted in the Interbank Money Market limited use. (Erdonmez, 2009).

On April 17, 2009, the CBRT increased its export rediscount loan limit of US \$ 1 billion to US \$ 2.5 billion by raising the limit of US \$ 1.5 billion to 17 million US dollars. For each firm outside the Foreign Trade Capital Corporations, the credit limit of US \$ 20 million was raised. Starting from June 19, 2009, the CBRT has started to use repo transactions up to 3 months in addition to one-week repo transactions, which is the basic funding tool, to support the healthy operation of the banks' liquidity management and transfer mechanism (Elele, 2009).

While, as of February 2009, interest rates were 0.5% in the USA, 0.6% in Japan, 1.2% in China, 1.85% in Eurozone countries, before the crisis and as of 17 July 2009, the Central Bank's Monetary Policy Board had a very high overnight interest rate of 16.75% and a lending interest rate of 20.25%. With the crisis, the borrowing interest rate was reduced to 11.5% and the lending interest rate was reduced to 14% on 19 February 2009 with a consecutive discount within four months. CBRT reduced interest rates further by 1% on 19 March 2009. As the interest rates were still at high levels, the CBRT has taken one more step on April 16, 2009, reducing the borrowing interest rate to 9.75% and the lending rate to 12.25% (Hic, 2009). The following table summarizes the monetary policy practices of the Central Bank of 2008-2009.

Table 3.1. Monetary Policy Practices of the CBRT between October 2008 and August 2009

Date	Policy Tool	The Objective of the Policy
October 2008	Foreign exchange buying auctions are suspended.	Permanent retention of foreign currency reserves from the foreign exchange market
	Exchange depot brokerage activities have been started again.	The ability of banks to make more

	<p>Banks' transaction limits in the Foreign Exchange Deposit Market have been gradually increased. Within the scope of the stated borrowing limits, the currency of the foreign exchange pools that the banks can take is extended from 1 week to 1 month.</p> <p>Foreign exchange borrowing interest rates have been reduced from 10% to 7% for the US dollar and 9% for the Euro.</p>	flexible decisions in terms of foreign exchange liquidity and to encourage policies to eliminate the foreign exchange liquidity in the market
24-27 October 2008	A total of US \$ 100 million was sold with foreign exchange selling auctions.	Preventing unhealthy price formations
December 2008	Foreign currency required reserve ratio has been reduced from 11% to 9%.	Providing foreign exchange liquidity in the markets
	Export rediscount credit limit has been increased and ease of use has been added to these credits.	Overcoming foreign exchange liquidity problems in foreign trade
February 2009	In the foreign exchange deposit market, the maturity of the foreign exchange deposits that banks can buy from the CBRT has been extended from 1 month to 3 months and the maturity of the banks' transactions in the said market has been extended from 1 month to 3 months.	The ability of banks to make more flexible decisions in terms of foreign exchange liquidity and to encourage policies to eliminate the foreign exchange liquidity problem in the market
	Foreign exchange borrowing interest rates were reduced from 7% to 5.5% for the US dollar and from 9% to 6.5% for the Euro.	
10 March and 3 April 2009	A total of USD 900 million was sold with foreign exchange auctions.	Preventing unhealthy price formations
20 March and 17 April 2009	In order to expand the use of export rediscount credits, regulations have been made to enable more companies to benefit from export rediscount credits and credit limits have been increased.	Overcoming foreign exchange liquidity problems in foreign trade
August 4, 2009	Foreign exchange purchase auctions have been started again.	Due to the positive expectations

		regarding the global economy and the increase in foreign capital inflows, the foreign exchange market liquidity needs to be revisited
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Source. Serel and Bayir 2013.

When the table is examined, it is seen that effective measures have been utilized during the crisis and important steps have been taken towards normalization with the "Monetary Policy Exit Strategy" conducted by the Central Bank for foreign exchange markets and the banking system foreign exchange liquidity. The "Monetary Policy Exit Strategy" is the main policy text on foreign exchange rate policy and liquidity management issues.

In addition to short-term interest rates, which are the main policy tool of the CBRT, the global crisis has required the effective use of alternative means such as liquidity management and required reserves, and with the global crisis, required reserves have gained importance in liquidity management. The CBRT has created a new policy component as financial stability has been jeopardized by the increasing current account deficit after the crisis. In order to prevent credit expansion and rising domestic demand, the enforcement of required reserves is at the heart of the new policy component. In this context, due to the inflation targeting regime, the CBRT emphasized the enforcement of reserve requirements to reduce the loan volume without increasing interest rates. With the global crisis, due to the need to take into account the financial stability in addition to the price stability, the CBRT started to implement a policy in 2010 in which the interest rate and the interest corridor between overnight borrowing and lending were used together as well as a policy to reduce macro-economic risks (Sozer, 2013). The table below shows the monetary policy practices applied by the CBRT in 2010-2011.

Table 3.2. Monetary Policy Practices of the CBRT Between April 2010 and April 2011

Date	Applied Policy Tool	The Objective of the Policy
April, July, September 2010	Foreign currency required reserve ratio increased by 2 points in total to 11%.	Limiting the expansion in credit markets
October 2010	Foreign exchange purchases have been facilitated by adopting a flexible foreign exchange buying auction method. In 2010, a total of US	Making the capital inflows for Turkey more stable and to feeding the CBRT

	\$ 14.1 billion was collected from the market.	reserve accumulation
	TL required reserve ratios have been differentiated according to the maturities and some funds obtained from domestic and foreign repo transactions that were not subject to the compulsory reserve were included in the reserve requirements.	In the banking system, extending the maturity of liabilities and directing foreign capital inflows to longer maturity
October 2010	The CBRT put an end to the intermediary transactions in the Foreign Exchange deposit market. However, the maturity of foreign exchange deposit transactions from the CBRT has been reduced from 3 months to 1 week within the framework of the borrowing limits granted to them by the CBRT.	Limiting foreign exchange market liquidity
September, November 2010	The required reserve ratios of the Turkish Lira have been increased to 6%. The application of interest payment for TL reserve requirements has been terminated.	Limiting credit expansion
November 2010	The corridor between overnight borrowing and lending interest rates has been expanded by reducing the policy interest rate.	Extending the maturity of capital inflows
December 2010- January 2011	The policy interest rate was reduced from 7% to 6.25%.	Ensuring that foreign capital inflow is balanced with domestic indicators
	The interest corridor has been expanded by reducing overnight borrowing interest rates to provide downward mobility by allowing overnight interest rates to be lower than policy interest rates.	Limiting short-term foreign capital inflow
January, March, April 2011	Reserve requirements are gradually increased.	Limiting upward risks on inflation

April 2011	Foreign currency required reserve ratios have been differentiated according to maturity. TL short-term reserve ratios have been increased at a limited rate.	Term extension of short-term foreign capital entering the country
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Source. Serel and Bayir 2013.

When the table is examined, it is understood that the CBRT's policies aim to limit the expansion of credit markets, to keep capital inflows to the country at a stable level and to control the upward risks on inflation.

As of September 2011, in order to limit the negative effects of the excessive volatility of capital movements on macroeconomic and financial stability, the CBRT adopted the Reserve Option Mechanism (ROM), which allows the banks to hold a certain proportion of the TL required reserves to be deposited in the Central Bank. Thanks to the ROM, banks were able to establish up to 10% of the required reserves to be deposited for TL liabilities in USD and/or Euro. In addition, up to 10% of the required reserves to be established for foreign currency liabilities and up to the entire amount of the required reserves to be kept for precious metals' depository accounts can be kept in the CBRT as standard gold. These ratios were 30% for gold and 60% for foreign exchange in August 2012. The ROM implementation increases the flexibility of monetary policy and can balance short-term capital flows (Delice 2015). In traditional Monetary Policy implementations, while the Central Bank offers foreign currency to the market with open market transactions and tries to reduce the pressure on TL by withdrawing foreign currency from the market, the ROM application on the other hand provides an automatic balancing mechanism that does not require continuous intervention of the Central Bank and gives flexibility to the banking system (Cevik, 2016).

With a decision taken by the CBRT on 11 September 2012; it was declared that only USD denominated required reserves will be established for the US dollar required reserve liabilities and it will continue to be made in US dollars or Euros as for current foreign currency and precious metal liabilities and as reserve requirement in gold for precious metal deposit accounts. In order to secure financial stability due to developments in global markets, for all segments, Reserve Option Coefficients (ROC) were increased 0.2 points on September 18, 2012, 0.1 points on 18 October 2012, and also on November 20, 2012, ROC were increased 0.1 points in the segments beyond 40% segment where TL liabilities can be held as foreign currency and 0.2 points in all segments where TL liabilities can be held as gold. In the press releases of the CBRT dated 18 December 2012 and 22 January 2013, it is stated that the ROK has been increased 0,1 points

for all segments regarding the establishment of TL reserve requirements in gold (Cetin, 2016).

The CBRT implemented additional monetary tightening measures in order to limit the effects of inflation exceeding the 5% target on the negative impact of inflation and inflation expectations on the significant depreciation in TL after May 2013. The overnight lending rate was raised by the CBRT to increase the interest rate corridor upward and effective short-term interest rates were realized close to the upper limit of the corridor thanks to effective liquidity management (Yucememis and Others, 2015). As a result of the Central Bank's Monetary Policy Board meeting held on 28 January 2014; it has been reported that recent developments affecting the perception of risk on domestic and foreign markets, a significant depreciation and a significant increase in the risk premium have been reported, an important loss of value and a significant increase in risk were observed and the tight stance in monetary policy will continue until a significant improvement in the inflation outlook has been achieved. In this respect, overnight debt interest rate representing the upper band of the interest corridor rose from 7.75% to 12% and a one-week repo interest rate increased from 4.5% to 10%. (<http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/wps/wcm/connect/TCMB+TR/TCMB+TR/Main+Menu/Duyurular/Basin/2014/DUY2014-07>, Access Date: 18/06/2016).

In the following periods, until 2016, depending on the condition of the markets, ROM mechanism was applied at various times and regulations were made by the CBRT. In a press release issued on 26 December 2015, it was stated that the automatic balancing feature of the ROM will be strengthened in accordance with Article 46 of the 2016 Yearbook and Exchange Rate Policy text and that the amendment was made in line with this amendment would be effective from the December 31, 2015 liability period beginning on January 15, 2016. (<http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/wps/wcm/connect/tcmb+tr/tcmb+tr/main+menu/duyurular/basin/2015/duy2015-74>, Access Date: 18/06/2016).

From 2014 onward, interest corridor applications such as ROM have been utilized by the CBRT, and the CBRT has tried to control the exchange rate by expanding or narrowing the band between the interest corridor. The following figure shows the change in the interest rate corridor on the basis of years. As the figure shows, the CBRT has broadened and narrowed the band between overnight borrowing and lending interest rates, which constitute quite a gap in interest rates. The data shown in Figure for each year are the data announced in the latest date in that year, and interest rates have been changed more than once in each year. For example, the interest corridor had to be changed 8 times in 2008 and 11 times in 2009, when the impact of the crisis was felt intensively.

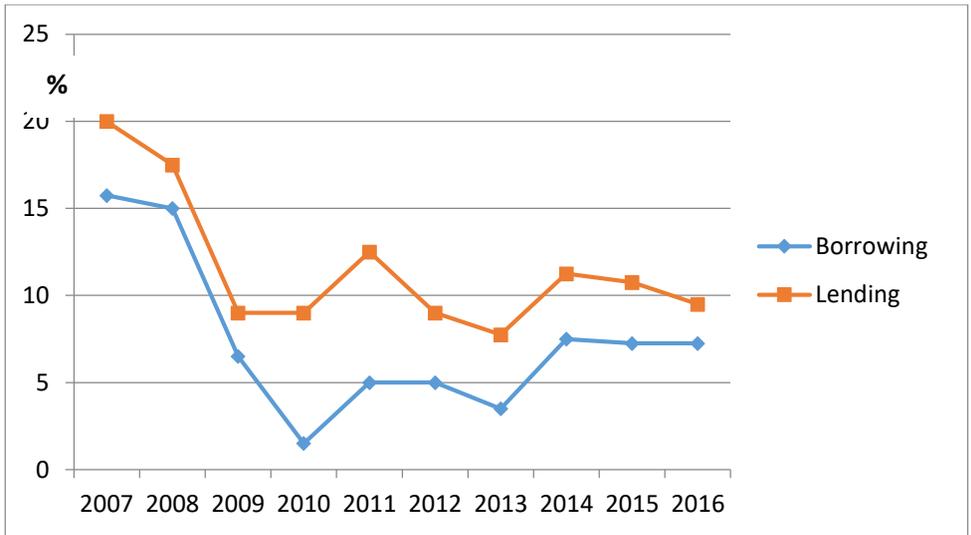


Figure 3.1. The CBRT's Overnight Borrowing/Lending Interest Rates

(<http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/wps/wcm/connect/tcmb+tr/tcmb+tr/main+page+site+area/tcmb+faiz+oranlari/faiz-oranlari>, Access Date: 18/06/2016).

4. Conclusions and Discussions

In this work, how Turkey and particularly the CBRT handled the 2008 global financial crisis was tried to be presented in a compact and concise way to provide a documentation for future analysis. One of the methods to manage a crisis is to draw lessons from similar incidents, take the necessary actions and be well-prepared to take the necessary measures for possible future cases. The Fed is therefore highly criticized for not taking the right actions before and during the 2008 global crisis although it had experienced a crisis like 1929 great depression. On the other hand, Turkey which experienced 2000-2001 crises learned a lot from these crises and took the necessary measures possible to be not affected adversely in the face of any future financial crisis. For this reason, Turkey has not been affected by the 2008 financial crisis as were the other countries. It is possible to say that there was a real sector crisis in Turkey rather than a financial crisis and that the crisis in Turkey was different from the global crisis the other countries experienced.

As can be seen from the information given in the above sections, the CBRT along with the related institutions of the government took measures before, during and after the crisis by closely monitoring the economic and financial indicators and figures. It can be said that the main idea behind all the measures and actions taken by the related authorities of Turkey is to have a system that is resistant and ultimately immune to external financial shocks and/or attacks.

In today's globalized world, the crises have spread mechanism, lead to a significant loss of production and welfare for many countries, and show themselves as instability in production and employment, due to the disruption of global expectations, credit mechanisms and demand. In order not to be affected by the destructive and disruptive effects of the crisis, a country with its all institutions and organizations should be very well-prepared for financial crises, should not wait the crisis to come and should take its best position to combat with crisis.

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AN EXPLORATION OF THE IMPACTS OF PATH DEPENDENCY IN FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT ON PATTERNS OF GROWTH

Christopher HANNUM*

Introduction

In economics today we tend to either model international trade in goods assuming the primary factors of production, capital and labor, cannot be transferred from country to country. When explicit mention is made of the possibility of ‘capital flows’, these are typically modeled in exactly the same fashion and with all the same assumptions and biases that dominate the theoretical literature governing trade in goods. Capital transfers are inherently *good*, because they allow a citizen of one country to earn a higher rate of return on his capital by investing it in a more productive location. Since his profits are greater, income in his country will increase. It assumed that whether a capital-rich country decides to export capital-intensive goods or export capital will change either the size of gains from trade or the primary beneficiaries (Krugman & Obstfeld, 2000). Capital will flow North-South, or capital-intensive goods will flow North-South, the result will be an increase in the returns to capital in the north and a decrease in wages with a corresponding decrease in the returns to capital in the south and an increase in wages. Since this is taken as a given, relatively little attention is then given to the actual effects of these factor flows and their direction. Does capital flow from capital-rich to capital-poor nations? If so, *which* capital-poor nations? If not, what then does capital seek?

In general the neoclassical idea that capital will flow from capital-rich to capital-poor nations is the natural outgrowth of the fundamental assumption of diminishing returns. It is assumed that the marginal return to capital must gradually decrease as the total capital stock of a country increases, as such the returns to new investment must be higher where there is a small capital stock than where there is a large capital stock. The dominant model of economic development and growth, the Solow growth model (Jones, 1998), is itself built upon the principle of diminishing marginal returns. In explaining how income levels in different countries diverge, it is assumed that differing investment rates will be responsible for a large degree of the static difference in incomes between countries, but that each will have reached a steady state of output at which investment opportunities have been exhausted. In a nutshell, in the present an future investment cannot be a cause of income growth since investment rates can

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only cause ‘level effects’, all growth in the future must be caused by new technology.

With such powerful assumptions it makes little sense then to analyze the determinants of investment and cross-border capital flows: since investment cannot *on its own* lead to changes in income. Changes in technology and productivity then provide new opportunities for investment and working in tandem with investment lead to growth. Little surprise then that so much of the research into cross-border capital flows has focused on its effects on the levels of ‘technology’ in the recipient country. The important question we must ask ourselves is: does this explanation of the role of investment and capital fit the world we see before us? To a large extent the answer is no. From 1973 to 1993, the capital-rich countries of the world (Krugman & Obstfeld, 2000; IMF data) were net *importers* of capital with the exception of 1978. Recently this has reversed itself, with large capital flows to Asia in particular but will this hold? The largest net recipients of foreign capital are rapidly growing low-to-middle income countries, not those with the smallest capital stocks. Most importantly the interest and profit rates are not systematically higher in capital-poor countries than they are in capital-rich countries (Ray, 1998). This seems to negate the most fundamental premise of conventional analysis of international capital flows. Why then does capital flow, where does it flow and what effect will this have on the countries involved?

Theoretical Background on Growth:

While, as mentioned earlier, investment alone cannot have a substantive effect on present-day economic growth in the dominant Solow model, this is not universally the case for all growth models. The primitive growth ‘recipe’ devised by Harrod and Domar (Ray, 1998) provides the underlying basis for the Solow model, but with an exogenous parameter, θ , for the relationship between the capital stock and gross output K/Y . If this parameter, θ , is exogenous and fixed this implies a constant rather than diminishing marginal rate of return to capital. In the Harrod-Domar model, the growth rate of a country is given as a function of net investment and θ , where ‘G’ represents the growth rate, ‘I’ represents the investment rate and δ represents the rate at which capital depreciates:

$$G_{(t)} = (I_{(t)}/\theta) - \delta$$

However, the Harrod-Domar growth model, in which θ is exogenous, makes no specific assumption about the nature of the aggregate production function. In order for θ to be constant with respect to K , which is necessary for the relationship as written above to hold, it must be the case that the aggregate production function itself involves a constant marginal product of capital. Such a production function might resemble $Y = KL$ or

$Y = K + L$, but certainly could not resemble any of the main forms which neoclassical economists believed production at the firm level might take. Production with constant returns to scale for any given factor must necessarily involve either perfect substitution of factors, with no complementarity, or rather strongly increasing returns to scale. The Solow model was then adopted in order to give the theory of growth what would conventionally be considered a stronger microeconomic foundation, by assuming a more typical Cobb-Douglas form for the aggregate production function with constant returns to scale and diminishing returns to each factor, where A represents exogenous technology:

$$Y = AK^\alpha L^{1-\alpha}$$

Despite its failings in describing world trends, the Solow model did and continues to provide an explanation of growth more satisfactory to economists than that of Harrod and Domar. The critical failing of the Solow model is that since investment *cannot* drive long-run future growth in the Solow model, growth itself is exogenous. Many economists find little satisfaction the explanation that the source of growth is that which we cannot explain or quantify rather than that which we can. As such a number of attempts have been made, under the combined descriptive heading of ‘endogenous growth theories’ to explain the source of the A in the Solow model (Ray, 1998). Those theories of primary relevance here are those which describe A as *in part* a function of investment in research and development and education (which are not typically considered capital investment in national accounts) and perhaps the capital stock itself. In addition, ‘new growth’ theories have explored the concept of increasing returns to scale in the aggregate and how this might affect the causes and dimensions of growth. By some estimates, extension of a Solow-type model to include endogenous determinants of A might allow investment rates, when more broadly defined, to account for as much as 80% of the variation in per capita growth rates (Jones, 1998).

Nonetheless, by themselves these extensions of the Solow model do not get us past the fundamental stumbling block as concerns the effect of investment on growth. With a Cobb-Douglas production function as in the Solow model, in order for investment to be able to drive growth at all α must be arbitrarily close to 1, or the effect of K on A must be powerful enough to give a non-negative d^2Y/dK^2 , and for this to hold a dY/dK of 0.8 is not enough (Krugman & Obstfeld, 2000). It is necessary for investment rates to drive long-run growth to have constant returns or increasing returns to broadly-defined capital alone *in the aggregate*. While experiences in the real world over the past century fit the predictions of Harrod-Domar (Hussen & Thirlwall, 2000) better than those of Solow in that investment rates have been strongly correlated with growth and that there has been no perceptible pattern of ‘convergence’ between rich and poor countries, it is

conventional economic wisdom that the assumption of constant marginal returns to capital simply does not fit our understanding of how capital works. But is this necessarily the case? Economists in general are uncomfortable with the modeling of increasing returns to scale; it makes the theoretical calculus complex and burdensome, takes away our ability to confidently predict the distribution of income and seems to point toward monopoly as the end-state of growth. When increasing returns to scale and 'imperfect competition' are modeled, as in the Dixit-Stiglitz model (Krugman, 1979), the process tends to require such powerful simplifying assumptions of its own that one wonders if there is any net gain in explanatory power over models with perfect competition and constant returns to scale.

To step away from the discomfort which returns to scale cause pure theorists and return to the theory of growth, while there may be grave problems with theories of universally increasing returns to scale at the firm level which economists are unable to solve, it is not necessarily the case that these problems would equally complicate models of *aggregate* production. It may be the case, as in the theory of 'coordination failure', that increases in production must take place alongside increases in production at other firms in order to avoid a form of diminishing returns. If a given firm or sector expands its own production faster than those firms or sectors which supply its intermediate goods, such as raw materials, transportation, electricity, it will see its own costs of production rise. If a firm or sector expands production faster than the economy as a whole grows (if we were to assume a closed economy) the price which it was able to receive for its goods would fall. It may be the case that there are powerful firm level or aggregate increasing returns to scale which are counteracted by an equally powerful effect resulting from unbalanced growth when one firm or sector expands but all else is left unchanged.

In simple terms, aggregate supply creates its own aggregate demand but supply does not create demand for any given firm. In such a model, any feasible level of investment-led growth might be possible provided the market mechanism led it to the proper balance. We do not have, however, any assurance that this equilibrating process would lead to a high rather than a low rate of growth. In truth such results do not hold if one assumes a literal version of perfect competition, but since this requires a completely homogenous good and an infinite number of firms this form of perfect competition is unlikely to ever be met in the real world. It may be possible in the real world for a model approximating the theory of 'coordination failure', which is largely similar to that form of 'endogenous growth theory' in which A is taken to be a function of aggregate investment, to provide a zero or positive value for d^2Y/dK^2 . It may also be the case that

if broadly-defined investment can explain a substantial fraction of A , and we express A as

$\Delta A_t = f(\Delta K_t/Y_t) + \Sigma_t$ that the exogenous changes in technology and productivity described by Σ_t may cause the average change from year to year in dY/dK to be close to zero for any feasible investment levels.

If investment can drive growth, what drives investment?

The basic framework for explaining aggregate investment levels is largely the same as that which is used to explain investment decisions by individuals. The only critical variables in a simple model are the interest rate and the rate of return to an investment, which is considered to be synonymous with the marginal product of capital. It does not matter, with perfect information and perfectly competitive capital markets, if a given individual wishes to invest his own money or money borrowed from another, the fundamentals will be the same. The interest rate, in turn, will be determined not only by the productivity of capital but also by the propensity to save among the population. If individuals have a strong preference for present consumption as opposed to future consumption, they will be unwilling to either invest their own money or loan it out for others to invest unless the rate of return or interest rate is suitably large. This may also hold if cultural factors lead to a preference for wealth held in assets, such as cattle, rather than currency in bank accounts (Choudhury & Mavrotas, 2006). If, on the other hand, individuals have a very weak preference (or no preference) for present consumption as opposed to future consumption they may be willing to invest or loan out funds at a relatively low rate of return. In a closed economy, where local saving must be equal to local investment, a high marginal propensity to save will result in a low interest rate, high investment rate and rapid growth.

It is largely believed to be the case that cross-country differences in the willingness to save are due largely to cultural factors (Ray, 1998) and structural factors, particularly as regards the health, trustworthiness and presence of the financial sector. Some such cultural factors include the status which is attached to the acquisition of wealth by itself, as opposed to spending (Higgins & Savioe, 1995). There are also believed to be similar cultural factors which encourage or discourage investment and entrepreneurship independent of the potential returns, including status attached to specific traditional occupations and not to prosperity per se, risk-aversion, and conformity vs. individuality since successful entrepreneurs must be path-breakers. Many cross-country differences investment can also be linked to structural factors. Independent of the process of production itself and hence the production function, a strong financial sector which can assess risk accurately will need to charge less of a risk premium to borrowers, making new investment opportunities

possible. Instability, wars, upheavals and crime can result in unpredictable losses of capital and increased risk. Corruption and the lack of enforceable contracts can greatly decrease the expected returns from a capital investment while simultaneously increasing the risk involved.

Unfortunately, while structural and cultural factors do influence investment rates and through investment growth rates, they do not explain or predict investment rates very well. These factors are informative and *empirically testable* (as country-fixed-effects in the case of ‘culture’) largely because of their constancy, but the most fundamental characteristic of investment rates is their variability. The most important determinants of investment, drawing on both structural explanations and co-ordination theory, may well be expectations and perceptions of risk. Attitudes toward risk, as discussed above, or the extent of risk-aversion should be considered a cultural factor and as such largely constant. Our *perceptions* of risk, like all our expectations of the future, are only as accurate as the limitations of the human mind allow. In the presence of literally perfect information, often assumed in economic models, expectations and perceptions would continue to exert a powerful influence on investment rates and economic outcomes. In the language of co-ordination theory, co-ordination failure would be impossible. For a brief explanation, through coordination failure high investment rates can nonetheless fail to generate sustainable growth because of imbalance, with perfect information high investment rates *must* lead to high and sustainable growth because imbalanced growth would be irrational. However, while expectations would continue to influence growth under perfect information our perceptions could not be subject to wild and unpredictable swings, which they in fact appear to be.

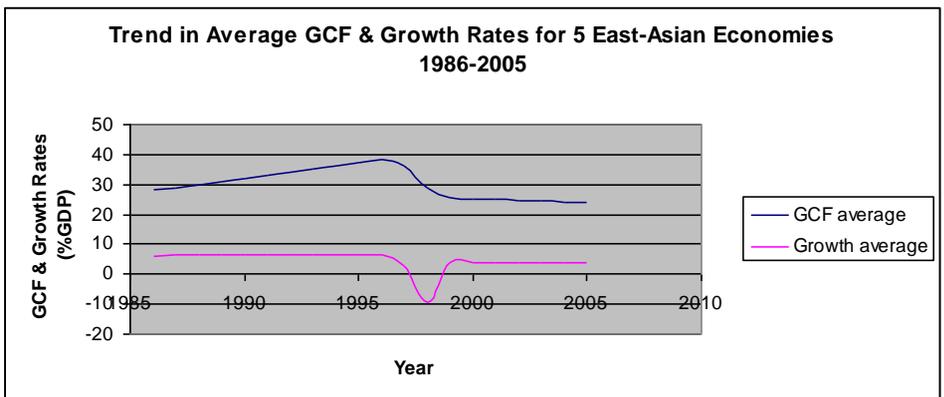
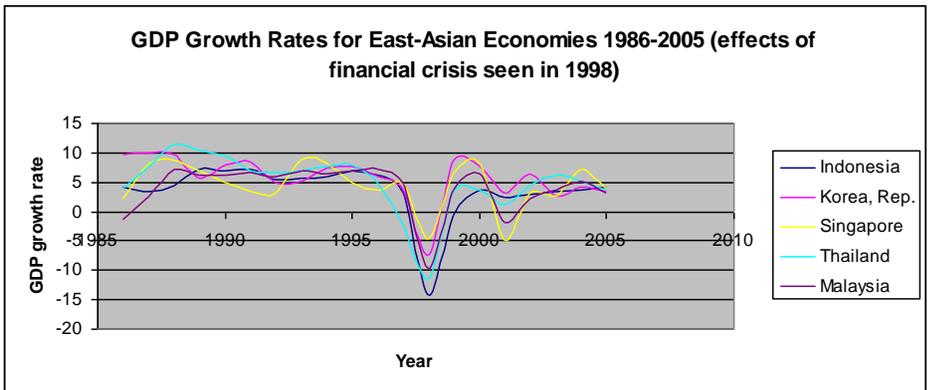
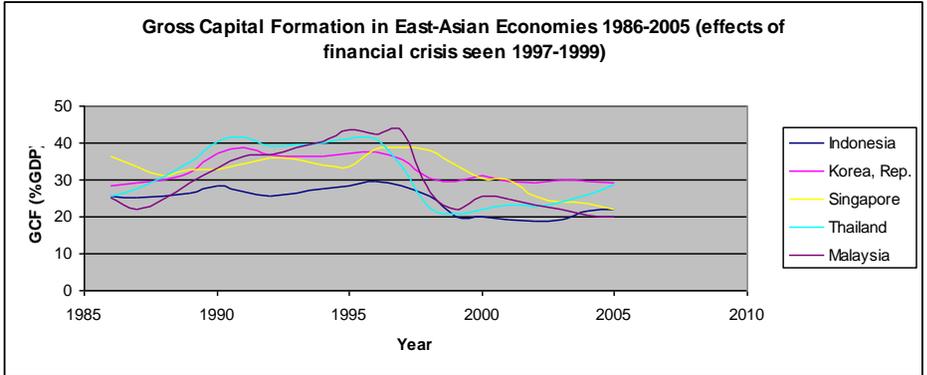
Given that we lack perfect information, or any real semblance of it, in the real world the high variability in investment rates across countries and over time speaks to the power of our expectations and perceptions. John Maynard Keynes, among others, devoted a large part of his scholarly effort to explaining the power of expectations and perceptions to dictate investment and growth and to explaining the fundamental roots of these expectations (Crotty, 1990). He wrote that our motives are “not rational in the sense of being concerned with the evaluation of the consequences, but are rather decided by habit, instinct, preference, desire and will” (Marchionetti, 1999) the core of his ‘animal spirits’ which govern investment. The primary mode by which habit interacts with expectations is by “assuming that the existing state of affairs will continue indefinitely, except in so far as we have specific reasons to expect a change” (Marchionetti, 1999). Since most investment, and most valuation of investments, is carried out by those with little reliable knowledge of the future herd-behavior is, in essence, a rational substitute (Buss, 1999). In modern capitalism, Keynes writes, investment depends upon “the average

expectations of those who deal on the Stock Exchange as revealed in the price of shares” (Marchionetti, 1999). Since the degree of genuine knowledge upon which to base expectations is necessarily scant, as dictated by the limitations of the human mind, each individual bases his or her expectations largely on those of others as well as upon habit (Buss, 1999). This makes volatility in expectations potentially extreme, except as mitigated by habit. As Marchionetti (1999) writes, the vast knowledge of professional stock market operators does not serve to calm the volatility produced by herd-following amateurs but rather exacerbates and may even provoke it since the profit incentive for a professional speculator is to predict and lead the ‘psychology of the market’.

Our expectations and our perceptions of risk, which when the majority of investors are risk-averse to any degree have largely the same effects on our desire to invest, are the function largely to two opposing forces: habit and chaotic swings due to spontaneous revaluation of risks or changes in expectations. These chaotic swings may be rational in a sense, and set in motion by genuine shocks to the economy, however they will be “exaggerated in degree” (Marchionetti, 1999). Overreaction to a minor crisis may in a very real sense bring about a major crisis, *if* the power of investment rates on economic growth is strong enough to make exogenous changes in expectations largely self-fulfilling. In the same vein, ‘irrational’ optimism may be self-fulfilling if the effect on investment leads to a sufficiently large effect on growth. For this to be the case it is necessary, as mentioned above, that the marginal productivity of capital not be strictly diminishing in the aggregate, and as mentioned above we have little reason in fact to believe that it must be.

How then do we expect these two phenomena, habit and overreaction, to interact and to play out in real-world investment rates? The effect of habit is largely the same as the most simplified model of rational expectations, that we expect what has happened in the past to continue in the future. If chaotic swings due to overreaction cause an immediate ‘recalibration’ of habit-based rational expectations then habit will amplify the influence of the initial shock rather than mitigate it and we will see investment rates which may appear entirely random. On the other hand, if habit does serve to mitigate the effects of chaotic swings we can expect the effects of ‘overreaction’ to be short-lived and to see a large degree of path-dependency in investment and growth. This will be the case if habit dominates, but in the real-world we will likely see a middle ground between the two where unpredictable swings of *sufficient magnitude* are able to permanently change expectations of future growth and perceptions of risk, diverting the path-dependent economy from one path to another. On cursory examination, this appears to be an accurate explanation for the effects on investment and growth rates in many East-Asian economies as

a result of the East-Asian financial crisis of 1997-98. Average rates of gross capital formation for the 5 economies most affected (Indonesia, Korea, Singapore, Thailand and Malaysia) were 36% of GDP from 1990 to 1997 and only 25% from 1999 to 2005. Per capita GDP growth rates in the 5 countries averaged nearly 6% from 1990 to 1996 and less than 4% from 1999 to 2005 (Aizenman, Jinjarak & Park, 2013).



Seeking Empirical Validation:

As mentioned before, investment rates have little relevance if the assumption of a diminishing MPK eliminates their effect on growth. As such a universally diminishing MPK is incongruous with the idea of long-run investment rates having any influence at all by themselves on growth rates. In addition a universally diminishing MPK will cause pure crowding out of one investment by another, with no possibility for complementarity or benefits from coordination. The results of a study on FDI by Borensztein, De Gregorio and Lee (1998) find a strong correlation between aggregate investment rates and GDP growth in panel data of developing countries regardless of model specification. Education, which in theories of endogenous growth is treated as a form of investment in human capital, is also correlated with growth. Foreign investment is found to not crowd out domestic investment but rather to be increase domestic investment rates, evidence for complementarity or ‘crowding-in’ rather than crowding out. Education levels or ‘human capital investments’ also have the effect of increasing rates of investment in physical capital (Hansen & Rand, 2006). The strong correlation between initial GDP per capital levels, which are largely an indicator of a large initial stock of physical, human and intellectual capital, suggests that path-dependence in investment is the norm though it does not suggest a cause.

Though I have oft meandered, to restate the crucial topic of importance here; in a world with largely free capital mobility investment in any individual country is not constrained by relatively static local propensities to save. If investment rates do not matter in the medium to long run, then this is irrelevant. But as we find, investment rates *do* impact growth and what is more different types of investment are shown to complement one another rather than crowd one another out. Given that this is the case it becomes crucially important to explain what determines the flows of investment from one country to another, allowing one country to invest more than it saves and another less (Blonigen & Wang, 2004). Borensztein, De Gregorio and Lee’s results (1998) suggest that aggregate investment rates (in addition to being positively affected by FDI and education) are affected by a raft of structural variables, as suggested in the theory. Weak financial institutions, high inflation, political instability, low institutional quality and high rates of government taxation and spending all negatively affect aggregate investment.

World Bank research by Singh & Jun (1999) suggests that all of these factors which affect aggregate (largely domestic) investment have the same effect on foreign investment, with the crucial difference that none of these factors have a substantial impact on foreign investment when comparing the subset of countries which have received a relatively small share of world FDI. These countries who receive small shares of FDI are by and

large poor and slow growing. Studies by Tsai (1994) and Chakrabarti (2001) find the most important predictor of FDI flows to be local market size (strongly correlated with local capital stock), Tsai also finds the growth rate of the economy to be a significant predictor of FDI flows. These studies in combination paint a picture in which investment attracts more investment, a world in which investment decisions affect growth and through the feedback loop of 'habit' or 'rational expectations' growth begets investment and further growth. Those economies which attract investment from their own citizens attract investment from abroad; those economies which do not are stuck on a low-growth path (Dreher, 2006). The size of the capital stock does not act as a break on future capital accumulation; rather it encourages it through expectations of future growth. Multinational firms and international lenders are subject to the same herd-following habitual patterns and sudden swings as domestic investors, allowing an amplification of cross-country and year-to-year variation in investment rates relative to a system without mobile capital (Alfaro et al. 2004). As evidenced from the East-Asian case, it does appear that large shocks which provoke permanent changes in habitual expectation and risk evaluation can have very long-term effects and may indeed act to dampen investment and growth permanently (Zhang, 2001).

Conclusions:

So what is to become of those countries which are stuck in the trap of low expectations and perceptions of high-risk which lead to habitually low investment and growth rates? In a world of mobile capital these countries will not see low savings rates leading to high demand for consumption goods or low interest rates which encourage the occasional risk-loving entrepreneur. It will rather be the case that these countries will experience perpetual capital flight, financing investment in rapidly growing countries. It may well be the case that some benefit returns to these countries in the form of repatriated profits, though this may be far less than the benefits that the investment itself bestows on the recipient. On the other hand it may be the case that the capital owners follow the capital in order to keep a closer eye on their wealth and so spend their profits overseas, or the rich may have a natural preference for foreign luxury goods. Investments in 'human capital' in these countries, given a certain degree of labor mobility in the world, may also flee the slow-growing countries for greater returns abroad (Haque & Kim, 1995). Such a process of 'brain drain' will certainly not be offset by profit repatriation, though some benefits may come from remittances to family members.

Without shocks or structural change, in such a world a slow-growing country (which will likely also be poor) will be doomed to further slow growth. Large, positive shocks which could shift the countries to another path seem unlikely. Since these countries are frequently dependent on

exports of primary goods as substantial increase in their terms of trade might create a leap in growth. However, the dynamics of the primary/extractive sector is well-enough understood for investors to expect cyclical ups and downs and hence to react coolly. Increases in terms of trade of this nature would also encourage investment primarily in those extractive sectors and lead to unbalanced growth and coordination failure in which high investment does not lead to high growth. Since we understand both domestic and foreign investment to be a self-reinforcing process, the best hope to escape the low-expectations trap will be incremental change. We have seen that policies and institutions which are conducive to investment do have a positive effect on investment and growth rates. However, habit and expectations suggest that the effect of changes in institutions on investment will be subject to a substantial lag. Old expectations of high inflation may influence present investment decisions from beyond the grave (Harrison & Rodriguez-Clare, 2010).

If we go so far as to assume that only certain types of investment or certain marginal changes in the size of investments are affected by structural variables, small changes in investments will be encouraged through structural change (since they were in fact *deterred* by previous institutional expectations, independent of expectations of growth or risk). These small changes will then lead to slightly higher growth and expectations of slightly higher growth which encourages further expansion of investment. This process will lead to a slow acceleration of investment and growth as a result of structural change. Unfortunately, for most countries the political vision, will and authority necessary for such a long-run approach to development may be lacking. A negative shock could set the process back years or decades and those in the position to enact institutional change may have personal incentives which are at odds with pro-growth change and related to the existing low-expectations trap.

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*All data for growth rates and gross capital formation comes from the World Bank World Development Indicators online at '<http://devdata.worldbank.org/dataonline/>'

FILOLOGIJA

THE THEME OF HOMOPHOBIC VIOLENCE IN PHILIP RIDLEY'S *VINCENT RIVER*

Belgin BAĞIRLAR*

I. Introduction

The emergence of the concept of sex is rooted in the biologically characteristics that distinguish men from women. However, these biological traits do not always dictate which gender identity an individual assumes. Gender identities are (un)consciously shaped by the rules of the society within which one is born into and reared. In essence, society assigns individuals both with sexual as well as their gender roles—and thus their identities.

Gayle Rubin argues “like gender, sexuality is (also) political” (Rubin, 2011:180). Gender is directly associated with power, masculinity, and patriarchy—all three of which being dominant in many countries. In fact, Michel Foucault (1978:39) and Terrell Carver (1998:2) support Rubin in proposing that sexuality ought to be studied in greater depth and detail as an independent field of study. Both feel that “sexuality is not the expression of a natural identity, which ‘the political’ sets out to protect or control. Rather, it is the product of a complex multiplicity of social and political practices” (Carver, 1998:2). In this context, gender and sexuality are not mutually exclusive of one another. Respectively, when one considers patriarchy, those who are non-male or non-masculine—i.e. women and LGBT people—are unable to escape male hegemony. Patriarchy still remains an overriding ideology in many, if not most, contemporary societies; and moreover, it as an overpowering impact upon how sexuality and gender is defined in order to maintain as well as strengthen its societal presence. The patriarchal order reaffirms itself by means of supporting the continuation of reproduction. Hence, it both places emphasis on heterosexual relationships in order to preserve societal order, as well as uses heterosexuality as means of symbolizing its hegemony over women—to the extent that laws surrounding marriage (for example) are established, of which treat women as second-class citizens and buttress heterosexuality. Those who wish not to remain outside of the social order give in to this imposed and ‘compulsory’ (Butler, 1999:68). Homosexual or LGBT individuals, on the other hand, are marginalized by society, and are furthermore perceived as a threat because they do not contribute to the cycle of reproduction. Actually, this is one of the other reasons why patriarchy rejects homosexuality.

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Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick, a founding mother of queer theory, claims that patriarchy is “an excruciating system of double binds, systematically oppressing gay people, identities, and acts by undermining through contradictory constraints on discourse the grounds of their very being” (Sedgwick, 1990:70). She argues that the use of dualistic terminology such as male-female and heterosexual-homosexual within this system only restricts LGBT people’s sense of freedom and creates a culture of pressure around them. As a matter of fact, she mocks the term ‘homosexuality’, noting that “the word ‘homosexuality’ wasn’t coined until 1869—so everyone before then was heterosexual” (Sedgwick, 1990:52). She disapproves the usage of ‘homosexuality’ term, because she believes these terms are made up by policy to stress on the difference between heterosexuals and homosexuals. Foucault, whose book *The History of Sexuality* has contributed greatly to queer studies, resembles Sedgwick in terms of discussing about the power of the system. In stating that “where there is power, there is resistance” (1978:95-96), he wishes to convey that homosexuality is a form of resistance that stretches back well into the dunes of history. Resistance as co-existed with power throughout every culture and period of time, be it secretly, or be it openly. In this sense, homosexuality as resistance is as old as time itself—and has made its mark on history through the accomplishments of people such as Oscar Wilde, Leonardo da Vinci, and Elton John, among many others.

The Hungarian writer Karl Maria Kertbeny was the first person to use the word *homosexuality* in 1869. In 1969, a New York-based underground gay bar, the Stonewall Inn, became the scene of a clash between LGBT individuals versus police officers, who often raided the bar. This particular clash would ultimately morph into riots by queer people, to which police would yet again stamp out. Shortly thereafter, the gay community began to collectively unite and start a resistance movement aimed at liberation, upon which they held their first series of liberation walks across the USA the following year, on the anniversary date of the Stonewall Riots. In 1990, Theresa da Lauretis had organized the first queer theory-themed conference at the University of California. In 1993, the first issue of *A Journal of Lesbian and Gay Studies* was published—this, followed by queer theory being given room in other journals such as *Sociological Theory* and *Socialist Review*, also in the 1990s. Furthermore, the word ‘queer’ refers to anybody who is sexually marginal(ized), as well as refers to the LGBT people by those working in the field of queer studies. Judith Butler (1999:158), who also has tremendously influenced queer theory through her book *Gender Trouble*, endorses that (most) LGBT people refer to themselves as being *queer* as a means of separating themselves from others. In fact, *queer* lacks any sense of clear definition due to the fact that it also refers to *all* oppressed individuals—this, in line with LGBT people’s desire to stand up against authority. But, it should not be forgotten that any

individual who does not smoothly fit into the fabric of societal norms is viewed as being abnormal, and is often confronted with both psychological and physical violence.

Despite us now living in the twenty-first century, homophobic violence still exists. Sedgwick, on this topic, notes that “homophobia directed by men against men is misogynistic, and perhaps trans-historically so. By ‘misogynistic’ I mean not only that it is oppressive of the so-called feminine in men, but that it is oppressive of women” (Sedgwick, 2015:20). In other words, she argues that homophobic violence is, perhaps, rooted in violence against women. Within the patriarchal order, gender identity is groomed into individuals from an early age. What is more, individuals are also taught that women need to be subordinated. Upon considering this, it is impossible to deny that hatred towards women gives way, thus, to homophobic violence. Criminology professor Gail Mason states that “violence, harassment and vilification directed against lesbians and gays is not new. But the 1990s has seen the start of a trend to recognise it as a social problem” (Mason, 1997:104). Unfortunate examples of this include the vicious murder of James Byrd, who was tied to car and dragged to his death, alongside the hanging of Matthew Shepard, and the beating-death of Billy Jack Gaither, among others. Contrarily, theorist Michael Warner contends that LGBTQ people’s gaining of a significant number of rights and freedoms in the twenty-first century has, nevertheless, done little to curb violence “exacted on gay people by homophobes” (Warner, 1993: 172). In other words, queer persons are not yet able to cope in terms of defending themselves from external violence. According to Dough Meyer, “for many LGBT people the family is the primary arena where they experience violence, rejection, and ostracism” (Meyer, 2015:13). LGBT people, moreover, expect loved ones who are close to them to be their first source of support in terms of both gaining liberation and acceptance, however are, more often than not, ostracised first and foremost by those very same people. In turn, they lose respect towards themselves as well as become estranged within society. They struggle significantly to live within the perimeters of society simply because they are queer. For instance, a queer person who desires “a job, custody, or visiting rights, insurance, protection from violence... could deliberately choose to remain in or to re-enter the closet in some or all segments of their life” (Sedgwick, 1990:68).

Being in ‘the closet’ means one having hiding their sexual identity from the rest of society. Unfortunately, the reasons behind this often include a fear of marginalization as well as of violence. In Stephen Barber’s view, “a society that closets homosexuality, in other words, is a closeted society; it occults a truth about itself” (Barber, 2002: 177). That is to say that he is calling for all LGBT people to ‘come out’, defending that standing against fear will ultimately create a healthier society.

To sum up, the struggle by queer persons to be accepted as normal by society and gain the same rights as their heterosexual counterparts has had a negative impact upon their (already unimaginably difficult) lives. When one adds physical and non-physical violence into the picture, their ability to exist in a healthy context only becomes more challenging. In turn, the emergence of a civilized society can only come about when people are freely able to choose/define their own gender identities, and when society thus accepts such dynamics as they are.

I.I. Philip Ridley

A number of young playwrights shifted the direction Anglo-British theatre in the 1990s through plays that now reflected social and political reality, and though a much cruder, uncensored idiom. The stage and the audience were now pinned against one another, and stark naked. The theatre critic Aleks Sierz went so far as to dub this movement *in-yer-face* theatre, tracing its roots back to Sarah Kane's play *Blasted*, followed by Mark Ravenhill's *Shopping and Fucking*, and the works of many a writer more, such as Nick Grosso, Judy Upton, and Martin Crimp. To Sierz, Philip Ridley, in particular, is "a pivotal figure in the history of 1990s playwriting" (Sierz, 2014:89). Since he effectively faces audiences to the realities of society using violence.

Philip Ridley was born in the East London district of Bethnal Green in 1964. In addition to being an astonishing playwright, he also is a "poet, novelist, painter, photographer, screenwriter, children's author, performance artist, librettist, song writer, and film director" (Middeke, 2011:425). He lived through a rather unlucky childhood, consumed by chronic asthma, which thus prevented him from being active. This, however, did not stop him from shifting his attention from school to art, nor did it impede him from either reading or writing or educating himself. He would later go on to attend the Saint Martins School of Art, and engage himself in a number of artistic disciplines.

"Ridley, coming from a visual arts background, was influenced as much by surrealist film-makers such as Luis Bunuel and Jan Svankmajor, or painters such as Francis Bacon, as by any playwright, and was hard for the critics to place" (Middeke, 2011:426). Ridley's being so deeply enveloped in the arts is perhaps why his plays have lent themselves to very little in the way of interpretation; and moreover, there are no straight lines in which one can follow in any of these plays. As a matter of fact, Martin Middeke indicates that is more correct to examine Ridley's plays by means of placing them into three distinct categories. "*The Pitchfork Disney* (1991), *The Fastest Clock in the Universe* (1992), and *Ghost from a Perfect Place* (1994) share a fascination with violence, a distinctively gothic and claustrophobic sensibility, and are, in particular, marked by their exotically

named characters... *Sparkleshark* (1997), *Fairytalesheart* (1998), *Brokenville* (2003), *Moonfleece* (2004), and *Karamazo* (2004). These plays are mainly written for young people and all feature storytelling at their heart... *Vincent River* (2000), *Mercury Fur* (2005), *Leaves of Glass* (2007), and *Piranha Heights* (2008) ... take a step towards realism.” (Middeke, 2011: 426-427). Ridley, in continuously attempting to reinvent himself, also draws from his own personal experiences when writing his plays. For example, he had weaved his previous exposure to homophobic violence during his years as a theatre student into his play *Vincent River*. It moreover is difficult to locate the concept of family in any of vast the majority of works like *Vincent River*, *The Pitchfork Disney*, or *Leaves of Glass*. In *The Pitchfork Disney*, for instance, none of the antagonists have parents. In *Vincent River*, whilst the character of Dave’s parents are not to be found on stage at any point, Vincent’s mother is also known to never have married.

II. Vincent River

Vincent River, which is Ridley’s first ever play dealing directly with homosexuality, was initially staged at London’s Hampstead Theatre in 2000, whereby it grabbed people’s attention almost instantaneously. Lyn Gardner, in her performance review of the play had stated that “this 90 minutes is riveting, due not just to Ridley’s writing but to some superb performances” (Gardner, 2007:n.p.). Wyllie (2013:67), had moreover denoted *Vincent River* as being “uncensored and unsentimentalized remembering provides a cathartic salvation for the characters”, in terms of commenting on Ridley’s thematic use of memory and recollection. In Middeke’s view, “the play manages to express that a forty-year history of attitudes to sexuality in the East End” (Middeke, 2011:436). This extraordinary play is themed around one of the most critical issues of the twenty-first century: queer/homosexual violence. Ridley’s effective and detailed use of imagery and metaphor only enrich the play’s already heavy emotional dimension. His depiction a public washroom at an old train station, of the romantic relationship between Davey and Vincent, and of Vincent’s corpse are extremely dramatic.

The play takes place within the vicinity of Ridley’s native Bethnal Green, London. In the first act, 52 year-old Anita aids a badly bruised up, 17 year-old Davey by bringing him a glass of water. She then asks him the details of the incident, upon which Davey merely provides a short, mumbled-up answer. Anita asks Davey whether there is that she can do anything for him, but he is at a loss for words and only wants to be taken in and looked after—to which Anita responds:

Anita Perhaps it’s sex?

Davey Wh-what?

Anita You know what sex is, don't you?

Davey Yeah.

Anita Mature woman in need of schoolboy hanky-panky. That what you think?

Davey Don't call me schoolboy.

Anita Is that what you think?

Davey No. (Ridley, 2009:8)

Anita reminds Davey of his being male, alongside indicates herself as being heterosexual. Davey lashes out towards Anita for her calling him a 'schoolboy'. She, however, insists on calling him like that because Davey is a mere 17-year-old 'schoolboy'. This, hence, is why Anita is not unsettled at Davey's stalking her 'from Brethnal Green to Dagenham' (Ridley, 2009:9), or his watching her at the park every night from his window. When she decides to take Davey in, she suspects that he may have a connection to the murder of her son, is about 30. Then Anita proceeds to ask him questions about her son's homicide, which in turn slowly gets on Davey's nerves. The only thing it seems that Anita can talk about is her son Vincent and his failure to leave her mind. Davey is now thoroughly disturbed:

Davey I don't wanna keep seeing him. The way he lay there. I want... I want him to get up. I want him to... walk out of my head. Please... Please... (Ridley, 2009:12).

Anita indicates that talking about Vincent as well as wishing to get better acquainted with Davey is the only way she can free herself from those memories and from the stress she has to endure. Davey states that it was his fiancée, Rache, who had discovered his corpse, and is unable to rescue Vincent from himself. Nevertheless, Anita begins to press Davey in order to learn every single last detail of the incidents in question, upon which the two agree to confess everything to one another.

Ridley attempts to show how homosexuality is still, even in the twenty first century, negatively perceived and something worth being shunned by society, and does so by reciting newspaper headings at emerge following the discovery of Vincent's corpse in a train station washroom: "A haunt for men seeking sex", "With other men", "Sodom and Gomorrah in Bethnal Green!", "A notorious den of iniquity" (Ridley, 2009:15-16). The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, which had lent themselves to being levelled by God for the immorality that simmered within their walls, were now the district of Bethnal Green due to the seeming presence of a queer underworld. In essence, Ridley puts forth in the play society's lack of tolerance towards homosexuality, and thus its overarching homophobic

stance, using very direct language. Even though Anita's gay son has died, his soul remains ruthlessly judged by society, which in turns casts its sense of despise upon Anita for raising a homosexual, a deviant. Her neighborhood ostracizes her, and fails to feel the need to either quell or to respect her anguish as a sonless mother. Even the neighbours within her apartment quickly hush their gossip when they see her, as well as shut their doors in her in her face. Anita ultimately is unable to bear this torture any longer:

Anita 'Queer' I shout back, 'I dunno what you've heard but you've heard it wrong. And if you spent a bit less time gossiping and a bit more time controlling your kids the estate'd be a safer place.' (Ridley, 2009:19)

She bursts out at her neighbours that her son was a normal member of society. Here, Ridley shows that society is quick to stigmatize any and all LGBTQ individuals. Moreover, he shows that Anita, who never once viewed her son as being a rip in the fabric of social order, and whose son appeared to be fully accepted by society, is also in fact the cruel subject of judgment. Nevertheless, Anita does in fact find gay pornographic magazines beneath her son's bed, tosses them into 'four plastic carrier bags' (Ridley, 2009:21), and begins to walk a considerable distance in order to avoid throwing them out into the garbage bin on the opposite end of her street. Her 'hands are blue. And so painful' from carrying the bags; nonetheless, there is 'still no place to leave the bags' (Ridley, 2009:21). She then boards a bus, takes it to the final stop, discretely throws the bags out, and silently distances herself from that vicinity. Ridley's intent is to exhibit that the root of Anita's state of panic both is societal pressure alongside social stigma. In other words, not only is she petrified of someone stumbling upon those magazines, she is also embarrassed by situation within which she finds herself. Moving out of her neighbourhood is her last remaining chance in order to untangle herself from the web of pressure within which she is caught.

Being unable to withstand the agony of her loss, she consequently turns to Davey, wanting to learn what he thought of her son. Davey explains that he and his fiancée, Rache, took a shortcut in order to drop Rache off at her house, and in the process of so, confess that it was he, not his fiancée, who had discovered Vincent's corpse. Anita continues to delve further into the subject by asking ever more detailed questions. At this point, Davey mentions that he was at his own engagement party that night:

Anita Not yours surely?

Davey Why not?

Anita You're just a schoolboy.

Davey Stop bloody calling me that.

Anita Too young to think about marriage. (Ridley, 2009:24)

Even though Anita is taken aback at Davey being engaged at such a young age, Davey refuses by saying that there are many an engaged 16-year old. As the play progress, one learns that it was Davey's dying mother's wish to join her son's engagement. He gets engaged out of fear of being shunned by society, and in order to both prove that he is normal as well as to please his mother. It is at this particular point that one needs to underscore that both Davey and his fiancé Rache were victims.

Davey, who begins to talk about the engagement party, mentions that his entire family was there that night, that his parents were thrilled about the party, and that his mother had even gone so far as to take out his baby album and shared his baby pictures with everyone. He thereupon admits as to how he viewed himself:

Anita She's proud of you.

Davey It's embarrassing. (Ridley, 2009:25).

Ridley projects Davey's sense of insecurity as a queer individual, as well as his inability to define himself, onto the character of Davey. In this context, Davey is hesitant about, and even embraced about 'coming out of the closet'. As Davey elaborates in detail upon what exactly went on that night, Ridley in fact subtly hints at more information about himself. On the night that Vincent's corpse was found, Davey becomes anxious as Rachel rambles on about where the couple will live and what furniture they will purchase as soon as they tie the knot. In uttering "she's a pain" (Ridley, 2009:28) in reference to Rache, he in fact openly expresses his distaste towards heterosexual relationships.

Davey, arrives with Rache at the desolate train station, and wants to use the sketchy washroom. He then spots Anita's son dead. It is snowing heavily outside, which only adds to the weight of the drama of Vincent's death. However, Anita, in wanting Davey to provide her with even more detailed information, starts to talk about herself. She mentions that only one of her mother's beloved cups, and that she would only use for special occasions, still remains, and how the rest got broken from being furlled into the air during an argument. Anita wavers as she highlights what lead to the argument in the first place, and then drops the subject all together. Meanwhile, Davey reminds Anita about the pact that they made with one another, whereupon he explains why she's so curious about Anita's life: "You. Him. It's all the same" (Ridley, 2009:33). Furthermore, he emphasises that Anita and Vincent are one in the same, and Davey initially wants Anita to reveal more about herself since he wishes to learn everything about Vincent. Jack Dresher (2014:160), who exclaims that "A gay man is primarily identified with his mother", in fact sheds light upon

the point that Davey is trying to get across. Vincent never had a father figure in his life to whom he could look up to, and thus his mother fulfilled that role instead. Vincent in turn had identified with his mother, given that he felt nothing sexual towards the opposite gender. The strong emotional bond between Davey and his mother is underscored at several points throughout the play. As an example, Davey takes his mother's pills in order to calm down. Likewise, in knowing that his mother loves massages, he learns how to give her a massage. Additionally, David, like Vincent, becomes his mother's best caretaker whilst she's ill in hospital.

As a matter of fact, Anita's own life has not been an easy one. For instance, she has an affair with her boss at work, a married man and a father of two. When her own mother catches wind of this, she and Anita break out into an argument, thus causing the shattering of those valuable cups. Anita becomes impregnated by her boss, and in turn is ostracized by her colleagues and family. She is forced to put up with her father looking down upon her as though she's a nothing more than a bag of filth. Upon arriving at work one day, she finds thumb stacks spread across her chair and desk, and understands that her colleagues are to blame, simply based on the way they had slyly grinned and chit-chatted. Despite this, and despite her hands being pierced by the thumbtacks, she nevertheless picks them up, sits down, and acts as though nothing had happened at all.

Ridley boldly showcases how women were viewed during that era. When Davey asks what ultimately had happened to Anita's boss, her response was: "I'd lead an innocent man astray" (Ridley, 2009: 43). Anita herself openly puts forth her stance towards relationships within society. According to the societal order within the context of that time period, even though Anita was no more than the age of 20, she without a shadow of a doubt was the one who was guilty for having a fling with an older man/father, as well for getting pregnant. Only Anita was exposed everybody's belittlement. In this light, Ridley shows us that those involved in relationships that threatened the given social order, even if heterosexual, were ultimately punished through alienation and scorn.

Regardless, Anita protested her being viewed as worthless in the eyes of society due to her outlandish relationship. Even though those around her depreciated her, she moved out on her own and gave birth to her son. She was proud of what she did, noting "And then he was born. And he was perfect. There's no other word for it" (Ridley, 2009:44). She goes on to reminisce about just ideal he truly was since birth, about how—reminiscent of Tony Kushner's queer play *Angels In America*—he played an angel in an elementary school play, and about how she once had bought him a super expensive leather satchel. Even if he were indeed queer, it is impossible to accept how such wonderful human being could die so tragically.

Anita ... They must've crept up on him. Don't you think? He would've run otherwise. Perhaps he thought they were friendly at first. Men... like him. Perhaps he thought he was safe. He might've even smiled at them. What did he think when they started to kick him and punch him and stab him –

Anita They pushed broken glass into his eyes! (Ridley, 2009:45)

Explicitly Ridley reveals the violence in society and how they are cruel against people who reject their order. The feminist activist Melanie Judge (2018: 128) claims that “violence against queers is neither just about queers, nor just about violence”. She feels that ‘public policy’ (2018:128), which within a given order ‘a way of disciplining of queer subjectives’ (2018:128) is what is at the root of violence against LGBTQ people. Moreover, she interprets this only ever-increasing trend towards violence as being “queer consumption in an increasingly consumptive world” (2018: 128). When one considers that in 1990s Britain there was a considerable spike in the rate of LGBT-targeted murders, it becomes blatantly apparent that Ridley’s incorporation of queer-targeted violence is his attempt to have society face up to reality.

Anita has kept everything that reminds her of Vincent in a box. We, in fact, learn a tremendous deal about Vincent as Anita shows Davey his photographs. In doing so, Anita describes how Vincent was as ‘happy as a sandboy’ (Ridley, 2009: 48), how he loved ‘paper and pencil’ (Ibid,48) when he was young, how he’d watch Peter Pan films, his wearing glasses, his worrying about those fighting in Vietnam, and his writing of short stories. Then she takes the last shirt that Vincent wore, unwashed, sniffs it, and sighs out Vincent’s name. It is at this point that Anita approaches Davey and wants him too to sniff Vincent’s shirt; however, David, out of fear, declines. Davey then, hesitant, unwillingly gives in, takes a whiff of the shirt, and begins to tremble, whereupon he digs a box of pills from out of his pocket. The box contains all sorts of pill types—tranquillisers and painkillers. Anita, however, upon observing Davey, is unable to make sense of Davey’s need to use that much medicine. Now, it is Davey’s turn to confess. He states that his mother passed away just the day before, and that before the funeral even finished, that he came around into Anita’s neighbourhood in order to watch her. In acting more honestly, Davey now feels able to openly admit his real feelings to her. Anita asks Davey whether or not he was worried over his fiancée leaving the funeral early:

Davey Glad to see the back of me, I reckon.

Anita But she’s your fiancée.

Davey Not any more.

Anita you called it off?

Davey Five minutes after Mum died. (Ridley, 2009:56)

Davey got engaged in order to come across as normal to his beloved dying mother. Arditti (2015: 24) defends that “LGBTQ people hide their sexual orientation and gender identity for fear of negative treatment”. In this sense, Davey, in being petrified of ‘negative treatment’, as well as in hiding his queer identity, had prevented the disappointing of his family, as well as had saved himself from being marginalized by society. On the other end of the scale, Davey is someone who was exposed to physical abuse at the hands of his father, alongside emotional abuse from his entire family. He, moreover, had dumped Rache no sooner than his mother had entered the grave. Thus, Davey had successfully taken his first step forward towards liberating himself. As a matter of fact, Vincent resembles Davey in a sense. When Davey was small, for instance, he once had a returned home, both dirty from where he was playing, and wearing a dog collar. Anita’s immediate reaction hence was to tell Vincent “take it off” (Ridley, 2009:54), as well as to tell him not to play where he was playing anymore in order not to make her upset. Vincent, hence, respects her wishes. Thus, Ridley portrays the first outburst of emotional abuse that both Vincent and Davey had endured at the hands of their families.

Davey, in retreating somewhat after this dialogue, now wants to probe for even more information about Vincent. He asks Anita whether or not he had many friends as a child, to which Anita confesses no, not many at all. When he then asks why, she responds:

Anita He was happy in his room with his books.

Davey And that suited you just fine, I bet.

Anita I beg your pardon.

Davey Under your thumb. That’s where you wanted him.

Anita I wanted him happy. That’s all. If he was happy with his nose in a book all day – well, what’s wrong with that? It gave him a brain. Qualifications. It meant he wouldn’t end up working in a sweatshop like I had to. (Ridley, 2009:58-59).

Other kids, in fact, had marginalized Vincent when he was little, and thus he chose to close himself off from the world by sitting and reading books at home. His mother, on the other hand, had tried to put herself in Vincent’s shoes, and chose to merely overlook his abnormal behavior. Davey wishes to learn which university Vincent attended. Anita states that Davey studied ‘Art History’ at ‘New Castle’ University, however, also notes that he would never come to complete his education. Davey, in considering his own mother, accuses Anita of emotionally exploiting her son in order not to part ways with him. She however denies this:

Anita He couldn't hack it. His words! Got a train back and left me to sort out the mess. It was me – me! – who persuaded him to go for the job in the library. Said, 'you've gotta do something, Vincent.' Bought him a suit. Paid for his haircut. He missed so many days during the trial period they threatened to sack him. It was me – me! – who had to talk to Mr Dixon and smooth things over. Once he got used to it he loved it to bits. (Ridley, 2009:61).

No matter how saintly a role Anita had played in Vincent's life, it is in fact Davey who wants Anita to see just how selfish she was—just like his own mother—for running his life for him. At the same time, when Davey asks Anita about when she had discovered her son was queer, she repeats over and over that it is best not to enter that subject; for even though she loved her son tremendously, she was unable to accept his homosexuality. Furthermore, even though Vincent had previously had a number of girl friends, Anita nevertheless was very well aware of the fact that they were not actual relationships. They were Vincent's 'best friend'(s) (Ridley, 2009:62), with whom he would have fun together with, watch movies with—in essence, do everything with. Anita claims that "he could've told me anything" (Ridley, 2009:62), but she never wanted to know anything about his sex life. In this context, both Vincent and Davey, 'the closets', are/were unable to openly admit to their being queer due to their love for their mothers, and due to both the psychological pressure as well as psychological violence within which they stewed.

Davey, like Vincent, very much enjoyed his mother's company—to the point that he even new how exactly she liked to be massaged. He at times described massaging his mother to Anita. At this point, as he insists upon massaging Anita as well, we learn that Anita at one point had a vein in her leg surgically removed, and thus that Vincent would frequently visit her whilst in hospital. Davey remembers every single last detail of her mother, right down to "a little mole on the back of her neck" (Ridley, 2009: 66). Upon Anita's asking Davey to talk about his mother, he replies, which mother?

Davey ... There's the mum before I was twelve. Before she got sick. And there's the mum after. (Ridley, 2009:68).

He prefers to talk about the mother that he remembers before he was 12 years of age, and begins to describe their holidays together, and the time they once got on a 'roller coaster' (Ridley, 2009:68) together.

Davey ... we got on. Three of us together. Mum this side. Dad that. Up and up we go. I'm getting scared now. Giggling. Mum – she's giggling too. I'm clutching Mum's arm tight as I can. Fuck me, it just keeps getting higher. We're gonna touch the clouds. It comes level. The top. Look over. People like ants. Whoosh! Falling down. So much noise. Rattling. Mum

screaming. Hair all flapping. Eyes wide. Brilliant! And then... I look at Dad. And there's nothing. No emotion at all. Face set tight. No matter how high we climb. How steep we fall. Not a gasp. Not a laugh. Not a fucking flicker (Ridley, 2009:69).

Davey and his mother are thrilled, whilst his father shows no reaction whatsoever. Throughout the play, Davey mentions how different his mother was from his father, and how, consequently, the two never got along and thus would constantly fight. Davey also mentions that both he and his mother were frequently exposed to violence at the hands of his father. Similarly, he had gotten engaged to Rache in order to please his mother. Throughout the performance, Davey attempts to repeat how much he had loved his mother, as well as how different she was from his father. Vincent, on the other hand, had no father figure at all, but Anita informs Davey of how strong her relationship was with her son—also, repeating over and over just how much she loved him. In turn, Ridley, yet again, emphasizes just how important mother figures (generally) are in the lives of queer persons.

Davey is fully aware that he ultimately will be ostracized by society for his being queer. This unfortunate sentiment is only strengthened by the aftermath of Vincent's death. He tells Anita that he, as he was watching her, had spotted a group of youth—younger than he was—wandering along the street. The pack of youth had Davey why he was staring at them, however he did not bother to respond. The youth then approach and begin to senselessly beat the breath out of Davey—who at moment is unable to move. His only wish is, “hurt me as much as you fucking like” (Ridley, 2009:74). Ridley, in this context, openly portrays Davey having gained his sexual identity within heterosexual society through children (even) acting towards him with brute violence. As the play continues, we observe that the violence that Davey encounters towards him and other LGBT people is not the only thing that is causing him harm. He also is addicted to marijuana, he takes out a rolled joint, and the two begin to smoke together. After both characters mellow out, Davey goes on to describe how he first noticed that he was queer at the age of 12:

Davey I was on this bus once. I was twelve. This girl sits next to me. She's reading a magazine. Pop stars and stuff. I glance over – There! A photo. He's got his shirt off and his stomach's ... it's a perfect six-pack. Ya know? Couldn't take my eyes off it. Soon as I got off the bus I rushed to a newsagent's and bought the magazine. Tore out the photo. That night I lay in bed and look at all this perfect skin... (Ridley, 2009:73)

Davey's mother too was aware of Davey's being queer. She, in exclaiming that queer individuals are viewed as perverse by society, attempts to manipulate him. As for Davey, who loves his mother with all

his heart, fed her by hand as she lay in hospital, unbeknown to the fact that her body was riddled with tumours and that she was to expire within three months. Davey's first sexual encounter had occurred when he was 14 years of age, while he was at the hospital looking after his mother. Later on, he would end up sleeping with one of his friend's fathers. He would ultimately see Vincent at the hospital cafeteria—who, due to his mother's vein surgery, was also looking after her as well. Even though Davey—in similar fashion to all of his previous encounters— was quick to want to enter into a sexual relationship with Vincent; however, Vincent instead offered to listen to music together. Later onwards, they would end up heading out for a bite to eat and talking for hours.

Davey... I've never talked to anyone like that. I wanna tell him everything about me. Favourite films. Food. Stuff from school. Everything. We forget the time. It goes by- whoosh!.. Sometimes he walks past and touches my hair. Or strokes the back of my neck. I feel him inside my skull. Everywhere. I'm so happy. It's like ... like he's my oxygen. If I'm not with him... I can't breathe properly... (Ridley, 2009:78)

Davey swoons as he tells Anita of his romantic relationship with his son. And even though Anita remains quiet, she is unable to fathom Davey's fling with her son. Davey, however, wholeheartedly confesses that the two had agreed to meet at the washroom at the railway station that night—the night that Anita had been released from hospital. After the two meet up and do their thing, Vincent, who does not wish to be caught leaving with Davey at the same moment, thus asks Davey to leave before he does and wait by the church. As he walks away, he spots five twenty-something men, drinking and making an obscenity. One of them haphazardly flails an empty booze bottle, which serendipitously hits the washroom with a cracking bang. Vincent scurries out of the toilet and is caught by the men. Another one of the men hollers, "it's a queer alright" (Ridley, 2009:84), to which Vincent tunes them out. The men however fail to leave him alone. Davey on the other hand stays put, and does not gain the courage to run to Vincent's aid. First, the men burn Vincent's face with a cigarette. "The one who threw the bottle punches Vince in the stomach. The one who stumbled kicks Vince... pushes Vince hard. Vince falls to his knees... they drag him into the toilets. A scream!Vince! Sounds of punching.Kicking.Wood breaking. Wood smashing. Wood on skin." (Ridley, 2009: 85). No one hears Vincent despite his repeated screams, and despite the attack, thus leaving him forced to drown within the violence. Before long, Davey spots the men fleeing out the bathroom. He hopes that Vincent will emerge and cry for help, however he does not show. Davey heads towards the bathroom:

Davey... A shoe! Vince's shoe. A red handprint on the urinal. Blood. Blood everywhere. Broken wood all over the place. Cubicles been torn

apart - dark shape! It's laying on the ground! Leaning against the wooden frame of the cubicle. It's Vince. His left leg is broken. Twisted under his right. Shin is punctured with bone below the knee. Both legs are covered with cuts. Like they've been clawed. What could've made marks like that? ... it's the nails! Nails sticking out of the wood they've hit him with. His groin is full of blood. His stomach is covered with dark patches. Bruises. Deep cuts all over his chest. A gaping wound across his neck. And his face – oh, my God! His face! His teeth are smached. His nose smashed. Just blood. I look at him for a long time. He's not moving. Not breathing. Nothing. (Ridley, 2009: 86)

Ridley shamelessly exhibits society's cruelty towards queer individuals, and how it annihilates anybody who beats to their own drum. This twenty-something year-old youth group goes on a sort of a witch-hunt, and eliminates Vincent for being different. The result of their inner sense of homophobia being projected outwards is Vincent's death, from which they run away rather than face. They have purged a threat to the social order, but at the same time have disturbed the social order by means of murder.

After Davey leaves Vincent's side, he picks up his own life where he left off, and goes and gets ready for his engagement party. He kisses Rache in front of everyone in order to uphold the image of his being "the perfect boyfriend, the perfect son" (Ridley, 2009:85). To Butler (1999:65) "Homosexual men exaggerate their heterosexuality as a 'defense' against their homosexuality". In this sense, Davey just exaggerates their relationship with Rache in order to hide his sexuality.

Throughout the party, he hopes to hear the sound of police sirens, but ultimately does not, and also aware that Vincent's corpse has not been discovered, yet. Then he comes up with the excuse that he is going to drop Rache off at home, takes a shortcut, goes and scouts out Vincent's body, and then notifies the police.

Anita enters "a long, painful cry" (Ridley, 2009:87) upon learning the truth. Ridley usually uses 'darkness' image during his play. When Vincent is killed, Davey is beaten, both David and Vincent decide to meet, and when the corpse of Vincent is found, darkness is everywhere in order to cover abnormal relations, violence, and murder. Davey wants to hug her; however, she stops him and declines his support. She gives him his jacket, and asks him to leave. Ridley leaves the play and audience dangling: "Davey turns to look at Anita. Slight pause. Davey looks out of front door again. Blackout" (Ridley, 2009: 88). Davey himself becomes ostracised, and is left forced to decide whether or not he ought to step back into this violent society. Should he return, he knows that he will have to mask his

identity and play a fake role. Ridley closes the play before the audience learns of Davey's decision.

III. Conclusion

Middeke has interpreted a number of Ridley's theatrical works as being "widely praised for his much imagination but also angrily dismissed because of his confrontational use of extreme violence in dramas" (Middeke, 2011: 22). As with most of Ridley's plays, *Vincent River* brings his audience face-to-face with reality through the theme of violence. Ridley "shocks his audiences ever since his first major play, *The Pitchfork Disney*" (Pilný, 2016:22) by means of hanging social injustice and skewed rules out into the open—which he has masterfully managed to do in this play as well. Ondřej Pilný claims that "Ridley's work involves an unfaltering examination of morality and politics, and as a rule leaves the audience facing painful ethical quandaries that have been interpreted both as nihilistic and as emancipatory in their nature" (Pilný, 2016: 22). In line with this view, Ridley in his works around the theme of homophobic violence, which was seen to be a massive social and political issue throughout Europe in the 1990s, one that had even entered into the upper echelons of society. In *Vincent River*, one encounters the two queer characters of Davey and Vincent; moreover, one witnesses the psychological violence that both face via their families, in accompaniment with their being forced to remain invisible within society. The moment that Davey's mother begins to suspect her son's queerness, she begins to subtly tell him how disgusting homosexuality is. As a matter of fact, she overlooks his sexuality and forces heterosexuality upon him. Likewise, Vincent's mother, too, chose to overlook her son's homosexuality from the time he was very little. Instead of supporting her son, she fought bitterly with herself in order not to digest Vincent's gayness even after his death. Additionally, whilst Vincent was raised without a father figure in his life, Davey, on the other hand, was exposed to his own father's physical as well as verbal torture over the fact that he acted femininely. Ridley, here, shows us that LGBT people are first and foremost exposed to violence via their families. That may be the main reason why they hide their sexuality.

Although Hunt claims that "the need to hide queer identity has waned in the Western world in recent decades" (Hunt, 2015:323), Ridley teaches us that queers feeling the need to keep their identities in the closet is *still* a large problem throughout British society. Both Vincent and Davey are closeted gays. They do not disclose their sexual identity out of the fear of being treated badly and of losing their mothers' love. Vincent cuts himself off from the rest of society and gives himself to his books and his mother. Davey, however, sacrifices himself for the sake of his mother's deathbed wish, and gets engaged—to the point that even the day after Vincent died, he kissed his fiancée in front of everyone, and is applauded at and accepted

by society. But, he then promptly calls everything off with her the moment his mother is lowered into the ground. Ridley, in essence, forces spectators to think and question themselves in highlighting the psychological violence through which Vincent and Davey have lived.

Lastly, Hanhardt (2013:14) claims that “By the 1980s anti-LGBT violence had become most recognizable as hate crimes”. This is one of the most challenging oppression for LGBT people which hinders their visibility. Ridley very effectively informs us of how far society can go in terms of being cruel. Vincent, a thirty-something year-old man, is ruthlessly killed by a group of twenty-something year-old young adults. Ridley makes his play more realistic, and makes his audience feel rather heavily the degree-level of this violence through his exhaustive use of imagery. Vincent’s broken legs, his severely wounded jaw, his bloodied and bruised corpse make—every last detail makes us relive the severity of the violence. Likewise, Davey, too, in being jumped on by a gang of teenagers, has a dark purple eye and a split lip. Whilst Ridley consciously exposes his audience to this violence, he also talks about how teenagers within a heterosexual society are as vicious as, if not more so than their adult counterparts, towards LGBT individuals. Contextually speaking, it is still, today, extraordinarily difficult for queer persons to openly ‘come out’. Ridley chooses not to properly close his play based on this very reason. Davey hangs between staying by Anita’s—who is aware of his status—side, living as an in-the-closet homosexual, and daringly coming out to society. In fact, in unison with what Ridley himself has indicated, the fact that people still are exposed to violence due to their sexual identities in the twenty-first century is immensely thought provoking.

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FINE ARTS

COMPOSERS OF THE BAROQUE PERIOD PIANO REPertoire: Example of Italy*

İzzet YÜCETOKER**

Firstly, I searched Italian composers and I found about 2173 Italian composer name. These composers lived in Medieval period, Renaissance period, Baroque period, Classical period, Romantic period and Contemporary period. I examined these 2173 Italian composer periods and work areas. Only the number of composers only living in the baroque period is 158. But my investigation is dedicated to only Italian keyboard composers in the Baroque period. Because of this review, I found 50 Italian keyboard composers.

Introduction of Italian Baroque Keyboard Composers

Maria Teresa Agnesi (1720-1795)

Maria Teresa Agnesi was born in Milan in 1720. Agnesi was a good Harpsichordist and singer as well as being a famous composer of his time. According to the information obtained, it is not possible to reach much information about the education process and artistic development of Agnesi. Besides that, it is known that many of the works composed by him have also got lost. (Hansell, Kendrick, 2001). The information, that Agnesi performed numerous concerts in his period, produced the works of many musical genres and the recordings of these works, has reached the present day with the works of Austrian Lombardy, a woman rights advocate lived in the 18th century. (Glickman, Martha, 1998). It is known today that Agnesi has operas, vocal works and 2 piano sonatas. Agnesi passed away in Milan in 1795.

Domenico Alberti (1710 – 1746)

Domenico Alberti was born in Venice in 1710. He is called as the Italian sound artist, Harpsichordist and composer in the music history. Alberti became most famous as a vocal artist as he performed numerous concerts during his time, although he wrote numerous works for keyboard instruments in his musical life. (Randel, 1996). Alberti is an important character especially leading the artists of the classical period because of the style of arpeggio accompaniment that he has often used in Keyboard works, which we know as "Alberti bass" today. However, it should be known that Domenico Alberti is not the first to find or use this style known as Alberti Bass. (Downs, 1992). Mozart is known to have used the Alberti Bass style often while composing piano sonatas. Alberti,

* This research was conducted in University of Bologna with the advice Prof. Elizabetta Pasquini and with contribution 2219 International Post Doctoral Research Fellowship Programme.

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performed many concerts in his period, composed works for opera and vocal. In addition, it is seen in various sources that he has written 36 sonatas for keyboard instruments, but only 14 have reached to the present day. (Rink, 1984). Alberti passed away in 1746 at a very young age.

Francesco Domenico Araja (1709 – 1762?)

Francesco Domenico Araja was born in 1709 in Naples. Araja, having started his musical education in Naples, began composing opera while he was 20. His first operas became very famous in Italy, and his performances were shown in almost in all cities of Italy. Araja, receiving an invitation to perform his operas from Russia, went to Russia and lived there for a long time. Although it is stated in many sources that Araja is a Russian composer, it is certain that his birth place and musical education place is Naples. (Ritzarev, 2006). Araja composed many operas, oratorios and cantatas, so he became famous for his operas in the music history. It has been determined as a result of the literature search that Araja has Capriccio piece in L Major tone, which he wrote for keyboard instruments. However, there was no information about where they were performed. Araja lived in Russia for a long time, continued his musical career there, and passed away in Bologna between 1762 and 1770, although it is not definitively known.

Floriano Arresti (1667 – 1717)

Floriano Arresti was born in 1667 in Bologna. Arresti, who started his music education at his young age with his father, Giulio Cesare Arresti, was known to work with Bernardo Pasquini, one of the most famous organists of his time and living in Rome. (Mischiati,1962). Arresti, known to have lived in Rome until 1691, served as an organist in the cathedral of Bologna San Pietro in 1703 and in the Academic Philharmonic in 1715. (Gambassi, 1992). Although Arresti is recognized as an organist and composer in the music history, the number of works he did for keyboard instruments is very low. According to the information obtained, this composer has compositions in opera, cantata and oratorio type. (Lackman, Lepore, 2001). Arresti, creating many important works during his life and serving as an organist in the important churches, passed away in Bologna in 1717.

Giulio Cesare Arresti (1619 – 1701)

Giulio Cesare Arresti was born in 1619 in Bologna. Arresti, who was one of the best organists of the period, started to work with Ottavio Vernizzi and served as an organist in San Petronio church, one of the most famous churches. It is seen in various studies that Arresti, who has been very helpful in the establishment phase of the Philharmonic Academy, composed 18 sonatas for the organ during these periods and these sonatas became very famous. Arresti, who was the first music teacher of his son Florino Arresti, who would gain fame in the following periods, trained a large number of organists in his lifetime. (Pyron,

Allsop, 2001). Therefore, Arresti can be considered as a good organ teacher as well as being a composer and organist. Based on the fact that the 18 sonatas have technical facilities in the general structure as teaching, it can be said that these works are composed for teaching. Apart from the works he wrote for the organ, he also wrote religious works for vocals. Arresti passed away in Bologna in 1701.

Francesco Barsanti (1690 – 1775)

Francesco Barsanti was born in Lucca in 1690. He is known as a flautist, oboist and composer in the music history. It is known that Barsanti studied law during his youth, but he was not satisfied with it and started his music career later. (Sharman, 1989). According to Hawkins (1776), he moved to the United Kingdom for his music career, where he served as a flautist in various operas, and he began his conductor career in Germany in 1735. Having worked for many orchestras and operas in his music career, Barsanti composed compositions for flute, recorder and oboe, as well as a composition for Harpsicord. The composer is believed to have more of British Baroque style in his works, as he has spent his life in the United Kingdom. Barsanti, who suffered a severe illness, passed away in the United Kingdom in 1775.

Orazio Benevoli (1605 – 1672)

Orazio Benevoli was born in Rome in 1605. It is known that this composer, whose life is not known much, served as a chorister in religious choruses in childhood and participated in concerts in many churches of Rome as a chorister. It can be seen in various sources that Benevoli served as a chief conductor in Archduke Leopold Wilhelm of Austria in 1644 and returned to Rome in 1646. When Benevoli's compositions are examined, it is seen that there are masses and motets in general. Therefore, he is known as a composer and singer in the music history. At the same time, the composer became a teacher of famous organists such as Ercole Bernabei and Paolo Lorenzani, and he composed a few works for the organ in this period. Benevoli, who served as chorus conductor in Vatican in his last days, passed away in 1672.

Angelo Michele Besseghi (1670 – 1744)

Angelo Michele Besseghi was born in Bologna in 1670. No information is available about where and how he started his music education. However, after the relevant studies are examined, it is concluded that he went to Paris during his youth and performed his music works in many cities of France. Besseghi, known as a composer and violinist in the music history, also composed works for the organ. The French style is clearly seen when the works of composer are examined. The 12 violin sonatas that he wrote were performed in many places especially in Berlin and gained fame. It is known that most of the works written for the organ have disappeared and that only one work has

reached to the present. Besseghi served in various orchestras and operas in France and passed away in Paris in 1744. (Pougin, 1924).

Giovanni Maria Casini (1652 – 1719)

Giovanni Maria Casini was born in Florence in 1652. Casini is known as the great organist in the music history as he has worked for many years as an organist in the Florence Cathedral. In addition to well organ playing, he wrote valuable works for the organ. Besides that, when the Casini's oratories and masses reaching to the present are examined, who made compositions for religious ceremonies, it is seen that he has used the counterpoint writing style perfectly. One of the most important subjects that he has done in the history is that he is the first person making a composition for the five-pedal harpsichord produced by Francesco Nigeti. Casini spent his whole life in Florence by serving as a composer and organist and passed away in 1719. (<https://musopen.org/de/composer/giovanni-maria-casini/:05.04.2018>).

Ignazio Cirri (1711 – 1787)

Ignazio Cirri was born in 1711 in Forli, Italy. Cirri, who is among the major composers of the 18th century, worked as an organist in the churches and Forli Cathedral throughout his life in Forli. Cirri, who was a close friend of Giovanni Battista Martini, one of the famous composers of the period, received an invitation from the Bologna Academy Philharmonic. Cirri, who served here for a while, became a Chapel master in 1759. Cirri composed a large number of works for keyboard instruments according to the literature review. When the 12 sonatas composed for the organ are reviewed, it is seen that they were written in Italian Baroque style and produced with a perfect counterpoint style. At the same time, there is also harmonic writing style in his works. For this reason, it would be appropriate to review the composer within the late Baroque period. Cirri passed away in Forli in 1787.

(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ignazio_Cirri, Access: 04.03.2018)

Carlo Cotumacci (1709 – 1785)

Carlo Cotumacci was born in Naples in 1709. Cotumacci, whose musical talent was discovered at a young age, became entitled to enter the Poor of Gesu Cristo Conservatory in Naples, and had the opportunity to work with many famous organists and teachers of the period. Cotumacci, who began composing at a young age, is known to have been mostly affected especially from Francesco Durante, his teacher and among the famous composers of the period. (Christovam, 2013). The composer, who composed many compositions for the keyboard instruments, is known as a good organist in the music history. Cotumacci, who is considered in the late Baroque because of the characteristics of the period he lived, used the harmony writing and counterpoint at the same time in his works. It is known that this composer, who was an organist in various churches, also taught composers who came after him at the same time. Therefore, when

the composition techniques are reviewed, there are also works including easy playing technique in pedagogical sense. Cotumacci passed away in Naples in 1785. (Cafiero, 2007).

Azzolino Bernardino Della Ciaja (1671 – 1755)

Azzolino Bernardino Della Ciaja was born in Siena in 1671. Ciaja, son of a wealthy family, started his music education at an early age. This composer known as a famous organist and harpsichordist in the music history is also called as a good composer and organ maker. Having spent his musical life in Pisa, this composer also established strong relationships with his musical life in the city of Florence and performed concerts. Ciaja, moving to Rome in 1713, also composed numerous works there for keyboard instruments. Kitson (1914), stating that Ciaja used the counterpoint writing style perfectly while composing his works, said that six sonatas composed for Harpsichord were very famous. When the composer's works composed for music instruments are examined, it is clear that he used the technical structure and counterpoint writing style perfectly. Besides that, Ciaja serving as an organist in the churches created compositions for religious audio. Ciaja, who made more than 60 handcrafted organs, passed away in Pisa in 1755.

Giovanni Battista Draghi (1640 – 1708)

Giovanni Battista Draghi was born in Rimini in 1640. Draghi, little information known about his life, is known to have started his career in Vienna in 1658 after his music education. Battista Draghi, brother of the famous composer Antonio Draghi, is called as the keyboard player and composer in the music history. Draghi went to the United Kingdom upon the invitation of the King Charles II in 1660 and performed opera studies there similar to the Italian opera. In addition, Draghi, who was the first organist of the Catholic Queen, is said to be a very famous composer in the United Kingdom. (Holman, 2001). Although Draghi is often referred to as the Italian Baroque composer, the styles of the English composers can be seen in his works as he spent most of his life in the United Kingdom. (Klakowich, 1986). Draghi also performed opera trials as well as producing a large number of works for organ. The six suites that he wrote for organ have been included among the important organ works in the literature. Draghi, who spent his youth and maturity in the United Kingdom, passed away there in 1708.

Francesco Durante (1684 – 1755)

Francesco Durante was born in Naples in 1684. Durante, starting music at his early ages, was discovered by the famous musicians of the period, and began his musical education at the Conservatorio dei poveri di Gesu Cristo Conservatory. He became the student of Alessandro Scarlatti and Bernardo Pasquini, the famous composers and musicians of the period, and he learned playing and composition methods from these composers. (Capasso, 2005). Durante, known as the great music theorist

in the music history, served as a teacher especially in the field of theory at the end of his training, and he became the teacher of Giovanni Battista Pergolesi, Niccolò Jommelli and similar famous composers. (Tour, 2015). Durante, who usually composed religious works, also composed works for keyboard instruments, and gave priority to the technically easy playing and sight-reading skills in many of his compositions. (Carrer, 2016). The works that he composed for the keyboards are similar to the composition techniques of his teacher Alessandro Scarlatti. Durante passed away in Naples in 1755.

Giovanni Battista Fasolo (1598 – 1664)

Giovanni Battista Fasolo was born in Palermo in 1598. No information was available about the childhood and music education of this composer living in the early Baroque period. Fasolo, known as an organist and composer in the music history, became one of the famous organists of his time and played organ in various churches until 1659. He began his duty of maestro di cappello in the Archbishop of Monreale in 1659. (Fasolo, 2001). Fasolo is known to have received the composing ideas from Francesco Manelli who composed the first commercial operas in the music history and famous in this field. (Ferrari-Barassi, 1970). Musical styles of Renaissance appear in his works. Fasolo, usually composed religious vocal music, is known to have composed for the organ instrument. When the works he wrote for the organ are examined, it seems that he mainly used Fugue form, which was popular at that time. Fasolo, who served as an organist and composer from his youth to old age, passed away in Palermo in 1664.

Gabriele Fattorini (1609? – Unknown)

Although Gabriele Fattorini's date of birth is not known exactly according to the related literature sources, it is stated that he was born between 1598 and 1609. Fattorini served an organist and maestro in Faenza Cathedral near Bologna, and he usually composed religious works. When his works made for the organ are examined, it has been determined that his works were dominated by the Renaissance period. Fattorini wrote the motets for the Sestet which is among his important works during his maturity period, and it seems to be important among motets in the music history. There is no information about Fattorini's death year and where he died. (<https://musopen.org/composer/gabriele-fattorini/> -Access: 03.04.2018)

Giovanni Battista Ferrini (1600 – 1674)

Giovanni Battista Ferrini was born in Rome in 1600. Ferrini, known as an organist, harpsichordist and composer in the music history, has dedicated himself to be an organist in the churches, and is referred to as the famous organist of his period. His work called as 12 pieces written for organ is among the most important works of Ferrini, most of whose pieces are kept in the Vatican. (Silbiger, 1976). It is also known that there

are many religious vocal works of Ferrini as well as the organ works. Ferrini has participated in many performances during his period, and it is seen in the related literature sources that he has worked with the organists such as Frescobaldi, Fontana, Pasqualini who are famous composers and organists of his time. (Baratz, 1986). Ferrini served as an organist during his youth and maturity periods in the two most important churches of Rome and passed away in Rome in 1674.

Ignatio Fiorillo (1715 – 1787)

Ignatio Fiorillo was born in Naples in 1715. Fiorillo starting his music education with the support of Ferdinand Otto von Traun was the student of Leonardo Leo and Francesco Durante in the Naples Conservatory, and learnt composition techniques. Fiorillo who is famous for his operas and librettos in the music history is known to have performed concerts in almost every country in Europe with his two operas composed in 1733. (Jakubcova, 2007). The Italian composers' styles are seen in the operas of his first years, and the influence of German composers is seen in his works after 1750 as he has spent much time in Germany. Fiorillo is known to be a good harpsichord artist besides being an opera composer. Thus, there are 3 sonatas written by Fiorillo for keyboard instruments in the literature. It has been found that the composer generally used classical harmony writing in his works as he lived in late Baroque and early classical periods. Fiorillo passed away in 1787.

Fabrizio Fontana (1620 – 1695)

Fabrizio Fontana was born in Turin in 1620. There is not much information about how he started music and life of Fontana who is referred to as the Italian organist and composer in the music history. Fontana started his career as an organist in the Maria in Vallicella Church and worked in this church for many years. It is stated that his 12 songs written for the organ in these years have considerably affected his successor organ composers. Moving to Rome during his youth, Fontana began to perform as an organist in the San Pietro church in Rome. When his life is examined, there is not any information about his works other than the Ricercars that he wrote with the influence of Girolamo Frescobaldi's works. Upon examining his works, it is seen that he used the writing style of the Renaissance period music. Fontana spent the rest of his life in Rome and passed away in 1695.

Nicola Francesco (1678 – 1729)

Nicola Francesco was born in Rome in 1678. Francesco, who started his musical career as a cellist, is known as a composer and opera librettist in the music history. Francesco, who went to London during his youth, became the chief of chamber music for 2nd Duke of Bedford's. It is known that Francesco quickly became known in the United Kingdom thanks to his career here. Francesco ensured the performance of George Frideric Handel's operas in London by writing librettos for them, and he

tried to introduce a large number of his own compositions. He served as a cellist in the Royal Academy of Music, then he became a manager there. (Lingren, 2001). Francesco composed opera as well as playing cembalo, and he is known to have written a work for it. Francesco, writing toccata for cembalo, appears to have perfectly used the counterpoint style of the Baroque period. However, the overall style of the work is similar to the style of UK composers. Francesco passed away in London in 1729.

Girolamo Frescobaldi (1583 – 1643)

Girolamo Frescobaldi was born in Ferrara in 1583. Frescobaldi, considered as the most important composer for the music performed in the early Baroque period with the keyboard instruments, started his music life during childhood and became a good musician at an early age. (Morgente, 1986). Frescobaldi, making compositions as being inspired from the famous composers of the period such as Giovanni Maria Trabasi and Claudio Merulo, served as an organist in the St. Basilica of Peter, one of the most important churches of Rome. (Hammond, 1983). In addition to being a very famous composer and organist in his time, Frescobaldi succeeded to influence the successor Baroque artists with his works. Johann Sebastian Bach, one of the German Baroque composers, is especially known to have been fairly influenced by the Frescobaldi's works. (Bukofzer, 1947). As a result of the literature review, it has been found that the number of works written by Frescobaldi for keyboard instruments is very high. Besides that, Frescobaldi, who continued to serve as an organist in the famous churches, passed away in Rome in 1643.

Baldassare Galuppi (1706 – 1785)

Baldassare Galuppi was born in Burano in 1706. Galuppi, started his first music lessons with his father, began playing organ at the age of 16 by going to the city of Venice. When his first opera, which he had written without any experience, was performed, Galuppi having a feeling of disfavor wanted to leave his music life, but he was convinced again by the famous composer Benedetto Marcello and entered the music school. (Knop, 2011). He learned composition and playing harpsichord during his pupilage, and he is known to have started to play harpsichord in the theaters by going to Florence. Returning back to the city of Venice after his experiences there, Galuppi began to compose many operas and these operas achieved great successes. (Burde, 2008). He became the music director of the palace in London in 1741 and achieved to get famous in all over Europe. Looking at his last years, Galuppi, who has not composed opera works, composed many works of harpsichords in this period. (Colwitz, 2007). Galuppi passed away in Venice in 1785.

Francesco Gasparini (1661 – 1727)

Francesco Gasparini was born in Lucca in 1661. Gasparini, who started his music education in Rome, received lessons from the famous

trainers of the period, Corelli and Pasquini. After finishing his studies in 1682, he became a music director in a church in Rome and later worked as a singer member in Accademia Filarmonica in Bologna. (Griffiths, 2004). Gasparini, who started composing opera in 1686, became famous in the music history with his operas. Gasparini composed many operas, and at the same time, he played organs and served as music director in many churches. In addition to composing and playing instruments, he worked as a music teacher in his period, and became the teacher of many famous artists such as Domenico Scarlatti and Benedetto Marcello. (Swain, 2013). While reviewing the works of Gasparini, who wrote books on harpsichord playing and basso continuo type harmonies, made for keyboard instruments, it is found that these works contain easy techniques for students and have been written with pedagogical achievements in mind. Gasparini passed away in Rome in 1727.

Lodovico Giustini (1685 – 1743)

Lodovico Giustini was born in Pistoia in 1685. This composer, who lived between the late Baroque period and the early classical period, is known as the first person to compose the first piece for the piano instrument in the music history. (Parakilas, 1999). Giustini living in the same era with famous composers like Bach, Handel and Scarlatti began to take his music education at early ages thanks to being a son of a musician family. It is known that when his father, a religious music composer and church organist, died, he began to serve as an organist in the Giustini church. While working in the church, he composed many religious vocal music works. (Higginbottom, 1980). “Sonate da cimbalo di piano e forte detto volgarmente di martelletti” is one of the most important works of Giustini. As this work has been written for the first pianos, it has been determined that there are no articulations necessary to play it on the present pianos. Giustini who devoted his life to making compositions on organists and keyboard instruments passed away in 1743.

Gaetano Greco (1657 – 1728)

Gaetano Greco was born in Naples in 1657. It is known that Gaetano Greco, the youngest son of Rocco Greco who is one of the church organists of the period, started his first lessons with his father at early ages. Greco, studying harpsichord with Francesco Durante, is seen to have written works for keyboard instruments in later periods. Greco, who became the teacher of many important composers and musicians like Domenico Scarlatti, Leonarda Vinci, Giovanni Battista Pergalosi, is found to have carefully used each pedagogical approach in his compositions. There is not much information about Greco. However, it is stated in some sources that he served as a teacher in the Naples Conservatory. Gaetano Greco passed away in Naples in 1728. (http://marvin.wmflabs.org/wiki/Gaetano_Greco. Access: 21.03.2018)

Santo Lapis (1699? - 1765)

Although Santo Lapis's date of birth is not known exactly, it is stated in the relevant sources that he was born in Bologna in 1699. Lapis is known as a composer and famous organist in the music history. Lapis, studied in the Onofrio Conservatory, started to work at the *Accademia Filarmonica* of Bologna in 1719, which was one of the famous orchestras of the time. Lapis, who usually composed operas, has a large number of religious vocal works, and they were performed in the important churches in many European countries. Lapis was quickly recognized and became famous with these works in Europe. Besides the religious works, he has 12 sonatas for the keyboard instruments. When these sonatas are examined, it is seen that they have harmonious features of Baroque period and classical period. In addition, the playing styles used are very close to the sonatas of the classical period. (Mainz, 1956). Lapis, who served as an organist in London, Germany and many other countries, passed away in 1765.

Luzzaco Luzzaschi (1545 – 1607)

Luzzaco Luzzaschi was born in Ferrara in 1545. Since Luzzaschi, who is known as composer and organist in the music history, has lived between the Renaissance period and the Baroque period, it is possible to see the effects of both periods in his works. It is seen in the relevant literature that Luzzaschi is one of the best trainers of the period. The famous composers Pasquini and Frescobaldi, members of the Roman school, were trained by Luzzaschi. Besides that, Gesualdo and Macque de Luzzaschi, the successful composers and organizers of the Naples School, came to Ferrara to take lessons. (Newcomp, 1979). Luzzaschi composed 4 works for organ instrument as well as many religious vocal works like other composers of the Renaissance period. However, when these works are examined, it is seen that they completely contain the styles of the Renaissance music. Luzzaschi, who earned his living by playing organ in the churches in Ferrara, passed away in 1607.

Francesco Mancini (1672 – 1737)

Francesco Mancini was born in Naples in 1672. Mancini, who composed a large number of religious vocal works, was involved in music history both as an organist and teacher at the *Napoli Conservatory*. Mancini became the assistant of Alessandro Scarlatti in the conservatory, and after the death of Scarlatti, he served as the director of this conservatory. Mancini, serving as the conductor and organist of *Capella Reale*, also became the teacher of very important composers. When Mancini's composition style is examined, the characteristics of typical Napoli composers are seen in his works. One of the most important features of the 18th century Napoli music is its excellent harmony structure. Therefore, when the harmony structure in Mancini's works are examined, it is seen that there is perfect harmony writing. Although

Mancini was a master in playing the keyboard instruments, he produced very few works for these instruments. Mancini, who earned his living by working as the conservatory manager and organist, passed away in 1737. (www.francescomancini.com/ Access: 22.04.2018)

Vincenzo Manfredini (1737 – 1799)

Vincenzo Manfredini was born in Pistoia, near Florence, in 1737. Manfredini, known as the composer, harpsichordist and music theorist in the music history, is seen to have usually composed opera and religious vocal works. He started his music education with his father Francesco Manfredini, and then he continued to study with Perti in Bologna and Fiorini in Milan. (Fanelli, 1997). It is known that Manfredini, who has lived in Milan and Bologna for many years and wrote and displayed opera here, wrote very important books on theory. When Manfredini's works written for keyboard instruments are examined, it is seen that he generally adopted Fugue structure and chose to use a difficult counterpoint writing style. In addition, his sonatas written for the Cembalo instrument can be considered among the most important works of the mature Baroque period with its features such as perfect writing style, ornaments required by the period and so on. Manfredini, who earned his living by working as a composer and organist, lost his life in 1799. (Talbot, 1980).

Benedetto Marcello (1686 – 1739)

Benedetto Marcello was born in Venice in 1686. Marcello, who started his musical career with famous composers from Venice at an early age, also studied law at the request of his father. However, it is known that as he did not want to do a job on law, he gave priority to his music studies and started to make compositions by exchanging ideas with famous musicians of his time. (Chisholm, 1911). Marcello wrote solo pieces for flute and keyboard instruments in addition to composing many religious vocal works. When the general structure of his works is examined, it can be seen that he was influenced from Antonio Vivaldi's music. Benedetto Marcello's music is characterized by imagination and a fine technique and includes both counterpoint and progressive, gallant features. (Grove, 1994). When his works written for the keyboard instruments are examined, it is considered that the perfection of his counterpoint writing style, the delicacy and detailing in the composing form, and the guiding nature of the sonata fiction to the classical sonata are enough to tell the importance of this composer. Marcello, who suffered from tuberculosis during his studies, passed away in 1739.

Giovanni Battista Martini (1706 – 1784)

Giovanni Battista Martini was born in Bologna in 1706. Martini, leading musician and composer of the period, started the music with his violinist father at an early age, and he received counterpoint, harpsichord and singing lessons from the famous musicians living in Bologna.

Martini, who succeeded to receive an invitation from the Basilica of San Francesco at his early ages to be a conductor, is also known to have established a school for professionals and amateurs. In the following years, he received an offer to be a teacher in the Accademia Flarmonica di Bologna and worked here for a while. Martini has a good educator status as well as being a good musician. He taught many famous composers and musicians such as Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, Johann Cristian Bach. Martini is a composer who has done a lot of works for keyboard instruments. When we look at the general musical structures of his works, the perfect counterpoint writing draws attention. In addition, these works, which are technically not very difficult, are considered to be pedagogically valuable in terms of performing of music students. Martini passed away in 1784. (<http://www.classicalm.com/en/composer/845/Giovanni-Battista-Martini> Access: 20.03.2018)

Ascanio Mayone (1565 – 1627)

Ascanio Mayone was born in Naples in 1565. Mayone, called as a Neapolitan composer and famous harpist in the music history, made his compositions in the transition period between Renaissance and Baroque period. Mayone starting his first music education with Giovanni de Macque in Naples started to serve as an organist in Santissima Annunziata Maggiore after completing his music education. Having worked as an organizer for many years, Mayone continued to work as a conductor in the same place. Mayone who is mentioned among the Renaissance period artists also composed religious vocal works like other composers. Besides that, he composed for keyboard instruments, however, the features of the Baroque period could not be found in these works. Mayone, who has never gone out of the borders of Naples and worked in the same institution until the end of his life, passed away in 1627. (http://vikipedin.com/wiki/en/Ascanio_Mayone Access: 01.04.2018)

Tarquinio Merula (1595 – 1665)

Tarquinio Merula was born in Busseto in 1595. Merula, who is mentioned as a famous organist, violinist and composer during the early Baroque period in the music history, is known to have started his first music education at early ages and started to work firstly as an organist in Ceremo. Merula, who later served as an organist and conductor in many cities in Italy, also became the teacher of many composers at the same time. (Manfredini, 2002). Merula is known to be the first person to develop the ideas of the cantata, the aria, the sonatas da chiesa, variations and sinfonia forms that matured in the Baroque era. Merula, inspired by Monteverdi's composing styles while composing his religious works, revealed his own composing techniques during maturity, and became a leading figure for the successor musicians. He usually composed on vocals. (Field, 1994). Merula, who wrote many works for the organ,

seems to prefer the Renaissance writing style in these compositions. However, when his works are examined, it is seen that he has used a slightly different composition forms than the Renaissance writing and playing style, leading to the composers in the Baroque period. Merula, serving as an organist in churches throughout his life, passed away in 1665.

Pietro Domenico Paradies (1707 – 1791)

Pietro Domenico Paradies was born in Naples in 1707. Paradies, known as the important harpsichord teacher of his period, also took his place in the history as a composer and Harpsichord artist. Having started his first music education with Nicola Porpora, Paradies worked on composing music for the theater with his teacher and is known to have composed many theatrical music. He moved to London in 1746, and he worked as a harpsichord and singing teacher there. Paradies, who became the teacher of Gertrud Elisabeth Mara, one of the important figures in London, returned to Italy in 1770. (Iriello, 2007). Even if Paradies adopting the composing style of Domenico Scarlatti has written very few works for keyboard instruments, his Toccata in L Major is among the well-known works in the literature. (Cudworth, 1972). Although Paradies lived between the Baroque and classical periods, it is seen that he completely used the Baroque writing style in his works. He has been a teacher throughout his life and he has transferred his teaching knowledge to his works. Paradies passed away in 1791.

Nicolo Pasquali (1717? – 1757)

Although Nicolo Pasquali's date of birth is not known exactly, it is found in the related literature that he was born in Cosenza between 1717/18. Even though it is not known how he started the music, it is known that he started in Italy and later moved to London with his musician brother like himself. (Golby, 2002). Pasquali, who worked in many places in London, composed many operas during his life in London. Having studied Harpsichord in his maturity periods, it is found in the relevant literature that Pasquali has not composed a great work for the keyboard instruments. However, his book for finger exercises written for the keyboard instruments is one of the important works in the piano pedagogy. Many small works similar to the works that we call today as etude are included in this book that he wrote for Harpsichord. This book, which is especially important for children and young people at the beginning phase with the keyboard instruments, includes many important subjects such as scales, arpeggios, rhythm teaching, tonality teaching, finger number transitions, modulation and so on. Therefore, it can be said that small works given as an example in the book are important in terms of pedagogy of the keyboard instruments. (Pasquali, Ed. Bremner, 1760). Pasquali, who spent almost all of his life in Edinburgh, passed away in 1757.

Bernardo Pasquini (1637 – 1710)

Bernardo Pasquini was born in Massa in Val di Nievole in 1637. He claimed his place in history as the famous keyboard instrument virtuoso of his period as well as known as opera, oratorio and cantata and keyboard opera composer. He started his first music education with Mariotto Bocciantini, then moved to Ferrara where he became the organist for the first time. Pasquini, who served as an organist in many churches throughout his life, became a member of Arcasia of Academy together with Alessandro Scarlatti and Arcangelo Corelli in 1706. (Morelli, 2007). He composed many operas during his years in Rome, and his operas were performed and enjoyed in many cities of Italy. Pasquini known as an important virtuoso in Harpsichord instrument, became a teacher of very important composers and musicians throughout his life. The most important work in the keyboard instruments literature of Pasquini, who composed for a large number of keyboard instruments, is known to be Toccata which he made for the Organ. Pasquini burned to death in a church in Rome in 1710. (Morelli 2016)

Ferdinando Pellegrini (1715 – 1768)

Ferdinando Pellegrini was born in Naples in 1715. This artist known as the composer and harpsichordist in the music history began his music education at the Napoli Conservatory and became the student of Domenico Scarlatti and Alexandra Scarlatti. Pellegrini lived almost all his youth and maturity years in France and made his compositions there. Therefore, it is possible to see the styles of French Baroque and French classical composers in his works. (Marshall, 2003). When the keyboard instrument compositions of Pellegrini are examined, who lived between the Baroque and classical period, it is possible to see the harmony of mainly classical period. Almost all of Pellegrini's extant music involves the harpsichord, either as a solo instrument or more often with the support of one or more string instruments. Pellegrini, seems to have aspired to a musical genericism that might appeal to the widest consumer base: late Baroque and pre-Classical clichés abound, evidence of an eclecticism that climaxed, as mentioned above, in the actual annexation of another composers' music. In addition to chamber music, Pellegrini threw together a handful of Chansons Italiens for voice and continuo and some vocal duets, all published in Paris in 1760. (<https://www.allmusic.com/artist/ferdinando-pellegrini-mn0001630808/biography>) Access: 02.01.2018 This composer passed away in France in 1768.

Giovanni Battista Pergolesi (1710 – 1736)

Giovanni Battista Pergolesi was born in Jesi in 1710. Pergolesi, known as composer, violinist and organist in the music history, started music at an early age and went to Naples to develop his music. He composed oratorios at very early ages and won prizes thanks to these

compositions. Pergolesi is a very important figure in the opera buffa genre. (Giovani, 2011). It is known that early forms of composing have led to the Opera buffa genre, which would emerge later. In addition, he composed a large number of religious works, and these works were performed in the religious ceremonies of the numerous churches. Beside these, Pergolosi made compositions for violin and harpsichord, and these works were arranged and transferred to various instruments in the following periods. When Pergalosi's compositions for keyboard instruments are examined, it is possible to see the writing style used by the typical Baroque period composers. However, it can be said that the classical period structure also exists in his works. Pergalosi, who has received prizes since he started his music life, composed works for various instruments and vocals, put a lot of opera compositions in his life, suffered from the disease of Tuberculosis and passed away in 1736 when he was 26 years old. Therefore, he is also known as the youngest-dying composer in the music history.

Alessandro Poglietti (???? – 1683)

Although Alessandro Poglietti's place of birth is not known exactly, it is mentioned in the related literature that he was born in Tuscany. In addition, there is no evidence of his year of birth. However, the accuracy of his date of death and the writing style of his works prove that this composer is a Baroque period composer. Continuing his music education in Rome and Bologna, Poglietti moved to Vienna in 1660, where he served as the organist conductor. This composer, who spent all his life in Vienna, is known to be very famous by serving as the conductor of the most important churches. Poglietti stands out as an important figure in the history of keyboard instrument. Because this composer, along with Johann Kaspar Kerll, represents the transition between the mature Baroque period and Frescobaldi. (Apel, 1972). It is said that this composer, who improved the writing techniques developed by Frescobaldi, shed light on The Art of Fugue by Johann Sebastian Bach with the songs he composed. In addition, he composed numerous religious works, small-scale operas, and left the orchestral works to the present. Poglietti passed away in Vienna in 1683.

Carlo Francesco Pollarolo (1653? – 1723)

Although Carlo Francesco Pollarolo's date of birth is not known exactly, it is stated in the related literature that he was born in Venice in about 1653. This composer, who is a very important figure in the opera history, is mentioned as an organist, composer and important opera composer of his time in the music history. (Termini, 1970.). He started his music life with his father in the childhood, he soon developed himself and began to work as an organist in the church of a town near where he lived. While he was working here, opera which was a very famous musical genre attracted his interest, and he began to compose operas in

1680. Pollarolo, who was a good listener, was also influenced from the works of the French opera composer Jean - Baptiste Lully, who was the contemporary composer. He achieved to introduce the Venetian opera to almost all of Europe, and he also produced works on the organ as he was an organist. (Termini, 1979). Pollarolo, who wrote 89 operas throughout his life, worked in the churches in many cities of Italy, and served as an organist and conductor. Pollarolo passed away in 1723.

Nicola Antonio Porpora (1686 – 1768)

Nicola Antonio Porpora was born in Naples in 1686. He is known as an Italian composer and important vocal teacher of the Baroque era in the music history. Porpora beginning his music life in the Music Conservatories of Naples started composing operas from his student years and provided numerous operas to the literature. Porpora, a very good teacher beyond his composition, taught famous opera artists such as Frinelli, Caffarelli and Slimbeni, who are very important for the relevant period and especially for the opera history. (Hardie, 1983). He decided to live in Vienna and continued teaching there, where he taught Joseph Haydn and famous composer Marianne vob Martinez. When it is taken into consideration that the students educated by him are each a famous composer and player, Porpora can be called as one of the important music teachers of his period. He also worked as an organist in many churches and wrote only one organ work in the literature. As the historical period he lived covers mature Baroque and early classical periods, he is a composer who could achieve to combine counterpoint and harmonic structures in his works. Porpora, returning to Naples after his years in Vienna, passed away in 1768. (Walker, 1951).

Michelangelo Rossi (1601? – 1656)

Michelangelo Rossi was born in Genoa between 1601 and 1602. Rossi, known as the important organist, violinist and composer of the Baroque era in the music history, began his first music education with his uncle Lelio Rossi, the famous organist and composer of the period. He moved to Rome in 1624 and worked with Frescobaldi in Rome. He composed Madrigals thanks to these studies, and these works gained great fame in Rome. The number of Rossi's compositions on vocals are high and they are thought to accurately reflect the Baroque style. He has also produced works for keyboard instruments, but it has been found that he has not written any work on the violin despite of being a good violinist. He is a famous composer who earned his living by working as an organist in churches in Rome and by making compositions while working and managed to introduce himself both in his period and to the present. (Moore, 1993). He composed 10 toccatas on the keyboard instruments, and the perfection of the counterpoint style attracts the attention in these works. It is thought that the effects of Frescobaldi are

considerably high in his works. (Silbiger, 1983). Rossi passed away in 1656.

Domenico Scarlatti (1685 – 1757)

Domenico Scarlatti was born in Naples in 1685. Domenico Scarlatti, son of Alessandro Scarlatti, the famous composer and teacher of the period, started his first music education with his father at early ages, and then continued his education with the famous composers Gaetano Greco, Francesco Gasparini and Bernardo Pasquini. He worked as an organist in the churches in Naples, went to Venice to work for the operas, and worked in many places in Rome. Scarlatti is known to have benefited so much from the writing techniques of Johann Sebastian Bach and Frideric Handel as he lived in the same period with them. Especially Haendel considerably influenced Scarlatti. (Kithpatric, 1953). When his music education ended, Scarlatti moved to Madrid and served in different churches in Spain by the end of his life. Scarlatti is known as a genius person in playing Harpsichord. Scarlatti, who wrote many works on keyboard instruments, influenced the classical composers with these works even more, although he lived in the Baroque period. His works have not been published in the period of his life, all of them have been published in different years and reached to the present, and these works have greatly influenced the romantic period composers especially Chopin and Brahms in the following years. (Bassi, 1985). This genius composer, who produced many works to the literature of keyboard instruments, passed away in 1757.

Alessandro Scarlatti (1660 – 1725)

Alessandro Scarlatti was born in Palermo in 1660. Scarlatti, recognized as an important music teacher and composer in the music history, is the composer who established a connection between the "early Baroque period" music, which is the developed form of 17th century's Italian vocal music styles in the centers such as Florence, Venice and Rome, and the 18th century's "classic echo" music which peaked up with Mozart. Scarlatti, who started his music education in the early ages and received lessons in Northern Italy and Rome, worked on keyboard instruments and music theory in particular and left many works to the present. He worked as a music director in many churches and became the music teacher of many famous composers. It is also known that Scarlatti made many works for vocal. (Dent, 2008). Scarlatti created more than 500 solo chamber cantatas in addition to the operas, oratorios and serenades, all of which have similar character and special to Scarlatti's style. The music scholars of the 20th century, who had the opportunity to examine these works, state that these works are the most advanced chamber music of their time and it is the greatest music loss of their time not to perform these works at concerts. When his works are examined, it is possible to see the technical works which affected the following

composers of the classical period. (Grout, 1979). This genius, who educated composer both in his period and for the future, passed away in 1725.

Giacomo Sellitto (1701 – 1763)

Giacomo Sellitto was born in Naples in 1701. He is known as an Italian composer, teacher and singer in the music history. He is thought to have started his first music education at early ages, probably in the Naples Conservatory. Not much is known about Sellitto's life who is the brother of the famous opera composer Giuseppe Sellitto. Sellitto worked as a vocal teacher throughout his life in Collegio dei Nobili and educated many famous opera artists there. Sellitto, who also worked on the organ instrument, produced 72 pieces in fugue form. However, no information is available about whether he was an organist or how he played it. When the structure of his works is examined, it seems that he was influenced by Giovanni Pergalosi. (Boer, 2012). His Fugue composition style is very different from the next Fugue form composers. It is seen that Sellitto composed fugues using several themes and frequently changing tonalities in these themes. Sellitto who lived in Naples without going out of there and served in this city during his life, passed away in 1763.

Giovanni Battista Serini (1710 – 1765)

Giovanni Battista Serini was born in Cremona in 1710. Serini, a musician family's son, is said to have begun his first music education with his father, although it is not known exactly in the sources. This composer, brother of famous violinist Pietro Paolo Serini and famous musician Giuseppe Verdi Serini in the relevant period, started to work as a musician in Lippe-Schaumburg a Bückeberg after completing his music education. Serini, known as a good composer and master of keyboard instruments, composed many works for keyboard instruments. When his works are examined, it is seen that he mostly composed with the classical period harmony rather than Baroque writing style. Interestingly enough, however, he used much more ornaments than the musicians composing with the Baroque period style, although he adopted the classical period's writing style. Therefore, Serini can be said to be an artist who skillfully combined the Baroque period factors with the classical writing style. He has generally composed sonatas for keyboard instruments, and his sonatas are close to the classical period sonatas in terms of form. Serini passed away in 1765.

Girolamo Sertori (1692 – 1772)

Girolamo Sertori is known to have been born in Parma in 1692 according the relevant sources, although his exact date of birth is not known. It is not known how and where he started his music life. It is obviously known that he moved to Spain and worked there as master conductor in Pamplona. The sonatas he wrote for keyboard instruments in Spain are considered as very important masterpieces for today's piano.

Pestelli (1967) examined the sonatas of Sertori and stated these sonatas to be very similar to Scarlatti's writing style but acted as a bridge to the classic period sonatas. When the sonatas are examined in this context, Sertori has not used the counterpoint writing style, he usually composed his sonatas with the classical period harmony. In particular, his sonatas are very similar to the etudes written by Carl Czerny for piano. For this reason, it can be said that the works of Sertori are important for the classical age. Although he has not included the Baroque period disciplines in his works, his life and death dates are in the Baroque era. Therefore, Sertori is a Baroque composer. Sertori passed away in Spain in 1772.

Bernardo Storace (1664 – 1707)

Bernardo Storace was born in Messina in 1664. It is seen in the related literature that this Italian composer, not much is known about his life, served as a conductor in Messina. Storace is considered to be a composer representing the transition between Girolamo Frescobaldi and Bernardo Pasquini for Italian music, considering both his compositions and the techniques used in these compositions. (Apel, 1972). When his works are examined, it is noteworthy that his variations are especially numerous. It is evident that he contributed to the development of the variation form which was not preferred by many composers during his period, but it is an indispensable form of keyboard instruments of the classical period. It is seen that his first period works are in Frescobaldi's writing style, but he has approached to the classical period harmony in his later period works. As these works were published in the city of Venice, it is known that the Northern Italy and Northern Europe composers were more interested with these works. (Hudson, 2001). Storace passed away in 1707.

Giovanni Maria Trabaci (1575 – 1647)

Giovanni Maria Trabaci was born in Monte Pelusio in 1575. Trabaci called as a great organist and composer in the music history has written many works especially for the keyboard instruments. While no information is available about his starting to music and what he did at those years, it is known that he served as an organist in many churches in Naples since 1584. Trabaci, who composed religious works during his period, did not succeed in composing these works that he did for the keyboard instruments, and it is known that he thus dedicated himself to composing only for organ and harpsichord instruments. When Trabaci's works are examined, it is seen that he used a perfect counterpoint writing style, took examples from the composing styles of Frescobaldi and moved them even more forward. Although he wrote his works during the early Baroque period, there are also new discoveries in their works that can be transferred to future. The chords he used, his writing style being ahead of his time, and moving the polyphony understanding forward are

some examples to his discoveries. Trabaci passed away in 1647. (Jackson, 2001).

Domenico Zipoli (1688 – 1726)

Domenico Zipoli was born in Prato in 1688. He started to study music at early ages and began to sing in the cathedral choruses in his early ages. He received lessons from Giovanni Maria Casini in Florence, Alessandro Scarlatti in Naples and Bernardo Pasquini in Bologna, and started composing his first oratories in the course of these lessons. Zipoli, who started to serve as an organist in The Society of Jesus Church in 1715, is known to have written sonatas for keyboard instruments during these periods. (Illari, 2011). There are many works of Zipoli arranged in today's piano literature. Zipoli, who was very integrated with religion during his life, is a composer who has left perfect pedagogical works to the present, although he has used religious themes in his works. It is seen in the related literature that the compositions that he made especially for vocals are extremely religious. Scarlatti's composition techniques can be seen in his works, and the classicism effects are seen in his works he wrote in the late Baroque period. Zipoli living for a short time in Spain returned to Italy and lived in Italy for the rest of his life. Zipoli passed away in 1726.

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INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

PLACE OF TURKEY'S AFRICA POLICIES IN THE TURKEY-EUROPEAN UNION RELATIONS: TURKEY PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

Turkey has been involved in the adventure of the European Union started after World War II, from the beginning. If a more historical diagram is to be drawn in this context, the steps, taken for the reconstruction process of destroyed Europe, begin with the Paris Treaty signed by France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland, and Luxembourg in 1951. After the next step European Coal and Steel Community created in this framework, brought the Rome Treaty which established the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community in 1957. Turkey, aware of the economic integration process which will grow more, made a joint membership application to this structure on 31 July 1959.

Turkey continued to develop close relations with the European Union from outside the union. Historical touchstones such as the EU Summit conducted in the period December 1997 and June 2000 after 1963 Ankara Agreement, the Additional Protocol's entry into force and Turkey's transition process, the application for full membership held in 1987 and, the Customs Union process began in 1996 were the main determinants of Turkey-European Union relations.

This study will include Turkey-European Union relations, Europe's Anglo-Saxon and Frankton point of view to Turkey's policy of opening to Africa developed in the recent period. In this context, the perspective of the former colonial countries which do not want to give free rein of economic, political and social powers to Turkey to which Africa opened up the doors to the end, will be given.

It has been observed in the European Union that no specific assessment other than "African refugees" takes place in any report. Especially the European broadcasting organizations' response to the visits of statesmen of Turkey to Africa and the large presence of Turkey in Africa will be assessed.

On the other hand, in post-colonial order European countries perceive Turkey not only economical and commercial threat but also as political threat, for this reason, Anglo-Saxon and Frankton views considering that Turkey sent soldiers and established military base in countries such as

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Somalia and Sudan (Suakin Island) creates security threats in the region, will also be included.

Another evidence of post-colonial order countries (USA, UK, France and even China) see Turkey as a threat by ignoring the casualties that they gave in the recent past aware of the fact that their authorities and powers are shaken in the continent, is despite Turkey's all insist, schools of Fetullahçı Terrorist Organization (FETO) are not closed in the countries that they still hold commercial power in their hands' with the reason "non-interference in the internal affairs". In this context, the former colonial countries of the countries where the FETO schools are not closed will also be evaluated.

1. Turkey-European Union Relations

Relations with the European Union have developed continuously problematic since Turkey reported that full membership in 1959 (Republic of Turkey Ministry For European Union Affairs, 2015). The most basic reason for this is civilization and identity. Turkey has always been perceived and excluded as a part of the Eastern civilization with Ottoman and Islamic identity. In this context, Turkey looked from the objective perspective, always thought it was a part of Europe, and spent great efforts to develop good relations.

In the scope of the study, the main aim is to observe the reactions of European countries when their efficiency is subjected in power fields, in Turkey's European Union trip. While Africa was a continent in the process of colonialism dominated by the United States and Europe, today, Turkey makes its presence felt on the continent, largely bothering Europeans, especially the Anglo-Saxon powers. Whether they don't reflect this in the institutional EU reports, It can be seen in the news of their own publications and in the post-colonial regime that they don't allow the closing of the FETO schools in the states that they are active in Africa.

2. Turkey's Opening to Africa

Turk's relations with Africa is possible to examine in three periods: pre-colonial (the early period and the Ottoman period), the founding of the Republic of Turkey, the recent period (after 1998 Opening to Africa Action Plan) (Boztaş, 2011: 144-148). The Turks meet Africa reach up to the 9th century when they were deployed around Egypt for military purposes during the Abbasids period. Then the Turks who established independent states continued their existence in the region with Tolunoğulları and Işşidler. In the 12th century, Ayyubids and Mamluks established in Egypt were effective in the Black Continent (Hazar, 2008: 20-21).

In the near history, while the Ottoman's were effective on the continent after the establishment of the Republic of Turkey, existing efficiency was suspended for the cyclic reasons like colonization process prevailing in Africa and Turkey's "nation-building process" and "Westernism perspective of foreign policy"(Boztaş, 2011: 140).

The development of Turkey's relations with Africa began actually and officially after the Opening to Africa Action Plan declared in 1998 and gained speed after the 2002 elections in the multi-dimensional foreign policy axis. This development took place not only politically and diplomatically but also socially, economically, militarily and culturally.

After the long break up, this rapid development between Turkey and the continent was followed by surprise by all countries in the world, especially by the European have ties with their colonial past. The Turks, who were adopted by the people of the continent, not by the order of exploitation but by their hearts, evaluate the advantage of the historical past.

3. Overview of the European Union Countries to Turkey's Opening to Africa

In 2005, Turkey's high-level visits to the continent also increased with Turkey became a strategic partner more than to be a state who makes an opening to the continent. Turkey's President Erdogan became the community leader who had the most visits to the African countries by visiting 28 African Countries, 39 times (Anatolia News Agency, 2017). Various Western, especially French and British press channels handled this situation seriously and they began to question Turkey's increasingly shine in Africa. Anglo-Saxon powers, who are disturbed by Turkey's not only political and social presence on the continent but also the military and economic presence, gave voice this situation with press channels not under the European Union roof with official channels. In this context, the two countries most active in the colonial period in Africa, which are France and Britain, carried current situation to their own press channels and they handled Turkey's effective situation on the continent with its historical background in detail.

In the French Lemon newspaper, dated March 4, 2016 issue of Turkey in Africa, in particular, expressed that Turkey was increasingly becoming a rising power in West Africa where France had been active. They voiced their sensitivity and discomfort by emphasizing the rise of Turkey's political, economic and religious in the area for 10 years replaced the soft power elements (Barthet, 2016). Le Monde's another interesting detection was that one of the reasons for Turkey's opening to Africa was due to instability in the region, deterioration of Turkey's relations with Iraq, Syria, Russia, Egypt and the European Union. So much so that after the

postponement of the process of Turkey's accession to the European Union, It was voiced that Turkey's membership process was completely ended (Barthet, 2016).

Turkey's presence on the continent was also questioned on a program with the subject "Why is Turkey in Africa" published by BBC which was one of the important broadcasters of Britain, on June 3, 2016 (BBC, 2016).

Free broadcasting organizations of European countries former colonial powers in Africa, though not official, are questioning Turkey's presence in Africa. On the other hand, as the European Union, they are developing policies to improve and transform their own countries and their relations with Africa.

On the continent, They think that Turkey who is sending troops and establishing military bases in the countries such as Somalia and Sudan (Suakin Island), creates a security threat in the region. For this reason, the post-colonial states who discomfort from Turkey to take part in the security context in Africa, makes their presence more effective in the geo-strategic points on the continent.

The use of Suakin Island as a Turkish military base was not only interesting to Western countries, but Saudi Arabia also disturbed and carried it to the press. The Suudi Okaz newspaper stated that Khartoum had given Suakin Island to Ankara and that this island was one of the oldest parts of Africa and was used by African Muslims who went to Hajj to the holy city of Makkah in Saudi Arabia (Okaz, 2017; Esber, 2018). However, the Ottomans used this port city in the past to protect the Hijaz province of Western Saudi Arabia from attackers using the Red Seafront. Today, Turkey with 300 million foreign direct investment of the total \$ 650 million investment for the region, military training of more than 10 thousand soldiers in the country, and presence of 1500 Turkish soldiers in the region (Al Jazeera,2017; Nehal Al-Ashkar, 2018), was perceived as a threat both by European and the Arabs.

The Middle East Eye, conducted by David Hearst's editorial the former head writer of The Guardian external affairs, writer Suraj Sharma's August 7, 2017 dated write with title "Turkey scrambles for Africa: Ankara eyes new empire in old backyard" stated that Turkey's eyes was on the former Ottoman territory where therefore established the largest overseas base in Mogadishu. Sharma showed the explanation of Turkey's old Chad Ambassador Ahmet kavass "If you were to think of any one country that should be present in Africa, that country would be Turkey" as the basis of his/her these words (Sharma, 2017). These and similar descriptions and comments are regarded as the biggest indicator

of Turkey's presence in Africa especially the military presence is perceived as the big threats by Europeans.

At the same time, according to the West, Turkey, which made its presence felt in Africa with Turkish Airlines' channel, used for the repatriation to their homeland by force of migrant Africans in Europe, in the context of readmission agreement signed between Brussels (European Union) and Ankara in 2013. Describing this situation as the "dark" the Middle East Eye emphasizes Turkey's activities in Africa has a background (Sharma, 2017).

Another indicator of Western media organs' perception about Turkey is a threat in Africa, Turkey used FETO and its educational institutions in the past as a "soft power" and this situation changed after July 15th. The West, who was trying to show Turkey and FETO acting as partners with coordination, stated that after the conflict of interest Turkey declared that the FETO as its enemy (Sharma, 2017).

4. Country-Based Existing FETO Schools in Africa and The Former Colonist Countries (Anglo-Saxon-Frankton)

Formerly, FETO opened schools in almost 50 countries in a total of Africa's 54 countries. Most of these schools were located near American embassies or consulates. FETO members, reached the places where Turkey had not even a Non-Governmental Organization. They organized even in countries with civil war, established close relations with the politics and environments in these countries (Ünlü, 2017).

The countries in which FETO opened schools intensively were the countries where Anglo-Saxon affection was found namely countries where the US and the UK population was high, rather than the Francophone countries. The United States later choose to settle in the region with the operation known as 'False Flag' in the intelligence terminology because it missed the first wave of colonialism. And for these operational purposes, the USA made FETO built schools like castles, collected money even in countries that they were in need of 'single bread'. (Ünlü, 2017).

Envisioning a present danger Turkey's President Erdogan, before the coup attempt carried out by the FETO terrorist organization in Turkey on 15 July 2016, in 2014 2nd Turkey-Africa Partnership Summit, warned the closure of the issue of FETO schools in Africa (Turkey Presidency of the Republic, 2018).

In addition to the African countries that are sensitive to this issue, it has been observed that there are also African countries that they are not involved because of the fear of the former colonial power. Turkey Maarif Foundation (TMF), signed a memorandum with 26 countries for

transferring the schools belong to FETO. And TMF gained the 31 schools, 15 dormitories, and 3 thousand students by completing the transfer procedures of schools in 5 countries. Turkey taking 20 buildings and 18 schools serving 2 thousand 500 students in Mali after Niger and Somalia, revealed its determination in this struggle (Çelikel, 2018).

According to the African Desk April 2017 Activity Report prepared by the Turkey Maarif Foundation (Arkan et al., 2017: 67-70);

- A protocol was signed with Guinea, Niger, Somalia, Sudan, Congo, and education started.

- Protocols signed in Mauritania, Senegal, Chad, Gabon, Burkina Faso, Sao Tome, Madagascar, and transfer procedures were planned for June.

- A protocol was signed in Djibouti, and it was planned to start training in September.

Nigeria, Kenya, Tanzania, Mozambique, Rwanda, Eritrea and South Africa where the Maarif Foundation plans to go to last, are the countries in which FETO is the strongest in Africa. Because these countries are mostly Anglo-Saxon-influenced and they are under US-UK guidance. Knowing all of them, advancing with firm steps in strategic partnership with the continent, Turkey's struggle with FETO still continues unabatedly in all of Africa.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The relations of Turks with Africa are based on very deep historical ties. In this process, there has never been a unilateral interest relation between African rights and Turks. Therefore, after the Republic of Turkey until the Opening to Africa Action Plan in 1998 because of the conjuncture requirement even though bilateral relations suspended they developed rapidly and surprised all of the world.

We see that there are three periods when we examine the relations of the Turks with the continents within the process. These are can be described as: pre-colonial (the early period and the Ottoman period), the founding of the Republic of Turkey, the recent period (after 1998 Opening to Africa Action Plan) (Boztaş, 2011: 144-148). In these processes, the bonds between the Turks and the peoples of Africa have never been adversely affected and rapidly evolved as positively as every day.

Turkey, which has made itself speak increasingly in the international community's recent strong political, military and economic structures that control the international system are met nervously by the Western powers. In particular, Turkey has a very comprehensive Africa policy

was perceived as a major threat by the Anglo-Saxon and Francophone European states which have economic, political and military aspects of colonialism process on the continent that had prevailed for many years.

Turkey acts in its relations with the continent based on "win-win" policy, stresses that colonial policies should be abandoned in post colonial order, reveals that how much cares about and gives value of the African society. But this was not welcomed by the European powers because of their own interests being interrupted in the post-colonial period.

Turkey must further accelerate the correct steps taken by and be always beside the people of Africa in the political, economic, military and social levels. Those states that still hope to continue the post-colonial order, need to recognize that this process is now ended with globalization and that every state can freely determine its strategic partners in the international system. African states must realize that they are now independent. While managing their nation-building processes without feeling the need for role models they must turn to strategic partnerships with the states like Turkey care about themselves would be the right choice.

Free African states should first take care to maximize their power in the international system, then taking into account the interests of their strategic partners or the states they will work with, firstly taking into account the interests of their own communities and their countries. Their political, military, economic and societal development is their greatest debt to both their ancestors and their people living on the borders of the country.

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MEDIATION ROLE OF THE UNITED NATIONS IN THE CYPRUS DISPUTE AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

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Introduction

One of the most common problems among people and societies around the world is dispute. Violent or non-violent disputes may occur at the level of individuals and societies in the face of problems arising from political, social, cultural, economic, psychological reasons. Disputes have many different types ranging from individual to community and state level and they all have their own solution methods and results.

Mediation is one of the most common methods for the settlement of disputes. The meaning of the word mediation, "Vermittlung" in German, is "intervention by a third neutral person or institution in a dispute in order to settle it"(TDK, 2018).

Mediation is the process by which someone tries to end a disagreement by helping the two sides come together to talk about and agree on a solution. Disputes between individuals or states are tried to be settled by a third party with this method. Indeed, in today's international arena, where there is no central authority that oversees and imposes sanctions on the acts contrary to international law, and where power and force are only used by states to protect their own sovereignty, mediation is seen as a fair and effective way of dispute resolution. Mediation is a method of dispute resolution that involves a third party who is not involved in the disagreement. The third party, i.e. the mediator, aims to settle the problems of the parties, involved in an international dispute, without the use of force or jurisdiction. To this end, the mediator does not merely bring the parties involved in the dispute together for negotiation; at the same time it can attend sessions and present solution proposals (Eren, 2014: 46).

Unlike many dispute resolution methods, in the mediation method the mediator aims not to force the parties to do or not do anything, but to persuade them. In fact, since the mediator does not have the authority to make binding decisions, it is not the mediator itself that settles the disagreement between the parties. The mediator only assumes the role of intermediary, enabling the parties to negotiate to reach a solution (Eren, 2014: 49).

To carry out mediation efforts in terms of international law; certain features which are essential for mediation need to be present. Key features

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of the mediation are a third party (states, international organizations or real persons), neutrality, no binding decisions, authority received from the parties and volunteerism (Eren, 2014: 70-84).

The United Nations (UN) is one of the most important organizations that implement the mediation method in terms of international law as a third party. The UN, established in 1945 as a result of World War II, became one of the most important international organizations in the world. The primary purpose of the organization is to provide peace and security after the war with the experiences of the disputes and losses that are experienced all over the world during the war period. This organization, established with the common consent of individual states, assumed it as its fundamental role to prevent disputes and crises that will cause disputes around the world as well as the continuation of the power balance during and after the war. In other words, the winners of the World War II aimed to reinforce their own power and hegemony through this organization, in which other states also participated with their consent. Apart from the General Assembly, formed by the participation of all the member states, the Security Council and the structure and authorities of this Council clearly demonstrate this purpose.

The UN developed important regulations in a world order where disputes and crises, which might lead to international friction, continued to be present throughout the world after the war. The Security Council is the main authority for settling disputes according to the UN Charter (Bozkurt-Demirel, 2004: 59). According to the UN Charter Chapter VI Article 33 Paragraph 1 on the pacific settlement of the disputes, the parties to any dispute, the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, shall, first of all, seek a solution by negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice. According to Paragraph 2 of Article 33, the Security Council shall, when it deems necessary, call upon the parties to settle their dispute by such means (TBMM, 2018).

As can be seen, the Security Council plays a major role in settling disputes in the UN Charter. Apart from the Security Council, the United Nations Secretariat and the General Assembly can also take part in the settlement of disputes. The UN Secretariat also plays an active role in maintaining international peace and solution of disputes. According to Article 98, the Secretary-General shall act in that capacity in all meetings of the General Assembly, of the Security Council, of the Economic and Social Council, and of the Trusteeship Council, and shall perform such other functions as are entrusted to him by these organs. The Secretary-General shall make an annual report to the General Assembly on the work of the Organization. Article 99 acknowledges that the Secretary-General

may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security. Furthermore, Article 100 states that the Secretary-General and the staff shall not seek or receive instructions from any government or from any other authority external to the Organization. Mediation, one of the methods of settling disputes peacefully in the UN framework, has generally been carried out by the UN Secretary General since the year the Organization was founded. UN Secretaries-General have mediated many disputes throughout the history of the Organization (TBMM, 2018, Eren, 2014:77).

Fikret Birdiřli argues that the role of the UN Secretariat in the solution of international disputes can be divided into three: first, obtaining the right information needed to build the trust needed for settling a dispute. In this context, the Secretariat attaches special importance to preventive diplomacy. The first action that needs to be taken is the appointment of ambassadors and mediators and the establishment of the necessary regional contact points; secondly, the mobilization of the organs of the UN under the guidance of the Secretariat; and thirdly, the development of the structures and resources that are needed to increase the effectiveness of the UN in settling international problems. Obtaining the right information is an important step in order to understand the root cause of the conflict or problem. A correct diagnosis is also necessary for the UN and its member states to initiate correct initiatives and to develop solution proposals. Today, the UN, with its resources and organization, is a global organization that can achieve significant effectiveness in international affairs. However, the mobilization of these resources is closely linked to the constructive and willing attitudes of the member states and in particular the five permanent member states with veto rights, and to the leadership characteristics of the Secretary-General, leading the Organization (2010: 176).

Apart from the Security Council and the Secretariat; the General Assembly, in which all member states participate and have the right to vote, also has broad authority to settle disputes peacefully. International disputes or situations may be referred to the General Assembly as well as the Security Council. The General Assembly may discuss any issue relating to the maintenance of international peace and security, whether it is referred by a member or a non-member state. The General Assembly may also give advice to the concerned states or the Security Council. The General Assembly cannot be involved in, discuss, or advise on any dispute if such dispute is referred to the attention of the Security Council. However, the authority of the General Assembly is broader than that of the Security Council. UN Charter Article 11 Paragraph 2 states that “the General Assembly may discuss any questions relating to the maintenance of international peace and security” and Article 10 states that the General Assembly may make recommendations to the Members of the United

Nations to take measures to ensure peaceful correction of any situation that would harm the public well-being or threaten the international friendly relations. However, the recommendations of the General Assembly are not mandatory (Bozkurt-Demirel, 2004: 62-63).

Despite all these authorities and duties, the role of the UN organization in settling international disputes and conflicts is controversial. Decisions taken by the General Assembly are essentially recommendations; the implementation of these decisions is entirely based on the interests of the parties concerned. Although the Security Council has the power to put decisions on certain issues and situations into force with various enforcement measures, including the use of force, the veto right granted to the five permanent members of this organ prevented the implementation of this mechanism (except for some exceptions) (Sönmezoğlu, 1992: 291). The UN Secretary-General is also able to implement effective diplomacy in the settlement of disputes with the Security Council's mandate; but he alone does not have the authority to make/implement decisions.

The Cypriot dispute has been on the agenda of the Organization since the 1950's. The dispute brought to the agenda of the General Assembly for the first time in the 1950's was brought to the attention of the Security Council along with the collapse of the Republic of Cyprus, founded in 1960. In 1964, the Peace Force was deployed in the island with the decision of the Security Council. The Peace Force is still present in the island. From the end of the 1960's to the present day, the UN Secretariat has assumed the role of mediation between the parties within the framework of the Goodwill mission with the resolution of the Security Council.

The UN has implemented the mediation method through the Secretary General in the Cyprus dispute. The UN has been involved in the Cyprus dispute from the 1950s to the present day, both with the resolutions of the Security Council and the General Assembly and with the mediation role of the Secretary General. Although there is no conflict today, the disagreement between the parties persists, and the initiatives of the UN from all its three channels have failed to this day. In this framework, the role of the UN in the Cyprus dispute is more than questioned. However, it is better to assess this issue by looking at the historical course of the role of the UN in the Cyprus dispute from the beginning to the present day.

Beginning of the UN Mediation Process in Cyprus

The UN encountered the Cyprus dispute for the first time in the 1950's. The dispute was first brought to the UN General Assembly in October 1951, when Makarios III, Archbishop of Cyprus Orthodox Church, submitted a protest notice during the 6th term talks. In 1952, Greece referred the dispute to the UN General Assembly talks and in 1953 Makarios to the UN General Assembly. On August 16, 1954, in 1955, on

March 13, 1956, and on July 12, 1957, Greece submitted petitions to bring the dispute to the UN General Assembly. In none of these petitions the General Assembly made a decision by majority vote; but from 1954, the representatives of the states made comments on the dispute in the commissions where the petitions were addressed (Sönmezoğlu, 1984: 225-234).

After the establishment of the Republic of Cyprus in 1960 and its membership in the UN, the Cyprus dispute was not addressed in the General Assembly until December 1965. In late 1963, inter-communal clashes in the island were reflected on the UN - especially the Security Council-, in various forms. In December 1963, the dispute was discussed at the 1085th meeting of the Security Council upon the petition of the Republic of Cyprus; moreover, in the years 1964-1965, the dispute occupied considerable space on the agenda of the Council. The most important resolution is the 186 (1964) resolution of the Council taken on March 4, 1964, as will be discussed below (Sönmezoğlu, 1984: 235-236).

The UN resorted to the mediation mechanism for the first time in 1964 in the Cyprus dispute. The Republic of Cyprus, founded in 1960, was disintegrated after the clashes between the two peoples that started on 21 December 1963. However, even the disintegration did not stop the clashes. Upon this situation; first, the deployment of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) force in the island was planned; however, upon the failure of this plan, the United States proposed the idea of the UN Peacekeeping Force. When this idea was favored by the parties, on 4 March 1964, with the decision of Security Council No. 186, the decision to deploy Peace Force in the island was taken. With this resolution, the Security Council also delegated the Secretary General as a mediator in the framework of the goodwill mission (Bölükbaşı,2001: 288, UN, 2018).

According to the decision of the UN Security Council on March 4, 1964, Secretary General U Thant appointed the Finnish Mediator Sakari Tuomioja to Cyprus. When Tuomioja died in 1964, Ecuadorian diplomat Galo Plaza Lasso replaced him as the mediator (Arık, 2011: 9).

From September 1964, the tension in the island relatively subsided as a result of the “silent truce” practices. Meanwhile, Plaza, the UN Secretary General’s new Cyprus mediator, prepared a report which he named with his own name. In his report, Plaza wrote that the solution to the Cyprus dispute must be found by the two communities in the island and that there should be no intervention from any external force. He also wrote that it was no longer psychologically and politically possible to return to the old days in the island because of the events that took place since December 1963, and that it was no longer possible to return to the 1959 Treaty of London. Plaza stated in his report that a fully independent state, which protects the

security rights of all the peoples in the island adequately, will be the solution. Greece and Cyprus Greeks favored Plaza's report, but opposed limiting the right of self-determination. Turkey, on the other hand, had a great disappointment because of the report. The UN, having in mind Plaza's report, stated in its Resolution No:2077 dated December 16, 1965 that the Republic of Cyprus has full sovereignty and independence right as an equal member of the UN and that all member states must respect the sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity of the Republic and refrain from any intervention (Firat, 2001: 733- 734, UN, 2018).

The first intercommunal talks aimed at finding solutions to the Cyprus dispute were initiated in Beirut, the capital of Lebanon, on June 3, 1968 pursuant to the agreement reached after the attacks of the Geçitkale in a period when the conflicts were intensifying as a result of contacts ongoing for a while through Osoro Tafall, special advisor to the UN Secretary-General U Thant. The talks were moved to Nicosia one week after this first official meeting. On behalf of the Turkish side, "President of the Congregational Assembly" Rauf Denктаş, who had returned to the island in April 1968 after four years of exile, carried out the negotiations and the "President of the Representatives" Glafkof Clerides carried on behalf of the Greek Cypriot side.

The talks, which were in the form of exchange of views on legislative, executive, security and administrative matters and held sometimes in Clerides's house and sometimes in Denктаş's house, ended in failure on September 20, 1971 (BİLGE, 2018, Denктаş, 1997: 254- 263).

On June 1972, the UN Secretary General Kurt Waldheim opened the new series of talks attended by the representatives of Greece, Turkey, Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots. These talks continued till April 2, 1974 with various intervals. Clerides criticized Turkish Prime Minister Bülent Ecevit's argument that "the best solution for Cyprus is federation" and withdrew from the talks. Thus, the first round of talks, which lasted for 6 years under the chairmanship of UN Secretaries-General, ended with no result (BİLGE, 2018, Denктаş, 1998: 355).

In fact, the first round of talks initiated by the UN Secretaries-General aimed to find solutions to the Cyprus dispute within the unitary structure, even though the Republic of Cyprus was scattered. During the first phase of the negotiation process, the Greek Cypriot representatives advocated the provision of minority rights and autonomy to the Turkish Cypriots within the unitary structure of the Republic of Cyprus whereas the representatives of the Turkish Cypriots demanded that the state established as a republic in 1960 be transformed into a geographical federation. During the first round of talks, both peoples seemed reluctant to settle the disagreements. In the negotiations started with their own initiatives, the Turkish Cypriots

wished to gain time and make the Greek side accept that they were an entity by themselves. In the Greek administration, President Makarios, whose relations with Athens were bad, primarily sought to gain strength within the international public (İsmail, 1998,106, Fırat, 2001, 718). In the first round of talks, mediation through special representatives appointed by the UN Secretaries-General aimed to ensure that the parties in the island find a solution to the dispute and to prevent the interference of a third country. For this reason, the mediation of the UN did not go beyond the passive level.

The year 1974 was a turning point for both Cyprus and Cyprus talks for two reasons: first; as a result of a peacekeeping operation by Turkey on July 20, 1974, 38% of the territory passed over to the Turkish Cypriots. Secondly; this development brought the negotiations, which had started in 1968, to a new dimension. In the case of a new negotiation that would begin in the island, the Turkish Cypriot side could now officially propose a bi-zonal administration form. As will be discussed below; with the population exchange conducted in 1975, the bi-communality was also added to the Turkish Cypriot side's bi-zonal administration proposal. Hence, negotiations were held in the framework of a unitary state structure, as in the first phase, but rather in the framework of a bi-zonal and bi-communal federation. The Greek Cypriot side accepted this fact with the 1977 and 1979 High-Level Agreements.

Development Of Mediation Role

Following the end of the military campaign carried out by Turkey to the island, the UN took action for Cyprus through the resolution of the General Assembly dated 1 November 1974, numbered 3212. This resolution, regardless of Turkey's views and the current status in the island, called upon all states to respect the sovereignty of, and to refrain from all acts and interventions directed against the Republic of Cyprus, urged the speedy withdrawal of all foreign armed forces and the cessation of all foreign interference in the island and requested that all the refugees should return to their homes in safety. The UN also resolved that the constitutional system of the Republic of Cyprus concerns the Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot communities and commended the contacts and negotiations taking place on an equal footing, with the good offices of the Secretary-General between the representatives of the two communities with a view to reaching freely a mutually acceptable political settlement, based on their fundamental and legitimate rights. The Security Council endorsed General Assembly resolution 3212 with its resolution 365 on December 13 1974 and appointed Secretary General Kurt Waldheim to mediatorship (Arık, 2011: 19- 20, UN, 2018).

The talks resumed in April 1975 in Vienna under the auspices of Secretary General Kurt Waldheim and under the leadership of Javier Perez de Cuellar, the secretary's special envoy for Cyprus, and once again stopped at the end of the fifth round in February 1976. The most important discussions during all the five round of talks were about the issues that had been on the agenda since the 1960's. Denктаş, the head of the Turkish Federation, insisted on the idea of a federal republic consisting of two homogeneous regions, each with a comprehensive autonomy, while the Greek Cypriot leader Clerides rejected the idea of federalism based on land and focused more on the return of Greek Cypriot refugees to their homes under the Turkish control. The most important outcome of the Vienna Talks was the "Population Exchange Agreement". With this agreement, the Turks living in Southern Cyprus moved to Northern Cyprus and the Greeks living in Northern Cyprus moved to Southern Cyprus. The first meeting between Makarios and Denктаş took place in Nicosia on 27 January 1977 approximately 1 year after the talks came to a halt. On February 12, 1977, a four point framework agreement was signed at the second meeting held under the auspices of UN Secretary General Kurt Waldheim. Four basic principles were adopted in the Framework Agreement. These are:

1. An independent, non-aligned, bi-communal federal republic will be established in Cyprus
2. The rate of the territory under the administration of the communities will be determined taking into account economic viability, productivity and land ownership.
3. Free movement, free settlement, property acquisition and similar issues will be discussed on the basis of bi-communal federal system taking into consideration some difficulties that may arise in practice for Turkish Cypriots.
- 4- The central government would be given powers to ensure the unity of the state, taking into account the bi-communal characteristics of the state. The meetings continued in Vienna under the auspices of the Secretary General (BİLGE, 2018, MFA, 2018, Bölükbaşı, 2001: 293).

Although both sides agreed to establish an 'independent, non-aligned federal republic' in the framework agreement, no agreement was reached in Vienna talks. Inter-community talks resumed in May 1979. On May 18-19, 1979, Denктаş and the Greek Cypriot Administration President Spiros Kipriyanu, who had succeeded Makarios, signed a 10-point agreement. After the death of Makarios, a new high level agreement was signed. According to Article 9 of the 1979 High Level Agreement, negotiations had to be carried out continuously; however, no negotiation was held until August 1980, when Hugo Gobbi, UN Special Representative

for Cyprus, opened new talks in Nicosia. According to Sönmezoğlu, the most important point to be noted about the negotiations in this period is the attempts by Secretary General Waldheim to transform classical goodwill initiatives into mediation and even reconciliation. These talks continued under the auspices of the new UN Secretary General Perez de Cuellar, who had previously been the Special Representative for Cyprus for two years, from late 1981 until May 1983 when the Greeks brought the issue to the attention of the UN General Assembly. The parties could neither agree on some concepts, such as bi-communality and bi-zonality nor on the issues of representation, powers of the federal government, settlement, ownership and free movement (BİLGE, 2018, KKTCB, 2018 , Sönmezoğlu, 1992: 293).

The most important development that occurred after the negotiations came to an end was the declaration of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) on 15 November 1985. The declaration of independence by the Turkish Cypriot side is a crucial development that changed the course of the negotiations after the 1977-1979 High Level Agreements. With this declaration, the Turkish Cypriot side rose from the society level to the state level; therefore, they asked to be represented equally as two states. The Greek Cypriot side reacted strongly to this declaration of independence. In fact the UN Security Council had already invalidated this declaration with the resolution 541 dated November 18, 1983 (UN, 2018).

After the declaration of the TRNC, negotiations resumed on September 10, 1984 in New York as “indirect talks” as a result of UN Secretary General Perez de Cuellar’s efforts. During these three rounds of talks, the leaders of Cyprus, Denktaş and Kyprianu, sat in separate rooms in the UN headquarters, and Ceullar went from one room to another to carry the message of the parties. After receiving the final offers, Ceullar presented a document to the parties. Denktaş agreed to sign the document, which was brought to the table by taking the views of both sides, but Kipriyanu refrained from signing it. At the end of these negotiations, called Close Talks, the Greek Cypriot side claimed that the Secretary General exceeded his authority by imposing his own solution and the draft treaty did not reflect the points the Greek Cypriot side agreed on during close talks. Cuellar continued his attempts from 1985 to 1986. The Secretary-General’s proposals in the framework of the bi-zonality federalism failed to produce any results. After George Vasiliu was elected president of the Greek Cypriot administration on February 21, 1988, the debates on Cuellar’s drafts ended (Bölükbaşı, 2001: 296-297).

The Cyprus negotiations underwent a significant content change for the Turkish Cypriot side after the declaration of the TRNC throughout the 1980s and evolved into a negotiation between two equal states. However, the Greek Cypriot side did not accept this and wanted to continue

negotiations at the community level. The attitude of the UN was shaped by the perspective of the Greek side; and negotiations resumed for a bi-zonality and bi-communality federation resolution within the framework of the 1977- 1979 High Level Agreements. The main topics of the negotiations during this period were land, guarantorship, management and power sharing of the Federation, movement-settlement and property acquisition.

Denktaş, President of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, held a series of bilateral talks with Yorgo Vasiliu, who won the presidential elections in Southern Cyprus, from September 1988 until the summer of 1989. After the Greek Cypriot administration applied for full membership to the European Community on July 4, 1990, the efforts of the Secretary General of the UN to find solutions within the framework of goodwill gained momentum became increasingly intense. Then, the Secretary General called upon Denktaş and Vasiliu, the leaders of the two peoples, for three rounds of indirect talks on December 3, 1990. However, due to the known attitudes of the parties, no results were obtained. Butros Gali, the UN Secretary-General who took office in 1992, arranged a meeting between Denktaş and Vasiliu in New York. The UN Secretary General drafted detailed proposals on the issues of federal unity, bi-communalism and bi-zonality in the 'Set of Ideas' on the Comprehensive Framework Agreement, annexed to the report of August 31, 1992, to be referred to by its own name, and confirmed by the Security Council Resolution 789 of November 25, 1992. Gali proposed a map that left 28.2 percent of the land on the Turkish side. Denktaş, rejecting the map that envisaged Güzelyurt (Morphou) to be given to the Greeks, stated that they could reduce the ratio to at most 29 percent (+).

Upon the understanding that the parties were in great disagreement on the main issues, the efforts to close the views were abandoned (BİLGE, 2018, UN, 2018, Tamçelik, 2015a: 65- 69, UN, 2018).

Unlike other Secretaries-General, Butros Gali negotiated even on small details and became a party to the dispute by now and then threatening Denktaş that if he did not cooperate, the Security Council would implement its own solution in the island. With the notion that the UN should protect the sovereignty and independence of the member states, Gali believed that minorities (no matter how legitimate their demands) should not have excessive rights, leading to the disintegration of the states. As Tamçelik states on the 60th page of his book "The Past, Present and Tomorrow of Cyprus", the Secretary General chose a method of conducting intercommunal negotiations in a coercive manner, abandoning goodwill. During this period, the parties, especially the Turkish side, were demanded to either completely accept or reject the proposals under the threat that "they would either end this problem within a limited period of time or that

he would take the issue to the UN Security Council” (Bölükbaşı, 2001: 300- 301, Tamçelik, 2015b: 395).

Glafkof Clerides, who won the presidential elections in February 1993, again met with Rauf Denктаş after 18 years, for intercommunal talks within the framework of confidence-building measures of UN Secretary General Butros Gali. However, negotiations between the two leaders in Nicosia and New York in 1993-1994 and in Nicosia and Switzerland in 1997 did not produce any results either (BİLGE, 2018).

The new period Cyprus negotiations started in New York in December 1999 with the invitation of the new UN Secretary General Kofi Annan and continued in Geneva as indirect negotiations. In this new period, the UN mainly sought to address the four main issues of a possible settlement in Cyprus (‘government, constitution, territory and security’). The Turkish delegation arguing that the issues are not just these also wanted issues such as confederation model, the embargo imposed on the TRNC and the equal status to be discussed. Proposing to leave 24 percent of the land to the Turks, the Greek delegation demanded federation model and the withdrawal of Turkish troops from the island be discussed. After the Greek side’s membership application, the Cyprus dispute gained another dimension: the EU dimension (BİLGE, 2018).

The Greek side proposed the creation of four cantons in the Karpaz (Karpasia), Güzelyurt, Lefke (Lefka) and Akıncılar (Louroujina) region at the second round of talks held in Geneva on January 31, 2000. The President of the TRNC Denктаş declared that he would not “discuss the issue of land and map before the issue of sovereignty is settled.” Annan presented an informal document to the parties at the 5th round of talks held in Geneva in November 2000. This document envisaged a single and independent state with a single international identity and citizenship. Stressing the bilateral participation in the central government, the document emphasized that political equality does not mean numerical equality. Furthermore, the document defended the validity of international law on property, demanding that a significant ratio of land be given to the Greek side and Greek immigrants return to their houses in the Northern side. The Turkish side reacted strongly to the document, which pleased the Greek side. Denктаş, who said that the Geneva period ended for themselves, declared following the summit held in Ankara on 24 November that he would not continue indirect negotiations unless ‘Turkish parameters’ were accepted. Thus, the indirect negotiation process, which had lasted for about 1 year, ended without a result (BİLGE, 2018).

To ensure that the parties return to the table, representatives of the United States, Britain and the European Union (EU), as well as the UN, frequently made attempts on the Ankara-Athens-Nicosia line. In a period

of increasing criticism that he was the ‘uncompromising side’, Denktaş unexpectedly called upon a face-to-face talk, upon which the two leaders gathered in Nicosia in December 2001. Clerides accepted the invitation of Denktaş, and after about 26 years, he traveled to the TRNC in his private car and attended dinner at the Presidential Palace. Following this, Denktaş made a return visit to Southern Cyprus. “Optimistic” atmosphere again emerged in Cyprus. At the talks which also received a great support from the international community, the parties aimed to reach an agreement before the Copenhagen Summit in December 2002, when Greek Cypriots were invited to the EU. However, as talks, which had started on January 16, progressed, the initial optimistic atmosphere also began to disappear. Denktaş and Clerides, who had come together for 58 times until the end of September, did not make any concrete progress (BİLGE, 2018).

Current Status Of the Negotiations

UN Secretary General Kofi Annan’s visit to the island in May 2003 revealed that the UN was in the process of preparing a solution plan. Concerned that the failure to achieve a solution until the Copenhagen Summit would make the Cyprus knot more insoluble, presented the plan, which was prepared by Denktaş despite his health problems and which was called by his own name, to the parties on November 11. Both sides refused to sign the plan, to which the UN had brought some minor changes. The request of the Turkish side to “postpone the membership of the Greeks” directed towards the Copenhagen Summit, which declared that the Community *acquis* would not be applied in the North if there is no agreement, was not taken into consideration. Clerides, who met with President Rauf Denktaş on 15 January 2003 after the Copenhagen Summit to resume direct talks, was the first victim of the Annan Plan, which started a great debate both in the North and in the South. Clerides lost the election race, which he had entered at the age of 84 in February 2003, and handed over his office to the former EOC member Tasos Papadopoulos, a joint candidate of the right-wing DIKO and communist AKEL.

The process continued in The Hague with the participation of guarantor countries Turkey, Greece and UK after Annan went to Cyprus on February 26, 2003 to present the third version of the plan. Failing to bring the parties to a consensus on referendum, Annan announced on March 11 in the morning that the process had reached the end of the road (BİLGE, 2018, Özersay, 2013: 647- 649).

In his report dated April 1, 2003 on indirect-direct negotiation process that had begun in 1999 and on the developments following the settlement plan, Kofi Annan blamed Turkish Cypriot side for the failure of the peace

process (CYPRUSUN, 2018). At the summit of heads of state and government of the EU countries gathered in Athens on April 16, 2003 held at a time when there was no positive development in negotiations, the Treaty of Accession was signed, which would ensure the participation of 10 new countries, including Cyprus, in the Union. The Treaty was to enter into force on May 1, 2004, and Cyprus would formally become an EU member. Immediately after this development, the island witnessed a historic step. The Green Line, which had divided the island in two since 1974, was opened on April 23, 2003 for crossings between the TRNC and Southern Cyprus. The first crossings were through the Ledra Palace border crossing.

UN Secretary General Annan sent letters in early 2004 to invite the parties to New York to start the negotiation process and a mutual agreement was reached that would allow the resuming of the negotiation process. The negotiations, which began on February 19, 2004 in two phases, continued until March 31, 2004. Although negotiations between the two sides failed to reach a political agreement, some improvements were made at the technical committee meetings. The second phase of the negotiations started with the participation of the motherlands in Switzerland's Bürgenstock town and ended with Annan presenting the final state of the plan to the parties on March 31, 2004 (Özersay, 2013: 649, BİLGE, 2018).

The plan, which was put to referenda on April 24, 2004, envisaged that the new partnership would be bi-communal, that the two sides would recognize each other's identity and integrity, that the parties would respect each other's cultural, religious, political, social and language identities, that the parties would not exercise sovereignty upon each other, that the constituent states will exercise sovereignty over their own territories and freely set up their own structures and that the constituent states and the Federal Government would not interfere with each other's powers and functions. The plan put to simultaneous referenda for the approval of the two peoples was rejected by 75.83% of the Greek Cypriots and accepted by 64.91% of the Turkish Cypriots (BİLGE, 2018).

Following the failure of the Annan plan, the new period of comprehensive talks was initiated by Dimitris Christofias, who was elected the new Greek Cypriot Leader on February 24, 2008, and Mehmet Ali Talat, who was elected the President of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus on April 23, 2005.

The two leaders set up working groups and technical committees for comprehensive talks. As a result of these initial attempts, the Lokmaci Gate was dismantled in Nicosia for the passage of pedestrians. The leaders later announced that a bi-zonal, bi-communal federation would be established on the basis of political equality, as defined by relevant UN

Security Council resolutions. They agreed on that the partnership would consist of a federal government with one international identity and a Turkish Cypriot constituent state and a Greek Cypriot constituent state with equal status.

Comprehensive negotiations began on 3 September 2008 with the participation of Alexander Downer, Special Adviser to the UN Secretary General. This time, there were two “leftist” leaders at the table for the first time and expectations were again high. During the meetings held under the chairmanship of the representatives of the leaders, the compromised issues and the issues needed to be discussed further were identified and a total of 30 joint texts were prepared for the three main headings. Since there was no convergence in the attitudes of the parties in the issues of Property, Land and Security and Guarantees, no attempt was made to issue a joint statement (BİLGE, 2018).

Having won the TRNC Presidential elections held on April 18, 2010, Derviş Eroğlu stated in his letter to the UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon dated April 23, 2010, that he was ready to resume the negotiations. Eroğlu and Christofias tried various negotiation methods to overcome the difficulties, but despite promising progress, the process could not reach the desired level. For example, during Eroğlu’s time, the two leaders met for dinner in the homes of each other within the context of “food diplomacy”. Throughout these negotiations, there arose a deep division of views between the parties especially with regard to the method and the steps needed to finalize the process with success. The Turkish Cypriot side advocated that a timetable and time limit should be introduced during the negotiation process and that quintet meetings should be held with the participation of the guarantor states after a certain phase and a give-and-take process should be started in all the headings. The Greek Cypriot side, on the other hand, said that they were against any timetable, time limit and arbitration, that the process was a “Cyprus process” and that they did not want any foreign countries, including the UN, to be involved in the process. After a while, the negotiations slowed down with the approach of the Presidential election to be held on the Greek side (Özersay, 2013: 681-684).

Negotiations resumed almost a year after DISI leader Nikos Anastasiades won the presidential elections held in February 2013 in Southern Cyprus. After nearly five months of negotiations and diplomatic initiatives, President Derviş Eroğlu and Greek Cypriot Leader Nikos Anastasiadis reached a mutual understanding on 11 February 2014 (BİLGE, 2018).

Joint Statement envisaged that fundamental rights and freedoms would be respected with established UN parameters, the new partnership to be established would be bi-zonal and bi-communal, this new partnership

would not have a different sovereignty than the other members of the UN and this sovereignty would depend on Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots equally.

The process during which many negotiations were held at the level of leaders and negotiators again came to a dead end after the Greek side made a drilling test in the Mediterranean to find natural resources. The Turkish Cypriot side also declared that it would launch its own drilling activity in order to protect its legitimate rights and interests. Upon this, the Greek Cypriot leader decided not to participate in the UN negotiation process (BİLGE, 2018).

Mustafa Akıncı, who won the TRNC presidential elections on April 19, 2015 and took the office over from Eroğlu, resumed the talks with the Greek Cypriot leader Anastasiadis after a very short time on May 15. In this renewed negotiation process, the leaders began the full-fledged negotiation phase in June after the completion of the basic evaluation regarding the status of the two sides (ABHABER, 2018). Some progress was made in the “Administrations and Power Sharing”, “EU” and “Economy” topics discussed in the full-fledged negotiations until the autumn of 2016. Moreover, some progress was made under the heading of “property”. However, there were still differences of opinion in terms of definitions and criteria to be applied in the property issue. “Security and Guarantees” and “Land Regulations” were not discussed except for the main principles and it was decided to address these issues at the last phase of the negotiations (BİLGE, 2018).

Akıncı and Anastasiadis met in the Mont Pelerin village of Switzerland towards the end of 2016 to achieve progress in matters that had not yet been agreed upon, to determine the criteria of the heading “Property” and to ensure that the “Five-Party Conference”, where the heading “Security and Guarantees” would be discussed, would take place. The two-phase meeting, which started with the participation of UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, did not produce the desired result; however, Five-Party Conference was held in Switzerland with the participation of both sides in Cyprus, guarantor countries and the EU as observer. The Cyprus Conference, held in January and June 2017 in two phases, produced no concrete outcome. Even new UN Secretary General Antonio Guterres’s “package” proposal on land, political equality, property, equivalent treatment, security and guarantees could not save the process, which came to a dead-end once more. After Anastasiadis wanted to re-negotiate the elements that the parties had already reconciled and insisted on his “zero soldier, zero guarantee” discourse. At the end of a dinner event, held in the Swiss resort of Crans-Montana with the participation of the leaders on the evening of July 6th and

continued until early July 7th, the UN Secretary General said in a statement that the conference was deadlocked (BİLGE, 2018).

In the periodic report on the UN peacekeeping force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) published on July 10, 2017, the UN Secretary General expressed that the outcome of the Cyprus Conference was a frustrating failure and invited all parties and both leaders to seriously consider this outcome (UN, 2018). The fact that initiatives and mediation attempts by the seven UN Secretaries-General and representatives of other countries always remained fruitless during the 50-year negotiations, represented by 4 Turkish Cypriots and 6 Greek Cypriot leaders, caused Cyprus to be referred to as the “Graveyard of Diplomats” in many sources. Seven of the 9 Secretaries-General who served since the founding of the UN, U Thant of Myanmar, who served from 1961 to 1971, Austrian Kurt Waldheim, who served from 1972 to 1981, Peruvian Perez de Cuellar, who served from 1981 to 1992, Egyptian Butros Gali, who served from 1992 to 1996, Ghanaian Kofi Annan, who served from 1997 to 2006, and South Korean Ban Ki-moon, who served from 2007 to 2016, and finally Portuguese Antonio Guterres, who took office January 1, 2017, spared some of their efforts to the Cyprus dispute, negotiations and leaders. Some were more popular in this faraway Mediterranean country than their own countries. Some gave their own names to the documents, set of ideas and plans for settling the Cyprus dispute (like Gali, Annan); some visited the island personally to encourage the parties and carried out shuttle diplomacy. However, the outcome has always been the same: Failure... (BİLGE, 2018).

There are various opinions on the mediation role of the UN in Cyprus and the solution of the problem. According to Bölükbaşı, for example, the role of the UN in the Cyprus dispute since the early 1960's has generally had average success. With the exclusion of the 1967 and 1974 clashes, the UN has been able to control the severity of the clashes generally through the Security Council and the General Assembly's resolutions that restricted the parties. The UN's mediation efforts including the efforts of permanent mediators dealing only with this problem, summits and agreement drafts prepared by various Secretaries-General all failed. Bölükbaşı argues that the parties preferred to use the UN platforms to defeat the opponent rather than reach a settlement. Bölükbaşı states that the parties can develop political relations in the long run in terms of functional theory and cooperation that can be done in non-political fields including economic, social and technical fields. Bölükbaşı also advocates that the UN can play a role in this framework (2001: 303- 305).

According to Dilek Latif, on the other hand, all of the negotiation methods have been tried in Cyprus over the years. Unless the UN declares the negotiations unsuccessful and end them, the parties, concerned with the

political price they are going to pay, will not leave the table. At this point, the UN should end its Goodwill Mission and produce alternative models instead of bi-zonal, bi-communal federation model, which has formed the basis of the negotiations for 40 years and which both parties do not really favor (2013: 214).

According to Soyalp Tamçelik, the Cyprus dispute, with its ethnic, social, legal, and political aspects, is the second largest issue that cannot be settled after the Israeli- Palestinian conflict in the Eastern Mediterranean. However, the Cyprus dispute, unlike other disputes like the Israeli-Palestinian dispute, also has another dimension: it does not threaten international peace and security since it does not go beyond just ruining the regional stability and causing problems in NATO. With the beginning of the EU process, on the other hand, the dispute gained a new dimension. It was expected that Cyprus, now a member to the EU, would provide regional peace and stability; however, due to the extraction, distribution and marketing of hydrocarbon resources, the island again attracted attention as an island of instability (2015c, 748).

Tamçelik makes the most accurate determination regarding the negotiations and this method. He argues that there are many methods that can be used for the settlement of the Cyprus dispute. However, whichever method is used, the only thing necessary for the parties to compromise is the will of political decision-making since the dispute cannot be settled without political decisions. The legal side of the thesis that the Turkish side advocates is strong; however, it is very difficult to settle this issue through ‘mediation’ and ‘arbitration’. This method may be sufficient for the settlement of actual problems, which the parties may have agreed upon, arising in temporary administration or implementation period. According to Tamçelik, it is not very feasible to settle disputes through arbitration or justice, as it is in Cyprus because the nature of the state system or of the disputes between the parties hinders the expansion of the path to the solution (2015c, 746- 747).

A holistic view of the historical course of the negotiations, the attitudes of the parties, functions and authorities of the UN bodies and the current state of the negotiations will indicate that the goodwill mission of the UN within the framework of its mediation efforts is condemned to failure. The most important reason for this is the gap between the parties. The Greek Cypriot side has an uncompromising attitude on sovereignty sharing, guarantor agreement and property issues. The Turkish Cypriot side, on the other hand, wants the two peoples to enjoy dominant political equality, guarantorship to continue and flexibility in property. It is impossible to settle such a problem with very sharp differences of opinions through the UN mediation or other mechanism. The parties cannot even agree on the content of the UN’s mediation mechanism. The UN sometimes exceeded

its goodwill mission and introduced mandatory mechanisms for solution in its efforts on the Cyprus dispute since the 1950's. Some UN General Secretaries like Annan acted like commissars and issued statements in the face of the disagreements between the parties. However, these efforts were also inconclusive because approval of the two peoples needs to be taken through referendum for a settlement. Hence, since the problem is mainly between the two peoples and regional powers, it is not possible to settle the Cyprus dispute through the mediation mechanism or any other method.

Conclusion

One of the most important problems in the lives of people and societies is dispute. Disagreements that arise in one or many areas may cause violent or non-violent conflicts. When the parties concerned are reluctant in the settlement of disputes; third parties step in and endeavor to end the dispute between the parties through various methods.

The UN, established during World War II, and various bodies of the UN have come up with a number of ways for the pacific settlement of the disputes between states. The most important of these methods is mediation. Through the mediation method generally carried out under the auspices of the UN Secretary General, both sides of the dispute come together and are encouraged to find solutions for their problems. In fact, the UN has been trying to fulfill this function in the conflicts between Cyprus Turks and Greek Cypriots in Cyprus since the 1950's. The problems that began to be addressed in the UN General Assembly in the 1950's began to be discussed by the Security Council in the 1960's. And, with the end of the armed conflicts in the island, negotiations commenced in 1968 under the auspices of the UN Secretaries-General. However, despite its 50-year efforts, the UN has not achieved any outcomes in the settlement of the Cyprus dispute.

The mediation mechanism of the UN has not been sufficient to convince the Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots, who have deep political, social, cultural and, most importantly, psychological differences of opinion. The UN brings the parties together under the goodwill mission; however, as seen in the past, some of the Secretaries-General exceed their authorities and impose solutions. This attitude of the UN is, therefore, causing a reaction of the parties. The two peoples, who have deep disagreements about the essence of the problem, have been struggling not to be blamed by the UN for being the party that has left the table for 50 years. In other words, the UN is using the mediation mechanism not with its true essence, but as a means.

The UN should therefore end its role of mediation in Cyprus and the two peoples and the regional powers directly involved in the conflict must be active to settle the dispute through, i.e., confederation or separation. We also need to underline this in particular: as long as the concerns of Turkey,

one of the most important actors in Cyprus, regarding its own security and the security of the Turkish Cypriots are not eased at an acceptable level, it seems that the current political deadlock will continue without any settlement.

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**MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGY /
INFORMATION**

BEHAVIORAL APPROACH IN THE STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

Meryem AYBAS*

1. Introduction

The strategic human resources management continues to attract the attention of researchers as it has a rich tradition for nearly forty decades (Jackson, Schuler & Jiang, 2014). This study is based on the importance of theory and theorizing in strategic human resources management literature; aims to reveal the role of the behavioral approach which emerged as a dominant paradigm among other theoretical approaches, in strategic human resource management researches and literature. The behavioral approach is of particular importance to the measurement and methodological aspects of strategic human resources management literature. It has been involved in strategic human resource management research and practice with new critiques and improved perspectives, with various forms of application being discussed for nearly 30 years. In this context, in this study, firstly the importance of the theorizing of strategic human resource management and various theoretical approaches will be explained. Then, within the framework of various research, the place of behavioral approach within these theoretical approaches; critiques and contributions made will be discussed.

2. Theoretical Framework of Strategic Human Resources Management and Behavioral Approach

The conceptual history of strategic human resource management is based on 30 years ago. The article entitled "Human Resources Management: A Strategic Perspective" published by Devanna, Fombrum and Tichy in 1981 is considered the first work in this area. Publication of the Academy of Management Journal and the Industrial Relations special issues in 1996; then in 1997 the publication of special issues about strategic human resource management and firm performance relations in the International Journal of Management accelerated the development of the field (Wright, 1998: 187). The theoretical foundations of strategic human resource management that explore HRM from different contextual angles are based on sociology, economics, management and psychology (Wright & McMahan, 1992; Jackson & Schuler, 1995).

Strategic human resource management is based on the study of Tichy, Fombrun, and Devanna (1981, 1982) in the early 1980s. However, the

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behavioral approach emerged as a paradigm in researches that prevailed in today's (Snell, 1992: 292).

Wright and McMahan (1993, 1999); have drawn a conceptual framework by combining six theoretical models for strategic human resource management. In Figure 1, Wright and McMahan (1999) model of strategic human resource management refers to the place and relationships between theoretical approaches.

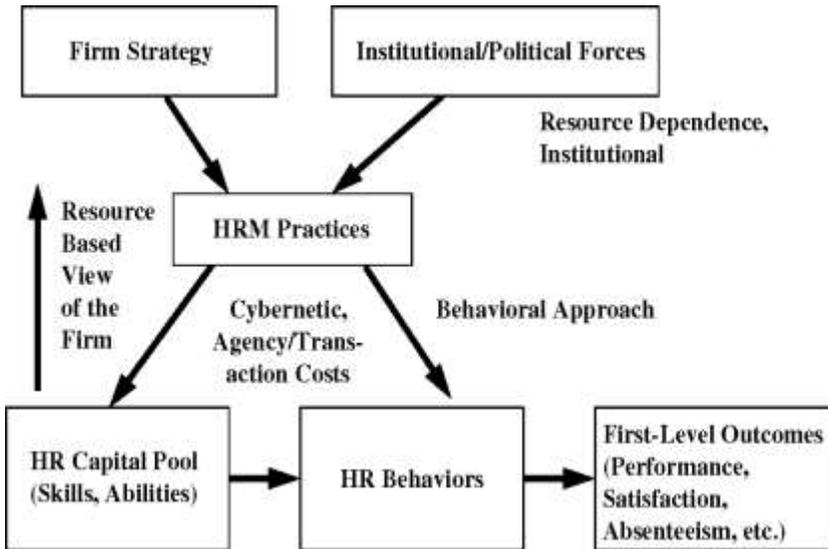


Figure 1: Theoretical Approaches to Strategic HRM Model

Source: Wright P.M and McMahan G. C. (1999): Theoretical Perspectives for Strategic Human Resource Management, p. 53

According to this model; behavioral approach focuses on the relationships between strategy, human resource practices and employee behavior, while the resource-based approach focuses on the relationships between human resource practices, strategy and human resources capital. Cybernetics, transaction costs and agency theories examine the relationships between HRM practices, strategy and human capital in addition to HR behavior, and they differ from resource-based approaches. Resource-based approach and institutional theories focus on the impact of political and institutional factors on human resource practices (Wright and McMahan, 1999; 54).

Within the framework of these theoretical models, HRM practices have an impact on HR capital pooling and HR behaviors. HR behaviors are firm-level outputs (Wright and McMahan, 1999:53; Tharenou et al, 2007:253).

The main distinction that distinguishes behavioral approach from other theoretical approaches in order to predict organizational outcomes is based on the psychological basis (Jackson et al., 1989: 728).

The behavioral approach, one of the most basic and popular theoretical models used in strategic HRM; emphasizes the use of HR practices as tools to shape behavioral patterns that integrate the activities of individuals in the organization in order to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization (Jackson et al., 1989). Behavioral approach assumes that businesses have developed HR practices as a tool for managing employee behaviors. Different strategies force different behaviors (Schuler & Jackson, 2008: 226). For example, when an organization has to be more innovative to compete with its rivals in the market, employees must be willing to try new ideas and take risks. Trial and risk taking may not be desirable behavior in organizations that do not need to be innovative. Therefore, organizations that differ according to the degree of importance of newness will be expected to have different employee practices that support different modes of behavior (Jackson et al., 1989:728).

In terms of defining strategic HRM, behavioral approach appears to influence the literature. Accordingly, Schuler (1992) defined strategic HRM as; "the creation and implementation of organizational strategies is the whole of activities designed to influence individual behavior in the ongoing work" (Ünnü & Keçecioğlu, 2009; 1172 in Schuler 1992). In addition, according to Wright and McMahan (1999), Strategic HRM is "a system of human resources activities designed to achieve the purpose of an organization."

The main assumptions of behavioral approach are as follows (Wright & McMahan, 1999);

- The aim of various employee practices is to bring and control differentiated employee attitudes and behaviors depending on various organizational characteristics.
- To elicit and reinforce of differentiated role behaviors required by the organizational strategy requires different HRM practices.
- These models are based on the basis of what employees need that require the implementation of specific role behaviors, rather than specific technical knowledge, skills and abilities.

According to Way & Johnson (2005), the HRM system(s) employed by an organization are a product of the extent to which the organization's actual HR outcomes match those HR outcomes necessary for the organization to achieve its goals and objectives. Because, through the employment of HRM practices, SHRM communicates to the workforce which behaviors (outcomes) the organization expects and values. The

actual behaviors (i.e., the HR outcomes) elicited from the organization's human resources by SHRM are dependent upon the current sets of HRM practices implemented and the prior skills and behaviors of the organization's human resources (Way & Johnson, 2005:12-13).

An effective HRM system should carry the following characteristics according to Schuler and Jackson (2008):

- Definitely define the behaviors that should be applied in the business strategy.
- Opportunities should be established so that employees can engage in necessary behavior.
- Ensure that employees have the necessary competencies.
- Employees should be motivated to exhibit the necessary behavior.

Wright and McMahan (1993) state that behavioral perspective assumes that the purpose of various employment practices is to elicit and control employee attitudes and behaviors. The specific attitudes and behaviors that will be most effective for organizations differ, depending upon various characteristics of organizations, including the organizational strategy. Differences in the role behaviors required by the organization strategy require different HRM practices in order to elicit and reinforce these behaviors.

According to Wright and McMahan (1999) role theory perspective (see Figure 2), for different strategies, it is assumed that different specific role behaviors are required.

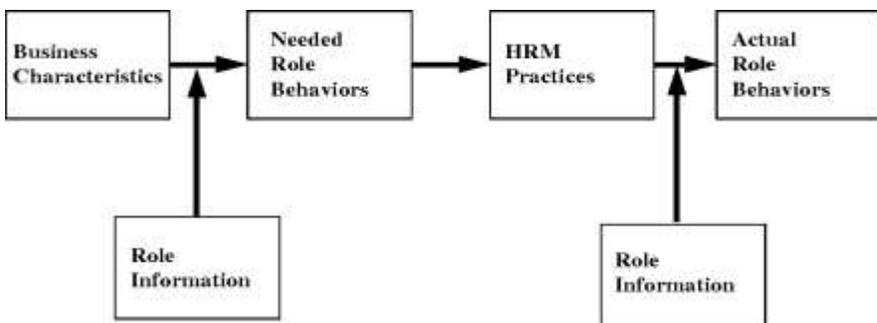


Figure 2: Role Theory Perspective

Source: Wright P.M and McMahan G. C. (1999): Theoretical Perspectives for Strategic Human Resource Management, p. 54

In terms of the role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978), the behavioral approach focuses on the interdependent role of behaviors and helps to

establish the role theory for the organizational system (Schuler & Jackson, 2008:225).

As basic elements; instead of using specific behaviors and work performances, the focus of this approach has shifted from individuals to multiple roles, multiple role senders, social systems that are expressed as multiple role evaluators. Katz and Kahn (1978) defined role behavior as the repeated actions of individuals are appropriately related to the repetitive activities of others. This leads to predictable results. HRM is the basic tool for sending role information through the organization, supporting the desired behavior and evaluating the role performance. At that time, HRM is effective when it communicates consistently with internal expectations and evaluates performances in a manner consistent with the system's behavioral requirements. Regarding system requirements, there is a presumption of dependence on contextual factors such as the nature of the industry and business strategies. The role theory, which takes into account the behavioral expectations of all role partners, can influence the behavior of members of the organization. Effective HRM helps employees to meet the expectations of their role partners within the organization (managers, colleagues, subordinates), organizational boundaries (customers and buyers) and beyond (family and community). Therefore, these expectations of the role partners require that the concept of HRM be integrated into a context (Schuler & Jackson, 2008, 226, Jackson & Schuler, 1995, 239-240).

The advocates of the behavioral approach assume that different organization strategies require different behaviors and different human resource management practices that will develop and reinforce these behaviors (Snell, 1992:292). This link between human resource management and strategy is useful for many reasons. This approach; provides a clear explanation of why the management should be linked to or linked to the strategy, indicates testable mediators (required behaviors), and helps researchers link traditional human resource management theories with role behaviors, such as strategic behaviors of the firm (Snell, 1992: 292).

The behavioral approach focuses on the role behaviors of employees as a mediator between firm performance and strategy. Accordingly, HR practices should elicit and reinforce the behaviors that require the organization's strategy. For this, HR practices need to be identified in the most efficient way to reveal the desired role behaviors. The desired role behaviors should then lead to a positive organizational outcome. For example; by implementing the behavioral approach in training; which appear in employee behaviors required by organizational strategy and result in positive organizational outcomes (Delery & Doty, 1996: 808; Tharenou et al., 2007:253). According to Jackson and colleagues (2014);

role behaviors include explicit job descriptions as well as discretionary behavior such as organizational citizenship and helping. HRM systems contribute to organizational effectiveness when they promote such behaviors. Behavioral perspective accepts that the attributes of external and internal environments (e.g., industry, business strategy, organizational size and culture) affect the desirability and utility of specific employee behaviors (Jackson et al., 2014:23).

There are many forms of HR practices that can be used to create behavior that is consistent with organizational strategy. Since behavior is a function of ability and motivation, the organization can establish HR practices that ensure that individuals with the necessary skills are recruited and remain in the organization. At the same time, they can use these HR practices to motivate employees to behave in a manner consistent with their business strategy (Delery & Doty, 1996: 808). In addition, the behavioral approach is also discussing employees' decisions about how behaviors are reflected in their reactions to the entire HRM system and reflect their own interpretations (Daft & Weick, 1984), with the practices that employees associate with what they understand. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the inclusion of employees in the development and implementation of HR practices is essential (Schuler & Jackson, 2008: 226).

Two types of behavioral perspectives are 4-Task Model and ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) model. 4-Tasks Models indicate that the core functions of an HRM system (1) define the required behavior from employees, and (2) ensure that employees have the necessary competence to perform successfully, (3) motivating employees to engage in the needed behaviors, and (4) providing opportunities for employees to perform successfully both currently and in the future. 4-Task Model demonstrates the need for strategically targeted HRM systems for successful strategy implementation. On the other hand, the AMO model stemmed from career development research which argued that career success requires not only the skills and motivation necessary for success, but also access to learning opportunities. The biggest difference between the 4-Tasks and AMO models is that the AMO model does not include identification of basic employee behaviors as part of the explanation how HRM systems develop organizational effectiveness (Jackson et al., 2014: 23).

The behavioral approach has also been used to explain the impact of HR practices on firm performance, called "networking". Collins and Clark (2003), focusing on top management teams; by encouraging managers to build internal and external networks that can leverage to improve the company's deepest financial line, has showed that many HR practices have an impact to improve firm performance. Similarly, Jackson, Hitt and DeNisi (2003) in describing how HR practices can be used in encouraging

behaviors for knowledge-based competition extend the definition of behavioral approach (Collins & Clark, 2003; Jackson et al., 2003; Schuler & Jackson, 2008).

In Schuler's (1992) 5P model of HR philosophy, HR policies, HR programs, HR practices, HR processes, the internal relations of activities and internal activities of HR activities affect individual or group behavior (Schuler, 1992:20 in Ünnü & Keçecioglu 2009: 1176).

Behavioral approach; is the roots for the school of contingency theory, one of the strategic human resource management schools. In contingency school, many situational suggestions are brought in terms of the alignment between human resources management strategy and business strategy (Miles & Snow, 1984; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Delery & Doty, 1996), as well as organizational and environmental variables (Martin-Alcazar et al., 2005:636).

In this sense, Miles and Snow (1978) 's strategy typology and studies are one of the earliest examples of applying the behavioral approach. Miles and Snow compared the strategy types of defenders, prospectors, analyzers, and reactors with regard to the different types of HR practices required, similar to the behavioral perspective, they assumed that HR practices differ among strategy types due to the different behaviors and skills necessary to carry out the strategy, in this case, they addressed the issue of harmonization but did not explicitly indicate the needed role behaviors that are related with the different strategy types (Wright & McMahan, 1993). Another example of the behavioral approach is Schuler and Jackson's (1987) study that emphasize the role of different employee roles in accordance with cost-reduction, quality-enhancement and innovation strategies (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009:2). Schuler and Jackson (1987) used role theory to link HR practices with competition strategy. Accordingly, different strategies require different role behaviors of employees and therefore different human resource practices are required.

Jackson and colleagues (1989) express that the concept of behavior expressed in the behavioral approach is the widespread behavioral patterns that many employees in the organization require. They emphasize the use of HR practices as a tool to shape behavioral patterns that integrate the activities of the individuals in the organization to ensure that the organization achieves its goals and objectives (Jackson et al., 1989: 729). Behavioral patterns that the organization needs for success are related to organizational characteristics. These characteristics are the industrial sector, competition strategy, technology and organizational structure in which they are engaged (Jackson et al., 1989: 729). Jackson and Schuler (1995), in their study that investigated empirical research, listed internal contextual factors as technology, structure, size, life cycle stages, business

strategy; and listed external contextual factors as the legal, social and political environment, trade unionization, labor market conditions, industrial qualities, and national culture.

Jackson and colleagues (2014) searched 41 empirical studies that tested the contingency perspective which were investigated business strategy, organization culture and climate, organization biography, and industry context. According to Jackson and colleagues (2014), it is surprising that after 30 years of strategic HRM research, there is little evidence and little recurrence to draw conclusions about how HRM systems and business strategies work together.

Strategically targeted HRM systems (which based on 4-task model) aimed at customer service, safety, and effective knowledge-intensive teamwork etc. work can be shown as examples of behavioral approach (Jackson et al, 2014: 29). Ericksen and Dyer (2005) state that the behavioral approach offers SHRM scholars an opportunity to explain how people contribute to specific organizational goals in specific contexts. Accordingly, they suggest that strategic human resource management (SHRM) thinking to theory and research on high reliability organizations using a behavioral approach.

3. Some Measurement and Empirical Issues of The Behavioral Approach

Suggestions shaped by behavioral reasoning based on contingency approach are more testable than "the best way" or universalistic approaches. Just as in the universalist perspective, empirical analysis of current contingency variables has a deductive logic. However, the contingency approach is methodologically more quantitative focused because of its behavioral origins. While the contingency approach relies on more statistical techniques, it also allows for a deep understanding of the complex strategic human resource management phenomenon. Although other cases may use factor analysis, clustering and meta-analyzes, many situational suggestions that can be observed can be tested using regression analyzes (Martin-Alcazar et al, 2005:636). The contingency approach does have strengths, such as considering the mediator variables between HRM and performance and basing the recommendations on strong theoretical bases; however, it has been criticized that it is become micro-oriented, the statistical techniques used are directed to the results of universalist approach, emphasize harmoniously (fit) issues and ignore political variables (Martin-Alcazar et al., 2005: 645). According to Youndt and colleagues (1996) the universalist and contingency approach is considered to be one of two important perspectives that define the relationship between HR and performance. Although they may appear to be competing, they can be complementary and the two perspectives are not necessarily

mutually exclusive. Analytically, in the universal approach, the effect of HR on performance is a direct and main effect. On the other hand, in the contingency approach, the organization strategic position affects the relations between HR and performance and imply an interaction (moderation) effect (Youndt et al., 1996: 837).

Even though the theories based on contingency, system or behavioral bases, which each emphasize different levels of analysis, do not give definitive results, it can be seen that the most measurable theoretical basis is based on behavioral / motivational bases. Gaps and shortcomings in the theoretical bases based on the classification of HRM practices and policies will emerge more prominently in the empirical research to be done (Guest, 1997: 266).

Behavioral approach suggests a possible solution about that due to the inconsistent conceptualization and measurement of HRM systems. This problem makes it difficult to accumulate and to compare the findings of studies. According to Jackson and colleagues (2014), the solution is suggested by an emerging and robust body of work on strategically targeted HRM systems which based on the one of the variants of behavioral approach. In that solution the design of strategically targeted HRM systems follows the 4-Tasks Model. Primarily strategically important behaviors are identified and then the main elements to include when measuring the HRM system are those that are likely to ensure employees have the abilities, motivation, and opportunities to engage in the needed behaviors (Jackson et al., 2014:29).

More strategic theory-based empirical research on strategic HRM literature is needed. In this context; Snell (1992), Jackson et al. (1989) are good examples of testing theoretical models of strategic HRM (Wright & McMahan, 1993). These studies are important from the standpoint of the behavioral approach. When considering the importance of measurement to theory, the behavioral approach is of particular importance in the sense of measurement. In this context, the behavioral approach in strategic human resource management emerges as a field that needs to be studied more.

4. Resource Based View, Fit, Contingency and Behavioral Approach

Internal fit studies (Martin-Alcazar et al., 2005), and research that examine the relationship between strategic context and human resource management practices (Miles & Snow, 1984; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Jackson et al., 1989; Huang, 2001) are based mainly on behavioral approach.

According to Wright and his colleagues (2001), HRM has three important components that can be used as a resource for organizations affected by HR systems and HR practices. The first is the pool of human capital that consists of employees' knowledge, skills and motivation. The second is the flow of human capital within the enterprise. The third is the process of change and innovation. In this process, firm can change the pool of human capital as well as change the behavior of employees for organizational success (Wright et al., 2001:704). Again, in Wright and colleagues' strategic human resource management models, employee behaviors, as seen in Figure 3, are considered as dependent variables and are assumed to be influenced by HR practices.

When the behavioral approach's the basic assumption recall that HR behaviors influence organizational performance through HR practices and behaviors play an mediator role, it can be assumed that this model can also be an example of a behavioral approach as well as a resource-based approach.

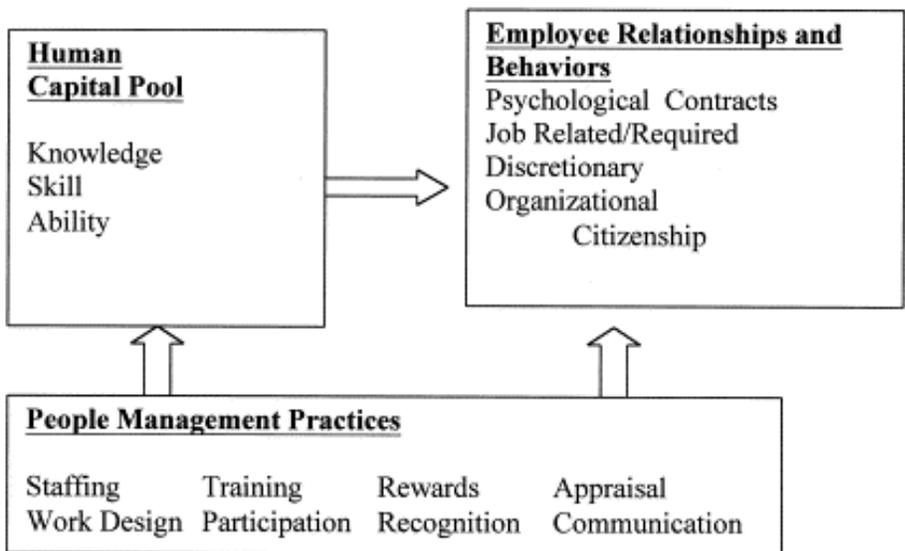


Figure 3: The Main Strategic HRM Elements Model

Source: Wright, P. M.; Dunford, B. B.; Snell, S. A. (2001); “Human Resources And The Resource Based View Of The Firm”, *Journal Of Management*, 27. p.705

Human capital, fit and behavioral approach; according to the assumption of the different working behaviors required for the different strategic options with the movement between the contingency and the behavioral approach; the success of these strategies depends on the ability of the organization to create different behaviors for employees (Cappelli &

Singh, 1992, 170-171, Wright & Snell, 1998, Allen & Wright, 2006). In achieving success, each private business strategy requires a specific set of responses from employees (behaviors and attitudes) and generates a set of specific responses from each set of HR practices. Hence, in fact, each argument on fit is a hypothesis on the relationship between these two propositions (Cappelli & Singh, 1992: 171).

When the distinction between human capital and employee behaviors is returned, it will be seen that the skills and abilities are not sufficient for the necessary but working behavioral conditions. Every alignment with the business strategy must take into account the types of employee behavior that require successful strategy management and the types of skills that can exhibit such behavior. Accordingly, in resource-based implementation of strategic HRM, it is necessary to focus on matching employee behavior and skills that work for the most appropriate business strategy (Allen & Wright, 2006: 12). In terms of vertical fit, business strategies require different skills and behaviors than employees. Because HR practices are often leveraged through the management of different skills and behaviors of the business that is expected to demonstrate different applications combined with different strategies. For example, a firm focused on cost-reduction and a firm focused on innovation cannot be expected to be the same on wage levels and benefits (Allen & Wright, 2006:13). In horizontal fit, which refers to the harmony between HR practices and systems, complementary HR bundles can theoretically strengthen the development of specific skills and behaviors. Incompatible practices reduce the ability to demonstrate the necessary skills and behaviors (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Allen & Wright, 2006: 13).

When we look at recent developments in the behavioral approach; new theoretical developments have attempted to explain the interplay between the individual level processes by the behavioral perspective. In addition to, company-level investments in HRM systems aim to transform and support individual human capital (Jackson et al., 2014; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). According to Jackson and colleagues (2014); recognizing cross-level emerging processes where individual employees' human capital has become strategically valuable unit-level human capital represents a significant challenge for future strategic HRM research.

5. New Models Based on the Behavioral Approach

Snell (1992) 's control approach; Theories and theoretical approaches in the field of human resources management are gathered under three main headings. These are strategic, descriptive and normative (Guest, 1997). Behavioral approach makes tend to blur that the distinction between normative and descriptive approaches (Snell, 1992: 293). According to Snell (1992), it is not surprising that behavioral perspectives are supported

by empirical evidence. However, each model should be considered to be limited to certain assumptions and parameters. Based on the behavioral approach, Snell suggests a model complementing the deficiencies in the behavioral approach with the control theory approach.

Becker and Huselid (2006); they mentioned that the limited number of competition strategies could easily be imitated to limit the originality of the HR architecture, because it would constitute a limited number of suitable HR architectures, which would ultimately reduce its value as a sustainable competitive advantage. However, they argued that contingencies continue to play a central role in Strategic HRM theory, despite inadequate empirical study support. But these contingencies should not focus on Miles and Snow's typologies or final strategy posture. Alliance point should be close to HR architecture. The challenge is the operationalization of strategy implementation processes within Strategic HRM theory, as it can be a useful guide to empirical study (Becker & Huselid, 2006: 901). Becker and Huselid have moved the behavioral approach to a different dimension according to the models they have developed for the differentiated fit approach. In Figure 4, a differentiated state-of-the-art HR architectural model is seen on strategic business practices.

The key elements in the model are strategic business processes (such as process A and process B), conforming to core and differentiated HR architectures. The core or best practice fit is part of the HR architecture with equal value across all strategic business processes. Differentiated fit is part of the entire HR architecture, which is the structure that ensures the specific human requirements of specific business processes. For example, A's HR architecture is compatible with the Strategic A process and differs significantly from B's HR architecture. Specific HR architecture provide human capital qualifications (competencies, commitment, motivation) and employee performance behaviors that are essential for strategic work in original business practice. Accordingly, effective strategy implementation is a function of core and differentiated fit (Becker & Huselid, 2006: 906).

Behavioral control; Lado and Wilson (1994); by referring to the behavioral perspectives while discussing the competence-based approach to sustainable competitive advantage, they stated that this approach is complementary to the behavioral approach. According to Lado and Wilson (1994) who study research based on the perspective of behavioral psychology, which points out the link between HRM practices and competitive advantage, behavioral perspectives that emphasize role behaviors and organizational outcomes (cost reduction, standardized or differentiated production, does not say the whole story about how competitive advantage can be sustained. The behavioral approach is external and, according to this view, individual and organizational

behavior and outputs are largely determined by external environmental conditions, and human will and internal cognitive processes are not necessary to understand how organizational outcomes are constructed, although sufficient. Furthermore, role behaviors of employees can be observed and transferred from one organization to another. It can easily be imitated. Therefore, the competitive advantage for each firm is not enduring. HRM researchers are moving away from the Skinner-type behavioral paradigm and are turning towards cognitive processes in recruitment and selection, job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal and cost. A sustainable competitive advantage among current strategic management researchers and practitioners is that it is more important for the firm to create its internal resources and strategically allocate resources rather than product-market posture. It has been investigated that HR systems play a facilitating or hindering role in the development of guaranteed organizational competencies (Lado & Wilson, 1994: 700-701).

According to Jackson and colleagues (2014); early models of strategic HRM are based on the assumption that HRM systems function together with other elements of the larger system. In the last decade, there has been increasing interest in understanding border conditions (moderators) that limit and strengthen the impact of HRM systems, and it is expected that interest in this important issue will continue in the coming years (Jackson et al., 2014: 28). In addition, at their review study, Jackson and colleagues (2014) encourage new research that

- fully embraces systems thinking and environmental forces,
- reflects the reality and complexities of global businesses,
- takes seriously the concerns of multiple stakeholders,
- attends to workforce segmentation, and
- yields knowledge with practical utility (Jackson et al., 2014:31).

Conclusion

Theorizing is of great importance for the future of strategic human resources management research. In this context, it is important to examine the theoretical origins of strategic human resource management, which has a fairly heterogeneous and broad base. At the same time, the basic assumptions of the models developed and developed need to be evaluated in this context. It is of great importance that the definitions of the variables in these models to be used in terms of empirical researches to be made and to be done, and the awareness of what is measured and how it is developed. Accordingly, the behavioral approach has a more favorable structure for conceptualization and operationalization than other theoretical approaches. The analysis and testability of the models established within the framework

of the behavioral approach is higher than the other models. But the behavioral approach, which should not be forgotten here, is that it is not just a few strategic choices that have arisen at the outset, and it is necessary to think together with resource-based views.

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ACCELERATOR PROGRAMS IN TURKEY: FROM WHICH SERVICES ENTREPRENEURS BENEFIT THE MOST?

Ceren CUBUKCU* & Sevinc GULSECEN**

Introduction

During the Nineties, founding a new technology especially an internet business was hard. The costs were high and therefore, entrepreneurs needed to make a serious investment (Hochberg, 2015). Hence, starting a new technology business involved more risk (Dee et al., 2011). In order to help entrepreneurs, establish new businesses, decrease their risks and support research and development opportunities, business incubators started to be established around the world. They become popular during the late Eighties and provided office space to innovative companies (Adkins, 2002; Lalkaka and Bishop, 1996). However, incubator model was lacking certain aspects such as an exit policy (Bruneel et al., 2012) or a seed fund. For this reason, a new type of program called “accelerator” developed to help new ventures especially technology startups.

Accelerators, as the name suggests, accelerate new businesses by offering them specific services for a restricted amount of time usually from three to six months (Cubukcu and Gulsecen, 2018). These services include training, mentoring, office space, advertising, networking, meeting with investors and access to different financing options (Cohen and Hochberg, 2014; Ozkasikci, 2013; Miller and Bound, 2011; Marangoz, 2016; Mian, et al., 2016). In order to be a part of an accelerator program, startups need to go through an open application and selection process.

An accelerator needs to have the following six characteristics in order to be considered as an accelerator according to Miller and Bound (2011): seed investment in exchange for equity, time limited support, an application process open to all, cohorts or classes of startups, a focus on small teams rather than individuals and graduation with a demo day (Clarysse, et al., 2015; Pauwels, et al., 2015). As of April 2018, there are 28 programs which call themselves as accelerators in Turkey. However, only 10 of these carry the accelerator characteristics. Out of these 10 programs, 8 of them agreed to participate on the research and this research performs a study on the entrepreneurs who have attended or are currently attending these eight accelerators. These are ITU Seed, Pilot, SuCool, Kworks, Starter’s Hub, IOT Telco Labs, Albaraka Garaj and Lonca.

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2. Entrepreneurs in Accelerator Programs

In Turkey, 28 programs present themselves as accelerators. Nonetheless, there are not any studies that analyses the entrepreneurs in these accelerator programs. Researchers such as Oktem (2007) and Sungur and Dulupcu (2013) have done studies with entrepreneurs in government incubators but not with the ones in accelerators. The reason of this is that accelerator programs are pretty new and many of them have been founded very recently usually within the past four years. That is why studies about accelerator programs in Turkey are not sufficient yet.

The target group of this study is entrepreneurs in the 8 accelerator programs mentioned above. This study examines which demographics of entrepreneurs increase or decrease the need for support from accelerator programs and the benefits they receive from these programs. In order to study this goal deeply, the below propositions will be analyzed.

There is a huge gender gap on entrepreneurship because of the historically inherited male dominance. According to Berglann et al. (2011), only 25% of entrepreneurs are female. In fact, according to a survey by Women who Tech in 2012, the rate of female entrepreneurs founding a technology company is only 5%. Many authors such as Carrasco and Cuevas (2010), Hechavarria and Reynolds (2009), Thach and Kidwell (2009) indicate that the number of female entrepreneurs is increasing every year. However, studies on women technology entrepreneurs or women startup entrepreneurs are very limited and state that the ratio of female entrepreneurs in technology sector is much lower compared to other sectors. The reasons for setting up a business for women and men vary. Women often set up companies (Gupta et al., 2014) to earn their independence and provide satisfaction in their jobs (Bönte and Piegeler, 2013), while men set up companies to have a better job and earn more money. Since they have different motivations for establishing a company, they need different supports to grow.

H1a: The supports that men and women make the most use of from accelerator programs are different.

H1b: The supports that men and women benefit the most from accelerator programs are different.

The age of becoming an entrepreneur has fallen in the last few years. There are studies that analyze young entrepreneurs and observe the effects of age on entrepreneurship. These studies were carried out by Levesque and Minniti (2006), Montes Rojas and Siga (2009) and Thomas (2009). Levesque and Minniti (2006) also state that young people tend to be entrepreneurs because they are willing to take more risks than older people. According to Blanchflower and Meyer (1994), young people are more open to take on the risk of starting a new business because they are more

adventurous and energetic. As people age, they gain more skills and knowledge, but their tasks and the things they are going to lose grow simultaneously. For this reason, it is more difficult for them to establish a new business unless they are unemployed or find themselves an opportunity to become a business owner (Albort-Morant and Oghazi, 2016).

H2a: As the entrepreneur ages, the need for support from the accelerator program decreases.

H2b: As the entrepreneur ages, the benefit it receives from the supports of accelerator program decreases.

It is clear that formal education has helped entrepreneurs gain some of the skills they need as an entrepreneur such as technical, behavioral, business management and leadership skills. However, studies about the effects of education on entrepreneurial perceptions are contradictory. Some researches such as Shapero (1980), Fallows (1985), Ronstadt (1984), Laukkanen (2000), Peterman and Kennedy (2003) and Wu and Wu (2008) argue that higher education reduces the desire to launch a new venture. According to the authors, there are a few reasons for this. One of them is that a person with a degree has many other options and can therefore find a better job in a corporation. Another reason is that higher education reduces curiosity in addition the tolerance to uncertainty and increases the rate of risk avoidance. In addition, some schools do not prepare their students to work in small businesses and instead encourage them to work in large companies. On the other hand, there are other studies, such as Robinson and Sexton (1994), Davidsson and Honig (2003), Ilhan Ertuna and Gurel (2011), which point out that the effect of university education on entrepreneurship is positive. This means that the higher education an individual has, the greater the likelihood that an individual will start a new business.

H3a: As the level of education of the entrepreneur increases, the need for support from the accelerator program decreases.

H3b: As the level of education of the entrepreneur increases, the benefit it receives from the supports of accelerator program decreases.

Experience brings the ability to make better decisions, and unfortunately, this is not something that can be learned in schools with theoretical education. Experience related to organizational skills can only be achieved by working in a company (Albort-Morant and Oghazi, 2016). Also, if you want to know how to manage a company, then the best way is to work as a manager or monitor your managers and learn from them. Mintzberg (2004) states that it is possible to learn how to manage a company by only gaining first-hand experience. Otherwise, an individual cannot understand all the dynamics of managing a business. As a result, an

individual who does not have any managerial experience should get more support to manage a new business.

H4a: The supports that entrepreneurs who have work experience and who doesn't have any work experience make the most use of from accelerator programs are different.

H4b: The supports that entrepreneurs who have work experience and who doesn't have any work experience benefit the most from accelerator programs are different.

H4c: The supports that entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurship experience and who doesn't have any experience make the most use of from accelerator programs are different.

H4d: The supports that entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurship experience and who doesn't have any experience benefit the most from accelerator programs are different.

Entrepreneurs who have other entrepreneurs in their family are more likely to start a new business due to the family support they receive. Albort-Morant and Oguzi (2016), Gurel et al. (2010) and Singh et al. (2001) supports the same argument. Having a close family member, as an entrepreneur has a greater influence than having an acquaintance as an entrepreneur. The reason is that new entrepreneurs can benefit from the experiences of their families, if they come across with any difficulties. In addition, many entrepreneurial families are encouraging their children to initiate a new venture because they have been through the same path before so they can guide their children to overcome difficulties.

H5a: The lack of an entrepreneur in the entrepreneur's family increases the need for support from the accelerator program.

H5b: The lack of an entrepreneur in the entrepreneur's family increases the benefit it receives from the accelerator program.

3. Methods

A survey was conducted to entrepreneurs in the chosen accelerator programs in order to provide data for this research. This data were collected between September and December, 2017. In order to collect data, cooperation with the coordinators of the programs was carried out and the offices of the accelerator programs were visited. The survey was distributed to entrepreneurs who were present during the visit. The hard copy version of the survey was used to collect data from entrepreneurs. Afterwards, this data were transferred to the electronic environment.

Entrepreneurs who graduated from the programs and who are not present during the visit to the programs filled out the survey electronically via the link sent by the coordinators. SurveyMonkey is used electronically to collect and save data. Moreover, the link of the survey was shared in

social media groups of our targeted accelerator programs and in other entrepreneurship groups. This provided more data for the study.

In total, 130 out of 162 people filled out the survey completely. 5 of these 130 people were left out from the research because they had participated in different accelerator programs outside of the targeted ones, so 125 people in our target group filled out the survey. These 125 entrepreneurs are affiliated with 106 different startups.

4. Results

Below you can find the tests of the hypotheses and the results of these tests. Descriptive statistical methods (mean, standard deviation, median, first quadrant, third quadrant, frequency, percentage, minimum, maximum) are used when the study data is getting evaluated. Normal distributions of quantitative data are tested with the Shapiro-Wilk test in addition to graphical tests. Mann-Whitney U test is used to compare the two groups of quantitative variables which are not normally distributed. The Kruskal-Wallis test is used to compare more than two groups of quantitative variables which are not normally distributed. If the Kruskal-Wallis test result is significant, then, Dunn-Bonferroni test is used to determine the groups that produced significance.

The hypothesis H1a has been tested in Table 4.1. There is no statistically significant difference in the use of accelerator supports between men and women.

Table 1: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to the gender of entrepreneurs.

	Gender		z	p
	Women	Men		
Training	4 (4, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.561	0.575
Mentorship	4 (3, 5)	5 (4, 5)	-1.659	0.097
Office	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	-0.266	0.790
Laboratory	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 2)	-1.558	0.119
Advertising	3 (2, 3)	2 (1, 3)	-0.761	0.447
Networking	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.078	0.938
Investment/Finance	3 (2, 4)	3 (1, 4)	-1.372	0.170
Meeting with Investors	4 (3, 4)	3 (2, 4)	-0.169	0.865
Going Abroad	2.5 (0, 4)	1 (0, 3)	-0.408	0.683
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 3)	-1.360	0.174

Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	4 (3, 4)	3 (2, 4)	-1.679	0.093
Technical Support	2.5 (1, 4)	2 (1, 4)	-0.457	0.647

Mann-Whitney U test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter).

According to the gender of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of the utilization of any of the accelerator services ($p > 0.05$).

The H2a hypothesis has been tested in Table 4.2. Supports that have a meaningful difference according to the comparison of support utilization levels by the age of entrepreneurs are given below.

Table.2: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to the age of entrepreneurs.

	Age				χ^2	p
	<25	26-30	31-35	>35		
Training	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	4.285	0.232
Mentorship	5 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4.5 (3.5, 5)	2.974	0.396
Office	5 (4, 5)	4.5 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (2, 4.5)	8.041	0.045*
Laboratory	1 (0, 2)	1 (0, 2)	0 (0, 1)	0 (0, 1)	5.767	0.124
Advertising	3 (2, 3)	3 (2, 3)	2 (1, 3)	1.5 (1, 2.5)	7.532	0.057
Networking	4(4, 4.5)	4 (3, 5)	3 (3, 4)	3.5 (3, 4)	6.923	0.074
Investment/Finance	3 (2, 4)	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 3)	2 (1.5, 3)	7.368	0.061
Meeting with Investors	4(2.5, 4.5)	3.5 (2, 4)	3 (2, 4)	3 (1.5, 4)	1.721	0.632
Going Abroad	3(0.5, 4)	2 (0, 4)	1 (0, 2)	1 (0.5, 3)	8.863	0.031*
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3(1.5, 4)	2 (1, 3)	2 (0, 3)	1 (0, 3)	9.678	0.022*
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	4(3, 4.5)	3 (2, 4)	3 (1, 4)	2.5(0.5, 4.5)	9.147	0.027*
Technical Support	2 (1, 4)	3 (2, 4)	1 (1, 3)	1 (0, 3)	13.349	0.004**

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

According to the age of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of the utilization of training, mentoring, laboratory, advertisement, networking, investment / finance and meeting with investors ($p > 0.05$).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of office services (p: 0.045). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who are 35 years old and above is lower than the ones who are under 25 years old (p: 0.049).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of going abroad opportunities (p:0.031). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who are between 31-35 years old is lower than the ones who are under 25 years old (p: 0.021).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services (p:0.022). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who are between 31-35 years old and who are above 35 years old is lower than the ones who are under 25 years old (respectively, p:0.048, p:0.048).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator (p:0.027). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who are between 31-35 years old is lower than the ones who are under 25 years old (p:0.049).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of technical support (p:0.004). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who are between 31-35 years old and who are above 35 years old is lower than the ones who are between 25-30 years old (respectively, p:0.015, p:0.021).

The hypothesis H3a has been tested in Table 4.3. Supports that have a meaningful difference according to the comparison of support utilization levels by the educational status of entrepreneurs are given below.

Table.3: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to the educational status of entrepreneurs.

	Educational Status			χ^2	P
	Before Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Master's		
Training	4 (3.5, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	1.803	0.406
Mentorship	5 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	5 (3, 5)	1.461	0.482
Office	4 (3.5, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	1.203	0.548
Laboratory	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 2)	0 (0, 1)	3.698	0.157
Advertising	3 (1.5, 3)	3 (2, 3)	2 (1, 3)	0.825	0.662
Networking	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	3 (3, 4)	4.944	0.084
Investment/Finance	3 (2, 4.5)	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 3)	1.396	0.498
Meeting with Investors	3.5 (2.5, 5)	4 (3, 4)	3 (1, 4)	4.978	0.083

Going Abroad	2.5 (0, 3.5)	2 (0, 4)	1 (0, 2)	3.288	0.193
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3 (1.5, 3)	3 (1, 4)	1 (0, 2)	10.831	0.004**
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3 (3, 4.5)	3 (2, 4)	3 (1, 3)	7.444	0.024*
Technical Support	2 (1, 3.5)	3 (1, 4)	1 (0, 3)	8.956	0.011*

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the educational status of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of the utilization of training, mentoring, office, laboratory, advertisement, networking, investment / finance, meeting with investors and going abroad services ($p>0.05$).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services ($p:0.004$). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees ($p:0.003$).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator ($p:0.024$). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees ($p:0.027$).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of technical support ($p:0.011$). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees ($p:0.008$).

In Table 4.4 the hypothesis H4a has been tested. Supports that have a meaningful difference according to the comparison of support utilization levels by the work experiences of entrepreneurs are given below.

According to the work experiences of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of the utilization of training, mentoring, office, laboratory, advertisement, investment / finance, meeting with investors, trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services, technical support and cooperation with the supporting organizations ($p>0.05$).

Table 4: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to the work experiences of entrepreneurs.

	Professional Work Experience					χ^2	p
	None	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-7 years	8 years and above		
Training	4 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4(3, 4.5)	4(3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	3.840	0.428
Mentorship	5 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4.5(3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	2.366	0.669
Office	5 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	5(4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	7.960	0.093
Laboratory	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 2)	0.5(0, 1)	1.5(0, 4)	0 (0, 1)	5.216	0.266
Advertising	3 (2, 3)	3 (3, 4)	2 (1, 3)	2(2, 3)	2 (1, 3)	6.210	0.184
Networking	4 (4, 4)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	4(4, 5)	3 (3, 4)	11.735	0.019*
Investment/Finance	3 (1, 4)	4 (2, 4)	3(1.5, 4)	3(2, 4)	2 (1, 3)	7.793	0.099
Meeting with Investors	4 (2, 4)	4 (3, 5)	4 (2, 4)	3(3, 4)	3 (2, 4)	3.001	0.558
Going Abroad	3 (0, 5)	3 (1, 4)	1(0, 3.5)	0.5(0, 2)	1 (0, 3)	11.221	0.024*
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3 (0, 4)	3 (2, 4)	2(1, 3.5)	3(2, 3)	1 (0, 3)	8.803	0.066
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	3(2.5, 4)	3(3, 4)	3 (1, 4)	5.064	0.281
Technical Support	1 (0, 4)	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 4)	3(2, 4)	2 (0, 3)	8.894	0.064

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of networking services (p:0.019). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have 8 years and more work experience is lower than the ones who have 1-2 years of work experience and who have 6-7 years of work experience (respectively, p:0.045, p:0.048).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of going abroad (p:0.024). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have 6-7 years of work experience is lower than the ones who have 1-2 years of work experience (p:0.043).

In Table 4.5 the hypothesis H4c has been tested. There is no statistically significant difference between the entrepreneurship experiences of the entrepreneur and the support utilization level of the accelerator program.

Table 5: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to the entrepreneurship experiences of entrepreneurs.

	Entrepreneurship Experience					χ^2	P
	None	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-7 years	8 years and above		
Training	5(4, 5)	4(3, 5)	4(3, 5)	4(2, 5)	4.5 (3, 5)	5.005	0.287
Mentorship	4(4, 5)	4(3, 5)	4(4, 5)	5(5, 5)	4.5 (3, 5)	1.258	0.868
Office	5(4, 5)	4(3, 5)	4(3, 5)	5(5, 5)	4 (4, 5)	3.278	0.512
Laboratory	1(0, 3)	0(0, 1)	1(0, 2)	1(0, 1)	0 (0, 0)	4.128	0.389
Advertising	3(1, 4)	3(1, 3)	3(2, 3)	3(1, 5)	3 (1, 4)	0.354	0.986
Networking	3(3, 4)	4(3, 4)	4(3, 5)	4(4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	6.717	0.152
Investment/Finance	3(2, 5)	3(1, 4)	3(2, 4)	3(2, 4)	3.5 (2, 4)	3.041	0.551
Meeting with Investors	4(3, 5)	3(2, 4)	4(3, 4)	2(2, 4)	4.5 (1, 5)	4.383	0.357
Going Abroad	3(0, 4)	2 (0, 3)	1(0, 4)	2(0, 2)	2 (1, 3)	2.270	0.686
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3(1, 4)	2.5(1, 3)	2(1, 4)	2(1, 2)	1 (0, 4)	2.675	0.614
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	4(3, 5)	3 (2, 4)	3(3, 4)	3(2, 4)	3.5 (3, 5)	4.167	0.384
Technical Support	4(0, 4)	2 (1, 3)	2(1, 4)	3(2, 3)	0.5 (0, 3)	4.415	0.353

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter).

According to the entrepreneurship experience of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of the utilization of any of the accelerator services ($p > 0.05$).

The hypothesis H5a has been tested in Table 4.6. Supports that have a meaningful difference according to the comparison of support utilization levels by having an entrepreneur in the entrepreneur's family or social circle are given below.

Table 6: Comparison of the level of support utilization according to having an entrepreneur in the family or in the social circle.

	Have an Entrepreneur in the Family or Social Circle		z	p
	Does Have	Doesn't Have		
Training	4 (3, 5)	4 (4, 5)	-1.417	0.157
Mentorship	4 (3, 5)	5 (4, 5)	-1.698	0.090
Office	5 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	-2.157	0.031*
Laboratory	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 2)	-1.094	0.274
Advertising	3 (1, 3)	2 (2, 3)	-0.442	0.658
Networking	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	-0.705	0.481
Investment/Finance	3 (1, 4)	3 (1, 4)	-0.201	0.841
Meeting with Investors	3 (2, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-1.753	0.080
Going Abroad	1 (0, 3)	2 (0, 4)	-0.731	0.464
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	2 (1, 3)	2 (1, 4)	-0.471	0.638
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3 (2, 4)	3 (2, 4)	-0.283	0.777
Technical Support	2 (1, 3)	2 (1, 4)	-1.082	0.279

Mann-Whitney U test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05

According to having an entrepreneur in the family or in the social circle of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from the services of training, mentoring, laboratory, advertisement, networking, investment / finance, meeting with investors, going abroad, trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services, technical support and cooperation with the supporting organizations ($p > 0.05$). The only significant difference is found in terms of the utilization level of office services ($p: 0.031$). The utilization level of entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurs in their families or social circle is higher than the ones who doesn't have an entrepreneur in their families or social circle.

The hypothesis H1b has been tested in Table 4.7. There is no statistically significant difference in receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program between men and women.

According to the gender of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from any of the accelerator services ($p > 0.05$).

Table 7: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to the gender of entrepreneurs.

	Gender		z	p
	Women	Men		
Training	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.064	0.949
Mentorship	4 (4, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.052	0.959
Office	4 (4, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.405	0.685
Laboratory	0 (0, 3)	0 (0, 1)	-0.103	0.918
Advertising	3 (2, 4)	2 (1, 4)	-0.441	0.659
Networking	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-0.644	0.520
Investment/Finance	3 (2, 4)	3 (1, 4)	-0.442	0.659
Meeting with Investors	4 (3, 4)	3 (2, 4)	-0.302	0.762
Going Abroad	1 (0, 4)	1 (0, 4)	-0.595	0.552
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	2.5 (1, 4)	2 (1, 4)	-1.021	0.307
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3.5 (2, 4)	3 (1, 4)	-0.168	0.866
Technical Support	2 (0, 4)	1 (0, 4)	-0.433	0.665

Mann-Whitney U test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter).

The H2b hypothesis has been tested in Table 4.8. Supports that have a significant difference between receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program and the age of entrepreneurs are given below.

Table 8: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to the age of entrepreneurs.

	Age				χ^2	p
	<25	26-30	31-35	>35		
Training	4 (3.5, 5)	4 (3, 5)	3 (3, 4)	3 (3, 4.5)	6.569	0.087
Mentorship	4 (4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	11.057	0.011*
Office	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (1, 5)	3 (2, 4)	7.519	0.057
Laboratory	1 (0, 2)	1 (0, 4)	0 (0, 1)	0 (0, 1)	7.837	0.049*
Advertising	3 (1, 4)	3 (2, 5)	2 (1, 3)	2 (1, 4)	8.168	0.043*
Networking	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	3 (2, 5)	4 (3, 5)	1.826	0.609
Investment/Finance	3 (1, 4)	3.5(2, 5)	2 (0, 3)	3 (1.5, 4)	10.132	0.017*

Meeting with Investors	3 (1.5, 4)	4 (3, 5)	3 (2, 4)	4 (2.5, 4)	4.551	0.208
Going Abroad	1.5 (0, 4)	2 (0, 4)	0 (0, 2)	2.5(0.5, 4)	8.463	0.037*
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 4)	1 (0, 3)	1 (0, 3.5)	8.058	0.045*
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3(1.5, 4)	3 (2, 4)	2 (1, 4)	3(0.5, 4.5)	4.205	0.240
Technical Support	1.5(0.5, 4)	2.5(1, 4)	1 (0, 3)	1 (0, 4)	5.002	0.172

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05

According to the age of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from the services of training, office, networking, meeting with investors, technical support and cooperation with the supporting organizations (p>0.05).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from mentoring services (p: 0.011). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are between 26-30 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p: 0.013).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from laboratory services (p:0.049). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are between 26-30 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p:0.048).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from advertising services (p:0.043). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are between 26-30 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p:0.038).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from investment/finance services (p:0.017). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are between 26-30 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p:0.009).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from going abroad (p:0.037). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are between 26-30 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p:0.049).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services

(p:0.045). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who are younger than 25 years old is higher than the ones who are between 31-35 years old (p:0.049).

In table 4.9 the hypothesis H3b has been tested. Supports that have a significant difference between receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program and the educational status of entrepreneurs are given below.

Table 9: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to the educational status of entrepreneurs.

	Educational Status			χ^2	p
	Before Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Master's		
Training	4.5 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	3 (2, 4)	6.697	0.035*
Mentorship	4.5 (3.5, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	2.291	0.318
Office	4 (2.5, 4)	4 (4, 5)	3 (2, 4)	8.366	0.015*
Laboratory	0 (0, 0.5)	1 (0, 2)	0 (0, 1)	4.093	0.129
Advertising	1.5 (0, 2.5)	3 (1, 4)	2 (1, 3)	10.002	0.007**
Networking	3 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	3 (2, 4)	6.956	0.031*
Investment/Finance	3.5 (0.5, 5)	3 (2, 4)	2 (1, 3)	4.722	0.094
Meeting with Investors	3 (2, 5)	4 (3, 4)	3 (2, 4)	1.579	0.454
Going Abroad	0 (0, 3)	2 (0, 4)	1 (0, 3)	4.153	0.125
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	1.5 (0, 3)	3 (1, 4)	1 (0, 2)	10.051	0.007**
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	2.5 (1, 4)	4 (2, 4)	2 (0, 3)	10.927	0.004**
Technical Support	1 (0, 3.5)	2.5 (1, 4)	1 (0, 2)	6.590	0.037*

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the educational status of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from the services of mentoring, laboratory, investment/finance, meeting with investors, and going abroad (p>0.05).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from training services (p: 0.035). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.046).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from office services (p: 0.015). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have degrees before Bachelor's (p:0.028).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from advertising services (p: 0.007). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have degrees before Bachelor's is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.014).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from networking services (p: 0.007). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have degrees before Bachelor's is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.014).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services (p: 0.007). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.007).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator (p: 0.004). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.004).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from technical support (p: 0.037). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have Master's degrees is lower than the ones who have Bachelor's degrees (p:0.049).

In table 4.10 the hypothesis H4b has been tested. There is no statistically significant difference between the professional work experiences of entrepreneurs and receiving benefits from the supports of the accelerator program.

Table 10: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to the work experiences of entrepreneurs.

	Professional Work Experience					χ^2	p
	None	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-7 years	8 years and above		
Training	4(4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4(3, 5)	3 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4.686	0.321
Mentorship	5(4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4(3, 4.5)	4 (4, 4)	4 (3, 5)	7.879	0.096
Office	4(3, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4(3, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (2, 4)	6.384	0.172
Laboratory	0(0, 1)	1 (0, 2)	0.5(0, 1.5)	1.5(0, 4)	0 (0, 1)	7.402	0.116
Advertising	2(1, 4)	3 (2, 5)	2(1, 4)	3 (2, 3)	2 (1, 3)	6.972	0.137

Networking	4(3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4(3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	4 (2, 5)	0.808	0.937
Investment/Finance	3(1, 4)	4 (2, 5)	3(2, 4.5)	3.5(3, 4)	3 (1, 4)	4.653	0.325
Meeting with Investors	3(2, 4)	4 (3, 5)	3(2, 4)	3.5(3, 4)	4 (2, 4)	1.633	0.803
Going Abroad	1(0, 4)	3 (1, 4)	1(0, 3.5)	0.5(0, 3)	1 (0, 4)	5.723	0.221
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3(0, 4)	3 (1, 4)	2(0.5, 4)	3 (1, 4)	1 (0, 3)	7.128	0.129
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3(1, 4)	4 (2, 5)	3(1, 4)	4 (3, 4)	3 (1, 4)	3.620	0.460
Technical Support	1(0, 3)	2 (1, 4)	1(0.5, 3.5)	3 (2, 4)	2 (0, 4)	8.165	0.086

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter).

According to the professional work experiences of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from any of the accelerator services ($p > 0.05$).

The hypothesis H4d has been tested in Table 4.11. There is no statistically significant difference between the entrepreneurship experiences of entrepreneurs and receiving benefits from the supports of the accelerator program.

Table 11: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to the entrepreneurship experiences of entrepreneurs.

	Entrepreneurship Experience					χ^2	P
	None	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-7 years	8 years and above		
Training	5(4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 4)	3 (3, 3)	4 (2, 5)	8.209	0.084
Mentorship	4(4, 5)	4 (4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	2.5 (1, 5)	4.580	0.333
Office	5(4, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (2, 5)	4 (3, 4)	3.5 (2, 4)	5.280	0.260
Laboratory	1(0, 5)	0 (0, 2)	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 1)	0 (0, 0)	4.227	0.376
Advertising	3(1, 5)	2 (1, 4)	2 (1, 4)	3 (1, 3)	2.5 (2, 4)	1.106	0.893
Networking	4(3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	5 (4, 5)	4.5 (3, 5)	3.366	0.499
Investment/Finance	4(3, 5)	3 (1, 4)	3 (1, 4)	3 (3, 4)	3 (1, 4)	5.808	0.214

Meeting with Investors	4(3, 5)	3 (2, 4)	3 (3, 4)	4 (3, 4)	2.5 (2, 4)	2.906	0.574
Going Abroad	4(0, 5)	1 (0, 3)	1 (0, 4)	3 (0, 4)	2 (1, 3)	3.701	0.448
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	3(2, 5)	2 (1, 4)	1 (0, 4)	1 (1, 1)	1.5 (0, 3)	5.532	0.237
Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	4(3, 5)	3 (1, 4)	3 (1, 4)	3 (2, 4)	3.5 (2, 4)	4.704	0.319
Technical Support	4(3, 5)	2 (0, 4)	1 (1, 3)	3 (1, 4)	0.5 (0, 3)	6.169	0.187

Kruskal Wallis test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter).

According to the entrepreneurship experiences of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from any of the accelerator services ($p > 0.05$).

The hypothesis H5b has been tested in Table 4.12. Supports that have a significant difference between receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program and having an entrepreneur in the entrepreneur's family or social circle are given below.

Table 12: Comparison of receiving benefit from the supports of the accelerator program according to having an entrepreneur in the family or in the social circle.

	Have an Entrepreneur in the Family or Social Circle		z	p
	Does Have	Doesn't Have		
Training	4 (3, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-2.079	0.038*
Mentorship	4 (3, 5)	4 (4, 5)	-2.053	0.040*
Office	4 (3, 5)	4 (2, 5)	-0.550	0.582
Laboratory	0 (0, 1)	1 (0, 4)	-1.688	0.092
Advertising	2 (1, 3)	3 (1, 4)	-1.047	0.295
Networking	4 (3, 5)	4 (3, 5)	-1.605	0.109
Investment/Finance	3 (1, 4)	3 (2, 4)	-1.457	0.145
Meeting with Investors	3 (2, 4)	4 (3, 5)	-2.401	0.016*
Going Abroad	1 (0, 3)	3 (1, 4)	-1.984	0.047*
Trademark registration / Patent application / Legal Counseling	2 (0, 4)	2 (1, 4)	-0.918	0.359

Collaborating with organizations that support the accelerator	3 (1, 4)	4 (2, 4)	-1.786	0.074
Technical Support	1.5 (0, 4)	2 (1, 4)	-1.239	0.215

Mann-Whitney U test, median (Q1: first quarter, Q3: third quarter). *p<0.05

According to the entrepreneurship experiences of entrepreneurs, there is not a statistically significant difference in terms of receiving benefit from the services of office, laboratory, advertisement, networking, investment / finance, trademark registration / patent application / legal counseling services, technical support and cooperation with the supporting organizations (p>0.05).

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from training services (p:0.038). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurs in their families or social circle is lower than the ones who doesn't have an entrepreneur in their families or social circle.

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from mentoring services (p:0.040). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurs in their families or social circle is lower than the ones who doesn't have an entrepreneur in their families or social circle.

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from meeting with investors services (p:0.016). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurs in their families or social circle is lower than the ones who doesn't have an entrepreneur in their families or social circle.

Statistically significant difference is found in terms of benefiting from going abroad services (p:0.047). The benefit level of entrepreneurs who have entrepreneurs in their families or social circle is lower than the ones who doesn't have an entrepreneur in their families or social circle.

5. Conclusion

This research is about which demographics of entrepreneurs increase or decrease the need for support from accelerator programs and the benefits they receive from these programs. According to entrepreneurs' gender, age, educational status, work experience and family background, the study tries to find out which services of accelerator programs the entrepreneurs use and benefit the most. This research is conducted with the targeted accelerator programs located in Istanbul, Turkey. One of the findings of this study is that gender doesn't have any effects on how entrepreneurs use and benefit from the accelerator supports. Age and educational background of the entrepreneur have the most effect on how entrepreneurs use and benefit from the accelerator supports. As age and the educational status increase, entrepreneurs use less support and benefit less from these

supports. The reason of this is that as people age and get more education, they gain more knowledge and experience so older entrepreneurs need less support compared to younger ones as well as more educated entrepreneurs need less support compared to uneducated ones.

Another key finding is that entrepreneurs with more work experience utilizes less from going abroad opportunities and networking services. Going abroad is a new risk factor for entrepreneurs in addition to establishing a new company. Therefore, as entrepreneurs' experiences and networks increase, the willingness of them to go abroad decrease. They do not want to take the risk of creating a whole new life from scratch. Entrepreneurs who are younger and have less experience prefer to go abroad in order to be able to progress their careers and move forward.

This study has several limitations. First of all, this study is based on accelerator programs located in Istanbul, Turkey only and it doesn't include other programs in other regions. Secondly, entrepreneurs who are currently attending the accelerator programs and who graduated within the past two years are represented in the study due to the difficulty of reaching entrepreneurs who graduated before two years. Future studies can study entrepreneurs in other regions to analyze their needs. Moreover, further comparative analysis on startups can be done to find out firm survival after the accelerator program.

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MARKETING

BANK CUSTOMERS' INTERNET BANKING USAGE PURPOSES: A RESEARCH ON PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES

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Intoduction

It is known that goods are physically hand-held and visible, and consist of values that provide various benefits to the customers. But it is much more difficult to understand and group the concept of service than product. It is clear that when marketing service, which constitutes a significant part of economic activities, is compared with marketing of goods, existing equipment needs to be further developed. The assumption that the information used in the marketing of goods is also valid for service marketing can not be accepted because of its individual qualifications. While this understanding reveals the reality of accepting services as a product nowadays, it is also essential to define and segment the service in this context. And there is a need for a classification based on these definitions, revised and made in such a way as to accommodate consumption-production goods, services, and thoughts. (Murphy and Enis, 1986: 30).

With this understanding, it is possible to define the service as applications gaining favor to customers, consisting of non-tangible, invisible values and provided by a human or mechanical means. In another definition, services are described as actions, benefits, or saturations put on market directly or obtained through the sale of goods. If this definition is addressed more specifically, it can be said that services are acts that provide necessity and willingness satisfaction when they are sold to consumers and organizations independently of the goods. In a grouping according to definition, it is possible to collect services under two headings as services provided by non profit organizations and services sold by individuals or businesses for profit (Tekin and Zerenler, 2012: 85-86, Cemalcılar, 1999: 3).

Since the activities called services are heterogeneous, it is possible to find many definitions about the service concept, but there is no consensus on this concept. However, due to its unique qualities, service enterprises

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show some differences compared to good producing enterprises. In this respect, the characteristics of the service firms in general can be listed as follows: There is no flexibility in production management, labor and relations are coexistent, production and consumption are synchronous, can not be stored, the sector is protected by national regulations (GATS sets standards in this respect) , it is often difficult to define the target market by approaching the market (Count and Aydın, 2011: 245-262).

In the post-industrial society, information has become an economic asset, developing service sector instead of production sector, and possessing production goods has been not a wealth indicator anymore, new services have been the most important economic parameters. This sector is called the abstract economies of the world economy and exhibits a serious development potential. Many other factors, such as information becoming an economic asset, globalization, technological developments, and linking of manufacturing industry production to the service sector, have given service commercial character. Therefore, these developments have changed the traditional structures in the service sector and attributed this sector to a key role and to overtake it by folding the goods sector (Kurtuluş, 1996: 21).

Borders of service sector is wide because it contains a wide variety of business lines. Services according to GATS (service sector classification) are listed as follows; professional services, communication services, contracting and related engineering services, distribution services, educational services, environmental services, financial services, health and social services, tourism and travel related services, entertainment-culture and sports services, transportation services and other services. home.anadolu.edu.tr/~otonus/turkekon/turkekon_10.pdf (10.08.2017).

One type of service that has the capability of requiring cross-border transaction is banking services under the roof of financial services. Recent developments in this field have increased the level of customer satisfaction by influencing the sector's productivity in a positive way. This move, which has been made by banks that have the ability to integrate rapidly with new technologies in this transformation process, is notable because of its strategic position in a ruthless competitive environment. This adaptation has created a tight link between banks and information technologies and facilitated access to information that can be continuously generated, revised and shared. This new era of Internet and information systems in the new world has affected the banking sector in a positive way as well as in all sectors and the concept of internet banking has taken its place in the literature.

In this study, which explores the purpose of bank customers 'use of internet banking, bank customers' attitudes towards internet banking are

measured. In addition, bank customers' attitudes towards internet banking and satisfaction levels are compared in terms of public and private sectors. The consequences of this comparison are also important in terms of shedding light on future studies.

1. Internet Banking

In today's economy, productivity and customer satisfaction are vital to ensuring the continuity of businesses. Speed and communication are the most critical factors in capturing and maintaining customer satisfaction. Especially in the banking sector, the effect of these factors can be felt more quickly. Before the internet-based technologies got well into the banking sector, operational workload, routine work, and affecting motivation of the staff negatively and this situation enured to customers. On the other hand, increasing staff employment as a solution increased increased cost and created time pressure. However, since these technological instruments have become dominant in the banking sector, trends in the aforementioned parameters have been improving. Through the Internet and mobile technologies, time and resources have been wasted, workload has been reduced and technology has taken a more active role in the employment policy (Aytar et al., 2012).

These developments in banking operations have brought the banking sector a global profile by removing the borders. The emerging technologies such as smart cards and internet banking have taken place in the banking sector as technological tools that make it easier to reach the target groups.

In today's banking concept, internet banking, one of the most important instruments of the human-centered banking sector, proves its existence as an indispensable part of both banks and bank customers. In a general context, the bank's customer information was kept in bank customer cards, not in databases as it is today. The obligation of the customers to go to the branch both increased the bank's work load and reduced customer satisfaction. However, ongoing process of transferring information to computers has become the first step in the use of technology in banking. Then online banking and telephone banking developed. Finally, proactive form of online banking completed its development as 'internet banking' (Önder, 1999).

When developmental adventure of internet banking was specifically assessed, this process started at the end of the 1980's (Nami, 2009). The concept initially originated through the use of a telephone line through a terminal or computer in the banking service. In order to be beneficial to internet banking, the concept of home banking has been used as an alternative. In 1981, online banking services started in New York. At that time, four major banks, Chase Manhattan, Citibank, Manufacturers Hanover and Chemical Banks, began to use the videotext system in their

online banking services. In France, the videotext system has led to failure of online banking services. In 1983, the Nottingham Building Society (NBS) in the United Kingdom started online banking when it began to transfer online services. In the 1990s, information technology developed much more and contributed to the development of internet banking. Later in 1994, the Stanford Federal Credit Union became the first financial institution offering online banking services to all its customers. In 2001, Yodlee created a software that allows customers to view their transactions through a website. In 2005, the Federal Financial Institutions Review Council announced rules and regulations for internet banking service providers (Afshar et al., 2009, Mukhtar, 2015).

There are many definitions about internet banking. Suriya et al. (2012) define bank services as the types of services that bank customers may wish to receive information about, and the majority of these services are handled by smart devices and computers. According to Okumuş et al. (2010), internet banking is more than just a virtual web cast of the branch environment, but more than branch-based communication. Internet banking according to Chang and Hamid (2010); is the process of completing the transactions of the customers in the electronic environment without physically visiting the banks. Büyükdemir (1997) defines almost all operations in bank branches as being able to be performed on internet. Toraman (2002) describes banking services as being offered on the internet via remote distribution channels. Alsajjan and Dennis (2010) describe the process of offering banking services through technology without using the physical resources of the customers as well as the banks. In general internet banking is explained as the transfer of banking transactions made in physical branches to the internet environment. (<http://www.kutuphanem.com>).

Internet banking is one of the most important ways of reaching customers at the point where banks are able to analyze the needs of customers by mobilizing all of the advanced technology possibilities and keep up with the changing customer profile. Optimizing the cost of these operations and making them without compromising the quality, absence of any physical limitations, and removal of the pressure of space and time, makes internet banking more attractive. It can also be predicted that the costs mentioned when the rapid development of the technology is considered to be minimized. The fact that there are no physical limitations removes the pressure of space and time. Since it serves its customers with a different presentation, it changes the traditional branch understanding and alleviates the workload. This situation increases the productivity because it positively affects the morale and motivation of the occupation. There are also some risks that come with internet banking. Increasing competition has become cross-border with the transfer of the study area

from the national to the international arena. Obtained income is reduced as it is shared by more sectors. Basic requirements such as restructuring and revision have become a necessity. From a customer perspective, the situation becomes even more difficult for those who are not related to technology. Because today, a large majority of banking services can be done on the internet. There is also the risk that personal information about customers will be disguised by third parties. It is especially important to eliminate this threat as it creates security and privacy gap. Finally, the lack of legal legislation can also be categorized within this portfolio as it will lead to various conflicts and conflicts. (Uzundağ, 2013: 44-49).

In the literature, many studies about internet banking have been done. Pala and Kartal (2010) conducted a survey on 196 active internet banking users to investigate their attitudes towards internet banking. According to the results of this research; time, convenience and security have come to the forefront.

Corrocher (2002) investigated the relationship between traditional banking and internet banking to understand whether the financial services presentation system is complementary or complementary to banks. According to empirical analysis results, banks providing innovative financial services adopt innovation more than traditional banks.

Cakmak et al. (2011) investigated the purposes for which bank customers use internet banking services in their work. Face-to-face survey method was used in the research and evaluations were made by factor and discriminant analysis. According to the results of the research, it is determined that the customers use the internet extensively but the internet banking usage is lower than this. If the statistics showing reasons for using internet banking are given; time gained, easy access and less costly.

Arnaboldi and Claeys (2008) compared the performance of countries with the "click and mortar" (internet and new economy) model to examine role of differences in the banking system and technological progress in their work on Internet banking having a key role for banks. The research was conducted in Finland, Spain, England and Italy. According to findings, it has been determined that banks have acquired competitive advantage in their business models by integrating strategies such as internet banking into their own structures. In addition, an extensive innovation activity that has been adapting increases the internet banking.

Ustasüleyman and Eyüboğlu (2010) investigated the factors affecting the adoption of internet banking by potential consumers in Turkey. 413 available data and questionnaires collected on eight levels were analyzed with the structural equation model. The results of the analysis show that the perceived ease of use has an effect on perceived usefulness. At the same

time, the perceived usefulness was found to be a positive and significant effect on the trust factor.

2. Methodology

In this research, firstly literature review about internet banking was searched and theoretical information was given and then attitudes of bank customers to internet banking were measured. A questionnaire was formed based on the scale developed by Uzundağ (2013), and it was applied to 900 people working in the private and public sectors. A 5-point Likert scale was used in the study. The questionnaire consists of 6 sections. The first section includes the demographic characteristics of the participants, and the second section contains statements about the reasons for using banking services. In the third part, users' satisfaction level about internet banking and in the fourth part internet banking is considered. In the fifth section, there are questions about the security aspect of internet banking and the level of satisfaction from the web page used by internet banking users in the last part of the questionnaire. Surveys were conducted in Istanbul, Izmir and Ankara. According to the results of the reliability analysis, Cronbach's Alpha of the private sector and the public sector is 0.995 and 0.991, respectively. As of end-2016, the number of people using internet banking in Turkey is approximately 51482000 (TBB, 2016). A total of 900 questionnaires were applied. For the universe, the sample size should be 664 persons with 99% confidence level according to 5% error. The error caused by the number of samples at 99% confidence level is 4.29%.

3. Findings

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variables	Public Sector		Private Sector	
	Person	Percentage (%)	Person	Percentage (%)
Gender				
Male	222	55,5	261	52,2
Female	178	44,5	239	47,8
Marital status				
Married	261	65,3	364	72,8
Single	139	34,8	136	27,2
Age				
20-29	149	37,3	147	29,4
30-39	139	34,8	188	37,6
40-49	81	20,3	98	19,6
50-59	30	7,5	36	7,2

60/60+	1	,3	31	6,2
Education	Person	Percentage (%)	Person	Percentage (%)
High school and below	57	14,3	205	41,0
Two-year degree	73	18,3	178	35,6
Bachelor's degree	224	56,0	72	14,4
Post graduate	38	9,5	38	7,6
Phd	8	2,0	7	1,4
TOTAL	400	100,0	500	100,0

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics results for public and private sector employees. When the table is examined, it is seen that there is not a significant difference in terms of gender percentages, age and marital status distributions of public and private sector participants. However, those who work in the public sector have higher education levels than those who work in the private sector.

Table 2. Participants' Internet Banking Transactions

Transactions	Private Sector (Percentage %)	Public Sector (Percentage%)
Various Payment Transactions	55.8	78.5
Investment Transactions	10	18.5
Money Transfer etc.	30.4	48.3
Getting Information for Services	34.8	27.5

In Table 2, participants' transactions in internet banking are compared between the public sector and the private sector. It is seen that a large part of the participants do multiple transactions from internet banking. When all of the survey participants are evaluated together, internet banking is being used more in terms of payment transactions. Public sector employees benefit more from internet banking services (payment transactions,

investment transactions, money transfer, etc.) than private sector employees.

Table 3. Reasons for Participants' Internet Banking Usage

Reasons for Usage	Private Sector (Percentage %)	Public Sector (Percentage%)
Time Saving, 24 Hour Service	57.2	78.5
Getting Benefit From Technological Innovations	24.8	41.5
Dissatisfied with Person in the Branch	8.8	8.5
Low Transaction Costs	20	24.3
Other	4.6	3.5

It is shown in Table 3 that both the private sector employees and the public sector employees use internet banking mostly to save time and then to take advantage of innovations brought by technology. However, public sector employees place more emphasis on saving time than private sector employees.

Table 4. Internet Banking Satisfaction Level

Satisfaction Level	Private Sector (Percentage %)	Public Sector (Percentage%)
Have no information	40,8	19,3
I am not pleased at all	1,4	1,5
I am not pleased	1,8	1,0
I have no idea	3,4	2,8
I am pleased	34,4	60,0
I am very pleased	18,2	15,5
Total	100,0	100,0

Table 4 shows satisfaction levels of the participants in internet banking. When the results are examined, it is seen that public sector employees are more satisfied with internet banking services than the private sector employees.

Table 5. Participants' Opinions about Internet Banking

Satisfaction Questions	Private Sector Mean	Public Sector Mean
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It is necessary for working people.	2,52	3,27
Transactions can be made for 24 hours by internet banking.	2,54	3,22
Saves time for users.	2,55	3,40
It is less costly.	2,52	3,28
It gives personal service.	2,47	3,28
It meets my expectations.	2,46	3,20
I am less tired thanks to internet banking.	2,54	3,33
I can get detailed reports and information.	2,45	3,22
It is easy to use.	2,36	3,22
It removes the risk of carrying cash.	2,46	3,21
Fast and uninterrupted banking.	2,51	3,16
It makes life easier.	2,53	3,31
Invoice payments are much easier.	2,52	3,36
More banking transactions can be done.	2,46	3,21
It is a suitable banking method for	2,31	3,39

In table 5 participants' thoughts on internet banking are shown. When the results are examined, it is seen that the employees working in the public sector are more satisfied than the services offered by internet banking in all questions compared to those working in the private sector.

Table 6. Participants' Opinions about Handicaps of Internet Banking

Opinions about Handicaps of Internet Banking	Private Sector Mean	Public Sector Mean
In internet banking, my private information can be	1,39	2,37
There is a possibility of incorrect transaction.	1,49	2,56
Internet banking transactions are complex.	1,37	2,04
It does not meet my expectations.	1,31	1,86
The services provided are insufficient.	1,33	1,90
It is difficult to use.	1,42	1,83
Money transfer, eft etc. transactions I made may	1,34	1,88
It's much easier to do transactions at the bank.	1,33	1,92
Use of computer and internet is difficult.	1,31	1,75
Internet banking is boring.	1,31	1,69
I do not need internet banking.	1,25	1,65

Table 6 shows handicaps of internet banking. When the results are examined, it is seen that the employees working in the public sector are generally more distressed than the private sector employees. Public sector employees have a 2.56 participation rate in the phrase "internet banking

has the potential to make mistakes", while for the private sector this rate is 1.49. Participants see this transaction as the most risky banking transaction and they are hesitant to make a mistake in internet banking.

Table 7. Participants' Evaluations About Security of Internet Banking

Security Evaluations	Private Sector Mean	Public Sector Mean
I do not trust internet banking because of theft	1,51	2,17
I do not find security measures adequate.	1,57	2,32
I do not make transactions in places such as	2,05	3,03
I'm worried about the safety of transactions	1,61	2,27
I do not trust the receipt I get at the end of the	1,49	1,87
I do not find encryption systems satisfactory	1,60	2,14

Table 7 shows the evaluation of internet banking in terms of security aspects. When the results are examined, the private sector employees find the internet bank more secure than the public sector employees. Private and public sector employees are most often involved in the expression "I do not make transactions in places such as internet cafe and so on because of security reasons". This is especially perceived as a security issue.

Table 8. Opinions of Participants' In Related to Features of Web Page They Use

Web Page Feature	Private Sector Mean	Public Sector Mean
Easy access	2,17	2,90
Its being fast	2,27	2,94
Clarity and understandability	2,30	2,93
Functional use.	2,37	3,01
Attractiveness	2,28	2,76
Ease of Use	2,05	2,96
Simplicity	2,14	2,91
Service quality	1,99	2,97
Problem occurrence (locking, freezing, etc.)	2,14	2,30

Table 8 shows the opinions of the private and public sector employees who participated in the survey on the web pages they use for internet banking. When the results are examined, it is seen that the participants are generally moderately satisfied with the web pages they use. However, public sector employees are more satisfied than private sector employees.

Participants enjoy the most functional features of the websites they use. Also private and public sector employees; service quality, speed and ease of use as an advantage of bank websites.

4. Result and Discussion

Banks that can keep up with technological developments in a globalizing world will always be one step ahead in catching the strategic competitive edge. However, major changes in the internet and information technologies have changed the way banks do business in an important way. One of the most important changes that have taken place is the widespread use of internet banking in recent years. A person can perform almost all the transactions on the internet that any bank branch can do. These facilities lead to a great time saving for the customers; in terms of banks, it reduces the intensity of work in the branches.

In this study, bank customers' internet banking usage purposes are measured. In addition, bank customers' attitudes towards internet banking and satisfaction levels are compared in terms of public and private sector. In order to realize these aims, a survey of 900 individuals working in the public and private sectors was conducted.

When the results of the study are examined; private and public sector employees use internet banking mostly for payment transactions. However, public sector employees are more likely to benefit from internet banking services (payment transactions, investment transactions, money transfer, etc.) than private sector employees.

Both private sector employees and public sector employees use internet banking mostly to save time and then to take advantage of innovations brought by technology. In addition, employees in the public sector generally see internet banking as somewhat more disadvantageous than private sector employees. Similarly, private sector employees find the Internet bank safer than public sector employees.

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NEUROMARKETING REALITY UNDER THE PRESSURE OF DOUBTS AND MISUNDERSTANDINGS: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW

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Introduction

For a while now, experts have been utilizing technologies that are developed for medicine, in order to find out about factors that influence the consumer's subconscious, i.e. to learn what goes on in their minds. With the adaptation of neurological findings that are obtained by marketing methods and applications, the concept of "neuromarketing" took its place in the literature. Today, neuromarketing is increasingly attracting attention, and some aspects of it that are yet to be discovered, such as what neuromarketing is, what it includes or how it will be used in practice, are continuously sparking off new debates.

Setting out from this point, a comprehensive literature review was conducted. In this process the first purpose was to create a definition which highlights the extent of neuromarketing, followed by the second purpose of taking into account those opinions in support of and against neuromarketing. This made it possible to establish what constitutes and what does not constitute neuromarketing. Research fields employing neuromarketing techniques were then put forward, emphasizing the undoubted truth of neuromarketing.

1. Concept of Neuromarketing

According to Martin Lindstrom, one of the leading names of the marketing literature in the area of branding, opinions, feelings or preferences of 85% of consumers regarding products, brands and ads are in the subconscious lying in the depth of their brains, and it is not possible to reveal them through traditional methods (Kerin, Hartley & Rudelius 2013: 201). While neuromarketing aims at uncovering the mystery between perception and comprehension via measurements of brain waves, pulse, blood pressure, eye screening, and sound levels, therefore exposing what occurs in the subconscious, as well as its effects on purchasing behaviors or brand loyalty (Myron 2013: 2).

1.1. Definition of Neuromarketing

The brain is exposed to around 2.000 messages throughout the day. A very small amount of these external stimuli are consciously identified by

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the brain. The rest is associated with the subconscious memory. While useless and/or unnecessary information disappears, others nestle in the subconscious. Those that nestle in the subconscious cannot be changed, nor easily forgotten, and therefore subconscious memory influences behaviors and decisions (İzğören 2006: 19).

For a while now, experts have been utilizing technologies that are developed for medicine, in order to find out about factors that influence the consumer's subconscious, i.e. to learn what goes on in their minds. With the adaptation of neurological findings that are obtained by marketing methods and applications, the concept of "neuromarketing" took its place in the literature. Characterized as the union of scanning technology with marketing strategies, neuromarketing is in an infant phase still; and it is stated as a marketing method used by researchers to determine what influences the consciousness and subconscious of consumers, and by marketing experts to generate effective marketing strategies (Hatip 2008).

Benefiting from various disciplines like neurology, marketing, sociology and psychology, neuromarketing focuses on the causes and effects of consumers' irrational decision making especially due to impulsive, emotional and sensual factors at the time of purchasing behaviors, via brain imaging techniques, as well as biometric measurement techniques. Therefore, it is possible to define neuromarketing as measurement of the effects of reactions of the subconscious, especially elements of attention and emotional attraction that influence an individual's mentality, on preferences. From this point of view, neuromarketing tries on one hand to explain that purchasing decisions have not only rational but also irrational aspects, and on the other it aims at contributing to the development of more reliable and informed marketing strategies (Tüzel 2010: 164-165).

Neuromarketing is underpinned by the neuro-scientist Antonio Damasio's claim that "individuals make decisions by using the emotional parts of their brains, and not the rational parts." Accordingly, neuromarketing is inclined towards human beings' mental process, and seeks answers to "why and how they contemplate?" in different situations, while allowing for the resolution of the brain and the nervous system, as well as the direct measurement of thoughts and emotions. Accordingly, neuromarketing can be identified as the neurological examination of both reactions and mental state of an individual when he/she comes across, for instance, a sales message (Özdoğan, Tolon & Eser 2008: 2-3).

Neuromarketing is related to the resolution of marketing problems via methods and findings obtained from brain research. Thanks to advanced neuroimaging techniques applied in the area of neuromarketing, it is possible to directly look at the factors that influence the purchasing

behaviors of consumers (Hubert & Kenning 2008: 272). The main techniques are Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) Technique, Electroencephalography (EEG) Technique, Magnetoencephalography (MEG) Technique, Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) Measurement Technique, Positron Emission Tomography (PET) Technique, Face Reading Technique, and Eye Tracking Technique. Today, as a result of passing on the data obtained by utilizing powerful brain scanning technologies to the area of marketing, determination of consumer mentalities, and what they pay attention to while selecting a product is becoming easier; and this helps in developing more effective marketing strategies (Eser, Korkmaz & Öztürk 2011: 81).

On the other hand, neuromarketing is the process of development of sales methods and generation of strategies by means of taking into consideration the consumer preferences, by revealing things that influence the consciousness and subconscious of consumers (Giray & Girişken 2013: 609). Furthermore, neuromarketing is identified as the measurement of the influence of quantified reactions of the subconscious on preferences especially through the agency of attention, interest and emotional attraction, and sense organs (Yücel & Çubuk 2013: 173).

Neuromarketing is increasingly attracting attention, and some aspects of it that are yet to be discovered, such as what neuromarketing is, what it includes or how it will be used in practice, are continuously sparking off new debates. For example, a *New York Times* article talked about the perceived dangers of neuromarketing, and especially touched upon the possibility that advertisers may in the near future discover a “purchasing button” or a “magical point” in the brain (Blakeslee 2004). While the discussions in the scientific literature are in the direction of how baseless such concerns are (Nature Neuroscience Editorial 2004: 683) since today’s imaging technologies are not suited for correctly estimating consumer decisions (The Lancet Neurology Editorial 2004: 71), there are some opinions regarding the fact that in case this technology reaches a level where it can effectively manipulate consumer behaviors, neuromarketing may one day threaten the autonomy of individual (Murphy, Liles & Reiner 2008: 293).

Neuromarketing is a novel marketing area that utilizes medical technologies such as fMRI- Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Electroencephalography (EEG) in order to study the brain’s reactions to marketing impulses (Zurawicki 2011: 378). In other words, neuromarketing is the process of applying neuroimaging techniques in order to better understand the requests and needs of consumers by discovering the causes that push the consumer towards a particular behavior, and that essentially occur in the subconscious, and the

application, and of developing effective marketing strategies by benefiting from the information obtained.

1.2. Development of Neuromarketing

In the 1960s and 1970s, long before the “neuro” prefix was ever used, it is seen that various neuro-psychological research, such as using EEG (Krugman 1971, pp. 5-7) to measure consumer reactions to television shows, were conducted (Rothschild & Hyun 1990: 473-474). The use of the “neuro” prefix came up for the first time in 1990 with G. Zaltman of Harvard University, when he expressed that he used a fMRI device in marketing research studies; and as a matter of fact in 2000, Zaltman along with Kosslyn, even acquired a patent aimed at using neuroimaging methods as a marketing tool (Zaltman & Kosslyn 2000, US Patent No. 6099319). However, it was Ale Smidts who used neuromarketing as a concept for the first time in 2002 (Ural 2008: 422).

1991 was a significantly important year for neuromarketing. In those years, multinational companies, such as Coca-Cola, Levi’s, Ford, and Google, made large investments in neuromarketing. However, findings of neuromarketing studies conducted for these companies were kept private, and not made public (Çakar 2011).

In 2004, a research study regarding the rate and causes of preferability of Coca-Cola and Pepsi, conducted by using neuromarketing techniques was for the first time generally accepted among researchers (McClure, et al. 2004). In the study, subjects were presented with marked and unmarked Coca-Cola and Pepsi, and asked which one they prefer. When these two soft drinks were presented unmarked, the majority preferred Pepsi. The region in the brain where a movement was observed at the time of preference, was linked with quest for reward, such as a pleasant taste. This is a finding for Pepsi that can be seen as a positive sensory preference; however at that time subjects were tasting unmarked drinks. In a situation where both drinks were actually Coca-Cola, and one of the soft drinks was presented as Coca-Cola while the other one was unmarked, the majority preferred the glass that was marked with Coca-Cola brand. This outcome did not occur in the situation where Pepsi was presented unmarked. In the event of displayed brand, most activities occurred in the *medial prefrontal cortex*. This was an indicator of high cognitive processing. Additionally, the neuroimaging device detected activities in other regions of the brain that were associated with emotional, influential, and cognitive control (Fugate 2007).

As a result of the research, it was revealed what the brain knew about Cola, and feel about Pepsi. When most of the subjects preferred Coca-Cola, they felt they were rewarded. That, in return, reflects the success of Coca-Cola in establishing its marketing strategies. The strong brand image

caused neurological activities in particular regions of the subjects' frontal lobes. These findings were acquired through an fMRI work that was able to conduct high-definition three-dimensional imaging of the layers of the brain. More importantly, this study determined how important product development is in marketing strategies (Fugate 2007).

With the academic studies that directly used the concept of neuromarketing, the commercial interest towards neuromarketing has also increased (Harrison 2008: 305-311) and it also led to the emergence of consultancy companies in this area. So much so that in June 2002, a press release published by an ad agency called *BrightHouse* in Atlanta declared the foundation of the first neuromarketing research company was founded, and that it would use fMRI device in marketing research (BrightHouse Institute 2002). Immediately after this declaration, reactions were received by not only *BrightHouse* but also the Emory University that became a partner to the newly founded research company (Ruskin 2003a). Reactions became the main topic of conversation when it was found out that resources such as university facilities and psychiatry professors were going to be employed for this work (Ruskin 2003b). As a matter of fact, *Commercial Alert*, an anti-ad non-governmental organization, was among those who brought harsh criticisms, and it even applied to the United States Senate for the investigation of *BrightHouse* research studies. In response, the website of the new company *BrightHouse Neurostrategies* was closed immediately, and the company tried to get away from public attention (Canli 2006: 176-177).

On the other hand in 2011, the global research company *The Nielsen Company* has bought with an instant decision the *NeuroFocus* company, which had become the market leader by using neuromarketing in consumer research, and thus unfolded the ever-increasing commercial interest towards using neuromarketing tools in marketing research (Bouryal 2011).

Today several research companies in various countries, for example *CSS/datatelligence* in the USA, *AMR / Advanced Market Research* in England, *Future Thinking France* in France, *Global Vision Research Sdn Bhd* in Malaysia, *GfK* in South Africa, *Global Vox Populi* in India, *Acorn Marketing & Research Consultants* in South Korea, *Axanteus Research* in Singapore, *Didgah Group* in Iran, and *Think Neuro* in Turkey provide research services using tools of neuromarketing (ESOMAR World Research 2017). Although it is not clear what was actually conducted in these research studies since it was not fully explained, it is known that an increasing number of businesses are specifically preferring these methods to be used in any market research (Özçiftci 2013). Even though it is taken for granted that neuromarketing will play an important role in the future of businesses, and that research funds in this particular area will go up in the following years, it is a fact that perception of neuromarketing can

significantly differ, and that differences of opinion and serious debates are on regarding the use of neuroimaging techniques in marketing (Baktır 2012).

1.3. Arguments on Neuromarketing

Alongside those who advocate for the possibility of directly viewing the elements that affect consumers' purchasing behaviors via advanced neuroimaging techniques used in neuromarketing area (Hubert & Kenning 2008: 272), there are those who challenge it. The use of these methods brings along misunderstandings by many, and causes, and leads to neuromarketing to be perceived as a phenomenon that influence and even manipulate the human brain (Yücel & Çubuk 2013: 173).

1.3.1. Opposing Views against Neuromarketing

There are academics who have concerns about the use of neuromarketing techniques in marketing, and even those that are completely against neuromarketing. Researchers who have concerns regarding the credibility of neuromarketing claim that the limited knowledge in the structure and functioning of the brain as one of the biggest challenges creates a constraint to all research studies to be conducted in the area of neuromarketing. Therefore, it is believed that the information obtained regarding how the brain makes a decision cannot fully reflect reality (Medina 2004: 34).

One of the biggest problems to emerge from the fact that technologies are fairly new in terms of marketing are included in the studies conducted (Elliott 2009: 30). It is stated that it is not quite possible to implement these neuro-science techniques in the area of marketing; and even if it is, it is claimed that there are problems with researchers being able to use these techniques (Ural 2008: 422). Additionally, one of the basic limitations in marketing research is, there are those who view the fact that these techniques used, majorly for brain scanning, are not complete and accurate and therefore widely invalid. Therefore it is claimed that the current neuroscientific approach is not sufficient in understanding complex consumer behavior (Medina 2004: 33).

On the other hand, some researchers emphasize that generally neuroscience is dreadful; and claim that finding the "purchasing button" in the brains of consumers and to arrange ad campaigns that they cannot resist would not be ethical (Ural 2008: 423). So much so that there are people who view neuromarketing as the replacement of the art of persuasion with the science of manipulation (Snowball 2008: 31). For example, the previously mentioned NGO, *Commercial Alert*, is among those that brought the most severe criticisms; and claims that both neuromarketing

and the use of fMRI device in marketing is for manipulating the consumer behaviors (Canli 2006: 176).

Another negative criticism brought on neuromarketing is that neuroscience and the science of marketing are quite separate from each other. In this sense, in order to get any kind of efficiency out of these research studies, it is necessary for the two different worlds to collaborate and to manage to act hand in hand. However, aside from researchers in these two scientific areas not being able to understand each other due to not sharing a common language, there are even those who claim that usually researchers hate each other (Tsai 2010: 19).

1.3.2. Supportive Arguments on Neuromarketing

It is possible to associate some of the supportive arguments on neuromarketing with criticisms brought on to traditional decision making model. As it is known, the process that starts with a consumer sensing a need and ends with his/her post-purchase evaluation is called the “purchasing decision process”. Accordingly, the consumer initially feels a need as a result of a disruption that occurs in his/her equilibrium of the current status of his/her life. Then he/she envisions in his/her mind the alternatives they can satisfy this need. Later on, he/she evaluates them in terms of benefit vs cost or benefit vs loss. The purpose of this evaluation is to determine which alternative compared to others is capable of satisfying the need in a more advantageous way, at the moment when the need is felt (Altunışık, Özdemir & Torlak 2006: 62). Therefore, it is assumed that a consumer makes a rational decision in the purchasing process, and that his/her decision making is based on logic-based factors, such as benefit-loss. However, at this point opposing views appear.

The leading view among these is the assessment made by Antonio Damasio approximately 10 years ago, regarding how during the decision making process individuals use not only the rational part of their brains, but also the emotional segments, as well (Eser, Işın & Tolon 2011: 855). Damasio in his study on whether logic or emotions are effective in decision making, has established the “somatic marker” hypothesis, and revealed the neuro-anatomic and cognitive framework in the effects of emotions in decision making. The focus point of this hypothesis was that decision making was influenced by the bio-regulation processes regarding human body, and especially by the marker signals that emerge in emotions that lie behind these. This influence is manifested in humans consciously or subconsciously (Deppe, et al. 2005: 180).

On the other hand, a product is expected to satisfy consumer expectations. It is important to have a product that provide a solution to consumers’ problems, and therefore satisfying them. Such a product also constitutes the basis of corporate success. Right at this point, marketing

research conducted for the sake of product development is crucial (Cooper 1979: 93). It is possible to associate another part of the supportive arguments on neuromarketing with criticisms brought on to the methods of market research. For example, information provided by Ariely and Berns (Ariely & Berns 2010: 284-285) regarding the comparison of areas of use and disadvantages of primary techniques used in marketing research state that in *Focus Group Technique*, one of traditional research methods, there have been issues that are not compatible with statistical analysis, and ending up with non-reliable data when particular patterns of questions are not used. Furthermore, there is a risk of falling into group psychology, and it is speculated that the individual may encounter partial obstacles in self-expression.

While *Survey Technique* is the most frequently used data acquisition method used in social science research studies, and respondents convey their decisions based on their personal opinions. However, even though a survey respondent tries to articulate his/her thoughts orally or in writing, there is always the possibility of encountering obstacles in conveying the full measure of a response as prejudices or emotional factors step in.

In *Representation Methods* that are generally used in product design stages, individuals are requested to make a selection as if they are making a decision in real life. However, the selection decision of individuals here may not be the same as in real life. As a matter of fact, in real life there may be various external environmental factors that are influential, and also emotional factors that are effective in selection decisions may not be expressed verbally.

In *Market Tests*, participants are provided with the condition of making a real selection with their own tangible assets. However, this has the risk of withdrawing a product from the market or making the necessary corrections in the event of a possible error following the release of a product that was designed according to the verbal preferences of participants. In a case like this, additional correction costs may occur as well.

Therefore, there are some nuisances in obtaining the real opinions of consumers on a particular product through traditional marketing research methodologies. Moreover, individuals usually remain incapable of retrospectively scrutinizing their emotions and thoughts in detail, and of explaining them. While neuromarketing inclines to assist businesses in precisely understanding the consumer demands, and in developing appropriate strategies (Robertson & Kassarijian 1991).

Furthermore, according to Zaltman the area of consumer research must be open to collaborating with other disciplines. Under these circumstances, it is possible to suggest that it is not sufficiently open to other areas.

Because current methodologies focus on partially conscious responses to questions addressed to consumers by researchers. At the same time, most research questions are produced inside the minds of researchers, which reflect their own opinions. Therefore in order to make progress in understanding consumer behaviors, setting out on a journey to other areas, and overcoming obstacles in accessing the inner worlds of consumers is a must (Zaltman 2000: 424-426). Furthermore, when traditional consumer research studies are analyzed, it is observed that an individual's decision making process is perceived as a "black box", and various theoretical constructions are made in order to explain their behavior (Michon & Chebat 2008: 288). In this sense, the action of an individual is explained through, for instance, a controlled parameter like price, or uncontrolled parameter like weather. On the other hand, even though for example the individual's reaction towards making a purchase can be observed, it is not possible to see the process of influence that occurs inside the individual, and drives him/her to purchasing or not purchasing (Lehmann, et al. 1974: 43). Generally methods of self-assessment like surveys are used in order to examine this internal process of the individual (Groeppe-Klein 2005: 428).

However, neuromarketing allows for direct observation of individual's decision making process inside the brain, which is seen as a black box, with the help of advanced techniques and brain research methods (Kenning, Plassmann & Ahlert 2007: 136). Even though it is not a new thing to use neurobiological methods like EEG in marketing research, the ever developing imaging techniques like MRI or fMRI that provide the opportunity to directly examine the brain provide researchers with many different findings in relation to factors that influence the decision making processes of consumers (Plassmann, et al. 2007: 154-156).

On the other hand, neuromarketing enables the reevaluation of existing theories, and the development of new theories by means of researching real brain activities. What is more, the continuously advancing technologies in the area of neuroimaging are able to overcome the methodological problems encountered in the existing approaches (Yoon, et al. 2006: 32). Currently thanks to methods of neuroimaging, the cerebral functions of the individual can be analyzed while he/she chooses between several brands (Deppe, et al. 2005: 172) or when finding a particular car design attractive (Erk, et al. 2002: 2500), and this deems what they feel during the process of decision making redundant to individuals. As a matter of fact information obtained through neuroimaging methods are a lot more detailed and meaningful than what the individual can convey.

Another argument claimed and emphasized by the supporters of neuromarketing is the fact that neurological relations are now measurable thanks to the methods used. This way, it is possible to observe outcomes

such as real customer satisfaction or real brand loyalty. Furthermore, thanks to measuring these relations, it will be possible to study the psychological status of the individual (Lee, Broderick & Chamberlain 2007: 203).

2. Application Areas of Neuromarketing

Researchers are able to use neuromarketing in testing, comparing and re-adapting several factors, such as customer choice, customer satisfaction and brand loyalty, with regards to the purchasing behaviors of consumers. This way the effects of various factors are better clarified via the techniques of neuromarketing (Fugate 2007: 385).

2.1. Effectiveness of Advertisement and Neuromarketing

Testing ad campaigns and measuring their effectiveness is the most frequently used area by neuromarketing. The advertisement effectiveness is measured not only for companies but also for non-profit organizations as well. As in the advertising measurement study conducted by the Turkish neuromarketing company *Affectspots* for ODTU, it is possible to determine which scenes arouse excitement, interest or mentally alienate the audience in the ads that are analyzed using neuromarketing techniques (Affectspots 2017). That way, it is possible to remove scenes from TV commercials that do not interest or emotionally affect the audience, and considering advertising rates around \$250 per second, large cost savings are becoming possible (Tempaş Medya Reklam Pazarlama 2017).

Neuromarketing applications reveal which parts of the brain is activated by advertising. For instance, the activation of *medial prefrontal cortex* that is located in the frontal lobe of the brain that performs the function of abstract thinking, reasoning, planning and self-assessment, known to be associated with the sense of self and preference indicates that a particular visual was highly appreciated in terms of advertisement. Therefore when marketing experts determine that visuals of the product that is advertised is closely associated with this area, they will find the opportunity to improve the probability of preference of the product as well (Eser, Işın & Tolon 2011: 860).

On the other hand, at the time when subjects are watching the ad visuals of the product, estimations can be made regarding their subconscious inclinations of opinion depending on the regions of the brain that got active. By means of the analysis data obtained, emotions such as excitement, passion, humor that were felt by subjects about the ad can be compared with the regions of the brain that were activated by these motions. The lack of activation of the brain regions that are linked with the relevant emotion indicates the ad's failure of the test (Fugate 2007: 388).

Additionally, it was observed in various research outcomes where brain activities are monitored while subjects are shown TV commercials, that activations in the frontal and side lobes of the brain allows for making inferences regarding remembering or forgetting an ad. Accordingly, it was determined that the activation created in the relevant regions of the brain by the ads recalled later on was higher than those that were forgotten (Khushaba, et al. 2013: 3803).

The analysis of the emotions evoked in the audiences by the ad generally via the EEG method is frequently seen in research. It is argued that the sentiment analysis to be made about products that are not familiar to the consumer can be viewed much more effectively and in terms of milliseconds with an EEG device. In studies that used EEG device, it is indicated that the additional use of eye tracking technique and the video recording of the observations have importance in terms of the reliability of the data to be obtained. This way, emotions, such as excitement, attention, interest and emotional challenge (resistance) that are evoked by the relevant ad in the audience can be interpreted by being converted into quantitative data. The use of two methods together ensures a more efficient testing of the ad, and the increase of its credibility.

When situations where the product is familiar are tackled within the scope of neuromarketing, fMRI technology is considered more appropriate in the measurement of reactions felt towards the relevant product brand. Because the subject is informed of the product, and generally relates to the product in his/her life. In order to observe the emotional responses evoked in the subject by the familiar brand, as well as the reasoning process regarding the brand, it is necessary to go into deeper structures than the brain's superficial levels. Because the detection of phenomena like decision making by reasoning, loyalty, rewarding, appreciation, punishment occur in the strings of relations located in the much deeper levels of the brain, and only the fMRI devices are able to make successful measurements (Khushaba et al. 2013: 3803-3805).

Furthermore, there are neuromarketing studies that research the use of celebrities in ads. For example, Stallen et al. studied whether perception of product that takes shape in relation to the fame of the celebrity is supported by the neural activities in the brain. In conclusion, it was scientifically proven that using a celebrity in ads is a lot more effective than using a non-celebrity in the ads, and the study established a connection between the activation of the part of *orbitofrontal cortex*, located in the frontal lobe, towards the center, and the positive emotions aroused by the celebrity. This way, it was implied that the positive interaction developed in the audience as a result of using celebrity, is transferred from the celebrity to the individual. Another striking point of the study is the fact that in some rare cases some celebrities have the risk of evoking negative prejudices in some

of the audience due to personal reasons. It is emphasized that in the process of creating an ad, this particular risk must also be taken into consideration (Stallen et al. 2010: 809-810).

2.2. Customer Satisfaction, Customer Loyalty, and Neuromarketing

There are studies that reveal that satisfaction is a short-term phenomenon that even a satisfied customer may leave the business under normal circumstances, and point at the brain of the consumer as the reason that lies beneath this contradiction. In this framework, Fugate states in one of his studies that the brain tends to quickly adapt to a new stimulus, and react to only unexpected things, and he explains this as the neurological description for why marketing experts obliged to make bigger efforts than necessary rather than simply satisfying consumers (Fugate 2007: 390).

On the other hand, business that rely on the fact that as the consumer's trust in a product increase, the probability and/or frequency of purchasing it will also increase, are making an effort in establishing trust in the consumer by expressions that reflect social benefit, such as 'organic product' or 'fair trade'. While neuromarketing studies the trust towards the product in different levels compared to traditional marketing research. So much so that the neuromarketing methods are able to provide significant insight on the nature and development of trust phenomenon. In this manner, neuromarketing on one hand brings suggestions regarding which factors the customer loyalty originate from, and on the other makes measurements regarding whether a particular brand actually created loyalty in the individual or not by means of various techniques, and enables objective estimations and interpretations on this subject (Lee, Broderick & Chamberlain 2007: 202).

Research conducted in this area discovered the parts of the regions of the brain that causes a particular brand to be the first choice. In one of the studies, it was determined that the *ventromedial* sections of the right and left parts of the *prefrontal cortex* located in the frontal lobe of the brain are responsible for the inclusion of emotions in the decision making process, and reached the conclusion that especially the emotions evoked in the individual are influential in the first choice brand decisions. Accordingly, this study confirms the fact that "the *ventromedial* regions in the brain are associated with monetary rewards" which was concluded by other research studies conducted via the fMRI technique. The study determined that the first choice brand decision has the characteristic of a reward and evokes positive emotions in the individual (Michael Deppe et al. 2005).

2.3. Movies, TV Shows, and Neuromarketing

Neuromarketing is used in the entertainment business such as in movies and TV shows, and this way film producers and TV channel directors can have a foresight regarding the emotions aroused on their audience by their broadcast. In light of the data obtained in this way, it is possible to make arrangements such as to remove the uninteresting scenes from the whole work.

Uri Hasson, a psychology professor at Princeton University, states based on his fMRI studies that film genres like horror, thriller, action cause high levels of activation in the *amygdala* region of the brain, which controls emotions like fear and anger, in the brains of the audiences. The researcher claims that film producers can juggle with some things in the movies, leading to some editing changes in order to maximize the *amygdala* activations in the audience members, therefore produce movies that would provoke more reactions (Randall 2011).

As a matter of fact, in a 2007 focus group research conducted in England, the participants were asked to vote for the game show 'Quizmania', which was claimed to have been disliked by many, in various degrees in the form of 'good' or 'bad', and 30% of participants indicated that they 'strongly hate' the show, or find it to be 'an awful show'. The fMRI analysis results additionally conducted for the TV show showed the opposite, and detected activities that suggest that participant actually like the show. Therefore, when audiences are asked about their acclaims regarding TV shows and movies, the responses have the risk of not reflecting the truth, however it is foreseen that this risk can be minimized by the neuromarketing techniques (Kotler 2010: 65-66).

In conclusion, through fMRI studies on movies and TV shows, activities in some regions of the brain can be detected and interpretations can be made regarding the emotions that they arouse in the audience (Hasson et. al. 2008: 452). However, it is important to keep in mind that not all movies subjected to neuromarketing analyses will lead to efficient results. Likewise, while action or horror movies may cause a distinct activity in the brain, dormant or monotone movies do not create activities in the brain as high as these (Ariely & Berns 2010: 289).

2.4. Politics and Neuromarketing

Efforts to persuade constituents towards any candidate or a party in political marketing can be likened to the efforts of persuading the consumer into purchasing a product. Political marketing can also be used in order to prepare better candidates by acquiring more insights. Therefore neuromarketing is applicable in the area of politics, which is perhaps the biggest of all marketing campaigns (Ariely & Berns 2010: 290). When

election campaign archives are examined, it is seen that the presidential prime ministry campaign in at least three continents have applied to the science of neuromarketing in order to scan people's brains, bodies and faces with an effort to increase emotional communication between candidates and their constituents (Randall 2015).

The *FFK Applied Research* consultancy company founded by the strategy expert Tom Freedman, one of senior advisors of the Clinton administration in the USA, have focused on decision making processes, and studying how the brain react to leadership traits. During the 2003 presidential race, the President George W. Bush and the Massachusetts Senator John Kerry have used the fMRI technique in order to measure the public reaction against the campaign ads (Lindstrom 2009: 36). During the research, the subjects were shown a compilation of ads prepared for Bush and Kerry. Among these were the images of the September 11 terrorist attack to the World Trade Center, and the infamous 1964 'daisy' ad for the former president Lyndon Johnson, along with the pictures of both candidates. In the ad, while a little girl is plucking the daisy petals, a nuclear bomb is exploding. As a result of the research, a significant activation is observed in the *amygdala* that dominates the subjects' feelings of fear, anxiety, and terror at the time of viewing the September 11 images and the 'daisy' ad. Additionally, it was determined during the experiment that the republicans and democrats showed different reactions to the images of September 11. So much so that the *amygdalas* of democrat subjects lighted up a lot more significantly compared to those of republicans. Marco Iacobini, the research leader from the Neuropsychiatry Institute, associated this discrepancy with the fear of democrats regarding the possibility that incident of September 11 could be the breaking point that may lead to George W. Bush's reelection in 2004. The chairman of the company, Freedman, added to this theory the commentary that the idea of a military power evoked by September 11 disturbed democrats more than it did republicans. What is more striking in the experiment is that the research study has demonstrated that the scanning of the *amygdalas* of constituents may be quite useful in the preparation of campaign ads. Besides, the 'daisy' ad of Johnson has enabled him to triumph in the 1964 elections, by using his fear of a nuclear war. 40 years later, this time the fear of terror enabled republicans to win the 2004 elections. Consequently, despite the widespread use of optimism, hope, structuring rather than disintegration, and unification in political ads, fear have turned the scales; because this is an emotion that is recalled by the brain (Lindstrom 2009: 37).

According to the founder and the CEO of a Turkish neuromarketing company in Turkey, the Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu and the Justice and Development Party (AKP) have contracted them for the June 2015

elections. Accordingly, the relevant neuromarketing company have implemented various techniques such as monitoring brain waves, eye, face, skin and heart rate, on volunteers in its Istanbul laboratories. Based on the results, the company have warned Davutoglu about the fact that he did not build emotional connections with the constituents in his speeches. As a matter of fact, AKP experienced a major loss of votes in the June elections, while it won the 2015 early elections (Randall, 2015).

On the other hand, it has been studied whether neuromarketing can also be used in order to design a political candidate. Even though the potential candidates will go through the sorting process by the party administration, it is considered that this decision is worth the test. Therefore, neuromarketing studies can determine the mechanisms originating from the positive or negative reactions, such as liking, evasion, establishment of affection in the brains of the target market, and it is foreseen that measures can be taken such as updating the message contents or change of candidates.

In that sense, research studies are conducted regarding the fact that factors such as the appearance, credibility of the political candidate, as well as the message he/she will convey may influence the decisions of constituents; remarkable neuromarketing studies are performed by focusing on characteristics such as perception of human face, attraction, asymmetry, and skin tone (Tsao & Livingstone 2008: 412-413). Another study conducted regarding the effects of appearances of political candidates determined that when subjects are shown the picture of another candidate who was associated with the candidate who is most likely to lose, a reactional activation is observed in their brains (Spezio et al. 2008: 344-346). While a similar reactional activity is observed when subjects are shown the candidate of a political party they do not support (Kaplan, Freedman & Iacoboni 2007: 55).

2.5. Architecture and Neuromarketing

Recently an increasing number of neuromarketing experts and architects are becoming interested in the brain's experience with architecture. This interest becomes crucial especially in terms of neurological reactions guiding the architectural design process. The neuromarketing techniques may lead to the generation of authentic designs, and the improvement of emotions they may evoke in individuals (Eberhard 2009: 753).

On the other hand the phenomenon of virtual reality allows for the experience of an architectural practice, and useful findings are obtained through an fMRI scanner. The subject feels the stimulus as real through the scenario generated by the method of virtual reality, and an activity occurs in the brain accordingly. This method is used in order to understand the

neurological activities that emerge in the brain while, for example, driving a car (Calhoun et al. 2002).

Another study conducted by using neuromarketing techniques examined the neurological reactions that occur in the brain towards buildings. The study aims at comparing the mechanisms that are activated in the brain by architectural structures that are deemed important in the society, with the regions activated in the brain by architectural structures that are planned to be built or under construction. In this way, in light of the techniques used and the findings obtained, the development of more effective marketing strategies is anticipated with regards to the promotional activities of the structures that are subject to particularly commercial operations. It is implied that this can also be applied to promotions in the area of tourism (Gorno-Tempini & Price 2001).

3. Conclusion

In today's world identified as the "Digital Age", changes that occur in social structures, as well as their reflections, coupled with the acceleration of technological developments, are becoming influential in the consumer behaviors and their purchasing decisions. Today, the fact that several goods and services that are very similar to each other cannot be differentiated in the consumer's mind, is a factor that increases the severity of competition. This situation directs marketing experts to develop and implement new methods and techniques, which at that point makes "Neuromarketing" quite crucial.

Benefiting from various disciplines like neurology, marketing, sociology and psychology, neuromarketing focuses on the causes and effects of consumers' irrational decision making especially due to impulsive, emotional and sensual factors at the time of purchasing behaviors, via brain imaging techniques, as well as biometric measurement techniques. Therefore, it is possible to define neuromarketing as measurement of the effects of reactions of the subconscious, especially elements of attention and emotional attraction that influence an individual's mentality, on preferences. From this point of view, neuromarketing tries on one hand to explain that purchasing decisions have not only rational but also irrational aspects, and on the other it aims at contributing to the development of more reliable and informed marketing strategies.

Today researchers are able to use neuromarketing in testing, comparing and re-adapting several factors, such as customer choice, customer satisfaction and brand loyalty, with regards to the purchasing behaviors of consumers. This way the effects of various factors are better clarified via the techniques of neuromarketing.

Besides, neuromarketing is used in the entertainment business such as in movies and TV shows, and this way film producers and TV channel directors can have a foresight regarding the emotions aroused on their audience by their broadcast. In light of the data obtained in this way, it is possible to make arrangements such as to remove the uninteresting scenes from the whole work.

What is more, while neuromarketing can be utilized in politics, which is arguably the largest marketing field, neuromarketing techniques can guide the emergence of authentic designs in architecture and improve the feelings that architectural works arouse in individuals.

Even though it is taken for granted that neuromarketing will play an important role in the future of businesses, and that research funds in this particular area will go up in the following years, it is a fact that perception of neuromarketing can significantly differ, and that differences of opinion and serious debates are on regarding the use of neuroimaging techniques in marketing.

Without question, neuromarketing is not an answer to everything. As a young scientific area, it is limited to our current inadequacy in understanding the human brain. However, our comprehension of how the subconscious direct our behaviors improves every day, and leading researchers all around the world today are paving the way for this science. And this situation negates denial of the truth of neuromarketing, in spite of all the opposing views suggested.

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ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

THE ROLE OF LEADER ON THE EFFICIENCY OF TEAM WORK

Aslı KÖSE ÜNAL*

Introduction

The change that economic and social environment has been exposed since the 1990s caused crucial changes in the structures and management strategies of the organizations. Teamwork implementations, among these changes, have begun to appear within basic needs of organizations. The recent developments have caused team implementations become widespread and come to light as a philosophy and practice inevitably being supported by the management (Ergun Özler & Koparan, 2006: 20).

Teamwork has an important role in health institutions as it has in other organizations. Health service, with high level of contact, is different from other kinds of services with its characteristics such as it cannot be postponed, it doesn't accept any fault, and it cannot be substituted. Moreover, since it is a service type, in which different types of expertise come together for production, teamwork is fundamental for the health institutions in service delivery (Borrill et al., 2000: 35). Effective teamwork in health institutions helps decreasing the costs, the time spent in the hospital, provides a better accessibility for the patients, and increases satisfaction (Mickan, 2005: 211).

In this study, the effect of the surgery team leader on the team members is evaluated. The positive or negative effects of positive or negative behaviors of the team leaders on the job performances of the team members were determined via observations and interviews. Although the result of the study cannot be generalized due to sample limitation, it is determined to be supportive for the literature. Since there is not a similar research in the national literature, this study aims to be a guide for the future research studies.

1. Conceptual Framework

1.1. Leader in the Teamwork

Harmonizing the workers with the organizational policies in an organization highlights the understanding of leadership in the organization. The leader plays important roles in the organization in balancing between the institution and the workers and encouraging them. The leader is the individual, who is responsible for motivating the workers to increase

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organizational efficiency. The view that the success of the organization depends on the success of the workers should not be ignored by the leader (Önen & Kanaryan, 2015: 45).

The teams that are formed by the workers of the organizations are important structures that perform the business processes in achieving the objectives of the organization. The effectiveness criteria of the work produced by these teams include the evaluation of the team performance by the leaders and the total satisfaction criteria of the team member. One of the content variables determining the team effectiveness, the leadership is particularly important in multi-team systems, in which different teams cooperate for producing the desired product. In this point, the leaders should empower them by delegating responsibility to the teams, and play a simplifying role by ensuring that the teams are working together with, not against each other. The teams with effective delegation and shared leadership, are more efficient compared to the single-leader teams (Robbins & Judge, 2013:312).

The leader should be perceived by the members as the individual, who is resolute in decision-making, who can collaborate with the top management, and who leads the team when needed. The team leader should take the lead by developing an understanding and accepted principles that contribute to the success of the team. Among these principles should be examples to be applied in the team, criteria to evaluate the success, standards to decide the quality of the performance, and a defined rewarding system to appreciate the success of the team. In the light of abovementioned factors, when the common features of the leaders are examined, the leader can be defined as an individual, who has the ability to manage the interpersonal relations, who knows to manage not only the individuals but also the information, who never loses self-belief and self-confidence, who is diligent, who cares development of culture of democracy and participatory management, who can be glad with the success of the workers, who guides as a visionary and an actor of change, and who creates excitement and commitment in the organization (Ince et al., 2004: 444).

The quality of the product that the leader and the members produce together can be evaluated as part of the leader member interaction. Today, not only managing the workers, but also working with them by means of an effective communication has gained importance. As a result, the leader-member interaction approach, which examines the mutual interaction of the leader and the subordinate, is still in use today. One of the important factors affecting the mutual interaction of the leader and the subordinate is confidence. Confidence, which cannot be created in a sudden but is formed in a certain period, is a structure existing in an important dimension of the organizational environment (Besen & Aktaş, 2017: 696). Apart from the

confidence factor, the expectations of the workers from their leaders and from their organization have changed in parallel with the change of the business world. Determining the expectations of the workers from their leaders and organization, is a subject of many research in the human resources. According to a previous research study, it was determined that the Y generation attached more importance to leadership and teamwork (Yıldırım & Öztürk, 2015:357).

The leadership capacity of the teams is an essential feature for the business outputs in the performance loops as the results of working and learning process of the team (Day et al., 2004:858). As is in other organizations, the service is produced via teamwork in the hospital organizational structure, which is one of the important labor-intensive health service providers. Although quality business output produced by teamwork is an expected competence for the organizations, the competence in the teamwork in health domain is vital. The most important reason of this is that the health services do not accept any fault. Effective teamwork is defined as a prerequisite for improved clinical outcomes in health services provision (Leggat, 2007:18). In a research study conducted on health domain, it was determined that the leadership styles influenced the team performance in highly heterogeneous teams (Somech, 2006:132).

The quality of the teamwork is one of the factors influencing the patient security in the hospitals. Particularly in hospitals, where there are individuals working together with many different fields of expertise, it is essential for the team effectiveness that each team member has an approach of fulfilling his/her professional responsibility. Considering that they have the authority to decide on their own, the doctors traditionally might have a dominant approach within the team. This can cause communication problems, job dissatisfaction, and mistakes regarding the other health workers in the team (Hamman, 2004: 73). In a study conducted on the quality of communication and cooperation of the surgery teams, the participants were asked to define the quality of communication and cooperation they experienced with the other members of the team. The surgeons received the least votes, while the nurses received the most in the team work. Moreover, the researchers attributed some faults, such as conducting the surgery on a wrong organ on the patient's body by mistake, to weak teamwork. In another study, in which the members of the surgery team participated in Scotland, it was determined that the surgeons had more positive attitude, concerning leadership and communication, compared to the nurses and the assistant surgeons (Flin et al.,2006:147). In another study evaluating the effects of some factors such as fault, tiredness, and stress on the teamwork, it was determined that the superior members of the team were close to information coming from the subordinates, and 55 % of the surgeons denied the hierarchy. Moreover, the team members

did not accept faults originated from low performance due to stress or tiredness (Sexton et al., 2001:747).

There are numerous studies on leadership and teamwork in the literature. According to the content analysis, it was determined that communication, coordination, and leadership behaviors provided high performance by means of supporting the effectiveness of the teamwork (Manser, 2009:145). The difference of this study is that it evaluates teamwork in a training research hospital and adopts observation and interview as the method. Although the results of the study cannot be generalized, it is aimed to be a guide for future studies in this field. In this purpose, the research question was determined as "What is the role of the team leader in the effectiveness of the team?" and the study was conducted to find the answer of this question.

2. Methodology of the Study

2.1. Objective of the Study

The objective of the study is to evaluate the effect of team leaders on the effectiveness of the surgery teams.

2.2. Sample of the Study

A training and research hospital, which provides health service in Trabzon city, was chosen as the sample of the study. The reason of picking up a training and research hospital is that the domain of surgery teams is observable. The observation and interview process was conducted by the researcher.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

Observation and interview methods, which are among the qualitative research methods, were used in the research. The surgery teams were observed for 5 work days in between 08.21.2017-08.25.2017, 30 hours in total. Organizing appointments with the participants, the interviews were conducted in between 08.28.2017-08.29.2017.

The participants were not informed about the topic of the interviews beforehand. An observation form, which was prepared beforehand, was used during the observation. In the observation form, besides the information of the surgery team that was observed, there was a part, in which the teamwork attitudes (Reader et al., 2009: 1790) were evaluated as positive/negative via classifying in four groups as team communication, team leadership, team coordination, and team decision making. The data obtained during the observation was recorded in the relevant parts with notes. In the interview part of the research, the participants were asked to evaluate their team leaders. The interview form is composed of 3 questions, focusing on the field of interest. The questions (1) The role of the leader in

the teamwork, (2) How does the team leader influence the job performance?, and lastly (3) What are the expectations from the team leader? The team members were coded as doctor (D), assistant doctor (A), and nurse (H). During the data analysis period, the records of the observations and interviews were organized and turned into written texts. In data analysis, codes and themes were created via Nvivo program.

2.4. The Findings of the Research Study and Evaluations

During the 30-hour time period, the surgery teams were evaluated in team communication, team leadership, team coordination, and team decision-making dimensions. Since there was stress and tension in the work environment of the teams, there were problems in communication and coordination business processes. The effect of hierarchical structure was observed in the team leadership and team decision-making dimensions. The team leader shared information with the doctors and assistant doctors, however, decided individually in decision-making process. During the problematic cases, the members of the team displayed attitudes by performing their professional roles according to the instructions of the team leader.

In the interviews with the team members, answers were sought for the questions regarding evaluation of the team leader's effectiveness. Statement examples are as follows.

D1: "The leader leads the team. (His/her) role in guiding the team is vital. Our profession does not accept any fault. The team leader guides us with this perspective."

A1: "Providing health service is difficult. The work never ends in the hospitals. In order not to be lost among the unending workload, the leader is vital in our profession. Without him/her, you cannot refresh yourself."

H1: "In the operation rooms, you can produce both good work and bad work, I mean mistakes... Your mistake may cost a human life. The role of the leader appears in this point. The real leaders are the ones, who work together with the team with high motivation."

D2: "You are lucky if you have a leader, who says 'us' instead of 'me'. Unfortunately, it is not always possible."

A2: "Learning never ends in our profession. Unfortunately, we learn by conducting the right and wrong. It is the team leader who prevents you from doing mistakes. (He/She) enlightens your path."

H2: "(His/her) role in guiding the team is vital. Our profession does not accept faults. The team leader guides us with this perspective."

H3: "We are working together with different professions. (His/her) role in the coordination and cooperation of the team is important."

D3: "The leader leads the work. The approach of the leader is important. Although we have individual professional roles, we are working as a team. Our job is health, there is no place for faults."

When the statements of the team members regarding the role of the leader in the teamwork were examined, it was determined that they cared about the role of the leader with regards to the significance of the profession. The team leader was defined as a member of the team by the doctors, as a role model by the assistant doctors, and a supporter of the teamwork by the nurses. In a study conducted with participation of 145 surgery team members, it was determined that the attitudes regarding leadership featured to be hierarchical (Aydemir & Yıldırım, 2016: 66). The operation rooms, where the surgery teams provide health service, are high-risk environments. Providing the coordination and information share, the role of the surgery team leader is important in risk reduction.

When the statements about how the leader influenced the job performances of the members were examined, it was determined that the attitudes of the team leader influenced positive or negative. It was determined that there were problems such as stress and tension in 30% of the observed communication processes during the surgical operations in the operation room (Lingard et al., 2004: 334). Experienced problems such as stress in the working environments causes motivational decrease and negative influences on job performance. The examples of statements regarding the effect of the team leader on the job performances of the team members are as follows.

D4: "If my team leader doesn't create stress, I focus on my profession more easily, which increases my job performance."

H4: "The attitudes of the leader influence my motivation, which affects my job performance positive or negative."

A3: "Sometimes something goes wrong in the work. The leader gets angry in such cases, displaying aggressive behaviors. Actually, this is because of the significance of the profession. When the leader regains control over the work and solves the problem, all of the team members are influenced positively."

D5: "If the leader is nervous or angry, I mean, due to some reason out of work, my job performance is influenced negatively."

A4: "I am in the learning process. Attitudes of some leaders can cause me take dislike to my job. Sometimes I question myself. Could I choose another job?"

H5: "Sometimes I feel the effect of hierarchy, more than the professional roles. I mean, it cannot be accepted as teamwork. There is no

success or reward, but punishment. This approach, only reminds me that I have to do my job. My job performance is influenced negatively."

The expectations of the team members regarding their professional roles in the teams differ due to professionalism expectation in the doctors, trust and understanding expectation in the assistant doctors, and fairness expectation in the nurses. In previous research studies on evaluation of the teamwork effectiveness, different evaluations were determined based on various professions of the team members (Sexton et al., 2006: 878; Makary et al., 2006: 748). Concerning communication, 33 % of the doctors evaluated the nurses as positive, while 73 % of the nurses evaluated the doctors as positive (Thomas et al., 2003: 957). While the team members perform different professional roles based on their different professions, they also perform inter-related works at the same time. It should be aimed to reach the desired performance outputs via providing team interaction based on the coordination strategy of the team leader. In the collaborative work process, the team members close the gaps in the abilities of the individuals with the leader roles (Ataseven & Yilmaz, 2013: 422).

The answers regarding the evaluations about the team leaders are as follows.

D6: "It is important for me to work with a leader who has stress and anger control. Because he/she is the leader of the team."

H6: "(He/She) should treat each member of the team fairly. Discriminating or hierarchical treating does not fit to teamwork."

A6: "(He/She) should be understanding towards the assistants, all in all we are students."

D7: "(He/She) should not take the private life issues to work, in brief, should be professional."

H7: "(He/She) should have the team spirit, and should be able to share the failure as well as success."

A7: "(He/She) should give confidence. (He/She) should be well equipped in knowledge. We are putting theoretical knowledge into practice under the guidance of the leader. My trust in the leader might be a guide to improve myself."

The themes, which were generated according to the answers of the participants to the research questions. Based on the evaluations of the participants, three themes were determined as manager, guide, and coordinator for the roles of the team leader. It was determined that the team leader influenced the job performances of the team members positively or negatively, and this case could cause an increase or a decrease in the job performance. In the expectations of the team members from the team

leaders, the themes were categorized as professionalism, anger and stress control, understanding, fairness, trust, and team spirit approaches.

4. Conclusion

According to the observations of this research study, in the sample operating rooms there is an approach, in which the members try to perform their professional roles rather than teamwork. Although the team leader's approach generally has a hierarchical effect, the doctors and assistant doctors are consulted and evaluations are made during the decision-making process. As the conclusion of the interviews, it is determined that the team leader has an important role in providing effectiveness of the teamwork, and there are expectations from the leader such as professionalism, stress control, understanding, fairness, and giving confidence. It is suggested that teamwork awareness trainings be organized for the team leaders in the sample, and the team members together with the team leaders should attend the trainings. It is planned for the next research study to evaluate the role of the team leaders on effectiveness of the transplantation teams.

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PHILOSOPHY

VISUALITY OF THE BODY AS A MODERN VALUE

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Introduction

One of the fundamental aspects of anything beautiful is that it allures people. Humankind has been attracted to beauty ever since it came into being. Throughout the history, beauty has been a main area of interest and a great value; however, there is no consensus on where to find it and how or in what form it appears. The modern world attaches importance to the outer beauty of everything including humans. Today, beauty is reduced to the level of mere objects, and it is detached from its mental, spiritual, and moral aspects, which is a relatively new phenomenon. In the ancient world and the Middle Ages, however, the mind and spirit were valued, so these two elements were considered the cornerstones of true beauty. Democritus explained this emphasis on the spirit briefly and aptly: “What matters to humankind is not the body but the soul, which should be taken as the basis for rationalism” (Narrated by Kristeva, 2007: 12). Similarly, Plato also posits that negligence of one’s soul causes a person to lead a miserable life (Plato, 2001: 43).

1. Body, Soul, and Beauty in the Past

A dualist understanding dominated the ancient world and the Middle Ages with regards to the body and soul. The soul was perceived as the superior of the two while far less value was attributed to the body. The Western tradition to be suspicious of the body dates back to the time of philosophers like Pythagoras who lived even before Socrates (Le Breton, 2016: 9). Plato, who has noteworthy opinions on the body and soul relationship and beauty, is a notable thinker in that his views have been influential and determining. Although, for him, the body is the grave where the soul was buried (Plato, 2000: 44), he admits the body benefits from beauty. A person in search of the truth must first fall in love with a beautiful body, form rational thoughts about beauty, and then come to terms with the fact that beauty does not belong to that body only but is found in others as well. This person is struck by the beauty of the body and, later, sees the beauty in customs and laws. Only then does the person realize that physical beauty matters little. Plato ascribes beauty to bodies, habits, and knowledge, which are no different than the steps of a staircase. The person uses beauty as a stepping stone, exploring different kinds of beauty, switching from beautiful bodies to beautiful habits and from beautiful habits to beautiful information. The person then reaches beauty itself (true beauty) and finally comprehends divine beauty (Plato, 2007: 153-159).

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Plato points out that there is a close link between beauty and the truth and believes that a person who sees beauty remembers what the truth is (Plato, 2017: 57).

For Plato, beauty does not come down to the visible. In ancient Greece, beauty was not perceived as an entity separate from the mind and morals, and Plato was no exception to this. Like him, Aristotle associated beauty with benevolence. His concept of *arete* combines moral, scientific, political, physical, and visual perfection (Farrelly, 2015: 53). It thus should not be surprising to know that a wiry, handsome young man was considered inferior to a less attractive but more virtuous and courageous man because aptitude enjoyed a higher status than physical beauty. In that era, reason, discussion, and self-development never became detached from aesthetics. The term *Kaloskagathos* (beautiful and good) reflects this close link between the beauty of the soul and body (Sagaert, 2017: 25). As beauty was associated with morality, even Socrates, who was hideous for want of a better word, was said to be ‘gleaming’ because of his inner beauty (Kesim and Kar, 2016: 195).

In time, this cynical attitude toward the body turned even more negative and became common. For example, Plotinus became ashamed of having a body (Hadot, 2016: 21), which is a result of such an attitude. Gnostics also adopted this negative attitude toward the body and, going one step further, considered the body a terrible entity. They believe that the soul is trapped by the body where it wastes away. The skin is a piece of stinky cursed meat that is bound to age, be distorted by illness, and eventually be destroyed by death (Le Breton, 2016: 10). The adoption of the first doctrine of sin in Christianity reinforced already strong negative sentiments toward the body. The common belief in the Middle Ages held that the body was the land of the Devil; it was a cursed area where dirt, sins, and blasphemy were profuse (Köse, 2010: 156). Accordingly, actions taken to beautify the body were associated directly with lust and arrogance, hence considered sins. Anything created by God was deemed natural, while anything artificial was regarded as the Devil’s doing (Paquet, 2015: 32). The negative attitude toward the body, which dates back to the time before Socrates, pinnacle in the Christian Middle Ages.

2. Beauty in the Modern World

The philosophy that places greater emphasis on the soul rather than the body was superseded in the 19th century by the secular understanding that brings outer beauty forward and claims that the beauty of the body is independent from inner beauty (Çabuklu, 2007: 137). The body gained such importance at the turn of the 20th century that “bodyism” came to the fore. Today, unprecedented significance is placed on the body (Sagaert, 2017: 139). The fact that personal care has never been cherished so much

in another epoch (Vigarello, 2013: 143) is directly related to the importance of the body.

With the rediscovery of the body after the thousand year Puritanism period, the body became a common theme in advertisements, fashion, media, and mass culture, which is why body-related healthcare, dieting, treatment methods, youth, being slim (İnceoğlu and Kar, 2016: 77-78), and plastic surgery were legitimized by many people. As Baudrillard put it, the body replaced the soul in terms of morality and ideology (Baudrillard, 2004: 163), and the body became a priority and an element of entertainment (Bauman, 2014: 242). Making it look more beautiful and keeping it health are now the main objectives of societies (Köse, 2010: 162). In order to reach these goals, people let their bodies be guided by cosmetic, dietetic, and shaping regimes in the 20th century (Ory, 2013: 107).

Individuals who make efforts to beautify their bodies are automatically coerced into carrying out certain tasks. Regular exercise, a balanced diet, daily and yearly activities, and an ever-expanding list of don'ts gradually make up their routines. Fat removal, abdominoplasty, rhytidoplasty, rhinoplasty, nostril reduction, hair transplantation, skin resurfacing, and operations for enlargening or shrinking organs have become quite common. Whereas these procedures were only popular among TV and movie stars in the past, many people from all walks of life including ordinary housewives and students currently wish to undergo surgery. The common goal here is to beautify the body.

3. Beauty in the Woman

The term beauty, which had possessed a spiritual and moral meaning in the past, was reduced to “the body, particularly the woman body” as the body turned into an entity (Kesim and Kar, 2016: 191), which is why the first thing that comes to mind is an attractive female body when the word beauty is uttered (Kesim and Kar, 2016: 198). What is beautiful is a body that “undergoes plastic surgery, trains in the gym, and is shaped with makeup and the latest fashion” (Bauman, 2010: 185). The age we live in is the age of “beauty” where one's looks are revered as the only truth (Bauman, 2017: 136). The ideal body in this age is young, flexible, tanned, tight skinned, hygienic, slim and fit. The skin must be flat and bright without any trace of wrinkles or blemishes. Having perfect lines and looking shiny are two essential things. The body possessing these qualities resembles elegant packaging (Çabuklu, 2004: 102-103). Being beautiful means being a part of ‘the market of faces and bodies’ (Paquet, 2015: 89).

It is interesting that particularly women come to mind in the discussions of body while both males and females have bodies. The primary reason for that is that the beauty and ugliness of men and women are judged according

to the link between the soul and body on the basis of gender. Masculine beauty and ugliness are evaluated based more on the soul rather than the body, whereas the criterion for feminine beauty and ugliness is predominantly physical (Sagaert, 2017: 29-30). This distinction between the soul and material leads to possible variations in the judgement of beauty and ugliness. While the basis for judging a man is his mind and morality, the main criterion for a women, who is generally associated with nature and the body, is her body. Hence, women's beauty has been a hot topic for some time, and women are always expected to look beautiful.

4. Arch-enemies of Beauty

There are two main threats to the beautiful body: fatness and old age. Modern individuals mostly struggle to withstand these two. Slimness of women, in particular, became an aesthetic obligation after a spell between the 15th century, when chubby women obtained rights, and the 18th century. Women have resorted to diets, weight reducing pills, or even surgery and have suffered physical pain consensually since the 18th century only because they want to look beautiful (Paquet, 2015: 106). Since that century, being plus-size and fat have been regarded as anomalies, and it has been said that these two features destroy natural-sized bodies, flexibility, and elegance (Sagaert, 2017: 118). Slimness became the main criterion for beauty in the 1930s, which has led people to search for bodily beauty and meticulously calculate daily calorie intake and burn. Humans get into a rut of working out ceaselessly due to their desire to control their bodies. They take regular walks and watch their diets in order to stay in shape.

Old age that withers beauty is also a huge concern for today's society, especially women. When the lifespan was quite short, aging was no such thing. As the lifespan got longer, wrinkles, blemishes, and other signs of old age became foes to be defeated, and any action taken against them were considered legitimate (Ory, 2013: 107). Medicine progressed, and life standards improved, which, of course, helped limit the impacts of old age. However, being old is still deemed a deficiency due to aesthetic concerns (Sagaert, 2017: 161). The fact that old people dress up, diet, work out, and try to seem sharp and energetic like the youth is a result of the desire to look beautiful.

4. Why Was Beauty Reduced to the Body?

There are certain reasons why beauty was detached from the soul and morality and reduced merely to the body, and these reasons are interrelated. The determining factor in this is the declining importance of the soul. Certain phenomena that occur as a result of this are also influential, and, consequently, beauty has become a concept that simply represents the body, especially the female body.

4.1. Declining Importance of the Soul

As the importance of the body increased, the significance of the soul decreased. A person who loses faith not only in God and the hereafter but also in the truth itself essentially makes their life evanescent (Chul Han, 2015: 32). Modern people strive for themselves and have an ephemeral life (Arendt, 2013: 453). This, of course, sparks existential insecurity. Dismay caused by existential insecurity prompts people to become obsessed with their bodies (Bauman, 2000: 56).

Body obsession turns ‘beauty’ into the religion of the body (Sagaert, 2017: 110). Just as religions order their followers to make sacrifices and certain efforts, beauty expects people to do the same. In that sense, the traditional philosophy that sees the body as a tool to use has been replaced with an understanding that requires individuals to serve their bodies, as part of which each and every individual must feel compelled to care for their health and bodies. The modern woman who has to keep her body in shape can be thought of as the administrator and custodian of her body (Baudrillard, 2004: 180).

Today, beauty is an unquestionable and sacred order especially for women. It is no longer considered to be innate or a moral aspect; it is regarded as an indication of privilege and salvation (Baudrillard, 2004: 168). Consequently, the historical importance of the soul has been supplanted by facial and bodily beauty.

4.2. Beauty as the First Condition for Respect

People have several tools that help them gain respect and admiration, which include wit, intelligence, talent, virtue, wisdom, power, status, charisma, wealth, fame, and bodily beauty and perfection. Some of these have been important in different ages while others have been downplayed. In the modern era when the body has become prominent, bodily perfection and beauty have come to the fore as indisputably crucial conditions for respect.

As a result, people considered ‘ugly’ have been rejected, shunned, and ignored. Thus, ugliness of women has become intolerable, which was not the case in previous centuries. The ugly person that is disdained is labelled as a criminal despite their innocence. Ugliness could lead to contempt or insults (Sargaert, 2017: 116). The person may internalize accusations and insults directed at them and can be ashamed of their existence even if none of the labels attached to them paint an accurate picture or are based on a morally sound premise.

Ugliness, which cannot be erased or fixed, makes the ugly person a worthless entity in the eyes of themselves and others, and it causes unbearable pain. When the person is deemed ugly, they are reduced to their

looks, which is why they lose prestige and fall prey to others (Sagaert, 2017: 166-169). Today, people's qualities are only judged on the basis of their appearance; modern society classifies and judges people according to their bodies (Le Breton, 2016: 29). Appearance is so vital that an unpleasant-looking person's human qualities can be subject to discussion (Ancet, 2010: 20). In short, ugliness today equals garbage (Bauman, 2000: 185).

The main reason for making alterations on one's body is the person's desire to feel worthy and change other people's opinion of them. The person in question believes that they will be able to change the course of their life by altering their body (Le Breton, 2016: 28). As is clear, bodily beauty has become a fundamental criterion for visibility and respect. In order to evade pains of ugliness, feel worthy, be admired by others, and relish popularity, people fight ugliness and make unwavering effort to beautify their bodies.

4.3. The Body as a Project

The decisiveness of bodily beauty in the value of a person imposes the task of body care upon the individual. As a result, the modern individual approaches their body as a project to work on, aiming to follow the latest trends in fashion and look beautiful.

Today, the body is a commodity, and the body owner is responsible for its care. The individual feels compelled to control the body. They must look after, assess, and compare it to those of others and reach judgements about it (Bauman, 2014: 165).

Terms such as diet, work out, exercise, surgery, and weight control are closely linked to the power of the will. The individual is expected to let out this power and have a body similar to those of models and stars. Such a demand on people makes the body into a project to design and work on. Largely through advertisements, the media repeatedly tells people how their bodies remain far from being perfect and how badly they need fixing; it warns people that the only way a change can happen is if people invest in their bodies. Following the order "Be the master of your body and take care of it", the modern individual is prompted to craft an ideal look for themselves.

Always on the showcase, the body becomes a symbol for the individual. Plastic surgery developed because of the belief that the body can be modified in any way desired. The transformation of the body into a malleable object is nowhere more evident than in pamphlets and catalogues placed in waiting rooms of plastic surgeons' clinics (Le Breton, 2016: 27). By looking at them, customers choose the best option for themselves and get their bodies shaped accordingly. In short, the instrumentalized body

itself is important, whereas the person is dethroned. The value of the body, reshaped in line with the options on the catalogue, depends entirely on what other people think of it.

4.4. Rising Importance of Seeing and Being Seen

The act of seeing has gained tremendous importance as visual technology has developed, and literacy rate has soared. Seeing did not always enjoy the elevated status it has today. The thought of seeing passed several stages to get where it stands today. First, people tried to obtain relatively natural visuals. This was followed by entirely real visuals, then 3D visuals, and, finally, efforts to exert hegemony over these visuals (Sartori, 2004: 9). Developments in painting, the increasing use of mirrors in the 20th century, rise of photography and cinema, proliferation of fashion magazines and posters, and circulation of visuals and surge of ads on the Internet (Sargaert, 2017: 140) raised the importance of becoming visible and, hence, the visuality of the body.

4.5. The Rise of Narcissism

The visuality of the body has become the only criterion in judging beauty because of the rise of narcissism. The search for physical beauty essentially is rooted in the desire to be admired by oneself and others. While a person wants to be pleased by their looks, they also wish to make a good impression on other people. It is thus no coincidence that materialistic narcissism prevailed in the 1980s (Twenge and Campell, 2010: 109) when slimming, dieting, working out, and staying fit dominated the scene (Çabuklu, 2006: 55).

The word narcissism derives from Narcissus in Greek mythology who discovers his physical beauty while looking at his reflection on a clear and glittering pond. Seduced by his beauty, he falls in love with his reflection. He rivets his gaze on this deceiving look of his and becomes responsible for ending his life with his own eyes. Beguiled by a falsehood, Narcissus seeks his own self in his transient look. He chases what makes him look charming rather than looking for his true self. While creating the look (reflection) which he basks in, he makes a great mistake thinking that he has truly come into being. As he prefers to be a viewer of his own reflection, his life becomes devoid of any meaning and any search for meaning. In Narcissus's life, there has been no one other than Echo that reflects his own voice (De Koninck, 2003: 45-46).

Today, Narcissus's still water and Echo's role in his life have been replaced by mirrors and photos, likes, and comments in social media. An individual wants to be affirmed by people on various platforms and wishes to feel worthy. Being liked by others depends largely on a person's attractiveness. The individual can be liked more only by improving their

looks, which causes the individual to focus primarily on their own image. By internalizing other people's views, individuals strive to shape their appearance accordingly; nothing matters much aside from their own looks and the impact they make on others.

Falling into the trap of beauty at the expense of losing any true purpose or meaning in life, individuals under the yoke of narcissism are forced to give up their deep, inner qualities and invest solely in their looks. Individuals resort to cosmetic products and plastic surgery that eliminate individuality for the purpose of emphasizing the visuality of the body (Köse, 2010: 166) and create artificial images that they hope other people will like.

5. Significant Consequences of Obsession with the Body

Today, the media portrays human bodies, especially female bodies, as ugly and flawed, claiming they are in need of constant fixing. The media plays a pivotal role in constructing desires, expectations, and demands. It is main actor in imposing beauty and health norms, designing desirable bodies, and promoting latest technological breakthroughs and medical developments (Yetener, 2010: 567). Beauty norms are imposed upon people through the media and advertisements, and those who refuse to comply with them are marginalized. What was once considered normal once have come to be seen as abnormal, and the human body has been exploited (Çabuklu, 2007: 140). In order for this exploitation to end, people must do away with the notion that being different is pathological and that technology is the last resort (User, 2016: 185).

The ever-increasing importance placed on the visuality of the body has serious consequences for individuals. The first is the drama the subject lives in trying to make their body flawless. Making use of all kinds of technical and cosmetic opportunities available, individuals eventually lose their inner beauty while pursuing a perfect body (Köse, 2010: 170-171). Individuals feel forced to employ all the resources they have including their precious time to create an enchanting image. It goes without saying that time, interest, and financial resources are limited. Human life is not perennial; a human being can only focus truly on one issue and usually lives off a budget. When individuals' main concern is their bodies, all these resources are utilized to make themselves more beautiful, attractive, and charming.

Such use of resources lessens the amount of importance one attaches to his or her soul, mind, and personality while, at the same time, alienating the person from key field such as the truth, politics, and morality. People who only care about their appearance cannot be expected to be intellectually or politically adequate. Intellectualism entails an unabating quest for the truth while politics is linked closely to the efforts to create a

better society and state. Morality is rooted in the interest for other people and their wellbeing. All these require that individuals foster true relations with others and care about them rather than focus only on themselves.

Narcissists who only think about themselves look at the world from a selfish perspective, pondering solely their own problems. Instead of offering objective explanations on the reality, those people intend to trick others with a view to getting their attention and interest. However, self-esteem obtained through others' approval and admiration is fundamentally weak (Bauman, 2013: 67-68).

On the other hand, the quest for a perfect body is a debilitating process doomed to fail in the end. In order to achieve this unattainable goal, one has to buy various serums, cosmetic products, lotions, makeup products and moisturizing creams; employ some courses of treatment; undergo plastic surgery to get visually unattractive parts fixed; get tanned every now and then; work out on a regular basis; buy expensive designer labels to be fashionable; and follow diets recommended by experts. All of these come at an expense in addition to the pain suffered because of surgery, hard exercise done to stay fit, and diets. However, there is no guarantee all this sacrifice will not be in vain, and even if some sort of beauty is attained, it may not be possible to maintain it.

No matter how fit a person is, they think they can do better. Being fitter and more enchanting entails the use of various products (Bauman, 2011: 83), which paves the way for economic exploitation. The perfect target body makes a person struggle endlessly. The person always worries about their skin color, smoothness, brightness, weight, calorie intake and burn, and clothes to wear. Unfortunately, hard-earned beauty faces never-ending threats such as pimples, blemishes, wrinkles, fat, and under eye bags. Even a single one of these threats could cast a shadow over beauty. This fragility of the perfect body causes the person to be anxious about everything in life, particularly food.

Although humankind have progressed tremendously in science and medicine, it has been unable to stop aging and defeat ugliness. As youth comes to an end, beauty gradually fades away. The inevitability of old age means the struggle for beauty is destined to fail. In that sense, efforts for a perfect body certainly go down the drain at some point, which devastates individuals who reduce the value of their existence merely to their bodies. If a person has value only because of their good looks, then this value will go away once beauty disappears, and a sense of worthlessness will take over.

One's appearance is not everything; human beings should be approached from a holistic point of view: Their way of thinking, feeling, actions, remarks, hopes, concerns, imagination, and relations with others

should be taken into consideration. Setting all these things aside and reducing people to their looks give rise to social uniformity and shallowness.

This kind of a perspective also takes its toll on people who are visually 'flawed' and yet decide to remain 'ugly' by refusing to resort to artificial methods. Those people never feel worthy and happy in a setting where such a mindset prevails. While 'beautiful' people become privileged in their careers and private lives if visuality is the dominant factor, the 'ugly' are ignored, shunned, and rejected. Unnecessary punishment of innocent people who have never committed any crime and showing favor to virtueless people just because they have the looks is a grave issue in terms of human rights and equality.

The biggest loss of people who try to catch up with the norms propagated by the media and advertisements is their autonomy. People become passive as they unquestionably accept beauty norms, and they also lose their autonomy because they make efforts to shape their bodies in line with a philosophy of beauty imposed upon them. Today, the most important objective for people is to have the beauty constantly promoted by the media and advertisements. Those people no longer have a say in choosing their own values, so they are not independent.

Conclusion

For centuries, the concept of beauty has been associated with the soul, morals, and body-face in particular. However, this changed in the modern times, and beauty started to be regarded as a shallow quality attributed to the body. The reduction of beauty, which had been significant to humanity, simply to the body resulted in a great loss for humankind, impoverishment of values, and exploitation of people in a variety of ways.

Human beings place tremendous emphasis on others' points of view and their approval. Being assured makes a person appreciate their existence, and the person in question feels worthy. People can be judged by their actions, personalities, aptitude, knowledge, words, and relations with others or just by the way their bodies look. Because approval of someone depends entirely on that person's appearance, people feel forced to have a flawless body. While focusing on their looks, people tend to ignore their personalities, intellectual skills, and morals; they are no longer concerned by the need to be a better person or to build a better society but rather try to have a more attractive appearance, which comes with politically and morally significant consequences that need to be addressed.

Body care differs from the goal to possess a flawless body which has increasingly become common. Body care is just the appreciation of one's body. The goal to make it look spotless, however, has nothing to do with

the value placed on the body. Rather, efforts to beautify the body are intended to be desirable and arouse admiration. The body becomes a tool based on someone else's point of view. As the body turns into a tool or a project to work on, miscellaneous operations are carried out on it with no discomfort. Lifting, enlargement and reduction of certain body parts are only a few operations many people undergo.

On the other hand, individuals who want their bodies to be visually perfect cannot avoid anxiety and misery. The nature of the body is not subject to the human will, which requires people to engage in a perennial conflict with it. A great number of body features are perceived as signs of ugliness and, thus, efforts are made to eliminate them. Nevertheless, humans are doomed to lose in this pointless struggle because 'hard-earned' beauty inevitably withers in the end, which means the person will eventually experience disappointment.

People who go through tough times are not necessarily those who lost their beauty at a certain point. Visually unattractive people - 'ugly' people as society characterizes them - have been discriminated since their birth. People who are shunned, ignored, and rejected because of their looks experience difficulties in their private lives and careers. The fact that the perfect-looking body has become the norm should be a subject of discussion in that it has led to injustice; one's appearance cannot be their defining feature, and beauty should not be attributed solely to the body as a key quality.

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TOURISM

GASTRONOMY AND FOOD ALLERGY

Yılmaz SEÇİM*

Introduction

Nutrition is expressed as the ability of people to grow and use the things necessary for their well-being and their long-term survival. In addition to climate, environmental conditions and heredity, nutrition is an important factor affecting human health. People differ from each other in terms of age, gender, activity, familial history and disease status. So, besides the general principles, the nutritional situation to be planned should be person-specific.

People encounter many different foods throughout their lives. These foods contain smaller building blocks called nutrients such as protein, fat, carbohydrates, vitamins and minerals. Food allergies are a result of an immune system that is a consequence of the perception of food components, especially protein, by the body as foreign. Antibodies to these foreign substances in food cause unwanted reactions to the body (Aydilek, 1998).

Urbanization, industrialization, deterioration of the environment, food allergy which is the result of people encountering with allergens more and more is increasing (Roilt and Brostoff, 1991). Allergy is reported to be quite frequent in many societies, albeit varying according to societies, countries, regions.. These diseases are mostly non-lethal. However, it is among the important diseases in terms of public health due to the loss of important work power. Allergic diseases are a group of diseases in which environmental and inherent causes co-occur, environmental factors in protection are very important. There are a number of factors that can cause allergies in the environment. It is almost impossible to avoid all of them, but with preventive measures that can be taken, it is possible to reduce the size of the problem both qualitatively and quantitatively (Aydilek, 1998).

Food allergies affect human life starting from infancy, childhood and even from mother's womb. Allergic individuals should be fed with careful, adequate and balanced nutrition from very early ages. The vast majority of the allergen against food constitutes milk, eggs, wheat flour and fish, which are at the top of the most consumed basic foodstuffs. the differences in cultural food habits and the different consumption of food products that contain potential food allergens (eg soy and peanut) in various parts of the

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world are also important factors affecting the incidence of food allergy (Us, 2000).

The first occurrence of some reactions following food intake was described by Lucretus in BC 100. (Bayrak, 2006). Hippocrates talked about reactions to cow milk 2000 years ago. In ancient Rome, it was stated that food that most people safely eats is caused by some people. The fish allergic reaction was first detected by prausnitz and kustner in 1921 (Altıntaş, 2007).

Foods causing food allergies are divided into two groups, one of animal origin and one of vegetable origin. Foodstuffs of animal origin include milk and dairy products, meat and meat products, eggs, fish and seafood, and honey. Vegetable foods include cereals, various fruits and vegetables, oil seeds, nuts, and many other foods.

1.Description

The predisposition to allergic reactions is called atopy. It has been reported that atopicin is genetically transmitted and is more permeable to allergens of skin and mucosa of atopic people than normal people (Roilt and Brostoff, 1991). Allergy; the defensive mechanism known to the body as breathing, renewable, injectable with the needle, or present against the organic or some inorganic materials that come into direct contact with the skin, the chest, is somewhat exaggerated(Kalyoncu, 1995). Food allergy is defined as undesirable reactions caused by immunological mechanisms that cause a specific food intake. In another definition, food allergy is the opposite reaction to the immune system of the forerunner of the body, particularly of the protein or glycoprotein, from nutrients or nutrients in some people. (Saçkesen et al. 2004). The human body is willingly or unintentionally encountering a large number of substances found around the body every day. These substances, some of which we call edible and drinkable foods, enter the body in various ways (mouth, nose, eyes, lungs). We are able to use a substantial portion of these substances, especially nutrients, and throw out the remaining residues. Some materials are harmful to the human body and are intensively studied so that they can be destroyed after being taken into the body (Çetinkaya, 1998)

2.Epidemiology

Allergic diseases are among the most common diseases in the society and everywhere in the world, every age and sex is seen. In developed countries, every two people show allergic reactions. Over the last 20 years, allergic diseases have shown a significant increase especially in young people due to their western lifestyle (Holgate, 2000). 10-12% of our society consists of atopic individuals. In developed countries, about 3 in all are

reported to have allergic rhinitis, 10 in 1 bronchial asthma, and 20 in every 10 atopic eczema (Büyüköztürk, 1992).

3.Classification

The adverse effects of food were collected in two groups as toxic and non-toxic reactions. These toxic effects are the result of intoxication resulting from the ingestion of toxins present in the food. Non-toxic reactions are non-immunological reactions in the immunological area that develop after the consumption of food. The food hypersensitivity referred to as food intolerance is not immunological. Food intolerance is a metabolic disorder in the body, toxic substances in the food, pharmacological properties of foods, psychological side, infectious causes are seen as the end. Food allergy is IgE-related, IgE-related, and IgE-related and IgE-related immunological reactions that depend on the individual susceptibility to proteins contained in food (Erol, 2007). Table 1 shows the adverse effects of food and how allergic reactions are classified. (Sampson, 1999; American Gastroenterological, 2001; Spergel and Pawlowski, 2002; Kırsaçlıoğlu and Özden, 2006; Erol, 2007).

4.Seeing Frequenty

The end result of the research is that people believed that at least 15-20% of the food consumed had disturbed him. However, the prevalence of food allergies is generally between 2% and 8% in children, and about 1% in adults and 2% in all populations (Chipps, 2000; Ortolani, 2001). The prevalence of food allergy is not completely known but varies according to geographical regions. It has been reported that 4-6% in Spain, 2-4% in Holland and 1.4-1.8% in England. According to the eating habits of the communities, the foods that cause allergies also vary. For example, in France, Germany and Israel, fruit and vegetable allergies have been reported to be common in coastal countries such as Spain and Norway where shellfish and fish allergies are common. (Spergel and Pawlowski, 2002; Bischoff and Crowe, 2005). Food allergies affect approximately 6% of children in the US and 3-4% of adults. Food allergies are more prevalent in children under 3 years of age, and there is the effect of digestive enzymes not fully developed in this group and immature IgE release system up to 4 years of age (Erol, 2007). Food allergies can occur not only through the consumption of food, but also by touching and even breathing. (Öztürk and Besler, 2006). Occupational food allergies are also common in the world. As an example, baker asthma shows signs of influenza caused by inhalation, 20% of bakers are working around 20%. Occupationally, contact dermatitis due to the underlying nutrients being studied has been reported(Jensen, 1999).

5.Allergy Causes5

Despite the wide variety of foods consumed, it has been reported that around 180% of the world is caused by allergies. Classification of allergenic foods is in the form of animal nutrients and plant foods. The main food sources that cause food allergy are milk and its products, meat and products, eggs, fish, shrimp and honey. At the beginning of the vegetable nutrients causing food allergy; fruits, vegetables, cereals, nuts, legumes, soya beans, oil seeds, spices and condiments, chocolate, food additives, beverages.

In another classification, foods are classified as class 1 and class 2. Some foods (eg cow milk, egg whites, fish, apples, corn), called class 1, cause allergies after oral ingestion of food, while foods called class 2 (eg banana, kiwi, avocado, apple, cherry, carrots, celery, latex, potatoes) (Spergel and pawlowski, 2002; Sampson, 2003). In general, most food allergens that cause allergic reactions are water-soluble glycoproteins or other proteins with molecular weights ranging from 10 to 70 kDa. They are resistant to heat, acids and proteases (Erol, 2007). There is no known specific biochemical or immunohistochemical property of food allergies. Many of the plant allergens have been reported to resemble pathogens associated with depot proteins, profilins, peroxidases and protease inhibitors. (Spergel and pawlowski, 2002; Sampson, 2003).

In general, the proportion of allergic proteins in all proteins is very low. In this context, it is reported that only about 200 of the thousands of proteins people take with food are allergic to food. (Erol, 2007). Class 1 nutritional allergens are the main food allergens and are water soluble glycoproteins resistant to heat, acids and proteases at a molecular weight of 10-20 kDa. Class 2 allergens have been reported to be resistant to heat, isolation and protein of vegetal origin which are difficult to standardize. A small number of class 1 and class 2 antigens are isolated as proteins. (Sampson 2003; Spergel and Pawlowski, 2002).

The nutrient content must be sufficiently small to be able to pass through the gastrointestinal tract in order to be antigenic and large enough to produce an immunological response. Water-soluble albumin is a salt-soluble globulin group of proteins. Soluble antigens are better tolerated than antigens in the form of particles, although the amount of protein required for the benefit of the individual is not known, although an allergic reaction can be initiated even if very little is encountered in the sensitized individual (Chin, 2002; Bischoff and crowe, 2004; Beyer and Teuber, 2004; Ko and Mayer, 2005).

5.1. Herbal Foods 5.1

Vegetable foods have been found to cause a lot of allergies today. Table 1 lists the names, allergens and molecular weights of some plant nutrients (Lüttkopf et al. 1999; Besler et al. 2000; Larsen and Lowenstein, 2000; Breiteneder and Ebner 2001; Bayrak, 2006; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003; Altıntaş, 2007).

Table 1. Allergic Causes of Foods, Allergens and Molecular Weights

Allergic foods	allergen	Molecular weight
Peanut	Ara h 1 (vicilin)	63.5 kDa
	Ara h 2 (conglutin)	17 kDa
	Ara h 3 (glycinin)	57 kDa
	Ara h 4	
	Ara h 5 (profilin)	15 kDa
	Ara h 6	15 kDa
	Ara h 7	15 kDa
Celery	Api g 1	
	Api g 2	16kDa
	Api g 3	
	Api g 4	
	Api g 5	55-58 kDa
	Api 94 (profilin)	15 kDa
Carrot	Dau c 1	16 kDa
Avocado	Pers a 1	32 kDa
Soy	Gly m 1A	
	Gly m 1B	
	Gly m 2	
	Gly m 3	
	Gly m Bd (alfa-subunit, beta conglucinin)	68 kDa
	Gly m Bd	30 kDa
Chestnut	Cas s 5	32 kDa
Hazelnut	Bet v 1	17 kDa
	Cor a 1	
Corn	Zea m	14.9 kDa
Cherry	Pru av 1	
	Pru av 2	23.3 kDa

Sesame	A a	25 kDa 14 kDa
Apple	Mal d 1 Mal d 2 Mal d 3	31 kDa
Rice	Alfa-amilaz- tripsin inhibitör Alfa-amilaz inhibitör	
Wheat Oat	Hor v 1 2S-albumin	
Walnut	Pyr c 1 Pyr c 2 Pyr c 3 Pyr c 4 Pyr c 5	
Pear	Pru ar 1 Pru ar 2 Pru ar 3	
Apricot	Pru p 1 Pru p 2 Pru p 3	
Peach	2S albumin Jug r 1 Vicilin Jug r 2	

5.1.1. Fruits

Apple, pear, acidic fruit, strawberry, melon-watermelon, orange and hard-seeded fruits (eg cherry, sour cherry, apricot, peach) cause allergies (Tuft and Mueller, 1970; Kalyoncu, 1995). Most individuals with fruit allergies are individuals with pollen allergy. For example, birch trees, which are common in northern Europe, are generally susceptible to apples with pollen allergies. Again individuals with grass pollen allergies also have allergies to parsley. Fruit proteins are generally resistant to heat, so they can easily be consumed by allergic people when cooked (Kalyoncu, 1995).

Clinical manifestations arise as a result of the fruit being eaten raw. Generally no allergic reaction occurs in cooked, preserved or preserved fruit. This explains why the incidence of urticaria increases in the summer months when raw fruits are consumed more frequently than other times of

the year. The group reaction is rarely visible. For example, one child may react to all acidic oranges while the other may be only sensitive to oranges. In addition, the shells of fruits such as orange and lemon yam peaches cause symptoms, and no reaction may occur to the patches (Tuft and Mueller, 1970).

Especially the fruits of the rosaceae family are causing allergies. The main ones are; apple, pear, peach, sour cherry, plum, apricot are in this family. There are 4 groups that cause cross-allergic reaction (Besler et al. 2000).

1. Those related to birch pollen; Bet v 1 Homologues, apple (Mal d 1), pear, (pyr c 1) apricot (Pru ar 1) and sour (Pru av 1).

2. Those in the glycoprotein range; mugwort pollen (art v 1).

3. Activation regulatory profiles; Pyr c 4 (pear)

4. Lipid-transfer proteins; Mal d 3 (apple), Pru p 3 (peach), Pru ar 3 (apricot)

In addition, apples (Mal d 2) and sour cherry (Pru av 2) were detected in thaumatin-homologous allergens (Besler et al. 2000).

Peach is the most common cause of fruit allergies in adults. Allergic reactions have also been observed in people consuming peach celery, peach custard, peach juice, peach syrup and peach jam (Cuesta et al. 1998). Oral allergy syndrome, contact hives, systemic symptoms may occur. Mostly pollen allergies are present (Breiteneder and Ebner, 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003). The Mal d 1 and Mal d 2 networks are structurally similar to Bet v1 and Bet v2 ag and cross-react with birch pollen. Oral allergy, gastrointestinal, and systemic symptoms can be seen with apple beef (Breiteneder and Ebner, 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003).

Latex-related fruit; papaya, fig, melon, watermelon, mango, kiwi, pineapple and peach are in this group. The avocadon is a major allergen endokitinase, Pers 1 (32 kDa), muzen allergens Mus p 1.1 and Mus p 1.2, chestnut Cas s 5 (32 kDa) (Blanco et al. 1999). Can be allergic to cross-react with avocado, banana and kiwi. Kiwi can also interact with grass and birch tree pollen (Breiteneder and Ebner, 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003).

5.1.2. Vegetables

Group reactions can be observed in the vegetables. Any reaction to cooked forms may not occur when allergy statements to raw vegetables are observed. When there is a sensitivity to the shell of vegetables such as potatoes or carrots, a symptom may not be observed against the patches. In vegetables such as celery or asparagus, allergic symptoms (such as dermatitis) can be observed on the touching pad after washing (Tuft and Mueller, 1970).

People who eat stalk celery have an allergy rate of 69% when assessed by double-blind, placebo-controlled nutritional testing. These patients also have a pollen susceptibility to the birch tree. Oral allergy syndrome and systemic reactions may develop (Breiteneder and Ebner 2001, Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003). Celery and celery products also cause allergies from time to time. The major allergens of celeriac are Api g 1 (16 kDa) and Api g 5 (55/58 kDa) plus celiac profile Api 94 (15 kDa) (Larsen and Lowenstein, 2000).

It has been reported that contact urticaria and rhinitis are seen after carrots are handled. It has been reported that anaphylactic reactions are seen in raw carrots, but this can be overcome in cooked carrots. After consuming raw carrots by respiration, it was found that allergic reactions were observed but there was no problem after being cooked (Nüthrich et al. 1990). Carrot allergy is Dauc 1 (16 kDa), Bet v 1 is homozygous. A double blind placebo-controlled diet resulted in a 77% allergy. Oral allergy syndrome and systemic reactions occur. (Breiteneder and Ebner, 2001).

Allergy can also occur with the ingestion of asparagus, inhalation of boiled water or direct contact. In potato allergy, contact urticaria and respiratory tract symptoms, onion family, asthma and contact dermatitis can be seen. With tomato allergy, latex allergy and pollen sensitivity can occur. Most common oral allergy syndrome occurs in tomato allergy (Breiteneder and Ebner, 2001).

5..1.3. Grains

In cereals, wheat, corn, rice, rye, barley, oats, allergenic food causes. Wheat and corn cause more allergies than other nutrients in this group. Both are products frequently found in a child's and naturally an adult's diets, consumed in various forms as cooked raw. Corn has less allergenic properties than wheat and is therefore preferred over wheat. Since wheat has an important place in each diet, it is very difficult to remove it from the diet (Tuft and Mueller, 1970).

Wheat proteins consist of water-soluble albumin, salty water-soluble globulins, ethenol-soluble prolamins and gluteins (Burks et al. 2001). Wheat has 40 different antigens. Allergen responsible wheat protein globulin and glutenin. Gliadin causes celiac disease, albumin causes baker's tongue (Akçakaya, 1998).

Rice is a food commonly consumed in Asian countries because it is very nutritious in terms of carbohydrates and protein. Japan is also leading rice allergy allergies. In North America, a limited number of people have been diagnosed with allergy caused by rice. Allergic patients have been reported to be sensitive to the salt soluble endosperm portion of rice. (Urisu et al. 1991). Despite being mentioned as an allergic plant from the genus, information about the allergic agents is scarce. (Lehrer and Reese, 1997).

However, some studies have reported that millet seeds cause severe allergic reactions (Lehrer et al. 1999).

Wheat flour allergy is not common in adults, but has been reported to have anaphylaxis when consumed with aspirin or exercise. Serious anaphylactic reactions have been reported in adults with systemic reactions with barley malt, millet seed, black wheat and corn intake (Burks et al. 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003).

It has been reported that people who consume barley and products are exposed to an allergic reaction and that there are indications of rheumatoid arthritis, edema in the eyes and pharynx, especially urticaria. Barley maltin has been reported to cause systemic reactions (Curioni et al. 1999).

5.1.4. Crustaceans

Crustaceans have been reported to be allergic to both adults and children (2-4 years of age). Allergy is life-long. Crustaceans are generally; almonds, nuts and varieties, walnuts, chestnuts, pine nuts, pistachio nuts. Cross-reactivity was not observed in adults when nuts were cross-reacting with peanuts, especially in children (Burks et al. 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003). Hazelnut allergy usually starts in childhood. Reactions seen in adults are more severe. The most important allergens of the nut are Bet v 1 and Cor a 1 (17 kDa). (Lüttkopf et al. 1999; Burks et al, 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003). Walnut is a plant that causes an allergic reaction. Major allergens of walnut, 2S-albumin Jug r 1 and vicilli (Larsen ve Lowenstein 2000). Allergic reactions to chestnut are responsible for the majority of allergies to peanuts in adults and children and can be serious and life-threatening. (Kim et al. 2005).

5.1.5. Legumes

Allergies in legumes; It has been reported that flax seeds grow in adults depending on seeds, seeds, sunflower, sesame, cotton, poppy and sunflower seeds or seeds. It has been reported that 54% of people with discomfort due to consumption of chickpea have an allergy to anaphylactic, respiratory and skin involvement(Burks et al. 2001; Crespo and Rodriguez, 2003). Some people who consume sesame may also have allergies. In a study conducted, it was reported that chocolate candies containing sesame also cause allergies. Allergic reactions have also been detected in people consuming sesame, sugar, sesame oil and sesame oil. Along with these foods, Lebanon has been reported to cause allergies to foods such as sesame seeds, some cakes, breads, chinese dishes, pizza (Kanny et al. 1996). The most important sesame allergens are; A 25-kDa and a 14-kDa proteins (Kolopp-Sarda et al. 1997).

It has been reported that peanuts cause allergic reactions in children and in adults. In the US, food allergy is the first cause of death from food anaphylaxis. (Akçakaya, 1998). In an American study, about 1% of people consuming peanut and peanut products were exposed to an allergic

reaction (Sicherer, 2007). It belongs to the family of peanut legumes. It is the main cause of food-related anaphylaxis. Peanut allergy is life-long (Burks et al. 2001; Etselle and Simons, 2003). Ground fist has 16 allergenic protein fractions. The heating does not change the allergy. Peanut is also used as a sweetener in various foods. Spicy pepper, spaghetti sauce, turkey sauce, sugar, pie (Akçakaya, 1998). The major allergens of groundnut are Al h 1 (vicilin, 63.5 kDa), Ara h 2 (conglutinine, 17 kDa), Ara h 3 (glycinin, 57 kDa), Ara h 4 is an allergen of Ara h 3. The minor allergens of ground fist are Ara h 5 (proline, 15 kDa), Ara h 6 (15 kDa) and Ara h 7 (15 kDa) (Bannon et al. 2000).

5.1.6. Soybean

Soy bean paste causes allergic reactions, especially in children. In some studies it has been reported that it causes allergies in products such as hamburgers, sausages, salami, pizza, meatballs which are used as feed additives. (Foucard and Malmheden Yman, 1999). Soy oil, which is not different in terms of allergic properties, has been reported to be present in lecithin and margarines (Akçakaya, 1998). Soyan has profile and kunitz-trypsin allergens. The major respiratory allergens were Gly m 1, Gly m 2 and Bet v 1 (Kleine et al. 2000). The major globulin proteins are alpha-conglycinin and beta-conglycinin. Gly m 1 is the best known soybean allergen (Akçakaya, 1998).

5.1.7. Other oil seeds

Allergic foods in this group are actually peanut, almond, coconut, brazil chestnut, chestnut, walnut, pomace, american apple and hazelnut. Although they often show their influence in their performance; almond, chestnut, hazelnut and groundnut oil may also cause an allergic reaction by inhalation. This group is sudden and often causes serious allergic reactions (Judith, 2002).

5.1.8. Spices and Condiments

This group contains a large number of compounds used in the cooking field, medical or commercial areas. Cumin seeds, cinnamon, cloves, coriander, ginger, coconut, mustard, black pepper, red pepper, mint, poppy seeds, sage seeds, all kinds of spices, dill, anise, cumin, cardamom (asia and a kind of ginger that grows in India) thyme and vanilla are foods that cause these types of food allergies. Normally none of these nutrients may be clinically important for a normal child, but if sensitivity is a concern, serious reactions can be observed vinegar has also been shown to cause allergic reactions. In case of an allergy caused by the circus, it should be determined which kind of sirken is. For example, if it is prepared from apple, the patient may have an allergy to the apple (Tuft and Mueller 1970).

5.1.9. Chocolate and cocoa

Especially in children due to frequent consumption of allergic rhinitis, migraine, deep redness, itching, swelling and digestive system disorders

are responsible. Symptoms may occur when consuming the same chocolate or cocoa (Tuft and Mueller 1970).

5.1.10. Food additives

During the processing of foods, technological additives are added for various purposes. These ingredients are either used as preservatives, formulators, or as a sweetener (Çetinkaya, 1998). Along with the development in food production technologies, additives that are added to the products are known to cause a variety of allergic reactions (Çokuğraş and Akçakaya, 1991). Sulphides, which play an important role in food additives, are found in many foods (pickles, potato chips), drinks (such as wine, beer) and medicines. In 5% of asthmatic patients, severe hypersensitivity is caused by the depletion of sulfides (Çetinkaya, 1998). Apart from these attacks, it causes redness and pruritus in the mouth and on the bottom (Judith, 2002).

Mono sodium glutamate, which is used as an additive, can naturally be found in some foods or as a flavor enhancer in foods. (in baguette, ready meat and chicken). A headache called "Chinese restaurant syndrome" can cause a picture that causes symptoms and complaints such as burning, burning sensation in the arm, sweating and urticaria. Table 2 lists some additives and their use that cause the reaction (Çokuğraş and Akçakaya, 1991; Çetinkaya, 1998).

Table 2. Some Additives That Cause Reaction and Their Use

Additive	Purpose of
Aspartam	sweetener
BHA, BHT	antioxidant
Tartrazine	Coloring
MSG	Flavor enhancer
Nitrates and nitrites	Protector
Parabens	Protector
sulfites	Protector

Tartrazine is a well-known dye substance that can cause allergic reactions such as asthma, which can cross-react with aspirin in some people (Çokuğraş and Akçakaya, 1991). Individuals with allergies, especially those with urticaria and atopic dermatitis, should consume foods that are as fresh and free of additives as possible (Çetinkaya, 1998).

5.1.11. Drinks

Some of the biologically active components (vasoactive amines) that some foods may have on the veins may also cause a variety of reactions. For example, coffee, tea and cola drinks containing amines such as caffeine and theobromine can cause headaches, palpitations, nervousness,

abdominal pain and other complaints (Çokuğraş and Akçakaya, 1991). Soft drinks; cocoa, tea and coffee are the most important.

Tea: It causes allergic reactions, though not very often, and especially digestive disorders (Tuft and Mueller 1970).

Coffee: Caffeine is rarely caused by food allergy. (Çokuğraş and Akçakaya, 1991).

Alcoholic beverages: It causes urticaria in allergic individuals. Generally, it causes the allergic reaction of the insect to form. For example; the use of egg whites to cleanse the wine may lead to barley malformation symptoms at the front. Alcohol itself is susceptible to susceptibility, but it is known that various allergic reactions such as post-consumer urticaria occur. Alcohol is much more than itself; it has been understood that the solubility of certain proteins in the digestive organs increases and, as a result, allergic manifestations result in reduced absorption of these products. (Tuft and Mueller, 1970).

6. Allergy Treatment

Long-term and careful follow-up, patience, diligence and good patient-physician cooperation are necessary to get good results in the treatment of allergic patients. Among the methods used in the treatment of food allergies are elimination diets, medical treatment, immunotherapy and anti-IgE monoclonal antibody treatment. Diet, food allergies and food intolerance are also one of the most important items of diagnosis and treatment. (Judith, 2002).

Table 3 gives a table on how to make the food selection if the individual has food allergy (Akçakaya, 1998)

Table 3. Food Selection in Food Allergy

Restricted food	This group of foodstuffs	Food to be avoided	Replacement food
Wheat	Flour, wheat grain, wheat flour, wheat starch, gluten, other starches, vegetable slurry, bran, wheat gluten, whole wheat flour	Wheat baked breads, crackers, pasta, spaghetti, noodles, sauces, sauces of toasted foods, baking powders, soy sauces	Some cereals (corn, rice, barley oats, etc.), corn pasta, popcorn, wheat-free cereals, corn starch, rice flour, potatoes, rye flour.
Soy bean	Corn foods, corn starch, corn oil, corn sugar, corn sweeteners, vegetable oil, herbal starch, soy sauce	Soy sauce, teriyaki sauce, other sauces, soya bean, isomil, soyabee, various margarines	Peanut milk, coconut milk
Corn	Corn foods, corn starch, corn oil, corn sugar, corn sweeteners, vegetable oil, vegetable starch	Maize breads, popcorn, some cereals, corn sugar, candies, baking powder, corncobs	Wheat buns, wheat, potatoes, rice, sugar beet and sugar cane sugar
Chocolate	Cocoa, cocoa butter	Sugar	Goat horn products

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