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Ayhan AYTAÇ

Distinguished scientists and readers,

We have included a total of 20 research articles in this volume of our journal. I pay my love and respect to our authors, referees, editorial board, management and publication board for this volume which is composed of valuable studies. After serving as editor-in-chief for 14 volumes of the journal, Mr. Murat KORKMAZ left his position as of this volume on his own will due to his intensive works. Murat KORKMAZ will continue to work as the editor. We thank him for all of his contributions and support until now. Our journal-completing the third year- includes different researches in each volume and continues to make various plans for the future. I thank all other referees and scientists who have just joined us with this volume. As of the first volume, our journal is still the one working with the highest number of referees and science boards in the fields that accept papers. The papers sent to our journal are evaluated positively or negatively within two months at most and the author(s) are notified accordingly. The articles in our journal are the ones evaluated with 3 points by Interuniversity Council. Dear readers and authors; our journal will include the papers from other world countries at the end of 2014. The relevant studies will most probably end in October 2014. Although we accept the applications sent from different countries, we don't publish them without reinforcing our basis. Our studies concerning meeting these demands and including these papers from different countries in our journal are about to end. I thank all foreign author(s) for the patience and good will they show and hope that this can be a notification for them. The structure of our journal until now has been shaped in terms of Turkey and Turkish Republics; we will start to accept the papers from all world countries in 2015. In this regard, the registration of referees-whose applications are kept waiting-from different world countries to the referee, science and advisory boards will be initiated. Our journal will get an important place in academia with this structure to be created and continue its efforts at full speed. I wish all of you many days with love, respect and health.

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Note: Upon the decision of editorial board and by taking into account the suggestion of the referees doing evaluation, the article titled **"Flowers and Love in Ottoman Poetry"** by Yakup POYRAZ has been accepted to be published in its original language-Turkish-due to its content and style with the purpose of keeping the originality.

Değerli bilim insanları ve okurlar.,

Dergimizin bu sayısında toplam 20 araştırma makalesine yer vermiş bulunmaktayız. Yine hepsi bir birinden değerli çalışmalardan oluşan bu sayımız içinde eserlerini bizlerle paylaşan yazarlarımıza, hakemlerimize, yayın kurulumuza, yönetim ve editörler kurulumuza saygılarımı ve sevgilerimi sunuyorum. Derginin 14 sayısında baş editörlük yapan Sn:Murat KORKMAZ'ın baş editörlük görevi bu sayı ile birlikte farklı dergilerde olan editörlük görevleri ve yoğun çalışması nedeniyle kendi talebi üzerine son bulmuştur. Baş editörlük görevi biten Murat KORKMAZ derginin yazı işleri müdürü olarak görevine devam edecektir. Şuana kadarki yaptığı her türlü katkı ve desteğinden dolayı kendisine teşekkür ediyoruz. Üçüncü yılını dolduran dergimiz her sayısıyla birlikte daha farklı araştırmalara yer vermekte olup, geleceğe yönelik farklı planlar yapmaya devam etmektedir. Bu sayımızla birlikte yine aramıza çok sayıda hakem, bilim ve danışma kurullarında yer alarak aramıza katılan değerli bilim insanlarına katılımlarından dolayı da ayrıca teşekkür ediyorum. Dergimiz ilk sayısı ile birlikte kabul ettiği alanlarla birlikte alanında en fazla hakem ve bilim kuruluyla çalışan dergi özelliğini halen korumaktadır. Dergimize gönderilen yayınlar en fazla iki ay içerisinde değerlendirilerek olumlu ya da olumsuz şekliyle yazar(lar)'a bildirilmektedir. Ayrıca dergimizde yer alan çalışmalar Üniversiteler Arası Kurul Tarafından 3 puan ile değerlendirilen bir dergi konumundadır. Değerli okurlar değerli yazarlar; dergimiz 2014 yılı sonunda artık farklı dünya ülkelerinden gelen yayınlara da yer vermeye başlayacaktır. Bu konuda yapılan çalışmalar büyük olasılıkla Ekim 2014 tarihi gibi sonlanacaktır. Halen farklı dünya ülkelerinden yapılan müracaatları her ne kadar kabul ediyor olsak da, gelen yayınlar konusunda tabanımızı güçlü hale getirmeden yayınlamış bulunmamaktayız. Bu oluşan taleplerin giderilmesi, farklı dünya ülkelerinden gelen yayınların dergimizde yer alarak daha güçlü hale getirilmesi konusundaki çalışmalarımız da son bulmak üzeredir. Bu durum yabancı yazar(lar) için bir haber bilgisi olması dileğiyle kendilerine gösterdikleri sabır ve iyi niyetlerinden dolayı ayrıca teşekkür ediyorum. Dergimizin şuana kadarki yapılanması Türkiye ve Türkiye Cumhuriyetleri açısından şekillendirilmiş olup, 2015 yılı itibariyle tüm dünya ülkelerinden yayınların kabulüne başlayacaktır. Bu konuda halen müracaatları bekletilen farklı dünya ülkelerinden hakemlerin de hakem, bilim ve danışma kurullarına kayıtları başlatılacaktır. Dergimiz oluşacak olan bu yapısıyla birlikte akademi dünyasında önemli bir yer edinmiş olacak ve çalışmalarına hızla devam edecektir. Hepinize sevgi, saygı, güzel ve sağlıklı günler diliyorum.

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Not: Editörler Kurulu kararı ile Yakup POYRAZ tarafından hazırlanan **"Flowers and Love in Ottoman Poetry"** konu başlıklı makale içeriği ve dili nedeniyle özgün kalması amacıyla değerlendirme yapan hakemlerin önerisi dikkate alınarak orjinal dili "Türkçe" olarak yayınlanması kabul edilmiştir.


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A SHORT DISCUSSION ON THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FOUCAULT'S ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND GENEALOGICAL STUDIES

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Abstract: Foucault developed archaeology as a methodological device for investigating the terrain of possibility of forms of knowledge to set themselves as discursive totalities. This methodology differs from linguistic or historical analysis of knowledge which focuses on the linguistic rules of formation or the progressive transformation of discourse. Foucault's archaeological studies were criticized for its inherent structuralism which excludes the role of subject in history and falls short in carving out the non-discursive practices which shapes the landscape of power relations which Foucault observes in the field of discourse. Interpreters of Foucault usually distinguish between his writings in 1960s which are based on this archaeological method and his later work which applied a genealogical approach. This study investigates the extent of this difference.

Key Words: Foucault, Discourse, Archaeology, Genealogy

INTRODUCTION

In the first two sections of this text, after a short discussion on Foucault's archaeological method, his approach to history, his relationship with structuralism, and his conception of subject will be described. In the third section, certain discussions of his interpreters on the difference between his writings in 1960s and 1970s will be introduced through an assessment of certain themes that Foucault applied in his later studies. In the last section certain arguments are going to be made against the widely acknowledged view that archaeology lacks in capacity for disclosing the power relations behind discursive formations and for not being a critical strategy of reading in discourse analysis.

Foucault tries to describe archaeology as a peculiar method of discourse analysis which is different from linguistic analysis and the historical analysis of ideas. According to this, contrary to the investigation of the formal rules of formation of statements in linguistic analysis, archaeology asks a more provocative question: "[H]ow is it that one particular statement appeared rather than another? (Foucault, 2002a:30). Archaeology's difference from history of ideas, on the other hand, denotes the more critical aspect of Foucauldian analysis since the inevitable consequence of archaeological investigation is the disruption of the illusion of progress in the history of knowledge. Unlike the history of ideas which describes "the transition from non-philosophy to philosophy, from non-scientificity to science" and whose great themes are "genesis, continuity, and totalization" (*ibid*.:154), archaeology grasps things as they are, detects their positions within discursive formations, and describes the rules of formation which give rise

to them, permits them to take part in discursive unities, attribute a particular status to them, or exclude them entirely[1]. As a consequence of his suspicion for the unities of discourse in the form of book, *oeuvre*, and discipline which are presumed to be self-evident, Foucault offers a 'systematic erasure' of all such unities and repudiates notions like 'tradition', 'influence', 'development', 'evolution', and 'spirit' which contribute to the reign the theme of continuity (*ibid*.:23-24). Instead of such unities or "small islands of coherence" which are wrongly constituted with respect to 'the unity of the object', 'the unity in form of statements', 'unity (or permanence) of concepts, and/or 'the unity of themes', Foucault seeks for 'systems of dispersion' which signify 'forms of division' (*ibid*.:41).

Focusing on these 'forms of division' does not lead the archaeologist to a chaos of discourses; Foucault tries to construct alternative unities, though admitting that they will be more 'abstract' and 'problematic'. Since the objects of knowledge, the concepts that are formed in particular discursive unities, the rules that decide on the form of 'valid' discourses, or the themes that constantly take part in discourses are not appropriate units for archaeological investigations, Foucault prefers to take 'statement', which is defined by him as "the atom of discourse (*ibid*.:90), for his analysis. Foucault defines statements in large part in negative terms with respect to their differences from 'propositions', 'sentences', and 'speech acts'[2]. The way he defines this 'irrelevant raw material' perfectly corresponds to his endeavor to run away from the restrictions of logical analysis, formal rules or necessary juxtapositions which necessitates the adoption of the 'self-evident' unities already assumed to be given orders in the historical analyses of knowledge: "As if the statement were more tenuous, less charged with determinations, less strongly structured, more omnipresent, too, than all these figures…" (*ibid*.:94).

Through an analysis of the statements, the archaeologist arrives at alternative unities in the 'positivities of discourse' which characterize "unity throughout time, and well beyond individual oeuvres, books, and texts" (*ibid*.:142). Positivity in archaeological investigation is regarded as a 'historical *a priori*' which approaches to statements with respect to the conditions according to which they emerge, transform, or disappear. Thus a historical *a priori* is "[a]n *a priori* not of truths that might never be said, or really given experience; but the *a priori* of a history that is given, since it is that of things

1 Dreyfus and Rabinow define Foucault's strategy of reading, which according to them requires a more 'radical detachment' than 'Husserlian neutrality', as 'double reduction' according to which, the analyst "not only must remain neutral as to whether what a statement asserts as true is in fact true, he must remain neutral as to whether as to whether each specific truth claim even makes sense, and more generally, whether the notion of a context-free truth claim is coherent" (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982:49).

2 In order to clarify the difference of 'statements' from 'speech acts', Dreyfus and Rabinow offers the notion of 'serious speech acts' rather than statements since, according to them, "Foucault is interested in just those types of speech acts which are divorced from the local situation of assertion and from the shared everyday background so as to constitute a relatively autonomous realm" (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982:47-48). Gutting, on the other hand, rightly refuses this definition on the grounds that "Foucault explicitly says that archaeology is concerned with the *savoir* underlying … everyday opinions" (Gutting, 1989:241n).

actually said" (*ibid*.:143). Approaching to statements as positivities, Foucault tries to eliminate the pre-given status of a statement. Since he does not want to trace the transition from non-scientific to scientific, he can observe the relationship between discursive practices and discursive formations in a critical manner. This leads him to investigate *savoir* rather than *connaissance*[3] through which "the precondition of what is later revealed and which later functions as an item of knowledge or an illusion, an accepted truth or an exposed error, a definitive acquisition or an obstacle surmounted" (*ibid*.:200) can be exposed.

HISTORY AND THE SUBJECT

Foucault's archaeological method has a key role in understanding his widely discussed relationship with history and structuralism through which his conception of 'subject' can be understood. Foucault's approach to history had incited vast amount of criticism since his claims imply the denigration of the conventionally accepted relationship between reason and history which leads to formulations based on the assumptions on either that the events and occurrences can be related to and/or explained with respect to one another -critique of this view was already done in the historiography before Foucault-, or that a retrospective gaze can make these events and occurrences intelligible without falling into the traps of teleology. In fact, it is possible to say that Foucault expressed explicitly what had been already known after the renouncement of Hegel. One implication of Foucault's views is the exposition of the problematic relationship between particular discourses and their objects of knowledge[4]. A more major impact of his approach, on the other hand, is the disclosure of the illusion of a progressive movement depicted around the totalizing central themes like meaning, spirit, or world-view (Sheridan, 1990:92), which are regarded to be the fundamental tenets of the entire edifice of Western thought. After Foucault's contribution, their capacity to grasp the dynamics of changes and ruptures becomes questionable.

Although appearing as a central theme in Foucault's studies, 'discontinuity' is not the end in itself, but a means for investigating the regimes of truth or orders of knowledge. Admitting that he confused these regimes "too much with systematicity, theoretical form, or something like a paradigm" in his 1966 study, *The Order of Things*, Foucault refuses to be labeled as a 'theorist of discontinuity' since this label alone does not refer to an alternative to the "biological image of a progressive maturation of science" (Foucault, 1980:112). Rather than 'a change of content' or 'a change of theoretical form', the theme of discontinuity is adopted by Foucault for posing the question of "what *governs* statements,

3 The difference between *savoir* and *connaissance* -which can be translated to English only with a single word, knowledge- is inserted as a footnote by the translator of *The Archaeology of Knowledge* in Foucault's words: "By *connaissance* I mean the relation of the subject to the object and the formal rules that govern it. *Savoir* refers to the conditions that are necessary in a particular period for this or that type of object to be given to *connaissance* and for this or that enunciation to be formulated" (Foucault, 2002a:16-17n).

4 Reflecting on Foucault's investigations on madness, Descombes states that the division of reason and madness had deprived psychiatry of the capacity to tell anything about madness since it is a 'reasonable' discourse which cannot penetrate into the unintelligible world of its object of knowledge (Descombes, 1980:114).

and the way in which they *govern* each other so as to constitute a set of propositions which are scientifically acceptable…" (*ibid.*). An objection may be made by claiming that Foucault obscures the real content of his early studies with these statements which were declared in an interview dated 1976. Dreyfus and Rabinow, for example, detect 'the problem of formulating unity through change' in Foucault's 'archaeological' writings (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982:60). However, in his discussions on 'statements', Foucault tries to make explicit the perpetuation of the objects of knowledge, concepts, or themes throughout different discursive unities even though when they are not regarded to be as such:

"One should not be surprised, then, if one has failed to find structural criteria of unity for the statement; this is because it is not in itself a unit, but a function that cuts across a domain of structures and possible unities, and which reveals them, with concrete contents, in time and space" (Foucault, 2002a:97-98).

In other words, he does not see unities in the objects or concepts, or the themes; discursive unities are rather like different sorts of fishing nets which are stitched with different patterns for catching fishes in different sizes.

Tracing Foucault's relationship with structuralism is easier for the simple reason that being the dominant paradigm of French philosophy of 1960s, every thinker had to locate their position with respect to it. In Gutting's words, the difference between archaeology and structuralism is that "archaeology is a historical method of inquiry, concerned not with structural possibilities but with actual occurrences and their effects" (Gutting, 1989:228). According to Sheridan, although there are structural elements in Foucault's analyses, they "belong to the object of Foucault's research; not to his method" (Sheridan, 1990:91). In his discussions on the formation of objects, Foucault's distance from structuralism is apparent:

"[I]t is not the objects that remain constant, nor the domain that they form; it is not even their point of emergence or their mode of characterization; but the relation between the surfaces on which they appear, on which they can be delimited, on which they can be analyzed and specified" (Foucault, 2002a:52).

The climax of the problematic encounter of the conventional thinker with Foucault is the latter's conception of subject which makes it difficult to understand the 'historicity' of his 'historical' investigations and which renders his approach susceptible to the critiques posed against structuralism. Foucault was clear about his conception of subject from the very beginning of his work in which he gave him his role only in his explanations on "how man's being finds itself determined by positivities which are exterior to it and which link it to the density of things" (Foucault, 2002b:366). The putative author of discourse is also reduced to 'author-function' according to which, the uniqueness of his words is attributed to him by discursive formations: Hence "the subject … must be stripped of its creative role and analyzed as a complex and variable function of discourse" (Foucault, 1977a:138). In line with his repudiation of the search for origins, Foucault does not trace the genesis of discourses, in which author is only a function within the conscious activity of the subject:

"In the analysis proposed here, the rules of formation operate not only in the mind or consciousness of individuals, but in discourse itself; they operate therefore, according to a sort of uniform anonymity, on all individuals who undertake to speak in this discursive field" (Foucault 2002a:69-70).

Although he may seem to be shifting to a more placid approach to subject in his later studies, as it is going to be discussed below, the capacity for a 'counter-movement' are still regarded to be possible by Foucault from within the very same terrain in which the subjectivity is ascribed -and as it will be discussed, this is an opportunity rather than a restriction.

FROM ARCHAEOLOGY TO GENEALOGY?

Periodization of Foucault's work has always been an issue of discussion. In fact, one can say that he was either dismissed entirely by his harsh critiques, or welcomed by most of his sympathizers with the excuse of the confused state of mind in his early studies which was restored in his later writings. The main difference between his writings in 1960s and 1970s is usually defined as a shift from archaeology to genealogy though the extent of this 'shift' changes in accordance with the major concerns or fields of interests of his interpreters. Focusing more on the themes that Foucault shares with Bachelard and Canguilhem, Gutting claims that there is continuity between his archaeological and genealogical texts (Gutting, 1989). Dreyfus and Rabinow, on the other hand, pay more attention to disclose the implications of this shift by a comparative analysis of his writings and their relation with hermeneutics and structuralism (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982). A third camp of interpreters of Foucault is composed of authors who focus on the political implications of Foucault's investigations. This group tries to locate a third phase in his work, which brings the issue of 'governmentality' into forefront. Detecting the shortcomings in grasping "the possibility of social change and the dynamic and relatively autonomous nature of social action" in Foucault's early accounts on power, McNay claims that his studies on government reformulates this notion on two points: "First, the idea of governmentality broadens the category of power by distinguishing more clearly between violence, domination and types of power that characterize relations between individuals. Second, power is defined both as an objectivizing and a subjectivizing force" (McNay, 1994:4)[5]. The genealogical shift and the central place that the notion of power had taken in Foucault's later writings is surely a major one and require more explanation.

5 Foucault's own reassessments of his past works in his books and interviews introduce an additional difficulty in detecting the changes between his early and late writings. For example, Although *The Archaeology of Knowledge* is generally regarded to be a guideline for the readers of his previous studies -Foucault himself also declares that this was his main purpose before writing this book (Foucault, 2004a :254-255)-, as early as 1967 Foucault stated that contrary to what he did in *Madness and Civilization* and *The Birth of the Clinic* in which he focused on the discursive formations through a diachronic analysis, he paid more attention on the synchronic relationship between discursive and non-discursive fields in *The Order of Things* (Foucault, 2004b:70-71). In addition, since he tried to relate each of his studies with the previous ones and base each and every one of his books upon what was lacking in his previous thought, his enterprise can easily be regarded to be made up of particular investigations which are a part of a comprehensive plan.

Supplementing the 'power/knowledge' couple to his earlier investigations on how particular discursive unities produce their own objects of knowledge, Foucault opens a whole new terrain of investigation way too radical when compared to the conventional analyses of power which are based on the assumption that knowledge and power are mutually exclusive. None of the existing paradigms and political camps are exempt from the critical implication of Foucault's conception of power/knowledge: "What liberals and Marxist share, although their goals are diametrically opposed, is a conception of power that is negative or restrictive upon a subjectivity that would otherwise act in violation of the limits or coercions it marks out" (May, 1993:38)[6]. The signals of this new conception is apparent in his famous inaugural lecture a the Collége de France (1970) in which he did mention not only to both internal an external dynamics of exclusion of particular discursive practices -by which he enhances his view on the relationship between discursive and non-discursive practices which was regarded to be problematic in the archaeological period-, but also to notions like 'discursive communities', which echoes Kuhn's 'epistemic communities', though with more emphasis on sources of power which are external to institutions[7].(Foucault, 1992:11-22, 23). Foucault's text on Nietzsche's genealogy, on the other hand, is generally regarded to be the inception of his genealogical period. Retaining the basic tenets of archaeological method -which is also the case for his later studies -like the repudiation of the search for origins-, the vocabulary that he uses denotes the extent to which his attention had shifted from his earlier accounts on the rules of formation of discourses to power relations: "The forces operating in history are not controlled by destiny or regulative mechanisms, but respond to haphazard conflicts" (Foucault, 1977b:154).

In *Discipline and Punish*, his approach to power and the way he relates it with the older themes that he investigated earlier, that is, knowledge and subjectivity becomes clear. Foucault suggests that through an analysis of "the metamorphosis of punitive methods … one might understand both how man, the soul, the normal or abnormal individual have come to duplicate crime as objects of penal intervention; and in what way a specific mode of subjection was able to give birth to man as an object of knowledge for a discourse with a 'scientific' status" (Foucault, 1979:24). "The system of rules" through which humanity "proceeds from domination to domination" (Foucault, 1977b:151) cannot anymore be the rules of formation of

6 May defines the difference between Foucault's archaeological and genealogical studies on the basis of the claim that the former neglects 'the distinction between justification and truth in an ultimate sense': "Foucault's archaeological work excluded the very possibility of grounds; all archives were subject to rules that rendered the search for epistemic grounds futile. There could be no question of justification, because there was no place from which justification could occur. With the genealogical studies we confront a different type of project. The question is no longer one of epistemological purging, but is instead one of specific detailings of specific problems regarding specific spaces of foundation" (May, 1993:70). May specifies his own argument by stating that the way he speaks of justification is based on a deflationary approach to truth (*ibid*.:59n).

7 This can be regarded as an answer to Dreyfus and Rabinow's critique on the problem of Foucault's statements in his archaeological period on both 'discourses establishing a system of relations' and the coherence of already unified discursive practices (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982:65-66).

discourse. Although the notion of power takes place in the formation of discourse 'silently' in the notions like 'authorities of delimitation' in his early writings, what was once regarded to be an element among many others now becomes the major constituent:

"We should admit … that power produces knowledge … that power and knowledge directly imply one another; that there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations" (Foucault, 1979:27). Perhaps it would be an exaggeration to define a third period of Foucault's work since what characterizes these studies is his will to use his approach to reflect on the issue of state power. In his *Governmentality*, for example, he describe the transition from 'the state of justice' of the feudal period to the 'administrative state' of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and then finally to 'the governmental state' from the eighteenth century onwards in Western societies (Foucault, 1991:103-104). What is important in such studies is that they enabled his further ideas on the possibility of social action from within ascribed subject positions. At this point his views on subjectivity more than just resemble to Althusser's views on the state's ideological apparatuses: "There are two meanings of the word *subject*: subject to someone else by control and dependence, and tied to his own identity by a conscience or self-knowledge" (Foucault, 1982:212). However, he takes a further step with this definition and tries to formulate the proper target of anti-authority struggles: "[T]he main objective of these struggles is to attack not so much "such or such" an institution of power, or group, or elite, or class, but rather a technique, a form of power" (*ibid*.). Although it may seem like a restricted form of struggle which can only be practiced within permitted spaces, considering the arbitrary formation of existing power relations and the way they are overturned which are overtly or covertly investigated by Foucault since his *Madness and Civilization*, the changing form of political struggle in the post-1970s period shoed that showed that they can be quite effective[8].

CONCLUSION

Two reasons can be given for the aspiration of his interpreters for restoring what is thought to be missing in Foucault's archaeological period. The first one is that although producing his first pieces of writing in 1960s, Foucault did not explicitly locate himself within or against of Marxism. His strong ties with French philosophy of science can be an explanation for his ambiguous position. Indeed, in his efforts to disclose his tendencies, Foucault associates himself with this school, which was centered around Canguilhem and which was neither Marxist, nor Freudian, nor structuralist (Foucault, 2004c:326). The second reason for his interpreters' emphasis on the intellectual development of Foucault which resulted in the introduction of a radical conception of power is that the whole new set of concepts that he introduced, including 'biopower' and 'microphysics of power', was regarded as an alternative for interpreting alternative means and

8 Here, one might also add that by deciphering the techniques of domination and thus, clarifying the mechanisms which are the main targets of anti-authority struggles, Foucault indirectly attributes the status of being a means for resistance to his own corpus.

mediums of resistance which came into forefront by mid-1970s and more generally 1980s. In line with his positive conception of power, Foucault has been embraced by many interpreters for he legitimized micropolitics as an effective field of resistance against domination through which non-class-based opposition became possible. According to this view "[t]here is not just one form of power, there are many: many micropowers, many macropowers. And each, in order to see how it works and how it came about, requires its own specific interrogation" (May, 1993:8). All in all, these discussions are based on the assumption that archaeological method fails to depict the material conditions that shapes Foucault's objects of investigation.

The critiques against Foucault's archaeological period is illustrated in Dreyfus and Rabinow's notion of the 'illusion of autonomous discourse' according to which, discursive practices influence non-discursive practices: "Rather than being the *element* or horizon within which the discursive practices takes place, it seems that the non-discursive practices are *elements* which discursive practices take up and transform" (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1982:77). Foucault's concept of *episteme* is the probable cause of such critiques since Foucault was not equipped sufficiently to elaborate this concept in his earlier studies. In his discussions on the sixteenth century *episteme* he declares that it does not make any difference whether it is regarded as world-view or not (Foucault, 2002b:34). Although he criticized his previous position in the following study (*The Archaeology of Knowledge*), he did not elaborate the relationship between non-discursive practices and discursive regularities and left the issue unresolved by only adding that by episteme he did not mean something like a spirit of the age (Foucault, 2002a:211). In addition, detecting a 'double game' -which in their view may even be the source of his success and 'ability to please'- in Foucault's early accounts on madness, Ferry and Renaut state that he lacks in clarity whether he praise madness through a Nietzschean-Heideggerian perspective or base his investigation within a Marxian framework through which treatment towards madness in modern ratio is interpreted as a consequence of the internal contradiction of liberal economy (Ferry and Renaut, 1990:75-78).

The second objection may be admissible for certain reasons. Although having a more positive opinion on Foucault's archaeology, Gutting also admits that his romantic irrationalism obscures the clarity of Foucault's early writings (Gutting, 1989:265). Considering he elaborated discursive unities and their central role in attributing the status of 'legitimacy' to particular objects of knowledge, concepts, forms of statements, and themes of discussions in his following studies, his investigations on madness may trigger the opinion that Foucault did not mention the possibility of any alternative discursive formations other than the ones which emerged outside the domain of the reason. The first objection, on the other hand, which implies a critique of idealism, worth further inquiry. What Dreyfuss and Rabinow conceived as a lack in Foucault can also be regarded as a strength as in the case of Barret who conceives Foucault's account on the formation of objects in discursive unities as a strong objection to 'determininst base/superstructure model in Marxism' (Barret, 1991:130). Dreyfuss and Rabinow's critique is also repudiated by Dean on the grounds that the

argument for a structuralist self-referentialism in Foucault which neglected the "non-discursive background of discourse" fails to appreciate the success of Foucault's archaeology in terms of developing "a materialist approach to the analysis of knowledge and belief" which conceptualizes discourses' materiality and location in time and space" (Dean, 1994:17).

Elimination of the critique of idealism in Foucault is only one side of the issue which may not be regarded as a significant aspect of his work since it was already done by Althusser. What is more crucial is that no matter how he was stuck in discursive unities and rules of formation, the archaeological method that he applied in his early studies comprises a void which can only be filled by nothing but the power/knowledge couple. Foucault may not be planning to pay more attention on the notion of power during early 1960s but what was going to be his central theme in 1970s was already there and waiting to get more mature before getting integrated to his discussions on discursive formations. The only reason for its delay is successfully explained by Foucault in one of his later self-assessments where he states that although he did not have the notion of power as an analytical category at his disposal while he was writing *Madness and Civilization* or *Birth of Clinic*, it was because none of the political camps in those years are prepared to inquiry power "[t]he way power was exercised -concretely and in detail- with its specificity, its techniques and tactics" (Foucault, 1980:115-116). In other words, the positive conception of power and the clues of the mobilization of its mutually-constitutive relationship with knowledge in his later studies was an 'effect' of his investigations on madness, clinics, and human sciences which could 'occur' after 1968 when "the concrete nature of power became visible" (*ibid.*:116). For the sake of clarity, one may say that perhaps it is more admissible to reflect Foucault's own strategy of reading on his writings and claim that the notion of power appeared in his later studies 'in the space of projections' of his earlier studies. In fact, if the dominant philosophical schools of contemporary thought like phenomenology, structuralism, etc. retain their positions in the academia, a historian of ideas who tries to locate Foucault's thought in the twentieth century philosophy say fifty years later would hardly feel the necessity to mention a shift from archaeology to genealogy in his writings. An entirely new periodization may be introduced in the future but this can only be based on a new set of knowledge, just as the case in Althusser who needed linguistic turn for distinguishing between pre- and post-1845 Marx.

In short, archaeology has all necessary means for being utilized as a critical strategy of reading. However, for the ones who are looking for clear-cut historical explanations or political strategies, neither archaeology, nor genealogy is a promising terrain. Rather than being used as a means for putting forward prescriptive investigations, in line with the consequences that Foucault deduced by using it, archaeology is totally a means for description –which, in many respects, is an important means of criticism. Although he tended to move towards a different direction in terms of the power of discourse in his later studies (see note 8), it is hardly possible to find a justification for this position in Foucault's entire enterprise. In fact it would be a hopeless effort to look for a prescription in Foucault since, considering that his work is a

part of the literature of human sciences, he shut the door for such efforts from the very beginning by stating that "what renders them [human sciences] possible, in fact, is a certain situation of 'vicinity' with regard to biology, economics, and philology (or linguistics); they exist only in so far as they dwell side by side with those sciences -or rather beneath them, in the space of their projection" (Foucault, 2002b:399).

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FOUCAULT'NUN ARKEOLOJİK VE SOYKÜTÜKÇÜ ÇALIŞMALARI ARASINDAKİ FARKA DAİR KISA BİR TARTIŞMA

Özet: Bu çalışmada öncelikle Michel Foucault'nun söylemin oluşum ve işleyiş süreçlerini analiz etmek için geliştirdiği ve arkeoloji olarak tanımladığı yöntem ele alınmıştır. Ardından Foucault'nun bu yöntemi kullandığı 1960'lardaki çalışmalarının yapısalcılıkla ilişkisi tartışılmış, son olarak da Foucault'nun 1970'lerde yaptığı çalışmalarla daha önceki döneme ait çalışmaları arasındaki farka dair çeşitli yorumcuların görüşleri ve bu görüşlerin geçerliliğine dair bir tartışmaya yer verilmiştir. Foucault 1960'lı yıllarda yaptığı çalışmalarda söylemsel oluşumların ortaya çıkış kurallarını analiz etmeye yönelik bir dizi tarihsel çalışma yapmış ve bu çalışmalarında kullandığı yöntemi arkeoloji kavramıyla tanımlamıştır. Foucault bir yöntem olarak arkeolojiyi dilbilimsel analizlerden ve düşünce tarihçiliğinden farklılaştırmış ve söylemin oluşumunu bir başlangıcı, belirli bir güzergahı ve gelişimi olan bir süreç olarak görmeyen bir yaklaşımla incelemeyi, söylemsel ögelerin şu veya bu statüyü hangi koşullarda edindiklerini bunların oluşum koşulları çerçevesinde ele alarak incelemeyi hedeflemiştir. Foucault tam olarak bu nedenle asıl inceleyeceği alanın *connaissance* değil *savoir* olduğunu söyler. İngilizce dilinde 'bilgi' kavramıyla karşılanmakla birlikte Fransızca'da anlamı farklı olan bu iki kavram arasındaki fark, Foucault'nun çalışmasının içeriğini açıklamaktadır. Foucault bu iki kavram arasındaki farkı şöyle açıklar: *Connaissance* kavramı özne ve nesne arasındaki ilişkiye ve bu ilişkiyi düzenleyen formel yasalara işaret etmektedir. *Savoir* kavramı ise belli bir dönemde belli bir nesnenin *connaisance* alanında yerini almasının ve o nesneye dair şu veya bu ifadenin dile getirilmesinin koşulunun tanımlandığı alanın karşılığıdır. Foucault'nun bu dönemdeki çalışmaları, 1960'larda Fransız düşüncesinde etkili olan yapısalcılık akımı çerçevesinde değerlendirilmiş, bu akımın tarihle olan sorunlu ilişkisine ve tarihsel-toplumsal süreçlerde aktörlere etkin roller vermeme eğilimine yönelik eleştiriler Foucault'nun çalışmaları için de dile getirilmiştir. Foucault, araştırmalarında özneye verdiği sınırlı rolü açık bir şekilde dile getirmiştir. Buna göre yazarın kelimelerinin kendine özgülüğünü ona atfeden aslen içinde işlev gördüğü söylemdir; yazar yaratıcı rolünden tamamen soyunmuş olarak ve sadece söylemin bir değişken fonksiyonu olarak ele alınmalıdır. Bununla birlikte Foucault'nun yapısalcılığın tarihsizliğinden muzdarip olduğu savına karşı gelen kimi yorumcular, Foucault'nun çalışmalarının yönteminden ziyade araştırmalarının nesnesini kurma biçiminin yapısalcı ögeler taşıdığını belirtmişlerdir. Kimi yorumculara göre Foucault'nun yapısalcılığın izlerini taşıyan 1960'lardaki çalışmaları ile 1970'lerdeki soykütükçü çalışmaları arasında önemli bir ayrım vardır. Foucault'nun erken dönem çalışmalarında söylem ve söylem-dışı alanlar arasındaki etkileşime dair yeterli açıklamanın olmadığını iddia eden kimi düşünürler, Foucault'nun soykütükçü dönemi olarak dile getirilen 1970'lerdeki çalışmalarında söylemin oluşum sürecnde iktidar ilişkilerinin oynadığı rolü daha iyi ele aldığını savunmuşlardır. Foucault'nun soykütükçü dönemindeki yaklaşımının ilk işaretleri 1970 yılında Collége de France'da verdiği *Söylemin Düzeni* adlı ünlü açılış dersinde bulunabilir. Burada Foucault, hem belli söylemsel pratiklerin dışlanmasına neden olan içsel ve dışsal dinamiklerden bahsetmiş, hem de kurumları şekillendiren iktidar mekanizmaların daha somut olgular olarak ele alınmasının yolunu açmıştır. Nietzsche'nin tarih anlayışını ele aldığı bir başka metninde ise tarihte etkin olan güçleri rastlantısal çelişkilerle ilişkilendirerek, erken dönem çalışmalarında söylemsel mekanizmaların söylem-dışı alanı belirlediği yönündeki yorumlara karşı yeni yaklaşım ortaya koymaktadır. Artık tarihten bahsederken söylemin oluşumunu belirleyen kurallardan değil, söylem ve iktidar arasındaki sıkı bağlantı üzerinden ve pek çok ölçekte işleyen çelişkilerden bahsedilmektedir. Bu yeni vurguyu Foucault'nun çalışmaları açısından önemli bir kırılma olarak gören yorumculara göre

söylemsel olanın söylem-dışı alanı şekillendirdiği yönünde idealizme kayma eğilimi olan erken dönem çalışmalarından farklı olarak bu çalışmalarında Foucault bilgi-iktidar ilişkisi daha elle tutulur bir şekilde ele alınmıştır. Buna karşın Foucault'nun arkeoloji yönteminin söylem kavramını kavramsallaştırma biçimi kimi başka yorumcular tarafından önemli bir adım olarak yorumlanmıştır. Bazılarına göre Foucault'nun söylemin kendi nesnesini oluşturma biçimine dair argümanları, Marksizmin kimi versiyonlarında yer alan indirgemeci altyapı-üstyapı ilişkisine kuvvetli bir alternatif sunmaktadır. Bir başka yoruma göre ise Foucault arkeolojik dönem çalışmalarında bilginin materyalist analizine dair bir yaklaşım geliştirmiş, söylemi kendi materyalliği ile zaman ve mekandaki konumuna referansla kavramsallaştırabilmiştir. Burada şunu eklemek gerekir ki Foucault'nun kendi çalışmalarına dair değerlendirmeleri de onun çalışmalarının sınıflandırılmasını ve dönemselleştirilmesini belli ölçüde güçleştirmiştir. Hem kitaplarında, hem de kitaplarına dair değerlendirmelerde bulunduğu röportajlarında çalışmalarında eksik olduğunu düşündüğü noktaları tartışması ve yeni çalışmalarını bu eksik noktalar üzerine bina ettiğini iddia etmesi, Foucault'nun çalışmalarının belli bir izleği takip ettiği algısına neden olmaktadır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, hem Foucault'nun kendisinin, hem de Foucault'nun arkeolojik dönemini eleştiren yorumculara karşı gelenlerin görüşleri göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, Foucault'nun 1960'lardaki çalışmalarının sonraki soykütükçü çalışmalarında ele aldığı soruların temelini attığını söylemek mümkündür. Bilgi ve iktidar arasındaki ilişki bu erken dönem çalışmalarında dile getirilmiş, ancak Foucault'nun o dönemde söylemin oluşum sürecini betimlemeyi temel analiz konusu olarak ele almasından dolayı ön plana çıkmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Foucault, Söylem, Arkeoloji, Soykütüğü

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AN ASSESSMENT OF ANGER DISCOURSE USED IN THE FAMILY IN TERMS OF TENDENCY TO VIOLENCE(*)

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Abstract: In Turkey violence is recently becoming an uprising and widespread issue while such crimes highly dominate the news on media as well as this issue is evident in the relevant literature. Violent acts unfortunately and especially affect children. The basic foundations of personal development can be seen in early childhood during which the children internalize what they hear and see. As they grow up children reinforce the things they have learned and behave accordingly. Violent acts are often committed by parents or others (teacher, caregiver, peers or older children, etc.) on each other or on children when the doer loses control of his / her anger. Children are exposed to violence or witness it within the household or out. The use of anger discourse or being exposed to this discourse has a vital importance in unveiling the tendency of violence. In the light of such information, this study was carried out in order to evaluate anger discourse in terms of tendency to violence. The data were collected through "Interview Form for Anger Discourse in the eye of Children" which was developed by the authors using semi-structured interview technique. The sample of this study was comprised of a randomly selected 190 children (10 children from each school) from a randomly selected 19 early childhood education centers within the province of Afyonkarahisar during 2012-2013 academic year. The data collected were analyzed according to descriptive analysis technique which is one of those used in qualitative research methods. As a result of the study, it was concluded that in most of the families there were evident signs of physical violence besides threatening and offending discourse elements all of which can be seen as reasons for child's tendency to violence.

Key Words: Family, Child, Violence, Anger Discourse

1. INTRODUCTION

Defined as the use of physical force or threat likely to result in injury, death or psychological harm, developmental retardation or depression towards a person or a group, violence is a social phenomenon that could be seen in every aspect of individual life, showing an increase throughout the world (Ayan, 2007: 207; Çetinkaya Yıldız & Hatipoğlu Sümer, 2010: 631). Children are the ones that are mostly affected by violence, and they are in the most defenceless position. The most

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common violence committed against the child in social and economic field is the one practised within family (Ögel, Tarı & Yılmazçetin Eke, 2005: 10; Pournaghash-Tehrani & Feizabadi, 2009: 417).

Regarding the violence in the family particularly as a part of family life and passing it from one generation to another does not only have an impact on the one exposed to violence, but it also has a negative effect on the children growing up in the environment where violence is committed (Bayındır, 2010: 2; Osofsky, 2004: 483; Vahip, 2002: 314). According to Goldstein (2007), violence in the family comprises many behaviours ranging from threat to death, from sexual abuse to insult depending on the motive of controlling one another among the family members (Ext. Özgentürk, Karğon & Baltacı, 2012: 60). In addition, violence in the family is committed between the mother and father in the case of losing the control against children. Kaymak Özmen defines the concept of anger as "a rather negative emotion felt in the conditions of being prevented, being attacked, threatened, and deprived and limited etc. and resulting in aggressive behaviours in this way or that way by targeting the thing or person in question". The moment when the feeling of anger appears, some individuals reveal it by showing their reactions through physical or verbal aggression, while some others could exhibit a recessive or indirect aggression or withdraw (Buckley, Holt & Whelan, 2007: 298; Çivitçi, 2007: 100; Hornor, 2005: 206). Within the anger discourses that are described as a basic feeling that could vary from slight anger up to intensive rage are such emotionally neglected and abusive behaviours as shouting at the child, refusing, humiliating, saying bad words, leaving alone, frightening, intimidation, threatening, not meeting the emotional needs, expecting heavier responsibilities relative to the age, making a distinction among siblings, devaluing, ignoring, abasing, talking in a sarcastic way, putting an extreme pressure and authority and using nicknames (Catani, Jacob, Schauer, Kohila & Neuner, 2008: 2; Çivitçi, 2007: 100; Kaymak Özmen, 2004: 29; Osofsky, 2004: 483). The behaviours of staying away from the family, being nervous, having a dependable personality, improving the feeling of worthlessness, being inconsistent and aggressive in the children exposed to emotional negligence and abuse could be seen more frequently. On the other hand, emotional negligence and abuse could have a negative impact on the personality and success of the child as well as his physical development. In other words, children are exposed to violence both in and out of the family and they witness violence (Bahar, Savaş & Bahar, 2009: 57-58; Buckley, Holt & Whelan, 2007: 297; Thompson & Rippey Massat, 2005: 369).

The way of being affected by violence for children and how they react to violence vary depending on their ages and cognitive developments (Zun & Rosen, 2003: 16). It is pointed out that individuals growing up in a stressful environment throughout their childhood apply violence on their own children, there appear some physical, cognitive, behavioural, social and emotional damages at children exposed to violence and witness violence and some somatic symptoms, in particular aggression, could appear in the short term. These children might have a tendency towards fighting, aggression and they might have not self-esteem. They try to compensate their

anger, internal conflicts by committing violence against the children weaker than them. Some other children become passive individuals without any confidence who cannot defend their rights (Ayrancı, Köşgeroğlu & Günay, 2004: 134; Ayan, 2007: 208; Allen, 2009: 177; Nicolson & Wilson, 2004: 267; Osofsky, 2004: 481; Terzian & Fraser, 2005: 409). Since lack of controlling anger and aggression in the family could lead to incurable damages both on the parents and children, it is necessary that aggressive behaviours whose negative results are quite apparent be eliminated, the feeling of anger that is inevitable to experience be taken under supervision and expressed with a common sense. It is also of necessity that parents learn basic communication skills at least in their relation both with each other and with their children and get to know how to deal with the feeling of anger and aggressive behaviours (Kaymak Özmen, 2004: 35; Osofsky, 2004: 482). Therefore, children should be trained against familial violence in early ages and should be taken under protection if necessary and be made sensitive to negative outcomes of violence or the things caused by it (Bayındır, 2010: 2; Buckley, Holt & Whelan, 2007: 298; Thompson & Rippey Massat, 2005: 369).

Anger discourses are of great importance in terms of determining tendency to violence. For that reason, this research was carried out to evaluate the anger discourse used by the parents of children at the age of five – six in terms of tendency to violence.

2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

2.1. Design of the Study

In the current study that was carried out to determine the anger discourse of the parents of children at the age of five – six in terms of tendency to violence, semi-structured individual interview was used as a qualitative research method. Semi-structured interview is a method where the questions of the researcher are determined in advance and the same questions are mostly asked to all of the participants in the same order. In this case, the researcher carries out the interview being aware of what to seek for. The most important facility that the semi-structured interview method offers to the researcher is that it is more systematic and is likely face to face due to the fact that it can be sustained depending on the interview protocol prepared before (Sümer, Demirutku & Özkan, 2007: 49).

2.2. Population and Working Group

The population of the research was made up of children at the age of five – six attending to a kindergarten working under the primary schools of Provincial Directorate of Education in the city centre of Afyonkarahisar in the educational year of 2012-2013. In the working group of the study, randomly chosen 190 children (ten children from each school) who are in the age group of five-six from total 19 schools attending to kindergartens in the primary school of Provincial Directorate of Education in the city centre of Afyonkarahisar were included in the research.

According to the demographic characteristics of the working group, it was found that 52.6% were boys, 47.4% were girls; 54.2% of the mothers were 30-39 years old, 39.5% were 29 and below and 6.3% were 40-49; 55.3% were graduates of a primary school, 25.8% were graduates of a uni-

versity, 16.8% were graduates of a high school, 2.1% were literate; 72.1% were housewives, 23.2% were civil servants, 4.2% were self-employed; 70.5% of the fathers were 30-39 years old, 15.8% were 40-49, 13.7% were 29 and below; 41.6% were graduates of a primary school, 33.7% were graduates of a university, 24.2% were graduates of a high school, 0.5% were literate; 59.4% were self-employed, 26.8% were civil servants, 12.1% were workers and 2.6% were unemployed.

2.3. Data Collection Instruments

In the current study, "General Information Form" having the demographic features of the preschool children was used as a data collection instrument and "Semi-structured Interview Form Having the Items Regarding the Anger Discourse from the Child's Point of View" was used to collect necessary information for the solution of the problem in the research.

General Information Form: The form developed by the researchers was made up of the items of birth date, gender of the child, the number of children in the family, the educational status of the mother and profession. These forms were filled by the parents of the children.

Semi-structured Interview Form: In this study, face to face interview technique was used. Benefitting from the literature knowledge and taking the expert views, semi-structured interview form was prepared having the items with regard to anger discourse from the child's point of view in a way to serve the purpose of the research. During the interviews, the topics that should be taken into consideration or be avoided in terms of scientific facts were considered. Whether the questions are clear enough or not were tested in pilot studies, necessary corrections were made, expert views were taken and the interview form was finalized. In the interview, children were asked such questions as "Which bad words do your friends say? What do your mother and father say each other when they get angry or shout each other? What do your parents say when they get angry with you?" and their views regarding anger discourse were determined.

2.4. The Analysis of the Data

The data collected in this research was analyzed with the descriptive analysis technique which is used as one of the qualitative research methods. The purpose of the descriptive analysis is to form the raw data into a way which readers can understand and use if they wish. The data obtained through descriptive analysis are summarised depending on the themes determined beforehand and analyzed, and direct extractions are frequently given in the presentation of findings (Altunışık, Coşkun, Yıldırım and Bayraktaroğlu, 2001).

The notes concerning the interviews with the working group were turned into documents and the data set was formed. The data set was read repeatedly and content analysis was started. The analysis was carried out through the following stages.

Coding the data: In the current study, the technique of "coding in general terms" was used since it was considered that a certain theoretical basis existed. At first, some coding was made in line with the theoretical structure and new codes were included in the key list. Old codes were changed with the new ones.

Finding the Themes: Some of the themes were determined in advance according to the theoretical framework. These emerging codes were rearranged under the codes determined beforehand and new themes were added when necessary.

Arrangement and Definition of the Data According to Codes and Themes: A system was formed to arrange the data and in this way the data was made definable and analyzable in terms of some cases.

Analysis of the Findings: The analyses were made as frequency and percentage (line percentage) distributions in line with the data. Some outcomes were obtained in these findings and expressions were made concerning the importance of the results.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings obtained in the research carried out to determine the anger discourse which the children at the age of five-six and their parents in terms of violence tendency were given in tables and discussed.

Table 3.1. The Distribution of Anger Discourse Used by Children for Each Other (n=190)

Anger Discourse	*n*	*%*
Bad words (Adult bad words over genital organs and sexuality)	50	26.3
Expressions of animal names (Animals like, ox, donkey, bear, crocodile, dog, etc.)	24	12.6
Vulgar expression (Get out bub, you bub, who do you say as bub, woah, idiot, oh shit etc.)	36	18.9
Expression of insult (Fool, dirt, maniac, you are bad, mad etc.)	54	28.4
Expression of humiliation (You look like a maniac/coward, you retarded, you are too bad at activities, snotty nosed, baby, foolish, ugly, brainless, big assed, egg headed etc.)	42	22.1
Expression of threat (You will see next time, I'll beat you etc.)	13	6.8
Expression of exclusion (Let's not play with him/her, you are not my friend, I don't love you, don't play with us, you can't sit next to me, get out of here etc.)	21	11.0
Those whose friends do not utter bad words	19	10.0

As given in Table 3.1, 28.4% of the children used the expressions of insult, 26.3% used bad words, 22.1% used humiliating expressions, 18.9% used vulgar expressions, 12.6% used the expressions bearing animal names, 11.0% used expressions of exclusion and 6.8% used the expression of threat as anger discourse for their friends and each others. In addition, it was found that 10.0% used expressions having no bad words in for each other.

Table 3.2. The Distribution of Anger Discourse Used by Parents for Each Other from Children's Perspective (n=190)

Anger Discourse	*n*	*%*
Bad words (Adult bad words over genital organs and sexuality)	14	7.3
Expressions of animal names (Animals like, pig, bear, ox, dog, etc.)	18	9.4
Expressions of threat (I will leave and won't come back any more, I will make you bring, I told you not to insist, I'll beat you, I will hit you, I'll break your hand)	24	12.6
Expressions of humiliation (Daughter of her mother, sullen, you're ugly, you're smelly, bearded, coward, etc.)	9	4.7
Expressions of insult (Psycho, mentally handicapped, man of forest, dirty, mad, you're bad, idiot etc.)	22	11.5
Expressions and behaviours of physical violence (I say I'll beat you, they push each other, my father hit my mother when she threw slippers, they shout each other, they get angry, they say they will hit etc.)	28	14.7
Those expressing they never heard using such words (I have never heard, they never argue, they behave well to each other)	42	22.1

The views with regard to the distribution of the anger discourse used by parents from children's point of view were given in Table 3.2. In the table, it is a striking result that 22.1% of the children pointed out they did not hear any anger discourse by their parents. Besides that, they expressed that parents used anger expressions and behaviours bearing physical violence (14.7%), expressions of threat (12.6%), expressions of insult (11.5%), and expressions bearing animal names (9.4%), bad words (7.3%), and expressions of humiliation (4.7%).

Table 3.3. The Distribution of Anger Discourse Used by Parents for their Children from Children's Perspective (n=190)

Anger Discourse	**n**	**%**
Bad words (Adult bad words over genital organs and sexuality)	7	3.6
Expressions and behaviours of physical violence (They beat, punch, pull and push etc.)	46	24.2
Expressions of threat (I will tell it to your father, we will make injection, we will force you to eat, I'll get angry, I'll tell it to your teacher, the police will come and take you, I'll give you to thieves, I'll lock you in etc.)	47	24.7
Expressions bearing animal names (Donkey, pony of a donkey, dog etc.)	13	6.8

Expressions of insult (Stupid, you a bad boy etc.)	21	11.0
Those punishing the child (They lock in, they tell to wait outside etc.)	31	16.3
Those not using bad words	25	13.1

The distributions of the views with regard to anger discourse used by parents for their children were given in Table 3.3. According to the table, the anger discourse used by parents for their children were determined as the ones punishing at the rate of 24.7%, expressions and behaviours bearing physical violence as 24.2%, and 16.3% were those punishing, 13.1% were the ones not using bad words, 11.0% were expressions of bad words, 6.8% were the expressions bearing animal names and bad words expressions at the rate of 3.6%.

As given in Tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, more than half (76.8%) of the children used such anger discourse as bad words for each other, insult and humiliating expressions in Table 3.1, almost half of the parents of children (38.8%) used each other such anger expressions bearing bad words, insult and physical violence in Table 3.2 and again more than half of the parents (65.2%) used anger discourse bearing expressions like physical violence, threat and punishments.

Shahinfar, Fox and Leavitt (2000) pointed out in a study carried out with preschool children and their parents that 78.1% of the children are exposed to violence. Güler, Uzun, Boztaş and Aydoğan (2002) stated in their study that 93.0% of the mothers had such actions of emotional exploitation and negligence as "not showing her affection, leaving children at home alone, frightening the child, threatening, saying bad words, and closing the child in the room, pretending as if the child were not at home. Similarly, Gültekin Akduman (2010) found in his study that the methods most of the mothers used to discipline their children were getting angry, shouting, scolding and threatening while some other mothers used physical methods like saying bad words, humiliating or insulting, appointing the child a lot of tasks heavier than his capacity. It is likely to say that these results support the types of expression bearing anger discourse parents used for their children in the current study.

In a study, Kapcı (2004) found that the rate of violence is high among children both for the preschool period and for higher levels of education and that the content of violence is exhibited mostly in the form of physical and verbal violence. This result also supports the finding of the current study that violence is experienced among friends in a widespread manner.

The environment, family, school and the group of pears children have a strong impact on the way of their perception of anger and the method of exhibiting violent behaviours (Sever, 2013: 64). Depending on the related literature, it is likely to say that among the anger discourses are such emotional negligence and exploitation acts as shouting at the child, refusing, humiliating, saying bad words, leaving alone, intimidation, threatening, not meeting the emotional needs, putting heavy tasks upon him more than his capacity, making

discriminations among siblings, depreciating, ignoring, humiliating, ridiculing, putting excessive pressure and authority upon him, calling him with nicknames (Catani, Jacob, Schauer, Kohila & Neuner, 2008: 2; Çivitçi, 2007: 100; Kaymak Özmen, 2004: 29; Osofsky, 2004: 483). Çetinkaya Yıldız and Hatipoğlu Sümer (2010) pointed out in their study carried out to determine to what extent preschool children witness violence at light and mid level and are exposed to violence that children at the age group of five-six are exposed to violence more compared to the ones in the three-four age group. In the case where an individual who is in the position of identification object apply violence to another one in the family repeatedly, the identification of the child with the aggressor could be much easier than the identification of the child being exposed to violence. The children witnessing the violence in the family in a visual and audial way are called "silent, forgotten" or "invisible" victims. Even though these children are not exposed to violence and aggression directly, they could exhibit the similar behaviours with other children being exposed to physical violence (Kaymak Özmen, 2004: 29). As a matter of fact, since the anger discourse exhibited by children for each other or by parents for each other or towards their children are regarded as an indication of violence tendency, the findings obtained in the study could be evaluated such that children witness anger discourse or are exposed it in a way that will create violence tendency.

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

At the end of the study, it was found that children used anger discourse for each other and parents used it for each other and against their children. As given in the theory of transmission of violence from one generation to another, aggression and violence are the two behaviours that can be learned and if they are not dealt with or unless precautions are taken in time, it could lead to some wounds in the structure of the community that could not be treated once again. In order not to allow today's children to turn into potential aggressive and violent actors' even criminal adults, the following recommendations could be made;

- Parents could be made aware of increasing their knowledge and skills over child development and education, communication with children, child and discipline.
- Some seminars could be arranged for parents at preschool education institutions for the purpose of achieving the skills of expressing the feeling of anger through healthier ways and they could be encouraged to participate in these seminars.
- Parents having some problems in particular could be educated over preventive services with regard to teaching them how to deal with anger and aggressive behaviours and delaying their rows in the presence of their children through educational institutions and families could be supported in this issue.
- Children could be educated against familial violence from the early childhood period onwards and be made sensible to violence and negative developments caused by violence.
- Depending on the fact that the expressions result from exposure and being a witness, children could be made to behave more caring

at the program children frequently follow by acting with social awareness sensibility at the media, and parents could be made conscious.

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AİLEDE KULLANILAN ÖFKE SÖYLEMLERİNİN ŞİDDET EĞİLİMİ YÖNÜNDEN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Özet: Son yıllarda ülkemizde yapılan araştırmalar ve medyaya yansıyan haberler incelendiğinde şiddet olaylarının her geçen gün arttığı, gittikçe daha yaygın bir sorun haline geldiği gözlenmektedir. Bu olaylardan en çok zarar gören ve etkilenen çocuklardır. Çocuklarda kişilik gelişiminin temeli okul öncesi dönemde atılmaktadır. Bu dönemde çocuklar gördüklerini ve duyduklarını içselleştirmektedir. Bu yaşlardan sonra ise öğrendiklerini pekiştirmekte ve buna uygun davranışları sergilemektedir. Şiddet ortamında büyüyen çocuklar, bu söylem ve davranışların normal yaşamın bir kuralı olduğunu benimsemekte, ruhsal yaşamlarında oluşan sorunları hem yaşamakta hem de başkalarına yaşatmaktadır. Şiddet yetişkinin ruh sağlığını bozarken, şiddetle baş etme olanakları sınırlı olan çocukların ruh sağlığını daha fazla bozmaktadır. Sadece şiddete uğramak değil, şiddete tanıklık etmek de çocukların ruh sağlığını bozmaktadır. Şiddet, çoğunlukla anne babanın veya bir başkasının (öğretmen, bakıcı, akran veya büyük çocuklar vb.) öfkesini kontrol edemediği durumlarda, birbirlerine veya çocuklara karşı uygulanmaktadır. Çocuklar aile içinde veya aile dışında şiddete uğramakta veya şiddete tanıklık etmektedir. Şiddete tanıklık durumlarından olan öfke söylemlerinin kullanılması ya da öfke söylemlerine maruz kalma, şiddet eğilimini ortaya koyma açısından son derece önemlidir. Bu noktadan hareketle araştırma, ailede kullanılan öfke söyleminin şiddet eğilimi yönünden değerlendirilmesi amacıyla yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri, araştırmacılar tarafından geliştirilen "Çocuk Gözüyle Öfke Söylemleri Görüşme Formu" ile nitel araştırma tekniklerinden yarı yapılandırılmış bireysel görüşme yöntemiyle toplanmıştır. Görüşme, araştırmaya katılan bireylerle sözlü iletişim yolu ile derinlemesine çalışma yapmaya olanak sağlayarak bilgi toplamaya yarayan araştırma tekniğidir. Görüşmelerde katılımcılara araştırma sorusunu yanıtlamaya yardımcı olacağı düşünülen sorular sorularak yanıtları kaydedilir. Görüşmeler; görüşme amacına, görüşmeye katılanların sayısına, görüşmedeki kuralların katılığı ile görüşülmek istenen kişiye bağlı olarak sınıflandırılabilir. Bireysel görüşmede görüşmeci ile kaynak kişi dışında kimse bulunmaz. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme, araştırmacının sorularını önceden belirlediği ve çoğunlukla bütün katılımcılara aynı soruları aynı sırada yönelttiği görüşmedir. Bu durumda araştırmacı neyi aradığını kesin olarak bilerek görüşme yapmaktadır. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği, sahip olduğu belirli düzeyde standartlık ve aynı zamanda esneklik nedeni ile eğitim bilim araştırmalarında daha uygun bir teknik görünümü vermektedir. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniğinin araştırmacıya sunduğu en önemli kolaylık görüşmenin önceden hazırlanmış görüşme protokolüne bağlı olarak sürdürülmesi nedeni ile daha sistematik ve karşılaşılabilir bilgi sunmasıdır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu; 2012-2013 eğitim-öğretim yılında Afyonkarahisar il merkezindeki İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'ne bağlı okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarından tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilen 19 okuldan yine tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilen beş-altı yaşlarında 190 çocuk (her okuldan on çocuk) oluşturmuştur. Çalışma grubundaki çocukların demografik özellikleri incelendiğinde; %52,6'sının erkek, %47,4'ünün kız olduğu; annelerinin %54,2'sinin 30-39 yaş, %39,5'inin 29 yaş ve altı, %6,3'ünün ise 40-49 yaş aralığında olduğu; %55,3'ünün ilköğretim, %25,8'inin üniversite, %16,8'inin lise mezunu, %2,1'inin ise okuryazar olduğu; %72,1'inin ev hanımı, %23,2'sinin memur, %4,2'sinin serbest meslek sahibi olduğu; babalarının %70,5'inin 30-39 yaş, %15,8'inin 40-49 yaş, %13,7'sinin 29 yaş ve altı olduğu; %41,6'sının ilköğretim, %33,7'sinin üniversite, %24,2'sinin lise mezunu, %0,5'inin ise okuryazar olduğu; %59,4'ünün serbest meslek, %26,8'inin memur, %12,1'inin işçi ve %2,6'sını işsiz olduğu belirlenmiştir. Araştırmanın verileri, nitel araştırma yöntemlerinde kullanılan analiz tekniklerinden betimsel analiz tekniğine göre çözümlenmiştir. Araştırmanın sonucunda, ailelerin çoğunluğunda şiddet eğilimi göstergesi olarak değerlendirilebilecek fiziksel şiddet içeren, tehdit içeren, hakaret içeren ifadelerin kullanıldığı tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Aile, Çocuk, Şiddet, Öfke Söylemi

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BEAUTY PERCEPTION OF VEILED WOMAN AND HER TENDENCY TO BEAUTY: MINDS AND BODIES PERAMBULATING IN PURGATORY

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Abstract: The perceptions of veiled women towards the physical beauty of woman developed depending on the modern perception, and the veiled women established their appearance in the society in the context of spirituality and modern perception. Even though the togetherness of modern and the spiritual one creates meaningful contradictions, the veiled women tried to solve these contradictions with the mission of serving for religion by representing it best. Not to be perceived as "bad, the ugly, mismatched" by the others is a great extension of the mission of serving for the religion. The womens who said that they are exposed significantly pressure because of their veiling have coverted a religious objectives looking beautiful to decrease pressure inquestion and to describe religion to the others. Although the mission of serving for the religion softens these contradictions to some degree, the internal criticism of women's being alienated from the authenticity of religion which becomes evident in their intellectual and emotional processes makes the togetherness of modern and the spiritual one difficult.

Key Words: Modernism, Veiled Women, Beauty, Piety, Woman's Body

INTRODUCTION

The concept of beauty especially considered over women contain multi-ended sociaological facts in itself. The concept, which is dealt with in different definitions and categories in terms of this, point out to related dimensions with its being handled. Of these dimensions, the one that is of utmost importance for us is how the perception of beauty correlated with modest dress; thus, the subject is directly related to the veiled women.

In recent years in particular, the veiled women have been the subject of many researches such as appearing in / being taken notice of and being marginalised in the world of society (Sudeary 2012; Mirza, 2013 Najmabadi, 1993; Menin, 2011), religious sources of dressing in a veiled way and its socio-cultural manifestations (Droogsma, 2007; Read and Bartkowski, 2000; Onar, and Müftüler-Baç, 2011; Brenner,1996; Gökarıksel, 2012), the effects of religious beliefs and their practices on woman's gaining her mental health and her eigenvalues (Ellison, 1993), physical satisfaction / dissatisfaction (Dunkel, et. all., 2010), the relationship of purdah and fashion (Gökarıksel and Secor, 2012), and many more. These researches were conducted with the methods such as literary texts and film analyses (Sudeary, 2012; Najmabadi, 2004; Gökarıksel and Secor, 2012), interviews with the veiled women from

the same and/or from different cultures (Mirza, 2013; Brenner, 1996; Menin, 2011), focus group interviews (Gökarıksel, 2012), and important results were reached with the obtained findings.

In this research, we will try to understand and analyze how the beauty perceptions (which is linked to the body of woman) of the women who prefer the religious way of dressing defined as "modest dress" in the daily life and how they define the beauty related to women.

While beauty is regarded as a concept showing variation according to time and culture (Mazur, 1086: 281; Lovejoy, 2001), it is also dealt with a concept independent from time and geography determined with universally fixed criteria[1]. When we discuss beauty with woman subject, thus within its meaning that associates woman body, sociological analysis of body seems impossible. The sexual apartheid of 17th century Enlightenment period, which originated from Descartes, nurtured the patriarchal thought sustained in the historical process, and in this regard it was subjected to the criticism of feminist theorists (Köysüren, 2013: 11). Butler, one of the most important of these theorists, questioned whether the facts appearing as "natural" concerning gender were scientifically produced for the sake of political and societal interests, and advocated the idea that societal gender was a societal and cultural construct which could not be thought independent of gender. Whether construct associates to determinism or to free will, body appears either an environment where cultural meanings engrave or as an instrument that a possessive will use in determining a cultural meaning to it self. In both cases, body it self, which is illustrated as "environment" or "instrument" is a societal and cultural construct. In this regard, one cannot speak of an explicit existence of existence and subjectivity of bodies before the mark of societal gender (Butler, 2008: 52 – 54).

Turner, one of the many of philosophers supporting the idea that our bodies are socially structured, says that there is no universal/scientific way which can tell of how our bodies "are" in the society. According to him, how we feel our body, how others perceive it, how they engrave and treat it are, though not entirely, greatly shaped culturally (quoted by Wallace – Wolf from Turner, 2004: 436). Durkheim says that this societal effect, which impose itself on human and which differ from the simple interaction in the daily life, has an important place in one's psychic life. According to him, even though our moral conscious is a part of our conscious, we cannot feel ourselves equal to it. This societal voice, which makes us feel itself only in ordering us and introducing ban, warns us as an expression which is present in us but which is not from us (Durkheim, 2005: 316-317). Body, which has been individualized as well as that no one have seen so far in the modern popular culture, is made to have a central position in human life thanks to the sovereignty of a such societal inner voice. From now on, people are much more interested in their bodies' health, shape and appearance from what it used to be. Within this period, however, a significant contradiction showed itself such as radically questioning our definitions of body, and our knowledge and gro-

1 Eco, who associates "beauty" to the ability to know and defines it as the things whose sighting arouses pleasure in human (2006: 122), says that beauty is formed of appropriate proportion and our emotions derive pleasure from the well-proportioned things.

unds that body need to be controlled, as well as the abundance of the instruments of harnessing it (Shiling, 1993: 1-3).

Fashion trends have created images towards the ideal sizes as to the ideal bodies within last few decades, and these created images eliminated the doubts concerning the idealized/perfected body type (Hoeppner, 2000; Dunkel et all, 2010; Hesse-Biber et all, 2006; Kim, 2007; Reece, 1996) [2]. This ideal type of woman determined and accepted culturally is the woman who is 1.68 – 1.70 cm heights, long legged, sun-burnt, vigorous, not having even a little overweight (Coward, 1993: 42) and having shaped hips (Manzur, 1986: 281). In this process, the way of dealing with human bodies in terms of aging processes was also greatly changed. The image aggrandized today is the eternal youth, and it is known that the permanency of youth will be ensured with the methods such as regular exercise and athleticism, face stretching with certain intervals, liposuction, and intervention in the eyes. These young bodies are simply built against aging (quoted by Wallace – Wolf, 2004: 437 from Turner). Nutritional deficiency arises in the building process in question and malnutrition causes bodily and physical disorders in women (Reece, 1996; Hoeppner, 2000; Dunkel et all; Lovejoy, 2001; Cussins, 2001; Polinska, 2000).

2 Baudraillard, who heads towards understanding this beauty perception and imposition of consumption society in terms of "categorical command", says beauty and slenderness have no natural side. He also says fatness was considered beautiful in other eras but democratic and compulsory beauty, which is the homework of almost everyone in the consumption society, will not split off the slenderness and thinness.

Baudraillard, dealing this rebuilding of woman body in the consumption society with deep analyses, says that the articles published as to beauty and body in the woman magazines create a polarization like subject/object between woman and her body and then make a call for the reconciliation of these "dangerous" poles. According to him, this tacit terror oriented towards women bears important details in it self. The suggestions of knowing the body, discovering it and as a result achieving happiness is in fact nothing else than the suggestions of transforming the woman body into a "bright and perfect" object determined in accordance with fetishist and visual reasoning. Thus woman subject, who was allowed to discover herself in accordance with the rules of beauty industry and one of the most important investments of capitalist system, has been tempered with the expected consistence. Woman is now under the clamp of a beauty with the obligation of following the ideal sizes which the culture of consumption impose (Baudraillard, 2011).

This scene, which is one of the manifestations of modern society in the last decades, comprises a basis for our research, while our actual problematic falls into a different path. Woman piety in the modern urban life has changed in parallel with the alteration and transformation of their perception of modernity and religion, and various woman pieties and identities arose in the urban life (Fidan, 2013). In this alteration and transformation, the idea that the values of religion and modern life were not different from each other at all and they are even in harmony with each other (Paker, 2005: 220). Our fundamental objective in this study is to understand and analyze how body perception of the veiled women are who identify

themselves as "pious" in the modern urban life and tend towards exercising their religion, and how define the beauty related to women.

As known, being covered is one of the most significant manifestations of woman piety[3]; Koran, which promotes the social dissociation of women and men, guides that woman must wear the clothes which are not attention grabbing (Khan, 1995). In this context, modest dress (hijab or scarf) entirely bears the meaning of "veil" or "the barrier of spatial dimenson" (Ruby, 2006; Hargreaves and Vertinsky, 2007). The imagination of muslim/islamic identity that establishes an indissoluble bond between knowledge and value aims a deep connection between thought and action (Köysüren, 2013: 72), in this context, it is thought that the woman wearing modest dress in order to fulfill the orders of the religion realizes her religious beliefs. Thus, the relationship between the modest dress and the veiled subject cannot be dealt with independent of religious thought and the practices of spiritual life. In this regard, while analyzing our main problematic, it is important for us to understand in which way the beauty perceptions of veiled women and how they define the beauty related to women fork out from the ways of religious thought.

Separation of woman and man from each other in the Islamic religion is related to the perception aiming at the fact that a sharp definition should be introduced as regards clothing for both sides (especially for woman), body and bodily activities should be determined and controlled by religion (İlyasoğlu, 2000: 78). The insistence of Islam in holding the bodies in check results in its putting the body through a new regulation almost in all cases (Kara, 2012). Emphasizing the characteristics of creating incitement in the Islamic culture by identifying woman with body and bodily desire legalizes her being controlled socially and being orientated to covering herself as a concrete indication of this control. The rule of woman's covering herself displays Islam's societal order based on gender dualism, and final difference between the two gender finds its expression. In this context, the dress has a moral function, namely the function of protecting woman's honor. Dress, a means of decency according to Islam, must not reveal the woman body and its formal/modal features, on the contrary it must hide them (Göle, 2010: 126). This necessity in Islam, and the perceptions and tendencies of veiled women about bodily beauty are of particular importance in terms of the inconsistent meanings the concepts include. As a veiled woman, how they approach to and how they interpret being beautiful / looking beautiful and the contradiction which the practices of spirituality associate aiming at hiding the woman body are the significant points we wish to understand.

3 Özbudun says that it is necessary that "scarf" and "hijab" be analyzed in different categories in order to express the veiled woman in Turkey. According to him, scarf is a dress that can be encountered almost in every field of Turkish society and which is used with a loose coupling model. Whereas, turban, which can be described as "jilbab", is the indication of religious ideology and it is used by certain segments of society (Sakaranaho, 2006: 329). Özbudun makes this explanation as footer in Tuula Sakaranaho's article named Disputed Modest Dress/Islamic Scarf as an Ideological Mater of Debate in Turkey.

As we mentioned before, the change and transformation in the world of modern society also affected woman piety, this difference reflects on the ways of modest dress, which is a visual manifestation of woman piety and the veiled women in the urban life have taken their place in the daily life with their different ways of dressing. The different ways of covering of the veiled women with whom we conferred while we were seeking for the answer for our main problematic are significant in this respect. How the body perceptions of the women who define themselves as "pious and veiled" were and how they define the beauty related to women were analyzed in the context of this difference. Some of the women taking part in our focus group discussion are the women who wear topcoat, which they define as "external clothes", on the dress, which they define as "internal clothes", and some, in this context of division, are those who wear scarf only on their "internal clothes" such as skirt/jacket, clothes or trousers/shirt. There are differences even on the topcoats of the women who wear topcoat as external dress in terms of tightness, wideness, simplicity and fanciness. For example, some of our participants wear sizeable scarf and pay attention to its being below their shoulders, while some others prefer the way expressed as "jilbab". The clothes of the women preferring to be veiled without wearing topcoat bear some differences that can be categorized in religious aspects. The ways of these women's tieing their scarves are different, just as their *sensibilities* in their dress and skirt lengths, and whether to wear trousers or not are different. There are those who tie their scarves in the form of jilbab which is in the way to cover their necks from the gill, just as there also are those preferring to leave their necks open by tieing their scarves from the nape. The researcher, who is the object of our participants preferring so different ways of modest dress, that is to say, I prefer to wear modest dress in the daily life. In this case, a woman who is highly educated and is not veiled was included in the program with the worry of the recurrence of a seemingly integrated picture, that is to say, with the worry of a woman's group recurring themselves who possess similar thoughts and beliefs. This participant of us asked questions which are sometimes provocative and sometimes inseminate different ways of thinking at the points where she found appropriate in her opinion during the discussion, and she made comments, thus making contributions that prepossess the group discussion to a healthy ground.

Ten women, one of whom is unveiled, nine of whom are veiled and all of whom are highly educated and working, were included in the group discussion in total. Prior to the program, the participants were individually interviewed at least once concerning the subject, yet the individual interviews were not recorded. The focus group discussion was conducted in the context of the questions previously prepared, and the questions that arose in the course of the program were also included in it. The focus group discussion lasted about two and half hours, and the whole of the interviews were recorded. The conversations recorded were later put down on paper, then they were read over and over and were divided in the titles. Names of our participants were not used in the analyses and were encoded with capital letters.

METHOD

Understanding

Dilthey shows the inseparableness of self-consciousness and world concept from each other with his words of "If there were no World, we wouldn't have a self-consciousness, and if there were no self-consciousness, there wouldn't be a World for us". According to him it is life-world and living, with these two concepts' belonging to each other, that exist there and are continually experienced with the energy of life within and around us (quoted by Riedel, 2003: 84 from Dilthey, 2003: 84). On the other hand, "case definition", one of central concepts of comprehending sociology, confronts us as a significant notion in the "understanding" of societal action taking place in this life-world. In the comprehending sociology based on Weber, the "meaning" of societal action is the sole point to be taken into account by the researcher, and if we want to understand the quality of societal situation, we should look at how those, who took part in it or who create it, defined it. That's to say, it should be looked at how the subjects, who are the object of the research, evaluate their motives, intentions and actions in terms of themselves and others. In this methodological process, it is not important how a situation seems to the researcher or how the researcher considers that situation, but it is significant how the social actors, who create that situation, define it (Çiftçi, 2011: 50-51).

Discourse Analysis

According to Potter, discourse constitutes the center of our life; a lot of things that appear normal to us in the daily life are a discourse to be analyzed. We perform most of the things such as telephone calls with others, correspondence and give and receive instructions through interaction. Speech is an instrument that makes it possible for us to understand the others and ourselves. In this respect, to learn how to speak means learning a culture. Our workplace is alive with the talks and texts regarding the factors which are related to or not related to the job. We can watch TV in a low voice in our daily lives, and our cultural lives may consist of what the actors and actresses say or of the stories the new papers tell. All of these are a discourse bearing significant meanings in terms of social sciences (Potter, 2004: 607-24).

Discourse analysis (Potter and Wetherell, 1987) has three analytical focus of interests; *explanatory repertories* (discoursive sources), *subject positions* (Willig, 2008) and *ideological dilemmas* (Billig at. Al., 1988). Our mentioning *explanatory repertories* become possible by the fact that the themes, metaphors and images functioning as the explanatory repertory such as repeated apology, providing grounds, legitimization and persuading among the texts that were constructed by the same people in the speech text (Potter and Wetherell, 1988). If want to express explanatory repertories with the Foucaultian discourse analysis, *subject positions* become evident by who made the discoursive constructs (Willig, 2008). The speeches which construct an object with the indecisive, conflicting and dual structure of the common sense, on the other hand, show *ideological dilemmas*.

Results of Analyses

A-Explanatory Repertories

In our study, explanatory repertories were established as 1) the veiled woman should be beautiful

and stylish, 2) the veiled woman should address the aesthetic perception of the other "beautifully", 3) in dressing, compliance with religion and aesthetic should coexist, 4) bodily appearance should bear feminine characteristics.

1- The veiled woman should be beautiful and stylish

In this repertory, it was understood that the veiled women want to posses an appearance that can be characterized as "beautiful and stylish" and they act to that end. All of the participants agree that being "beautiful and stylish" is a necessity, while there are different views as to how these qualities will be possessed.

"Being like a woman I think … should be beautiful … lost herself .. what should I say .. shouldn't be loose like … well they say … should be much to look at .. with her well … with her appropriateness .. when looking at her … shouldn't be well .. I mean shouldn't react severely to those looking at her (KE:10-14).

It is remarkable that the first sentence the participant uttered concerning the woman's being beautiful should be gender-based. Accordingly, woman should possess the basic features of her gender. Primarily, the social actor who describes how one will not be beautiful with reference to negative personal features (lost herself/loose) assesses the feminine beauty in terms of social manifestations including sociological meanings / understandings. The participant who states that the appearance of veiled woman must be in certain appropriateness has placed the perceptions of others concerning the veiled woman into the fundamental of aesthetic approach (should be much to look at). The social actor, in his/her assessment related to the beauty and elegance of the veiled woman, described the woman s/he wants to construct in the perceptions of the others in social world right after his/her first step based on social gender. The aesthetic subject which the participant, who wants to construct the expression of *religious representation*, described with this tendency of his/her is an identity which was built in the context of representing the religion in a way that will not cause negative thoughts and feelings (she will not lash out to those who are looking at her) of the others who don't lean to religion in the social life at all , rather than being "beautiful" as a woman. The statements of being conscious, and being well-groomed and proper-clothed, which were constructed for the veiled woman in this repertory, cannot be thought independently of the expressions of religious representation innate to the aim of representing religion and piety.

2- The veiled woman should "beautifully" address the beauty perception of the other.

In the further periods of the interview, it is observed that social actor constructs the beauty of veiled woman on the basis of woman's attracting attention and her being respected in the environments she joins.

"People attach so much importance to this … for example when I go to a hospital or a special place like it, I feel that people are not so interested in me if I dress up loosely … If you dress up a little bit more properly .. I mean stylishly .. people's attitudes towards you change … (KE: 46-49).

The statements of the participant as to how the veiled woman should present herself in the society as an aesthetic subject became personalized at the end of the interview and individual benefits of the womanly-outer appearance were emphasized.

How much emphasis people place on the nice, quality and stylish dressing and how much attention the woman dressed up in this way attract at the important places (public sphere) are generalized with the pronoun "you", while the woman's not attracting attention who possesses an appearance that does not arouse respect (loose) is expressed with the pronoun "I". It can be inferred from these deviations in the expressions that social actor encoded the experience s/he acquired from his/her individual experience as general information. The verb (I feel) the social actor employed while describing this social manifestation points outs to an intuitive comment and interpretation rather than a clear humiliation to which s/he is subjected by the others in the social world.

3- Compatibility to religion and aesthetics must be together in clothing

In this repertory the veiled women presented their notion of compatibility to religion as a basic rule in their inclination of being beautiful. Compatibility to religion is a parameter supposed to be followed by veiled women, who describe themselves as "faithful" , in their subjective activities. The differences in the ways of wearing modest dress by our participants show the changeability of their criteria of compatibility to religion in their thought and faith world. The most important respect to occur in this repertory is that the veiled woman has such a criterion rather than at which parameter she implies "compatibility to religion in dressing".

"…being elegant being beautiful in modest dress eventually not wearing a chador very long for instance not wearing so long to sweep the floor like this it takes reaction from people outside well for example the length of the skirt can be long again but not long enough to sweep the floor loose sleeves not comes to here more orderly more pleasing the eye…. Being aesthetic at the same time not showing the body lines….not going out like this with a mini cardigan or a mini jacket…. For example it can be a longer coat or jacket but it is elegant beautiful you feel yourself well in it because those worn by people directly affect the people well positively or negatively …(EM: 34-42)

The participant's statements in which she evaluated the modest dress through the perspectives of both elegancy and compatibility to religion have different meanings. According to the social actor, the dress of the veiled woman should be primarily elegant and beautiful and should not make her ugly in the sight of others (very long to sweep the floor/ loose sleeves coming to here) but not display her body lines (not showing her body lines) and should be in a way in which woman will feel herself good. The statements of the participant are knitted by careful courses she made among the restrictions that can possess different meanings within itself. The group agreed that veiled woman should look beautiful and elegant, but the matter of how beauty and elegancy harmonize with compatibility to religion seem to have made the participants in difficult conditions. The implementation towards the

perception of others confronting us as a basic path in the previous repertory becomes clear here as an important basis. Because the constructed expressions in this repertory of *looking beautiful and elegant, being compatible to religion, and not creating a reaction in the perception of the other* put the togetherness of the complex structure , which is tried to be formed, in hard conditions, the expressions of the social actor are knitted with an excited dynamism.

As we said at the beginning, religion disposes on the bodies of its followers especially the women subjects and makes them compatible to religion with different practices. In the background of purdah commanded to women, there lied the risklessness of the body features of women considered to be *incitement* factor for men in terms of society. We have mentioned that changing religiosity reveals different women appearances just like modern others in this modern society world, and the demands and activities of these women to take part in the social life. At this point of the analysis, it is observed that religion and religiosity in contrast with the essence of modernity unearth once again a network of contradictions in the daily life practices. We are moving on to another issue by leaving the detailed analysis of this subject to other ideological dilemmas.

4- Bodily appearances should have womanly properties

In this repertory, it was understood that modest dress should have specific properties, that is properties to keep womanliness.

"I'm stick to different order way namely being beautiful and tidy …. Tidiness and orderliness way…. In appearance more order… this comes to my mind I think like this at the same time must be matched , there must not be anything that seems wrong namely the dress must suit this is what I care in myself and at the same time must be womanly it must be a womanly modest dress rather than extreme, just like masculine dress in trying to comply with modest dress (BU:15-20)."

The participant, dealing with being beautiful as the yardsticks of " being orderly and tidy and dressing up properly", seems like proposing aesthetics to move front in clothing of veiled woman through her emphasis on being womanly. Because, the way in which being veiled recall the masculinity is the preference of masculine dresses not nice to the eye in order to hide woman body. Social actor didn't code, in order to imply masculinity, the pants which are not welcomed at all to wear in religious group because they are perceived as male cloth. However, another reason for pants not to be welcomed in religious circles is that it reveals body lines as they shouldn't be. The purpose of the participant with the concept of "masculine" is the dressing style without womanly elegance and aesthetics; in this context the point to be emphasized is the loss of her own charm for the sake of veiling rather than the subject of not being similar to opposite gender which is forbidden in religion.

B) Subject positions

The expressions established on explanatory repertories establish the opposites of the subject positions while establishing them. In this establishing that cannot be carried out independent of one another, subject position is enforced with the opposite (Arkonaç, 2012). The subject posi-

tions that revealed in our study were categorized as;1- womanly woman, 1-a) woman embodying contradictions , 2- woman caring for religious rules and aesthetics, 3- woman representing religion, 3-a) woman representing veiled subject *well* , 3-b) woman representing veiled woman *badly* , 4- woman refusing the imposed aesthetic stereotypes, 4-a) woman reflecting her emotions and thoughts in her dressing 4-b) woman willing for differences to be preserved, 4.c) woman rejecting social patterns

1- Womanly/ Feminine woman

In the statements of our participants, the construction of the sexual identities produced in accordance with the sexual expressions becomes prominent. The expression *Womanly woman* constructed by social actor re-establishes woman with her womanly properties and advocates that properties specific of woman mustn't be given up for the sake of anything (wearing modest dress or being beautiful etc.). Femininity, covering the meaning of "not being manly" at the same time, was made clear by having aesthetic properties identified more with woman.

a) Woman embodying contradictions

The response given by the social actor to the question "how do you think the beauty should be in a veiled woman?" contains nested different expressions and the essence of the speech is full of sexual connotations about woman. These expressions, calling out just inside the social sexual positioning, left the religiosity of the participant far behind at least in these lines.

"When we say womanly, into my mind…. directly woman… I will say so many different descriptions for example there is a definition 'woman is like the God', the most beautiful, the most elegant, the nicest of everything…. On the one hand beautiful on the other hand attractive on the one hand distant on the other hand close on the one hand warmhearted on the other hand dignified….. perhaps you cannot bring these all but when you say woman not me but these are the connotations… well with her soul with her body with everything… being a woman is a privilege (PR.p. 23-29)"

The expression with which woman is compared to love (woman is like the God) is full of sexual emphases of elevation about woman. The contradictions embedded in woman body (one the one hand distant on the other hand close on the one hand warmhearted on the other hand dignified) seems as if it has been established addressing to the perception of male subject. The type of woman whom the social actor does not take over but idealizes in mental connotations is a being not thought independent of her sexuality in the name of being a woman. There is no effect of religiosity in the establishment distant to the daily life practices with its comparison to love on the one hand and with disagreement harmonizing the contradictions of physical and spiritual properties on the other hand. This establishment seems to be compatible with the social sexuality perception positioning woman in the context of sexual properties due to her bodily differences in social world. However, the position of the subject which the social actor tries to establish in opposition to the subject position of "lost her femininity" with the help of the concepts womanliness/ femininity do not refer to the individual isolated from the modern roles in the social life. That is to say,

even though the social actor expresses being woman with sexual arguments, she/ he does not only deal with woman through her functions recalling reproduction of sexuality but pushes too far on patriarch with doses of criticism with expressions about the subject. The secular side of this definition that caused a certain amount of opposition murmurs were not compatible to other women's religious feelings, and they clearly questioned the juxtaposition of religiosity and such a woman definition of a veiled woman. In the final analysis although she does not find this approach as "far from religiosity" , that the owner of these expressions is coded with religious just because she is veiled reinforces the contradictions between the words and the owner of those words.

2- Woman who cares about religious rules and aesthetics

We see, in this repertory, that religious rules and beautiful appearance have been established as an aesthetic unity.

Social actor established, in this subject position, the woman who dresses compatible with religious rules and recalls aesthetic beauty in opposition to the subject position who is too desensitized to the outside world and herself to care for social elegance (lost herself) and who is careless and unsuccessful in her self-care and appearance (how should I know let it not be such down and dirty). The affirmed social figure is enforced by defining opposite representation of the veiled woman figure to be through pejorative statements.

3- Woman representing religion

The evaluations of the participants about how the body beauties of veiled women are depend directly upon religiosity. One end of the expressions established during the interview depends on the representation of religion. After establishing the expression *representation of religion*, social actor move on to establish subject positions representing the veiled woman identity as "the good" and "the bad" in her appearance in the social life.

a) Woman representing the veiled subject well

The expression of "*well" representation of religious and veiled subject* established by the social actor describing herself as "religious and veiled" results from the practices experienced with "religion opponents" in social world.

"….when I'm veiled, I care about this more because in veil we are treated like 2nd class-citizen, besides if I wear loose dresses, it won't suit, I should dress more beautifully for my desire and my present identity….. these veiled are miserable… they are like this….like this or that (PR: 62-66)"

The expressions of the participant are full of multi-positioning; social actor reveal that they are deferred in the social world because of the appearance recalling religiosity. The rage of the veiled subject against *the others* who normalize social isolation is obvious. The subject established in this repertory is supported again multilateral positioning. Veiled woman is established as a subject having beauty criteria to satisfy her (both for my desire) and in response to the mass ready to insult her because of her religious identity. Meanwhile, the negative establishment (the veiled are miserable) in the mental perception of the other is illustrated with expressions loaded with pejorative meanings, the establishment of veiled subject being enforced.

The expression of representing the religion that first attracted attention in the group interview confronts us as an important step in legalizing the veiled elegancy. The approach in the essence of the religion as the reduction of woman's appearance as an incitement factor in the social world was the most important mainstay behind the order of modest dress. However, veiled woman demanding to get a place in the public area with the *difficulties* modern social world and obtaining these demands to a large extent have difficulty in gathering the principle of this "invisibility" in the essence of the religion and their visibility. Yet, one of the reasons why the women defining themselves as "religious" take part in the modern social world is the mission to serve to religion (Fidan, 2013)4. The same mission came to the front in this study in which we tried to solve the problems on the body perceptions of veiled women. The contradictions which the ideal of experiencing religion sensitively encounter in modern routes are in a way resolved the expressions *serving to religion / representing the religion*. Social actor has not given up her femininity; the preservation of femininity is an extent appearing by itself in the normal course of the talk. Yet, the contradiction making itself evident in the continuation of the expressions is softened by the mission to serve to religion. The expression "… it gets a meaning when it is in the name of identity (BU: 65)" is an indicator of the resolving the problem of meaninglessness through the establishment of the position of the subject representing the religion after the veiled woman has understood the "meaninglessness" of attributing so many meanings to outer beauty.

b) The woman representing the veiled subject badly

The mission to represent the religion imposed on veiled woman not only establishes the successful subject serving to that mission but also constructs unsuccessful subject on the matter.

Social actor has established the subject representing the veiled subject "badly" (lost herself how should I know not down and dirty) just opposed to the subject representing the veiled subject "well". The establishment of this subject position enforced with pejorative meanings from gestures and facial expressions to the stresses on the statements are performed to make the good quite evident. Disambiguating what is idealized with its opposite is a method we often encounter in daily life.

4- Woman rejecting aesthetic patterns imposed

A critical point of view is made to beauty criteria defined in the group in this repertory and the definitions and descriptions resembling the modern ways of setting up rules are criticized with a reaction which we can call postmodern.

" …not loose dress but don't have to apply in my opinion namely it must be what you will be comfortable, you look it's hot…. According to the situation to what you are comfortable in…. maybe I want to wear opposite to reflect my emotions thought, not to be very appropriate… well I say everything must be proper, must suit I must look pretty…. But later on…. I'm not a pattern…. We're all different people what reflects my emotions and thoughts, what meets my needs, that is, I must be like that even though the social perception is wrong, I must have a peaceful appearance….because people like patterns a lot… very unnecessary patterns….. (SE:70-77)"

a) The woman likes to be comfortable in clothing

Social actor said that she preferred the dresses in which she could feel "comfortable" pointing out the difficulties (hot) resulting from the clothing styles of veiled women. In the statements of the participant who addresses the imposed rules in social life from a different point of view it is clear that being veiled is itself a difficult act and there are oppositions to enfolding these difficulties through other ones (formal rules).

b) The woman reflecting her emotions and thoughts in her clothing

The participant, addressing as a postmodern rejection to the definition of the group about the veiled woman, pointed out the differences of aesthetic meanings (understanding), establishing the subject position *who keeps her individuality* . There are multilateral criticisms and positioning in this rejection (pattern) brought to the veiled women's styles of dressing defined with an approach appropriate for the imposed rules of modernity. The social actor identifying the keeping of individual emotion and thought differences with keeping internal peace, in establishing a subject compatible to her, also obscurely establishes the subject position without internal peace, who loses herself in the emotions and thoughts of others , with her criticisms against the similar ones in social world.

c)The woman who wants the differences to be preserved and rejects social patterns

Social actor implying that the criteria "compatible/ beautiful", shaped in social perception, will destroy individual differences disambiguated the concepts of *experience and feel her difference freely* with her specificity in emotion, thought, religion and aesthetic judgments in the subject position which she established against standardization.

This rejection of the participant may mean a rebellion against religiosity which is multilaterally articulated to social life and which legalizes itself in different ways. As known, modernity has set back religion because it is old/out of date and it backs the societies, and has claimed that it will set up a social world depending only on science. In this approach, religiosity is an argument belonging to tradition and is impossible to comply with modern. In the course of time a *hybridized* social world has become apparent in which there is modernity in line with religion. A very different meaning map confronts us considering the statements of the participant as "I think modest dress has become traditionalized, become customs…. It is divided from faith….(SE: 570- 72)" in terms of this background.

In the studies concerning women faith in Turkey (Göle, 1998; Özdalga, 2006; Fidan, 2013), it was understood that the women demanding to have a place in the modern urban life with their religiosity separated themselves from their families' religiosity. In this separation, devout women defined themselves as more "conscious and aware" and their families as more "traditional and unconscious". The women demanding to get a place in the modern social world from this point of view arranged their religious lives with the manifestation of this consciousness in question and for example veiled with this consciousness. Whereas, the mothers and grandmothers of these women did not know the meaning behind the scarf although they carried one on their heads, and covering their heads was an immanent tendency

to traditional meanings for them. In the criticism of SE about the " traditionalization / becoming a custom" of modest dress criteria in the present-day societies, there is an emphasis on the perception of religiosity that has got away from its original meaning nested with modern and that has became ordinary in the essence of modernity.

This table reveals that there are ideological contradictions in the sayings and tendencies established by veiled identity.

C) Ideological dilemmas

a) Beauty/ attraction/ niceness and the meaning of modest dress

In the group work, it is understood that there are some issues on which all women agree such that veiled women should be elegant and look beautiful, and should represent religion against social perception in the meanwhile there are different opinions in the same subjects. When we assess the whole interview, we think that it will be useful to distinguish the contradictions emerging from thought differences among individuals from the contradictions in women's thought path. In the focus group interview, although it is a common accepted point that veiled woman should be beautiful and elegant, multilateral expression of their elegance understanding brought some oppositions.

"…. well we say all these but aren't they opposed to modest dress? It sounds that it is coming to this point in modest dress isn't there concealing of this womanliness aren't we covering for this purpose? Like this… I dunno ain't I wrong (BU: 30-32)?"

These statements of the participant make deeper the problem which we mentioned at the beginning of the study, and question the essence in veiled women's styles of presenting the modest dress. The expressions awaking these oppositions of the participants are uttered by only one woman in the group but this utterance isn't enough to question the back of the religiosity in the group. In general the group agrees on this opposition; the contradiction seeming to be incorrigible between modest dress and being beautiful / elegant is softened by the expression of serving to religion. The main issue on which the women in the group agree is the religious obligation for women to become covered; women describing themselves as devout are covering themselves in line with this order. As we said previously, modest dress' getting a place in Islam has developed in the name of providing the invisibility of women especially in the eye of men. Such being the case, how will these end come together in religion requiring the women to be invisible and in modernity advocating the visibility of individuals? We have mentioned how this combination is in modern society; religiosity that makes the arguments of modern its own arguments articulated to modern through its changing religion. It is understood in this study with narrow restrictions that the ideological contradictions emerging in the course of this articulation do not have a clear resolution.

The individual expressions of veiled women about how modest beauty should be contain coming and going to repertories contradictory in itself and make it difficult to determine what is religious in modernity. Veiled woman rasp the ideological dilemmas and contradictions in their dressing styles, which they tried to formalize compatible with the rules of religion without losing their femininity, by the expression of

representing religion / serving to religion and by the establishment of *subject position* in this context, legalizing their existence suitable for the aesthetics of modern world.

Conclusion

The beauty perception of veiled woman in modern social life about femininity have shaped and developed depending on the modern perceptions. Veiled women demand that they exist and be accepted in social world with a beautiful/ elegant appearance, and they incline to as accordingly. The concepts of elegance, beauty, and compatibleness which women define in different ways is united to the preservation of womanly properties and the compatibleness with the orders of religion is detected to be an unchangeable rule. The togetherness of compatibleness with the rules of religion with being beautiful and elegant has brought about contradictions hard to understand, which are softened by the mission of representing the religion in the best way.

Religiosity, struggling for existence in the modern social world, has become exposed to criticisms from inside in the *hybrid* table, which it presented in the consequence of modern articulation, and has been accused of "return to future". Veiled women demand to have a place in the social world with their modest dress that they prefer in the name of complying with the orders of religion; this having a place is made to be possible by, on the one hand, orienting to the modern and, on the other hand, deteriorating the religious. What legalizes the so –called deterioration in the thought world of veiled women is "well-representation" of veiled identity, continually accused and insulted by the other in the social world and is implementation the mission of serving to religion in this way. Although this thought is commonly agreed by women, the authenticity of religiosity behind this though is profoundly questioned with an inner criticism and the parameters preferred on experiencing the religion are, in a sense, exposed to deconstruction.

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TESETTÜRLÜ KADININ GÜZELLİK ALGISI VE GÜZELLİĞE YÖNELİMİ: ARAF'TA GEZİNEN ZİHİNLER VE BEDENLER

Özet: Modern zamanlarda özellikle kadınlar üzerinden okunan güzellik kavramı, bünyesinde çok uçlu sosyolojik gerçeklikleri barındırmaktadır. Bu bakımdan farklı tanımlar ve kategorilerde ele alınan kavram, ele alınışıyla bağlantılı uzanımlara işaret eder. Bu çalışmada, gündelik yaşamda "tesettür" olarak tanımlanan dinsel giyinme biçimini tercih eden kadınların, kadın bedeniyle ilişkilendirilen güzellik algılarının ve güzel olma yönelimlerinin nasıl olduğu incelenmiştir. Bu bağlamda araştırmadaki temel hedefimiz, tesettürlü kadınların beden algılarının nasıl olduğunu, kadınlarla ilişkili güzelliği nasıl tanımladıklarını anlamak ve analiz etmektir. Araştırma, kendisini "dindar bir Müslüman" olarak tanımlayan dokuz tanesi tesettürlü bir tanesi tesettürsüz, yüksek eğitimli, çalışan, evli on kadınla yapılan odak grup görüşmesiyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Grup görüşmesinin farklı bakış açılarıya zenginleştirilmesi için programa tesettürsüz bir kadın dahil edilmiştir. Tesettürsüz katılımcının *dışarıyı* temsil eden bakış açısı, tarafsız değerlendirmeleri ve ufuk açıcı soruları grup görüşmesini hareketlendirmiş, bu durum programa büyük katkı sağlamıştır. Bilindiği gibi kadın dindarlığının kentsel yaşam ayağı yüksek eğitimli, çalışan ve tesettürlü kadınlardan ibaret değildir. Araştırma için söz konusu özellikleri taşıyan katılımcıların seçilmesi, modern kent yaşamına aktif olarak katılan yüksek eğitimli/ çalışan tesettürlü kadınların moderne nasıl eklemlendiklerini anlama merakımızın bir sonucudur. Araştırma sorunsalımızı çözümlerken ulaştığımız sonuç, büyük iddialar içermez; çok daha geniş kapsamlı çalışmalarla daha farklı bilgiler ortaya koyulabilir, ancak yaptığımız çalışmanın bizi önemli sonuçlara ulaştırdığı da bir gerçektir. Araştırmada, temel sorunsalların özelliği göz önüne alınarak, nitel araştırma teknikleri yönteminden faydalanılmıştır. Bindiği gibi Weber kaynaklı Anlamacı sosyolojide, toplumsal eylemin "anlamı", araştırmacının dikkat kesilmesi gereken yegane noktadır ve bir toplumsal durumun niteliğini anlamak istiyorsak ona katılanların veya onu yaratanların onu nasıl tanımladığına bakmamız gerekir. Toplumsal gerçekliğin *olduğu gibi* ortaya çıkmasında en önemli nokta, araştırma konusu olan öznelerin motivlerini, niyetlerini ve eylemlerinin neticelerini kendileri ve başkaları açısından nasıl değerlendirdiklerinin anlaşılmasıdır. Bu metodolojik süreçte, bir durumun araştırmacıya nasıl göründüğü veya araştırmacının o durumu nasıl gördüğü değil, o durumu yaratan sosyal aktörlerin onu nasıl tanımladıkları önemlidir. Tesettürlü kadınların beden algılarının nasıl olduğunu ve güzeli nasıl tanımladıklarını ortaya koymak gibi bir çaba bizim için anlama ve yorumsama yöntemini bir bakıma zorunlu kılmıştır, çünkü tesettürlü bedenlerdeki tezahürlerin zihinsel arka planı ve bu süreçte üretilen söylemler, katılımcıların bize sağladığı çok yönlü veri kombinasyonuyla açıklamaya değil anlamaya matuftur. Söylem hayatımızın merkezini teşkil eder; gündelik hayatta bize sıradan gelen pek çok şey içinde var olduğumuz kültürün ürünüdür ve analiz edilmesi gereken anlamlar taşır. Toplumsal bir varlık olarak istediğimiz, istemediğimiz, rahatsızlık duyduğumuz, korktuğumuz, ideal edindiğimiz vs. pek çok insani yönelimlerimizi dille ifade ederiz, bu bakımdan dilin doğru analizi toplumların, bu bağlamda kültürlerin anlaşılması için büyük önem taşır. Araştırma sorunsalımızın çözümlenmesinde mümkün olan en doğru noktaya ulaşabilmek için, katılımcılarımızla gerçekleştirdiğimiz grup görüşmesinden elde ettiğimiz metnin, başka bir deyişle katılımcılarımızın sözlerinin söylem analiziyle irdelenmesi bize en doğru gelen yol olmuştur. Bu izlekte gerçekleştirdiğimiz çalışmada ortaya çıkan sonuçları şöyle özetlemek mümkündür. Modern toplum dünyasındaki değişme ve dönüşme kadın dindarlığını da etkilemiş, bu farklılık kadın dindarlığının görsel bir tezahürü olan tesettür biçimlerine yansımış, kent yaşamındaki tesettürlü kadınlar farklı giyinme biçimleriyle gündelik yaşamda yerlerini almışlardır. Tesettürlü kadınların kadının bedensel güzelliğine yönelik algıları modern algıya bağımlı olarak gelişmiş, onlar, toplum dünyasındaki görünürlüklerini dinsellik ve modern algı bağlamında tesis etmişlerdir. Modernle dinsel olanın bir aradalığı anlamlı

çelişkiler meydana getirse de, tesettürlü kadınlar bu çelişkileri dini en iyi şekilde temsil ederek dine hizmet etme misyonuyla çözümleme yoluna gitmişlerdir. Toplumsal yaşamda ötekiler tarafından "kötü, çirkin, uyumsuz" olarak algılanmamak dine hizmet etme misyonunun önemli bir uzantısıdır. Gündelik yaşamda tesettürlü kıyafetleri sebebiyle önemli ölçüde baskıya maruz kaldıklarını ifade eden kadınlar, söz konusu baskıyı azaltmak ve ötekilere dini anlatmak amacıyla güzel görünmeyi dinsel bir hedefe dönüştürmüşlerdir. Dine hizmet etme misyonu tesettürlü kadınların iç çelişiklerini bir bakıma çözse de, dinin sahiciliğinden uzaklaşma iç eleştirisi kendisini çeşitli şekillerde yapılandırmaktadır. Modern toplum yaşamındaki tesettürlü kadınların kadınlık durumlarına ilişkin güzellik algısı modern algılara bağlı olarak şekillenmiş ve gelişmiştir. Tesettürlü kadınlar toplumsal yaşamda güzel/ şık bir görünümle var olmayı ve kabul görmeyi talep etmekte, buna uygun eyleme yönelmektedirler. Kadınların farklı şekillerde betimledikleri şıklık, güzellik ve uygunluk kavramları kadınsı özelliklerin korunmasıyla bütünleştirildiği gibi, dinin emirlerine uygunluk da değişmez bir kural olarak tespit edilmiştir. Dinin emirlerine uygunlukla güzel ve şık olmanın bir aradalığı açıklanması zor çelişkiler meydana getirmiş, bu çelişkiler dini en iyi şekilde temsil etme misyonuyla yumuşatılmıştır. Modern toplum dünyasında var olma mücadelesi veren dinsellik, moderne eklemlenme sonucunda ortaya koyduğu *melez* tabloda kendi içinden eleştirilere maruz kalmış, "geleneğe dönüşle" itham edilmiştir. Tesettürlü kadınlar dinin emrine uymak adına tercih ettikleri tesettürlü giyimleriyle toplum dünyasında yer almayı talep etmekte, bu yer alış bir taraftan moderne uyum sağlamayla diğer yandan da dinsel olanın aşınmasıyla mümkün kılınmaktadır. Söz konusu aşınmayı tesettürlü kadınların düşünce dünyalarında meşrulaştıran, modern toplum dünyasında öteki tarafından devamlı suçlanan ve aşağılanan tesettürlü kimliği "iyi" temsil etme ve bu yolla dine hizmet misyonunu yerine getirmedir. Bu düşünce kadınlar tarafından ortak kabul görse de, düşüncenin arka planındaki dinselliğin sahiciliği içten bir eleştiriyle derinden sorgulanmakta, dini yaşama konusunda tercih edilen parametreler bir bakıma yapı söküme uğratılmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Modernizm, Tesettürlü Kadın, Güzellik, Dindarlık, Kadın Bedeni

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THE BENEFITS OF REGULAR EXERCISE IN THE TREATMENT OF CERTAIN PSYCHOLOGICAL DISEASES(*)

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Abstract: Regular exercise has positive effects on the human psychology, as well as the human physiology. Exercise prevents ailments such as moderate depression, stress, personality disorders, hypochondria, anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorders and panic-attack. It's used to help the treatment of this type of psychological disorders. Regular sport helps the reconstruction of nerve cells and delays aging of the brain cells. Besides, it improves reaction time, coordination ability, decision-making process especially in a positive direction, by organizing the communication between nerve cells. Regular sports activities eliminates the states such as worry, anxiety, confusion, lack of concentration and anti-social behaviors. Emotions such as high degree of self-confidence, vigor, feeling good, feeling good, good communication and self-esteem will increase in people performing sports regularly. The positive psychological effects of regular exercise on individuals, the psychological aspect of the physiological consequences of these effects in human life, and the positive effects of regular exercise on the treatment of above-mentioned diseases had been examined and presented in this study. Regular sport helps the reconstruction of nerve cells and delays aging of the brain cells. This study aims to investigate and reveal the positive effects of regular exercise in the treatment of some psychological disorders. 50 patients, who had diagnosis on depression, stress, hypochondria, anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorders and panic-attack disorder were selected in the study as the experimental group. These patients were performed two hours of regular exercises three days a week for 90 days. The 50 people identified as the experimental group performed two hours of regular exercises three days a week for 90 days, and the other 50 people identified as the control group who have the same psychological disorders had no any sports activity. During the research period, the control group and experimental group continued their medical treatment. At the end of 90 days, a decrease in course and progress in above mentioned diseases was observed in the experimental group, after the discussions performed with the doctors of people in control and experimental groups. In this study, the positive psychological effects of regular exercise on individuals, the psychological aspect of the physiological consequences of these effects in human life, and the positive effects of regular exercise on the treatment of certain diseases had been examined and presented. At the end of 90 days of regular exercises performed by the experimental group, a decrease in course and progress in the above mentioned diseases was observed in the experimental group, after the discussions performed with the doctors of people in control and experimental groups.

Key Words: Psychological Diseases, Regular Exercise, Physical Exercise, Healthy Individuals And Sports

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INTRODUCTION

In addition to the positive effects of exercise on the body health, there are numerous studies showing its positive effects on the mental health as well (Gill, 1985; Acevedo & Ekkekakis, 2006). Regular exercise has a great role in increasing the number of both physically and spiritually healthy individuals (Hanin, 2000). This fact has been proven also by experimental medicine. In a study conducted by Folkins and Sime in the United States in 1981, it's observed that there is a decrease in concerns and anxieties of the individuals who walk regularly, an increase in self-confidence in dancing individuals, an increase in self-confidence in individuals doing extreme sports, and a higher achievement in anger management in individuals performing regular fitness training (Williams, 2006; Cockerill, 1995).

The adoption and implementation of exercise as a lifestyle is very important in terms of general public health, and especially to reduce the anxiety disorders and depressive disorders to the minimum. Regular exercise has a great importance in the treatment of these disorders, as well as in the prevention of these diseases (Kerr, 2002). Effectiveness of exercise has been proven as a helping activity in the treatment of more than one mental disorder (Murphy, 2005). Non-socialization of the individuals has a great role in the occurrence of some psychological disorders. Especially panic attacks, various personality disorders and antisocial behaviors are among them. Every sports activity performed provides positive contributions socialization of the individuals and decreases the rate of contracting the above mentioned diseases (Cox, 2007). Topic of our research that some psychological disorders are as follows:

Depression: Depression, which occurs depending on the circumstances, is also called as the emotional breakdown (Cüceloğlu, 2000). This situation may last for days, weeks or even months in some of the people. Depression has many common and private symptoms. The most prominent feature is that the individual takes himself/herself as worthless and inadequate. Among the other common symptoms are, losing the joy of life, being tired always and being pessimistic for everything (Cüceloğlu 2000; Whisman, 2010). According to a survey conducted in 2010, 3-6% of the population suffers from the depression (Wishman, 2010). Treatment of acute depression affects only the 30% of depressed patients, because most of the patients do not respond fully to the existing treatments, especially to the most common treatment of antidepressants (Gill, 1985; Whisman, 2010).

Stress: Effort spent by the individual beyond his/her physical and psychological limits, due to the incompatible conditions of the physical and social environment is called stress (Cüceloğlu, 2000). If the stimulus or the medium continues to cause stress, a second stage occurs. The second step is called the period of resistance. During this period, the organism stops its alarm reaction, complies with the stressful environment, and pulls back the biochemical substances in the blood. The organism gives the impression as if it operates under normal conditions. In reality the organism gets tired and gradually loses its resistance. And in the exhaustion period, which is the third stage, the body no longer withstand the pressure of stress, loses its resistance, some

of the symptoms of the first alarm period returns, and a variety of physiological disturbances begin to emerge (Liggett, 2000).

Hypochondria: Some people complain constantly on their health and consult a physician at every opportunity. Every day a different body part aches, they contract variety of diseases, they have various complaints from different parts of the body. They know the names of all drugs and continuously use different drugs. These people show the symptoms of the hypochondria disease and are referred to as a hypochondriac (Beck & Emery, 2011). Freudian psychologists, show hypochondria as an example to the defense mechanism called as the displacement. Behavioral psychologists argue that the individual can draw attention on the pretext of illness since childhood, and therefore they are hypochondriacal (Leahy, 2004).

Anxiety: Anxiety means to feel concern and worry feelings intensely. It's observed that the anxiety reaction occurs in situations where a person feared most. The main symptoms of anxiety are shortness of breath, excessive sweating, fainting state, chills and fatigue. The crucial factor in anxiety cases is the presence of a cognitive process, which takes the form of an image or automatic thoughts that appears suddenly as if it were a reflex. This cognitive process starts with a triggering stimulus that appears quite reasonable (such as shortness of breath) and is followed by a wave of anxiety (Whisman, 2010; Leahy, 2004).

Panic-attack: Panic attack reveals itself with an intense delusion, fear and terror sense surging suddenly, accompanied by a feeling of possibly near terrible end. The most common symptoms experienced during an attack are inability to breath, palpitations, chest pain, choking sensation, lightheadedness, dizziness or a vertigo, getting into dreams, sweating, faintness, trembling and fear of he/she will do something out of control during a crisis (Kerr, 2002; Gardner & Moore, 2006).

Obsessive-compulsive disorders: This type of disorders expresses the thinking and behavior obsessions. An obsessive person cannot get rid of an idea fixed in his/her mind, the idea continuously repeats, and a kind of thinking obsession is created. If the individual cannot hold herself/himself to perform a particular behavior, and remained stuck to a particular behavior, that person is called a compulsive (Cüceloğlu, 2000).

The national comorbiditiness survey has shown that 58% of the patients with depression had also anxiety disorders (Beck & Emery, 2011). Studies had revealed that there is a relationship with a 54% ratio in terms of the comorbiditiness between the depression and obsessive-compulsive disorders (Whisman, 2010; Zorba, 2004). Especially in anxiety disorders, early diagnosis and starting a treatment early is very effective to prevent this disorder to turn into a depression.

Sports activity is a social experience. It's observed that feelings of individuals loom large during any sports activity (Andersen, 2000; Jowett & Lavalle, 2007). Individuals find the opportunity to express their feelings through plays and movements (Abrams, 2010; Burton & Raedeke, 2010). Individuals having emotions such as aggression, anger, shyness, timidity, happiness, worry, anxiety and so on, learn to control these feelings during or after sporting activities (Karageorghis & Terry, 2011; Dunlop, Beyatt & Beauchamp, 2011). As a result of this, the rate of contracting

various psychological disorders, which have a large social environment effect, decreases. Furthermore, learning to keep emotions in control via sports also contributes positively to the self development (Orlick, 2008; Banting, Dimmock & Grove, 2011).

MATERIALS AND METHOD

100 patients, who had diagnosis on depression, stress, hypochondria, anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorders and panic-attack disorder were selected in the study. 50 of these patients selected as the experimental group, and other 50 were selected as the control group. Experimental group performed two hours of regular exercises three days a week for 90 days. The training program used in the research advances gradually in terms of scope and intensity of the program. A program with intensive cardiovascular workouts, to provide development of overall strength and endurance had been applied to the patients in the 1st month. Training program had continued for 1 month 3 days a week and 2 hours a day. In terms of the content, 1st month's training program is a walking and abdominal exercises program. The walking training was performed outdoors in appropriate weathers as interval training forms. Intensity of the cardiovascular training has been increased in the 2nd month of the study. In addition to the overall strength workouts, special strength workouts were also added. 2nd month's training program was mostly running, weight lifting and abdominal exercises program. Cardiovascular training has been diversified in the 3rd month of the study. And in the strength exercises, intensity and scope of the training had been increased. 3rd month's training program was mostly diversified cardiovascular training, strength exercises with increased intensity and scope, and abdominal exercises.

And the other 50 people, who had the same disorders, determined as the control group had not performed any sports activity. During the research period, medical treatment of the control group and experimental group had continued. During these 90 days and at the end, discussions performed via an in-depth interview technique with the doctors of people in control and experimental groups, and the observations had been recorded.

RESULTS

68 of the 100 patients with depression, stress, hypochondria, anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorders, panic-attack diagnosis were male (68%) and 32 of them (32%) were female. The age range of the patients was (25-50). Gender and disease distributions of experimental and control groups were as follows: 19 males, 5 females depression; 12 males, 4 females stress; 10 males, 6 females hypochondria; 9 males, 11 females anxiety; 9 males, 3 females panic-attack; 9 men, 3 women had been diagnosed as the obsessive-compulsive disorders (Table 1).

Table 1. The Distribution Of Patients According To Sex And Diseases

Name of diseases	Male patients		Female patients		Total
	(n)	%	(n)	%	
Depression	19	79.2	5	20.8	24
Stress	12	75	4	25	16
Hypochondriac	10	62.5	6	37.5	16
Anxiety	9	45	11	55	20
Panic-attack	9	75	3	25	12
Obsessive compulsive disorders	9	75	3	25	12
Total	**68**	**68**	**32**	**32**	**100**

The 50 people identified as the experimental group performed two hours of regular exercises three days a week for 90 days, and the other 50 people identified as the control group who have the same psychological disorders had no any sports activity. During the research period, the control group and experimental group continued their medical treatments.

Gender and disease distribution of the experimental group was as follows: Depression: 10 males, 3 females; Stress: 6 males, 2 females; Hypochondria: 4 males, 3 females; Anxiety: 6 males, 4 females; Panic-attack: 5 males, 1 female; Obsessive-compulsive disorders: 4 males, 2 females (Table 2).

Table 2. According To Test Group Gender And Distribution Of Diseases

Name of diseases	Male patients		Female patients		Total
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	
Depression	10	76.9	3	23.1	13
Stress	6	75	2	25	8
Hypochondriac	4	57.1	3	42.9	7
Anxiety	6	60	4	40	10
Panic-attack	5	83.3	1	16.7	6
Obsessive compulsive disorders	4	66.7	2	33.3	6
Total	**35**	**70**	**15**	**30**	**50**

Gender and disease distribution of the control group was as follows: Depression: 9 males, 2 females; Stress: 6 males, 2 females; Hypochondria: 6 males, 3 females; Anxiety: 3 males, 3 females; Panic-attack: 4 males, 3 females; Obsessive-compulsive disorders: 5 males, 1 female (Table 3).

Table 3. The Control Group According To Gender And The Distribution Of Diseases

Name of diseases	Male patients		Female patients	Total	
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	
Depression	9	81.8	2	18.2	11
Stress	6	75	2	25	8
Hypochondria	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
Anxiety	3	30	7	70	10
Panic-attack	4	66.7	2	33.3	6
Obsessive compulsive disorders	5	83.3	1	16.7	6
Total	**33**	**66**	**17**	**34**	**50**

In this research, in the experimental group who trained regularly; depression 60%, stress 64%, hypochondria 73%, anxiety 70%, panic attacks 34%, obsessive-compulsive disorders 48% is decreased. In the control group who didn't train; depression 66%, stress 38%, hypochondria 12%, anxiety 32%, panic attacks 47%, obsessive-compulsive disorders 23% is increased. According to this reasons; regular exercise help to get better some psychological disorders.Disorder symptoms, specifications and descriptions of the experimental and control groups were as follows:

DISCUSSION

In 2010, anxiety, depression and problem solving skills in a scientific study of the effects of regular exercise on the perception of doing sports on a regular basis was concluded that a positive effect on anxiety and depression (Canan & Ataoğlu, 2010). Recreational physical exercise has been proven particularly in elderly people studies to cause amelioration of conditions (Tekin & Kaldırımcı, 2008). In 2007, 23 people who was diagnosed with severe depression, have done aerobic exercise for 8 weeks. At the end of the study, patient's depression in case of decreases is measured (Legrand & Heuze, 2007). In a sport that people feel good about themselves in scientific research was conducted on 12 subjects after 90 minutes of exercise that jogging, walking and light exercise before the test subjects themselves feel better is concluded (Backhouse, Ekkekakis, Biddle, Fosket & Williams, 2007). Other scientific research which, applied to medium employees in Texas USA, has proven to be a beneficial effect in reducing regular exercise stress level (Lutz, Lochbaum, Lanning, Stinson & Brewer, 2007). In 2010, a study conducted on a group of sedentary people, these people have done regular exercise participation and exercise tests were done during the state of mind and mood. Test results were determined also improved in both cases (Kanning & Schlicht, 2010). In another study investigating the effects of regular walking exercise on depression pre-test and post-test technique using Beck's depression scale walking exercise every day for 24 people, have been constructed during 10 weeks. Post-exercise rate decrease in mean score for the test participants (Aylaz, Güllü & Güneş, 2011).

On the subject previous scientific studies investigate the effects of depression and anxiety states, on a regular sport. In our study, the effect of regular exercise as well as depression and anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorders, hypochondriacally, stress and panic-attacks in disorders was investigated.

Our study has been performed to present the significance of regular exercises in people with this kind of disorders, and to help their treatments. 50 people, who had diagnosed with depression, stress, hypochondria, anxiety, panic attacks and obsessive-compulsive disorders, determined as the experimental group, and had two hours of regular exercise three days a week for 90 days. And the other 50 people, who had the same disorders, determined as the control group had not performed any sports activity for this 90 days. During the research period, medical treatment of the control group and experimental group had continued. At the end of 90 days, it's revealed that a significant decrease in course and progress in above mentioned disorders was observed in the experimental group, after the discussions performed via the interview technique with the doctors of people in control and experimental groups.

At the end of the concurrent sporting activities with the medical treatment in the experimental group, an improvement was observed in 73% of patients diagnosed as hypochondriac. This is the highest recovery rate. And the lowest recovery rate was observed as 34% in panic-attack patients. The key point here is that no increase was observed in the progress of the disorders in the experimental group, who had performed regular exercises, was observed at the end of the research. The "no change" state observed in progress of the patients diagnosed with panic-attack and obsessive-compulsive disorder, with 66% and 52% ratios respectively, is caused by the unpredictable and rapid changes in the course of both disorders. According to the resulting data, sporting activity performed in addition to medical treatments of patients, diagnosed with such disorders and had an important contribution to the regression of the disorders (Table 4).

Table 4. The Percentage Of Change In The Experimental Group During The Course Of Their Disorders

Disorders Name	Increase (%)	Decrease (%)	No Change (%)
Depression	---	60	40
Stress	---	64	36
Hypochondria	---	73	27
Anxiety	---	70	30
Panic-attack	---	34	66
Obsessive compulsive disorders	---	48	52

In this study, the control group of the research but only the medical treatments had performed no sporting activity. The control group only had medical treatment for 90 days. At the end of this

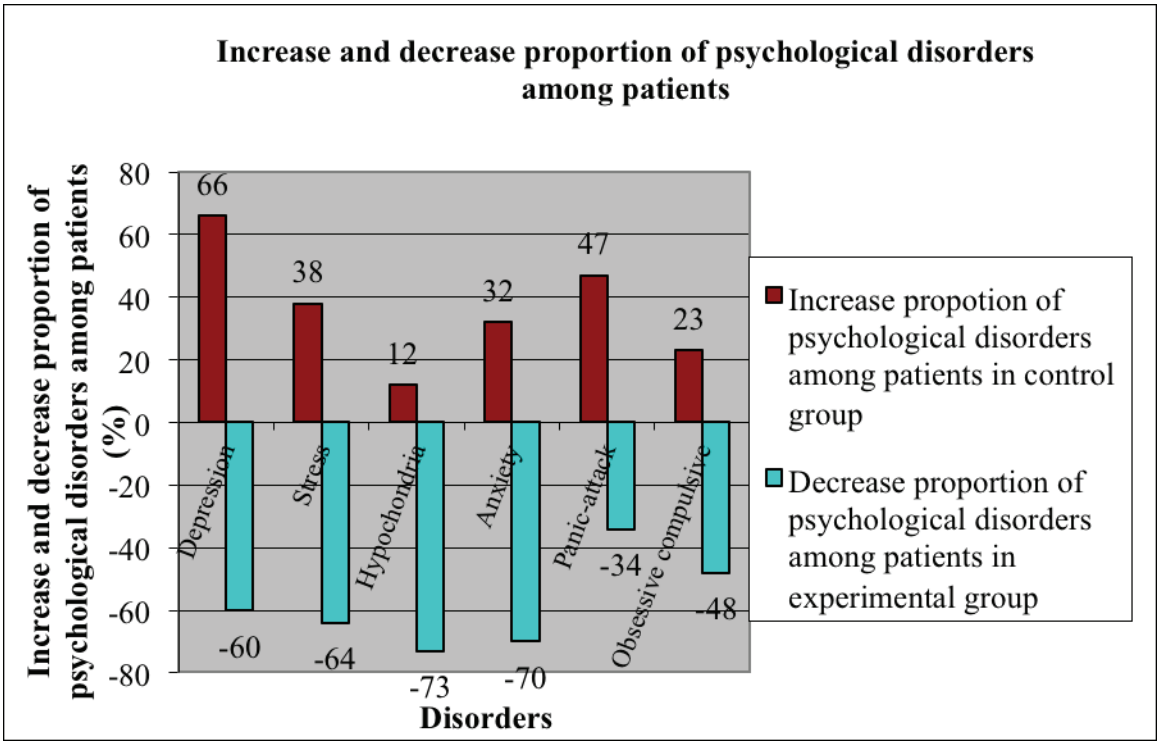
period, no decrease was observed in diagnosis of any patient in the control group data. Accordingly, a progression in the diseases had been observed in 66% of patients diagnosed with depression disorder, in 47% of patients diagnosed with panic-attack disorder, in 38% of patients diagnosed with stress disorder, in 32% of patients diagnosed with anxiety disorder, in 23% of patients diagnosed with obsessive-compulsive disorders, in 12% of patients diagnosed with hypochondriacal disorders (Table 5).

Table 5. The Percentage Of Change In The Control Group During The Course Of Their Disorders

Disorders Name	Increase (%)	Decrease (%)	No Change (%)
Depression	66	---	34
Stress	38	---	62
Hypochondria	12	---	88
Anxiety	32	---	68
Panic-attack	47	---	53
Obsessive compulsive disorders	23	---	77

And the resulting data revealed an improvement in the course of the disorders of the patients, diagnosed with hypochondria, anxiety, stress, depression, obsessive-compulsive disorders and panic-attack, psychological disorders, perform sporting activities in addition to their medical treatments. Although a decrease in the course of diseases occur in patients who exercise regularly, an increase in the course of the disorders had emerged in patients who had no an regular exercise (Figure 1). According to this result; regular exercise is important in the treatment of psychological disorders, since it supports the treatment.

Figure 1. Increase And Decrease Proportion Of Psychological Disorders Among Patients



Many studies show that, healthy individuals, who do not have any psychological disorders, reduce their possibilities to develop such disorders if they perform regular exercises. The new generations will also be grown as healthy individuals psychologically, if they do gain a culture on performing regular exercises. This will cause the formation of healthy communities and improve the quality of life of the community.

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DÜZENLİ EGZERSİZİN BAZI PSİKOLOJİK RAHATSIZLIKLARIN TEDAVİSİNE SAĞLADIĞI YARARLAR

Özet: Psikolojik rahatsızlıkları olan kişiler, duygusal çöküntü ve duygusal coşkulanmaların esiri oldukları için, toplumda normal bir çalışma yaşamı sürdürememekte, yaptıkları işe konsantre olamamakta ve de bu duyguların etkisi altında olduklarından dolayı çevrelerine uyum sağlayamamaktadırlar. Psikolojik rahatsızlıkların ortaya çıktığı durumlarda; endişe, isteksizlik, melankoli, sinirlilik gibi duygusal; günlük aktiviteye dikkatini verememe, çaresizlik ve umutsuzluk içinde olma, intihara yönelik düşünceler ve eylemler gibi motivasyonel; olaylara odaklanamama, değersizlik, suçluluk, kendine saygı göstermeme, olumsuz özeleştiri, sanrılar ve psikozlar olarak bilişsel; zamanı yalnız geçirme isteği, kolayca öfkelenme ve heyecanlanma, sürekli muhalif ve meydan okuyan bir yapıya sahip olma gibi davranışsal belirtiler gözlemlenebilmektedir. Ayrıca istem dışı çalışan özelliklerden olan uyku bozuklukları, iştah değişiklikleri, aşırı kilo alma veya verme, enerji düşüklüğü, psikomotor özelliklerde gerileme, cinsel dürtülerde azalma ile bedensel olarak de çeşitli ağrılar gibi genel fiziksel şikâyetler de görülmektedir. Düzenli egzersizin insan fizyolojisine sağladığı olumlu etkiler kadar, insan psikolojisine de sağladığı olumlu etkiler bulunmaktadır. Egzersiz; orta düzeyde depresyon, stres, kişilik bozuklukları, hipokondriya, anksiyete, obsesif kompulsif bozukluklar, panik-atak gibi rahatsızlıkların oluşmasını engelleme ve bu tip psikolojik rahatsızlıkların tedavisinde yardımcı amaçla kullanılmaktadır. Düzenli spor yapmak sinir hücrelerinin yeniden yapılandırılmasına yardımcı olmakta ve beyin hücrelerinin yaşlanmasını geciktirmektedir. Ayrıca sinir hücreleri arasındaki iletişimi düzenleyerek özellikle reaksiyon zamanının kısalmasını, koordinasyon yeteneğini, karar verme sürecini olumlu yönde geliştirmektedir. Düzenli olarak yapılan spor aktivitesi; endişe, kaygı, zihin karışıklığı, odaklanamamak, anti-sosyal davranışlar gibi durumların ortadan kalkmasına neden olur. Düzenli spor yapan kişinin, yüksek derecede özgüven, dinçlik, kendini iyi hissetme, iyi iletişim kurma ve özsaygı gibi duygularında bir artış olur. Bu çalışmamızda, düzenli egzersizin bireyler üzerinde yaptığı olumlu psikolojik etkiler, bu etkilerin insan yaşamında ortaya çıkardığı fizyolojik sonuçların psikolojik yönü ve düzenli egzersizin yukarıda bahsedilen hastalıkların tedavisinde sağladığı olumlu etkiler araştırılmış ve ortaya konulmuştur. Düzenli spor yapmak sinir hücrelerinin yeniden yapılandırılmasına yardımcı olmakta ve beyin hücrelerinin yaşlanmasını geciktirmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, düzenli egzersizin bazı psikolojik rahatsızlıkların tedavisinde sağladığı olumlu etkilerini araştırmak ve ortaya koymaktır. Çalışmaya; depresyon, stres, hipokondriya, anksiyete, obsesif kompulsif bozukluklar, panik-atak rahatsızlıkları tanısı olan ve deney grubu olarak belirlenen 50 kişi alınmıştır. Bu hastalara 90 gün boyunca haftada üç gün ikişer saat düzenli egzersiz yaptırılmıştır. Deney grubu olarak belirlenen 50 kişiye 90 gün boyunca haftada üç gün ikişer saat düzenli egzersiz yaptırılırken, aynı psikolojik rahatsızlıklara sahip kontrol grubu olarak belirlenen diğer 50 kişiye herhangi bir spor aktivitesi yaptırılmamıştır. Araştırma süresi boyunca kontrol gurubu ve deney grubu tıbbi tedavilerine devam etmişlerdir. 90 günün sonunda, deney ve kontrol grubundaki kişilerin doktorları ile yapılan görüşmelerde deney grubunda bulunan kişilerin bahsi geçen rahatsızlıkların ilerlemesinde ve seyrinde gerilemeler görülmüştür. Bu çalışmada, düzenli egzersizin bireyler üzerinde yaptığı olumlu psikolojik etkiler, bu etkilerin insan yaşamında ortaya çıkardığı fizyolojik sonuçların psikolojik yönü ve düzenli egzersizin bazı psikolojik rahatsızlıkların tedavisinde sağladığı olumlu etkileri araştırılmış ve ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Psikolojik Rahatsızlıklar, Düzenli Egzersiz, Fiziksel Antrenman, Sağlıklı Bireyler ve Spor

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ANALYZING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS OF STUDENTS IN UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM IN ELEMENTARY SCIENCE TEACHING

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Abstract: The main aim of this research is to analyze whether there is a difference or not in levels of having psychological symptoms of the students in the process of Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching. Another aim of the research is to determine whether the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students differ or not regarding various variables during the process of Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching. Relational screening model was used in the study and it was carried out with 205 female, 92 male and in total 297 participants. The data was obtained by using personal information form and SCL-90-R scale. The data was tested with t-test and variance analysis methods in independent groups. Findings are as follows; Levels of having psychological symptoms of somatization, obsessive-compulsive, depression and phobic anxiety of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to the gender variable. It was found that the type of education is a factor in students' having psychological symptoms in terms of obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, psychoticism and total mental. The levels of having psychological symptoms of the students studying in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to grade variable. The levels of having psychological symptoms of the students studying in Elementary Science Teaching do not differ according to department preference level. No difference was found when the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students studying in Elementary Science Teaching are examined according to reasons of choosing the department. It was found that the birth order of students studying in Elementary Science Teaching is a factor in terms of the psychological symptoms of obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression and psychoticism.

***Key Words*:** Elementary Science Teaching, Psychology, Symptom, Mental Health

INTRODUCTION

Mental health is an important criterion necessary for that an individual lives a peaceful life and can find appropriate solutions for the problems. According to the definition by the World Health Organization, health requires the person to be in a complete physical, psychological and social welfare. Based on this definition, having a mental problem stops the individual from being healthy.

The most dynamic and variable period of one's life both physically and mentally is the youth bio psychosocially. In this period, a fast physical change is in progress, and this change is followed by mental and psychological change and development. The individuals reconsider and assess their basic characteristics within the frame of their newly acquired mental abilities and philosophy. The young individual reevaluates these processes within environment and friend relations that develop and change and as a result he/she forms an adult identity which is permanent and which relatively does not change (Cevik, 2010).

The university is generally partake of an environment causing concern and stress. University student is an individual who is coming of age, that is, neither a child nor adult. Therefore, the individual experiences the challenges of transition period from childhood to adulthood. He/she is in the process of finding his/her identity, adapting to social values and reaching social maturity.

The fact how difficult it is for the university students to prepare for the occupation and life can be understood to an extent if the challenges identified in the researches about university students and their environment are considered together with the adaptation problems. University period is a period when the youngsters become independent after a preparation stage on which they put so much effort, generally due to getting away from the family and therefore their personal responsibilities increase. Especially starting at the end of the puberty, it can be said that the students have a quite hard time adapting to this period. The psychological symptom levels may increase in university students because of the challenges such as difficult adaptation process; increasing responsibilities due to the independence occurring after getting away from the family, creating an adult identity and trying to succeed in bilateral relations in the newly-obtained environment. Therefore, the mental health of university students is of an important issue, and this issue gets even more important when considering the teacher candidates who will practice this profession that prepares individuals for life, especially right after the university period.

Today, mental disorders are observed in significant amounts. In this sense, the researches in this area and the findings obtained will obviously be useful for individuals to deal with these disorders.

It is seen in the researches carried out domestically and abroad that the mental and academic developments of the university students are concentrated on, however there are limited opportunities for student to develop physically and socially, utilize their pastimes and meet their personal needs. And it is highlighted that physical, health, social and personal developments should be parallel with mental and academic developments (Tan, 1954; Baymur, 1969; Özgüven, 1974; Köknel, 1974; Ekşi, 1982; Hiroşe, 1985; Özgüven, 1988).

Kartal et al. (2009) found the score average of psychological symptom level of the students as 1,05 in the study aimed at scanning psychological symptoms of vocational health school. There is no statistically significant difference between the age, gender and grade statuses and score average of psychological symptom level. And the score average of psychological symptom level of students who evaluate their relationship with their family as very good is 0,97±0,56, while the score average of students who have a bad family relationship is 1,65±0,67.

As a result of the research analyzing the adaptation levels of the university students, Aktaş (1997) stated that personal, social and general adaptation levels of fourth grade university students was significantly higher than the adaptation levels in first grade. In addition, Aktaş stated that personal adaptation levels of males were higher than females' and social adaptation levels of females were higher than males' and general adaptation levels of males in fourth grade were higher than females'.

In the study named "Epidemiologic Catchment Area Study" by National Institute of Mental Health, it was stated that the prevalence of at least one mental disorder in the society for a month is 15,4%. In the same study, it was stated that the most common mental disorders are anxiety disorders and they are seen in 7,3% of the society. When analyzed according to gender, it was found that anxiety disorders in females, and alcohol and drug abuse in males are most common diagnoses. It is stated that the mental disorders that are most common in the majority of studies carried out except this study are mood disorders, and especially depression is very common among the society (Cited by Keskin, 2008).

According to the results of the study named "Turkey Mental Health Profile Research" (Kılıç,1997) published by Ministry of Health, prevalence of mental disorders in adult population is 17.2% All psychological disorders other than alcohol addiction are more in females. Depression and anxiety disorders are the most common psychological disorders. Referring to doctors because of psychological problems is low (Öztürk, 2004).

Trollor et al. (2007) found the following results in their researches in which they examined the prevalence of psychological disorder in adults: In the test applied, 13% of 1792 old participants stated symptoms regarding one psychological disorder in the last 1 month and 16% of them stated these symptoms in the last 12 months. When females are compared to males, they experienced more mood disorders and common anxiety disorders and their drug addiction rates are lower. Increasing age is less relevant with the probability of having any psychological disorder symptom except for cognitive disorder.

Sapmaz (2006) analysed adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism features of university students in terms of psychological symptom levels and found that there is a relation based on the difference between determined perfectionism classifications and all psychological symp- toms other than somatization in the study. Psychological symptom levels of maladaptive perfectionists were found as the highest. They were followed by imperfectionists and the group with lowest psychological symptom levels was found as adaptive perfectionists. The relation of gender variable

with perfectionism attitudes of the students was not found as significant.

In the research carried out by Benk (2006), the relation between perfectionist personality traits and psychological symptoms of the university students was studied. In the study, a significant relation was found between perfec-

tionism and gender, type of high school graduated, number of siblings, birth order, educational background of parents, perceived income level of the family, formality, criticism, supportiveness, sharing, peace, perceived parent relations, perceived mother father attitudes of the parents and perfectionism levels. A significant difference was found between psychological symptom list and perceived parent child raising attitude, interest, mutual understanding, warmth, sharing, peace and conflict which are among the parent-child relations.

University is not only academic life. A success of a student is not only to have enough credit to graduate from school but to have the development which may help him/her obtain objectives socially and personally. Univer- sity students should adapt to a gradual increase in self- control and independence above all. This is only possible by gaining the problem solving skill. Program content of education faculties which educate prospective teachers aims to guide students as individuals who access knowledge, who know how to access knowledge, who can use it, who can produce knowledge, who can adapt knowledge to new situations and who know where and how to use knowledge. At the end of this process, it is aimed that the student takes an active part in problem solving process and who can apply the resources efficiently towards the work (Koç et al., 2008).

In our country where millions of university students live, the biopsychological processes experienced by the youth should be well known. This is the only possible way to know and understand the youth better. As a result, it is ensured that the youth are guided in a positive way and the country blooms (Çevik, 2010).

In accordance with the abovementioned, the analysis on the students of the undergraduate program in elementary science teaching reveals that psychological symptoms of the students which are accepted as dependent variable according to gender, grade level and education type (regular and evening education) variables constitutes the aim of the study.

METHOD

This study was performed with relational screening method. In this method, the current situation is presented as it is. The psycho- logical symptoms of the students studying in undergraduate program in elementary science teaching during the undergraduate education were taken as dependent variable and gender, grade level and education type (regular and evening) were taken as independent variable.

Universe and Sample

The universe of the research is constituted by the students studying in undergraduate program in Sakarya University, Education Faculty, Elementary Science Teaching in 2010 to 2011 Education Year. Since the numbers of class students are different, sample was determined with cluster sampling in the research. The study is constituted by 154 females (67%) and 76 males (33%) in terms of gender; 74 first grade students (32.2%), 70 second grade students (30.4%), 63

third grade students (27.4%) and 23 fourth grade students (10%) in terms of grade distribution; and 124 regular education students (53.9%) and 106 evening education students (46.1%) in terms of education type and in total 230 students.

Data Collection Tools

The data in the research was obtained by two scales.

Personal information form (PIF): In the personal information form, questions were asked to help obtain information on gender, grade level and education type of the students.

Psychological symptom check list (SCL-90-R): Developed by Deragotis in 1977, SCL-90-R is a psychological symptom scanning tool with self-evaluation. The validity-reliability studies of the scale, which was developed to measure the psychological and physical symptoms, the level of compulsion experienced by the individual or the negative stress reaction lived, were carried out by Dağ (2000). The test which consists 90 items is based on five-point likert type evaluation, namely never (0), little (1), medium level (2), quite much (3), high level (4). The test has 10 subscales in total.

Somatization: This subscale reflects the anxieties regarding function disorders which recur and often change in gastrointestinal, respiratory, cardiovascular and other systems of the body. The followings are the questions of the test of 12 items: 1, 4, 12, 27, 40, 42, 48, 49, 52, 53, 56 and 58.

Obsessive-compulsive: This scale reflects the symptoms of the standard clinical syndrome of the same name. Focusing on the existence of thoughts which continuously and irresistibly recurs, this scale consists 10 items in total. The items of this subscale are questions no 3, 9, 10, 28, 38, 45, 46, 51, 55 and 65.

Interpersonal sensibility: This subscale focuses on the symptoms such as feeling insufficient and weak, reflecting these feelings to the social relations and feeling uncomfortable because of these relations. The 9 items of this subscale are questions no 6, 21, 34, 36, 37, 41, 61, 69 and 73.

Depression: This subscale is for reflecting clinical depression symptoms such as depressive mood, decreasing of living energy, pessimism, despair, lack of motive, suicidal thought. The items of this subtest of 13 items are the questions no 5, 14, 20, 22, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 54, 71 and 79.

Anxiety: This subscale includes the symptom and behaviors which are the indications of clinical anxiety such as continuous anger, stress, nervousness, never being able to rest. The 10 items of this sub test are the questions no 2, 17, 23, 33, 39, 57, 72, 78, 80 and 86.

Anger-hostility: This subscale emphasizes the features such as being angry, being restless, opposition, hostility, aggression, anger, fury, jealousy. The 6 items of this subscale are questions no 11, 24, 63, 67, 74 and 81.

Phobic anxiety: This subscale includes items which reflect the fears that are persistent but meaningless for a certain object or situation. Total number of items are 7 and these items are the questions no 13, 25, 47, 50, 70, 75 and 82.

Paranoid ideation: This subscale reflects items such as hostility, doubt, reflective thoughts, superiority, fear of losing independency. Including

6 items, this subscale includes the questions no 8, 18, 43, 68, 76 and 83.

Psychoticism: This subscale reflects symptoms which indicate a schizoid life style such as autism, being alone, moving away from social life. The questions which include 10 items are no 7, 16, 35, 62, 77, 84, 85, 87, 88 and 90.

Additional items: This subscale including 7 items reflects symptoms such as sleep, appetite disorders, feelings of guilt other than the mentioned dimensions. The questions no 19, 44, 59, 60, 64 and 89 are the items of this subscale.

Scoring

Scoring of the scale is made by giving a score between 0 and 4 for the choices on each item (0=None, 1=Little, 2=Medium level, 3=Much, 4=Too much). The score of the individual regarding the subscale is found by adding the scores given to the items of that subscale dividing into the number of items in the subscale. Therefore, the score of the individual regarding each subscale is found. Increase of the score indicates the increase of psychological symptom level.

The first of the adaptation studies of the scale was carried out by Kılıç (1987) in Turkey. In the study carried out with 122 university students, invariance coefficients of subtests obtained with Pearson product moment technique are .82 for somatization, .84 for obsessive-compulsive, .79 for interpersonal sensitivity, .78 for depression, .73 for anxiety, .79 for anger and hostility, .78 for phobic anxiety, .63 for paranoid ideation, .73 for psychoticism and .77 for additional scale (Öner, 1997). Turkish translation of the scale was used on samples in some researches in our country and it was observed that it distinguishes used and examined groups in a significant level. Reliability study of the scale was carried out by Dağ in 1989 and its Cronbach's alpha value was found ".97". A correlation between .10 to .77 was found between general symptom average and MMPI (Bozkurt, 1996). The results of the study on the validity of SCL-90-R are interpreted in a way that this test can generally measure psychopathology, however the subscales cannot distinguish between the different psychiatric symptom groups, but a structure validity which can show "psychiatric symptomatic situation" as a whole is found (Dağ, 2000).

Data Analysis Techniques

The data were analyzed using a package statistic program. As analysis methods, t-test (Independent t-Test) was used to compare the averages in the independent groups and variance (One-Way ANOVA) analysis was used to compare the averages of more than two groups.

In analysis of the data, if the number of groups is more, its leads to increase the margin of error in bilateral correlations. So Bonferroni adjustment (correction) was done. Bonferroni adjustment (correction) is determined by the formula p/k, significance level/ group number (Miller, 1991; IFA, 2003; RCSE, 2003) adjustment (correction) values are calculated for each analysis.

FINDINGS

Problem I: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to gender variable?

Table 1. Unrelated Independent Sample T-Test Results of The Mental Health Level Score of The Students Studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching According to Gender Variable.

		N	$\bar{X}$	sd	df	t	p
Somatization	Female	205	1.3683	.74247	295	3.112	.002*
	Male	92	1.0815	.71590			
Obsessive-Compulsive	Female	205	1.6917	.74943	294	2.273	.024**
	Male	91	1.4725	.80084			
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Female	205	1.4352	.74656	295	1.305	.193
	Male	92	1.3068	.86324			
Depression	Female	205	1.4991	.79488	295	2.857	.004*
	Male	92	1.2149	.78798			
Anxiety	Female	205	1.2366	.75477	295	1.905	.058
	Male	92	1.0543	.77862			
Hostility	Female	205	1.1585	.79705	295	-.171	.864
	Male	92	1.1757	.80837			
Phobic Anxiety	Female	205	.9213	.72724	295	2.517	.012**
	Male	92	.6957	.68470			
Paranoid Ideation	Female	205	1.3293	.73717	295	.361	.719
	Male	92	1.2953	.78021			
Psychoticism	Female	205	.9234	.69363	295	-.507	.613
	Male	92	.9685	.74198			
Total Mental Health	Female	205	1.4334	.72034	295	.369	.712
	Male	92	1.3991	.78804			

*p<.005, **p<.025, The level of significance has been considered as α=.01/2=.005 and α=.05/2=.025 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison.

The findings regarding psychological health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching according to "Gender" were examined in Table 1. In the examination, it was found that there is no significant difference between scores of interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, paranoid ideation, psychoticism and total mental health levels and gender variable.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between somatization level score averages of the students according to gender, a significant difference was found in favor of male students

[$t_{(295)}$= 3.112, p < .005]. While the somatization level score average of female students was ($\overline{X}$ ±sd; 1.36 ± .74) the somatization level score average of male students was found as (1.08 ± .71). According to this result, somatization levels of male students are lower compared to female students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between Obsessive-compulsive level score averages of the students according to gender, a significant difference was found in favor of male students [$t_{(294)}$= 2.273, p < .025]. While the obsessive-compulsive level score average of female students was ($\overline{X}$ ±sd; 1.69 ± .74) the obsessive-compulsive level score average of male students was found as (1.47 ± .80). According to this result, obsessive-compulsive levels of male students are lower compared to female students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between depression level score averages of the students according to gender, a significant difference was found in favor of male students [$t_{(295)}$= 2.857, p < .005]. While the depression level score average of female students was ($\overline{X}$ ±sd; 1.49 ± .79) the depression level score average of male students was found as (1.21 ± .78). According to this result, depression levels of male students are lower compared to female students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between phobic anxiety level score averages of the students according to gender, a significant difference was found in favor of male students [$t_{(295)}$= 2.5172, p < .025]. While the phobic anxiety level score average of female students was ($\overline{X}$ ±sd; .92 ± .72) the phobic anxiety level score average of male students was found as (.69 ± .68). According to this result, phobic anxiety levels of male students are lower compared to female students.

Problem II: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to type of education variable?

Table 2. Unrelated Independent Sample T-Test Results of the Mental Health Level Score of The Students Studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching According to Education Type Variable.

		N	$\bar{X}$	sd	df	t	p
Somatization	Regular Edu.	142	1.3386	.71516	295	1.311	.191
	Evening Edu.	155	1.2253	.76977			
Obsessive-Compulsive	Regular Edu.	142	1.7563	.78238	294	2.863	.004*
	Evening Edu.	154	1.5026	.74210			
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Regular Edu.	142	1.5423	.81106	295	3.129	.002*
	Evening Edu.	155	1.2609	.73829			
Depression	Regular Edu.	142	1.5244	.81039	295	2.348	.020**
	Evening Edu.	155	1.3072	.78307			
Anxiety	Regular Edu.	142	1.2789	.77687	295	2.140	.033
	Evening Edu.	155	1.0897	.74617			
Hostility	Regular Edu.	142	1.2723	.85203	295	2.253	.023**
	Evening Edu.	155	1.0645	.73644			
Phobic Anxiety	Regular Edu.	142	1.0040	.74783	295	3.562	.000*
	Evening Edu.	155	.7115	.66738			
Paranoid Ideation	Regular Edu.	142	1.4014	.74407	295	1.826	.069
	Evening Edu.	155	1.2430	.74903			
Psychoticism	Regular Edu.	142	1.0986	.70590	295	3.842	.000*
	Evening Edu.	155	.7897	.67921			
Total Mental Health	Regular Edu.	142	1.5815	.74932	295	3.604	.000*
	Evening Edu.	155	1.2774	.70443			

*p<.005, **p<.025, The level of significance has been considered as α=.01/2=.005 and α=.05/2=.025 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison.

The findings regarding mental health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching according to "Type of Education" were examined in Table 2. In the examination, it was found that there is no significant difference between students' scores of somatization, anxiety and paranoid ideation levels and type of education.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between Obsessive-compulsive level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(294)} = 2.863$, $p < .005$]. While the obsessive-compulsive level score average of regular education students was

($\overline{X} \pm$sd; 1.75 $\pm$ .78) the obsessive-compulsive level score average of evening education students was found as (1.50 $\pm$ .74). According to this result, obsessive-compulsive levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between interpersonal sensitivity level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(295)}$= 3.129, p < .005]. While the interpersonal sensitivity level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X} \pm$sd; 1.54 $\pm$ .81) the interpersonal sensitivity level score average of evening education students was found as (1.26 $\pm$ .73). According to this result, interpersonal sensitivity levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between depression level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(295)}$= 2.348, p < .025]. While the depression level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X} \pm$sd; 1.52 $\pm$ .81) the depression level score average of evening education students was found as (1.30 $\pm$ .78). According to this result, depression levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between hostility level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(295)}$= 2.253, p < .025]. While the hostility level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X} \pm$sd; 1.27 $\pm$ .85) the hostility level score average of evening education students was found as (1.06 $\pm$ .73). According to this result, hostility levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between phobic anxiety level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(295)}$= 3.562, p < .005]. While the phobic anxiety level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X} \pm$ sd; 1.00 $\pm$ .74) the phobic anxiety level score average of evening students was found as (0.71 $\pm$ .66). According to this result, phobic anxiety levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between psychoticism level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of evening education students [$t_{(295)}$= 3.842, p < .005]. While the psychoticism level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X} \pm$sd; 1.09 $\pm$ .70) the psychoticism level score average of evening education students was found as (0.78 $\pm$ .67). According to this result, psychoticism levels of

evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

As a result of the independent sample t-test carried out to determine if there is a significant difference between total mental health level score averages of the students according to type of education, a significant difference was found in favor of daytime education students [$t_{(295)}$= 3.604, p < .005]. While the total mental health level score average of regular education students was ($\overline{X}$ ± sd; 1.58 ± .74) the total mental health level score average of evening education students was found as (1.27 ± .70). According to this result, total mental health levels of evening education students are lower compared to regular education students.

Problem III: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to type of grade level variable?

Table 3. ANOVA Test Results of The Mental Health Level Score of The Students Studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching According to Grade Level Variable.

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	p	Grade	Mean	Significant Groups in post hoc Sheffe's
Somatization	Between	9.610	3	3.203	6.067	.001*	I	1.2104	III-IV
	Within	154.708	293	.528			II	1.3021	
							III	1.5229	
	Total	164.319	296				IV	.9955	
Obsessive-Compulsive	Between	10.921	3	3.640	6.466	.000*	I	1.4439	I-III III-IV
	Within	164.404	292	.563			II	1.6438	
							III	1.9127	
	Total	175.325	295				IV	1.4509	
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Between	8.217	3	2.739	4.603	.004**	I	1.3144	III-IV
	Within	174.341	293	.595			II	1.4514	
							III	1.6056	
	Total	182.558	296				IV	1.1293	
Depression	Between	8.332	3	2.777	4.466	.004**	I	1.2795	I-III III-IV
	Within	182.194	293	.622			II	1.4308	
							III	1.6577	
	Total	190.526	296				IV	1.2196	

Anxiety	Between	7.018	3	2.339	4.117	.007**	I	1.0573	III-IV
	Within	166.474	293	.568			II	1.2525	
							III	1.3750	
	Total	173.493	296				IV	.9745	
Hostility	Between	12.377	3	4.126	6.841	.000*	I	1.0996	I-III II-III III-IV
	Within	176.704	293	.603			II	1.0521	
							III	1.4896	
	Total	189.081	296				IV	.9485	
Phobic Anxiety	Between	8.847	3	2.949	5.961	.001*	I	.7875	I-III III-IV
	Within	144.939	293	.495			II	.8357	
							III	1.1036	
	Total	153.786	296				IV	.6026	
Paranoid Ideation	Between	6.859	3	2.286	4.201	.006**	I	1.2175	III-IV
	Within	159.467	293	.544			II	1.3438	
							III	1.5354	
	Total	166.326	296				IV	1.1182	
Psychoticism	Between	8.934	3	2.978	6.257	.000*	I	.8000	I-III III-IV
	Within	139.441	293	.476			II	.9588	
							III	1.1925	
	Total	148.375	296				IV	.7400	
Total Mental Health	Between	11.678	3	3.893	7.565	.000*	I	1.2962	I-III III-IV
	Within	150.761	293	.515			II	1.4464	
							III	1.7089	
	Total	162.439	296				IV	1.1610	

*p<.0025, **p<.0125, The level of significance has been considered as α=.01/4=.0025 and α=.05/4=.0125 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison. I- Freshman, II- Junior, III- Sophomore, IV-Senior

The results of ANOVA test carried out in order to determine if each of mental health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Science Teaching according to "Grade Level" variable are given in Table 3. When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the somatization level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 6.067, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between somatization levels of Grade III and Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade IV. According to this result, somatization levels of Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III students.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the obsessive-compulsive level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-292)= 6.466, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between obsessive-compulsive levels of Grade I - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, obsessive-compulsive levels of Grade I and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the interpersonal sensitivity level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 4.603, p < .0125]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between interpersonal sensitivity levels of Grade III and Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade IV. According to this result, interpersonal sensitivity levels of Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III students.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the depression level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 4.466, p < .0125]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between depression levels of Grade I - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, depression levels of Grade I and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the anxiety level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 4.117, p < .0125]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between anxiety levels of Grade III and Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade IV. According to this result, anxiety levels of Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III students.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the hostility level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 6.841, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between hostility levels of Grade I - Grade III, Grade II - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I, Grade II and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, hostility levels of Grade I, Grade II and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the phobic anxiety level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 5.961, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between phobic anxiety levels of Grade I - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, phobic anxiety levels of Grade I and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the paranoid ideation level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 4.201, p < .0125]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between paranoid ideation levels of Grade III and Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade IV. According to this result, paranoid ideation levels of Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III students.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the psychoticism level score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 6.257, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between psychoticism levels of Grade I - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, psychoticism levels of Grade I and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

When Table 3 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the total mental health levels score averages according to grade levels [F(3-293)= 7.565, p < .0025]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between total mental health levels of Grade I - Grade III and Grade III – Grade IV students was significant in favor of Grade I and Grade IV respectively. According to this result, total mental health levels of Grade I and Grade IV students are lower compared to Grade III.

Problem IV: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to department preference order variable?

Table 4. ANOVA Test Results of Mental Health Level Scores of The Students Studying in Science Education Program According to Department Preference Order Variable.

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	p
Somatization	Between	8.592	23	.374	.655	.887
	Within	155.726	273	.570		
	Total	164.319	296			
Obsessive-Compulsive	Between	15.879	23	.690	1.178	.264
	Within	159.446	273	.586		
	Total	175.325	296			
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Between	15.796	23	.687	1.124	.318
	Within	166.762	273	.611		
	Total	182.558	296			
Depression	Between	13.292	23	.578	.890	.612
	Within	177.235	273	.649		
	Total	190.526	296			
Anxiety	Between	10.846	23	.472	.791	.741
	Within	162.647	273	.596		
	Total	173.493	296			

Hostility	Between	20.907	23	.909	1.476	.078
	Within	168.174	273	.616		
	Total	189.081	296			
Phobic Anxiety	Between	11.034	23	.480	.917	.575
	Within	142.752	273	.523		
	Total	153.786	296			
Paranoid Ideation	Between	7.852	23	.341	.588	.935
	Within	158.474	273	.580		
	Total	166.326	296			
Psychoticism	Between	14.625	23	.636	1.298	.167
	Within	133.750	273	.490		
	Total	148.375	296			
Total Mental Health	Between	16.705	23	.726	1.361	.129
	Within	145.734	273	.534		
	Total	162.439	296			

p<.002, **p<.01 The level of significance has been considered as α=.01/5=.002 and α=.05/5=.01 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison; **I-** between 1 and 3, **II-** between 4 and 6, **III-** between 7 and 9, **IV-** between 10 and 12, **V-** 13 and after.

The results of ANOVA test carried out in order to determine if each of mental health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Science Teaching according to "Department Preference Order" variable are given in Table 4. According to the results, no significant difference was found between score averages of Somatization, Obsessive-compulsive, Interpersonal sensitivity, Depression, Anxiety, Phobic anxiety, Paranoid ideation, Psychoticism and Total mental health levels of the students according to department preference order.

Problem V: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to reason of department preference variable?

Table 5. ANOVA Test Results of The Mental Health Level Scores of The Students Studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching According to Reason For Choosing The Department Variable.

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	p
Somatization	Between	5.075	4	1.269	2.327	.056
	Within	159.243	292	.545		
	Total	164.319	296			
Obsessive-Compulsive	Between	4.381	4	1.095	1.865	.117
	Within	170.943	291	.587		
	Total	175.325	295			
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Between	2.095	4	.524	.847	.496
	Within	180.463	292	.618		
	Total	182.558	296			
Depression	Between	3.568	4	.892	1.393	.236
	Within	186.959	292	.640		
	Total	190.526	296			
Anxiety	Between	2.285	4	.571	.974	.422
	Within	171.207	292	.586		
	Total	173.493	296			
Hostility	Between	6.068	4	1.517	2.420	.062
	Within	183.013	292	.627		
	Total	189.081	296			
Phobic Anxiety	Between	3.148	4	.787	1.526	.195
	Within	150.638	292	.516		
	Total	153.786	296			
Paranoid Ideation	Between	1.261	4	.315	.558	.694
	Within	165.064	292	.565		
	Total	166.326	296			
Psychoticism	Between	4.081	4	1.020	2.065	.085
	Within	144.294	292	.494		
	Total	148.375	296			
Total Mental Health	Between	4.358	4	1.090	2.013	.093
	Within	158.081	292	.541		
	Total	162.439	296			

*p<.0025, **p<.0125The level of significance has been considered as α=.01/4=.0025 and α=.05/4=.0125 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison; I- Because I like, II-Family Pressure, III-Not to be left out, IV-Friend Pressure

The results of ANOVA test carried out in order to determine if each of mental health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Science Teaching according to "Reason of Department Preference" variable are given in Table 5. According to the results, no significant difference was found between score averages of Somatization, Obsessive-compulsive, Interpersonal sensitivity, Depression, Anxiety, Hostility, Phobic anxiety, Paranoid ideation, Psychoticism and Total mental health levels of the students according to reason of department preference.

Problem VI: Do the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to birth order variable?

Table 6. ANOVA Test Results of The Mental Health Level Scores of The Students Studying in Undergraduate Program in Elementary Science Teaching According to Birth Order.

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	p	Significant Groups in post hoc Sheffe's
Somatization	Between	3.951	3	1.317	2.406	.067	
	Within	160.368	293	.547			
	Total	164.319	296				
Obsessive-Compulsive	Between	6.751	3	2.250	3.898	.009**	II-IV
	Within	168.573	292	.577			
	Total	175.325	295				
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Between	5.255	3	1.752	2.894	.036	
	Within	177.304	293	.605			
	Total	182.558	296				
Depression	Between	5.177	3	1.726	2.728	.044	
	Within	185.349	293	.633			
	Total	190.526	296				
Anxiety	Between	3.859	3	1.286	2.222	.086	
	Within	169.633	293	.579			
	Total	173.493	296				
Hostility	Between	1.856	3	.619	.968	.408	
	Within	187.225	293	.639			
	Total	189.081	296				

Phobic Anxiety	Between	3.844	3	1.281	2.504	.059
	Within	149.942	293	.512		
	Total	153.786	296			
Paranoid Ideation	Between	3.133	3	1.044	1.875	.134
	Within	163.193	293	.557		
	Total	166.326	296			
Psychoticism	Between	3.895	3	1.298	2.633	.048
	Within	144.480	293	.493		
	Total	148.375	296			
Total Mental Health	Between	4.303	3	1.434	2.657	.058
	Within	158.136	293	.540		
	Total	162.439	296			

**p<.0125, The level of significance has been considered as α=.05/4=.0125 after Bonferroni correction for each comparison. I- Only Child, II- First Child, III- Middle Child, IV- Last Child

The results of ANOVA test carried out in order to determine if each of mental health levels of the students studying in Undergraduate Program in Science Teaching according to "Birth Order" variable are given in Table 6. According to the results, no significant difference was found between score averages of Somatization, Interpersonal sensitivity, Depression, Anxiety, Hostility, Phobic anxiety, Paranoid ideation, Psychoticism and Total mental health levels of the students according to birth order.

When Table 6 was analyzed, a significant relation was found between the obsessive-compulsive level score averages according to birth order of students [F(3-292)= 3.898, p < .0125]. The results of post hoc analysis showed that the difference between obsessive-compulsive levels of students whose birth order are "The First Child" and "The Last Child" (Average Difference: "The first child" - "The last child" = .2914) is significant in the favor of those whose birth order is "The last child". According to this result, an obsessive-compulsive level of the students whose birth order is "The last child" are lower than students whose birth order is "The first child".

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this part, the results obtained in this research, comments on these results and literature information which supports and does not support the said comments are included.

The levels of having psychological symptoms of the students during undergraduate program in Elementary Science Teaching differ according to gender variable. This difference occurs in terms of somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, depression and phobic anxiety. Somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, depression and phobic anxiety is seen more among girls than boys.

When the literature is examined, the psychological symptom which will accompany the moods of the individuals with interpersonal sensitivity symptoms is depression. Individual's seeing himself desperate and inferior to other people when he/she relates himself/herself with others causes the individual to experience the feelings of insignificance, aimlessness and uselessness. The reason why the female students experience interpersonal sensitivity symptoms more than the males is the interpersonal interaction which is the basic determinant of the identity feeling they have to gain in this progressive period they are in and the quantity and quality of this interaction. The fact that the males precede the females for a few years in terms of development can be regarded as a main element which causes this difference. It can be assumed that the females are affected by the negative life events more and accordingly they can be hurt and thereby they exhibit more depressive traits compared to the males (Erözkan, 2009).

It was found that the type of education is a factor in students' having psychological symptoms in terms of obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, hostility, phobic anxiety, psychoticism and total mental health. When all types of symptoms in which difference occurs are analyzed, it is seen that daytime education students have more symptoms than evening education students have. The followings can be listed as reasons for this:

1) It can be said that regular education students cannot adopt the positions they have and thereby they experience aim uncertainty, on the other hand regular education students adopt the positions they have and thereby they form an aim.

2) Regarding leisure time activities, it can be said that evening education students spend their time more efficiently to maintain their mental health compared to the regular education students.

3) Since evening education students pay more school fee compared to the regular education students it can be said that they behave more sensitive to the process and they are more aware of their responsibilities. In other words, personal responsibility levels of evening education students are higher than the regular education students.

The levels of having psychological symptoms of the students studying in Undergraduate Program of Elementary Science Teaching differ according to grade variable. The levels of having each of all symptoms the Grade III students significantly differ, in favor of the Grade IV, from the Grade IV students. The levels of having obsessive-compulsive, depression, hostility, phobic anxiety, psychoticism and total mental health symptoms of the Grade I students significantly differ, in favor of the Grade I, from the Grade III students. The level of hostility symptom of Grade II students differs, in favor of the Grade II, from the Grade III students. As a result, when Grade I, Grade II and Grade III considered, the levels of having psychological symptoms, except hostility, of students studying in Undergraduate Program of Elementary Science Teaching increases as their grade levels increase. When the level of having hostility symptom analyzed, the level is that Gra-

de III has the highest level of having symptom respectively after Grade I, Grade II and Grade IV.

The reason is that;

I. They have no clue

II. No complicated clues

III. No conflictive clues which may eliminate the uncertainties regarding the situations to be experienced in the future.

In this situation, student's intolerance of uncertainty increases. Intolerance of Uncertainty refers to an unpredictable component that is future oriented. Intolerance of Uncertainty refers to an apprehension of future negative events (Grenier, Barrette & Ladouceur, 2005). There are two methods to be applied to deal with intolerance to uncertainty. First one is denial (distorting the truth) and second one is yielding. Dealing methods of denial and giving in cause students to experience many psychological symptoms. Individuals who are intolerant of uncertainty, therefore, may believe that they lack sufficient coping or problem solving skills to effectively manage threatening situations that have the potential to evoke discomfort and negative emotionality (Holaway, Heimberg & Coles, 2006).

No significant difference was statistically found between the score averages of department preference order and level of having psychological symptoms of students studying in Undergraduate Program of Elementary Science Teaching.

No difference was found when the levels of having psychological symptoms of the students studying in Undergraduate Program of Elementary Science Teaching are examined according to reasons of choosing the department.

A significant difference was seen between students studying in Undergraduate Program of Elementary Science Teaching who are the middle child and the last child in obsessive-compulsive symptom. Alfred Adler is the first theorist who says that the children perceive their position in the family according to their birth order and they develop a life style according to this perception. According to Adler, there are 5 different positions within a family and these are first child, second child, middle child, last child and only child. Each child develops a method to deal with the obstacle he/she encounters according to the style of perceiving his/her position. For instance, second child observes the deficiencies of the older sibling and gains competences for these deficiencies and thereby he/she tries to esta- blish superiority (Corey, 2009). It can be said that these different positions within a family are a factor in having psychological symptoms during the undergraduate education of the students in Elementary Science Teaching.

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İLKÖĞRETİM FEN BİLGİSİ ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ LİSANS PROGRAMI ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN PSİKOLOJİK BELİRTİLERİNİN İNCELENMESİ

Özet: Üniversite öğrencilerinin mesleğe ve hayata hazırlanma çabalarını ne kadar zorlu bir şekilde sürdürdükleri, üniversite öğrencilerine ve onların yaşadıkları ortama ilişkin yapılan araştırmalarda ortaya konan sorunlar ve öğrencinin gelişim ve uyum sorunları birlikte düşünüldüğünde bir ölçüde anlaşılmış olacaktır. Üniversite dönemi, gençlerin ciddi miktarda uğraş verdikleri bir hazırlık dönemi sonrası genel olarak aileden uzak olmaları sebebiyle bağımsızlaştığı ve dolayısıyla bireysel sorumluluklarının arttığı bir dönemdir. Özellikle ergenlik döneminin sonlarında başlayan bu dönemde, öğrenciler için bu döneme uyum sağlamalarının oldukça zor olduğu söylenebilir. Uyum sürecinin zorlaşması, aileden uzak olma sebebiyle bağımsızlaşan bireylerin sorumluluklarının artması, erişkin kimliği oluşturma, edindiği yeni ortamında ikili ilişkilerinde başarıyı yakalama gibi zorluklarla karşı karşıya kalan üniversite öğrencilerinde bu sebeplerden dolayı psikolojik belirti düzeylerinde artış olabilmektedir. Bu nedenlerden dolayı üniversite öğrencilerinin ruh sağlığı konusu önem arz etmekte ve özellikle üniversite döneminin hemen sonrasında, bireyleri hayata hazırlayan öğretmenlik mesleğini icra edecek olan öğretmen adayları düşünüldüğünde bu konunun önemi artmaktadır. Bu araştırmanın temel amacı; İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı sürecinde öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeylerinde bir farklılaşmanın olup olmadığını incelemektir. Araştırmanın bir diğer amacı da İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı sürecinde öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeylerinin çeşitli değişkenler açısından farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını belirlenmesidir. Bu araştırma ilişkisel tarama yöntemi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu yöntemde öncelikle var olan durum var olduğu şekliyle ortaya konulmaktadır. İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programında okuyan öğrencilerin lisans eğitim sürecinde ki ruhsal belirtileri bağımlı değişken, cinsiyet sınıf düzeyi ve öğretim türü (I. ve II. öğretim) değişkenleri ise bağımsız değişken olarak ele alınmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemini; cinsiyet bakımından 205 kız (%69) ve 92 erkek (%31), sınıf dağılımı açısından 82 1.sınıf öğrencisi (%27,7), 80 2.sınıf öğrencisi (%26,9), 80 3.sınıf öğrencisi (%26,9), 55 4.sınıf öğrencisi (%18,5) ve son olarak öğrenim türüne göre ise 142 I. öğretim öğrencisi (% 47,8), 155 II. öğretim öğrencisi (% 52,2) olmak üzere toplam 297 öğrenci oluşmaktadır. Araştırmada veriler iki ölçek yardımı ile elde edilmiştir. Kişisel Bilgi Formu (KBF): Kişisel Bilgi Formunda katılımcıların cinsiyet, sınıf düzeyi ve öğretim türüne ilişkin bilgilere ulaşmaya katkı sağlayacak sorular sorulmuştur. Ruhsal Belirti Tarama Listesi (SCL-90- R): Deragotis tarafından 1977 yılında geliştirilen SCL-90- R kendini değerlendirme türü bir psikolojik belirti tarama aracıdır. Psikolojik ve bedensel belirtileri, bireyin içinde bulunduğu zorlanmanın ya da yaşadığı olumsuz stres tepkisinin düzeyini ölçmeye yönelik olarak geliştirilen ölçeğin ülkemizdeki geçerlik-güvenirlik çalışmaları Dağ (1991) tarafından yürütülmüştür. Toplam 90 maddeden oluşan test hiç (0), çok az (1), orta derecede (2), oldukça fazla (3) ve aşırı düzeyde (4) şeklinde 5'li Likert tipi değerlendirmeye dayanmaktadır. Veriler paket bir istatistik program yardımı ile analiz edilmiştir. Analiz yöntemleri olarak; bağımsız gruplara da ortalamaların karşılaştırılması için t-testi (Independent t-Test) ve ikiden fazla grup ortalamalarını karşılaştırmak içinde varyans (One-Way ANOVA) analizi kullanılmıştır. Bulgular; İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı öğrencilerinin somatization, obsessive-compulsive, depression ve phobic anxiety psikolojik belirtilerine sahip olma düzeyleri cinsiyet değişkenine göre farklılaşmaktadır. Öğretim türünün, öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeylerinde obsessive-compulsive , interpersonal sensitivity, depresyon, Anxiety, Hostility, phobic anxiety , Psychoticism ve Total mental açısından bir faktör olduğu bulunmuştur. İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi

Öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeyleri sınıf değişkenine göre farklılaşmaktadır. İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeyleri bölüm tercih sırası açısından farklılaşmamaktadır. İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğrencilerin psikolojik belirtilere sahip olma düzeyleri bölüm seçme nedenlerine göre incelendiğinde bir farklılaşma bulunmamıştır. İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğrencilerin dünyaya geliş sıralarının obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression ve Psychoticism psikolojik belirtileri açısından bir faktör olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu araştırmanın bulgularına dayalı olarak aşağıda ki öneriler yapılabilir: Öğrencilerin ruh sağlıklarını iyileştirici, önleyici ve zenginleştirici PDR Hizmetlerini almaya yönelik gerekli çalışmaların yapılması gerekmektedir. I. Sınıf öğrencilerinin uyumunu sağlayıcı ve olumsuz davranışlarının ortaya çıkmasını önleyici bakımdan oryantasyon hizmetlerinin kapsamlı ve sistemli bir şekilde yapılması gereği ortaya çıkmıştır. Lisans Eğitim programına kayıtlı tüm öğrencilerin aldıkları mesleki eğitim programına ilişkin ulaşılabilir beklentiler oluşturmaları için sahip oldukları kaygıların araştırılması ve giderilmesi gerekmektedir. Mesleki yönlendirmenin hem alınan hem mesleki eğitim programında ki başarıyı hem de ruh sağlığını etkileyen bir faktör olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Mesleki tercih sürecinin daha bilinçli bireyin ilgi ve yeteneklerine uygun bir biçimde yapılması ruh sağlığını koruyucu ve zenginleştirici bir faktör olduğu görülmektedir. Bu bağlamda meslek tercihine etki edecek tüm faktörlere yönelik müşavirlik hizmetlerinin verilmesi kaçınılmazdır. Bu çalışma diğer bütün lisans programları içinde yapılabilir ve ruh sağlığı belirtilerine sahip öğrencilerin akademik, sosyal ve eğitsel işlevsellik düzeylerinin karşılaştırmalı olarak incelemesinin eğitim programlarının yeniden şekillenmesinde yararlı olacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Matematik, İlköğretim Matematik, Psikoloji, Belirti, Ruh Sağlığı

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THE EVALUATION OF THE TEACHERS' VIEWS ABOUT RENEWED SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION CURRICULUM

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Abstract: Ministry of National Education is obliged to continuously renew curriculum of the courses taught in the schools in parallel to the changing social, scientific and technological developments. Turkish Ministry of National Education has renewed the curriculum by fundamental changes in recent years. The purpose of this study is to determine the views of the teachers working in the secondary education of the public schools about the renewed secondary education curriculum considering some demographic variables. The population of the study constitutes the teachers working in secondary schools under Hakkari Provincial Directorate of National Education in 2013-2014 academic year; and the sample of the study constitutes Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, Sociology, Philosophy, Turkish Language and Literature and History teachers. The 18-item questionnaire used in the study is about "the evaluation of the renewed curriculum". The validity and reliability studies of the questionnaire used in the research were conducted and Cronbach's alpha internal reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.76. According to the results obtained in the study, such conclusions regarding the renewed curriculum were reached that the teachers have time problems in the implementation of the curriculum, they have problems in assessment and evaluation, the opinions of the teachers as well as the academics have not been taken into consideration while updating the curriculum, and the changes in some sections were to the point but the renewals in some sections were inadequate.

***Key Words**:* Curriculum, Secondary School Education, Renewed Programs, Revision

INTRODUCTION

Rapid changes and developments in science and technology stand out in the field of education as in many areas. The education system which has a significant role in the social, cultural, political and economic development of the society and self-realization of individuals has three basic elements including students, teachers and the program (Gözütok, 2003). Increasing the quality of education and raising achievement depends primarily on the teacher, students and the curricula developed before the education. The development of students in all respects depends on the teachers and curriculum, the teacher's being helpful to the students depends on the students and curriculum. Increasing success in education to the desired level is based on new and modern curriculum. According to Priestley, (2011: 221) the rapid increase of information has revealed modern and new curriculum, thus current education programs have faced with an apparent decline. According to Canning, (2012: 327) the change

of the subjects taught in secondary education by time has made mandatory the renewal or change of the curriculum. Therefore, secondary education programs should be continuously integrated both academically and in terms of vocational training for higher success.

According to Erden, (1998: 2) all activities in the formal and non-formal education are conducted within the framework of a pre-prepared program. The behaviors to be developed in individuals in institutions are involved in these programs. Therefore, the quality of education largely depends on the curriculum. Solving these shortcomings and deficiencies in these curricula, re-organizing, developing or renewing them according to the changes in the scientific fields will accordingly increase the quality of education being applied. According to Johannesson et al., (2011: 375) for a sustainable development, issues such as opinions and feelings, welfare and the health of issues, democracy, participation in the actions and activities, equality and multiculturalism, global consciousness and economic development should be considered for the development of education programs.

According to Demirel, (2012: 5) the curriculum is a set of dynamic relationships between objectives, content, teaching-learning process and evaluation. According to Saylor, Alexander and Levis, the teaching program is the plan of gaining learning experiences to the individuals to be trained (Akt. Demirel, 2012: 2). According to Fidan, (1986: 20) all planned activities to achieve the objectives constitute the draft of the curriculum; the reflection of them in practice constitutes the teaching program. According to Özçelik, (2010: 4) a guide showing what, why and how will take place in the teaching-learning process related to a course is a project plan. According to Bilen, (1999: 19) teaching program is all regular learning experiences the students meet to accomplish the goals of education. When the definitions are viewed under a common roof, it is understood that the definitions are usually dealing with aims, objectives, content, learning experiences, teaching-learning process and what will be taught/learned and why will be taught/learned. The definitions reveal the scope of the curriculum and what is important in teaching.

The most important properties that a teaching program should have are its functionality, the content of the program responding the needs of the community, revealing the abilities of the individuals, its flexibility, determining the details of the subjects under the light of innovations and changes brought by the developing technology and science, providing opportunities to determine which methods and techniques will be used (Engin, Akbaş and Gençtürk, 2003; Akengin, 2008: 4). When the program cannot fulfill one or more of these concepts, regulation or renewal of the program is required. According to Newman, Samimy and Romstedt, (2010: 152) mostly deficiencies occur in the curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum must be established as *academic and vocational education programs* by specialized people and must be developed regularly in line with requirements. According to Liu et al., (2009: 503) academic programs of the students studying in primary school before the secondary school are very important. Because, readiness information that is necessary for secondary education is obtained from the primary school curriculum.

According to Kysilka, (2006: 197) for a teaching program to be viable, the program is required to be in the range of discipline-based, objective-oriented, teacher-controlled and student discovery. According to Scott, (2014: 1) a teaching program should provide a reason to determine the information as central dimension; should conceptualize the learning and marginalize the knowledge. Also, according to Macintyre and Hamilton, (2010: 3) there is a negative impact on students in the teaching of science courses such as mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology. Education programs should primarily change this negative impact on math courses by using *textual analysis* and *focus group discussions* and should change the content selection realistic as to prepare the students interested in their future employment and career expectations in order to increase the success in the math courses.

According to Macknight, (2011: 717) while preparing a teaching program, concepts such as information, logic, success and education sociology should also be included. According to Tan and Hong, 2014: 677) while preparing the teaching program, mass media should be utilized and students also should be provided to benefit from them. Programs should be designed considering visual, auditory and instructional technology especially in science classes. According to Byrne, Dauney and Souza, (2013: 335) the curriculum should be created in the way to provide equal education to all students. Also renewed curriculum should be liberal rather than traditionalism. According to Durrani, (2008: 595) gender and national identity should also be considered while developing teaching programs. According to Perry and Southwell, (2014: 1) the curriculum should be prepared by considering socio-economic lives of the students in the whole country in order to make fair and equitable use of the education programs. According to Takagi, (2013: 1) for the internationalization of curricula, they should be developed depending on the product and process.

When the reasons of the success are investigated for the countries that have caught the era and have been modernized in education, it is seen that primarily the curriculum for all courses have been very well designed, prepared, renewed and improved. According to Ersoy, (2006) the curriculum of the developing countries are continuously developed in order to resolve the pre-designated issues and adopt to the innovations, and the size, component and elements of the program are continuously renewed according to the new approaches and criteria. According to Erden, (1998: 4) program development is reorganization process in accordance with the data obtained as a result of design, implementation, evaluation and assessment of the education programs.

Education programs are renewed according to the surveys, scales, interviews and forms conducted on the teachers by the Ministry of National Education, and the researchers conducted on parents, teachers, administrators and students by the academics. According to Erden, (1998: 2) the teaching programs cannot be developed haphazardly. The data of various researches are needed for program development. To be able to get right decisions that will make the education programs more effective is based on exploring the basis of these decisions by scientific studies and evaluation of the applications. According to Primrose and Alexander, (2013: 56) education

programs should also be renewed according to the needs and expectations with regard to the nature of the national economy, social needs, adapting into the modern era and developing values.

The curriculum of all courses in primary and secondary schools in Turkey which were not handled or renewed for many years have been revised with a change made in recent years. According to Ersoy, (2000, 2006) the curriculum of all mandatory courses in elementary schools in Turkey aiming to enter the European Union should regularly be restructured, the program's objectives and contents should be reconstituted and should continuously be revised according to the era.

To start and maintain the process related to the program in accordance with the predetermined objectives in education happens only by ensuring the effective participation of all the components, increasing the information by sharing common opinions and experiences and by advanced radical innovations and changes to be developed (OECD, 2008; UNESCO, 1998; Ersoy, 2006).

In the manual published by Ministry of National Education-Head Council of Education and Morality MEB-TTKB, (2005: 14-15) has listed the reasons for renewal as below:

1. Reflecting the research findings in different fields of science and the developments in the teaching/learning understanding in educational sciences to the curriculum as methods and content,
2. To improve the quality and ensure equality in education,
3. The need for education sensitive to economy and democracy,
4. The need of improving individual and national values by also taking into account the global values,
5. The students' reluctance at reaction level mostly to the school, learning, reading within the scope of current education program applications.
6. Because of the subjects' in current curriculum being very comprehensive and rote-learning-based knowledge-intensive, the failure to complete the subjects on time and often preferring to compress and complete the subjects without being learned,
7. Many of these issues in the program being unsuitable with the ages and developmental levels of the children and far from fulfilling their curiosity and interest,
8. Often the lack of harmony with the life style that is tried to be developed at the school and the life in the real world,
9. The lack of program integrity in elementary education as the elementary and secondary school programs have been added up with the application of eight-year continuous compulsory elementary education,
10. On the vertical axis, the lack of conceptual integrity of each course within itself from the first grade to the eighth grade in basic education,
11. On the horizontal axis, the lack of providing sufficient parallelism between courses,
12. As a result of the economic and social developments, individuals' gaining the competencies of creativity, critical thinking, problem solving,

decision making, collaboration becoming more important,

13. The necessity to educate citizens who are able to express themselves, communicate and have the spirit of entrepreneurship becoming more dominant,

14. The children not showing success at the expected level across the country or at international assessments.

Considering the reasons for renewing the secondary education programs, it is understood that the programs have been renewed because objectives, content, methods and techniques needed to be revised according to the modern era. Also it has been determined that the programs have been renewed due to concepts such as ensuring equality, eligibility to the economy and democracy, taking the students to the center, increase in the development levels of the students, creativity, critical thinking, allowing collaborative education, educating individuals who are entrepreneurs and open to life-long learning and can communicate.

When a course curriculum is renewed, the Ministry of National Education determines the errors in the teaching program by taking the opinions of the teachers about the implementation of the program and considering the studies of the academics about the program, and then tries to perfect the program by eliminating these errors during the renewal of the program.

METHOD

Problem Sentence

At what level are the thoughts of the teachers working in secondary education of state schools of the Ministry of National Education about renewed secondary education curriculum?

The Objective of the Research

The purpose of this study is trying to determine the secondary school teachers' thoughts about renewed secondary education curriculum considering also some demographic variables (gender, field of study, professional seniority, education level, age). In the study, various proposals have also tried to bring forward regarding the revised curriculum of secondary education by making use of the teachers' opinions, attitudes and ideas.

Population and Sample

The population of the study constitutes the teachers working in secondary schools under Hakkari Provincial Directorate of National Education in 2013-2014 academic year; and the sample of the study constitutes Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, Sociology, Philosophy, Turkish Language and Literature and History teachers.

Research Model

In this study; the thoughts of the secondary school teachers about the renewed secondary-school education curriculum were tried to be determined considering the demographic variables including gender, field of study, educational status, professional seniority and age. For this purpose, surveys and scales on the subject and used in the researches were scanned by the researcher, and a new survey is developed and used in the study. For the survey to be used in the research, first, a field study was conducted, and then open-ended questions on the subject were asked to the secondary school teachers and with reference to

the answers given to these questions, a 24-item draft questionnaire was created. After the necessary analytical work, 6 articles were removed from the survey and after receiving the subject related opinions of four faculty members who are considered experts, 18-item questionnaire was finalized by making necessary arrangements. The validity and reliability studies of "the Renewed Secondary Education Program Survey" used in the research were calculated and Cronbach's alpha internal reliability coefficient of the 18-item survey was determined to be 0.76. The answers of the teachers participated in the study to the survey depending on the demographic variables were calculated by using Anova test which is an F test, t-test and one-way variance analysis with the help of SPSS 20 statistical software package. The survey used in the study consists of five point likert type 18 items including (1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided, (4) Agree, and (5) Strongly Agree. Ranges of options and overall assessment of the survey items used in the study is determined as calculated below:

$$RO = \frac{HV - LV}{NO} = \frac{5-1}{5} = 0,8$$

RO: Range of Options

HV: The Highest Value

LV: The Lowest Value

NO: Number of Options

1.00 - 1.80: Strongly Disagree

1.81 - 2.60: Disagree

2.61 - 3.40: Undecided

3.41 - 4.20: Agree

4.21 - 5.00: Strongly Agree

The survey prepared to be used in the study was applied to the secondary school teachers of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, Sociology, Philosophy, Turkish Language and Literature and History under Hakkari Provincial Directorate of National Education and the ideas of the teachers about the renewed secondary education curriculum were tried to be determined depending on some demographic variables.

In the study, "General Screening Model", one of the descriptive methods was used. General screening model is the screening arrangements carried out on a group, sample group or a paradigm or the entire universe in order to draw conclusion about the universe composed of numerous elements (Karasar, 2005: 79).

FINDINGS

In this part of the study, demographic data about teachers who participated in the survey, the data obtained about the questionnaire used in the study and the statistical findings and observations about these data are presented.

Table. 1 Demographic Data Regarding The Gender And Education Level Variables Of The Teachers Participated In The Research

Field of Study	Number of Teachers		Geneder		Educational Status	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Physics	63	10,38	Female=27	42,86	Undergraduate=41	65,08
			Male=36	57,14	Post Graduate=22	39,92
Chemistry	68	11,20	Female=27	39,71	Undergraduate=53	77,94
			Male=41	60,29	Post Graduate=15	22,06
Biology	71	11,70	Female=35	50,70	Undergraduate=59	83,10
			Male=36	49,30	Post Graduate=12	16,90
Mathematics	93	15,32	Female=41	44,09	Undergraduate=70	75,27
			Male=52	55,91	Post Graduate=23	24,73
Geography	67	11,04	Female=30	44,78	Undergraduate=51	76,12
			Male=37	55,22	Post Graduate=16	23,88
Literature	112	18,45	Female=47	41,96	Undergraduate=90	80,36
			Male=65	58,04	Post Graduate=22	19,64
Philosophy	59	9,72	Female=24	40,68	Undergraduate=50	84,75
			Male=35	59,32	Post Graduate=9	15,25
History	74	12,19	Female=33	44,59	Undergraduate=57	77,03
			Male=41	55,41	Post Graduate=17	22,97

From the data in Table 1, it was determined that 63 of 607 (10.38 %) teachers who participated in the research were teachers of Physics at state secondary schools, 27 of these teachers (42.86 %) were female and 36 of them (57.14 %) were male, and 41 of the teachers (65.08 %) had undergraduate degree and 22 of them (39.92 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that from the teachers who participated in the research, 68 (11.20 %) were teachers of Chemistry at secondary level schools, 27 of these teachers (39.71 %) were female, and 41 (60.29 %) were men, and 53 of the teachers (77.94 %) had undergraduate degree and 15 (22.04 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 71 of the teachers (11.70 %) who participated in the survey were teachers of Biology at secondary level schools, 35 of these teachers (50.70 %) were female and 36 (49.30 %) were male, 59 of them (83.30 %) had undergraduate degree and 12 of them (16.90 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 93 of the teachers who participated in the survey (15.32 %) were teachers of Mathematics at secondary level schools, 41 of these teachers (44.09 %) were female, and 52 (55.91 %) were male, and 70 of them (75.27 %) had undergradu-

ate degree, and 23 (24.73 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 67 of the teachers who participated in the survey (11.04 %) were teachers of Geography at secondary level schools, 30 of these teachers (44.78 %) were female, and 37 (55.22 %) were male, and 51 of them (76.12 %) had undergraduate degree, and 16 (23.88 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 112 of the teachers who participated in the survey (18.45 %) were teachers of Turkish Language and Literature at secondary level schools, 47 of these teachers (41.96 %) were female, and 65 (58.04 %) were male, and 90 of them (80.36 %) had undergraduate degree, and 22 (19.64 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 59 of the teachers who participated in the survey (9.72 %) were teachers of Philosophy at secondary level schools, 24 of these teachers (40.68 %) were female, and 35 (59.32 %) were male, and 50 of them (84.75 %) had undergraduate degree, and 9 (15.25 %) had post-graduate degree. It was determined that 74 of the teachers who participated in the survey (11.19 %) were teachers of History at secondary level schools, 33 of these teachers (44.59 %) were female, and 41 (55.41 %) were male, and 57 of them (77.03 %) had undergraduate degree, and 17 (22.97 %) had post-graduate degree.

Table. 2 Demographic Data Regarding The Professional Seniority And Age Variables Of The Teachers Participated In The Research

Field of Study	Number of Teachers		Professional Seniority		Age	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Physics	63	10,38	1-5 years=41	65,08	22-27 years old=36	57,14
			6-10 years=19	30,16	28-23 years old=23	36,51
			Over 11 years=3	4,76	Over 34 years old=4	6,35
Chemistry	68	11,20	1-5 years=39	57,35	22-27 years old=33	48,53
			6-10 years=24	35,29	28-33 years old=29	42,65
			Over 11 years=5	7,36	Over 34 years old=6	8,82
Biology	71	11,70	1-5 years=35	49,30	22-27 years old=31	43,66
			6-10 years=25	35,21	28-33 years old=29	40,85
			Over 11 years=11	15,49	Over 34 years old=11	15,49
Mathematics	93	15,32	1-5 years=45	48,39	22-27 years old=39	41,94
			6-10 years=34	36,56	28-33 years old=37	39,78
			Over 11 years=14	15,05	Over 34 years old=17	18,28
Georgraphy	67	11,04	1-5 years=36	53,73	22-27 years old=32	47,76
			6-10 years=28	41,79	28-33 years old=29	43,28
			Over 11 years=3	4,48	Over 34 years old=6	8,96
Literature	112	18,45	1-5 years=56	50,00	22-27 years old=48	42,86
			6-10 years=39	34,82	28-33 years old=45	40,18
			Over 11 years=17	15,18	Over 34 years old=19	16,96
Philosophy	59	9,72	1-5 years=42	71,19	22-27 years old=35	59,32
			6-10 years=13	22,03	28-33 years old=19	32,20
			Over 11 years=4	6,78	Over 34 years old=5	8,48
History	74	12,19	1-5 years=43	58,11	22-27 years old=39	52,70
			6-10 years=22	29,73	28-33 years old=25	33,78
			Over 11 years=9	12,16	Over 34 years old=10	13,52

From the data in Table 2, it was determined that 63 of 607 teachers (10.38 %) who participated in the survey were teachers of Physics in state secondary education schools, 41 of these teachers (65.08 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 19 of them (30.16 %) had 6-10 years and 3 of them (4.76 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 36 of these teachers (57.14 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 23 of them (36.51 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 4 of them (6.35 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 68 of the teachers (11.20 %) were teachers of Chemistry, 39 of these teachers (57.35 %) had professional seni-

ority of 1-5 years, 24 of them (35.29 %) had 6-10 years and 5 of them (7.36 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 33 of these teachers (48.53 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 29 of them (42.65 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 6 of them (8.82 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 71 of the teachers (11.70 %) were teachers of Biology in state secondary education schools, 35 of these teachers (49.30 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 25 of them (35.21 %) had 6-10 years and 11 of them (15.49 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 31 of these teachers (43.66 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 29 of them (40.85 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 11 of them (15.49 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 93 of the teachers (15.32 %) were teachers of Mathematics in state secondary education schools, 45 of these teachers (48.39 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 34 of them (36.56 %) had 6-10 years and 14 of them (15.04 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 39 of these teachers (41.94 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 37 of them (39.78 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 17 of them (18.28 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 67 of the teachers (11.04 %) were teachers of Geography in state secondary education schools, 36 of these teachers (53.73 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 28 of them (41.79 %) had 6-10 years and 3 of them (4.48 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 32 of these teachers (47.76 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 29 of them (43.18 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 6 of them (8.96 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 112 of the teachers (18.45 %) were teachers of Turkish Language and Literature in state secondary education schools, 56 of these teachers (50.00 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 39 of them (34.82 %) had 6-10 years and 17 of them (15.18 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 48 of these teachers (42.86 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 45 of them (40.18 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 19 of them (16.96 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 59 of the teachers (9.72 %) were teachers of Philosophy in state secondary education schools, 42 of these teachers (71.19 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 13 of them (22.03 %) had 6-10 years and 4 of them (6.78 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 35 of these teachers (59.32 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 19 of them (32.20 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 5 of them (8.48 %) were in the range of over 34 years old. From the teachers participated in the research, it was determined that 74 of the teachers (11.19 %) were teachers of History in state secondary education schools, 43 of these teachers (58.11 %) had professional seniority of 1-5 years, 22 of them (29.73 %) had 6-10 years and 9 of them (12.16 %) had over 11 years; as of age, 39 of these teachers (52.70 %) were in the range of 22-27 years old, 25 of them (33.78 %) were in the range of 28-33 years old and 10 of them (13.52 %) were in the range of over 34 years old.

Table. 3 T-Test Analysis Results Of The Teachers' Answers To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum Survey According To Gender Variable

Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	Sd	T	P
Female	264	72,81	8,41	605	,533	,595
Male	343	72,44	8,83			

p>0.05

From the data in Table 3, in respect to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it can be mentioned that the opinions of the teachers about the renewed secondary education curriculum did not change according to the gender by looking at the (p> .05) t-test results.

Table. 4 T-Test Analysis Results Of The Teachers' Answers To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum Survey According To Educational Level Variable

Educational Level	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	Sd	T	P
Undergraduate	471	72,99	8,44	605	2,04	,042
Postgraduate	136	71,27	9,22			

P<0.05

From the data in Table 4, in respect to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it can be mentioned that there is a significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate teachers in favor of undergraduate teachers according to the educational level looking at the (p> .05) t-test results.

Table. 5 Anova Test Analysis Results Of The Teachers' Answers To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum Survey According To Professional Seniority Variable

Professional Seniority	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p	Significant Difference (Tukey)
1-5 years	337	72,41	8,84	Between Groups	197,657	2	98,829	1,324	,267	
6-10 years	204	73,29	8,07	Within Groups	45075,862	604	74,629			
Over 11 years	66	71,44	9,27	Total	45273,519	606				

p>0.05

From the data in Table 5, in respect to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it can be mentioned that there is no significant difference between them depending on the professional seniority variable by looking at the Anova test results. [$F_{(1,324),}$ $p_{(,267)}$; p>,05].

Table. 6 Anova Test Analysis Results Of The Teachers' Answers To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum Survey According To Age Variable

Age	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p	Significant Difference (Tukey)
22-27	292	72,46	8,68	Between Groups	212,372	2	106,186	1,423	,242	
28-33	237	73,19	8,40	Within Groups	45061,147	604	74,605			
Over 34	78	71,35	9,19	Total	45273,519	606				

p>0.05

From the data in Table 6, in respect to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it can be mentioned that there is not significant difference between them depending on age variable by looking at Anova test results. [$F_{(1,423),}$ $p_{(,242)}$; p>,05].

Table. 7 Anova Test Analysis Results Of The Teachers' Answers To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum Survey According To Variable Of The Field Of Study

Field of Study	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p	Significant Difference (Tukey)
Physics	63	74,1	7,9	Between Groups	1375,122	7	196,4	2,68	,010	
Chemistry	68	70,71	9,23	Within Groups	43898,397	599	73,286			1-2; 1-3; 1-5
Biology	71	70,92	9,68	Total	45273,519	606				6-2; 6-3
Mathematics	93	72,90	7,99							8-2; 8-3
Geography	67	71,13	9,15							
Literature	112	74,18	7,11							
Philosophy	59	71,17	9,05							
History	74	74,36	9,01							

p>0.05

From the data in Table 7, in respect to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it can be mentioned that there is a significant difference between the teachers of Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Geography in favor of teachers of Physics, between the teachers of Literature, Chemistry and Biology in favor of teachers of Literature and between the teachers of History, Chemistry and Biology in favor of the teachers of History by looking at the results of Anova test. [$F_{(2,681),}$ $p_{(,010)}$; p<,05].

Table. 8 Arithmetic Averages Of The Answers Of The Teachers Who Participated In The Research To The Renewed Secondary Education Curriculum

RENEWED SECONDARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM SURVEY ITEMS	$\overline{X}$	Skill Level
1. General objectives are appropriate with the general objectives and basic principles of Turkish National Education.	4.37	S. Agree
2. General objectives are more appropriate to the development levels of students.	4.35	S. Agree
3. General objectives are more appropriate to gain high-level skills.	4.28	S. Agree
6. Content gain is more appropriate to gain more.	4.22	S. Agree
14. The program is more directed to the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills.	4.11	Agree
11. The program is written in a more understandable and clear language.	4.06	Agree
10. The units and subjects in the content are linked more with each other.	4.03	Agree
9. Subjects in the program are more proper in terms of the scope integrity.	4.02	Agree
13. The program is directed more to the developing high-level skills.	4.02	Agree
16. Instructional technology in the program (tools, materials) is more useful.	4.01	Agree
4. The objectives are directed more towards the target behaviours.	4.01	Agree
5. The gains have been prepared more suitable to the general objectives.	3.97	Agree
17. The program has been prepared by experts of the field.	3.96	Agree
15. Modern teaching methods and techniques are included more to the program.	3.91	Agree
12. The time problem is in the program is less.	3.88	Agree
18. Renewed program is more perfect and beautiful in all aspects.	3.86	Agree
7. The subject and the gains fit more.	3.83	Agree
8. Assessment and evaluation methods are more effective.	3.63	Agree

General Arithmetic Average: 4.03

From the arithmetic average of the answers of the teachers to the survey in Table 8, it was determined that article 1 stating "General objectives are appropriate with the general objectives and basic principles of Turkish National Education." ($\overline{X}$ =4.37), article 2 stating "General objectives are more appropriate to the development levels of students." ($\overline{X}$ =4.35), article 3 stating "General objectives are more appropriate to gain high-level skills." ($\overline{X}$ =4.28), article 6 stating "Content gain is more appropriate to gain more." ($\overline{X}$ =4.22) and article 14 stating "The program is more directed to the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills." ($\overline{X}$ =4.11) were the items having the highest arithmetic average in the survey. In the light of the answers to the survey items, it can be stated that the items with the highest average related to the answers of the teachers to the renewed curriculum of secondary education are related to the items related to the general

objectives. Again, from the arithmetic average of the answers of the teachers to the survey in Table 8, it was determined that article 8 stating "Assessment and evaluations methods are more effective" ($\overline{X}$ = 3.63), article 7 stating "The subject and gains fit more." ($\overline{X}$ = 3.83), article 18 stating "Renewed program is more effective and more beautiful in all aspects" ($\overline{X}$ = 3.86) and article 12 stating "The time problem in the program is less" ($\overline{X}$ =3.88) were the items with the lowest arithmetic average in the survey. With reference to the answers to the items with the lowest arithmetic average, it can be understood that some of the teachers have difficulties in terms of time, assessment and evaluation related to the renewed curriculum. With reference to the answers to the survey and the arithmetic average of the survey ($\overline{X}$ =4.03), it can be understood that the teachers do not have sufficient knowledge about development and assessment of the curriculum and four elements of the curriculum (objectives, content, teaching-learning experiences and assessment and evaluation) regarding renewed curriculum. Also, from the interviews with teachers and the answers to the survey items, it was determined that the teachers answered the survey items by putting forward their ideas or making predictions with the influence of their preliminary information about some of the concepts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

This research has been carried out in order to determine the thoughts of the teachers of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, Geography, Turkish Language and Literature, Philosophy and History at the secondary education schools of Hakkari Provincial Directorate of National Education about renewed curriculum of secondary education. In the research, whether the views of the teachers about the renewed curriculum of secondary education changed or not were tried to be determined depending on the variables of gender, field of study, professional seniority, education level and age.

As a result of the t-test analysis of the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education depending on the gender variable, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers. Thus, it can be reported that female and male teachers have similar thought about the renewed curriculum of secondary education.

As a result of the t-test analysis of the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education depending on the education level variable, it was concluded that there was a significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate teachers in favor of undergraduate teachers.

As a result of the Anova test analysis of the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education depending on the professional seniority variable, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between teachers with experience of 1-5 years, 6-10 years and over 11 years. Thus, it can be reported that teachers have similar thought about the renewed curriculum of secondary education according to the professional seniority variable.

As a result of the Anova test analysis of the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education depending on the age variable, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between teachers with the age of 22-27, 28-33 and over 34 years. Thus, it can be reported that teachers have similar thought about the renewed curriculum of secondary education according to the age variable.

As a result of the Anova test analysis of the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education depending on the variable of the field of study, it was concluded that there was significant differences between teachers of Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Geograpy in favor of the teachers of Physics, between the teachers of Literature, Chemistry and Biology in favor of the teachers of Literature and between the teachers of History, Chemistry and Biology in favor of the teachers of History.

Considering the arithmetic averages of the answers of given to the items of renewed secondary education curriculum survey, it was determined that the items with the highest arithmetic averages were related to the general objectives of the Turkish National Education and the general objectives of the curriculum, the items with the lowest arithmetic average were the items related to time, content and assessment and evaluation.

With reference to the answers of the teachers who participated in the research to the renewed curriculum of secondary education, the general arithmetic average of the survey was determined to be equivalent to "agree" as a general value. This state reveals that the teachers are not satisfied at the desired level (Strongly Agree) from the renewed secondary education curriculum.

Recommendations

Undergraduate teachers are graduated from faculty of education and a large proportion of the postgraduate teachers have non-thesis master's degree. Undergraduate teacher have educational science courses each semester while studying in faculty of education and have the possibility to practice these courses in their academic lives as well as at schools during the internship periods. Teachers with postgraduate degrees complete their educations science course rote-learning based and in a very short time after graduating from faculties of science and literature as they get courses in institutes of educational sciences and mostly they aim to be teachers in state schools. Therefore, in-service training is required to be given to the teachers with non-thesis master's degree by the necessary institutions and organizations and the importance of educational courses and how to implement them should be taught practically.

In order to obtain more reliable results while preparing or renewing the curriculum, researches carried out by academics should be taken into account more than the comments and suggestions in the forms filled out by the teachers by the Ministry of Education.

The first renewal of curricula is being implemented in pilot schools. The teachers in the schools of practice should be expert teachers in teaching programs. Only this way, the defects of the curriculum can be determined and covered before being implemented.

When preparing or renewing the curriculum, executive and staff of the program should have at least a PhD degree and have a specific knowledge and experience. Only in this way the teaching programs can attain success.

In the interviews with some of the teachers, it was determined that the teachers had problems in the curriculum in terms of contents, the most important of these were that the subjects in the 9th grade were too much, but the subjects in the 10th class were very few, therefore the subjects in the 9th grade could not be covered in terms of time and the time allocated for the basic subjects was very little. In order to cover this situation, subject distributions between the grade levels should be revised according to the main issues.

One of the items with the lowest average from the answers given to the survey items is about the assessment and evaluation element of education programs. In the interview with the teachers, it was determined that items such how to do assessment and evaluations in some sections, what to pay attention during the assessment and evaluation were not fully clarified in the curriculum. Therefore, renewed curriculum should the reviewed considering the assessment and evaluation element as well as the other items of the program.

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ÖĞRETMENLERİN YENİLENEN ORTAÖĞRETİM ÖĞRETİM PROGRAMLARI HAKKINDAKİ GÖRÜŞLERİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Özet: Eğitim-öğretimde kalitenin artırılması ve başarının yükseltilmesi öncelikle öğretmen, öğrenci ve öğretime başlamadan önce geliştirilmiş olan öğretim programlarına bağlıdır. Öğrencilerin her bakımdan gelişim gösterebilmesi öğretmen ve öğretim programlarına, öğretmenin, öğrencilere faydalı olabilmesi ise öğrenci ve öğretim programlarına bağlıdır. Eğitim-öğretimde başarının arttırılması ve istenilen seviyeye yükseltilebilmesi de yeni ve modern öğretim programlarına bağlıdır. Öğretim programları, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından öğretmenlere uygulanan anketlere, ölçeklere, görüşmelere ve formlara, akademisyenler tarafından veli, öğretmen, yönetici ve öğrenciler üzerinde yapılan araştırmalara göre düzenlenir ya da yenilenir. Öğretim programlarını daha etkili hale getirecek doğru kararların alınabilmesi, bu kararların dayanaklarının bilimsel çalışmalarla araştırılmasına ve uygulamaların doğru bir şekilde değerlendirilmesine bağlıdır. Yenilenen ortaöğretim programlarının yenilenme sebepleri arasında programın öğeleri olan hedef, içerik, yöntem ve tekniklerin modern çağa göre tekrar revize edilmesinden dolayı yenilendiği belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca eşitliğin sağlanması, ekonomi ve demokrasiye uygunluk, öğrencinin merkeze alınması, öğrencilerin gelişim düzeylerinin artması, yaratıcılık, eleştirel düşünme, işbirliğine dayalı eğitime yer verilmesi, iletişim kurabilen, yaşam boyu eğitime açık ve girişimci bireyler yetiştirmek gibi sebepler nedeniyle de programların yenilendiği yapılan çeşitli araştırmalarca belirlenmiştir. Bir dersin öğretim programı yenilendiğinde, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, öğretmenlerden, programın uygulanması ile ilgili görüşlerini alarak, ayrıca akademisyenlerin programla ilgili yapmış oldukları yayınları göz önünde bulundurarak öğretim programındaki problemleri belirler ve daha sonra dersin programı yenilenirken bu hataları gidererek programı kusursuz hale getirmeye çalışır. Çağdaş milletlerin Milli Eğitim Bakanlıkları okullarda okutulan derslerin öğretim programlarını değişen toplumsal, bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmelere paralel olarak devamlı yenilemek mecburiyetindedir. Türkiye'nin Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı da son yıllarda öğretim programlarında köklü bir değişime giderek birçok dersin öğretim programını ya revize etmiş ya da yenilemiştir. Bu araştırmanın amacı; devlet okullarının ortaöğretim kademesinde görev yapan öğretmenlerin, yenilenen ortaöğretim öğretim programları hakkındaki görüş ve düşüncelerini cinsiyet, branş, mesleki kıdem, öğrenim durumu ve yaş gibi bazı demografik değişkenler de göz önünde bulundurularak belirlemeye çalışmaktır. Araştırmanın örneklemini, 2013-2014 öğretim yılında Hakkari İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bağlı ortaöğretim okullarında görev yapan öğretmenler örneklemini ise Fizik, Kimya, Biyoloji, Matematik, Sosyoloji, Felsefe, Türk Dili ve Edebiyatı ile Tarih öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada, betimsel tarama yöntemlerinden birisi olan 'Genel Tarama Modeli' kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada kullanılan 18 maddelik anket "Yenilenen öğretim programlarının değerlendirilmesi" hakkındadır. Araştırmada kullanılan anketin geçerlilik ve güvenirlilik çalışması yapılmış ve Cronbach Alpha iç güvenirlik katsayısı 0,76 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre öğretmenlerin, yenilenen öğretim programları ile ilgili olarak; öğretim programlarının uygulanmasında zaman bakımından problem yaşadıkları, ölçme ve değerlendirmelerde sorun yaşadıkları, programlar yenilenirken gerek akademisyenlerin gerekse de öğretmenlerin görüşlerinin dikkate alınmadığı, bazı bölümlerdeki değişikliklerin yerinde olduğu ancak bazı bölümlerdeki yenilenmelerin yetersiz olduğu, öğretmenlerin öğrenim durumu değişkenine bağlı olarak lisans mezunu öğretmenler ile yüksek lisans mezunu öğretmenler arasında lisans mezunu öğretmenler lehine anlamlı bir farklılığın

olduğu, öğretmenlerin branş değişkenine bağlı olarak Fizik, Kimya, Biyoloji ve Coğrafya öğretmenleri arasında Fizik Öğretmenleri lehine, Edebiyat, Kimya ve Biyoloji Öğretmenleri arasında Edebiyat Öğretmenleri lehine ve Tarih, Kimya ve Biyoloji Öğretmenleri arasında ise Tarih Öğretmenleri lehine anlamlı bir farklılığın olduğu gibi sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretim Programı, Ortaöğretim, Yenilenen Programlar, Revizyon

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HEDONISM, MATERIALISM AND CONSUMER BOYCOTTS PARTICIPATION

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Abstract : Consumer boycotts are extreme case of consumer behaviour. Consumers can boycott the firms for various reasons. Each individual has different motivations for participation in boycotts. Consumer boycotts are required sacrifice for consumers. Although materialism and hedonism are important issues in consumer behaviour, they are just the opposite of boycotts in terms of personal sacrifice from pleasures. In this study, the relationship between materialism, hedonism and participation to consumer boycotts have been statistically analyzed with a sample size of 519 people. As a result of these analyses, participation to consumer boycotts has negative relationship with materialism and hedonism. However, materialism and hedonism has positive relationship with one another.

Key Words: Consumer Boycotts, Materialism, Hedonism

1. Introduction

Consumer boycotts are an important topic in consumer behavior and boycott literature is rapidly increasing. In every country and every sector, all firms can become a target for boycotts. The aim of boycotters might be causing financial harm, image harm or just to force the target to change an unethical behavior. These campaigns can result in a significant financial loss or losing market share. With technological developments, calling for a boycott is especially easy through the Internet. Marketing literature focuses on consumer boycotts from different perspectives. Some of them look into its consequences while some analyze the motivations behind participating in a boycott. There are many factors which have an effect on boycott participation. Materialism and hedonism are two of these factors. Both factors have important place in marketing and their relationship with other marketing concepts are subject to further academic researches.

2. Consumer Boycotts

Consumer boycotts are opposition behavior (Claudy, 2011: 41) and the structural form of "a vote in the marketplace" as the weapon of resistance (Penaloza and Price, 1993: 124). A consumer boycott was defined as an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace (Friedman, 1985: 97-8). A review of past literature provides a variety of definitions of boycotts. Garreth (1987) defines a boycott as "a concerted refusal to do business with a particular person or business to

obtain concessions or to express displeasure". John and Klein (2003) define it as "a tactic to influence the behavior of a firm by withholding purchase of their products". Yüksel and Mryteza (2009: 249) define it "as the collective action of foregoing or withholding consumption in response to perceived wrongdoing". What is common across these definitions is the fact that boycotts are a form of anti-consumption behavior, planned collective action by a consumer community in order to express displeasure or achieve specific objectives (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011: 386). The boycott term is derived from an 1880 protest by Irish peasants. When their landlord, Captain Charles Boycott, deprived them on wages and evicted them from their land, they mobilized all workers in the area to refuse to do any kind of business with him (Gelb, 1995: 70).

The boycott as a civil disobedience tool is used to protest not only unethical behaviors, but also discourage businesses from marketing to certain populations and from giving employees of that group recognition (Baxter, 2007: 87). Sen, Gürhan-Canlı and Morwitz (2001) conceptualize boycotts as social dilemmas, wherein a consumer chooses between the individual benefit of consumption and the wish of a collective to refrain from consumption so that all receive the shared benefits of a successful boycott (Klein, Smith and John, 2004, pp. 92-3). Boycotting can lead to loss in sales, and damage on to corporate reputation and the brand image.

2.1. Boycott Types

There are two basic types of boycotts; marketing policy boycotts which aim to change the boycott target's marketing practices such as lowering price, and political boycotts which attempt to coerce their targets toward specific ethical or socially responsible actions (Sen, Gürhan-Canlı and Morwitz, 2001: 400).

Friedman identifies two main purposes for boycotts: instrumental and expressive. An instrumental boycott aims to coerce the target to change a disputed policy. Its goals are precise and quantifiable, such as forcing down the price of a particular product. Expressive boycotts are characterized by a vague statement of goals and may simply vent the frustrations of the protesting group (Ettenson and Klein, 2005, pp. 200-1). Expressive boycotts aimed at protecting consumers from potential health and safety risks, protecting the environment or defending minorities (Cisse-Depardon and N'Goala, 2009, pp. 44-5).

Another type of boycotts are international boycotts which are described as primary, secondary and tertiary as a function of the remoteness of behavior sought from the boycotting countries towards the target country. A primary international boycott is one in which a country forbids its nationals to trade with another country. Under a secondary boycott, firms that trade with the target country are barred from trade with the boycotting country and its nationals. A tertiary boycott is a variation of the secondary boycott in which firms that are not connected to the target country are blacklisted for dealing with other blacklisted firms (Reingold and Lansing, 1994, pp. 337-8).

2.2. Boycott Effectiveness

Effectiveness of a boycott should be measured as the achieved change in the target's disputed policies. Three variables are posited as determinants of the

effectiveness of a boycott: (1) economic pressure, (2) image pressure and (3) policy commitment (Garrett, 1987, pp. 48-9).

Economic pressure; as marketing exchange partners refuse to interact with a target, the target may suffer some degree of economic loss.

Image pressure; the announcement of a boycott against an organization may create undesirable publicity for the target.

Policy commitment; the level of resistance that the target decides to adopt, at the outset of the boycott, in response to the agents' coercive efforts to modify its policies.

Marketers will benefit from a fuller exploration of the boycott phenomenon for a number of reasons. First, the use of boycotts as a coercive marketplace tactic is already extensive and is expected to increase (Gelb, 1995; Sen et al, 2001). Consumer boycotts involves the serious threat they pose to the firm's ongoing marketing activities. In addition to a direct negative effect on sales the boycotted firm faces other potentially debilitating consequences. Boycotts disrupt the planning, implementation and analysis of the firm's current and routine marketing activities. This disruption often stems from management uncertainty as to how to react when faced with a protest (Ettenson and Klein, 2005, pp.200-1). Consumer boycotts are a potent economic weapon in the hands of political activists. They cause real financial harm to the targeted companies easily and virtually costless for boycotters (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011:394). In today's marketplace, companies are more and more judged by consumers according to their being environmentally and/or ethically responsible (Bauer et al, 2008: 350).

There are several aspects to boycott intensity such as size, duration and aggressiveness. Size refers to how many people are boycotting the brand or product. Duration is how long it would be likely to continue. Aggressiveness reflects violent acts or attacks are likely to be conducted against the outlets or offices of the foreign firm (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011: 388). There is a strong relationship between boycott intensity and brand-country association. Some brands are highly associated with its country and became a primary target for some boycotts. Although boycotts are targeted against a specific company or companies from a specific country, very often there are spillover effects. It occurs because of misperceptions about the national identity of a product (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011: 392). The substitutes provide an alternative to the customers who still want to satisfy their need for the boycotted brand. Many of these substitutes may have previously had only small market shares. Some may even be completely new, exploiting the window of opportunity created by the boycott (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011: 393).

2.3. Boycott Participation

The factors that motivate individual boycott decisions remain largely unexplored (Hoffmann and Müller, 2009: 239). This lack of research is unfortunate because the number of boycotts and the number of consumers participating in them has been increasing (Sen et al, 2001) from 18% in 1992 to almost 67% in 2005 in the U.S. alone (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011: 96). The

success or failure of the protest largely depends on an individual's willingness to participate. Consumers may have different motivations for boycott participation. Individual consumers only consider the gain from a boycott success if they participate (Delacote, 2009, pp. 308-9). Consumers seem more likely to participate in a boycott if the targeted product has satisfactory substitutes. Boycotts seem to be an effective tool to attract public attention to an issue. Furthermore, the low cost of activating a consumer boycott combined with its negative economic consequences for the affected firms make it a potent political tool (Al-Shebil, Rasheed and Al-Shammari, 2011: 386). Consumers might participate in a boycott simply to express their anger about the egregious behavior. Anger can be a powerful boycott motivation (Ettenson and Klein, 2005) as demonstrated by the Muslim boycott of Danish companies (Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011: 97). Consumer activists are motivated to boycott for many reasons. Garrett (1987: 48) found six factors as the determinants of boycott participation, according to these factors potential participants…

cannot support a boycott if they are unaware of the target of the boycott.

with certain values are, in general, more likely to participate in any boycott.

support only those boycotts whose goals are consistent with their attitudes.

will not join a boycott if their personal cost to participate is high.

are more likely to join the boycott, if the social pressure to support a boycott is high.

are more likely to support a boycott that is promoted by a highly credible leader.

Calls for a boycott can have one of three effects. Consumers can honor the boycott, leading to a decline in sales of the product being boycotted. They can ignore the boycott, leading to no change in sales. Expressing opposition to the goals of the boycott, they can increase their purchases, leading to increases in sales (Ashenfelter, Ciccarella and Shatz, 2007, pp.55-6). Any commercial group can call a boycott. Groups have been more successful in calling and executing boycotts than individuals because there is strength in numbers (Murtagh and Lukehart, 1994: 2). With the spread of the Internet (forums, buzz marketing, brand communities, etc), calls to boycott can be organized, broadcast and disseminated more rapidly and easily. As a result, companies can experience a significant deterioration of their image, a loss of marketing efficiency and a decline in market share (Cisse-Depardon and N'Goala, 2009: 44).

3. Hedonism and Materialism

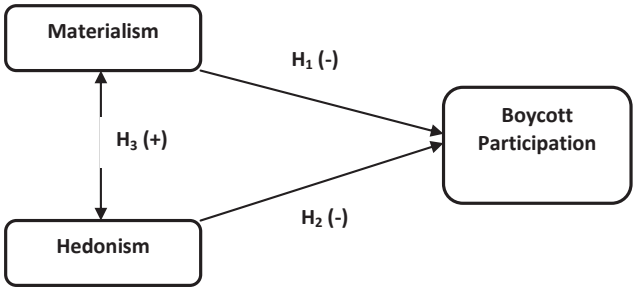
The word hedonism comes from the Greek hedone, which means pleasure, enjoyment or delight. Hedonism is the view that pleasure is the only good in life. Hedonism is pleasure-seeking, preference for pleasure, in the very broadest sense, is what structures our lives (O'Shaugnessy and O'Shaugnessy, 2002:527).

In social science, the term "materialism" refers to how important material goods are to a person's life with the implication that materialistic people have an excessive concern for material objects (Goldsmith and Clark, 2012:43). Belk defined materialism as "the importance a consumer

attaches to worldly possessions" (1984:291). Richins and Dawson conceptualize materialism as a phenomenon whereby individuals have material acquisition at the center of their lives and view these material possessions as the key(s) to their happiness (Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012:320). Many consumers use goods to express their personalities and to establish social relationships. Material goods act as symbolic representations of the images consumers have of themselves that they want to express to surrounding others (Goldsmith and Clark, 2012:44).

4. Methodology

The research model to measure the effect of materialism and hedonism on boycott participation has been shown in Figure 1.



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Figure 1: Research Model

Based on the model above, there are three research hypotheses tested in this study. They are the following:

H1: Materialism has significant and negative effect on boycott participation of people.

H2: Hedonism has significant and negative effect on boycott participation of people.

H3: Materialism and hedonism have significant and positive relationship with each other.

4.1. Participants

The sample size of the research is 519. Convenience sampling method was used and participation was voluntary. The survey was conducted anonymously and no personal information was collected that could be used to identify any individual. Demographic characteristics of the participants are shown in Table 1.

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Table 1: Demographic Characteristics Of The Sample

		N	%			n	%
Gender	Male	259	49,9	Number of Children	0	308	59,3
	Female	260	50,1		1	68	13,1
Age	18-25	239	46,1		2	95	18,3
	26-35	124	23,9		3	31	6,0
	36-45	72	13,9		3+	17	3,3
	46-55	67	12,9	Education Level	Primary	75	14,5
	56+	17	3,3		High school	144	27,7
Marital Status	Married	222	42,8		Pre-graduate	122	23,5
	Single	297	57,2		Undergraduate	157	30,3
Occupation	Student	178	34,3		Graduate	21	4,0
	Housewife	76	14,6	Monthly Household Income (TL)	0-1000	94	18,1
	White-collar	45	8,7		1001-2000	124	23,9
	Blue-collar	55	10,6		2001-3000	144	27,7
	Self-employed	65	12,5		3001-4000	85	16,4
	Retired	26	5,0		4001-5000	35	6,7
	Unemployed	13	2,5		5001+	37	7,1
	Other	61	11,8				

According to the table, distribution of respondents' gender is nearly equal. 70% of them are between 18-35 years old and %34,3 is student. Regarding education level, undergraduate degree has the biggest share with %30,3.

Table 2: Motivations For Boycott Participation

	%
Politic	30,6
Religious	33,3
Economic	17,3
Environment	18,9

Table 2 shows the reasons for consumer boycotts participation and preferences of people. According to this table, %33,3 of the respondents participate consumer boycotts because of religious concerns primarily. Political reasons are the second important factor for the participation. Economic and environmental reasons have low priority to participate in a consumer boycott.

Table 3 represents the effects of some factors to decide to participate in consumer boycotts. The most important and effective factor is family. If a family member joins a boycott campaign, it is easier to persuade other members of family for participation. Friends and media are other important factors. Non-governmental organizations' and governments' effect is lower for boycotts.

Table 3: Motivators Of Boycott Participation

	(%)
Family	59,5
Friends	51,8
Media	53,8
Government	29,3
NGO's	36,2

4.2. Data Gathering Instrument

Data were obtained by conducting a questionnaire which contained close-ended questions. The questionnaire had two parts. First part includes 15 closed-ended questions about boycott participation, materialism and hedonism. The second part of the questionnaire included questions about participants' demographic characteristics and boycott participation reasons. Internal reliability of the factors is calculated with Cronbach's alpha test. It is expected that the alpha value will be greater than 0,70 (Nunnally, 1978). On the other hand, if the number of variables is small, then 0,6 is acceptable for reliability (DeVellis, 2003). The obtained alpha value for the instruments used in this study is 0,648 for boycott participation, 0,712 for materialism and 0,678 for hedonism which are sufficient. In Table 4, mean and standard deviation values of the factors in the research model are seen. The results show that boycott participation of respondents is greater than materialism and hedonism.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics

Factor Name	No. of Items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cronbach Alpha
Boycott participation	6	3,49	0,72	0,648
Materialism	3	3,24	0,76	0,712
Hedonism	6	3,28	0,99	0,678

4.3. Correlation Analysis

In Table 5, correlation analyses between boycott participation, materialism and hedonism are observed. According to the results, all factors have significant relationships with each other. Materialism and hedonism have negative correlation with boycott participation. Thus, research hypotheses H1 and H2 cannot be rejected. The correlation between materialism and hedonism is also significant and positive as expected. So, H3 can not be falsified.

Table 5: Correlation Analysis

		Boycott participation	Materialism	Hedonism
Boycott participation	Pearson Correlation		**-0,163**	**-0,093**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,035
	N		516	517
Materialism	Pearson Correlation	**-0,163**		**0,517**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000
	N	516		516
Hedonism	Pearson Correlation	**-0,093**	**0,517**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,035	0,000	
	N	517	516	

The study also tested demographics-related hypotheses in terms of materialism, hedonism and boycott participation. The results of the corresponding statistical tests were presented below in Table 6.

Table 6: Statistical Tests With Demographic Factors

	Demographic Factors	Type of Test	p-value	Post-Hoc
Materialism	Gender	Independent Sample t-test	0,000	Women
	Age	ANOVA	0,007	18-25
	Education	ANOVA	0,000	High school
	Income	ANOVA	0,012	0-1000 TL
	Occupation	ANOVA	0,000	Housewives
Hedonism	Gender	Independent Sample t-test	0,000	Women
	Occupation	ANOVA	0,001	Housewives

According to Table 6, materialism has statistically significant relationship with gender, age, education, income and occupation of the consumers. The column called "type of test" shows the statistical test which has been performed between relevant factors. p-value shows the result of the statistical tests and the column called "post-hoc" shows which sub-category has higher value.

5. Conclusion

Consumer boycotts are an important concern in consumer behavior. People boycott in order to protest unethical behavior of the companies. The number of participants and the duration of boycotts are critical determinants for success of the boycotts. People have different motivations to participate in boycotts. Political, religious,

economic or environmental factors are some of the reasons to boycott. Also there are some important people or institutions to persuade people for participation such as family, friends and NGO's. Whatever motivation people have for participation in consumer boycotts, there is a common point for everyone: sacrifice. Consumer boycotts force people to give up the products they use, even if they have no substitutes at all. In literature there are two opposite concepts with boycotts, hedonism and materialism. Hedonism is the view that pleasure is the only good in life and materialism refers to how important material goods are to a person's life. If a person has high hedonistic and materialistic tendencies, sacrifice from a pleasure or to give up using a product is difficult. This negative relationship between boycott participation and materialism and hedonism has been shown with correlation analysis. Also materialism and hedonism have positive relationship with one another as expected. According to these results, research hypotheses cannot be falsified. Other analyses show that the primary motivation for boycott participation is the religious concerns. Political concerns are also important. In terms of demographic factors, there are no differences to participate in a boycott. However materialism tendencies differ in accordance with some demographic factors. Women, housewives, people who are between 18-25 years of age and have high school degree, have 0-1000 TL monthly income have more materialistic values. As for materialism, hedonism tendencies also differ in terms of gender and occupation. Women and housewives are more hedonistic. These results show us that these people should not be the primary target of a boycott campaign. Since they are more materialistic and hedonistic, it will be more difficult to persuade them for participation in any type of consumer boycotts.

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HEDONİZM, MATERYALİZM VE TÜKETİCİ BOYKOTLARINA KATILIM

Özet: Tüketici boykotları, tüketici davranışlarının örneklerinden biridir. Tüketiciler çeşitli nedenlerle işletmelere karşı boykot faaliyetlerinde bulunabilirler. Boykotlara katılıma konusunda her birey birbirlerinden farklı motivasyonlara sahiptir. Tüketici boykotları, tüketicilerin fedakârlıkta bulunmasını gerektirmektedir. Materyalizm ve hedonizm ise tüketici davranışlarında önemli konular olmakla beraber kişisel zevklerin fedakârlığı anlamında boykotların zıddıdır. Bu çalışmada toplam 519 kişiden oluşan bir örnek kütle üzerinden materyalizm, hedonizm ve tüketici boykotlarına katılım arasındaki ilişki istatistiksel olarak analiz edilmiş ve sonuç olarak boykot katılımı ile materyalizm ve hedonizm kavramlarının negatif, materyalizm ve hedonizm kavramlarının ise kendi içinde pozitif ilişkiye sahip olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Tüketici boykotları, tüketici davranışları alanında özellikle son yıllarda önemi hızla artan çalışma konularından biri haline gelmiştir. Tüketici boyutları, tüketicilerin belirli bir marka, ürün, şirket veya tümüyle bir ülkeyi, ürettikleri ürünleri satın almama yöntemiyle cezalandırdıkları veya kendi istedikleri uygulamaları gerçekleştirmeye zorladıkları bir tüketici tercihidir. Tüketici boykotlarını diğer faaliyetlerden ayıran bir takım ortak özellikler bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak boykotlar bir anti-tüketim olgusu içermektedir. Bu nedenle boykota katılan tüketiciler normal şartlar altında kullandıkları, hatta kullanmaktan keyif aldıkları ürünleri satın almaktan vazgeçerek kendileri adına önemli bir fedakârlıkta bulunmaktadırlar. Tüketici boykotlarının bir diğer özelliği ise planlı bir faaliyet olmasıdır. Planlama yapılabilmesi için gerekli olan en önemli şart ise boykota katılanların veya katılmaya niyeti olan tüketicilerin boykotu düzenleyen ve öncülük eden kişi veya kurumların direktiflerine uygun olarak hareket etmeleri gerekliliğidir. Boykotların başarısı ancak toplu olarak aynı hedef doğrultusunda hareket edilmesi ile mümkün olabilmektedir. Boykotların tarihi kökeni 19. yüzyılın sonlarına kadar ulaşmaktadır. Başlangıçta işçilerin haklarının korunmasına yönelik olarak ortaya çıkmış olan boykot kavramı zaman içerisinde politik ve ekonomik birçok amaca ulaşabilmek için insanların sıklıkla başvurdukları yöntemler arasında yerini almıştır. Boykotlar yapılış amaçlarına göre birçok farklı başlık altında gruplandırılabilmektedir. Bu sınıflandırmalardan en sık kullanılan yönteme göre boykotlar pazarlama boykotları ve politik boykotlar olarak birbirinde ayrılmaktadırlar. Pazarlama boykotları ile hedef alınan işletmelerin bir takım uygulamalardan vazgeçmeleri sağlanmaya çalışılır. Bu uygulamalar arasında fiyatların daha düşük olması veya ürünlerin kalitesinin daha iyi olmasının talep edilmesi örnek olarak gösterilebilir. Politik boykotlar da ise boykota hedef olan tarafların uyguladıkları bir takım etik olmayan davranışların sona erdirilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Bu sınıflandırmanın dışında boykotlar ayrıca birincil, ikincil ve üçüncül olmak üzere de gruplandırılmaktadır. Genellikle uluslar arası boyutlarda görülen bu boykotlardan birincil boykotlarda bir ülke bir diğer ülkeye ait ürünleri boykot etmektedir. İkincil boykotlarda ise boykot edilen ülke ile ticari faaliyetlerde bulunan firmalar boykota maruz kalmaktadır. Üçüncül boykotlar ise ikincil boykotların farklı bir varyasyonudur. Boykotların istenilen hedefe ulaşabilmesi için belirli bir etkinliğe sahip olması gerekmektedir. Tüketici boykotlarının etkinliğinin ölçülmesinde dikkate alınan üç önemli unsur bulunmaktadır. Bunlar ekonomik baskı, imaj baskısı ve politika taahhüdüdür. Bu üç faktör ne kadar güçlü olursa uygulanan boykotun etkinliği de o kadar güçlü olacak ve sonuç olarak boykota katılanlar istedikleri amaçlara ulaşma şansı elde edebileceklerdir. Boykotların başarıya ulaşmasın ve etkinliğinin artması için önemli birkaç nokta bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan ilki boykota katılan insanların sayısıdır. Günümüzde özellikle internet ve sosyal medya kanalları ile insanların herhangi bir faaliyetten haberdar olmaları oldukça kolay ve hızlı bir hale gelmiştir. Çok kısa süre içerisinde çok sayıda insan belirli bir amaç doğrultusunda bir araya gelebilmekte ve kamuoyundan bekledikleri karşılığı alabilmektedirler. Diğer önemli nokta ise boykotun süresidir. Bir boykot ne kadar uzun sürerse etkisi de o kadar

yüksek olmaktadır. Üçüncü ve son kriter ise boykota katılanların, faaliyetlerinde ne kadar aktif olarak rol aldıklarıdır. Tüketicilerin istedikleri amaçlara ulaşmasında bu kadar etkili bir araç olmakla beraber, konu ile ilgili yapılan araştırmalar oldukça sınırlı kalmıştır. Yapılan araştırmalar ise sıklıkla tüketicilerin boykotlara katılımını etkileyen unsurların belirlenmesi üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Boykotlara katılım tamamen tüketicilerin isteğine bağlı olduğundan ve diledikleri zaman boykota bir son verebildiklerinden boykotların etkinliğinin ölçülmesi kolay olmamaktadır. Hedonizm, hayatta sadece keyif ve zevk almayı amaçlayan ve hazcılık olarak da adlandırılan bir anlayıştır. Materyalizm ise eşyaların veya ürünlerin insanlar için ne kadar önemli olduğunu ifade eden bir kavramdır. Hedonizm ve materyalizm tüketicilerin tercihleri üzerinde önemli etkilere sahip olan kavramlardır. Her insanda hedonizm ve materyalizm eğilimi bulunmaktadır. Ancak önemli olan bu eğilimlerin derecesidir. Kimi tüketicilerde bu eğilim diğerlerinden daha fazla olabilmektedir. Bu tüketicilerin alışkanlıklarından vazgeçmesi veya fedakârlıkta bulunması diğer tüketicilere göre daha zor olmaktadır. Bu durum hedonist ve materyalist tüketicilerin tüketici boykotlarına katılımının önünde önemli bir engel teşkil etmektedir. Bu çalışmada tüketici boykotları hakkında genel olarak bilgi verildikten sonra, tüketici boykotlarına katılım ile hedonizm ve materyalizm arasındaki ilişki ele alınmıştır. Yukarıda belirtilen tanımlardan da anlaşılacağı üzere boykotlara katılım ile hedonizm ve materyalizm arasında negatif bir ilişki bulunması beklenmektedir. Toplam 519 katılımcıdan elde edilen yanıtlar doğrultusunda yapılan istatistiksel analizlerin sonuçları bu varsayımı doğrular niteliktedir. Demografik özellikler açısından durum değerlendirildiğinde ise kadınların erkeklere göre daha materyalist ve hedonist olduğu belirlenmiştir. Boykota katılım açısından bu sonuç değerlendirildiğinde erkeklerin kadınlara göre boykotlara katılımlarının daha yoğun olacağı beklenebilir. Ancak değerlendirmede bulunurken tek bir kriteri göz önünde bulundurmak yeterli olmayacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tüketici boykotları, Materyalizm, Hedonizm

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THE ANALYSING OF HIGH-TECH CLUSTERS POTENTIAL OF TURKEY AS AN EMERGING ECONOMY

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Abstract: Due to current intensity of technology and high number of related end user products, numbers of industries that are considered as high-tech are increased. Thus, marketing and production of high technology products and services gained importance and consolidated its status. On the other hand, majority of high-tech products are faced with the risk of low commercialization and low demand. Along with their prospects of high income and profit, high-tech products require high investment figures in terms of capital and naturally they carry the risk of financial turmoils and bankruptcy as a result of low desirability. Similar to high-tech companies, consumers also face with the risks of uncertainty upon deciding to invest in these products. Hig-tech based clusters can attract new firms and provide internationally competitive advantage. In this study, high-tech clusters are discussed with a literature review. It is focused also analyzing the role of high-tech clusters potential in economic development of Turkey.

***Key Words*:** High-Tech Clusters, Clusters, High-Tech Clusters in Turkey

1. INRODUCTION

The concept of clusters in the business management and practice was actualised Michael Porter in his book "*The Competitive Advantage of Nations"* (Porter, 1990). The initially established concept of cluster by M.Porter describes an industrial cluster as unification of several industries based on buyer supplier relations, similar technologies, distribution channels or similar qualifications of employment. M.Porter in his book offers two cluster definitions on vertical and horizontal clusters, but does not take into account the importance of geographic location. After further development of the clusters concept in his numerous following publications, including Porter (1998a), Porter (1998b), Porter (1998c), Porter (2000), Porter (2001), Porter (2003), clusters are described as groups of interconnected firms, suppliers, related industries and institutions that arise in certain locations. These clusters are geographical concentration of interconnected companies, specialised suppliers, service providers and associated institutions in particular field. Specialized regional clusters have been arising in locations with enough resources and competence, where companies can fully explore competitive advantages over other places.

Clusters are one of the ways of obtaining competitive advantage for countries where they are

located. Clusters have advantages in increasing productivity, innovation, new business formation, while reducing costs (Porter, 1998). Enright (1996) defined a cluster as a group of business enterprises and non business organizations whose membership within the group is an important element of each member firm's individual competitiveness. Binding the cluster together are *"buyer–supplier relationships, or common technologies, common buyers or distribution channels, or common labor pools"*.

Roelandt and den Hertog (1999); "Clusters can be characterised as networks of producers of strongly interdependent firms (including specialised suppliers) linked each other in a value-adding production chain."

Tallman et all. (2004) stresses the interaction among the cluster members and defines clusters as being not just the agglomeration of firms in close-proximity, but a group in which there are frequent knowledge share and spill-overs. Bekar and Lipsey (2001) focus on proximity of innovative firms and the complementary institutions as local universities and research centers, government laboratories and financial institutions, which are in close contact with those firms.

As shown in the preceding definitions of clusters are general, with several types of potential relationships among firms (e.g., buyer–supplier, direct competitor, indirect competitor, and affiliated firms), all of which contribute to some of the conceptual confusion with the cluster construct. In an attempt to clarify the concept, some researchers have distinguished what appear to be structural dimensions of agglomerated firms or clusters.

High-tech clusters may be regarded as drivers of enhanced synergy and value creation. As with mergers and acquisitions among firms, value creation and the ability to achieve a competitive advantage is greater in the union of firms having different resources rather than similar resources because the synergistic relationship is unique, potentially complementary, and not easily imitated. This suggests that the high-tech cluster may be considered as a unique accumulation of different value-creating resources whose union creates synergy and provides the technology cluster with an advantage in the ability to give birth to new firms and completely new industries.

2. EVALUATION OF HIGH-TECH CLUSTERS

2.1. Opportunities Based on High Technology

The definitions above also give rise to a qualification of the ideas or opportunities that the ventures are based on. The ideas may emanate from different sources as indicated above. Due to their newness, high-technology venture ideas imply that there are few, maybe even no forerunners to imitate, or that the market for application may need to be created (Toole, 2003; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006). During this development the initial venture idea has to be protected and developed. Patenting innovative venture ideas are among the first challenges met by new high-technology firms. Through patents the venture gains time during exploitation, and secure a base for further development. Patent publications on the innovative idea also legitimize the commercial foundation of a new venture against different potential stakeholders.

Technological opportunities share a number of common characteristics. First of all they are often temporary. Those individuals that discover an opportunity need to exploit it rapidly before the information reaches others on the market, or before the opportunity is replaced with a technologically more advanced one. That is, there is a window of opportunity that has to be taken advantage of. However, discoverers of new technological opportunities often lack the resources needed for fast exploitation. Also there is an uncertainty related to how the market is going to react, if the technology can be standardized, and how competitors might react (Shane, 2003; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006). This uncertainty has to be managed by the new firm in different ways. For example, the introduction of new encryption software to protect data feed across computers on the internet leads to questioning whether this software can be integrated with other already existing software, or if a new set of software needs to be developed around the original technology. The technological uncertainty could be that the algorithm that the encryption software is based on is in conflict with existing software. Also competitors might react more rapidly than anticipated with their own encryption software. Moreover, the market might be less interested in advanced encryption software, because the use of the software diminishes the speed with which data can be transferred.

Hence, it is not possible to know in advance whether or not the opportunity is going to be profitable. The value of the opportunity can only be tested on the market, and this exploitation is characterized by uncertainty. Entrepreneurs have to develop different strategies to handle this uncertainty.

The second characteristic of technological opportunities is the paradox of information asymmetry (Hayek, 1945; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006). Discoverers of new opportunities do so because they have knowledge and experience that no one else on the market has. However, this quality also presents them with problems. For example, it makes it hard for them to collaborate with other stakeholders and to protect the value of the opportunity. Potential partners cannot evaluate the benefits of a possible collaboration because they lack the unique insights of the discoverers. Furthermore, it is difficult to protect the opportunity because it is still difficult to articulate what is the competitive advantage.

In other words, knowledge about the value of the opportunity is tacit in the early stages of the exploitation process. As knowledge is developed, tacit knowledge is reduced. This inability to articulate the tacit aspect of the knowledge about the opportunity limits efficient transmission to and reception by stakeholders. Such knowledge is also difficult to protect. Hence, this information asymmetry increases uncertainty and therefore transaction cost. For example, founders often find it difficult to communicate to resource providers and potential customers what they intend to do and how they intend to achieve this. This is especially true in the beginning of the venture process. Often, venture founders are reluctant to offer information about the opportunity to outsiders as they fear that this knowledge easily can be imitated. At the same time stakeholders need all possible information to make an as well-

grounded decision as possible. This problem is especially prominent for the kind of firms we study as the core asset of these ventures is the tacit knowledge they have developed (Katila and Mang 2003; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006).

While high-technology opportunities share some basic features, there are important variations among them. Technological opportunities differ from each other on several dimensions. These dimensions will influence both the decision on how to exploit them, and how successful that exploitation is going to be. The dimensions are importance, radicalness, and patent scope. Importance is related to the discoverer's perception about the importance of the discovery (Shane, 2003; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006). Technological change is a process with an uncertain outcome. Consequently, the potential economic value of technological opportunities is highly varied. For example, most patents have no commercial value and few have a very large value (Trajtenberg, 2001; Delmar and Sölvell, 2006). By analogy, a great majority of opportunities are never pursued commercially, and only a very few are associated with major technological improvement and commercial value. Given the skewness in their commercial value, most inventions do not provide sufficient potential to justify the investment of time, talent and money in the uncertain process of founding a venture. Consequently, the more important the potential founders consider the technological opportunity, the higher the probability that the opportunity will be exploited.

A growing number of state and local policymakers believe that a strong base of science and technology is a necessary foundation for sustained prosperity. The view rests on three major arguments. First is the notion that with increasingly open international markets, businesses based in the U.S. must seek competitive advantage in America's knowledge infrastructure, including its world-leading private and public R&D institutions, educated workforce, tradition of risk-taking and entrepreneurship, advanced physical infrastructure, and stable and transparent social and political institutions. Concerns over issues like the *"digital divide,"* equal access to education, and worsening income inequality are heightened by fears that two sectors are coming to dominate long-term domestic employment growth prospects: high skilled technology-intensive activities that are dependent on advanced knowledge infrastructure and low-skilled basic consumer services that serve immediate local market needs. While the prospect of a *"two-tiered economy"* remains hypothetical rather than an empirically-verified fact, it has gained significant traction in policy debates at the state and local levels.

The second argument for a close link between technology and regional economic performance is based on studies of recent sectoral growth trends. For example, in an analysis predating the 2001 recession, Hecker (1999) projected that high-tech and related employment would grow twice as fast as employment in the rest of the economy over the 1996 to 2006 period. Another study finds that the global market for the products of four research-intensive industries — aerospace, computers and office machinery, electronics and communications, and pharmaceuticals — expanded over twice as fast as the markets for other manufactured goods over the 1980 to 1995 period (Rausch, 1998). Certainly,

not all industries cited by various studies as *"technology-intensive"* are posting employment or output gains. Indeed, some tech sectors faced significant declines during the 1990s. But even with uncertainty over the recent recession as well as how best to define the technology sector (Pollak, 1999), most studies show that gains in technology-related employment have been strong relative to other industries over the last decade. By most measures, technology sectors also pay considerably higher wages than more traditional industries, particularly in the manufacturing sector.

The third argument for technology as a key to regional economic development is that technologyrelated activity must necessarily cluster in specific regions because knowledge spillovers are *localized*. Knowledge spillovers — the primary engine in the most recent theories of long-run economic growth — are the ability of economic agents to utilize a new technology or innovation without fully compensating its original source or owner (Grossman and Helpman, 1991). Innovations initially occur in companies, universities, and laboratories located in specific places. The subsequent spread (or diffusion) of such innovations, as well as the spillovers they generate, may occur more readily among economic actors located in close proximity, either because the innovation is tacit in nature or because its successful utilization requires an element of hands-on learning-by-doing. Increasing returns to innovation, coupled with a localized diffusion effect, imply that technology-oriented activity and R&D are likely to concentrate geographically. Technology businesses locate near other high tech companies and R&D performers in order to share in the spillovers, further enhancing the attractiveness of the growing cluster for still more high tech enterprises.

2.2. Understanding the Nature of High-Tech Markets

Despite Porter's statement that there are no low- or high-tech sectors, but only low- or high-tech companies (1996), parameters such as the R&D intensity (generally measured as R&D expenditure as a share of sales revenues) vary significantly across sectors (Reinstaller and Unterlass, 2008; Coletti, 2010). The same goes for clusters: there are differences as well as similarities between industrial districts and hi-tech clusters. Industrial districts deal with sectors with low or intermediate technology content such as food, furniture and clothing, whereas hi-tech clusters deal with S&T-led industries. Traditional industrial districts are based on high division of tasks and strong collaboration between companies in a specific location, where only few companies have access to final clients. Innovation happens in industrial districts too, but it is less directly linked to S&T advances than in hi-tech clusters (Coletti, 2010). In industrial clusters, the connection with local manufacturing activities is a pillar of their success. This is possible because of an extensive overlapping of social and business life, which is due to geographical proximity, personal relations and shared culture.

On the other hand, high-tech clusters need stronger links with universities, public and private independent research centers and research labs of big companies (Dimitriadis, 2008; Coletti, 2010). These clusters employ relatively few people (even considering indirect jobs), who have a sense of belonging to their Professional

network rather than to the local community, so they generally do not develop a strong identity related to the territory where they are located. In these clusters, new product development is more important than production, which in turn is the key activity in industrial districts (Becattini and Bellandi, 2006; Coletti, 2010).

Industrial districts are the result of decades or centuries of activity in traditional sectors such as furniture, garment or mechanics triggered by the availability of local resources, local demand, a supportive business climate and a culture favorable to entrepreneurship. However, the development of hi-tech clusters often depends on intentional processes of cooperation between public and private bodies rather than endogenous primary factors of growth. Both industrial and technology clusters contain an eco-system of different subjects such as machinery suppliers, labs, education and research institutions, consultants, banks, business angels and venture capitalists, local governments, development agencies and, of course, the firms involved in manufacturing and sales. The role of local institutions is to improve the business environment preparing infrastructure to work (land and building) and communicate (transport and telecommunications), and foster environmental and socio-cultural conditions attractive to high-skilled specialists and their families (Coletti, 2010).

Nystrom (1990) described high tech markets as marketing dependent and technologically driven. Unfortunately, there is evidence that this linkage is not often recognized by organizations (Gupta et al. 1985; Rosen et al. 1998). High tech markets are characterized as complex. In addition, they exist under rapidly changing technological conditions which lead to shorter life cycles (Davidow, 1986) and the need for rapid decisions (Bridges et al. 1991; Rosen et al. 1998). The importance of speed in high tech markets is driven by increasing competition and the continually evolving expectations of customers. All of this is compounded by higher levels of risk for both the customer and the producer.

In addition, several authors have suggested that high tech markets, unlike low-tech markets, must focus on both demand-side marketing and supply-side marketing (e.g. Shanklin and Ryans, 1984). Based upon the belief that supply can create its own demand, supply-side marketing is appealing to new product developers as it legitimizes a product orientation (Moore, 1995; Rosen et al. 1998). In practice, however, the supply-side can so dominate the demand-side that the needs of the consumers are ignored in strategy development. As a result product developers tend to be driven by their technology in determining the marketing mix.

There is ample evidence pointing to specific ways in which high tech markets are different from consumer package goods markets. Because high tech companies exploit and create change rather than consolidate and defend existing conditions the interdependence between marketing and technology is of crucial importance. Companies regarded as low-tech may basically adjust their marketing strategies to reflect relatively unchanging technological conditions. High tech companies, however, must recognize that both technological and marketing conditions are rapidly changing (Nystrom, 1990; Rosen et al. 1998). This dynamic

environment necessitates stronger consideration for the marriage of marketing and technology.

Research and practice indicate that high tech markets are characterized as dynamic and complex which results in a changing target market over the life cycle (Davidow, 1986; Rosen et al. 1998). The complexity of the product also impacts market acceptance in different ways in high tech markets (Davidow, 1986; Rosen et al. 1998). As high tech products are more complicated, they require greater customer education and more product information. This necessity results in greater effort on the part of marketing to adequately convey the necessary information as well as greater effort on the part of the consumer to digest the information.

Higher levels of risk for both supplier and customer also contribute to a belief that high tech markets are different (Moriarty and Kosnik, 1989; Rosen et al. 1998). As a result of this uncertainty, new products have only a brief opportunity to be introduced and become established in the marketplace leading to pressure for shorter development cycles. And once a market is established, high tech products mature rapidly. Thus, high tech markets are characterized as risky as they are fast-moving and expensive due to technological advances, intense competition and a fickle customer. This emphasis on timing results in many firms emphasizing a first-to-market mentality.

Clearly, time pressures pervade high tech markets. Perceptions of time pressures have led to steps in the development process, such as concept and market testing, being skipped entirely in an effort to beat the competition. But is this speed really necessary? Freshtman et.al. (1990) found that order of entry has no relevance to market share in the long run (Rosen et al. 1998). Shorter development cycles, however, were found to increase sales, profitability and enhance a company's image as an innovation leader (Smith and Andrews, 1995; Rosen et al. 1998). Why the contradictory results? Perhaps the explanation lies in the fact that being first is not the critical factor in market success. Rather, being among the first is the necessary condition thus creating a need for shorter development cycles.

High tech markets may not be so different as to require different theories. However, there is ample evidence that their operating environments are more intense than consumer markets making attention to the nuances of product launch strategies particularly critical. Examination of the new product development process and the role of the diffusion of innovations followed by a review of several examples of recent high tech product launches will clarify why this is so.

2.3. Using Knowledge Spillovers in High-Tech Clusters

Knowledge spillovers occur through flows of information and ideas between actors located in the same spatial grouping. Marshall argues that shared knowledge occurred in a type of *"industrial atmosphere"* and that *"the mysteries of the trade become no mysteries; but are as it were in the air"* (Andersen and Opsal, 2010). Hence, clustering would enable easier sharing of product and market knowledge compared to firms that were not located in geographic proximity (Gordon and McCann, 2000; Andersen and Opsal, 2010). The rationale behind the concept of knowledge spillovers is that the spillovers are only available

to the actors within the boundaries of the cluster, and that stand-alone firms will have a disadvantage relative to the firms within the cluster (Audretsch and Feldman, 1996). It is therefore often termed as *localized knowledge spillovers,* and may *"allow companies operating nearby the knowledge sources to introduce innovations at a faster rate than rival firms located elsewhere"* (Breschi and Lissoni, 2001; Andersen and Opsal, 2010).

During the process of an industrial cluster's formation and development, the knowledge spillovers are bound to happen, and the knowledge spillovers are confined by the geographical conditions and the level of cultural coherence. In all the flows of knowledge spillover which may influence the research productivity of an enterprise, there is a very important part which out-flowed from other firms. Knowledge spillovers originate from a single enterprise to flow among all the enterprise, which gives the eloquent proof of the possibility for the spreading of knowledge spillover in a certain geographical area. Through the case study of Knowledge spillovers, Feldman (1991) finds out that innovation activities have spatial tendentiousness to cluster in a region with skilled labor and various researches. Human resources play a significant role in the knowledge spillover system (Wang, 2010). With the flow of human resources, a variety of knowledge and skills would spread quickly. To make knowledge spillover no longer an ambiguous phenomenon swinging in geography and economics but a pure economic definition, the concept of derivative effect in an industrial cluster has been proposed to explain the clustering process of an industrial cluster.

2.4. High-Tech Industry Classification

The *"technology-intensity"* classification is relative. Many manufacturing activities could be considered as *"high technology"* by looking at their direct or indirect R&D intensities. While *"direct R&D intensity"* refers to the industries that produce technology, *"indirect R&D intensity"* refers to the industries that make use of technology intensively. Also, high technology (high tech) industries can produce variety of products ranging between low tech and high tech. Individual countries may have slightly different classifications subject to different definitions of R&D intensity and data availability.

OECD defines R&D intensities with R&D expenditures as a percentage of production or value added, and calculates them after converting main developed OECD Countries' R&D expenditures and productions using PPPs (OECD, 2003). Manufacturing industries are classified into four main technology categories on the basis of the degree of technology intensity introduced by Hatzichronoglou (1997), namely: *a)* high technology *b)* medium high technology, *c)* medium low technology and *d)* low technology. Hatzichronoglou (1997) explains the methods used to classify the OECD Countries' industrial sectors and manufactures by the level of technology based on two different approaches (Seymen and Gümüştekin, 2012). Hatzichronoglou (1997) explains the methods used to classify the OECD Countries' industrial sectors and manufactures by the level of technology based on two different approaches (Seymen and Gümüştekin, 2012).

Sectoral approach takes into account both the level of technology specific to the sector (mea-

sured by the ratio of R&D expenditure to value added) and the technology embodied in purchases of intermediate and capital goods. The second approach called product approach consists solely of high technology products (products which are the most technology-intensive). Product approach provides a more appropriate tool for analyzing international trade and competitiveness. It is based on the Standard International Trade Classification (SITC). Although the list of high-tech products is much more disaggregated, the product approach excludes all products that are not high-tech, even if they are manufactured by high-tech industries.

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Grossman and Helpman (1991), constructed different trade models under the assumption of endogenous innovation, endogenous technology transfer and quality competition. Their "*product cycle model"* is based on the models of endogenous technical change by Romer (1990) and interprets product and process innovation as the result of deliberate, purposeful R&D by profit seeking enterprises (Seymen and Gümüştekin, 2012). In a Schumpeterian frame work, the firms' incentive to invest in R&D and to innovate depends on the expectations that the innovation will generate monopoly profits until the new technology becomes standard. Sustainable growth is made feasible by the assumption of some kind of technological externality, which is the creation of knowledge through private R&D yielding positive external effects so that the social return on investment in R&D exceeds the private return. The new knowledge thus adds to the public stock of technological knowledge and is accessible to all firms carrying out R&D themselves. Without the assumption of technological externalities innovators would be in a position to establish permanent monopolies without further R&D efforts. R&D therefore, has a major role to play; it is the source of technological progress and driving force behind long run total factor productivity growth (Grossman and Helpman, 1991; Seymen and Gümüştekin, 2012).

3. ANALYSING POTENTIAL OF TURKEY HIG-TECH CLUSTERS

3.1. General Wiew to Turkey Economy

The trend towards integration in world economies, the increasingly leading role of international organizations such as the EU and WTO in economic policies, rapid developments in technology, and the rise of developing countries such as India and China, and increases in commodity prices directly affect the economic growth capacity of

Turkey. Turkey must adapt to increasing global competition, improve its own competitiveness and maintain its high-growth areas; therefore, industrial strategy becomes even more significant. This part of the paper, which is specified as the beginning component of this industrial strategy design, summarizes the trends in global economies, the situation in the EU, the competitiveness of Turkey and the implications of these developments for industry.

Turkey's situation is different than other new members and candidate countries. It has been in the Customs Union since 1996, prior to its acceptance as candidate country in 1999. In the industry area in particular, Turkey is becoming an important part of the EU. In 2009, 46% of Turkey's exports were to EU countries, while 77% of direct foreign investments in Turkey were from EU countries (2003-2008). Therefore, that Turkey is becoming an effective participant in industrial policy and competitiveness debates in the EU is important both in terms of the competitiveness perspective of EU member countries and the adjustment of Turkey to the EU (SPO, 2010).

Turkish economy went through difficult times in the 1990s. However, with the macroeconomic stability brought about through the structural reforms undertaken after the crisis of 2001, it has had one of the most successful growth performances in the world. Amid the technological, economic and political developments in the world, Turkey has begun to take its place in the World economy and the EU. This has led not only to opportunities but exposure to unfavorable circumstances in the world economy. Turkish economies expanded for 27 consecutive quarters 2002-2008 due to increases in productivity. It has made significant progress in terms of harmonization with the EU in economic, social and legislative areas. The wide and diverse manufacturing industry of Turkey, with strong international connections, and manufacturing mostly for export, entered a phase of rapid development after 2001. Its stability coalesced with the impact of the Customs Union with the EU and resulted in a significant transformation in manufacturing and foreign trade structure.

Rapid development of the Eastern Asian economies and the preservation of the EU's competitive edge have made Turkey's geographic location even more important. Compared to its neighbors, Turkey enjoys a dynamic industry and services infrastructure in addition to a wide and young market generally compliant with consumption trends in the EU. These qualities make Turkey a center of attraction for global investors. Turkey has the potential to assume a vital role in the inclusion of neighboring countries in the global economy, whichwill bring many new opportunities to Turkish industry in the future. Recently, many multinational companies, primarily EU-based ones, have chosen Turkey as their production and investment base. The reinforcing of this trend in line with correct strategies will contribute to the competitiveness of both Turkey and the EU.

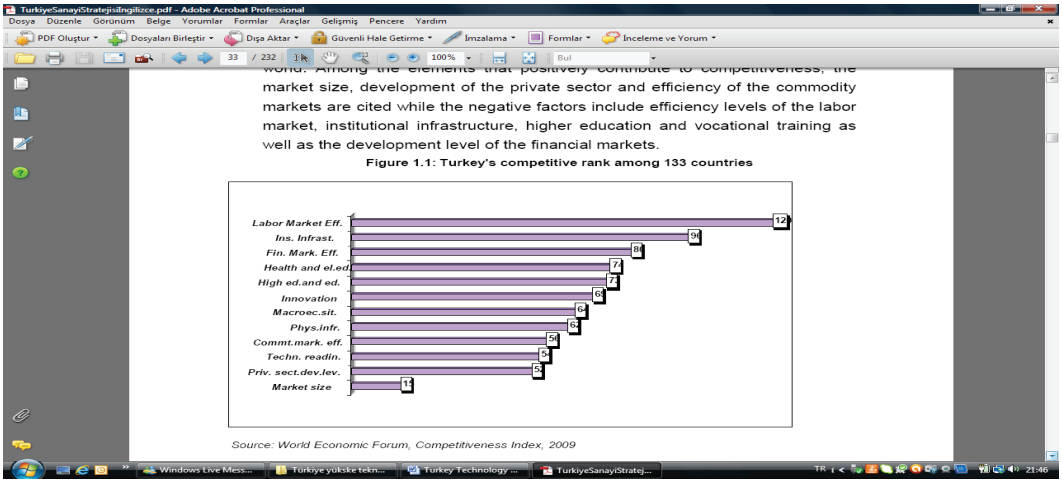
According to the Global Competitiveness Index 2009-2010 prepared by the World Economic Forum (2009), Turkey ranked the 61st among 133 countries of the world (Figure 1). Among the elements that positively contribute to competitiveness, the market size, development of the private sector and efficiency of the commodity

markets are cited while the negative factors include efficiency levels of the labor market, institutional infrastructure, higher education and vocational training as well as the development level of the financial markets.

When the competitiveness components of Turkey are compared with 12 countries that have recently joined EU, Turkey is seen to have a better business sophistication, innovation, institutional infrastructure in the public industry, and better performance in institutional governance in private sector, but worse intellectual property rights, railway network quality, port quality, prevalence of ICT. In other areas, Turkey and other countries have almost equal performances. With such a performance, Turkey has the competitive edge in a wide area, which covers the Middle East, the Caucasus, North Africa and the Balkans.

The share of technology-intensive sectors in Turkey's overall exports lags behind that of the EU (Table 1). Exports of above-medium technology products increased by the acceleration of the structural transformation of the manufacturing industry after 2001. However, there has been no increase in the value added high-technology products due to insufficient local clustering in these areas. This situation has emerged mostly as the result of medium- and high-technological production's dependence on imported intermediate input.

Figure 1: Turkey's Competitive Rank Among 133 Countries



Source: *World Economic Forum, Competitiveness Index, 2009*

Table 1: Manufacturing Industry Production and Export Structure (percentage share)

Technology Density (1)	TURKEY				EU Export (3)
	Production		**Export**		
	2002	**2008 (2)**	**2002**	**2008**	**2006**
High	**5,1**	**4,1**	**6,2**	**21,6**	**21,6**
Above Medium	**18,2**	**24,8**	**24,3**	**41,1**	**41,1**
Below Medium	**26,7**	**32,1**	**22,8**	**19,1**	**19,1**
Low	**50**	**39**	**46,8**	**18,3**	**18,3**
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: *SPO 2010 Annual Program(1)Based on OECD classifications.(2) SPO estimates with year 2006 prices.(3) OECD member EU states.*

As a result of the increase in the share of sectors in total industrial exports containing above-medium technologies, R&D expenditures have recently begun to rise. In 2007, R&D expenditures totaled €3.2 billion, which constituted 0.76 percent of GDP. In 2008, R&D expenditures constituted 0.73 percent of GDP. Although this amount is much lower than the EU's Lisbon objective of 3% in this area, nominally, it equals approximately more than half of the new EU member states' total €5.81 billion R&D expenditures. On the other hand, the Turkish private sector aims at contributing to at least 60% of the country's total R&D expenditures by 2013. Supports to be provided by the public sector will be designed in such a manner to increase R&D activities of the private sector. In 2007, Turkey applied for 355 international patents. In 2008, this number rose to367. It is planned to increase the share of R&D in GDP to 2% and raise the number of full-time researchers to 80,000 by 2013 (SPO, 2010).

In addition to trade-related integration, Turkey has integrated quickly into the EU in terms of direct foreign investments. Seventy-two percent of the $47.3 billion in direct foreign investment made in Turkey between 2003 and 2007 came from EU countries. These investments bring important opportunities for the integration of Turkish companies to the value chain in the EU. This tendency shows that Turkey is gradually becoming a natural part of the EU's industrial and service fields.

Turkey's share in manufacturing industry products EU-27 countries increased from 3.8% in 2003 to 4.7% in 2007, averaging a growth of 7% per year. In the medium-technology product group, which includes such sectors as the automotive and machinery industry, Turkey's market share grew 2.5 times in 4 years, rising from 1.6% in 1999 to 4% in 2004. In low-technology products the increase was from 6.3% to 7.9% (SPO, 2010).

The vision of the Ninth Development Plan prepared within the framework of the Long-term Strategy for 2001-2023, which covers the period between 2007 and 2013, is a *"Turkey, a country of information society, growing in stability, sharing more equitably, globally competitive and*

fully completed her coherence with the European Union." (SPO, 2010).

3.2. Clusters Initiatives and Analysing Potential of High-Tech Clusters in Turkey

A recent statement of the importance of high technology for cities and regions that has been highly influential in policy circles is Atkinson and Court (1998). The support for technology policy often is based as much on a hunch than a research consensus. As one government report claims OTP (2000,), *"the relationship between measures of economic prosperity and science and technology capacity is intuitive. Such relationships have lead to public policies to support economic development through science and technology investments."*

In Turkey we have not been able to successfully transform new knowledge into economic activity. This despite that Turkey has built much of its economic growth on entrepreneurial activities based on new technology. Cluster approach in Turkey is relatively a new topic in the policy area. Çağlar (2006) states that cluster policies will have many advantages over the previously conducted policies for regional development (Gürellier, 2010). Referring to both Turkish and international experiences, it can be concluded that macro-policies for competitiveness are too broad, whereas micro policies at firm level are mostly less effective and cause waste of sources. On the other hand, cluster policies are in between the macro and micro level policies and their benefits can be counted as such (Çağlar, 2006; Gürellier, 2010):

- Organizing industry policies and activities in those policies,
- Remodeling the roles of government, public and private institutions, nongovernmental organizations and universities for a more competitive industry,
- Favoring the communication between government and business world,
- Assembling Assembling firms with different sizes,
- Focusing on opportunities alongside the problems.

Before cluster approach is widespread all over the world, the popular policy for regional development was Organized Industrial Districts (OSB) for Turkey. Since 1962, approximately 250 OSBs have been established nationwide (Çağlar, 2006; Gürellier, 2010). OSBs provide the firms the necessary infrastructure and facilitate the legal issues with the public institutions, besides their original goal of organized industrialization. However, OSBs are different from clusters in ways that the clusters are composed of firms following the linkages of one value chain, whereas in OSBs the firms might be parts of different value chains and they may not be working complementarily.

The cluster initiatives have speed up with projects financed by European Commission; however, the earlier initiatives for clusters are conducted by a nongovernmental organization: Competitive Advantage of Turkey (CAT). CAT –later named as URAK ("*Uluslararası Rekabet Araştırma Kurumu"*-International Competitiveness Research Foundation)– has initiated several cluster

studies in Turkey, the examples of which are Sultanahmet Tourism Cluster Development Project and Competitiveness and Cluster Analysis of OSTIM OSB.

For Turkey to achieve the acceleration that many countries have attained in international competition by clustering, it needs to implement the clustering model effectively and timely. The Undersecretariat for Foreign Trade began implementing *"Development of a Clustering Policy for Turkey Project"*, which it had designed to make up for the deficiency in this field, as of March 2007; the project was completed in March 2009. The Project for Development of the National Clustering Policy aims at preparing a comprehensive cluster policy to improve the competitiveness of Turkey in the international markets and contribute to economic, environmental and social development of Turkey. The project consists of three main elements:

1) Capacity Building in Key Stakeholders for Development Process of the National Clustering Strategy,

2) Preparation of the National Clustering Strategy Paper,

3) Macro-Cluster Mapping and Formation of Strategic Roadmaps.

The Clustering Strategy Paper being prepared under the project is a framework document and the first official document of Turkey in the field of clustering (TR Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2010). The aim of this strategy is to serve as a guide identifying the needs of Turkey in the field of clustering. As such, it is to enlight the private and non-governmental organizations, as well as relevant public bodies about clustering. The macro-cluster map, which is another output of the project, has been prepared taking cluster categories as its basis. A Cluster Mapping Work Group has been established to ensure coordination and cooperation with all stakeholders and, under the coordination of the Undersecretariat for Foreign Trade, the Cluster Mapping Work Group, consisting of the Ministry of Industry and Trade, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, State Planning Organisation, the Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey (TOBB), TUBITAK, KOSGEB and Turkish Exporters Assembly, has played an active role in cluster selection process. Road maps prepared for 10 clusters and relevant themes are as follows Table 2.

Furthermore the analyzed clustering studies were carried out in the cities which were covered under the Regional Competitiveness Operational Programme (RCOP). The cities included Kayseri, Gaziantep, Kahramanmaraş, Trabzon, Erzurum- Kars, Sivas, Yozgat-Çorum, Mardin, Malatya and Samsun. The Project constitutes a framework for clustering in Turkey. It functions as a model for new clusters in different or similar sectors since it embodies many pilot studies. Also, Turkey has become a member of the European Cluster Alliance.

Another popular study on clusters in Turkey is done by Özlem Öz (2004). Öz (2004), in her *"Clusters and Competitive Advantage: The Turkish Experience"*, investigates the linkage between

Table 2: Clusters in Turkey

Innovation and Entrepreneurship	Establishment of Network Between Actors	Cluster Formation	Development of Cluster Base	Factor Conditions
Mersin Processed Food Cluster	Ankara Machinery Cluster	Konya Automotive Parts and Accessories Cluster	Eskişehir, Bilecik, Kütahya Ceramics Cluster	Manisa Electric-Electronic Products Cluster
Ankara Software Cluster	Denizli-Uşak Home Textile Cluster	Muğla Yacht Building and Yacht Tourism	İzmir Organic Food Cluster	Marmara Automotive Cluster

geographic clustering and international experiences by examining four cases from Turkey. Those are the furniture cluster in Ankara, the towel and bathrobe cluster in Denizli, the carpet cluster in Gaziantep and the leather clothing cluster in Istanbul. However, these cases are closer to traditional regional agglomerations than today's more technology driven clusters. Counting these examples as promising clusters holding the necessary conditions for competitiveness would not be very accurate.

Despite the increasing popularity of cluster approach, its appropriateness for Turkey and Turkish industry still needs further study. Although clusters stimulate competitiveness, it is not a panacea for all regions and nations. Çağlar (2006) argues that the cluster policy tools, which are successful in countries with limited scope of sectors, might not provide the same results in Turkey where the industry scope is wider. Therefore, it is important to develop the cluster policy according the structure and constraints of the region (Gürellier, 2010).

Within the framework of this general vision, the long-term vision of Turkish Industrial Strategy was established as *"becoming the production base of Eurasia in medium- and high-tech products"* in the search conference held under the auspices of the Ministry of Industry and Trade, with participation of the private sector, NGO's, universities and public sector, in 2008. The overall aim of the Turkish industrial Strategy covering the period between 2011 and 2014 was been determined as *"increasing the competitiveness and efficiency of Turkish Industry and expediting the transformation to an industry structure which has more share in world exports, where mainly high-tech products with high added value are produced, which has qualified labor and which at the same time is sensitive to the environment and the society."*

In order to achieve the general aims mentioned above, three basic strategic objectives have been delineated. The focus of the industrial strategy to be implemented is supporting structural transformation, in accordance with these three basic strategic objectives (TR Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2010):

a. **Increasing the weight of companies that can continuously improve their skills (strong):** Within the scope of the industrial strategy, the environment of investment and doing business in Turkey should be reformed so as to allow de-

velopment of companies which can continuously improve their skills and which are capable of surviving and growing in the current environment of competition.

b. **Increasing the weight of mid- and high-tech sectors in production and exports:** Its intention is to move to high value added production in mid- and high-tech sectors. However, the fact that the production scale of subject sectors in Turkey is generally low with respect to global competitors, makes achieving this objective difficult in the medium term. Strategies for investments in manufacturing motorized land vehicles, machinery, medical tools, precise and optical tools, air and space vessels, electronics and medicine, which currently exist in this sector group and have an important potential of growth.

c. **Transition to high added value products in low-tech sectors:** Turkey has attained an important scale of production and experience in traditional sectors. This experience constitutes an important advantage from the perspective of transition to high added value products in the sub-sectors of the subject sector group. Supports to increase added value will be provided in these sectors.

It will be ensured that the industrial strategy will comply with various strategy and policy fields which are already being implemented in order to increase competitiveness. A comprehensive body of measures for increasing competitiveness in Turkey is dealt with in 10 core fields on the basis of the development plan, mid-term and annual programs. These fields are (TR Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2010): (1) making the macroeconomic stability permanent, (2) enhancing the business environment, (3) decreasing informal economy, (4) improving the financial system, (5) improving the energy and transportation infrastructure, (6) protecting the environment and developing the urban infrastructure, (7) improving R&D and innovation, (8) extending the information and communication technologies, (9) activating the agricultural structure, and (10) moving to high value added production structure in industry and services. Industrial strategy will serve to achieve these above mentioned objectives which overlap to a large extent with the development axes in line with the identified vision.

In order to channel savings to high value-added investments, increase production and employment, provide sustainability of both propensity for investment and development, stimulate technology that would increase competitive power and encourage large-scale investments having a significant R&D component, increase direct foreign investments, make up for regional development differences, support investments and R&D in environmental protection, the *"Decree Concerning State Encouragements to Investments"* was promulgated and came into force on 16.07.2009 (TR Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2010).

Efforts for becoming an information society must be more holistic and participatory. They have to have concrete goals, and make the creation of economic added value and the increase in prosperity for the country priorities. Within this context, the e-Transformation Turkey Project was initiated in 2003. This Project aims at transforming the entire society, together with citizens, businesses and the public sector, into an information society within a harmonious and integrated structure. Thus, the *"Transformation of Turkey into an*

Information Society Policy" was prepared and Turkey's vision for the transformation into an information society was defined "Becoming a prosperous internationally competitive country in which science and technology are central to production, an effective exploiter of science and technology and a generator of more value through informationbased decision-making."

CONCLUSION

Technological effort is a critical determinant of international competitiveness. High technology industries are the ones which continue to expand most strongly in the international trade and their dynamism helps the sector to improve its performance together with the performance of all the other sectors and consequently the economy as a whole. In order to analyze the positive impact of technology on industrial performance, it is important to be able to identify those industries or products. The derivative effect can facilitate the innovation along with the discovery of new technology within a cluster. And it can speed up the diffusion of knowledge in a cluster, making it easier for the participants in the cluster to learn and master skills; In the other hand, the emergence of famous scientists, patent owners and entrepreneurs may promote the cooperation between enterprises and nurture the formation of new corporations, so as to maintain the stable development and optimization of the cluster, as well as the expansion of the cluster. From above it can be clearly seen that knowledge spillover not only refers to the invisible knowledge existing in the industry, but also refers to technological innovation and even business management.

Within the new global framework, creating high value added depends on such factors as specializing, benefiting from new technologies, and developing innovation capacities. Increase in the growth capacity of an economy is contingent upon the number companies revamping and continually enhancing their competitiveness. Other ways to increase per capita income are the regular development of human capital, spread of information and communication technologies, and focus on innovations. Rapid development of technology worldwide combines with the on-going liberalization of international finance and trade system to significantly alter the way of doing business.

In the scope of *"Development of a Clustering Policy for Turkey"* Project, a strategy providing guidance on how to support business clusters is aimed to be developed that will constitute the core of this policy. The necessary institutional capacity for implementing this strategy and improving the competitive capacity of the national economy is also targeted. The Project was carried out by the Undersecretariat for Foreign Trade between March 2007-March 2009 and was financed by the European Commission.

Turkey must make improvements in its weakest areas to be able to move upwards on this list. Therefore, first measures to be taken should be in improvements within the labor market, higher education and vocational training, financial markets, health-care and elementary education, macroeconomic situation and physical infrastructure. For Turkey's economic growth should be followed for a successful high-tech clustering strategy. To do this, the following

practices should be emphasized: (a) A suitable investment environment for the reduction of the developmental difference between regions and for differentiated SME policies in terms of regional competitiveness must be created. In this context, particular importance must be placed on extension of the financial resources and diversification of finance tools, facilitating access to the market and supporting the clusters under the guidance of the leading sectors. Within this framework, formation of mechanisms to increase cooperation of the actors within the cluster and to strengthen local clusters and mechanisms to ensure their integration with the world markets must be encouraged. (b) The cooperation and coordination of the Investment Support and Promotion Agency with local clusters and regional development initiatives must be be increased. Primarily in cities with a high developmental potential, support must be provided to establish platforms ensuring the joint working of the business and universities; develop technological transformation and transfer systems; and the creation of a commercially effective regional infrastructure of innovation. (c) For this purpose, such means and initiatives as technoparks, innovation relay centers and incubators must be supported. Another important point is regional innovation systems must be identified and supported. (d)To contribute regional development and increase regional competitiveness, the cooperation networks which include private sector, universities and public bodies and local dynamics and act towards must be supported. (e) Higher education institutions must be assisted to specialize according to local characteristics. (f) A governance model which will define the policy framework at the local and central level about clustering must be developed. (g) Clustering Strategy must be prepared and the results of the implementation must be monitored and evaluated. Furthermore, the capacity which will define the local priorities relating to competitiveness such as clustering and value chain analysis will be strengthened. (h) The notion of regional development requires identification of local/regional priorities of the industrial policy and sectoral policies which are designed and managed at national level.

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YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ KÜMELERİ POTANSİYELİNİN İNCELENMESİ

Özet: Bugün bölgesel politikalar küreselleşme süreci, yeni üretim süreçlerinin ortaya çıkması ve teknolojik gelişmeler tarafından yeniden şekillendirilmektedir. İş dünyasındaki aynı ve/veya ilişkili sektörlerdeki firmaların yakın fiziksel mesafede faaliyet gösterme ve yerleşme eğilimleri, bu yeni politikalar üzerinde etkili olmaktadır. Gittikçe artan küresel rekabete uyum sağlama ihtiyacı ve ekonomilerini yerelleşmiş firma grupları üzerine kuran gelişmiş bölge örnekleri, yerel, bölgesel ve ulusal yönetimlerin, girişimci kümelenmeler üzerine kurulan politikalara yönelmelerine neden olmuştur. Uluslararası rekabette teknoloji önemli bir rol üstlenmekte ve teknolojideki gelişmeler sadece elektronik ve telekomünikasyon gibi tipik teknoloji alanlarına değil, bunların dışındaki birçok sektöre de uygulanmaktadır. Yüksek teknoloji endüstrileri gerek bölgesel gerek ulusal anlamda ekonomik gelişmişliğin itici gücü durumundadırlar. Günümüzde kullanılan teknoloji yoğunluğuna ve son ürüne göre, yüksek teknoloji olarak kabul edilen sektör sayısı artmıştır. Dolayısı ile yüksek teknoloji mal ve hizmetlerin üretilmesi ve pazarlanması kuşkusuz iş ve ekonomi dünyasında gittikçe yerini sağlamlaştıran bir öneme sahiptir. Yüksek teknoloji genelde en ileri veya gelişmiş teknoloji anlamında kullanılır ve zamanla meydana gelen değişimi ifade eder. Yüksek teknoloji geçmişten veya gelecekten ziyade mevcut zamandaki teknolojileri tanımlamak için kullanılır. Dolayısı ile 1960'larda yüksek teknoloji olarak kabul edilen ürünler bugün standart hale gelmiş, hatta düşük teknolojili ürünler olarak da kabul edilebilir. Bugün 20-30 sene öncesine nispeten kullanılan teknoloji yoğunluğuna ve son ürüne göre, yüksek teknoloji olarak kabul edilen sektör sayısı artmıştır. Bunlardan bazılarını; malzeme, enerji, havacılık ve uzay teknolojisi, yapay zeka, biyoteknoloji, nanoteknoloji, nükleer fizik, robotik, telekomünikasyon ve bilgisayar gibi sektörler oluşturmaktadır. Yüksek teknoloji işletmeleri çok kısa sürede ciddi büyümeler gösterebilmekte ve ait oldukları ülkeleri de beraberlerinde bu büyümeye sürüklemektedirler. Fakat pazara sunulan yüksek teknoloji ürünlerin büyük kısmı düşük ticarileşme ve yüksek kabul görmeme riski ile karşı karşıyadır. Artık şirketler için güç olan sadece yeni fikirlerin üretilmesi ve hayata geçirilmesi değil, aynı zamanda ortaya çıkan ürünlerin tüketiciler tarafından beğenilip, kabul edilebilir ürünler olmalarıdır. Yüksek kar fırsatları sunan bu ürünler, tasarlanması ve üretilmesi aşamalarında büyük yatırım miktarları gerektirdiğinden, ürünlerin pazarda başarısız olmaları durumunda işletmeleri ciddi finansal bunalımlara sürükleyebilmektedirler. Yüksek teknoloji üretimi ülkelerin gelişmişliğini sağlamak ve bu gelişmişliği sürdürmek için kaçınılmaz bir faktördür. Gelişmiş ülkelerin rekabet modelleri yüksek teknoloji geliştirme, yüksek teknoloji mal ve hizmetleri üretip dünya pazarlarına sunmaları üzerine kuruludur. Kurulması ve geliştirilmesi için ciddi risk sermayeleri gerektirmektedir. Getirdiği riskin yanında ise yüksek kar fırsatları sunmaktadır. Yüksek teknoloji işletmeleri arasında gerçekleştirilecek kümelenme çalışmaları bu çabaların yönetilmesine önemli bir çıkış noktası yaratabilmektedir. Kümelenmeler, kümelenmeye dahil olan işletmelere, kendi esnekliklerinden feragat etmeden, büyük ölçekli ya da diğer işletmelerle ile resmi bağlantılara sahip işletmeler gibiymiş gibi fayda elde etmelerini sağlar. Bir kümelenmenin üyesi olmak, girdilere sahip olmada; bilgiye, teknolojiye ve gerekli kurumlara erişmede; ilişkili şirketleri koordine etmede ve gelişimi ölçmede ve teşvik etmede daha verimli çalışmalarını sağlamaktadır. Bu işletmelerin işe alımlardaki arama ve işlem maliyetlerini düşürecek ve zamanı kısaltacaktır. Bunların yanı sıra kümelenme çeşitli fırsatlar sunar ve çalışanların farklı yerlerde istihdam riskini düşürür, hatta diğer bölgelerdeki yetenekli çalışanları kendine çeker. Ayrıca İyi gelişmiş bir kümelenme diğer önemli girdilerin sağlanmasında

da etkin bir yol sağlar. Böylece derin ve özelleşmiş bir tedarikçi tabanına sahip olunabilir. Uzaktaki bir tedarikçiden kaynak sağlamak yerine yerel tedarikçileri kullanma k işlem maliyetlerini düşürecektir. Bu yapı, envanter ihtiyacını minimize edecek, ithalat ve gecikme maliyetlerini ortadan kaldıracaktır. Yakınlık iletişimi geliştirecektir, doğal olarak bu durum, tedarikçiler için satış sonrası hizmetlerini sağlamalarını kolaylaştıracaktır. Diğer yandan pazar, teknik ve rekabet bilgilerinin tamamı kümelenme içinde birikir ve üyeler bu bilgileri kullanmak isterler. Ayrıca, kişisel ilişkiler ve topluluk bağları güveni tesis eder ve bilgi akışını hızlandırır. Bu koşullar yüksek teknoloji işletmeleri için bilgiyi daha akıcı bir hale getirir. Kümelenmenin yaygın bir kavram haline gelmesi ile birlikte ülkemizde de kümelenme politikasının geliştirilmesi yönünde çalışmalara başlanmıştır. Ulusal kümelenme politikasının geliştirilmesi projesi neticesinde ortaya çıkan Beyaz Kitap'ta kümelenme politikasının vizyonu "Türkiye'deki kümelerin, yerel rekabet gücü ve yenilikçilik için iktisadi ve kurumsal işbirlikleri ve bilgi ağları yoluyla, küresel ekonomik zorluklarla mücadeleye hazır ve yerel refahın kaynağı haline gelmesi "olarak belirlenmiştir. Kümelenme politikasının hedefleri KOBİ'ler ve büyük işletmeler arasında ağ yapılarının tesis edilmesi, yenilikçi faaliyetleri hızlandırarak üretkenliği artıracak üniversite-sanayi işbirliğinin kurulması ve nihayet ulusal ve yerel rekabetçiliğin artırılması kümelenme politikasının hedefleri arasında yer almaktadır. Dünya genelindeki kümelenme politikaları incelendiğinde bu politikaların ülkelere, ihtiyaçlara ve oluşturulma amacına göre değişiklik gösterdiği görülmektedir. Ülkemiz için bir kümelenme politikası geliştirilirken başarı örneklerine bağımlı kalmak yerine ihtiyaçların iyi analiz edilmesi ve ihtiyaçlara yanıt verecek bir politikanın geliştirilmesi oldukça önemlidir. Bu çalışmada yüksek teknoloji kümelenme yaklaşımları literatür araştırması ile ayrıntılı olarak ele alınmış ve Türkiye'nin ekonomik gelişmesinde yüksek teknoloji kümelerinin rolü analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen bu bilgilerden yola çıkarak yüksek teknoloji kümeleri için verimli olabilecek bir politikanın geliştirilmesi için önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Yüksek Teknoloji Kümeleri, Kümelenme, Türkiye'deYüksek Teknoloji Kümeleri

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A RESEARCH ON BRAND ADDICTION

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Abstract: Brand is an acknowledged concept increasing the value of a product and services as well as providing convenience to its buyer. Seller, along with availing himself, obtains a link between himself and buyer. This phenomena which we come across as an addiction turns into a kind of a sense of belonging in which buyers would under no circumstances change their ideas. Therefore the desire to create a brand and brand addiction is unavoidable. Brand addiction, in other words brand loyalty constitutes of the subject of this research. How the effect that brand owners try to create on the users gets what reaction is explained keeping a pilot consumer group as a base. In addition, the pilot consumer group is selected through high school students. According to this base the shampoo usage and the addiction to shampoo brands have been analyzed by means of a questionnaire method. All told 10 question with the addition of 18 views with 5-score-Likert measurement have been asked to the group with altering habits and with their recently settling brand addiction. The credibility test of the research has been examined and realized through Kolmogorov-Simirnov normal distribution test and Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests. The research subject has been distributed according to the age, gender and income level of the group. The answers given to the research questions indicate the effect of traditional structure-the family, advices from relations and friends, and TV commercials on creating brand addiction. Majority of the pilot group participating in the research declare that they will try to find the shampoo brand wherever it is available when they finish it, which clearly indicates that the participants are highly addicted to the shampoo brands that they use. On the other hand in case there is an unexpected side effect in the brand they are using they tend to lack loyalty. However, as long as the brand meets the expectations the addiction level increases.

***Key Words*:** Brand, Brand Addiction

INTRODUCTION

Today, as competition gets more intensive, the number of productions and/or services increases also. As a result, the need for parsing productions and services has come about as well. Consumers recognize, parse and even hold onto products through brands. In this study, we primarily mentioned the concept of brand, management of a brand and decisions about a brand, followed by an application about brand addiction.

BRAND AND BRAND CONCEPTS

Brand, in general, is defined as a name, symbol or a form which is used to parse from other products or services, to introduce a production or a service to consumers or to determine the identity of a product or service by American Marketing Asso-

ciation. (Miletsky and Smith, 2009: 4; Yükselen, 2008: 244; Aaker, 2007: 25; Peter, 2006; Rowley, 2006: 104; Kotler and Keller, 2006: 274; Kotler, 2003: 418; Kotler, 2002: 188; Duane, 1999: 6; Tokol, 1996: 95; Mucuk, 1997: 150). Besides Islamoğlu (2008: 177) defines brand as the whole requirements that differentiate a product and a service from other competitors, that consumers buy and use, that determines the users and producers of a product and a service, and that satisfies the users of a product and service. It consists of visual elements such as "name, logo, color, brand symbol and a motto as well as abstract elements such as symbolic values, individual image, user identity, personality, culture and relationship. A lot of things that determine a product is involved within brand. Generally, a brand has a name and a symbol, both of which differentiate a brand from other competitors (Rowley, 2006: 105; İslamoğlu, 2000: 314; Mucuk, 1997: 150).

Both product and service have no emotions but are rational, conctrete and functional but brand is emotional, irrational, abstract and symbolic. Besides product and service present benefit and advantage but brand presents values, attitude and faith. Brand is the total of perceptions that are gathered in the cınsumers brain (Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 141). However, it is not a required part of a product. There are a lot of products sold with no brand, which is called generical product (Rowley, 2006: 107; Tokol, 1996: 95; Kotler and others., 1999: 575). The name of a brand is a word or a word cluster used in order to distinguish one brand from another (Saruhan ve Özdemir, 2004: 208). In other words, brand name has a narrower scope, which is used only to mention the name (Mucuk, 1997: 150). A good brand name should be short and simple, should sound enjoyable and cute, should be recognizable and memorable, should be pronouncable in any language, should be appropriate to be used in commercials of any kind, should also be appropriate for legislations, traditions and moral values, should give true info about the quality and usage of the product, should not be misleading, should not be aggressive or negative, shoud be appropriate for packaging and labeling, should be attractive and addressing the true quality of the product and should be distinguishable (İslamoğlu, 2008: 180; 137; Rowley, 2006: 114; Akat, 2004: 51; Odabaşı, 2001; Mucuk, 1997: 15). The success of the brand might have a direct link with the right choice of a name of the administration of the company (Kotler others, 1999: 575; Mucuk, 1997: 150).

The symbol of the brand (its loga-sign) is the visible but not uttrable part of it (Mucuk, 1997: 150). The consumer does not state it but remembers it through the form and the shape of it (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 286; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 144). Companies try to design a strong visual image that can create a favorable and convenient image (Kotler, 2002: 6, 93, 95). Brands show 4 levels illustrations, as a communicative illustration, as a favorable trade illustration, socio-cultural illustration and as a legendary value of the product illustration (Uztuğ, 2003: 129; Odabaşı, 2001: 137-138). Companies have their brands registered officially in order to protect themselves from getting imitated. Otherwise, it would be possible for a brand to be abused and faked. Therefore, there are legislations and regulations to get protected from such negative effects (İslamoğlu, 2008: 177; Rowley, 2006: 105, 107; Kotler and Keller, 2006:

297; İslamoğlu, 2000: 314; Kotler and others, 1999: 576; Mucuk, 1997: 151).

To make use of a brand obtains support for creating desire and stability for the product, and help decreasing the expanses in meeting the orders. It creates addiction and provides legal protection for imitations. It also protects various peculiarities of the product. It helps releasing new products and enables making up a profitable target market, creates linking towards different market sections, helps marketing communications between the product and the target group, and supports the products' effort to be permanet in the market (Yükselen, 2008: 244; Ojasalo, Nätti and Olkkonen, 2008; Rowley, 2006: 110; İslamoğlu, 2000: 314; Kotler others, 1999: 575; Mucuk, 1997: 151; Tokol, 1996: 95).

Brand might have disadvantages for producers as well (Rowley, 2006: 111-112); it is expensive to create a brand, and it might be essential for a log term success. Attached to a particular product and a market position, a producer might have difficulties in altering the specialities of their product that they are marketing, and in adopting that alteration to the market. Brands need to be continued and protected, and it is difficult to determine the market value of a brand.

Brand provides the consumer to know about the product. It creates information about the product to the consumer. Formerly used brands obtain attitude and belief for later purchases. They also obtain trust for quality as well as protection and prestige for the consumer (Rowley, 2006: 111; Cop and Bekmezci, 2005; İslamoğlu, 2000: 314; Kotler and others, 1999: 575; Mucuk, 1997: 151; Tokol, 1996: 95).

Characteristics of Brands

Characteristic of a brand is defined as a set of personified parts of a brand; some peculiarities belonging to human beings are unified with brand (Torlak and Uzkurt, 2005). The personality of brand reflects the relation of the real and desired self image of a brand with the emotional side of the consumer. Thanks to characteristics of brand, consumers identify themselves through the brand they make use, and they are thought to buy the products they find a link between themselves and the products (Cop and Bekmezci, 2005). However, in different times and culture the perception of a brand might vary (Torlak and Uzkurt, 2005).

Brand Management and Decisions

Management of a brand is the process of planning, organizing, carrying out and coordination of a brand's elements. In addition to this, creating a brand is a process involving the determination of the elements that are distinctive for the brand, development of these elements and foundation a place for the brand in the market and preservation of its place (Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 155). Foundations come face to face to make a decision about branding, supporting, finding a name, determining a strategie and placing and replacing the brand (Kozak, 2006: 152).

A foundation has to decide whether they should release a product or a service into the market with or without a brand (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 297; Kotler, 2002:189; Kotler and others, 1999: 573).

The second group brand decision involves determining who to make use of the brand, in other words, making a decision on who the brand should be propped up. The alternatives about this

involve the brand of the producer, brand of the retail firm and a licenced brand (Yükselen, 2008: 156; Cop and Bekmezci, 2005; Akat, 2004: 113). When deciding a name, four strategies below can be pursued (Yükselen, 2008: 246; Rowley, 2006: 107; Cop ve Bekmezci, 2005; Kotler and Keller, 2006: 297; Kotler, 2002: 192; İslamoğlu, 2000: 316):

- Releasing each product with a different brand
- Using a family brand for all the products
- Releasing all the products with different family brands
- Using the company name with each product name

In the process of brand management, after a well organized brand planning and organization, companies will focus on making their products a leader in the market and keeping its leadership in the market (Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 164).

As competition is constantly on between brands, it is really essential for the companies to have a good strategy, before everything, for the brand of the management to keep its position in the market, to develop it and to be a leader (İslamoğlu, 2000: 315). Foundations can be leaders or can keep their already existing leadership pursuing five ways: (Cop and Bekmezci, 2005; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 164-208; Yükselen, 2008: 247; Kotler, 2002: 193-194; Tokol, 1996: 95; Iain, 2002: 232, 219; İslamoğlu, 2000: 316; Kotler and others, 1999: 583);

- Spreading and broadening the brand
- Set broadening (spreading the limits)
- A lot of brands
- New brands
- Using brands together

Even when the brand locates and positions itself really well in the market, due to the reasons such as competitors' constant lining up in the market, consumers' continuous changing pleasures and preferences, it might as well need to make alterations in its position. In order to make that decision it is necessary to determine the expanses to make that move (such as quality, changing the package, commercials) along with the revenue from the recent position of the brand. And this depends on the amount, strength and the prices of various brands of the competitors and consumers in the new market position (Aaker, 2007: 281; Cop and Bekmezci, 2005; Kotler, 2002: 194; Kotler and others, 1999: 583).

Brand Equilibrium

Also called brand net assets, this concept is used to determine the total value of the brand along with the value of its consumers', distributers' and dealers' senses, thoughts and credibility; it involves the accumulation of positive effects and goodwill of the name, symbols and associations of the brand, the perceived quality of the product and the service and the financial performance of the brand along with customer loyalty and happiness about the brand (Aaker, 2007: 34; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 146; Uztuğ, 2003: 46; Duane, 1999: 3; Yükselen, 2008: 245; Ojasalo, Nätti ve Olkkonen, 2008; Cop and Bekmezci, 2005).

However it is not easy to determine the value of the brand, when taking the approaches about the

concept into consideration, there seems to be two separate groups on the way; the approach using the consumer participating researches and the approach involving only the financial value of the brand (Clifton and others, 2003: 34). According to Aaker, the sources of brand value constitute of brand loyalty, brand awareness, the perceived quality of the product, brand association and apart from these the patent (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 279; Duane, 1999: 14). When models developed to calculate the brand value are checked the indicators below gain importance: (Aaker, 2007:34; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 147; Uztuğ, 2003:46; Kotler and others, 1999: 572):

- Physical features and quality of the brand
- Familiarity/awareness of the brand
- Image of the brand
- Brand addiction (loyalty)
- Perceived quality
- Consistency in brand communication and brand association
- Brand Sensitivity
- Market share and the stability of the brand in alignment
- Distribution, pricing and the newness of the product

Brand familiarity is a definition used for the potential customers to remember and recollect that a brand is in a particular product cathegory, to advise the brand, to choose it and to use it (Aaker, 2007: 82; Kotler and Keller, 2006: 286; Cop and Bekmezci, 2005; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 149). Brand addiction (loyalty) refers to the satisfaction degree of the customers for specific brands that they use. Consumers, when they are making a decision, tend to prefer the brands they tried and trust their qulity, which leads them to buy the same brand (Aaker, 2007: 37-38; Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 150). Whether this loyalty exists is determined with how often the customer buys the product. If the customer buys the same brand primarily there is loyalty. For example, if a customer buys a product just because it is cheap then we cannot talk about loyalty. Loyalty requires other values (Saruhan and Özdemir, 2004: 151).

RESEARCH

Research Target

Target of this research is to reveal the shampoo preference of a pilot consumer group for brand loyalty.

Research Method

The research is realized depending on primary data by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire form is drawn from the work about brand loyalty in the book of Kurtuluş (Kurtuluş, 2004:623-627) Market Researches.

The questionnaire involves all told 10 question with the addition of 18 views with 5-score-Likert measurement. Besides questions for age, gender and income are also involved. The credibility test, Kolmogorov-Simirnov normal distribution test and Whitney U ve Kruskal Wallis tests are realized.

Nature and Exemplification

The universality of the research is based on the students at Kırklareli University, Babaeski Vocational High School students. 1489 students

registered in four programs are handed out in total of 400 questionnaires. However after examining the questionnaires some are declared to be out of usage and 305 of them are chosen as valid and appropriate questionnaires for evaluation. Thus the rate of exemplification representation is caltulated as 305/1489 = 0.20. Research is realized depending on exemplification structure to determine the brand loyalty of particularly young, high school age persons whose purchasing preferences are changeable.

Data and Interpretation

In order to analyze the data attained from the questionnaire SPSS 20.0 packet program is used. Test result is evaluated by 95% trustworthy. The result for credibility test in the measurement used in the research is evaluated by 0.803 (Cronbach's Alpha=0.803). Creadibility parameter being between 0.80-1.00 indictes that the credibility of the measurement is high (Alpar, 2011: 815). The credibility parameter of the measurement being 0.803 indicates high credibility. The results of Kolmogorov-Simirnov normal distribution test and the Q-Q graphics which are used in the research indicate that questionnaire data does not show normal distribution. The data set not being normal distribution the non-parametric hypothesis tests are preferred. (Büyüköztürk, 2012:145). Whether there is difference between or within the groups is determined through two non related tests of Mann Whitney U for non relating two examples and Kuruskal Wallis for non relating k-exemplification. Besides in order to determine the reasons for the differences the set average of the groups is taken.

The answers of the 305 participants of the questionnaire are presented below:

Table 1. The Distribution of Demographic Peculiarities Of Participants Of The Questionaire

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Age	Frequency	Percentage
Male	113	37.0	Age 18	20	6.6
Female	192	63.0	Age 19	72	23.6
Total	**305**	**100.0**	Age 20	106	34.8
Program	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	Age 21	71	23.3
Banking and insurance	105	34.4	Age 22	27	8.9
Office edministration	77	25.2	Age 23 and up	9	3.0
Management	75	24.6	**Total**	**305**	**100.0**
Foreign Trade	48	15.7			
Total	**305**	**100.0**	**Income**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Class	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	Between 500-1000 TL	61	20.0
First Class	252	82.6	Between 1001-1500 TL	81	26.6
Second class	53	17.4	Between 1501-2000 TL	78	25.6
Total	305	100.0	Between 2001-2500 TL	37	12.1
Education	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	Between 2501-3000 TL	20	6.6
First Education	230	75.4	Between 3001-3500 TL	12	3.9
Second Education	75	24.6	3501 TL and up	16	5.2
Total	**305**	**100.0**	**Total**	**305**	**100.0**

In Table 1 the demographic spread of the participants is shown. 37% of the participans are male and 63% of them are female. Female participants are double as much as the male ones in number. When you look at the age rate of the participants; 6.6% of them are 18 years of age 23.6% are 19, 34.8% 20, 23.3% 21, 8.9% 22, 3% 23.

When the income of the participants is taken into consideration; the income of 20% is 500-1000 TL, 26,6% is 1001-1500 TL, 25.6% is 1501-2000 TL, 12.1% is between 2001-2500 TL, 6.6% is between 2501-3000 TL, 3.9% is between 3001-3500, 5.2% is 3501 TL and above.

When the program of study of the participants is taken into consideration: 34.4% of them study Banking and Insurance, 25.2% study Office Management, 24.6% Management, 15.7% Foreign Trade.

The 82.6% of the participants are in the first class, 17.4% are in the second class, and 75.4% of the participants are at the first education, and 24.6% of them are at the secon (evening) education.

Table 2. The Spread According To The Frequency Of Hair Wash

Frequency of hair washing	Frequency	Percentage
Every Day	115	37.7
Once in two days	170	55.7
Twice a week	12	3.9
Once a week	5	1.6
Twice a month	3	1.0
Total	305	100.0

Table 2 shows how often the participants wash their hair. 37.7% wash their hair every day, 55.7% once in two days, 3.9% twice a week, 1.6% once a week, 1% twice a month. 94.4% of the participants wash their hair every day or every other day. This rate is an important data to indicate the shampoo usage and what brands are preferred.

Table 3. The Rrate Of The Gender To The Answer To The Question "What Is The First Shampoo Brand That You Can Think Of?"

Shampoo Brands	Male		Female		Total Frequency	Column %
	Frequency	Column %	Frequency	Column %		
Elidor	**20**	**17.7**	**77**	**40.1**	97	31.8
Head&Shoulders	**26**	**23.01**	**20**	**10.42**	46	15.1
Pantene	8	7.08	**35**	**18.23**	43	14.1
Clear	**34**	**30.09**	7	3.65	41	13.4
Blendax	3	2.65	16	8.33	19	6.2
Loreal Elseve	3	2.65	13	6.77	16	5.2
Dove	4	3.54	8	4.17	12	3.9
Bioblas	3	2.65	7	3.65	10	3.3
Komili	3	2.65	0	0	3	1
Hacı Şakir	2	1.77	0	0	2	0.7
Biomen	1	0.88	1	0.52	2	0.7
APLUS	0	0	2	1.04	2	0.7
İpek	1	0.88	1	0.52	2	0.7
Duru	2	1.77	0	0	2	0.7
Wella	0	0	2	1.04	2	0.7
SYOSS	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.3
Avon	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.3
Say Shampoo	1	0.88	0	0	1	0.3
Gliss	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.3
Bioxin	1	0.88	0	0	1	0.3
Nivea	1	0.88	0	0	1	0.3
Total	113	100	192	100	305	100

Mann-Whitney U test is used to determine rate of the brand of the shampoo that the participants first remember. The result of the test p=0.016. According to this because p<0.05, there is a considerable difference between shampoo users. The test used for participants for the first shampoo brand that they can think of is applied according to age and income concepts but because of p<0.05 result there is no meaningful difference statistically.

In Table 3 the participants' answer for "What is the first shampoo brand that you can think of?" can be observed. 31.8% of the answer is Elidor, 15.1% is Head&Shoulders, 14.1% Pantene, 13.4% Clear, 6.2% Blendax, 5.2% Loreal Elseve, 3.9% Dove, 3.3% Bioblas, 1% Komili, 0.7% Wella, 0.7% İpek, 0.7% Hacı Şakir, 0.7% Duru, 0.7% Biomen, 0.7% APLUS, 0.3% SYOSS, 0.3%

Say Shampoo, 0.3% Nivea, 0.3% Gliss, 0.3% Bioxin, 0.3% Avon.

Approximately 75% of the participants answered the question by the order of their answer; Elidor, Head&shoulders, Pantene and Clear. As well as family, friend advice the most effective element that makes participants buy the product is TV commercials. Male participants' first brand is Clear, Head&shoulders, Elidor and Pantene. What effects male participants to buy the brands of Clear and Head&shoulders might be that Clear brand has a Clear Men brand and Burak Özçivit presents it on TV commercials, and Head&shoulders' presenter is Mehmet Günsür. Female participants' answer for the same question is Elidor, Pantene, Head&Shoulders and Blendax. The most effective element for female participants is that the brands of Elidor and Pantene make use of female TV commercials, have campaigns, and they present Meryem Uzerli, Serenay Sarıkaya, Bergüzar Korel, Hande Subaşı, Burcu Kara, Özge Özberk, Tuğba Büyüküstün on TV commercials, which might have an effect for remembering these brands at first.

Table 4. The Rate Of The Gender To The Answer To The Question "What Is The Other Shampoo Brand That You Can Think Of?"

Shampoo Brands	Frequencies	Percentages
Elidor	93	30.5
Pantene	64	21
Blendax	44	14.4
Clear	26	8.5
Head&Shoulders	21	6.9
Dove	12	3.9
İpek	10	3.3
Loreal Elseve	9	3
Hacı Şakir	8	2.6
Bioblas	5	1.6
Duru	3	1
Komili	3	1
Rejoice	2	0.7
Biomen	1	0.3
APLUS	1	0.3
Wella	1	0.3
Gliss	1	0.3
Bioxin	1	0.3
Total	**305**	**100.0**

In order to find out the differences between the participants the tests of Mann-Whitney U for gender and Kruskal Wallis test for age and income concepts are used. However at all levels $p>0.05$ rate resulted and because of that there is no meaningful difference. In Table 4 the results for the question of "What is the other shampoo brand that you can think of?" are shown. 30.5% of the answers is Elidor, 21% is Pantene, 14.4% is Blendax, 8.5% is Clear, 6.9% is Head&shoulders, 3.9% is Dove, 3.3% İpek, 3% Loreal Elseve, 2.6% Hacı Şakir, 1.6% Bioblas, 1% Duru, 1% Komili, 0.7% Rejoice, 0.3% Biomen, 0.3% APLUS, 0.3% Wella, 0.3% Gliss, 0.3% Bioxin. The answer for the other shampoo brand is Elidor, Pantene, Blendax and Clear.

Table 5. The Gender Rate of Shampoo Brands That The Participants Use Regularly

Shampoo Brands	Male		Female		Total Frequency	Column %
	Frequency	Column %	Frequency	Column %		
Elidor	18	**15.93**	75	**39.06**	93	30.49
Head&Shoulders	29	**25.66**	19	**9.9**	48	15.74
Clear	35	**30.97**	6	3.13	41	13.44
Pantene	7	6.19	32	**16.67**	39	12.79
Bioblas	8	7.08	14	7.29	22	7.21
Blendax	3	2.65	15	7.81	18	5.9
Dove	4	3.54	9	4.69	13	4.26
Loreal Elseve	1	0.88	11	5.73	12	3.93
Hacı Şakir	2	1.77	0	0	2	0.66
APLUS	0	0	2	1.04	2	0.66
İpek	1	0.88	1	0.52	2	0.66
Duru	1	0.88	1	0.52	2	0.66
Wella	0	0	2	1.04	2	0.66
Bioxin	2	1.77	0	0	2	0.66
Rejoice	1	0.88	1	0.52	2	0.66
SYOSS	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.33
Biomen	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.33
Gliss	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.33
Komili	1	0.88	0	0	1	0.33
Dalin	0	0	1	0.52	1	0.33
Total	113	100	192	100	305	100

In order to find the difference according to the gender the participants' usage of shampoo brand answers resulted in $p=0.001$ by Mann-Whitney U test. So because the result is $p<0.05$ for the shampoo brand that the participants make use regularly there is a meaningful difference between male and female participants. According age and income concepts the participants are applied by

Kruskal Wallis test but at all levels the result is p>0.05. Thuse there is no statistical difference.

Table 5 shows the rate of regular shampoo usage; 30.5% is Elidor, 15.7% Head&shoulders, 3.4% Clear, 12.8% Pantene, 7.2% Bioblas, 5.9% Blendax, 4.3% Dove, 3.9% Loreal Elseve, 0.7% Hacı Şakir, 0.7% APLUS, 0.7% İpek, 0.7% Duru, 0.7% Wella, 0.7% Bioxin, 0.7% Rejoice, 0.3% SYOSS, 0.3% Biomen, 0.3% Gliss, 0.3% Komili, 0.3% Dailin. First two shampoo brand that the participants use is the same as the answer for "The shampoo brand that you first think". Male participants use Clear and Head&shoulders, the reason of which is that these brands' commercials for protecting hair and preventing dandruff. Famale choice of the shampoo brand is Elidor and Pantene, and the reason for this choice might be that these brands use a lot of hair care involving TV commercials alon with shine, and beauty concepts.

Table 6. The Rate Of The Participants' Reasons To Give Up Any Shampoo Brand

Reason to give up on brand	Frequency	Percentage
Hair loss	118	38.7
Dandruff	109	35.7
Desire to try a different brand	20	6.6
Difficulty in combing the hair	18	5.9
The new shampoo is better	18	5.9
Exoensive	14	4.6
Other	8	2.6
Total	**305**	**100**

Table 6 shows the reason for the participants to give up the shampoo brands. According to this; 38.7% of the participants' reason is that they lose hair, 35.7% of them for dandruff, 6.6% want to try a different brand, 5.9% think that it is difficult to comb their hair, 5.9% think the the new shampoo they use is better, 4.6% think it is expensive, 2.6% shows other reasons to give up on shampoo brands. 74.4% of the participants showed "unexpected and negative results" for giving up the brand.

Table 7. The Rate Of The Attitude Towards a Newly Released Shampoo Brand

Views	Frequency	Percentage
I do not buy	96	31.5
I might buy	84	27.5
No idea	77	25.2
I definitely buy and try	48	15.7
Total	**305**	**100**

Tablo 7 shows the rate of the attitude towards a newly released shampoo brand. 31.5% of the participants declare they will not buy it, 27.5% say they might buy it, 25.2% have no idea, 15.7% declared they definitely will buy and try it once. 31.5% of the participants are in total loyalty to the brand they use. 27.5% show less loyalty to their brand. 15.7% have no brand loyalty, 25.2% have no idea so their attitude is indefinite.

Table 8. The Rate Of The Answers To The Question Of "What Would You Do If You Could Not Find Your Regular Shampoo In The Place You Went To Buy One?"

Views	Frequency	Percentage
I insistently look for the brand I use, find it and buy it	187	61.3
I buy another brand I believe that it is approximately the same quality and and I wanted to try	92	30.2
I buy any	26	8.5
Total	**305**	**100**

Table 8 shows the rate of the answers to the question of "What would you do if you could not find your regular shampoo in the place you went to buy one?" 61.3% of the participants declare that they would be insistant to find the regular shampoo they use. 30.2% declare that they would buy the one that they think it is almost the same in quality and the one that they wanted to try. 8.5% say they would buy any brand. 61.3% of the participants seem to be loyal to the brand they use and would be insistant to look for and find the right brand for them. 30.2% have a partial loyalty and 8.5% have no loyalty whatsoever.

Table 9. The Rate Of The Answers To The Question "Would You Search In The Market For Other Brands When You Finish The One You Use And Want To Buy a New One?"

Views	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	61	20
No	140	45.9
Sometimes	104	34.1
Total	**305**	**100**

Table 9 shows the rate of the answer that the participants made for the question of "Would you search in the market for other brands when you finish the one you use and want to buy a new one?" While 20% of the participants declared they might make a search, 45.9% said they would not, and 34.1% said they might sometimes do it.

Table 10. The Rate Of The Answers For "What Affected You To Buy The Shampoo That You Use Regularly?

Advertisement tool	Frequency	Percentage
TV commercial	68	22.3
Friend advice	65	21.3
Family advice	57	18.7
Expert advice	53	17.4
Other	42	13.8
Newspaper, magazine add	8	2.6
Promotion at the purchase location	8	2.6
Internet add	4	1.3
Total	**305**	**100**

Table 10 shows the rate of the answers for "What affected you to buy the shampoo that you use regularly? 22.3% declared TV commercials affected them, 21.3%friend advice, 18.7% family advice, 17.4% expert advice, 13.8% other, 2.6% newpaper, magazine add, 2.6% promotion at the purchase location, 1.3% internet add.

40% of the participants said the got affected by their family and close friends when they are buying the shampoo. The best advertisement to buy a shampoo is TV commercials by 22.3%. While 17.4% of the participants trust expert advice, 13.4% of the said they have other reasons.

Table 11. Views Of The Participants On What Peculiarities They Take Into Consideration When Buying Shampoo

Thoughts/Views	Not important at all	Not important	Does not matter	Important	Very important	Average	Standard deviation
Cleans the hair well*	0.3	1	2.6	16.1	80	4.74	0.59
Appropriate for my hair type*	1.6	2.6	6.9	31.1	57.7	4.41	0.86
Nutritious for the hair*	2	0	9.8	26.2	62	4.46	0.83
Shines the hair*	2.3	4.3	13.1	30.2	50.2	4.22	0.98
Keeps the hair moist*	6.6	8.5	26.2	24.9	33.8	3.71	1.20
Protects the hair*	1.6	1.3	6.2	22.3	68.5	4.55	0.81
Softens the hair*	1.6	2.0	3.6	24.6	68.2	4.56	0.80
Smells nice*	2.0	2.3	6.2	17.4	72.1	4.55	0.86
Foams well	3.9	3.6	16.4	29.8	46.2	4.11	1.06
Well known brand	5.9	3.0	13.1	21.6	56.4	4.20	1.14
Prevents dandruff	0.7	1.0	3.6	16.7	78.0	4.70	0.65
Easy usage of package	16.1	9.5	30.8	21.0	22.6	3.25	1.34
Appropriate Price	10.5	7.5	16.7	33.1	32.1	3.69	1.28
Involves Natural products	3.9	4.3	12.1	28.2	51.5	4.19	1.06
Involves Hair cream	13.1	6.9	20.7	23.9	35.4	3.62	1.37
Easy to find	7.2	4.3	14.8	28.2	45.6	4.01	1.19
Well promoted	8.9	6.2	20.3	25.9	38.7	3.79	1.26
My Close friends use it	28.5	7.9	24.9	14.1	24.6	2.98	1.53

*** Because the outcome of Mann Whitney U test is p<0.05 there are meaningful differences between the groups.**

Table 11 shows about the views of the participants on what peculiarities they take into consideration when buying shampoo. For the "it cleans well" section; 0.3% of the participants said "not important at all", 1% said "not important", 2.6% sait "does not matter", 16.1% said "important" and 80% said "very important". For "appropriate for my hair type"; 1.6% said "not important at all", 2.6% said "not important", 6.9% said "does not matter", 31.1% said "important", 57.7% said "very important". For "nutricious for the hair" section the participants; 2% said "not important at all", 9.8% said "does not matter", 26.2% said "important", 62% said "very important. For "shines the hair": 2.3% said "not important at all", 4.3% "not important", 13.1% "does not matter", 30.2% "important", 50.2% "very important". For

"keeps the hair"; 6.6% "not important at all", % 8.5'i "not important", 26.2% "does not matter", 24.9% "important", 33.85% "very important". For "Protects the hair"; 1.6% "not important at all", 1.3% "not important", 6.2% "does not matter", 22.3% "important", 68.5% "very important". For "softens the hair" 1.6%; "not important at all", 2% "not important", 3.6% "does not matter", 24.6% "important" 68.2% "very important". For "smells nice" 2% "not important at all", 2.3% "not important", 6.2% "does not matter", 7.4% "important", 72.1% "very important". For "foams well" 3.9% "not important at all", 3.6% "not important", 16.4% "does not matter", 29.8% "important", 46.2% "very important". For "well nown brand" 5.9% "not important at all", 3% "not important", 13.1% "does not matter", 21.6% "important", 56.4% "very important". For "prevents dandruff"; 0.7% "not important at all", 1% "not important", 3.6% "does not matter", 16.7% "important", 78% "very important. For "easy usage of package"; 16.1% "not important at all", 9.5% "not important", 30.8% "does not matter", 21% "important", 22.6% "very important". For "appropriate price"; 10.5% "not important at all", 7.5% "not important", 16.7% "does not matter", 33.1% "important", 32.1% "very important. For "involves natural products" 3.9% "not important at all", 4.3% "not important", 12.1% "does not matter", 28.2% "important", 51.5% "very important". For "involves hair cream"; 13.1% "not important at all", 6.9% "not important", 20.7% "does not matter", 23.9% "important", 35.4% "very important". For "easy to find": 7.2% "not important at all", 4.3% "not important", 14.8% "does not matter", 28.2% "important", 45.6% "very important". For "well promoted"; 8.9% "not important at all", 6.2% "not important", 20.3% "does not matter", 25.9% "important", 38.7% "very important". For "my close friends use it"; 28.5% "not important at all", 7.9% "not important", 24.9% "does not matter", 14.1% "important", 24.6% "very important".

Participants' answers for what they think is important when buying a shampoo go like this: cleans hair, prevents dandruff, smells nice, protects hair and softens hair. Upon choosing the shampoo the elements such as cleaning hair, appropriate for hair type are common choices for both male and female participants. However, elements like nutricious for hair, shining hair, moisturizing hair, protecting hair, softening hair are chosen more by female participants as they are thought to be more important by female participant.

In terms of their gender; distribution range of the participants, considering the ideas that they take into account while buying shampoo, is tested by the Mann-Whitney U test. According to the test results, it has been observed to some opinions that it is $p<0.05$. Accordingly, for some other opinions, there have been differences in relation to statistics between men and women. The reason for that can be women participants agree on these ideas more than their men counterparts. In other words, it can cause from the fact that women -more than men- attach importance to such opinions. In terms of age and income; distribution range of the participants, considering the ideas that they take into account while buying shampoo, is tested by the Kruskal Wallis test; however, there has been found no meaningful difference in relation to statistics since it has been $p>0.05$ for all levels.

CONCLUSION

Without doubt, brand is necessary as it is a phenomenon which helps tell apart goods and services. Brand is also important concerning the preferences of the consumers. Consumers can differentiate the product and the services he/she uses from the others. In this study, the brand loyalty of the consumers is tried to be exemplified. The study group consists of students who are over 18 and doing their higher education. Questions related to the research topic brand loyalty are prepared and asked to the participants.

As 94 % of the participants of the research wash their hair twice a day, it makes up very significant data for the use of the shampoo. There is a parallelism between the shampoo brand participants use and the second shampoo brand they think of. Male participants prefers the brands which advertise or run campaign for men. It is observed that female participants prefer the brands which highlight women and products for women along with the traditional brands their families use and their friends recommend. While male participants prefer the brands which have preventing dandruff and anti-hair loss products, most of the female participants prefer the brands of shampoos which soften, gloss and moisturize the hair and smell good. Participants give up on the brand they use only on condition that they have a bad physical effect. A vast majority of the participants state that they do not use a new brand on the market and keep on using the brand the always use and show that they are loyal to that brand. Most of the participants have become familiar with the product via their family and friend recommends or commercials. The expectations of the participants from the brand or service they use is that it should fulfill its basic targets.

Brand is a notion which brings positive results both for the owner and the user. Consumers do not give up on the brand they know and use for a new one as long as it fulfills the expected functions. Brand, thus, creates both physical and psychological addiction.

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MARKA BAĞIMLILIĞI ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Özet: Bu çalışmada marka bağımlılığına ilişkin örnek tüketici kitlesi üzerinde şampuan markaları tercihleri ortaya konmaya çalışılmıştır. Çalışmanın amacı seçilen tüketici kitlesinin kullandıkları markaya olan bağımlılıklarını ve hangi koşullar altında bu bağımlılıktan vazgeçebildiklerini ortaya koyabilmektir. Örnek tüketici kitlesi olarak yükseköğrenim çağındaki öğrenciler seçilmiş ve araştırma birincil verilere dayalı olarak şampuan kullanımı anketi yardımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırma kapsamında 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılında 305 kişiden anket yöntemiyle veriler elde edilmiştir. Anket, 5'li Likert ölçeğinde olan 18 görüş ve toplam 10 sorudan oluşmuştur. Araştırmada güvenirlik testi, Kolmogorov-Simirnov normal dağılım testi, Mann-Whitney U ve Kruskal Wallis testleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Anket katılımcıları olan dört programda kayıtlı 1489 öğrencisi bulunan meslek yüksekokulunun öğrencilerine toplam 400 adet anket dağıtılmış; ancak bunların içinde yapılan inceleme sonucu kısmen ya da eksik doldurulanları araştırma dışı bırakılarak kalan 305 adet anket değerlendirmeye uygun oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Değerlendirmeye alınan değişkenlerden cinsiyet, aile tavsiyesi, doktor tavsiyesi ve reklam kampanyalarının, kampanyalarda ünlü kişilerin yer alması ile marka bağımlılığı arasında istatistiki açından önemli bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Mal ve hizmetlerde marka, marka bağımlılığı yaratma isteği günümüzde rekabetin artmasıyla daha şiddetli bir boyut kazanmıştır. Mal veya hizmetleri birbirinden ayırma ihtiyacı doğmuştur. Genel olarak marka hem üreticilerin hem de tüketicilerin mal ve hizmetleri diğer mal ve hizmetlerden ayırmak için kullanılmaktadır. Fakat bu neden zamanla tüketicileri kendilerini marka ile ifade eder, özdeşleştirir durumuna getirmiştir. Marka ile kendini özdeşleştirme düşüncesi giderek tüketicileri markaya bağlayarak marka bağımlısı haline dönüştürmüştür. Marka bağımlılığı yaratmada üreticilerin payı da büyüktür. Üreticiler markaları için kısa kelimeler ve herkesin dikkatini çekebilecek semboller kullanmaktadırlar. Markayla ürün ve hizmetini diğerlerinden farklılaştıran üreticiler markalarını öne çıkarmak için farkındalık yaratmaya çalışmışlardır. Böylelikle markaya bir kişilik yaratan üreticiler tüketici ile arasında bir duygusal bağın oluşumuna yol açmışlardır. Marka sahibi üretici marka bağımlılığını arttırabilmek için pazarı bölümlendirerek her pazara ayrı bir bağ yaratmaktadır. Üreticiler bunun için yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim, şehir, ülke gibi kriterler kullanmaktadırlar. Üreticiler çeşitli reklam kanallarıyla, yaptıkları kampanyalarla ve global ünlü kişilerle markaya aşinalık kazandırmaktadırlar. Markayı kullanan tüketici markayı kullandıkça ve ondan hem fiziksel açıdan hem de sosyal açıdan memnun kaldıkça sadakati yani markaya olan bağımlılığı artmıştır. Bu çalışmada da şampuan kullanımı ile şampuan markaları arasında bir bağımlılık tespit edilmiştir. Şampuan üreticileri reklamlarında bayan ve erkek ünlüleri rol vererek pazar bölümlerinde farklı bağımlılık yaratmaktadırlar. Bu reklamlarda kullanılan ünlülerin kendi markalarını kullandıkları ve memnun kaldıkları imajı verilmektedir. Tarafımızca yapılan bu araştırmada da reklamlarında daha çok bayan ünlüleri kullanarak ve bayanlara yönelik saç kremi, saç yumuşatıcı, saç parlaklığı gibi ekstra katkılar sağlayan ürünler sunan şampuan markaları bayan katılımcılar tarafından daha fazla tercih edildiği gözlemlenmiştir. Bayan katılımcıların bir şampuan markasında aradığı özellikler daha çok saça bakım yapan ekstra katkı sağlayan istekler olduğu görülmüştür. Erkek katılımcıların ise daha çok erkek ünlüleri kullanarak kampanyalarını yürüten şampuan markalarını daha fazla kullandığı görülmüştür. Erkek katılımcılar daha çok şampuan için kepek yapmamasını, saçları dökmemesini önemli görürken, bayan katılımcıların daha çok saça parlaklık veren, güzel kokan, saça bakım yapan şampuan markalarını tercih ettiği anlaşılmıştır. Araştırma katılımcılarının çoğu kullandıkları şampuan markası bittiğinde mutlaka aynı şampuan markasını ne olursa olsun arayıp bulacaklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu nedenle de, başka bir şampuan markasını kullanmayacaklarını belirten

katılımcıların marka bağımlılıklarının yüksek düzeyde olduğu söylenebilir. Katılımcılar kullandıkları şampuan markalarıyla kendilerini özdeşleştirmişlerdir. Bu özdeşleştirme markanın kullanıcılarında pozitif korelasyona neden olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Marka kullanıcı kullandığı markadan tatmin olduğu sürece bu korelasyon devam etmektedir. Araştırma katılımcıları kullandıkları şampuan markalarında yalnızca beklenmedik kötü sonuçlarla karşılaştıklarında vazgeçeceklerini ortaya koymuşlardır. Beklenmedik kötü etkiler bağımlılık duygusunu insan psikolojisi gereği nefrete dönüştürebilmektedir. Bunun sonucunda daha önce markaya bağımlı olan kullanıcı markayı kötüler duruma gelmektedir. Marka ile kullanıcı arasında memnuniyet ilişkisi devam ettiği sürece bağımlılık ilişkisinin de devam edeceği, beklenmedik kötü sonuçlarla birlikte ise bağımlılığın nefrete dönüşebileceği ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu yüzden kullandığı markayı fiziksel ve sosyal bir tatmin aracı olarak gören kullanıcı ile marka sahibi arasında karşılıklı çıkar ilişkisinin belli bir dengede olması gerekmektedir.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Marka, Marka Bağımlılığı

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THE IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN HEALTHCARE MANAGEMENT

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Abstract: Healthcare Sector which has a complicated system even in the simplest term is getting more complicated through handling it in a national level and in a worldwide dimension. At this point, it is getting harder to manage this complication in a managerial sense. With the developments in international dimension, healthcare management sector which is no more an ordinary service sector cannot stand idle by these developments and day by day it has gained a more professional structure. Terms such as patient rights, quality, internal and external customer satisfaction, strategic management and leadership have been in the focal point of modern-day healthcare management, and health institutions which keep up with the times need professional managers which are competent in work and have features of strategic management and leadership.

***Key Words*:** Healthcare Management, Strategic Management, Strategic Leadership

1. INTRODUCTION

Serious troubles have caused in terms of management in health sector because of extreme workload in healthcare, over competition in health sector, lack of available staff who has different qualifications from each other but works within the scope of mutual attachment; the necessity of following up developing technology in this sector in order to give more qualified service and –above all- the fact that all services done are related to human health. For this reason, providing services in health institutions working in an utmost complicated system continuously can only be possible with both managing strategically health institutions in an effective way and team-work in which the managers of institution will create in focus strategic leadership qualifications.

Objective: The objective of the study is to find out the necessity that health institutions which are at the focal point of individual and social development should be managed by managers having strategic leadership qualifications, and to bring forward solution proposals about this issue.

Scope: National and international literature studies, conducted within the scope of strategic management and leadership about the management of health institutions create the scope of this article, and the analysis of academic information related to

the subject in this scope has been presented to readers.

Method: Literature review was made and information acquired by probing scientific works related to the issue was analyzed and interpreted from the point of scientific view.

Research Questions: The research tries to answer these two questions: What is the significance level of common strategic management and private strategic leadership concepts for managers of health institutions in the healthcare system of Turkey which is a sub-sector of international healthcare sector in modern world, and international health system? What are the systemic and scientific works conducted about this issue and what should be done?

Theoretical Framework and Limitations: Management, Strategic Management, Leader and Strategic Leadership concepts were primarily discussed in the study, and then Strategic Leadership Concept was studied in details. In part four, studies conducted about the importance of Strategic Leadership in Healthcare Management were presented through analysis. In the conclusion part, suggestions, solution proposals were presented for national and international health system focusing on healthcare management.

2. CONCEPTS

According to Ülgen and Mirze (2010), strategic management is a term which expresses a more clear expansion of business management due to the intra-word 'management'. However, strategic management is not concerned with the management of daily and ordinary works of business, but concerned with the management of works which can make possible for the business to continue its operations in the long term and can provide the business with a competitive advantage and much return than average profit. On the other hand, the term 'leadership' is described as a concept which existed since human beings have lived together and whose beginning goes back a long way in terms of historical process (Bakan, 2008). For this very reason, the answers to the questions - 'What is leadership?' and 'What are the kinds of leadership? – are at least as many as the number of people asking these questions (Stogdill, 1974). Further to this, there are still lots of unknown things about leadership although thousands of studies conducted about leadership give important information about what leadership is or not. (Ivancevich ve Matteson, 2002).

Healthcare sector has been in a period of change devoted to improvement in both our country, other developed and developing world-countries. In particular the rise of expectation for competition in this sector and for health quality has revived the issue of autonomizing and discommoning even public hospitals in our country, and autonomy in terms of managerial was provided to public hospitals by founding Association of Public Hospitals with the statutory decree about the organization and functions of the Ministry of Health and subsidiaries on 11 October 2011. These works show that strategic management and leadership concept are indispensable factors of specially healthcare management. Because it is known that leader behaviors of managers in charge of health institutions, which provide people with job and where people endeavor too much, have clear influence on job satisfaction

of workers and on organizational commitment (Güldaş, 2009).

2.1. Manager Concept

According to Koçel (2011) we can describe 'Management' as an occupation and 'Manager' as the person who does it. In other words, it is an occupation of reaching their goals of business units by using fund of accrued knowledge in management domain, working with others and transacting business via these. If we define 'manager' concept according to open system and contingency approaches, manager is a person whoever gathers factors of material and humane production canorously in order to achieve certain objectives in period of time and under variable ambient conditions (Eren, 2011). Operations done in an organization can be big or small. There are managerial levels from the bottom level (operational level) to the upper level (strategic planning level) in business firm. Thereby, managers are not the ones who just conduct important and big works. Hence, managers at each level, including human beings are responsible for making the business achieve needed and intended goals by utilizing available sources efficiently and productively (Ülgen ve Mirze, 2010). Based on these definitions we can say that manager is a basic humanistic element who neatly implements operations (at the same time who also takes responsibility) towards organizational goals by applying available rules thanks to the authorization given to him or her legally (Güney, 2007). According to Ülker (1997), the qualifications which a manager should have are listed as follows:

The manager is;

- who manages
- who maintains order
- who is a protector
- who is system and organizastion-centered
- who is prone to control
- who has tunnel vision
- who cares about 'how and when' questions
- who has vision about sub-managerial stages
- who is prone to accept available situations
- who transacts in compliance with permanent norms
- who does his job systematically

2.2. Leader Concept

One of the basic concepts of post-modern and contemporary approaches is 'leader concept'. The concepts such as organizational overcast structure, applications of empowerment, organization within teamwork (group) and acquired authority brought 'leader concept' to forefront instead of 'manager' who uses formal authority virtually based on the position (Koçel, 2011). The word 'leadership' frequently used in the last two centuries took part in world literature in 14th century (Stogdill, 1974). Although lots of studies have been conducted about leadership and especially leader concept, they are the concepts which mankind barely build consensus about their definition and content (Ergen, 2011). For this reason, researchers' definitions of the leader by considering different variances through their personal point of view and interests caused lots of definitions in literature.

Leader is defined in three different meanings in the dictionary of Turkish Language Association. The first meaning is pioneer, commander; the second meaning is someone who is in charge of top management of a party or institution; and the third one is a team or person who takes the lead in a contest (TLA, 2014). According to Koçel (2011), leader is the one who motivates others to behave in accordance with certain goals and influence them. In another word, leader is the one who a group of people follow in order to achieve their personal and group objective, and whose desire, command and instructions lead those people. According to Barlı (2010), the qualifications and features a leader should have are sorted below:

- Being charismatic
- Having vision and mission
- Being strong in all respects
- Being enterprising, innovator and creative
- Being ambitious and spirited
- Being able to communicate effectively
- Being positive
- Being faithful
- Having the ability of rhetoric and persuasion
- Trusting and being reliable
- Having general knowledge
- Being brave, patient and calm
- Being determined and consistent
- Being humble and tolerant
- Not repeating mistakes and learning from experiences
- Making the right decisions
- Being neat in private life and respectful

2.3. The Differences between Manager and Leader

The concepts of manager and leader are two important concepts of management domain which are muddled up with each other, are used interchangeably, but not the same as each other.

According to Kotter (1999) management and leadership are a system of two separate and component actions. Each of them has distinctive function and characteristic engagements. In today's competitive and active business climate both of them are necessary for success.

Management is related to an organization's continuation and its hierarchical structure, and within the scope of this concept it fulfills functions such as planning, organizing, coordinating, orientating-guiding and controlling. On the other hand, leadership is related to getting into the act and acceleration of change (Drafke and Kossen, 1998).

While leaders are the ones who are pioneers of big plans and have ideas, managers are the ones who apply these plans. In another word, manager is the one who carries out the vision of a leader (Ülgen and Mirze, 2010).

Kotter (1999) points out that management is to cope with complexity, and leadership is to adopt

a personal and effective attitude which is goal-oriented while linking leadership with handling the change and stating that managers are non-personal and passive about goals.

According to Yukl (1989), one person can be a leader without being a manager and one person who is not a manager can be a leader, too.

The differences between manager and leader can be summarized as seen in the table below when literature search is done about the issue (Güldaş, 2009).

Table 1. Differences Between Leader And Manager

The manager applies	The leader innovates.
The manager maintains continuity	The leader develops.
The manager is based on regularity.	The leader is based on persons.
The manager relies on supervision.	The leader relies on persons.
The manager does the works right.	The leader does the right works.
The manager preserves.	The leader develops.
The manager imitates.	The leader brings the new out.
The manager asks 'how' and 'when' questions.	The leaders asks 'what' and 'why' questions.
The manager tends to adopt non-personal managerial goals.	The leader tends to adopt persons and active situations.
The manager uses his works as integration process of human and material sources.	The leader improves people' ideas about possibility and necessity.
The manager uses tactics such as agreement, punishment or rewarding.	The leader reveals new moral values and creates special desire and goals via commands the leader gives.
The manager acts through incentives to protect what exists, and stays away from taking risk.	The leader prefers to create ambition at work, and keep opportunities and awards at high level.

Reference: Güldaş, 2009

3. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

The word 'strategy' etymologically comprises of the combination of two old Greek words as root and prefix. It derived from the word 'stratos' which means a spread army or a large community, and the suffix 'egy' in this word means 'direct' (Adair, 2002).

According to Turkish Language Association (2014), the word 'strategy' whose meaning is 'izlem' in Turkish came from French into Turkish and has been used in social sciences since 1970s. In the dictionary of Turkish Language Association (2014), the word 'strategy' means the science and art of using politic, economic, psychological and military powers concomitantly for the purpose of supporting policies adopted of a nation or a community of nations in peace and war time. At the same time, the word strategy which has been

used as a military term for centuries is defined in Webster's New International Dictionary (2014) as follows: the science and art of military command exercised to meet the enemy in combat under advantageous conditions.

According to all these definitions, strategy comprehends precautions and regulations taken to achieve objectives in general. In this context, strategy can be interpreted as the way which all organizations will follow in order to maintain its existence and increase efficiency (Güçlü, 2003).

The basic duty of a leader is to create strategies in order to carry out the mission or basic goal of business by specifying them. The strategic, an important factor in succeeding in fulfilling strategies, is the person who can make strategic changes via his abilities of vision, anticipation, being flexible and impowering other followers (Ülgen ve Mirze, 2010).

In order to understand the concept of strategic leadership better, the differences between it and leadership should be presented clearly. The duties laid on the leadership concept differ according to available hierarchal levels in especially big organizations. For instance, strategic leadership dominates in the top levels of organization, organizational leadership dominates in the medium levels, and apprehension of leadership focusing on production and action dominates in the bottom levels of organization. In this dispersion leaders in the top level are responsible for determining strategic tendency and vision of organization within the scope of global strategic environment. Not only analytical thinking is needed for leaders in this strategic level, but also creative thinking manners to develop the vision and mission of organization at the same time are needed (Industrial College of the Armed Force, 2002).

Strategic leadership which is one of the important components of strategic management process is defined as abilities of divination, creating vision, providing flexibility, thinking strategically and working with others in order to initiate changes which will provide a feasible future for organization (Uğuroğlu and Çelik, 2009).

Ireland and Hitt (2005) define strategic leadership as a person's ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organization. On the other hand, Rowe (2001) defines strategic leadership as the ability to influence other to voluntarily make day-to-day decisions that enhance the long term viability of the organization while at the same time maintaining its short term financial stability.

In general terms strategic leadership is concerned with all people taking on all responsibility of organization ; it is also concerned with people such as top executives, dominant coalitions inside the organization, board members and general managers of departments (Boal and Hooijberg, 200; Hitt et al., 2007).

3.1. The Emergence of Strategic Leadership

When situations which businesses faced in 1960s and 1970s are considered as the key determinant of managerial behaviors and organizational outcomes, the studies about leadership have shown a change from managerial leadership studies to strategic leadership studies since the middle of 1980s; and hence, it has shown a change towards top

executives (Ireland and Hitt, 2005; Yukl, 2002). The first marks of this change can be seen in Upper Echelon Theory by Hambrick and mason (1984). Thereby, the theory of strategic leadership derived from upper echelon theory and developed (Vera and Crossan, 2004).

Strategic leadership theory considered organizations as a reflection of specially CEOs (Chief Executive Officer) and many CEOs accepted strategic leadership responsibilities on their own. The basic duty of CEOs as the strategic leaders of organizations is to choose a vision for their organizations and to provide necessary conditions to be able to reach this vision. In particular when these choices end up with success, strategic leaders in the key position are declared as 'hero' in companies they work for (Uğurluoglu, 2009).

In 21st century global and big rivals took the place of local and small rivals on the basis of companies with the influence of globalization; sense of competition changed. And hence, strategic leadership's perception and practices changed by being out of control of only one person about the issue of determining the future plan and vision of organization. In table 2, as a statement of these changes, the strategic leadership practices of 20th and 21st centuries can be seen (Ireland and Hitt, 2005; Uğurluoglu, 2009).

Table 2. Strategic Leadership Practices

20th Century Practices	21st Century Practices
Outcome focused	Outcome and process focused
Stoic and confident	Confident, but without hubris
Sought to acquire knowledge	Seeks to acquire and leverage knowledge
Guided people's creativity	Seeks to release and nurture people's creativity
Work flows determined by hierarchy	Work flows influenced by relationships
Articulated the importance of integrity	Demonstrates the importance of integrity by actions
Demanded respect	Willing to earn respect
Tolerated diversity	Seeks diversity
Reacted to environmental change	Acts to anticipate environmental change
Served as the great leader	Serves as the leader and as a great group member
Views employees as a resource	Views organizational personnel as a critical resource
Operated primarily through a domestic mindset	Operates primarily through a global mindset
Invested in employees' development	Invests significantly in personnel's continuous development

Reference: Ireland & Hitt, 2005: 63-74

3.2. The Role of Strategic Leadership Concept in Strategic Management Process

The foremost one of answers to the question 'Why are some organizations more successful than others?' which is one of the key questions in strategic management process is the scope of

strategic leadership practised (Hitt and Ireland, 2002). The effectiveness of strategic leadership which has an important role in strategic management process will increase the businesses' power of competing strategically and raise notably their returns. As is seen in the figure below, strategic leadership and strategic management process:

Figure 1. Strategic Leadership and Strategic Management Process



Reference: Hıtt, Hopkinsson & Ireland, 2007

As is seen in Figure 1, organizations can take advantage of strategic management process successfully by means of effective strategic leadership. Senior executives as strategic leaders have to guide organization towards creating vision and mission in businesses. Thereafter, strategic leaders have to ease progress of appropriate strategic operations and to know how to practise these strategic leadership operations. These actions are ended up with strategic competitiveness and profit above the average by strategic leaders (Uğurluoglu, 2009).

According to Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) there are two basic differences between leadership and strategic leadership. The first one: as strategic leadership is related to people in the top position of organization; leadership is related to each leader position at all levels of organization. The second one: as leadership generally focuses on the relation between leader and followers; strategic leadership is in a much more macro-dimension and it is not only related to these relations but also focuses on these strategic operations at the same time.

Ülgen and Mirze (2010) also consider strategic leadership as one of soft factors, related to 'human being', of strategic management, and give it an important role in strategic management process. According to the writers, the four key behavior patterns in preparing strategies and managers are as follows:

Chief Strategist Approach: Managers feature in creating strategies related to their own departments or institutions. They take part in strategic management process all along the line individually and they become the chief architect of strategies or practices which somehow come up.

Delegation of Authority Approach: Managers in this approach delegate works about creating or preparing strategies to strategic planning departments or committee which they generally found or make it founded.

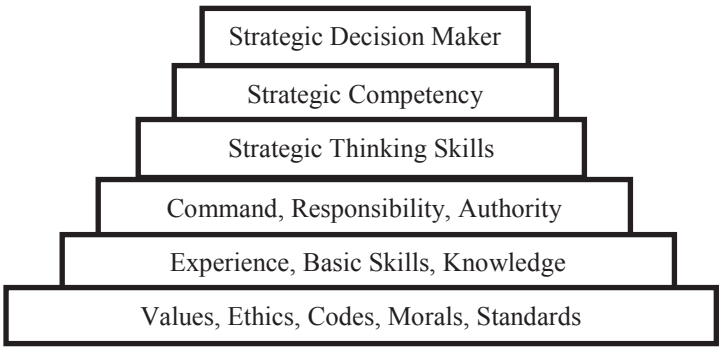
Collective Approach: In this approach which is a midway, managers involve subordinate officers who are in charge of key position in preparing and carrying out strategies.

Approach of Encouragement and Selection for Authentic and Creative Strategies: In this approach, manger or strategist never deals with creating or preparing strategies. By encouraging subordinate officers or people having a logical idea about this issue, authentic and creative strategies of them are unveiled. In other words, strategies are prepared through an approach from bottom levels to upper levels.

3.3. Qualifications of an Effective Strategic Leader

There are lots of opinions which are different from each other but have similar meanings about the qualifications an efficient leader should have and the operations needed to be 63 carried out by a leader in literature (Uğurluoglu, 2009). According to Guillot (2003) the anatomy of an efficient strategic leader is seen in the Figure 2.

Figure 2. The Anatomy Of An Efficient Strategic Leader



Reference: Guillot, 2003: 67-75

As is seen in Figure 2 above, Guillot (2003) suggested the qualifications a strategic leader should have by creating a pyramidal figure of a strategic leader's anatomy. According to the author, human being cannot be born as a strategic leader but becomes a strategic leader. In a sense, no one can start in the top position of the pyramid. As to this, strategic leadership begins with organizational values, standards and ethics. On these basics, the manager develops specialist knowledge by depending on experiences and basic skills. At this stage, continuing training can accelerate this progress by influencing. At the next stage, the manager is charged with responsibility and authority. Thereafter, training to improve strategic thinking skills will develop the manager's abilities. At this point, an opportunity of working with a strategic leader is very crucial in terms of strategic abilities' progress. Lastly, the manager will take part in strategic thinking process and become a strategic leader (Ugurluoglu, 2009).

According to Swayne et al. (2006), the qualifications a strategic leader should have have been sorted below. A strategic leader:

- Creates an enthusing vision and explains it.
- Makes personnel who have different experiences from all levels of the organization take part in strategic management processes.
- Manages tomorrow rather than today.
- Allocates time for his/her personnel, tries to understand their problems and talks to them regularly.
- Tolerates mistakes of personnel, because innovations wished to be done in the processes of productions, services and management can only be possible when personnel takes risk and sometimes makes mistake in order to accomplish.
- Coaches new leaders in each level of the organization, and encourage his followers to guide the organization and to motivate personnel.
- Relies on other followers in the organization in order to make the best decisions instead of probing thoroughly every work.

- Gives time for works to be conducted.
- Becomes a model with his or her behaviors.
- Supports personnel to solve problems

An efficient strategic leader has the ability to influence emotions, thoughts and behaviors of people he or she works with (Gardner, 1995). In consideration of all these definitions, the qualifications a strategic leader should have can be described by means of the figure below (Hitt et al., 1999; Ülgen and Mirze, 2010).

Figure 3. The Qualifications Of An Efficient Strategic Leader



Reference: Hıtt, Ireland & Hopkinsson, 2007

As is understood from the related literature stated so far, there are lots of opinions which have almost the same meanings about the qualifications a strategic leadership should have. All these strategic leader qualifications are classified below by Ireland and Hitt (2005):

- to develop and communicate a vision
- to reveal the basic skills of the organization and to maintain them.
- to develop human capital
- to build and maintain an efficient organizational culture and
- to engage in ethical practices

- to develop and implement balanced organizational controls

4. THE IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN HEALTHCARE MANAGEMENT

Healthcare sector has been maintaining its functionality in a complex system in both national and international dimensions, and handling this situation in a global level has made healthcare delivery defective. Health sector which is the leading one of the biggest industries among global industries inherently faces much harder difficulties (Hartman and Crow, 2002).

Political, technological and legal changes related to health sector have a very quick influence on health institutions which provide healthcare, and sometimes all health system can be changed completely. The most current and stunning example to be given for this is Transition Program in Health System, in Turkish Health System which has been prosecuted since 2003 when it started. As the Ministry of Health stated in 2010, the statutory decree about the organization and functions of the Ministry of Health and subsidiaries on 11 October 2011 came into force by being published in Official Gazette on 2 November 2011 within the scope of Transition Program in Health System in which fundamental changes from service delivery to finance and from human capital to information system were made. Thanks to this statutory decree, the organizational structure of the Ministry of Health of Turkish Republic which is the main service provider in healthcare and the regime and status of especially public hospitals in this structure have changed completely (Official Gazette of Turkish Republic, 2011). Hence, quick and continuing changes in global health sector which have been faced for years made the strategic management of health institutions difficult (Shultz, 2004).

According to Swayne et al. (2006), leadership is an inevitable necessity to be able to cope with these quick, complicated and constant changes in health sector. In such a complex system if health institutions want to be successful, they should have leaders who can understand the nature of external environment, can build effective strategies which can cope with change and can manage work-flow of organization actively. The usage of strategic management approach in health institutions started 20-30 years ago.

According to Zuckerman (2000), strategic planning which provides a health institution with making more efficient and viable decisions -which can help it find its way and determine its objectives-, helping it see the future better and suggest the demands of innovation and change has become a common management tool used in healthcare industry in recent years. Health institutions in health sector, which is especially in the process of reconstruction with reform acts, in which the competition concept is getting more and more increased, have to find the ways of competition. However, at this point, what kinds of strategies business companies should follow up depends on having a strong management in the strategic meaning (Luke et al., 2000). Health sector had a predictable external environment until 1960s. In the period starting after 1970 and existing since then, the strategic analysis of external environment in which it occurs and which can be called 'unsteady and complicated' has a great

importance in managerial terms. In such changeable environments rigorous analyses, innovativeness, learning and creative strategies have taken primacy. Under these circumstances, strategic leadership in health institutions has become more important (Luke et al., 2000).

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The concepts of strategic management and leadership have become essential elements of healthcare management as a result of the increase of quality expectation and competition level in especially health sector with the globalization world. As it occurs in the other sectors, it is really hard to see or predict the future in health sector under today's variable, environmental conditions. Considering national and global dimension, it is seen that health institutions have been exposed to intensive change and that health institutions have been obliged to compete under variable and complicated environmental conditions and to seek for ways with the aim of making their service more effective, cheaper and qualified. Association of Public Hospitals which has started to work actively within the scope of Transition Program in Health System since late 2012 argues that not only private sector but also public health institutions will be affected from this competition, that they should attach more importance to quality, and that they should accept leadership concepts. In order to deal with the difficulties faced in health sector (globalization world, politic effects, excessive addiction to technology, importance of human capital, health's not accepting mistakes … etc) managers need to think strategically, have a vision, predict the future by considering today and manage human relations effectively under present conditions. In consequence of all these, present health institutions need strategic leaders to manage this change occurring in the sector. The study conducted by Uğurluoglu (2009) who studies about hospital managers also showed that hospitals which take advantage of the features of strategic leadership perceive themselves as more successful.

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SAĞLIK KURUMLARI YÖNETİMİNDE STRATEJİK LİDERLİĞİN ÖNEMİ

Özet: En basit haliyle bile karmaşık bir yapıya sahip olan sağlık hizmet sektörü; yerelden ulusala doğru gidildikçe ve küresel boyutta irdelendikçe daha da karmaşıklaşmakta, bu noktada yönetsel anlamda bu karmaşıklığı yönetebilmek daha da zorlaşmaktadır. Uluslararası boyutta yaşanan gelişmelerle birlikte sıradan bir hizmet sektörü olmanın dışına çıkan sağlık hizmetleri sektörünün yönetimi de bu gelişmelere kayıtsız kalamamakta ve her geçen gün daha da profesyonel bir hal almaktadır. Özellikle, reform çalışmalarıyla yeniden yapılandırma süreci içerisinde bulunan ve rekabet kavramının gün geçtikçe arttığı sağlık sektöründe; sağlık işletmeleri, rekabet etmenin yollarını bulmak zorundadır. Fakat bu noktada ne tür stratejilerin izlenmesi gerektiği, işletmenin stratejik anlamda güçlü bir yönetime sahip olmasına bağlıdır. 1960'lı yıllara kadar tahmin edilebilir bir dış çevreye sahip olan sağlık sektörünün; 1970 sonrasından başlayıp günümüze kadar devam eden süreçte, içerisinde bulunduğu çalkantılı ve karmaşık olarak nitelendirilebilecek dış çevrenin stratejik analizi, yönetsel açıdan büyük önem arz etmektedir. Böylesine değişken çevrelerde; dikkatli analizler, yenilikçilik, öğrenme ve yaratıcı stratejiler, öncelik kazanmaktadır. Bu koşullar altında, sağlık kurumlarında stratejik liderlik, daha da önemli hale gelmektedir. Hasta hakları, kalite, iç ve dış müşteri memnuniyeti, stratejik yönetim ve liderlik gibi kavramlar, günümüz sağlık kurumları yönetiminin odak noktasında bulunmakta ve yine çağa ayak uydurabilen sağlık kurumları; işinin ehli, stratejik yönetim ve liderlik özelliklerine sahip profesyonel yöneticilere ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Sağlık hizmetlerindeki aşırı işyükü, yine sağlık sektöründe rekabetin fazla olması; uzmanlaşmış, birbirinden farklı özelliklere sahip ama bir o kadar da karşılıklı bağımlılık çerçevesinde hareket eden personelin bulunması, kaliteli bir hizmet sunumu adına bu sektörde gelişen teknolojinin sürekli takip edilme zorunluluğu ve en önemlisi de yapılan faaliyetlerin insan sağlığı ile ilgili olması; yönetsel açıdan sağlık sektöründe ciddi sıkıntıları ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Bu sebepledir ki son derece karmaşık bir sistem dâhilinde hareket eden sağlık kurumlarında, işlerin optimum derecede sürekliliğinin sağlanması; hem sağlık kurumlarının stratejik olarak etkili bir biçimde yönetilmesiyle hem de kurum yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik becerileri odağında gerçekleştirecekleri takım çalışması ile mümkün olacaktır. **Amaç:** Çalışmanın amacı; kişisel ve toplumsal gelişimin odak noktasında yer alan sağlık kurumlarının, stratejik liderlik becerilerine sahip yöneticiler tarafından yönetilmeleri gerekliliğini bilimsel literatür ışığında ortaya koymak ve bu hususta çözüm önerileri geliştirmektir. **Kapsam:** Gerek ulusal ve gerekse uluslararası literatürde sağlık kurumları yönetiminde stratejik yönetim ve stratejik liderlik çerçevesinde yapılan çalışmalar, bu makalenin kapsamını oluşturmakta ve bu kapsamdaki konuyla ilgili akademik bilgiler, çözümlenerek okuyucuya sunulmaktadır. **Yöntem:** Çalışma yöntemi olarak literatür taraması yapılmış ve konuyla ilgili bilimsel çalışmalar irdelenerek elde edilen bilgiler, bilimsel bakış açısıyla çözümlenmiş ve yorumlanmıştır. **Araştırma Problemi:** Araştırma, şu problem cümlesi etrafında şekillenmektedir: Uluslararası sağlık sisteminde ve globalleşen dünyada uluslararası sağlık sektörünün bir alt sistemi olan Türkiye sağlık sisteminde, sağlık kurumları yöneticileri için genelde stratejik yönetim ve özelde stratejik liderlik kavramlarının önem derecesi nedir? Sistemsel ve bilimsel olarak konuyla ilgili yapılan çalışmalar nelerdir ve neler yapılması gerekmektedir? **Kurumsal Çerçeve ve Kısıtlar:** Araştırma metninde öncelikle kavramsal boyutta Yönetim, Stratejik Yönetim, Lider ve Stratejik Liderlik kavramları

ele alınmakta, daha sonra Stratejik Liderlik kavramı ayrıntılı olarak irdelenmektedir. Dördüncü bölümde ise Sağlık Kurumları Yönetiminde Stratejik Liderliğin Önemi üzerine yapılan çalışmalar çözümlenerek ortaya konulmaktadır. Sonuç ve öneriler kısmında ise, sağlık kurumları yönetimi odaklı ulusal ve uluslararası sağlık sistemine yönelik çözüm önerileri sunulmaktadır. **Sonuç:** Küreselleşen dünya ile birlikte özellikle sağlık sektöründeki kalite beklentisinin ve rekabet seviyesinin de artması neticesinde, stratejik yönetim ve liderlik kavramı, sağlık kurumları yönetimin vazgeçilmez unsurları olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Diğer sektörlerde olduğu gibi, sağlık sektöründe de geleceği görmek ya da tahmin edebilmek, günümüzün değişken çevresel şartları altında oldukça güçtür. Ülkesel ve küresel boyutta bakıldığında, sağlık sektörünün yoğun bir değişime maruz kaldığı ve bu değişimle birlikte sağlık kurumlarının, değişken ve karmaşık çevresel koşullar altında rekabet etmek ve sundukları hizmetleri daha etkili, daha ucuz ve daha kaliteli sunmanın yollarını araştırmak zorunda kaldıkları görülmektedir. Sağlıkta Dönüşüm programı Kapsamında 2012 yılı sonları itibariyle aktif olarak çalışmaya başlayan Kamu Hastane Birlikleri; artık sadece özel sektörün değil, kamu sağlık kuruluşlarının da bu rekabetten etkileneceklerini, kaliteye daha çok önem vermeleri gerektiğini ve stratejik yönetim ve liderlik kavramlarını benimsemeleri gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Günümüz şartlarında, sağlık sektöründe yaşanan güçlüklerle (küreselleşen dünya, siyasi etkiler, teknolojiye aşırı bağımlılık, insan gücünün önemi, sağlığın hata kabul etmeyişi, …) başa çıkabilmek için, yöneticilerin stratejik olarak düşünmeye, vizyon sahibi olmaya, bugünden yola çıkarak geleceği okuyabilmeye ve insan ilişkilerini etkili bir şekilde yürütmeye ihtiyaçları vardır. Bütün bunların neticesinde ise günümüz sağlık kurumları, sektörde yaşanan bu değişimin yönetilebilmesi adına, stratejik liderlere ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Hastane yöneticileri üzerinde çalışan Uğurluoğlu'nun (2009) yürütmüş olduğu çalışma da ortaya koymuştur ki; stratejik liderlik özelliklerini kullanan hastane yöneticileri, kendilerini daha başarılı olarak algılamaktadır.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Sağlık Kurumları Yönetimi, Stratejik Yönetim, Stratejik Liderlik

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COMPARISON OF RISK ASSESSMENT LEVELS OF HANDBALL COACHES IN TURKISH SUPER LEAGUE WITH CERTAIN DEMOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

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Abstract: This study is performed with the aim to compare risk assessment levels of handball coaches in Turkish Super League with certain demographical variables. "General survey method" is utilized in the study as one of the descriptive survey method. 49 coaches, who worked for the teams in Turkish Handball Super league, constituted population of the study; and 45 coaches that were selected randomly and working in different clubs constituted the sample group. Risk assessment scale of Gök (2006) and Çobanoğlu (2008) is used as data tool in the study. Significant differences among the risk assessment levels of coaches attending the study are found according to the variables of gender, age, education background ($p<0,05$). On the other hand, no significant difference is specified according to the variables of marital status and coaching duration ($p>0,05$).

Key Words: Risk, Risk Assessment, Handball

INTRODUCTION

The fact that the sports have become a growing industry, has highlighted the concepts of risk and risk management in the sport management. The protection of investments, athletes , workers and spectators from the identified risks in all the sporting activities from the small-scale recreational activities organized within the sporting events to the large -scale organizations such as the Olympics, is under the risk management in the sports (Aydin et al., 2013).

Although the term risk management is being very much pronounced in the recent years, the risk definition, risk assessment, risk control and risk financing which are the elements of risk management, are issues as old as mankind itself. The humankind has tried to assess and identify the hazards that damage him from time immemorial times and pose a threat to the existence of his family and goods. Therefore, the practical implementation of risk management is not so new. Every culture that has survived until today has applied and has been applying the elements

of risk management in practice (Emhan, 2009; Örge, 2010). Risk management in sports is the evaluation of the risk factors that may arise from the security auditing in any sport program (Appenzeller and Lewis, 2000). Basically, the risk management is required in order to reduce disability, death arising from the content of sports and recreation programs and services and the possible obligations that may arise later (Spengler et al., 2006).

The risk takes a place in the human mind as a concept consisting anxiety, fears that are pointing to the dangers and refers to events, the emergency of which are expected and likely to happen in future, even though not for certain. Hence the risk, besides the occurrence of an undesired event, is being described as an uncertainty of the events both with its way of formation and with its results (Willet, 1971). The quantity of the perceived risk depends on the individual because individuals identify and evaluate the potential risks according to their own perspective. The risk perception and the form of perception vary from person to person. Any situation that may be dangerous and risky for any person may not be risky for another person. Thus, the risk perception is the subjective evaluations of people about the importance and characteristics of the risk. In addition, according to the norms theory, besides the personal values, socio-demographic, socio-structural characteristics and religious beliefs also directly affect risk perception (Gursoy et al., 2008).

The process of risk assessment is thus: the risks are being assessed and analyzed to provide the basis for determining how should any determined risks be managed. In the process of risk assessment and analysis, both the possibility of the risk occurrence and its effect is taken into account (Küçükyılmaz, 2007). The main purpose of risk assessment is to protect the health and safety of the employees. For reducing the danger in the enterprises to keep working conditions healthy, is possible through minimizing these effects. Moreover, it is to estimate the magnitude of risk in the whole process and to take decisions whether it is possible to endure against the risks, or not. This means to help to have an awareness raised concerning the occupational diseases and accidents in the enterprises. In this way, more effective measures can be provided with regard to the detected danger and the damage it can cause. Thus, the mode of operation and the methods of production chosen with the present preventive measures, should raise the level of protection in terms of the health and safety of the employees and should be applied at all levels of the administrative structure of the workplace (Öktem, 2011).

This study was conducted in order to evaluate the risks perceived by the coaches at the Handball Super League clubs in Turkey and to compare the level of the risk assessment of the coaches according to some of the demographic variables.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In the survey "general screening model" has been used, which is one of the descriptive screening method. The population of the survey is consisted of 49 coaches, working with the Turkish Handball Super League teams, and its sampling is consisted of 45 coaches selected at random with a random method and working with Turkish Handball Super League clubs.

In the survey, as a data tool, was used the risk assessment scale in sport of Gök (2006) and Çobanoğlu (2008).The risk assessment scale, the items (1,11,12,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22 ,25,26, 28,29,30,31) available at the item pool were taken from the measurement device developed by Gök (2006), and the items (2,3,4, 5,6,7,8,9,10,13,23,24,27) available at the item pool were taken from the measurement device developed by Çobanoğlu (2008). As the result of the factor analysis performed on the data, the items (8,9,10,12,18,23,26,27) with low factor loadings or taking high load values from multiple factors have been excluded from the scale. As the result of a repeated factor analysis, it was observed that the total variance of the 23 items available on the scale, was stated to be 51,64 %. This value shows that the scale ensured the construct validity as is. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient on the reliability of the scale was found .921 respectively. These results are proving that the scores obtained from the scale are reliable. Data were analyzed with the help of a statistical software package. The numerical values obtained have been evaluated according to the significance level of p.05.

The answers of the coaches given to the risk assessment scale have been placed at the risk rating matrix and the risks were rated. The risk rating matrix provides the opportunity for identification, prioritization, and the management of the effects of the risks which are most critical for a program (10). Five rating scale ranges of the scale for correct interpretation of the data; very little level of risk (1.00-1.80), low risk (1.81-2.60), moderate risk (2.61-3.40), too risky (3:41 to 4:20),too much risk (4.21-5.00), respectively.

FINDINGS

Table 1: Distribution Of Coaches Related To The Demographic Variables

Variables		f	%
Gender	Male	33	73,3
	Female	12	26,7
	Total	45	100,0
Age	27-33	4	8,9
	34-40	12	26,7
	41-47	17	37,8
	48-54	5	11,1
	55 and over	7	15,6
	Total	45	100,0
Marital Status	Married	35	77,8
	Single	10	22,2
	Total	45	100,0
Education Status	High School	-	-
	University	36	80,0
	Postgraduate	9	20,0
	Total	45	100,0
Coaching Period	1-5	2	4,4
	6-10	12	26,7
	11-15	13	28,9
	16-20	10	22,2
	21 and over	8	17,8
	Total	45	100,0

When we look at the distribution of gender variable in Table 1, it is seen that 73.3 % are male and 26.7% are female coaches, when we look at the distribution of age variable, 8.9 % are between 27-33 years of age, 26.7 % are between the ages of 34-40, 37.8% aged between 41-47, 11.1 % are between the ages of 48-54, and 15.6% aged 55 and over, when we look at the distribution of marital status variable, 77,8 % are married and 22.2% are single, when we look at the distribution of educational status variable 80,0 % are university graduate, 20.0 % are of post graduate education, that there is no any coaches having an education at a high school level, when we look at the distribution of the variable of tenure, 4.4 % served between 1 to 5 years, 26.7 % between 6 to10 years, 28.9 % between 11 to 15 years, 22.2 % between 16 to 20 years, and 17.8 % served for 21 years and above as handball coaches.

Table 2: Results Of t Test Of The Independent Groups Conducted To Determine Whether The Risk Assessment Scale For Coaches Differs According To The Gender Variable

Gender	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Male	33	3,95	,44	43	2,443	,019
Female	12	3,55	,58			

As seen in Table 2, the difference between the scores of a risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the average values of the groups according to gender variable was found to be statistically significant (p<0,05). When the risk assessment scale according to the gender variable of the coaches is being placed on the risk assessment matrix as the result of the arithmetic mean, it is seen that its degree of impact is at a very risky level and the risk averages of the male coaches (x=3,95) is higher than the risk averages of the female coaches(x=3,55).

Table 3: Results Of One-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) Conducted To Determine Whether The Risk Assessment Scale For Coaches Differs According To The Age Variable

Age	N	X	SS	VK	KT	Sd	KO	F	p
27-33	4	3,72	,19	Inter-group	3,438	4	,860		
34-40	12	3,50	,56						
41-47	17	3,84	,39	Intra-	8,220	40	,206	4,183	,006
48-54	5	4,09	,51	group					
55 and over	7	4,32	,41	Total	11,658	44			
Total	45	3,84	,51						

As seen in Table 3, the difference between the scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the group averages according to the age variable, was found to be statistically significant (p<0.05).It was determined that this difference was between 34 to 40 years and 55 years or older. When the risk assessment scale according to the age variable of the coaches is being placed on the risk assessment matrix as the result of the arithmetic mean, it is seen that its degree of influence on the coaches is (x=3,72) between the ages 27-33, (x=3,50) between the ages 34-40, (x=3,84) between the ages 41-47 and (x=4,09) between the age range of 48-54, and its degree of influence on coaches between the age of 55 and older is risky at a very high level(x=4,32). The risk averages of coaches of 55 age on older, is higher than the risk averages of the coaches of other age groups.

Table 4: Results Of t Test Of The Independent Groups Conducted To Determine Whether The Risk Assessment Scale For Coaches Differs According To The Variable Of Marital Status

Marital Status	N	$\overline{X}$	SS	Sd	t	p
Married	35	3,83	,56	43	-,196	,845
Single	10	3,87	,27			

As seen in Table 4, the difference between the scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the group averages according to the e variable of marital status, was not found to be statistically significant (p>0,05). When the risk assessment scale according to the marital status variable of the coaches is being placed on the risk assessment matrix as the result of the arithmetic mean, it is seen that its degree of influence is at a very risky level. It is seen that the risk averages of single coaches (x=3,87) is higher than the risk averages of the married coaches(x=3,83).

Table 5: Results Of One-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) Conducted To Determine Whether The Risk Assessment Scale For Coaches Differs According To The Variable Of Educational Status

Educational Status	N	X	SS	VK	KT	Sd	KO	F	P
High School	-	-	-	Inter-Group	3,412	1	3,412	17,793	,000
University	36	3,98	,42	Intra-Group	8,246	43	,192		
Post Graduate	9	3,29	,47	Total	11,658	44			
Total	45	3,84	,51						

As seen in Table 5, the difference between the scores of a risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the average values of the groups according to variable of educational status was found to be statistically significant (p<0,05). When the risk assessment scale according to the variable of educational status of the coaches is being placed on the risk assessment matrix as the result of the arithmetic mean, it is seen that the degree of influence of the coaches having a university degree is at a very risky level (x=3,98), the degree of influence on the coaches having a postgraduate degree is at medium risky level (x=3,29), and the risk average of the coaches having a university degree is higher than the risk averages of the coaches having a postgraduate degree.

Table 6: Results of One-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) Conducted To Determine Whether The Risk Assessment Scale For Coaches Differs According To The Variable Of Coaching Period

Coaching period	N	X	SS	VK	KT	Sd	KO	F	p
1-5	2	3,82	,36	Inter group	2,030	4	,508		
6-10	12	3,95	,28					2,109	,98
11-15	13	3,57	,58	Intra-group	9,628	40	,241		
16-20	10	3,80	,64						
21 and over	8	4,17	,31	Total	11,658	44			
Total	45	3,84	,51						

As seen in Table 6, the difference between the scores of a risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the average values of the groups according to variable of coaching tenure was not found to be statistically significant (p>0,05). When the risk assessment scale according to the variable of coaching tenure is being placed on the risk assessment matrix as the result of the arithmetic mean, it is seen that its degree of influence is (x=3,82) for 1 to 5 year, (x=3,95) for 6 to 10 years, (x=3,57) for 11 to 15 years, ($\bar{x}$=3,80) for 16 to 20 years, and (x=4,17) for 21 years and over is at a very risky level, and the risk averages of the coaches with a tenure of 21 years and over is (x=4,17) is higher than the risk averages of the coaches with other coaching tenures.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

When we look at Table 2, the scores of a risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group and the average values of the groups was found to be statistically significant according to gender variable (p<0,05). The level of the average values of risk assessment of the male coaches (x=3,95) was found higher than the average values of risk assessment of the female coaches (x=3,55). Men and women are exposed to different risks during their lives, they perceive risks in different ways and find themselves in the risks in different ways. (Slovic,1992; Gustafson, 1997). In a study conducted by Byrnes and Miller (1999), it was observed that men were more willing than women to take risks. It is being considered that the reason of finding the scores of the risk assessment scale significant according to the gender variable, and finding the average of risk assessment level of the male coaches higher than that of the female coaches, is that the female coaches in the handball super league have an assisting coach status and that the female coaches take lesser risks compared to the male coaches and that their perceptions is effective to have this result.

In Table 3, the scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches were found to be statistically significant according to the age variable ($p<0.05$).It was found this difference to be between the ages of 34 to 40 and age of 55 and older coaches. It is seen that the average risk ($x=4,32$) of the coaches of age 55 and above is higher than the average risk of the other age groups. It can be said that our study is similar to the opinion of Keles (2011) that there was a statistically significant difference for the types of the perceived risks between the age groups; the opinion of Demirhan et al. (2004) that students, teachers and lecturers perceived lower risks, and the opinion of Alexander et al. (1990) that 'the young people cannot perceive the risks as much as adults'. As the result of our study, it is being considered that having significant scores in the risk assessment scale according to the variable of gender, is due to the young coaches who are not ready to assume risks, that there is an increase in the level of perceiving the risk factors as the coaches become older, that, compared to the young coaches, the 55 years old and older coaches perceive the anxiety, stress and risk brought about due to the competition environment of handball in a higher levels according to their experiences.

The scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group were not found significant according to the variable of marital status ($p>0,05$). It is seen that the risk averages of the single coaches ($x=3,87$) were found higher compared to the married coaches ($x=3,83$) (Table 4). Yao and Hanna (2005) found out that single men compared to married men, single women compared to married women had more risk tolerance. Single people have fewer responsibilities, so they can take more risks (Saraç and Kahyaoğlu, 2011). Having insignificant score of risk assessment scale of the coaches according to the variable of marital status, is being considered that the risk factors that may threaten the teams of the married and the single coaches and their levels of assessing the potential problems at their clubs, are similar.

The scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group, were found to be significant according to the variable of educational status ($p<0,05$). It is seen that the risk averages ($x=3,98$) of the coaches whose education level is a university degree, is higher than the risk averages ($x=3,29$) of the coaches whose educational level is a postgraduate degree (Table 5). According to Ceyhan (2008), the education affects how a person thinks and takes decision about any matter. Relying on the opinions of Soysal et al. (2011) that 'those with higher educational degrees have abilities such as to find solutions for the problems in a faster way compared to those with lesser educational degrees'; as the result of the research conducted by Dorak and Vurgun (2012), Kalkavan and Bektas (2012), Tatar et al. (2012), Yalcin et al.(2012) have identified a significant difference between those with low educational level and those with a higher educational level. According to the results of our study, it can be said that the coaches with license level of education were more anxious when assessing the risks, perceived the risks in a higher level compared to the coaches with postgraduate level of education and the variable of educational level was effective in the assessment of risks.

The scores of the risk assessment scale of the coaches constituting the study group, were found to be insignificant according to the variable of coaching tenure (p>0,05). It is seen that the risk averages (x=4,17) of the coaches with a tenure of 21 years and over, is higher than the risk averages of the other coaching tenure (Table 6). However, it was determined that these differences were not significant. Grable (2000), Grable and Lytton (1999), Küçüksille (2004) have found different results from our findings. Saraç and Kahyaoğlu (2011) have found the risk averages of 41-55 age group higher than that of the 26-40 age group. Gök (2006) identified that there was no any significant difference in the risk assessment levels of the coaches according to the tenure. This situation is in line with the results of our survey. It is thought that the experienced coaches do not hesitate to take risks compared to the coaches with lesser tenure of coaching and while they evaluate the risk factors that may occur due to their experience, they were more worried than the coaches with lesser tenure of coaching.

Thus, when we take into consideration the results of the arithmetic mean of the risk assessment scale, we reach the conclusion that the male coaches perceive the risk at a higher level than the male coaches; that the 55 years and over old coaches perceive the risk at a higher level than the coaches of 27-33, 34-40, 41-47, 48-54 years of age; the coaches having a college education perceive the risk at a higher level than the coaches having a postgraduate education; the coaches having a tenure of 21 years and above perceive the risk at a higher level than the coaches having a tenure of 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20 years; and the single coaches perceive the risk at a higher level than the married coaches.

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TÜRKİYE HENTBOL SÜPER LİGİ ANTRENÖRLERİNİN RİSK DEĞERLENDİRME DÜZEYLERİNİN BAZI DEMOGRAFİK DEĞİŞKENLERLE KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

Özet: Risk, insan zihninde tehlikeye işaret eden endişe, korku içeren bir kavram olarak yer edinmekte ve ileride ortaya çıkması beklenilen, kesinlik taşımasa bile gerçekleşmesi muhtemel olayları belirtmektedir. Dolayısıyla risk, arzulanmayan bir olayın meydana gelebilmesinin yanı sıra hem oluşma biçimi hem de sonuçları ile olaylara ait belirsizlik olarak açıklanmaktadır (Willet, 1971). Risk değerlendirme süreci ise belirlenen risklerin nasıl yönetilmeleri gereğinin belirlenmesi için temel oluşturmak üzere riskler değerlendirilir ve analiz edilir. Değerlendirme ve analiz sürecinde riskin hem olma ihtimali hem de etkisi dikkate alınmaktadır (Küçükyılmaz, 2007).Bu araştırma Türkiye Hentbol Süper Ligi kulüplerindeki antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeylerinin bazı demografik değişkenlerle karşılaştırılması amacıyla yapılmıştır. Araştırmada betimsel tarama yöntemlerinden biri olan "genel tarama modeli" kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini Türkiye Hentbol Süper Ligi takımlarında görev yapan 49 antrenör oluştururken, örneklemini ise; rastgele ve tesadüfî yöntemle seçilmiş farklı kulüplerde antrenörlük yapan 45 antrenör oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada veri aracı olarak Gök (2006) ve Çobanoğlu (2008)'nun sporda risk değerlendirme ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Risk değerlendirme ölçeği madde havuzunda yer alan (1,11,12,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,25,26,28,29,30,31) maddeler Gök (2006)'ün geliştirdiği ölçme aracından, madde havuzunda yer alan (2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,13,23,24,27) maddeler ise Çobanoğlu (2008)'nun geliştirdiği ölçme aracından alınmıştır. Elde edilen veriler üzerinde yapılan faktör analizi sonucunda düşük faktör yükü olan ya da birden fazla faktörden yüksek yük değeri alan (8,9,10,12,18,23,26,27) maddeler ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Tekrarlanan faktör analizi sonucunda ölçekte yer alan 23 maddenin toplam varyansın % 51,64'ünü açıkladığı görülmüştür. Bu değer ölçeğin bu haliyle yapı geçerliliğini sağladığını göstermektedir. Ölçeğin güvenirliliğine ilişkin Cronbach alpha iç tutarlılık katsayısı .921 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar ölçekten elde edilen puanların güvenilir olduğunu kanıtlamaktadır. Veriler istatistik paket programı yardımıyla analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen sayısal değerler p.05 anlamlılık düzeyine göre değerlendirilmiştir. Antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme ölçeğine verdikleri cevaplar risk derecelendirme matrisine yerleştirilerek riskler derecelendirilmiştir. Risk derecelendirme matrisi; bir program için en kritik olan risklerin tanımlanması, öncelikle dirilmesi ve etkilerinin yönetilmesine imkân sağlar (10). Verilerin sağlıklı yorumlanabilmesi için ölçeğin beşli derecelendirme aralıkları; çok az düzeyde riskli (1.00-1.80), az riskli (1.81-2.60), orta düzeyde riskli (2.61-3.40), çok riskli (3.41-4.20), çok fazla riskli (4.21-5.00) şeklinde belirlenmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeyleri cinsiyet değişkenine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur ($p<0,05$). Risk değerlendirme ölçeği puanları cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı bulunması ile erkek antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeyleri ortalamaları kadın antrenörlere göre daha yüksek çıkmasının nedeninin hentbol süper ligindeki kadın antrenörlerin yardımcı antrenör statüsünde bulunmasından kadın antrenörlerin erkek antrenörlerde göre daha az risk almaları bu sonucun çıkmasında etkili olduğu düşünülmektedir. Araştırmaya katılan antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeyleri yaş değişkenine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur ($p<0,05$). Çalışmamız sonucunda genç antrenörlerin riskleri üstlenmeye hazır olmadıkları, antrenörlerin yaşı ilerledikçe risk faktörlerini algılama düzeylerinde de artış olduğu, 55 yaş ve üstü antrenörlerin tecrübelerinden dolayı hentbolun yarışma ortamının getirdiği yüksek düzeydeki kaygı, stres ve riski genç antrenörlere göre daha yüksek düzeyde algılama-

larından dolayı risk değerlendirme ölçeği puanlarının yaş değişkenine göre anlamlı çıkmasına neden olduğu düşünülmektedir. Araştırmaya katılan antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeyleri eğitim durumu değişkenine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur ($p<0,05$). Çalışmamız sonuçlarına göre lisans düzeyinde eğitimine sahip olan antrenörlerin, lisansüstü düzeyinde eğitime sahip olan antrenörlere göre riskleri değerlendirirken daha kaygılı oldukları, riskleri daha yüksek düzeyde algıladıkları ve eğitim seviyesi değişkeninin riskleri değerlendirmede etkili olduğu söylenebilir.Araştırmaya katılan antrenörlerin risk değerlendirme düzeyleri medeni durum ve antrenörlük süresi değişkenlerine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır ($p>0,05$).

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Risk, Risk Değerlendirme, Hentbol

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ANALYSIS OF CONSUMER DEMANDS AND NEEDS RELATED TO REGIONS IN TURKEY AND A RESEARCH

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Abstract: In this study, the interregional differences in Turkey on effects of consumer demands, needs and purchasing behaviors have been scrutinized. The interregional geographical, cultural and economic differences in Turkey naturally affects the demands and needs of the people living in different regions and as a result causes differences in the purchasing behaviors of human who is a consumer. Factor analysis has been conducted in the survey study and it is identified that the factors concentrated under the need levels of Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs. The interregional differences and the effects of these differences on the demands, needs and behaviors of the humans have been examined related to the need levels of Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs. As a result, it is identified that the geographical regions of Turkey cause significant changes on the demands and needs of the consumers. In the conclusion part of the study, recommendations to local and regional administrations have also been made to enhance the living conditions of humans in the region.

Key Words: Consumer Demands, Consumer Needs, Purchasing Behavior, Differences inter Regions, Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs

INTRODUCTION

Human beings down the ages have tried to satisfy various demands and desires, and most of their efforts through lifetime are for increasing their living standards. For instance, discovering the fire for heating need, the invention of writing for communication need, and the invention of tire for freightage and transportation need appeared in response to the efforts of the humans. There are too many samples to be counted. It is obvious that all of us are in an effort to survive in better living conditions. Thus, human demands and needs are among the most important factors affecting our course of life. Demands and needs that are too important a factor for human life, obviously affect directly human behaviors as well. Every human being as a consumer shows a purchasing behavior as per his demands and needs. But consumer demands and needs vary from a human to another for many reasons. This difference reflects directly on the purchasing behavior of the consumers. When we compare the credit card statements of the people from different social classes, while the luxury expenditures of a person with a good income would be too high (entertainment, fuel expenses, etc.), the same kind

expenditures of a person with lower income would be lower or none. So the purchasing behaviors of the consumers vary in many reasons like social, psychological, economic factors.

One of the factors affecting human demands, needs and the behaviors related to them is the interregional differences. The interregional differences which are the topic of this study that effect on human needs are very important that need to be considered while shaping the strategies of the firms. Geographical, economic and cultural differences currently existing among the geographical regions in Turkey, cause differences as well in the purchasing behaviors of the consumers living in different regions. The most important reason to this is the people living in different conditions have different needs. For instance, AC is a very important need for a middle class family living in the Mediterranean Region; on the other hand it is not the case for a family living in the Eastern Anatolia Region. Interregional climate differences also make differences in the consumer needs. Thus any kind of differences existing among regions constitutes differences directly or indirectly in the consumer needs.

In this study, the effects of the interregional differences on the human needs have been researched. Consumer demands, needs and the factors affecting the behaviors of the consumers have been reviewed and first and foremost Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs has been taken as a basis in the practice.

LITERATURE RESEARCH

CONSUMER DEMANDS, NEEDS AND BEHAVIORS

Day by day improvements in the science of marketing increased the importance of consumer concept more. Nowadays consumer focused concept improved with the improvement of modern marketing understanding, this caused the need to pay more importance on the consumer and the consumer behaviors as well. The consumer is expressed as the key factor of the consumer behavior. Consumers, notice their needs, search the goods for their needs, use the products to satisfy their needs and dispose those products after meeting their needs (Wells and Prensky, 1996:4).

It is not enough to be a consumer for an individual to buy a product or service. For this reason, the terms of consumer and customer should be separated. The consumer is the person that has the capacity to buy or buys the marketing components for his personal wish, demand and needs. The customer is the consumer who receives frequent service through a firm or buys frequently the same brand (İslamoğlu, 2003:5). The consumers with regard to a wider assessment can be described as the persons who buy goods and services to meet their economic, social and cultural needs. For this reason, using the goods and services after purchasing is called consumption, the ones realizing these processes are called consumers (Erdem, 2006:69). In other words, the consumer can be described as the person, institution or organization that have needs to be met, have money to spend and have the will to spend. As can be easily understood here, every customer is a consumer but every consumer is not a customer.

The term of "consumer" has a wide scope as a sense. For this reason, it is possible to categori-

ze consumers in two groups with regard to the purposes of purchasing goods or services in the market (Mucuk, 2006:66):

- End Consumers: buyers for personal or family needs,

- Industrial or Organizational Consumers: buyers for supporting or adding to their production, continuing their economic activities like reselling.

The firms while forming their marketing strategies must consider as meeting the demands and the needs of the consumers. While consumer demands and needs can be detected and measured by various means, consumers display different behaviors as per some criteria in accordance with the purchasing wills and needs. Thus the firms should analyze the purchasing behaviors of the consumers correctly in order to increase the satisfaction levels of the consumers and incline towards the consumers in this direction.

It will be appropriate to express the meanings of the words before examining these concepts. Demand, as a term, can be described as tendency, will, and enthusiasm to something. Need is described as necessity, strong will (TDK Dictionary 2000). In the light of these definitions, consumer demands can be expressed as the circumstance and the conditions that the individuals with the tendency of purchasing desire in the purchasing process, the consumer needs can be expressed as the necessity of the individuals with the tendency of purchasing. Although consumer demands are understood as the their will to the product or specifications of the product, in fact other aspect of this will is the expectation of the consumer to the service given by the firm. Thus, marketing, one of the functions of the firms, deals directly with the demands and the needs of the consumers and produce strategies to meet these expectations. The purpose of marketing is to meet the needs of the customers selected as target and to satisfy them. In this regard, consumer behaviors within the marketing management concept, in order to satisfy the needs and the demands of the individuals, groups and the organizations are to analyze on how they select the ideas and use them (Kotler ,1997:172).

Besides that by analyzing the consumer behaviors, important advantages can be obtained in capturing the marketing opportunities. Especially the target is to satisfy the real necessities of the consumers forming the target market, the focus of "general marketing strategy" formed in two important actions like market selection and improvement of the marketing mix suitable for the selected target market (Tek, Özgül 2005:165).

Firms while forming appropriate marketing strategies should detect measure and analyze the characteristics of the consumer behaviors, factors affecting these behaviors, differences and the reasons to these differences.

Consumer behavior is stated as a practical discipline analyzing the behavior of the consumer in the market, and researching the reasons to that behavior (Odabaşı, 2002:16). Purchasing behavior of the consumer as a discipline is stated as focusing to the goods or services to satisfy the needs of the consumer and to the values to be obtained for them (Wells&Prensky, 1996:5). In previous terms while the scientists interested in consumption were researching only the purchasing time, nowadays consumer behavior analyzes the

things not only during the purchasing, but also circumstances before and after purchasing, experiences related to these phases and various factors (Koç, 2007:21). Purchasing behaviors vary from consumer to consumer with regard to the effects of some personal and environmental factors.

Consumer behaviors include the activities of the consumer in obtaining, consuming and disposing a good or service. As can be understood from this expression, consumer behaviors comprise of three fundamental processes (Blackwell et.al. 2001:6); Obtaining, Consuming and Disposing.

a. Obtaining; comprises of purchasing activities of the good. This activity comprises of the processes of researching the knowledge related to the selection of the good, and evaluating alternative goods or brands. Researchers during examining the consumer behaviors also analyze the questions as how consumers purchase how they pay during purchasing and why they purchase.

b. Consuming; comprises of the activities related on how, where, when and in which way the consumers use the goods.

c. Disposing; comprises the activities related on how the consumer disposes the good or its package. In this process, consumer researchers examine on how the consumers dispose the package of the good and the wastes. For instance, is this a biologically degradable or recyclable product?

While the factors affecting the purchasing process of the consumers are summed by some authors as obtaining, producing and disposing (Blackwell et.al. 2001:6), discussed widely by some other authors and stated as selecting the goods to satisfy the needs of the individual, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing (Wells&Prensky, 1996:9).

Nowadays increasing importance of the consumer behavior is subject to a set of factors. The first one of these factors is growing of the firms gradually and increases of layers within the hierarchical body. As a result, the direct communication between the managers in decision making position and the customers / consumers became difficult. So the need to conduct researches toward understanding the consumer behavior and set up units and systems toward it come up. In addition, both the increase in the amount of the consumers and their more awareness made it crucial to put marketing studies on more scientific fundamentals (Koç, 2007:21). Besides the increase in the amount of the consumers and in the variety of products to satisfy their needs, with the awareness of the consumers, caused increase in their uncertainty at the same time during purchasing. In this kind of circumstances, organizations tend to go to commercials and suchlike investments in order to meet the expectations and the needs of the consumers and to minimize their state of uncertainties (Anisimova, 2007:395).

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN THE WORLD

Today there are regional differences in almost every country less or more. With this aspect regional differences can be seen as any kind of differences in the same area (Bayraktutan, 1994:184). With different density from country to country, emerging differences in regional development is an inevitable fact that every country with the economic development through industrial revolution would face. Development pattern in world

economy described with concepts like developed and underdeveloped countries appears also in various regions and cities of the country economies. Dispersion of economic factors, having a dynamic body, shapes the development process with different densities in the country, causes to appear developmental differences between regions and cities (Küçüker, 1998:425).

Interregional differences are not a unique character for underdeveloped countries. Regional development differences are a problem felt in different burden in every phase of development. Hence, according to Rostow, during maturement, all regions of a country or all sectors of an economy cannot maintain progress at the same level while practicing modern technology thoroughly. It is normal that there are developmental differences between regions and sectors. (Rostow, 1966:63).

Regional inequalities not only in backward areas of a country, but also in developed big cities appear as lack of education and health services, need for land and house, lack of water, energy, infrastructure and general municipal services, traffic jam, overcrowding, noise and environmental pollution. (Gündüz, 1994:4). Besides, development movement in a country generally starts in certain regions of that country and it takes some time to reflect to other regions in geographical and human reasons. This delay in time may cause regional differences and inequalities. In other regions below the developmental momentum causes proportional regression and socio-economic deficiencies. It is also possible to degrade regional inequality in a narrow sense to economic and social inequality of opportunity. Economic inequality of opportunity means people living in different regions do not have the opportunity to find jobs as well as equal salary for equal jobs; social inequality of opportunity means people living in different regions do not obtain equal health, education and art services, do not have even equal chances in spouse selection (Dinler, 1994:123).

A RESEARCH OF CONSUMER DEMANDS AND NEEDS ON REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN TURKEY

In Turkey, there are significant and serious economic, cultural and social differences between geographic regions and even in the same region. In this sense, separate researches in the regions have been conducted with questionnaire. Factor analysis has been applied in order to find whether the questions are in line with the Maslow's factors or not. In the analysis applied to data, varimax factor spinning option has been used. At first, KMO and Bartlett Tests have been applied in order to understand if the data is appropriate or not.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0,805
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7690,536
	df	2556
	Sig.	0

The KMO value is required to be greater than 0.5 at KMO sample sufficiency test. Because this value is 0.805 in our sample, we may say that our sample is suitable for factor analysis. Bartlett test measures whether the correlations between variables are greater than the expected value with chance or not. P- Value should be less than (Sig) 0. 05. Because this value is $p<0.05$, we can say that there is relation between variables that factor analysis can be performed. It is seen that the variables are collected under 5 factors as the factor analysis performed.

2. FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS

Table-2 Rotated Components Matrix

Rotated Components Matrix					
Rotated Components Matrix					
Questions	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
S1	0,872				
S6	0,854				
S11	0,841				
S16	0,831				
S21	0,819				
S26	0,795				
S31	0,763				
S36	0,746				
S41	0,737				
S46	0,726				
S51	0,716				
S56	0,711				
S64	0,708				
S69	0,705				
S2		0,805			
S7		0,802			
S12		0,798			
S17		0,746			
S22		0,716			

S27		0,703			
S32		0,694			
S37		0,688			
S42		0,681			
S47		0,653			
S52		0,65			
S57		0,643			
S61		0,64			
S3			0,756		
S8			0,743		
S13			0,735		
S18			0,731		
S23			0,728		
S28			0,681		
S33			0,647		
S38			0,627		
S43			0,619		
S48			0,615		
S53			0,613		
S58			0,608		
S62			0,604		
S65			0,601		
S67			0,594		
S70			0,59		
S71			0,588		
S72			0,581		
S4				0,684	
S9				0,682	
S14				0,679	
S19				0,676	
S24				0,672	

S29				0,67	
S34				0,668	
S39				0,664	
S44				0,653	
S49				0,651	
S54				0,648	
S59				0,643	
S5					0,653
S10					0,612
S15					0,594
S20					0,584
S25					0,564
S30					0,537
S35					0,528
S40					0,521
S45					0,518
S50					0,515
S55					0,511
S60					0,508
S63					0,506
S68					0,501

As it is seen at the table, the values of all questions are greater than 0.5. It is realized that all of 72 questions with Likert scale will not create any problem regarding the analysis study.

1. Factor: The first factor including question 1, 6,11,16,21,26,31,36,41,46,51,56,64,69 expresses the physiological needs.

2. Factor: The second factor including question 2,7,12,17,22,27,32,37,42,47,52,57,61 expresses the security needs.

3. Factor: The third factor including question 3,8,13,18,23,28,33,38,43,48,53,58,62,65,67,70, 71,72 expresses the belonging and love needs.

4. Factor: The fourth factor including question 4,9,14,19,24,29,34,39,44,49,54,59 expresses the value sense.

5. Factor: The fifth factor including question 5,10,15,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,55,60,63,66,68 expresses the sense of satisfaction.

3. TOTAL EXPLAINED VARIANCES

Table-3 Total Explained Variances

Factors	Variance (%)	Accumulated (%)
1. Factor	15,365	15,365
2. Factor	22,578	37,943
3. Factor	28,457	66,4
4. Factor	10,398	76,798
5. Factor	13,658	90,456

As it is seen at the table, the 72 variables are formed through explaining the total variance under 5 factors and with the rate of 90.456%. It is seen that the factor structures are as expected.

4. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

The reliability analysis was applied at the data on the basis of inferential statistics. The reliability analysis measures the internal consistency between articles taking place in a scale and presents information about the relations between these articles. The reliability analysis of 5 factors formed by variables taking place in the survey is shown at following table with their Cronbach Alfa values. This value's being a number, which is 0.7 and above shows that a reliable measurement was made. As it can be seen at the table, Cronbach Alfa values vary between 0,789 and 0,978. This means that in case the survey will be repeated with the same participants, the result will be the same to a large extent. Consequently, it is possible to say that the variables are measured reliably.

Table-4 The Reliability Analysis Results According to the Factors

Factor Name	Cronbach Alfa
Physiological Needs	0,789
Security Needs	0,897
Belonging and Love Needs	0,978
Value	0,914
Satisfaction	0,897

5. HYPOTHESIS TESTS

Hypotheses take place following the reliability analysis. Whether the answers given to question vary according to the individuals living in different regions or not were presented and One-way ANOVA test results were explained.

Hypothesis:

$\mathbf{H_o}$ = There is no difference between the needs of individuals taking place at the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, who are living in 7 different geographical regions of Turkey.

$\mathbf{H_1}$ = There is difference between the needs of individuals taking place at the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, who are living in 7 different geographical regions of Turkey.

a. Maslow's 5 criteria show differences for 7 different regions in general.

The opinions of participants taking place in the research stated in the survey gave meaningful differences statistically at the ANOVA test results according to 7 different region (P<0,05) and H_1 Hypothesis is supported for all factors.

Table-5 ANOVA Test Results Between Factors And Regions

ANOVA					
FACTORS	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Physiological Needs Between Regions	15,112	6	2,519	2,648	0,017
Security Needs Between Regions	28,54	6	4,757	5,412	0
Belonging and Love Needs Between Regions	19,038	6	3,173	3,412	0,003
Value Between Regions	13,062	6	2,177	2,263	0,039
Satisfaction Between Regions	13,836	6	2,306	2,407	0,029

***P<0,05**

As it can be seen at the table, there are meaningful differences at ANOVA test results of all factors and meaningful differences exist between Maslow's factors and regions. As it can be realized from the table, sig. (importance) values of all 5 factors were found less than 0,05. The environment, traffic conditions, security conditions, education opportunities, employment opportunities, e.g. of individuals living in 7 different region may be shown as the reason of this.

b. Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Physiological Needs

c. Table-6 Relations Of Regions With Each Other Regarding Their Physiological Needs

	Marmara region	Aegean region	Mediterranean Sea region	Blacksea region	Central Anatolia region	Eastern Anatolia region	Southeastern Anatolia region
Marmara region	0	0,063	0,058	0,014	0,013	0,002	0,003
Aegean region	0,063	0	0,118	0,031	0,038	0,009	0,016
Mediterranean Sea region	0,058	0,188	0	0,046	0,049	0,021	0,029
Blacksea region	0,014	0,031	0,046	0	0,031	0,042	0,047
Central Anatolia region	0,013	0,038	0,049	0,031	0	0,046	0,048
Eastern Anatolia region	0,002	0,009	0,021	0,042	0,046	0	0,021
Southeastern Anatolia region	0,003	0,016	0,029	0,047	0,048	0,21	0

*** Physiological Needs between the Regions:**

When we range them according the table above, the physiological needs:

Marmara region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of indivi-

duals living in Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region, Central Anatolia region and Black sea region.

Aegean region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Marmara region and Mediterranean Sea region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region, Central Anatolia region and Black sea region.

Mediterranean Sea region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Aegean region and Marmara region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region, Central Anatolia region and Black sea region.

Black sea region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region, Central Anatolia region, Marmara Region, Mediterranean Sea region and Aegean region.

Central Anatolia region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Black sea region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region, Central Anatolia region, Marmara Region, Mediterranean Sea region and Aegean region.

Eastern Anatolia region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Southeastern region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Central Anatolia region, Marmara Region, Mediterranean Sea region and Aegean region.

Southeastern Anatolia region: However the physiological needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Central Anatolia region, Marmara Region, Mediterranean Sea region and Aegean region.

INTERPRETATION: The results in the table show us that a meaningful similarity is seen between the physiological needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region. Similarly, there is also a meaningful similarity between the physiological needs of individuals living in Central Anatolia region - Black sea region and Eastern Anatolia region- Southeastern Anatolia region. It is possible to say that because industry and population are dense in Marmara region, Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region this similarity is seen between these regions. In the same

manner, Central Anatolia region and Black sea region are the same within this scope. Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region are the locations where industry, population and life-sustaining events are seen less frequently, there are similarities between them, but they are different from other regions.

d. Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Security Needs

Table-7 Relations Of Regions With Each Other Regarding Their Security Needs

	Marmara region	Aegean region	Mediterranean Sea region	Blacksea region	Central Anatolia region	Eastern Anatolia region	Southeastern Anatolia region
Marmara region		0,162	0,13	0,277	0,781	0	0
Aegean region	0,162		0,863	0,785	0,201	0,002	0,01
Mediterranean Sea region	0,13	0,863		0,666	0,161	0,004	0,017
Blacksea region	0,277	0,785	0,666		0,347	0,001	0,005
Central Anatolia region	0,781	0,201	0,161	0,347		0	0
Eastern Anatolia region	0	0,002	0,004	0,001	0		0,45
Southeastern Anatolia region	0	0,01	0,017	0,005	0	0,45	

*** Security Needs between the Regions:**

When we range them according the table above, the security needs:

Marmara region: However the security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the security needs of individuals living in Aegean region, Mediterranean Sea region, Black sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the security needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region.

Aegean region: However the security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the physiological needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Mediterranean Sea region, Black sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the physiological needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region.

Mediterranean Sea region: However the security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the security needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Black sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the security needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region.

Black sea region: However the security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the security needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Mediterranean Sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the security needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region.

Central Anatolia region: However the security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the security needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Medi-

terranean Sea region and Black sea region; they show meaningful differences with the security needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region, Southeastern Anatolia region.

Eastern Anatolia region: The security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the security needs of individuals living in Southeastern Anatolia region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

Southeastern Anatolia region: The security needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the security needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

INTERPRETATION: According to the table, Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region and Marmara region - Aegean region - Mediterranean Sea region - Central Anatolia region - Black sea region show similarities among them. The illegal organization actions and separatist activities in the eastern regions of country may be shown as the reason for this.

e. Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Belonging and Love Needs

Table-6 Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Belonging and Love Needs

*** Belonging and Love Needs between the Regions:**

When we range them according the table above, the belonging and love needs:

Marmara region: The belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Aegean region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

Aegean region: The belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Marmara region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

Mediterranean Sea region: While the belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Black sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Blacksea region: While the belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Mediterranean Sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Central Anatolia region: While the belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Mediterranean Sea region and Black sea region; they show meaningful differences with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Eastern Anatolia region: The belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Southeastern Anatolia region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

(7) **Southeastern Anatolia region:** The belonging and love needs of individuals living in this region show similarities only with the belonging and love needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region. There is meaningful difference with other regions.

INTERPRETATION: According to the table, Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region and Marmara region - Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region - Central Anatolia region - Black sea region show similarities among them.

f. Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Value Sense Needs

Table-8 Relations Of Regions With Each Other Regarding Their Value Sense Needs

	Marmara region	Aegean region	Mediterranean Sea region	Blacksea region	Central Anatolia region	Eastern Anatolia region	Southeastern Anatolia region
Marmara region		0,085	0,466	0,038	0,273	0,026	0,014
Aegean region	0,085		0,29	0,041	0,057	0,045	0,032
Mediterranean Sea region	0,466	0,29		0,046	0,9	0,041	0,038
Blacksea region	0,038	0,041	0,046		0,032	0,119	0,342
Central Anatolia region	0,273	0,057	0,9	0,032		0,02	0,029
Eastern Anatolia region	0,026	0,045	0,041	0,119	0,02		0,365
Southeastern Anatolia region	0,014	0,032	0,038	0,342	0,029	0,365	

*** Value Sense Needs between the Regions:**

When we range them according the table above, the value sense needs:

Marmara region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Aegean region, Mediterranean Sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Aegean region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Mediterranean Sea region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Mediterranean Sea region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region and Central Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Black sea region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities

with the value sense needs of individuals living in Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Central Anatolia region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Marmara region, Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region.

Eastern Anatolia region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region and Southeastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

(7) Southeastern Anatolia region: While the value sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the value sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region and Eastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the value sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

INTERPRETATION: According to the table, Black sea region - Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region and Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region - Central Anatolia region show similarities among them. The individuals living in Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region - Central Anatolia region drive themselves forward one more step due to their living conditions and wishes to be accepted into a specific environment or employment and to be respected by others. The general of population living in Black sea region - Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region are farmers and they deal with agriculture and animal breeding. The social living area in these regions is limited when it is compared with other regions.

g. Relations of Regions with Each Other Regarding Their Satisfaction Sense Needs

Tablo-9 Relations Of Regions With Each Other Regarding Their Satisfaction Sense Needs

	Marmara region	Aegean region	Mediterranean Sea region	Blacksea region	Central Anatolia region	Eastern Anatolia region	Southeastern Anatolia region
Marmara region		0,085	0,466	0,038	0,273	0,026	0,014
Aegean region	0,085		0,29	0,041	0,057	0,045	0,032
Mediterranean Sea region	0,466	0,29		0,046	0,9	0,041	0,038
Blacksea region	0,038	0,041	0,046		0,032	0,119	0,342
Central Anatolia region	0,273	0,057	0,9	0,032		0,02	0,029
Eastern Anatolia region	0,026	0,045	0,041	0,119	0,02		0,365
Southeastern Anatolia region	0,014	0,032	0,038	0,342	0,029	0,365	

*** Satisfaction Sense Needs between the Regions:**

When we range them according the table above, the Satisfaction sense needs:

Marmara region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Aegean region and Mediterranean Sea region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Aegean region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Marmara region and Mediterranean Sea region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Mediterranean Sea region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Marmara region and Aegean region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Black sea region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Central Anatolia region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Central Anatolia region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Eastern Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Eastern Anatolia region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Central Anatolia region and Southeastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

Southeastern Anatolia region: While the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in this region show similarities with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in Black sea region, Central Anatolia region and Eastern Anatolia region; they show meaningful differences with the satisfaction sense needs of individuals living in other regions.

INTERPRETATION: According to the table, while a similarity is seen between Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region, another similarity is seen between Black sea region - Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region - Central Anatolia region among themselves. The reason for this is these regions' - Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region – being locations of Turkey where welfare level is high and the individuals living these regions wish to be satisfied with their positions at companies, institutions, e.g. where they work and at their professional fields, hobbies and other activities they perform and realize their selves.

CONCLUSION AND ASSESSMENT

This study was performed for the purpose of detecting whether the demands and needs of consumers

in Turkey differ according to the geographical regions. There are different regions in Turkey and each region has different economic, cultural and social characteristics. These characteristics create the different living types, consumption patterns and behaviors. Each region's consumers have different demands and behaviors. And this is limited with the opportunities of the region.

The passed governments until now have tried to find solutions for the problems of the region, but the found solutions have always become political due to national and global reasons and couldn't cause to permanent reliefs. In this academic study, proposals and recommendations were presented to local and regional governments for the purpose of detecting the problems and their solutions. Making such a research and finalizing it as a supporting element for these was decided. The result found at the factor analysis of survey questions within this scope, formed a meaningful parallelism with the need levels presented by Maslow at theory of hierarchy of needs. The analysis of survey was assessed at these five need levels. When the result were assessed, it was found that Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region show similarities with each other and Black sea region - Central Anatolia region show similarities with each other and Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region show similarities with each other regarding physiological needs level. In addition to these, it was found that Black sea region shows similarity to Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region; Central Anatolia region shows similarities to Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region regarding value sense need level; and Black sea region - Central Anatolia region show similarities to Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region regarding security needs level. It is thought that the primary reasons of these differences and similarities are related with higher industrialization level of Marmara region - Aegean region -Mediterranean Sea region regarding other regions, an economy based on agriculture and animal feeding is effective in Black sea region - Central Anatolia region and the effects of heavy economic and geographical conditions in Eastern Anatolia region - Southeastern Anatolia region over these regions besides the geographical positions of regions. In addition to these, it is obvious that the differences between regions cause directly or indirectly to these differences and similarities.

It was found as the result of the study that there are meaningful differences between the needs of individuals living in Turkey regarding the regions. These differences between regions should be considered regarding all policies from government services to the marketing strategies of companies to be applies in the regions and they should be measured and suitable policies should be produced.

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TÜRKİYE DE TÜKETİCİ İSTEK VE İHTİYAÇLARIN BÖLGELERE GÖRE ANALİZİ VE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Özet: Türkiye farklılıklar ülkesidir.Farklılık kültürlerimize de yansımıştır.Kültürler alt kültürlerden oluşmuştur.Zengin bir kültür mirasına sahiptir.Bu anlamda, farklılık ve kültürlere göre coğrafi ve ekonomik bölgeler meydana gelmiştir.Her bölgenin farklılıkları tüketim alışkanlıkları ve bu alışkanlıkları oluşturan davranışlar meydana gelmiştir. .Kişisel istek ve ihtiyaçlar yerel ve bölgesel olmuştur.Bunun için de bölgelerin istek ve ihtiyaçları kendi içinde ve bölgeler arasında farklılıklar meydana getirmiş ve çarpan etkisiyle ülke geneline yansımıştır.Çok genç nüfusa sahip olan Türkiye'deki bölgelere göre dış yatırımcı ve pazarlamacılar sektör odaklı yoğunlaştıklarından işletmeler pazarlarını belirlemede sorun yaşamamışlardır.Bu çalışmada ,Türkiye 'nin yedi bölgesinde farklı tüketici istek ve ihtiyaçlarının analiz edilmesi için anket soruları hazırlanmış ve bölge bazında yüz yüze anket yapılmıştır.Yapılan bölgesel araştırma istatistik ortamlardan geçirilmiş,elde edilen verilerin analizinde varimaks faktör döndürme seçeneği kullanılmıştır. Verilerin yeterliliğini ölçmek için **KMO ve BARTLETT'S** testinden yararlanılmıştır..Faktörler analiz edilmiş ve güvenirlikleri de test edildikten sonra hipotezlere yer verilmiş ,bölgelerde yaşayan insanlara göre değişiklik olup olmadığını ortaya koymak için ANOVA testi yapılmıştır.Türkiye'de bölgelerarası farklılıkların, tüketicilerin istek, ihtiyaç ve satın alma davranışları üzerine etkileri incelenmiştir. Türkiye'deki bölgelerarasındaki coğrafi, kültürel ve ekonomik farklılıklar farklı bölgelerde yaşayan insanların istek ve ihtiyaçlarını doğal olarak etkilemekte ve bunun sonucu bir tüketici olan insanın satın alma davranışlarında farklılıklar göstermektedir. Yapılan araştırmada faktörlerin Maslow'un ihtiyaçlar hiyerarşisindeki ihtiyaç düzeyleri başlıkları altında toplandığı tespit edilmiştir. Bölgelerarasındaki farklılıklar ve bu farklılıkların insanların istek, ihtiyaç ve davranışları üzerine etkileri Maslow'un ihtiyaçlar hiyerarşisi teorisindeki ihtiyaç düzeylerine göre incelenmiştir. Sonuçta Türkiye'deki coğrafi bölgelerarası tüketicilerin istek ve ihtiyaçlarında anlamlı farklılıklara olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuç bölümünde,ülke genelinde bölgelere göre ekonomik ve politikaların oluşturulmas,bölgesel farklılıkların ortadan kaldırılması,geleneksel kültür düzeylerinin üretim ve tüketime yansıtılması,bölgesel kalkınmışlığın sağlanmasında tüketici istek ve ihtiyaçlarının önem taşıdığını ve bunun sağlanmasında yerel ve bölgesel yönetimlerin çok önemli olduğu önerileri getirilmiştir.Bölgesel insanların yaşam koşulları değiştikçe istek ve ihtiyaçları da artacak ve satın alma davranışları da değişecektir.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Tüketici İstekleri, Tüketici İhtiyaçları, Satın Alma Davranışı, Bölgelerarası Farklılıklar, Motivasyon Teorileri, Maslow'un İhtiyaçlar Hiyerarşisi

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SOCIO- ECONOMIC RIGHTS: A HUMAN RIGHT OR SPECIAL CITIZENSHIP RIGHT

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Abstract: Whether the socio- economic rights are a universal human right or specific right relative to every society, is a question that the scholars have written much literature on it, in the last decades. In this article, firstly the question of what are the socio- economic rights will be clarified. Then, on the issue of universality or locality of the socio- economic rights, the moral debate on the topic will be indicated before mentioning about the practicability problem of the socio- economic rights. After critically reviewing the existing literature, in the end, a point will be developed, as a synthesis of the debate.

***Key Words*:** Socio- Economic Rights, Poverty, Human Rights

INTRODUCTION

Each day some 50,000 human beings- mostly children, mostly female and mostly people of color-die from starvation, diarrhea, pneumonia, tuberculosis, malaria, measles, perinatal and maternal conditions and other poverty- related causes. This continuous death toll, matches that of the December 2004 tsunami every few years, and it matches every three years, the entire death toll of World War II, concentration camps and gulags included (Pogge, 2007: 30).

The statistics above show us clearly that there is something terribly wrong about the distribution of the wealth on the globe and it is directly related to socio- economic rights and the realization of them. In 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights guaranteed the socio- economic rights of every human being. However, it is not binding for the states to comply with it, thus the Declaration could not be implemented everywhere in the world. There are many academic debates on this issue, like what are the socio- economic rights , if they are universal human rights or citizenship rights and to what extent they are practicable. Most of the issues related to the socio- economic rights are debatable, open- ended and differing according to the interpretations. Therefore, setting the boundary of the minimum well- being is very difficult and scholars have expressed different opinions on it. Even if most of the philosophers agree that all people have certain socio- economic rights, the opinions differ on the issue that if the socio- economic rights are universal human

rights or citizenship rights. In this essay, firstly we will discuss what the socio- economic rights are and what not and we will bring forward the different interpretations made by thinkers. Then, we will mention about the moral debate if the socio- economic rights are human rights or citizenship rights. As a third point, we will raise the issue of practicability of the socio- economic rights , how it directly affects the extent of the socio- economic rights, the implementation of the socio- economic rights, and how it affects the morality issue to accept socio- economic rights as human rights or citizenship rights. Lastly, we will develop a point about the socio- economic rights, which we think that they are somewhere between being human rights and citizenship rights.

1. WHAT ARE THE SOCIO ECONOMIC RIGHTS AND WHAT NOT ?

The last articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and UN Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights include several socio-economic rights such as right to food, housing, employment, social security, education, medical care, protection from unemployment, leisure, holidays with pay and the rights to participate the cultural life and arts of the community. While these are very good suggestions that would be great to be achieved, it is criticized by many thinkers to be too unrealistic to be achieved and utopian.

Socio- economic rights try to set a minimum life quality for the people and the issue of how "minimum" is that minimum (Jones, 1994: 153) starts a big debate between the scholars. Thinkers like Henry Shue, Brian Orend and John Rawls accept subsistence as the main issue of socio- economic rights, while Rawls also accepts subsistence as a human right (Nickel, 2005: 386). On the other hand, Gillian Brock (2009: 72) adopts a needs based approach, making needs more fundamental than the socio-economic rights as human rights. She argues that in order to determine human rights, firstly basic needs should be specified. Moreover, human rights discourse is evaluated by many as a part of an "oppressive Western ideology" and thus, a needs based approach is a better way to convince more people for the realization of basic needs (Brock, 2009: 72). However, Brock's approach bears the danger of reducing the "acquired" socio- economic rights to something less important and more complex. Accepting something as a "right" entails a clearer concept, but the concept of "basic need" is much more open- ended.

Furthermore, the most convincing argument on specifying the socio- economic rights comes from James Nickel. First he criticizes Universal Declaration of Human Rights for being too utopic to be achieved, then he also states that Rawls' idea of subsistence is too minimal (Nickel, 2005: 2-3). Later he adopts Cyrus Vance's "Vance conception" ,which indicates that the socio- economic rights are "in the middle of the utopianism of International Covenants and the subsistence level of some philosophers (Nickel, 2005: 3). In order to support this point, Nickel adds education and health care service to Rawls' idea of subsistence and argues that it is both implementable and satisfying basic needs (Nickel, 2005: 3).

We also think that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and UN Covenant on socio- economic rights exaggerate the socio- economic rights and make them difficult to implement, however,

Nickel's idea of subsistence is not fully satisfying, education plus health care as socio- economic rights model. Because subsistence means living in extreme poverty and being free from extreme poverty, is the most important and fundamental socio- economic right.

2. THE MORAL DEBATE

Nearly all of the scholars think that the political and civil rights are universal human rights, because they are negative rights and just require a negative duty of not interfering to people. Therefore, it is easier to implement civil and political rights in compare with the socio- economic rights . Even, there is a court called European Court of Human Rights, which interprets just the civil and political rights as human rights and its decisions are binding for the countries member to the Council of Europe. However, it is not possible to do this for the socio- economic rights, because it is difficult to reach a consensus on the extent of the socio- economic rights. Most people agree that , the socio- economic rights require positive duties like providing food, shelter, air and water . Nevertheless, a small group of thinkers who adopt libertarianism like Nozick, reject the positive duty part of socio- economic rights and accept them only as a negative duty not to deprive others from food, water and other necessary things (Jones, 1994: 169). The rest and most of the philosophers think that the socio- economic rights are positive rights and entail positive duties. However, there is a debate on the issue of the universality, if the socio-economic rights are universal human rights or citizenship rights belonging to special communities and countries.

The first idea is that the socio- economic rights are citizenship, local or special rights and not necessarily human rights. Those who mention those ideas state three arguments supporting their claim. Firstly, the morality and cultures are relative and different (Bernier, 2010: 251). For this reason, they cannot be universal. Secondly, the socio- economic human rights are very individualistic that can be resulted by ignoring collective responsibilities and lastly there is a deep influence of Western values at the socio- economic human rights (Bernier, 2010: 252). Louise Bernier (2010: 252) responds to these arguments by stating that even if the above are true to some extent, there are common characteristics of all humans like feeling hunger, pain and having a conception of good life (Bernier, 2010: 252), which justifies the existence of common socio- economic human rights. Although the reply of Bernier is a good response for the issues of relativism and Western influence, it does not answer the individualism question. The socio- economic human rights have individualistic features like including the rights of a person only and not the society, and the socio- economic issues most times require collective and institutionalized initiatives.

The socio- economic rights could be related just to several people, but they are related to any person that will be under those special conditions. For example, when people do not work, they will not be related to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights' statements about employment, but whenever they will start to work, they will have those socio- economic rights related to employment. So, even if socio- economic rights will be rights that only several people enjoy, they are "potential" rights for all humanity.

On the other hand, the second idea related with the moral debate on the socio- economic rights is that the socio- economic rights are universal human rights. The philosophers who support this idea generally state that it is not possible to divide people and apply different rights and they stress the common human characteristics in a globalized world (Pogge, 2007: 61; Brock 2009; Bernier, 2010: 212). One of them is Gillian Brock (2009: 275), who questions what responsibilities people have to others and tries to find justification for compatriot (long- term resident of a country) favoritism over non- compatriots. The justifications she finds are generally the gratitude to the community which people grew up, community as a mutually advantageous cooperative scheme and shared history (Brock, 2009: 277-278). Then, she attempts to falsify these arguments by stating that there is no evidence about why the gratitude and shared history overlap completely with compatriots and she indicates that mutually advantageous cooperation scheme does not stop at the borders, because we give and take from whole the globe in today's globalized world (Brock, 2009: 279). According to her, nation state is merely the political unit rather than anything stronger (Brock, 2009: 277). We can only have more obligations toward our relatives or friends and beyond that, our basic obligations cannot diminish with distance (Brock, 2009: 275). Louise Bernier (2010: 248) has a similar approach, which considers the territorial and political borders as artificial, and advises to think in terms of global community of world citizens rather than a state- centric look. Bernier and Brock's criticism of borders as an entity diminishing responsibilities is reasonable, however, both downplay the importance of distance and exaggerate the phenomenon of globalization. The communication and transportation technologies developed dramatically in the last decades, but this did not finish the significance of distance completely. According to Brock's model, we have the same basic responsibilities to our neighbor and a person in a village of Tanzania. This does not seem acceptable, as our responsibilities cannot be equal towards the people we see every day and people that we do not know about their existence. Furthermore, even if the borders do not diminish responsibilities, the shared identities are important, because people usually feel more responsibility towards the people they share the same language, religion or culture in compare with the people they do not share these common features. Moreover, even if the responsibilities diminish with distance, they do not finish, and certainly there are some genuine universal socio-economic human rights. Morally it is easier to accept the existence of socio- economic human rights, however, when it comes to practicability and duty, which will be discussed in the next part, is more difficult.

3. THE PRACTICABILITY DEBATE

"What is the use of discussing a man's abstract right to food or medicine? The question is upon the method of procuring and administering them. In that deliberation I shall always advise to call in the aid of the farmer and the physician rather than the professor of metaphysics (Burke, 1984: 151-152).

Although Burke undermines the moral justification of the socio- economic rights, the question he asks demonstrates well the central place of practicabi-

lity in socio- economic rights. The practicability issue is very crucial for socio- economic rights, because socio- economic rights need concrete things in order to be realized. It is essential to connect socio- economic rights closely with practicability and if this is not done the socio- economic rights could just remain in rhetoric. The difficulty of practicability pushes scholars to mention about as minimum life standards as possible, in order to make socio- economic rights more implementable. There are different theories on how the socio- economic rights can be implemented and there is a debate on if the socio- economic rights are accepted as human rights, do they entail a universal duty or not?

Philosophers like Maurice Cranston (Jones, 1994: 158- 159), state that the socio- economic human rights can only be valid if they correspond to universal duties and because implementing a universal duty is very difficult, the socio- economic rights cannot be universal, but local rights. On the other hand, Simon Birnbaum also thinks that socio- economic human rights entail universal duties but he does not reject them and proposes a radical solution. Birnbaum (2010: 495) offers a universal basic income to be given to every individual on the world without discrimination and without the obligation to work. However, this is a very difficult task to be achieved, as there will be a need to a global powerful institution that will distribute the basic income justly. Another disadvantage of the basic income is that in a world of market economy, it will cause inflation of prices at the same rate with the basic income and the basic income paid to everyone will not be enough to buy anything.

Furthermore, Onora O'Neill (2005: 434), after accepting the socio- economic rights as special rights, emphasizes that the states should have the obligation of implementation of the socio- economic rights, because they are the only capable and powerful entities that can implement the socio- economic rights. On the contrary, James Nickel (2005: 396) develops a more plausible point by accepting the socio- economic rights as a human right, but proposes a local implementation rather than universal. According to his thesis, the government and the people of a country have responsibility to respect and uphold the human rights in that country and both have negative duties to abroad, not to prevent others from enjoying their rights (Nickel, 2005:396). The governments, international organizations and individuals, all have helping and supporting responsibilities for the realization of human rights around the globe (Nickel, 2005:396).

4. DEVELOPING A POINT

Considering all the arguments made by the thinkers, there seems no big moral obstacles to accept the socio- economic rights as a human right. There are common characteristics of all humankind and every human can suffer severely if he/she does not reach to the objects or institutions that the socio- economic rights guarantee. However, the biggest handicap lies in the practical sphere. The question of how much the socio- economic rights are realizable is crucial and as we mentioned before, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights' articles seem very difficult to be achieved. Here we find "Vance Conception" the most reasonable socio- economic human rights conception. Standing in the middle ground of

the Universal Declaration of Human Rights' utopianism and Rawls' inadequate subsistence theory, it offers both a realizable and more needs satisfying approach by mentioning the rights to food, shelter, health care and education. However, only making emphasis of the right to food, can just mean enough food to prevent from starvation. Rather we would suggest it be " right to be free from hunger", accepting it as a human right. Regarding the implementation of these universal socio- economic human rights, we think that Cranston is right and it is not universal but a local duty. We also agree with O'Neill that the states are the best candidates to implement these rights.

If it is accepted that the socio- economic human rights entail a universal duty, there has to be a universal organization implementing it and that is not possible as that organization has to establish branches everywhere to ensure the achievement of the socio- economic rights. Thus the position of O'Neill can be adopted that the states are the best candidates for implementing the socio- economic rights, because they are still the most powerful and capable institutions to be able to cope with it.

To conclude, although the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 mentioned several socio- economic rights as human rights, its content is criticized heavily by the scholars, for being impossible to be achieved and thus, different thinkers proposed their own minimum levels of socio- economic rights. Regarding the moral debate, some philosophers criticize the universal socio- economic human rights and state that universal socio- economic human rights are individualistic, Western dominated or related with specific groups of people thus, they accept the socio- economic rights as special or citizenship rights. The other group of scholars stress the universality of socio- economic human rights or at least accept that the basic needs of every human should be satisfied somehow. This second group of scholars justifies their argument by emphasizing the common human characteristics and the difficulty to distinct people according to their background. Then, the practicability debate raises question over the implementation of the socio- economic rights. There, Cranston and Birnbaum discuss about the universal duty of socio- economic rights, while the former rejects it because of the impossibility to implement and accepts it as a local right, the latter after admitting the universality of it , offers a universal basic income solution. On the other hand, O'Neill and Nickel argue that the governments and people of specific countries could do the best implementation of the socio- economic rights. Under the light of all the moral and practicability debates, the most plausible synthesis that can be made seems like adopting the socio- economic rights as a universal human right and leaving the implementation of them to the states, as the most powerful institutions having the capability of achieving socio- economic human rights.

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SOSYO- EKONOMİK HAKLAR: EVRENSEL İNSAN HAKKI MI YOKSA DAHA DAR ÖLÇEKTE BİR HAK MI?

Özet: Sivil ve politik hakların evrensel bir insan hakkı olduğu hususunda akademisyenlerin çoğu görüş birliğinde iken, aynı şeyi sosyo-ekonomik haklar konusunda söylemek mümkün değildir. Gerek meselenin etik yönü ve gerekse uygulama alanındaki zorluklar, bu konuyla uğraşan akademisyenleri görüş ayrılıklarına itmiştir. Sosyo- ekonomik haklar, kısaca, bir bireyin minimum yaşam standardına sahip olma hakkıdır. 1948 Evrensel İnsan Hakları Beyannamesi'nin son maddeleri ve Birleşmiş Milletler Ekonomik, Sosyal ve Kültürel Haklar Uluslararası Sözleşmesi sosyo- ekonomik hakları garanti altına almasına rağmen, bir çok düşünür tarafından uygulanması çok zor hatta ütopik bulunmuştur. Mesela bu iki anlaşma işten izin alma hakkı ve kültür- sanat etkinliklerine katılma hakkını bile sosyo- ekonomik haklar kapsamına almaktadır. Özellikle bu iki maddenin evrensel sosyo- ekonomik hak olarak anlaşmalarda geçmesi, insanlığın bütünü için beslenme, giyim ve barınak bile sağlanamayan bir dünyada ne kadar gerçekleştirilebilir olduğunun sık sık sorgulanmasına neden olmuştur. Bu sebeple, bazı düşünürler kendi alternatif sosyo- ekonomik haklar tanımlarını yapma yoluna gitmişlerdir. Henry Shue, Brian Orend ve John Rawls gibi düşünürler yalnızca yaşamı sürdürebilecek kadar olan "asgari geçim"i evrensel insan hakkı olarak kabul ederken, Gillian Brock gibi düşünürler ise ihtiyaç bazlı bir model önerir ve "insan hakkı" tanımlamalarını "baskıcı bir Batı İdeolojisi" olarak görür. Öte yandan, James Nickel ise "asgari geçime"e ek olarak eğitim ve sağlık hizmetlerini de evrensel temel bir hak olarak görür. Sosyo- ekonomik hakların etik boyutu da, önemli bir tartışma alanı teşkil eder. Sosyo- ekonomik hakların negatif hak mı, pozitif hak mı olduğu, yükümlülük getirip getirmediği ve bütün bunların evrensel boyutta mı yoksa yerel boyutta mı olduğu akademisyenler tarafından çokça tartışılmıştır. Bununla birlikte, Robert Nozick gibi radikal libertenyenlerin dışında, çoğu düşünür, sosyo- ekonomik hakların insanlara yükümlülükler yüklediğini kabul eder, fakat evrensellik – yerellik hususu daha tartışmalıdır. Ele alınan tartışmadaki birinci grup, sosyo- ekonomik hakları, yerel, spesifik veya vatandaşlık hakkı olarak kabul eder. Bunun başlıca sebebi ise, toplumlar arası ahlaki ve kültürel değerlerin göreceli olmasından ileri gelir. Halbuki, kültürler farklı olsa da, her insanın yemek, içmek ve barınma gibi ortak ihtiyaçları vardır. Bu noktada kültür farklılığının evrensel sosyo- ekonomik hak kavramını çürütmesi zor görünmektedir. İkinci grupta yer alan Pogge, Bernier, Nickel gibi düşünürler ise bazı sosyo - ekonomik hakları evrensel insan hakkı olarak kabul etme eğilimindedir. Fakat bize göre bu grup da mesafe kavramını yeterince ciddiye almama hatasına düşmektedir. Yukarıdaki iki grubun görüş ayrılığı, konu sosyo- ekonomik hakların bir diğer önemli kısmı olan uygulanabilirliğe geldiğinde de devam etmektedir. Birinci grup eğer sosyo- ekonomik haklar evrensel insan hakkı ise, evrensel yükümlülük manasına da geldiğini belirttikten sonra, böyle bir evrensel yükümlülüğün uygulanamaz olduğunu ifade eder. Bu uygulanama eksikliği yüzünden birinci grup, sosyo- ekonomik hakların evrenselliğini reddeder ve ancak yerel sosyo- ekonomik hakların olabileceğini öne sürer. Öte yandan, ikinci grup ise sosyo- ekonomik hakların evrensel insan hakkı olduğunu yineler, fakat evrensel uygulama yerine yerel uygulamayı önerir ve devletlerin bunu yapabilecek en güçlü aday olduklarını vurgular. Bu bulgulardan yola çıkarak bir sentez yapacak olursak, sosyo- ekonomik hakların evrensel insan hakkı olduğunu kabul etmeğe dair etik argümanlarda büyük bir engel görülmemekte, fakat uygulanabilirlik alanı bunu zora sokmaktadır. Buna da en makul çözüm olarak sosyo- ekonomik hakları evrensel insan hakkı olarak kabul edip, uygulamayı yerel ölçekte yapmak olarak gözükmektedir. Öte yandan, sosyo-ekonomik hakların tam olarak

neyi kapsayacağı sorusuna cevap mukabilinde ise, Nickel' in önerdiği "asgari geçim", sağlık hizmetleri ve eğitim, en kabul edilebilir seçenek olarak durmaktadır. Buna ek olarak da, buradaki "asgari geçim" maddesinin içinde "aç olmama" veya "açlıktan kurtulma" hakkına sahip olmanın önemine daha fazla vurgu yapılması gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sosyo – Ekonomik Haklar, Yoksulluk, İnsan Hakları

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FIRM GROWTH AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS: CORRECTION FOR SAMPLE SELECTION BIAS USING HECKMAN SELECTION MODEL

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Abstract: In this study, the relationships between firm growth and firm age, size, commercial strategy, entrepreneur's human capital and innovation efforts are analyzed by using survey data collected from firms operating in Isparta, which is the most significant production area in forest products industry. The negative effects of firm age and size on growth are confirmed in forestry products firms, too. Only the firm size is significant from the expected positive effects of age and size on firm survival. However, growth performance of exporting firms is higher. While regular R&D activities and innovation efforts don't have significant effect on growth performance, they significantly increase the survival probability. Education level and experience which are used as entrepreneur's human capital, have positive and significant effect on growth. However, only education level has significant effect on survival, contrary to expectations, the direction of the effect is negative. This situation shows that activities in different areas have negative effects on survival and it also points out the importance of sectoral specialization / education.

***Key Words*:** Firm Growth, Sample Selection Bias, Heckman Selection Model

1-INTRODUCTION

Firm growth is a performance scale. According to Gibrat, firm growth is independent form starting scale. The change probabilities in time for the survived firms are; remaining the same, downsizing or growth. While remaining the same and downsizing are undesirable conditions for the firms, growth indicates compliance with the competitive environment. (Demirgil,2008). To increase growth performance, firms have to follow successfull strategies that can adopt changing environmental conditions.

Factors affecting firms' growth performance can be classified in four categories based on studies made about firm growth before:

- ❖ Firm based factors
- ❖ Industry based factors
- ❖ Human Capital
- ❖ Local Factors

Firm age and size are the most important and well known variables affecting growth probability at firm level. Market size, growth ratios, technology specialities and product life terms are the most important factors affecting growth probability at industry level.

It has been observed that age factor has a negative effect on firm growth and growth ratio decreases as the firms get older in France (Fizaine, 1968). Barron et al., studied New York credit institutions in 1994 and concluded that very young firms grow faster (Barron, 1994). Younger firms are more willing to grow than the old ones.

In the literature, it has been seen that there are studies which have both positive and negative results regarding whether firm size has any impacts on the growth or not. It has been approved that there is a positive relationship between firm size and growth (Audretsch and Mahmood, 1995; Mata et al., 1995, Baptista and Karaöz, 2006). However, some other studies suggest results which are in contradictory directions. (Caves, 2006; Audretsch et al., 1999; Agarwal and Audretsch, 2001). For example Audretsch et al., haven't seen this relationship for 9 out of 13 firms in Italian production industry in 1999.

Industrial characteristics, which affect growth performance, contain variables that show their effects in time. These variables are defined with the help of industry's time phases (Agarwal et al., 2002).

The environment is generous in terms of existing sources in growing or developing markets (Castrogiovanni;1991). Firms can carry out high growth rates in growing markets. For example in 2003, Park et al. concluded that mergers are common in growing markets. Merger strategies are considered to be useful for the firm growth.

In addition to these three categories, the effect of innovation efforts started to come forward especially at the end of 1990s. In changing environment, innovation will provide a competitive position for the firm, thus increase the potential of being successfull in the market. This effect is vitally important for the firms operating in the sector, and so do the firms which are newly established and entering ones alike.

Innovative firms which are new entrant to the market, differ from other firms and have an important advantage on survival (Lalkaka, 2002; Santarelli and Vivarelli, 2007; Song et al., 2008). Studies show that innovation efforts increase survival probability (Stuart and Abetti 1987; Audretsch, 1991; Agarwal and Audretsch, 2001; Watson et al., 1998).

Scherer(1965), argues that new inventions increase firm profits by leading to increased product sales. Geroski and Toker (1996) have analyzed England's leading 209 firms and concluded that innovation efforts have positive significant effect on sales increase.

Mansfield (1962) has analyzed steel and oil industries. He revealed that especially small firms grow faster if they are innovated successfully.

It is mentioned that there are many factors affecting firm growth and survival. As firm growth refers to the process that continue after firm survival, factors affecting firm survival are accepted as factors affecting firm growth, too.

In this study, firm and industry based factors which determine firms growth performance will be analysed with the sample of wooden and forest products industry firms operating in lakes region. At the first section, basic approaches about factors affecting firms' growth performance will be emphasized. At the second section, short information about wooden and forest products industry which is important for the lake district will be given. Finally, the effect levels of the factors affecting firm growth performance will be determined and it will be tried to draw a way to illuminate the growth performance for sector firms.

2-DETERMINANTS OF FIRMS' GROWTH PERFORMANCE

The establishment of firm in a healthy way is very important for the firm's survival and growth. For this reason, it is very important for the firm to identify the right sector and needed field of activity. However, many of the entrepreneurs make mistakes during the establishment of the firms. Without making market survey, entrepreneurs head to the market which was profitable the previous year. When such a case is concerned, contraction in the sector is leaded to due to the supply which exceeds demand. Therefore, many firms which are established without making market survey fail within a year.

Some firms bring themselves to their ends while growing, in other words, they can't perform a balanced and healty growth. Because these firms don't have healthy financial structures, they go failure by consuming their capital. To get rid of this situation, firms must follow the market better and make plans according to the new situations. Sometimes, succeeding survival may give better results than grow for the firms.

The survival and growth of some firms and stagnation and fail of other firms led researchers to investigate the reasons and results of this unfavorable situation. Researches have shown that there are some factors affecting firm survival and growth. Some firms even may have to down in size to survive.

Recently ampirical studies have increased thanks to the the development of research techniques, easiness of sample

selection or finding, the development of econometric tools, the availability of data (Coad, 2009).

Studies show that firm age and firm size are the most important factors affecting firm survival and growth performance (Coad, 2009). Firm age and size are closely related concepts. It is assumed in the studies that old firms develop very slowly and they are less skilled at adopting environmental changes. There is a general opinion that old firms don't have entrepreneurial spark to see new opportunities and to take these opportunities further and younger firms have more growth ratio than the old ones. (Coad, 2009). Evans (1987) concluded that firm size and firm age have negative effect on growth in his study, which is about manifacturing industry firms in USA. Similar results are valid for mine, wholesale retail firms, too (Variyam and Kraybill, 1992).

According to the researches, younger firms have more advantages in terms of the relationship between firm age and growth performance (Niskanen,2005). Production gets monotonous as the firms get older. These firms continue to do what they know best, they don't want to change. This situation causes recession for the firms over time. The recession may be deeper because the staff are fixed in current position and they resist changing. But young firms control the market better, because they have made a new entry on the market and they are hungry for growth and succeed (Coad, 2009). As a result of this, young firms are more willing to grow than the old ones.

The negative relationship between firm age and growth remains valid in distinction between developing and developed countries. If we look at the developing countries, we see that there is a negative relationship between firm growth ratios and firm age. Young firms grow faster than the old ones sustainably in developing countries as in developed countries (Nichter and Goldmark, 2009).

Jovanovic revealed the reasons of faster growth of the young firms in his research in 1982. Jovanovic developed a model which says that firms, in the beginning, expand rapidly, later on, when they are closer to the optimal scale, the explansion gets slower. Despite the slowdown of the firms' expansion, productivity is expected to increase as the firms get older and firm owners learn the optimal scale. But according to the Jovanovic's learning model, firms don't have enough information about their productivity when they enter the industry, they get more information as they continue to produce. This learning process continues untill reaching the optimal scale. This optimal sized firm is not only very efficient but also has a high growth speed (Jovanovic, 1982). But researches show that firms suffer from the loss of efficiency as they get older in developing countries (Burki and Terrell,1998).

Aging of firms and decrease in the growth rate concerning age are very important for economic policy. Ensuring participation of younger (new) firms in the economy is very important to keep the economy alive and to create new employement opportunities. The necesssity of state support should not be forgotten at this point.

Innovation has been defined as a required method in recent years because of the framework of more difficult competition conditions, the contraction in firms' market and profit margin, similarity of products and services, the drop of prices, the entrance of global players to markets (Yalçın,2006). Innovating firms increase competition chances by making difference, supplying the same product in cheaper and higher quality. This kind of innovative firms differ from others and have a positive advantage on survival (Lalkaka, 2002; Santarelli and Vivarelli, 2007; Song et al., 2008). Researches show that R&D efforts and innovation activities increase growth probability (Fitzroy and Kraft, 1991; Doms et al., 1995). Although there is a common Schumpeterian assumption which says more innovative and active firms' growth performance are better, there are few studies investigating the effects of innovation on growth. Some of these studies have concluded that the effect of innovation on growth is positive (Geroski and Machin, 1992; Geroski and Toker, 1996; Yasuda, 2005). There are some studies which argue that innovation has negative effect (Freel and Robson, 2004), or has no significant effect (Bottazzi et al., 2001; Lööf and Hesmati, 2006) too. However, researches show that the effect of innovation on growth varies by different firm types. Hölzl (2009), states that the effect of R&D differs in slow and fast growing firms. Del Monte and Papagni, (2003) concludes that this difference is revealed by R&D density. In our era, on which the knowledge economy and economy policies aim innovation-led growth, innovation is seen as an important tool for the firms for competing and growth efforts.

Factors which are unique to entrepreneurs such as human capital and social capital, organizational structure and information networks, make growth easier for the firms. According to Penrose (1959), growth is very closely related to the processes which require and use information.

Information level acquired by the entrepreneur, therefore, effects growth rate and type significantly (Greiner, 1998; Scott and Bruce, 1987). Entrepreneur's having job experience, reduces negativitiy about efficiency level, helps to increase market share, allows to set capacity faster, so survival probability of the firm increases. The effect of entrepreneur experience on new firm success, may start before firm establishment. For example, the entrepreneur can use his adaptation role on how to reach to the needed sources. Experienced firms can catch profitable opportunities and reach all of the information about market conditions easily (Demirgil, 2008). Firms which have experience concerning the product have more advantage than the ones established at the same time. Therefore, early entered firms perform more R&D activities and they can earn more than the other ones (Klepper, 2002).

The highness of past experience level increases both economic performance and opportunities which the entrepreneur can obtain. Therefore, a skilled entrepreneur shows a better performance when he works for himself and he will have a better performance to continue work life (Gimeno et al.,1997). If an entrepreneur establishes a new firm in an industry that he previously worked, he becomes the dominant position in firm's business environment and sector's structural properties (Santarelli, 2007). Entrepreneur's past work experience can affect firm growth in two ways: the first one, by affecting firm owner's and staff's abilities and knowledge directly, the second one, by obtaining a wide network for the firm owner (Nichter and Goldmark, 2009).

The initial aim of this study is to reveal if there are important effects of innovation and information for firm growth. The pattern behaviour of Turkish firms differs from USA and EU firms. If the relationships between firm growth and innovation and information in USA and EU are valid for Turkish firms too, then these effects can be defined as general facts for different economic structures. However there are few studies investigating the effects of R&D and branching, which are the basic strategies of the firms, on firm growth. This study offers important contributions, in terms of analyzing this kind of positive firm strategies, to the forest products industry, which is very important for regional economy. The data required for studies in this field are obtained from surveys because of the limited data of the firms in Turkey. Therefore, there are few studies with big sample. The weak part of the study is that it has a small and sectoral sample.

3-DATA

Forest products industry has an important place in Isparta. Timber and furniture industry started to develop rapidly in Isparta after 1970's. Forest products industry was second after weaving and skin industry in terms of workplace and the number of employed persons and thus it became an important element for the economy of the province (Itso,2008).

That Isparta's 40% is forest makes the sector important. While most of the products are consumed in domestic and local markets, some of them are exported. The export in 2009 was 11.877.845, 00 $ (Itso,2008).

The aim of this study is to analyze the survival and growth performance of the firms in wooden and forest products industry in Isparta adhering to the theoretical factors. It is desired to find which factors affect firms performance at most. For this study, face to face survey method is used to identify current structure of the firms at this sector. Number of firms in the sample set is 61. To determine the survival and growth performance of the firms, analyses have to be done between a specific time period. For this reason, the sample is the same with one used by Keskin(2008) in her study. A consideration will be made about survival and growth performance with the sample which consists of 65 firms from construction untill now.

8 out of these 65 firms have failed in 2009. Four of these eight firms were reached for the survey. Data which is needed for growth analysis is acquired by interviewing these failed firms. Distribution of these firms in the sample by sectors is given in table 1.

Table 1: Definitions Of The Variables

Variable	Definition	Min	Max
GROWTH	**The Four year average employment growth of the firm**	**-17**	**243**
AGE	**The age of the firm**	**6**	**51**
SIZE	**Number of employee**	**1**	**363**
EXPORT	**Dummy variable equal to 1 if firm i exports and 0 otherwise.**	**0**	**1**
R&D	**Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has R&D department and/or personal and 0 else**	**0**	**1**
ENTREDU	**Educational level of the entrepreneur schooling years**	**5**	**18**
ENTREXP	**The number of experience years of firm owners**	**2**	**47**

4-FINDINGS

The model, used for estimation, is defined in this section. The basic model which is used in the study is similar to the previous studies. Dependent variable is the i_{th} firm's growth ratio at t period ($G_{i,t}$). If we take i_{th} firm's size at t period as $SIZE_{i,t}$ *then* $G_{i,t}$=$SIZE_{i,t}$ - $SIZE_{i,t-1}$. Independent variables are firm age ($AGE_{i,t}$), export dummy representing the firm's trade strategies ($EXP_{i,t}$), R&D dummy ($RD_{i,t}$), entrepreneur's education level which reflects the knowledge level of the firm ($ENTREDU_{i,t}$) and the experience level of the entrepreneur ($ENTREXP_{i,t}$).

The model which is used in the study is the sample selection model used in the studies about firm growth. The estimation model is:

$$G_{i,t} = \gamma + \delta_1 AGE_{i,t-1} + \delta_2 SIZE_{i,t-1} + \delta 3EXPi,t-1+\delta 4RDi,t-1+\delta 5ENTREDUi,t-1+\delta 6ENTREXPi,t-1+\varepsilon i,t-1 \quad (1)$$

Dependent variable $G_{i,t}$ may not always be observed. For example if the i_{th} firm is observed both in 2009 and in 2012 then $G_{i,t}$ is observed for this firm. In other words, if the firm is survived during this term this situation is valid. If the i_{th} firm exists in both samples of 2009 and 2013, then $SRV_{i,t}$ = 1;, if it exists only in the sapmple of 2009, $SRV_{i,t}$ = 0. So we can define the selection model as follows:

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$$SRV_{i,t}^{*} = \vartheta + \theta_1 ENTREDU_{i,t-1} + \theta_2 ENTREXP_{i,t-1} + \theta_2 RD_{i,t-1} + \omega_{i,t-1}$$

$$SRV_{i,t} = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad SRV_{i,t}^{*} > 0 \\ 0 & SRV_{i,t}^{*} \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

It is accepted that error terms have normal distribution.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{i,t-1} \\ \omega_{i,t-1} \end{pmatrix} \sim N\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma & \rho\sigma \\ \rho\sigma & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Instead of the growth and selection equations defined above, the following equations which include the logarithmic values of age and size and variables measuring the interactive effect of these two variables will be used.

$$G_{i,t} = \gamma + \delta_1 lnAGE_{i,t-1} + \delta_2 lnSIZE_{i,t-1} + \delta 3 lnAGEi,t-1(lnSIZEi,t-1) + \delta 4 EXPi,t-1 + \delta 5 RDi,t-1 + \delta 6 ENTREDUi,t-1 + \delta 7 ENTREXPi,t-1 + \varepsilon i,t-1 \quad (1)$$

$$SRV_{i,t}^{*} = \vartheta + \theta_1 ENTREDU_{i,t-1} + \theta_2 ENTREXP_{i,t-1} + \theta_2 RD_{i,t-1} + \omega_{i,t-1} \quad (2)$$

For estimation, Full-Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) estimators with sample selection moethod will be used.

The equations (1) and (2) are redefined to explain sample selection method with Full-Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) estimators.

$$G_{i,t} = \varphi' X_{i,t-1} + \varepsilon_{i,t-1}$$

$$SRV_{i,t} = \lambda' Y_{i,t-1} + \omega_{i,t-1}$$

By taking into account the FIML, the likelihood function is:

$$L = \prod_{i \in (SRV_{i,t}=0)} \left[1 - \Phi(\lambda' Y_{i,t-1})\right] \times \prod_{i \in (SRV_{i,t}=1)} \left[\frac{\lambda' Y_{i,t-1} + \frac{\rho}{\sigma}(G_{i,t} - \varphi' X_{i,t-1})}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right] \frac{1}{\sigma} \times \phi\left(\frac{G_{i,t} - \varphi' X_{i,t-1}}{\sigma}\right)$$

In the equation (Φ) and (∅) represent normal probability density function and cumulative distribution function. Maximum probability estimators will be acquired by maximizing the logarithm of this probability function.

Studies show that firm size and age have positive relationship with growth and negative relationship with survival. Growth opportunities reduce as the firm's size increases (capacity expands) after starting to operate, In the first few years, young firms will try to increase their size to obtain minimum efficient scale.

There are two kinds of innovation as a result of R&D activities. As the sales increase because of the product innovation, there will be an increase in the number of employees of the firm too. Nevertheless, if the process innovation is a labor-saving technology, the firm size, which is measured by the number of emplyees, will decrease. Generally, innovation activities which have positive effect on growth, are not clear on survival due to the risks.

There are two reasons which explain the performance increase of exporting firms. The first one, exporting firms will have the opportunity of the benefits of the scale economies by operating in a large market. The second one, firms which are active in oversea markets are exposed to more intense competition and they have to be faster than other firms which sell their products in domestic markets (Wagner, 2002).

The main source of the information that the firm needs for survival and growth after starting to operate is the education level and past experiences of the entrepreneur. The capabilities of the entrepreneur, such as education level and experience are thought to be important for firm performance (Nicholls-Nixon et al., 2000; Gray, 2002). So positive effects on firm performance are expected.

5-RESULTS

In the study, before firm growth performance and knowloedge level and strategies, it is aimed to analyse the relationships between firm age, size and growth ratios.

Table 2. Firm Age, Size And Growth

	Variable	Coefficient	Standart Error
Growth Function	*lnAGE*	-28.206	6.584*
	lnSIZE	-39.831	2.591*
	(lnAGE)(lnSIZE)	18.111	0.002*
	constant	64.674	20.141*
Selection Function	*lnAGE*	0.099	0.255
	lnSIZE	0.303	0.103*
	constant	-0.146	0.784
Number of observations	61		
Censored observations	6		
ρ (rho)	15.33*		
Log-Likelihood	-262.445		

*Statistically significant at 1%level, ** Statistically significant at 5%level, and *** Statistically significant at 10%level

Table 3 shows the estimation outputs of sample selection model. In the growth function, age coefficient is -28.206 and statistically significant; firm size coefficient is -39.831 and statistically significant, as well. In selection function, firm age is positive (0.099) but not significant but size coefficient is 0.303 and significant. These results show that the negative relationship between firm age and growth is valid. In terms of survival, firm age and size are positive as expected but only firm size is statistically significant. These results show that small and young firms have higher growth ratios than big and old firms.

Table 3. Firm Strategy, Entrepreneurial Skills, R&D, And Growth

	Variable	Coefficient	Standart Error
Growth Function	*lnAGE*	-24.068	7.174*
	lnSIZE	-42.947	9.947*
	(lnAGE)(lnSIZE)	16.959	3.221*
	EXP	31.409	11.698*
	RD	14.579	9.606
	ENTREDU	14.505	6.751*
	ENTREXP	0.732	0.279*
	Constant	48.413	16.275*
Selection Function	*ENTREDU*	-1.435	0.356*
	ENTREXP	0.0001	0.0007
	RD	4.891	0.817*
	constant	0.507	0.158
Number of observations	61		
Censored observations	6		
ρ (rho)	-15.077*		
Log-Likelihood	-249.124		

*Statistically significant at 1%level, ** Statistically significant at 5%level, and *** Statistically significant at 10%level

In addition to firm age and size, we will include entrepreneur's human capital and innovation efforts and analyze their effects on performance. Table 4 shows the results of estimation about the relationships between R&D efforts, entrepreneur's education level and past experience, export activities and firm growth. In survival analysis (in selection function), entrepreneur's age and past experience and R&D activities are stated instead of age and size. First, we see that firms' activities in international markets by exporting have positive and statistically significant effect on growth performance. Literature shows that exporting firms have bigger size, higher efficiency rate and make more capital and technology intensive production (Clerides et al., 1998; Aw et al., 1998; Bernard and Jensen, 1999). Externalities and advantages, which are required by export, effect firms' growth efforts positively.

R&D coefficient, which we included as dummy variable, is positive but not statistically significant. Even innovation is critically important for firm growth, it is largely connected to the factors that are not related to the firms. Therefore, some of the ampirical studies which are about innovation and firm performance, are inconclusive (Sorenson and Stuart, 2000, Ortega-Argiles and Moreno, 2007; Winters and Stam, 2007). However, it is seen that R&D variable has a positive effect. We see that in forest products industry, which is capital-intensive, scale economies play an important role, and innovative firms' survival probabilities thus increase. This result is consistent with the other studies' results which say that new entrant innovative firms have more survival probabilities (Audretsch et al., 2000; Cefis and Marsili, 2005; Perez et al., 2004).

Ampirical results show that entrepreneur's education and past experience have positive and significant effect on firm growth. High education level and manager/employee/firm owner experience affect firm growth performance positively. If we look at the entrepreneur's human capital's efffects on survival, we see that education level has a significant but negative effect while experience has no significant effect. This result points out that gaining of education may be higher in labor market rather than in firms. The survival probability of an entrepreneur's firm depends on relative gainings obtained from human capital. If the entrepreneur's

gainings, which are obtained from other jobs, is higher, education level from a particular area may reduce the survival probability (Nafziger and Terrell, 1996; Gimeno et al., 1997). Therefore, it can be said that educatin or experience from different professions have positive effects on survival in forest products industry.

6-CONCLUSION

In this study, the relationships between firms's growth performance and age, size, firm strategy, entrepreneur's human capital and innovation activities in Isparta, which is one of the most important production zone in forest products industry in Turkey, were analyzed by using survey data conducted with sector firms. In the beginning, the effects of firm age and size on growth were analyzed and it is found that these two variables have negative and statistically significant effect on growth. It is seen that firm size has positive and significant effect on survival as expected, while age has no statistically significant effect on survival.

Later, the effects of export, entrepreneur's human capital and R&D activities as firm strategy on growth are analyzed. R&D variable doesn't have any effects on growth but it has positive and significant effect for the firms to continue their activities. Survival probabilities of the firms increase as innovation level increases, growth-innovation relationship doesn't show any positive effects at sectoral level. More emphasis should be paid to the newly established firms in innovation policies, because R&D activities are more important for these firms. Firms' externalities ,which are acquired by export, effect growth positively. As the literature shows, it is valid for this study that exporting firms start operating with small size and show rapid growth performance.

Entrepreneur's education level and past experience, which we use as entrepreneur's human capital, have positive and significant effect on firm growth. Entrepreneur is very important for reaching the information which the firm needs in establishment phase. For this reason, entrepreneur's education level and experience are added in addition to the innovation variable in sample selection model. Experience has no significant effect on survival. The situation is different for Education. The firms which are established by highly educated entrepreneurs, seem to fail more in continuing their activities. 9% of the low educated entrepreneurs(less than 10 years of education) don't operate in forest product industry while this rate is 24% for university graduates. This result points out that the entrepreneur choose when he obtains greater opportunities than forest products industry. Additionally, it can be thought that survival probability increase if the entrepreneur takes specific education.

To summarize the findings, we conclude that firm age and size gave expected results for growth, yet only size is significant for survival. Entrepreneur's human capital and innovation variables differ for growth and survival in forest products industry. Although it is thought that the weak part of the study is the usage of sectoral sample, results show that the answers to the following two questions are different. How can firms have higher growth rates and how can they increase survival probability? In this sense, the study gives direction to subsequent studies and decision-makers.

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FİRMA BÜYÜMESİ VE KARAKTERİSTİKLERİ: ÖRNEKLEM SEÇİM YANLILIĞININ HECKMAN SEÇİM MODELİ KULLANILARAK DÜZELTİLMESİ

Özet: Firmaların büyüme ve hayatta kalma performansı üzerinde etkili olan birçok faktörden bahsedilmektedir. Büyüme, hayatta kalma sonrası devam eden bir süreci ifade ettiği için, bahsedilecek olan üçlü sınıflandırmada yer alan değişkenler aynı zamanda firmaların büyüme performansını etkileyen faktörler olarak da kabul edilmektedir. Bugün birçok firma, hayatta kaldıkları süreç içerisinde farklılaşma ve sürekli bir büyüme çabası içindedir. Bu çabaların bir sonucu olarak birçoğu sağlıklı bir biçimde büyüme amaçlarını gerçekleştirmektedir. Firmaların sağlıklı biçimde kurulması o firmanın yaşamını devam ettirmesi ve büyümesinde çok önemli bir etkiye sahiptir. Bu nedenle girişimcinin firma kurulmadan önce doğru sektörü ve piyasada ihtiyacı hissedilen bir faaliyet alanını tespit etmesi gerekmektedir. Ancak birçok girişimci ticari faaliyette bulunurken kuruluş aşamasında hatalar yapmaktadır. Girişimciler yeteri kadar piyasa araştırması yapmadan, o yıl hangi alanda ticaret olumlu sinyaller verdiyse bir sonraki yıl o sektöre yönelmektedirler. Bu durumda da talepten fazla arz ile sektör daralmaktadır. Bu yüzden piyasa araştırması yapılmadan açılan birçok işletme daha yaşını bile doldurmadan kapanmaktadır. Bazı firmalar ise büyürken kendi sonunu getirmekte, yani dengeli ve sağlıklı bir büyüme gerçekleştirememektedir. Çünkü firmalar büyürken sağlıklı bir mali yapıya sahip olmadıkları için sahip oldukları sermayeyi de tüketerek iflasa doğru gitmektedirler. Bu durumdan kurtulmak için firmalar piyasayı iyi takip etmeli ve gelişmelere göre planlama yapması gerekmektedir. Bazen firmaların, büyümek yerine dönemsel olarak hayatta kalmayı becerebilmeleri daha iyi sonuçlar verebilir. Bu durumda bazı firmalar hayatta kalmayı başarmış ve tutarlı bir şekilde büyüyebilmişken, bazılarının işlerinin durağanlaşması ve ölmeleri araştırmacıları bu olumsuz durumun nedenlerini ve sonuçlarını araştırmaya yönlendirmiştir. Yapılan araştırmalar göstermişki firmaların hayatta kalma ve büyüme performansını etkiyen bazı faktörler vardır. Özellikle son zamanlarda araştırma tekniklerinin gelişmesiyle, örneklem seçme ya da bulma kolaylığı, ekonometrik araçların gelişmesi, verilerin bulunabilirliği gibi olumlu yöndeki ilerlemeler sayesinde bu alanda yapılan ampirik çalışmalar artmaktadır. Firmaların performans ve ölçek anlamında büyümesi, ekonomik büyüme ve toplumsal refahın artmasına önemli katkılar sağlamaktadır. Ayrıca, yeni firma ve girişimlerin kapasitelerini arttırmaları ve büyümeleri ile birlikte, atıl durumdaki işgücünü istihdam ederek işsizliğin azalmasına katkı sağlayacağı varsayılmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, Türkiye'de firma büyümesinin belirleyicileri ve bireysel firma büyüme süreci ile ilgili kesin bilgiler mevcut değildir. Bu noktada, başarılı büyüme performansı gösteren firmalar arasında ortak özellikler olup olmadığı ve hangi destek türlerinin ve politikaların hızlı büyümeye katkı sağlayacağının belirlenmesi önem kazanmaktadır. Firmaların hayatta kalma ve büyüme performansı ile ilgili yapılan çalışmaları temel alarak, firmaların hayatta kalmasını ve büyümesini etkileyen faktörler üç ana kategoride sınıflandırılmıştır. Bu etkili olan faktörler örgütsel, yönetsel ve çevresel faktörler olmak üzere üç temel kategori içinde incelenmektedir. Çalışmamızda bu faktörlerden hangilerinin Isparta>da ağaç ve orman ürünleri endüstrisinde faaliyet gösteren firmaların hayatta kalma ve büyüme performanslarına etki ettiklerinin belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Örneklem olarak belirlenen firma sayısı 61'dir.Firmaların hayatta kalma ve büyüme performanslarının belirlenmesi için belirli bir zaman aralığında değerlendirme yapılması gerekmektedir. Bunun için 2008-2011 yılları baz alınmıştır. Firmaların büyüme performansını

etkileyen faktörler 61 adet firmayla yapılan anketler yardımıyla elde edilmiştir. Bu firmaların 57'si faaliyetine devam etmekte, 4'ü ise çeşitli zamanlarda faaliyetine son vermiştir. Veri seti sansürlü değişkenler içerdiği için, yöntem olarak Tobit Modeli ve Heckman Seçim modeli kullanılmıştır. Örneklemde çıkış yapan 4 firma hariç, 19 firma büyüme performansı gösterirken, 38 firmanın ölçeği aynı kalmıştır. Ampirik bulgular; girişimcinin tecrübesi, Ar-Ge ve Patent değişkenlerinin firmaların büyüme performansları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Girişimcinin tecrübesi, firmanın hayatta kalma ve büyüme performansını olumlu etkilemektedir. Tecrübe, doğru ürünü doğru zamanda üretme, gerekli kaynakları nereden ve nasıl en kaliteli ve en ucuza temin etme imkânı sağlar. Bunun yanında tecrübeli girişimci teknik olarak hızlı ve kaliteli mal üretme yeteneği sayesinde rakiplerine oranla büyük bir avantaj elde etmektedir. Tecrübenin artmasıyla beraber firma aldığı kararlarda yanılma payını en aza indirmektedir. Girişimcinin geçmiş iş tecrübesine sahip olması firma büyümesinde, firma sahibinin, çalışanların yeteneklerini ve birikimlerini doğrudan etkiler. Bunun yanında bu durum firma sahibine geniş bir network sağlayarak firma büyümesini etkileyebilir. Literatürde iş deneyiminin firma büyümesindeki etkisi hakkında çeşitli sonuçlar vardır. Girişimci eğer şu andaki işinde geçmiş tecrübeye sahipse firma büyümesine katkı sağladığı genel bir kabuldür. Yapılan çalışmaların tamamında geçmiş iş deneyiminin firmanın başarısını arttırdığı vurgulanmıştır. Buradan da anlaşıldığı gibi tecrübe firmaların hayatta kalma ve büyümesini genellikle olumlu etkilemektedir. Ar-Ge her ne kadar yetersiz görünse de, büyümek ya da hayatta kalmak isteyen firmalar ar- ge faaliyetlerine önem vermek zorundadır. Çünkü firmaların düzenli ar-ge faaliyetleri yapmaları hayatta kalma olasılıklarını artırmaktadır. Ayrıca patente sahip olan firmalar hem hayatta kalma hem de büyüme üzerinde önemli bir yere sahiptir. Patente sahip olan firmaların yeniliğe daha açık oldukları sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Firma Büyümesi, Örneklem Seçim Yanlılığı, Tobit Modeli, Heckman Seçim Modeli

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HEALTH TOURISM IN TURKEY AND PRACTICAL EXAMPLE OF ITS ECONOMIC DIMENSIONS

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Abstract: Turkey has made significant progress in health tourism within the last 20 years and began to compete with the most successful countries in health tourism. Also, the income obtained from health tourism has an important impact on the income obtained in health sector in Turkey and makes great contribution to the economy. This study aims to investigate the place of health tourism in health sector and its impacts on it. Within this context, various statistical data regarding the spending on health and health tourism between 2004-2013 was used. The data obtain from TUIK (Turkish Statistical Institute) was analysed via PASW Statistics 18 (SPSS-Statistical Package for Social Sciences) package program. Within the scope of the analysis, frequency tables and regression tests were used. The research findings illustrated that private hospitals were preferred more in health tourism, Germany, Bulgaria and Iraq are among the countries that send most health tourists, service is obtained more in other branches and eye and oncology fields and health tourism income is affected by the number of the tourists. The results of the study indicated that foreigners make up 70% of total health tourists in 2013, the rate of health spending in health tourism is 2.3% and health tourism income increased total heath income significantly.

***Key Words*:** Tourism, Economy, Health Care, Process, World, Competition, Industry

INTRODUCTION

Tourism activities considered as old as human history, has reached great dimensions today. Tourism, defined as the science, art and trade of attracting tourists and providing service to tourists has gained a quality that expands investments and work volume, creates incomes, provides foreign exchange, creates employment areas, meets the social and humanitarian functions affecting social and cultural life (Küçükaslan, 2006:2).

The need to diversify tourism has become a reality for our country. Many opportunities are available for our country to diversify tourism (Hacıoğlu and Şahin, 2008: 35). In this regard, health tourism

is one of the significant alternatives, and it has become a worldwide important industry with substantial development (Emir et al., 2008:397).

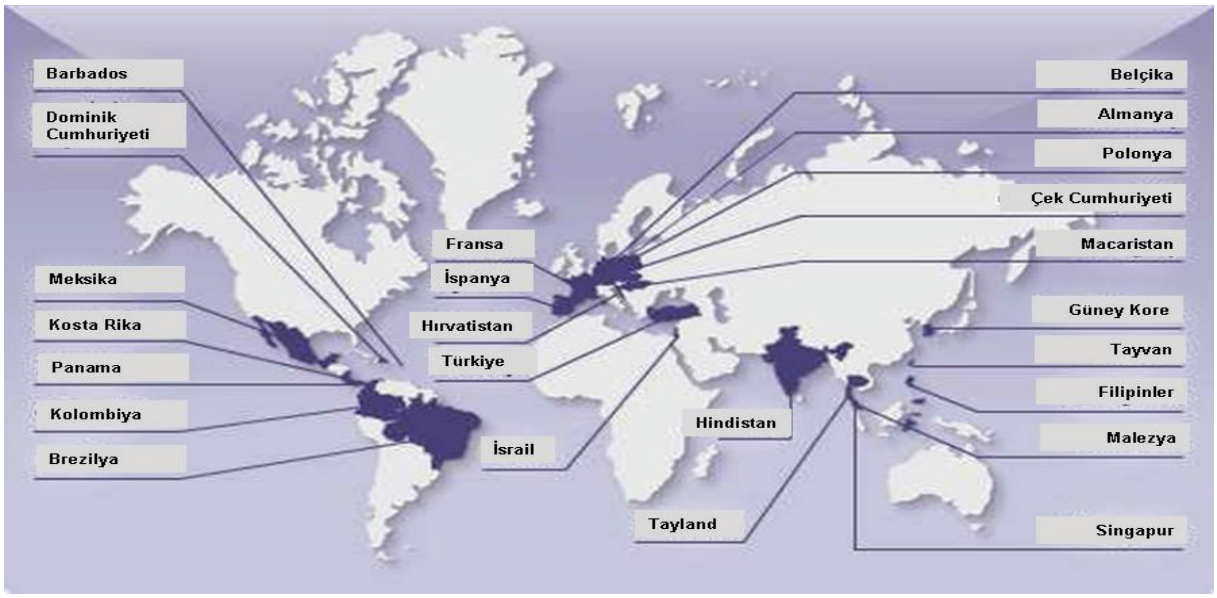
Health tourism is one of prominent sectors within tourism sector, which achieves significant growth with regard to investment and tourist number annually across the globe. People with health problems travel to convenient countries in order to obtain better health service with less cost. Moreover, wealthy people in underdeveloped countries travel to developed countries due to limited health opportunities.

Health tourism is the tourism type that allows for the development of health care facilities by using international patient potential in addition to people with needs of organ transplant, tooth treatment, physical treatment, rehabilitation and so on with the aim of improving physical well being of the individual travelling to thermal spring or other health care facilities. In other words, health tourism can be summarized as the travels made from the permanent residence to another place (domestic or foreign) for any reason related to health (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, General Directorate of Investment and Establishments, 2014).

Health tourism is the tourism type that allows for the development of health care facilities by making use of the individuals with the needs of physical therapy and rehabilitation and international patient potential. (Health Tourism Report in the World and Turkey, 2010).

In the general sense, health tourism is regarded as an organized tourism movement encompassing medical tourism, thermal spring Tourism (Thermal Spring + Spa & Wellness), and elderly care visits (www.ktbyatirimisletmeler.gov.tr).

In the recent years, the environmental problems resulting from the rapid population growth, industrialization and urbanisation pose threats against and deteriorate human lives and create an environment, which reduces productivity. The people who have to be present in such environments turn towards health tourism in order to protect their health, to be more productive and find cures to the diseases (Çonkar and Gülmez, 2004: 289).



Barbados: Barbados, Dominik Cumhuriyeti: Dominican Republic, Meksika: Mexico, Kosta Rika: Costa Rica, Panama: Panama, Kolombiya: Colombia, Brezilya: Brazil, Fransa: France, İspanya: Spain, Hırvatistan: Croatia, Türkiye: Turkey, İsrail: Israel, Hindistan: India, Tayland: Thailand, Belçika: Belgium, Almanya: Germany, Polonya: Poland, Çek Cumhuriyeti: Czech Republic, Macaristan: Hungary, Güney Kore: South Korea, Tayvan:Taiwan, Filipinler: Philippines, Malezya: Malasia, Singapur: Singapore

Image 1: The Map Illustrating The Countries Engaging In Health Tourism (Health Tourism Report In The World And Turkey, 2010)

Health tourism aims at offering medical alternatives in order to ensure wellness of patients and patient families. In parallel with the high education and welfare level in developed countries, service provision might have high costs. The share of the health needs and health expenses of the population getting older in developed countries increases day by day (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2010).

Health tourism, which draws attention as the most rapidly developing industry in Turkey, is one of the important in terms of the economic, social and political return it provides to the countries. Taking into consideration that 600 million health tourists across the world spend 2500 dollars in average in addition to the health tourism spending expected to reach 100 billion dollars in 2012, the magnitude of the sector becomes evident. Today, Turkey has become an attraction centre that draws the patients in Europe with the health service it provides. It ranks among the 7 top ten countries in the world in terms of source richness and potential (Gülen and Demirci, 2012).

In 2008, 5.1 trillion and in 20009 5.4 trillion USD in total were spent on health. Countries allocate money changing between % 2 and % 16 of the GNP for health spending. This rate is % 5.7 in Turkey (TÜSİAD, 2009).

Europe is on the top in the regional distribution of tourism income in the world. Europe is followed

by America, Asia and Africa respectively. Tourism contributes to employment, income level, easing the domestic/foreign debt, balancing spending and raising the welfare level of the people in various countries with tourism potential, particularly in developing countries (TSV, 2010: 9).

Also, the benefits of health tourism for the countries include the contribution of the revenue obtained from foreign tourists to the economical welfare of the country, enhancing the information exchange between the countries and developing partnership strategies between them, contributing to the technology and information transfer between the countries, providing better service to the domestic patients because of the international competition provided to the foreign patients (Annette and De Arellano, 2007).

Table 1. The Share Of Turkey In World Tourism And Internal Tourism (Gülen And Demirci, 2012)

Years	Number of the international tourists (million)	The number of the tourists visiting Turkey	International tourism income (billion USD)	Turkey's tourism expenses (million USD)
1980	277	1.288.060	102	326
1985	330	2.614.924	116	1.482
1990	455	5.389.308	255	3.225
1995	581	7.726.886	380	4.957
2000	687	10.412.000	481	7.636
2005	806	21.124.886	593	18.154
2010	1006	19.648.882*	682	10.043**
2020	1561***			

Source: World Tourism Organization (WTO), Türsab, Turkish Tourism Investors Association

*January-August 2010(TYD)

** January-July 2010 (TYD)

*** WTO Estimation

ith regard to Turkey tourism, 27 million tourists visited Turkey in 2009 and Turkey obtained 22 billion dollars of revenue. While Turkey ranked 29th in 1990, it rose to 7th position in 2009 (Gülen and Demirci, 2012). The number of the tourists visiting our country for health tourism is 91.504. Primary purpose of these visits is eye surgeries and infertility treatment. Tourists averagely spend is 4-5 days and spend 2500 dollars. All these figures and staying time illustrate the contribution made to the economy by health tourism compared to holiday tourism (Yılmaz, 2010: 27).

Turkey rose to 5th position in health tourism in which it started its journey from the 21th position in the world and rose to third position in terms of income. According to the data by Turkish Health Tourism Development Council, Turkey hosted 587.000 tourists in 2011 and obtained 3,5 billion dollars. 2015 goal has been set as 1 million patients and 10 billion dollars return. Turkey, which gained a significant infrastructure with the increase in state research hospitals and private hospital investments, expands the share it obtains from health tourism that reached a magnitude of 400 billion dollars day by day (www.turizmyatirimdergisi.com.tr).

Geographical location and moderate climate, 2th position in the world with 39 hospital accredited by JCL, presence of qualified human sources (especially in medicine and tourism areas), adequate bed capacity of the hospitals, having necessary physical and technological hospital infrastructures and having qualified doctors, developing private hospital sector and increasing number of the personnel who can speak different languages, lower health service cost offered in Turkey compared to European Union countries, adequate number of high quality hotels that will support health tourism, suitable climate conditions, presence of historical and touristic centres and rich thermal springs (1st in Europe and 7th in the world) are among the major advantages (Gülen and Demirci, 2012).

Moreover, medical tourism in Turkey can be sustained along with thermal tourism and it manifests itself as a very significant advantage of our country. Turkey, which is located on an important geothermal line in terms of tourism, is among the top seven countries in the world with regard to source richness and potential in this area (Western Blacksea Development Agency, 2011).

According to Western Mediterranean Development Agency data, health tourism grows between %6 and %12 annually. The patients from Germany constitute the majority of the patients receiving treatment in Turkey. The most important reason why many tourists coming from different countries prefer the health care facilities in Turkey for treatment is that the surgical operations conducted in Turkey are low-cost (Western Blacksea Development Agency, 2011).

Table 2. Comparison Of The Price Of Health Services In Countries (Thousand Dollars)

	USA	TURKEY	INDIA	THAILAND	SINGAPRE
Angio	47	5	11	10	13
Heart Bypass	113	12	10	13	20
Cardiac Valve Replacement	150	17	9.5	11	13
Hip Joint Replacement	47	11	9	12	11
Knee Joint Replacement	48	11	8.5	10	13
Spinal Fusion	43	7	5.5	7	9

Source: OECD (Medical Tourism: Treatments, Markets and Health System Implications), 2011; Health Tourism Guide in Turkey, 2012).

When Table 2 is examined, comparing the health service prices in Turkey and Asia with America, the price advantage in Turkey and Asia can be understood very well.

Turkey hosts most patients from Germany, Turkic Republics, Bulgaria, Romania and neighbouring countries like Iraq. The increase in the number of health tourists in years is directly proportional to the recognition level of health tourism. Health tourists coming to our country provide a price advantage with %50 and %65 rates per treatment. Making optimal use of the resources in hand, conducting advertisement and promotion studies aimed at target market effectively and turning the health tourism into a national policy and proceeding with state support is of great importance for the future of the health tourism. Target countries of Turkey in health tourism are given in the table below (Western Mediterranean Development Agency, Health Tourism Sector Report, 2013).

Table 3. Target Countries Of Turkey In Health Tourism

Angola	Madagascar	Germany	Montenegro	USA	Azerbaijan	Qatar
Sudan	Mali	England	Russia	Canada	Uzbekistan	Iraq
S. Sudan	Mauritania	Holland	Ukraine		Turkmenistan	Kuwait
D.Kongo	Uganda	Denmark	Romania		Kazakhstan	Saudi Arabia
Libya	Tunisia	Norway	Switzerland		Tajikistan	Yemen
Chad	Zambia	Sweden	Luxemburg		Mongolia	Bahrain
Ghana	Senegal	Finland	Belgium		Afghanistan	UAE
Nigeria	Ethiopia	France	Bosnia Herzegovina		Pakistan	
Kenya	Algeria	Albania	Kosovo		Kirghizstan	
Tanzania	Cameroon	Macedonia				

Source: Ministry of Economy, Communinique No. 2012/4 on Supporting Currency Providing Service Trade, Annex A-4, 2012).

The number of the foreign patients visiting Turkey in the last years is over 100.000 and it was found that tourists travelling to Turkey for health spend almost more than five fold of the normal tourists. It is reported that a tourist visiting Turkey spend between 3.500 and 35.000 dollars only for medical intervention excluding the travel expenses and expenses other than hospital. Occasionally, this figure might be higher. Taken into consideration the other expenses like accommodation, transportation and accompanying person, it can be clearly seen that tourism income is substantial. Besides, taken the direct and indirect taxes paid into account, the importance of health tourism in economy is underlined. Another advantage, the increase in the demand for service and the improvement and development studies conducted in the sector within this context have paved the way for Turkish people to get better health service (Quoted in: Mert, 2013).

Turkey has some features which makes it prominent in health tourism. Turkey is one of the countries offering affordable prices in health tourism. Sometimes, price advantage provided by Turkey reaches 70%. Accessing more than 60 countries without visa is another advantage (Çukurova Development Agency, Health Tourism Clustering Study, 2012).

OBJECTIVE, SCOPE AND METHOD

The research makes use of the health spending and health tourism statistics of 2004-2013 obtained from Turkish Statistical Agency and sağlık turizmi.org web site. The study aims at determining the impacts of health sector on Turkish health sector and make forecasts regarding the future.

To this end, total health tourism data, the distribution of foreign and Turkish citizens, total health tourism spending data was examined. Regression

method was employed in order to determine the correlations and to what extent it affects.

Data Analysis

Data set obtained from Turkish Statistical Agency was analysed via PASW Statistic 18 (SPSS-Statistical Package for Social Sciences) package programme. Within the scope of the analysis, frequency tables and regression tests were used.

The distribution of patients receiving health service according to hospital types by Years:

Examining the distribution of tourists visiting Turkey so as to receive health service in Turkey according to hospital types by years, it was identified that state hospital are the least preferred type. Private hospitals are preferred more than the state hospitals. The gap deepened in years and reached 102% in 2012.

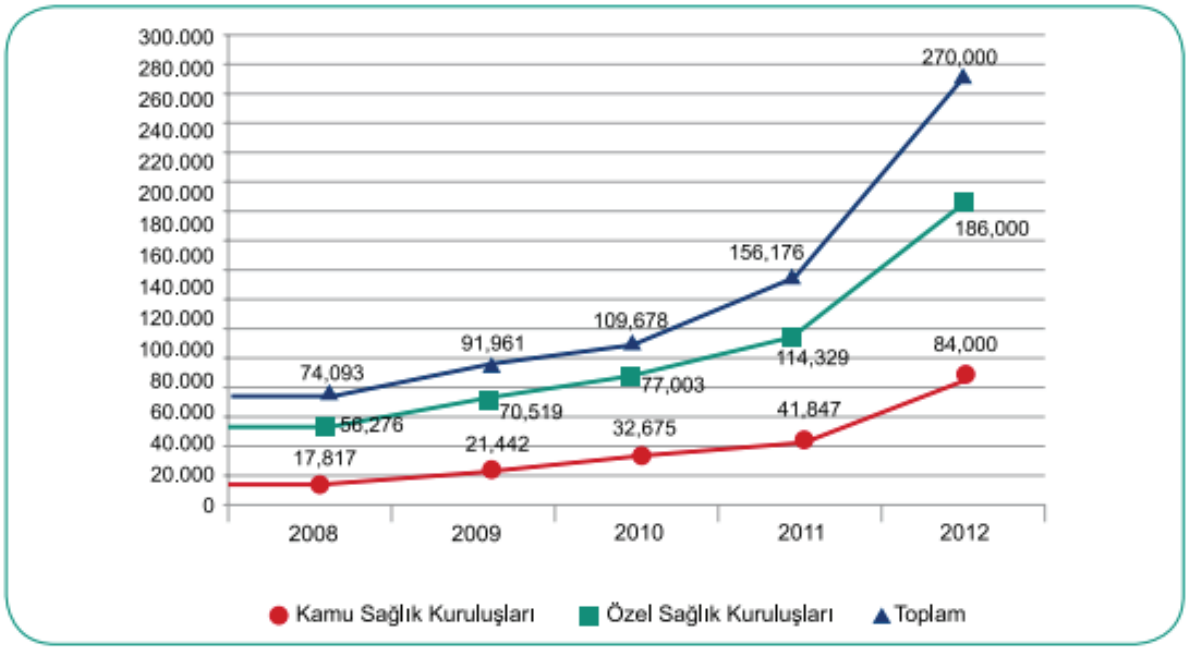


Image 2. The Distribution Of Tourists Visiting Turkey In Order To Receive Health Service According To Hospital Type By Years

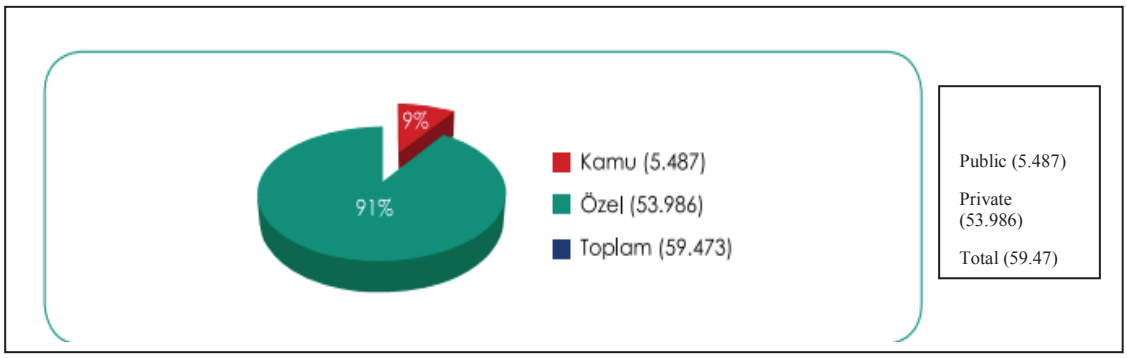


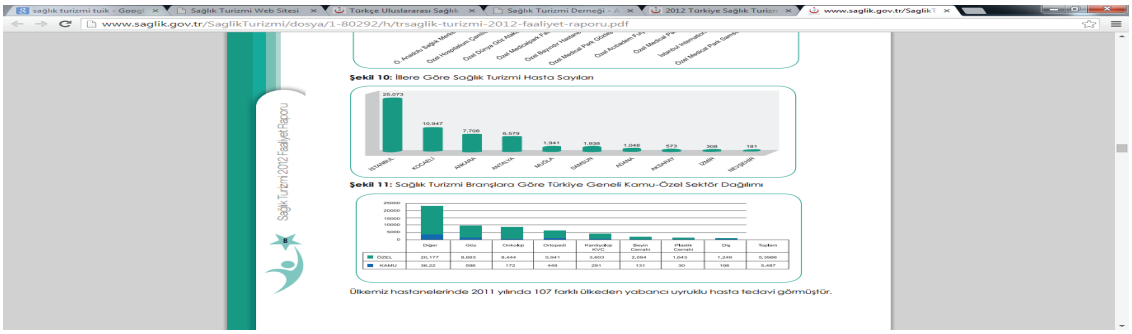
Image 3. The Graph Illustrating The Distribution Of Tourists According To The Hospital Types

Distribution of the number of health tourists by countries and provinces:

Examining the distribution of the health tourists visiting Turkey by countries, it can be seen that Germany ranks first. Germany is followed by Bulgaria and Iraq.

Examining the distribution of the cities where tourists come from, Istanbul leads by far. Kocaeli and Ankara are in top three.

Image 4. The Distribution Of The Number Of Health Tourists Visiting Turkey By Countries



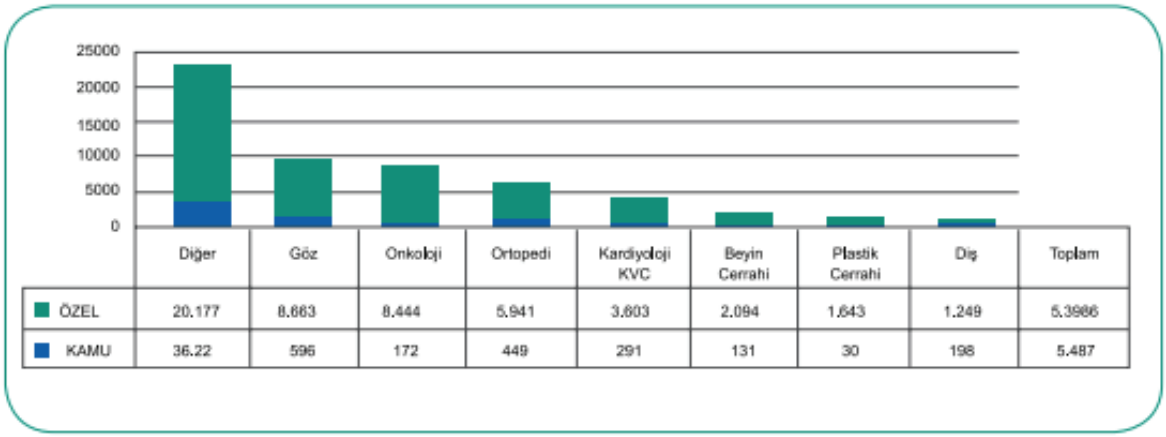
Almanya: Germany Bulgaristan: Bulgaria Irak: Iraq Romanya: Romenia Libya: Libya
Azerbaycan: Azerbaijan İngiltere: England Hollanda: Netherlands ABD: USA Rusya: Russia

Image 5. The Distribution Of Tourists Visiting Turkey By Provinces

Distribution of health tourists by branches:

Examining the distribution of health tourists visiting Turkey, it can be seen that other health services rank first. Eye and oncology branches are the other branches in top three.

Private hospitals rank first in all health branches. However, the share of state hospitals is bigger compared to others in other health branch.

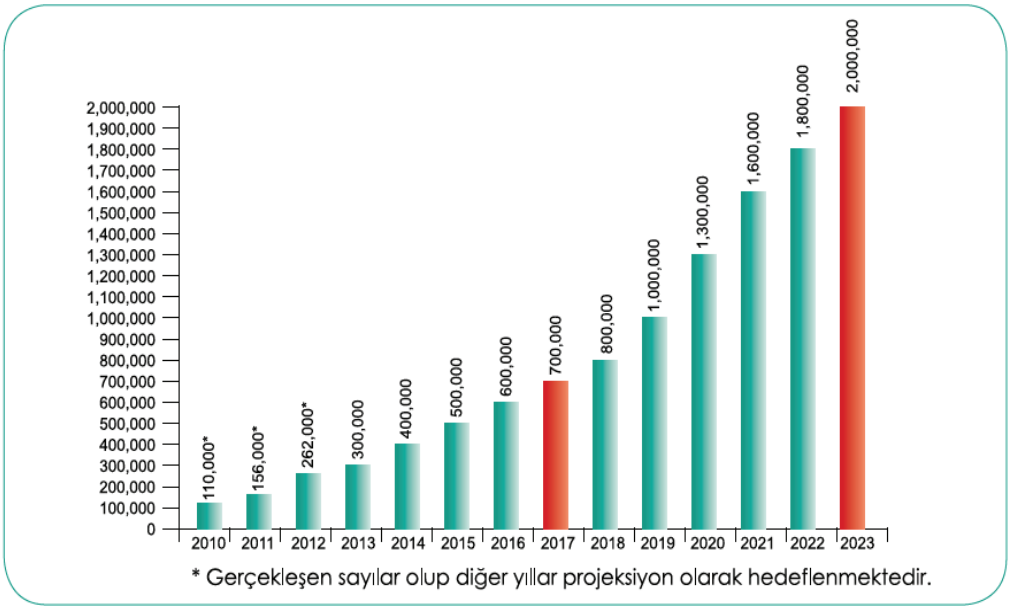


	Diğer	Göz	Onkoloji	Ortopedi	Kardiyoloji KVC	Beyin Cerrahi	Plastik Cerrahi	Diş	Toplam
ÖZEL	20.177	8.663	8.444	5.941	3.603	2.094	1.643	1.249	5.3966
KAMU	36.22	596	172	449	291	131	30	198	5.487

Image 6. The Distribution Of Health Tourists Visiting Turkey By Branches

2023 Vision in Health Tourism:

With regard to the future vision of health tourism, it is predicted that the number of the health tourists will increase gradually by 2023. It is aimed that this number will increase five folds and reach 2 million people.



*The figures are achieved and other years are projected

Image 7. The Number Of The Tourists Between 2010- 2023

Number of the health tourists by years:

Examining the number of the tourists by years, it is seen that total number of the tourists reached a peak in 2013. The number of the tourists began to increase again as of 2010. While the number of the Turkish citizens did not show a dramatic increase, the share of the foreign tourists within total tourists number increases day by day.

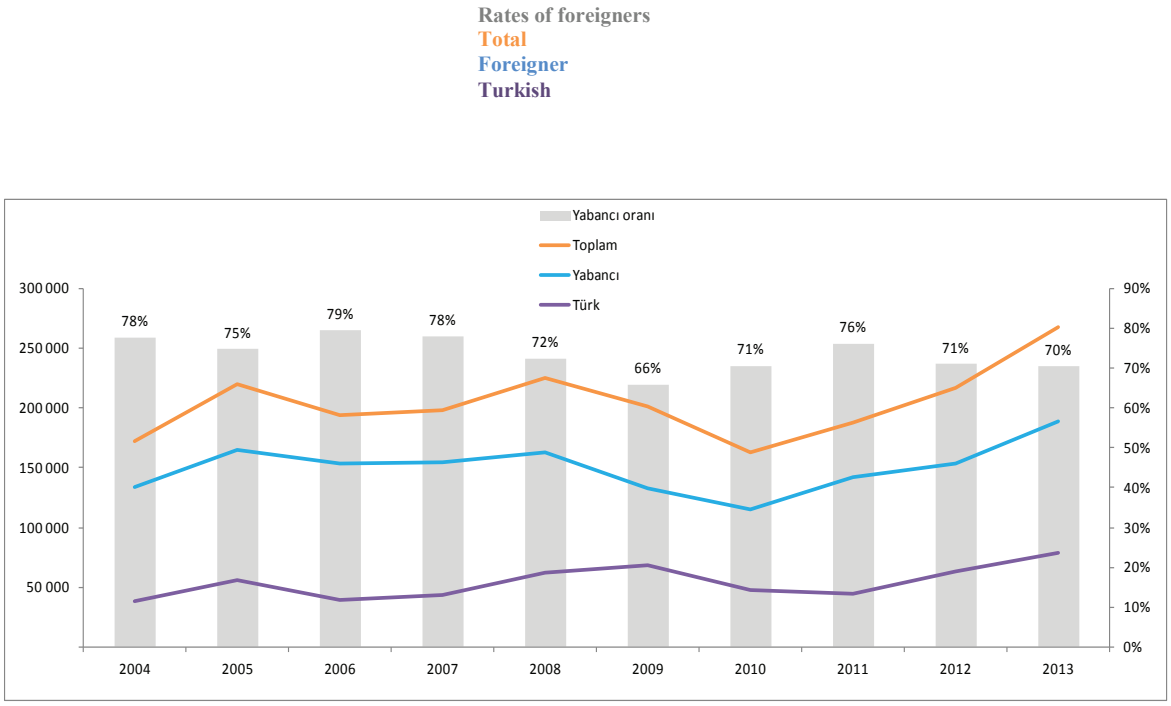


Image 8. Number Of The Tourists By Years (2004-2013)

Health tourism spending by years:

Examining the number of the health tourism spending by years, it is seen that health tourism spending has a very small share within total tourism income. However, the proportion of health tourism increases gradually.

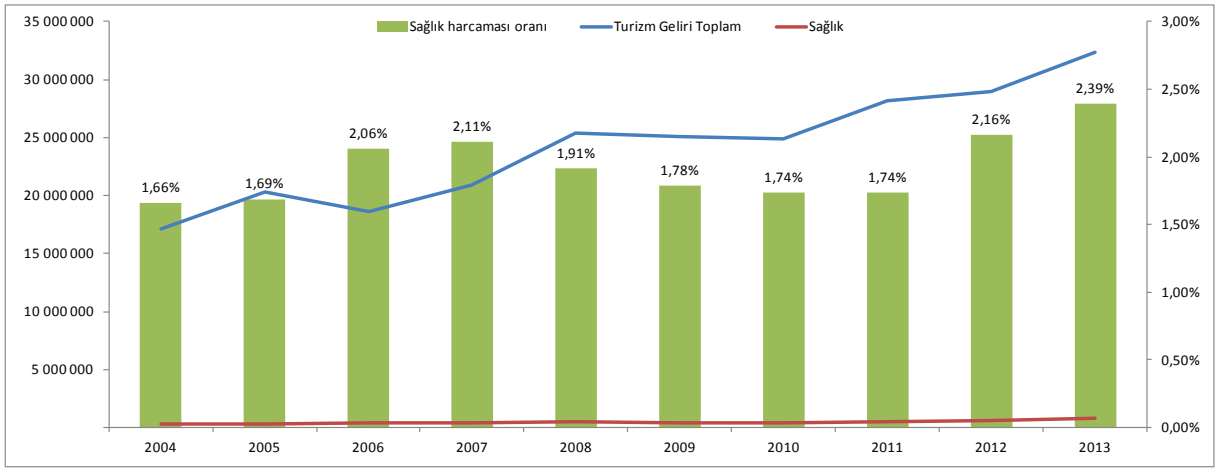


Image 9. Health Tourism Spending By Years

H1: Tourism income is affected by the number of the health tourists.

Two data sets were included in the analysis with the aim of testing the correlation between total tourism income and total number of tourists travelling for health and the following results were obtained:

Highly positive correlation is available between the total number of visitors travelling for health tourism and total health tourism income.

A moderately positive correlation is available between foreign visitors and total health income.

Highly positive correlation is available between Turkish visitors and total health income.

Highly positive correlation is available between the total tourism income and total health tourism income.

			Total visitors	Foreign visitors	Turkish visitors	Total health income	Total tourism income
Correlations							
			Toplam ziyaretçi	Yabancı ziyaretçi	Türk ziyaretçi	Sağlık geliri toplam	Turizm geliri toplam
Total visitors	Toplam ziyaretçi	Pearson Correlation	1	,922**	,814**	,734*	,566
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,004	,016	,088
		N	10	10	10	10	10
Foreing visitors	Yabancı ziyaretçi	Pearson Correlation	,922**	1	,524	,567	,331
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,120	,087	,351
		N	10	10	10	10	10
Turkish Visitors	Türk ziyaretçi	Pearson Correlation	,814**	,524	1	,761*	,748*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	,120		,011	,013
		N	10	10	10	10	10
Total health income	Sağlık geliri toplam	Pearson Correlation	,734*	,567	,761*	1	,915**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,016	,087	,011		,000
		N	10	10	10	10	10
Total tourism income	Turizm geliri toplam	Pearson Correlation	,566	,331	,748*	,915**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,088	,351	,013	,000	
		N	10	10	10	10	10

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4. Total Tourism Income And Correlation Table Regarding The Number Of Tourists

H2: Total health income is affected by total visitor number.

Regression analysis was performed with the aim of investigating to what extent total visitor number affects total heath income. Accordingly:

One unit of change in total visitor number creates 2.324 units increase in total health income.

Table 5. The Correlation Between Total Number Of Visitors And Total Health Income

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Toplam ziyaretçi	2,324	,156	,980	14,925	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Sağlık geliri toplam

b. Linear Regression through the Origin

H3: Total health income is affected by total foreign visitor number.

Regression analysis was performed with the aim of investigating to what extent total foreign visitor number affects total heath income. Accordingly:

One unit of change in total foreign visitor number creates 3.148 units increase in total health income.

Table 6. The Correlation Between Total Foreign Visitor Number And Total Health Income

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Yabancı ziyaretçi	3,148	,245	,974	12,873	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Sağlık geliri toplam

b. Linear Regression through the Origin

H4: Total health income is affected by total number of Turkish visitors.

Regression analysis was performed with the aim of investigating to what extent total number of Turkish visitors affects total health income. Accordingly; One unit increase in total number of Turkish visitor creates 8,623 units of increase in total health income.

Table 7. The Correlation Between Total Number Of Turkish Visitors And Total Health Income

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Türk ziyaretçi	8,623	,520	,984	16,570	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Sağlık geliri toplam

b. Linear Regression through the Origin

H4: Total tourism income is affected by total health tourism income.

Regression analysis was performed with the aim of investigating to what extent total health tourism income affects total tourism income. Accordingly; One unit change in total health tourism creates 49.901 units of change in total tourism income.

Table 8. The Correlation Between Total Health Tourism Income And Total Tourism Income

Coefficients[a,b]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Sağlık geliri toplam	49,901	2,138	,992	23,339	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Turizm geliri toplam

b. Linear Regression through the Origin

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Recently, it is seen that a vast number of patients from different countries prefer private health care facilities in Turkey. The major reason is that the medical operations performed with modern methods in the country of origin are conducted with affordable prices in our country (İçöz, 2009). Medical operations performed with modern methods by world wide known Turkish doctors cost less in our country compared to Europe and USA thanks to high quality infrastructure and equipment (Gençay, 2007:179). In line with the findings obtained in our study it was determined that tourists prefer private hospitals most in health tourism.

Most tourists come to Turkey from Germany, Turkic Republics, Bulgaria, Romania and neighbour countries like Iraq. The increase in the health tourists by years is directly proportional to the increase in the recognition of our country in health tourism. The tourists visiting our country provide a price advantage between 50% and %65 per treatment (Western Anatolia Development Agency, Health Tourism Sector Report, 2013). Another result worth pointing out in our study is that Germany, Bulgaria Iraq are among the countries that send most tourists to Turkey.

In Turkey, the most striking city in medical tourism is İstanbul. It has more than 200 private hospitals, more than 10 university hospitals. At least 50 out of them are luxurious and modern and re equipped medically and technologically. 20 out of 30 hospitals accredited by JCI are located in Istanbul. In this regard, Istanbul is a leading country both in Turkey and abroad in terms of the health tourism (Aydın, 2009:1).

Especially as of 1990s, it is seen that important investments were made in private sector health services in addition to state health services. As a result of these developments, the number of the private health care facilities that can meet the European standards has begun to rise in Istanbul, Ankara, Antalya (Çiçek and Avderen, 2013). Also, state and private university hospitals, particularly Istanbul and Ankara, are equipped with the cutting edge technology and a great number of universities can provide advance technological service in oncological treatment, cardiovascular surgery, orthopaedics, brain surgery, paediatric surgery, plastic surgery, eye and tooth. Moreover, it is possible to perform cyber knife, robotic surgery, bone morrow and organ transplantation at these hospitals (Union of Turkish Health Provinces, 2014). Accordingly, it was concluded in the

study that health tourists receive service mostly in Istanbul, Kocaeli and Ankara. It can also be said that thermal enterprises in Ankara are active in health tourism.

Other important conclusions that were drawn from the study are;

- Health tourists receive service most in other branch and eye and oncology branches.
- About 2 million health tourists are predicted to visit Turkey by 2023.
- The number of foreign health tourists in 2013 accounts for 70% of total number of health tourists.
- The rate of health spending in 2013 is 2.3%.
- Total health tourism income is affected by the number of health tourism visitors.
- Total health tourism income is affected 2.3 units from total visitors, 3.1 units from foreign visitors, 8.6 units from Turkish visitors.
- Also, total tourism income is affected by total health tourism income. Total tourism income is affected 4.9 units from total health income.

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TÜRKİYE'DE SAĞLIK TURİZMİ ve EKONOMİK BOYUTLARININ UYGULAMALI ÖRNEĞİ

Özet: Dünyanın pek çok bölgesindeki insanlar, ülkelerindeki sağlık hizmetlerinin teknolojik olanaklara sahip olmaması, sağlık hizmetlerinin pahalı sunulması, yetersiz insan gücü kaynakları ya da düşük hizmet kalitesi gibi nedenlerden ötürü daha ucuz ve daha kaliteli tedavi imkanlarına sahip farklı ülkelere gitmektedirler. Sağlık turizmi alanında Türkiye geçmiş 20 yıllık süreç içerisinde önemli gelişmeler kaydetmiş ve dünyanın sağlık turizmi alanındaki en başarılı ülkeleri ile rekabet etmeye başlamıştır. Ayrıca sağlık turizminden elde edilen gelir Türkiye'de sağlık sektörü gelirlerinde önemli etkiye sahip olmakla beraber ülke ekonomisine de büyük katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu nedenle Sağlık Bakanlığı'nın 2013-2017 stratejik eylem planında ele alınan bu konuya ilişkin olarak 2023 vizyonu kapsamında Türkiye'nin sağlık alanında pek çok ülkeyle işbirliği içerisinde olarak bölgesinde üstün bir konum elde etmesi hedeflenmektedir. Çalışmada sağlık turizminin sağlık sektörü içerisinde yeri ve etkilerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda 2004-2013 yılları arasındaki sağlık harcamaları ve sağlık turizmi ile ilişkili çeşitli istatistiksel verilerden faydalanılmıştır. TUİK'den (Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu) elde edilen veriler PASW Statistic 18 (SPSS-Statistical Package for Social Sciences) paket programında analiz edilmiştir. Analiz kapsamında, frekans tabloları kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca toplam sağlık turizmi verileri, yabancı ve Türk vatandaşların dağılımları, toplam sağlık turizmi harcaması verileri değerlendirilmiş ve aralarındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesi amacıyla regresyon metodu kullanılmıştır. Araştırma bulgularına göre, sağlık turizminde özel hastanelerin daha çok tercih edildiği, Almanya, Bulgaristan ve Irak'ın en çok sağlık turisti gönderen ülkeler arasında yer aldığı, hizmet alımında diğer branşlar ile göz ve onkoloji alanında daha çok hizmet alındığı ve sağlık turizmi gelirlerinin turizmci sayısından etkilediği belirlenmiştir. Bununla beraber Toplam sağlık turizmi gelirleri, toplam ziyaretçi sayısından 2,3 birim, yabancı ziyaretçilerden 3,1 birim, Türk ziyaretçilerden ise 8,6 birim etkilenmektedir. Toplam turizm gelirleri ise, toplam sağlık gelirlerinden 49,9 birim etkilenmektedir. Bir diğer önemli bulgu ise bütün sağlık branşlarında özel hastaneler ilk sırada yer alırken, kamu hastaneleri diğer sağlık branşlarında (göz, onkoloji, kardiyoloji, ortopedi, plastik cerrahi, beyin cerrahi ve diş dışındaki branşlar) daha fazla tercih edilmektedir. Araştırma sonunda, 2013 yılı toplam sağlık turistlerinin %70'ini yabancıların oluşturduğu, sağlık turizminde sağlık harcamaları oranının %2.3 olduğu ve sağlık turizmi gelirlerinin toplam sağlık gelirlerinde önemli bir artış sağladığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Turizm, Ekonomi, Sağlık Bakımı, Süreç, Dünya, Rekabet, Endüstri

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LONG TERM-SHORT TERM ANALYSE BETWEEN FOREIGN TRADE, GROWTH AND EMPLOYMENT IN TURKISH ECONOMY:1923-2013

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Abstract: In the literature, the studies about Turkey concentrate on relationship of foreign trade-growth or foreign trade-employment generally. Also this study purposes to provide the contribution to literature by handling relationship between growth and employment of foreign trade together. Therefore it was used the data of 1923-2013. Due to rooted change that occurs in 1980 in the politics of foreign trade, the data was analysed by dividing into two terms as 1923-1979, 1980-2013. When in 1923-1979 period was applying import substitution policies generally, in 1980-2013 period was implemented export-oriented industrialization policy. The long term relations between variables for both periods explained with Johansen Cointegration Method, the short term causality relations with Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test. As a result of the analyse, it was identified that there are both short term and long term relations between variables for both periods.

***Key Words*:** Foreign trade, Gross National Product, Employment, Cointegration, Toda-Yamamoto

INTRODUCTION

Turkey is developing, in other words it is industrialising country. In this process it was applied two different industrialization strategies to realize the industrialization. One of them is substitution industrialization, the other is export-oriented industrialization. The import-substituting industrialization is evaluated as closed to the outside strategy, the export-oriented industrialization is as open to outside strategy.

Turkey applied the import-substituting industrialization generally till 24 January 1980 Stability Decisions. The term in which was applied import-substituting industrialization intensively is 1930's years. The import-substituting industrialization implemented with I Quinquennial Industrialization Plan which was applied in 1934-1938. At the same time in 1963-1979 period, it was prefered policies related to this subject.

From 24 January 1980's Stability decision, iw was applied export-oriented industrialization

strategy. Regardless the strategy, it is located the realization of economic growth and in this way provision of employment level in the basic objectives.

Any country over the world can't produce goods and services to what need society by using only own resources. On the other hand, in production of some goods and services which produced with own resources, domestic demand can exceed. In this instance, non-produced goods and services will purchased from abroad, over produced goods and services will sold to abroad. So made foreign trade will raise the welfare of society by increasing the production and employment.

In the present study, it was analysed relations between foreign trade, economic growth and employment of Turkey.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is based on work "The wealth of nations" published in 1976 by Adam Smith, who is founder of Classical School of Economics, which is the basis of studies intended to impacts on growth of foreign trade. Adam Smith in this work defended that free trade will be to benefit of countries by increasing both production and consumption of trading countries. He improved these opinions with "Absolute Advantages Theory".

At the same time theory of Adam Smith is current, when closed economy passed to free trade application. When countries open to abroad, it is increased their economic growth. For example, in the 1850's in Japan, in the 1960's in South Korea, in the 1990's in Vietnam have been this process. At the same time it is proved the correlation causality. The reason for this is the adopting foreign trade countries' application of reforms in other areas therewithal. It is difficult to separate impacts of free trade from these reforms. (Mankiw, 2009:255).

D.Ricardo, which is other proponent of Classical School of Economy, supported and developed the opinions of A.Smith, by explaining that the free trade will be benefit to countries with "Comparative Advantages Theory".

The studies intended to impacts of free trade to countries are continued in later periods. It is dwelled on that the integration which will made between the countires will cause to productivity in countires and increasing of production in endogenous growth models developed by P.Romer, R.Lucas, S.Rebelo, R.Barro.

Especially, it was became to handle as important question for economists in endogenous growth models with study which opens new frontiers and called "Does trade provide economic growth?" by Romer (1986).

According to endogenous growth models generally, the integration realized between the countries which are found in close to each other development level provides the benefits to these countries. Because as a result of integration, occured goods and information flow between countries provides the more effective distribution of resources. So it will be cause to processing of returns which increase according to scale. (Berber, 2011:158).

When a lot of studies made in this area, mention positive impacts of foreign trade on economy, the economists as G.Myrdal, H.Singer, R.Prebisch determined that the free trade between developed countries and underdeveloped countries will

be detriment for underdeveloped countries. So that they clarified, the free trade will not always develop for benefits of countires.

Peretto(1998) brought the model with different view which is put forth the impact on trade growth as information transfer which is passive form of technology transfer. In this respect the trade is important information and technology, that doesn't provide the growth by itself.

LITERATURE

In the literature, generally the impacts of foreign trade's growth and employment are handled separately. When the part of studies analyse the relations between foreign trade and growth, other part covers the analyse of relations between foreign trade and employment.

Ayaş and Çeştepe (2010) in their study analyse the impacts of foreign trade on employment by handling Turkish Manufacturing Industry. In their studies they use factor intensity and input-output models. For that they take advantage of input-output tables of 1998 and 2002 years. As a result of their studies, they found that the impacts of foreign trade's changes on employment differentiate according to sectors and it is positive in manufacturing industry sector.

Gül and Kamacı (2002) which investigated the impacts of foreign trade on employment with panel and data analyse, in their studies test underdeveloped seven countries and developed twelve countries with panel and data analyse. They introduced that there is causality relation from import and export toward unemployment, but there is not any relation from unemployment toward import and export in developed and underdeveloped countries.

Karaçor and Saraç (2011) investigated the relations between employment rate of industry sector and foreign trade as short and long term by handling the 1963-2009 period in Turkey. For this they use cointegration method of limit test. As a result, they found that there is not relation in short term, but there is positive relation in long term.

The another study intended to impacts of foreign trade on employment was done by Sachs and Shatz (1994). As a result of regression analyse which made on USA, they found that the foreign trade influences the employment differently according to character of labor. The unskilled labor reduced employment, when the foreign trade skilled labor cause to increasing of employment.

Vergil and Sinay investigated the relation of foreign trade and economic growth with respect to information transfer. In their studies, they analysed the data covered 1989-2009 period of Turkey with Johansen Cointegration Test and Var method. As the result of study, they found that there is not important impact of information transfer provided by import of capital goods and intermediate goods in economic growth of Turkey.

Another study about Turkey carried out by Bilgin and Şahbaz (2009. In study in which tested export-oriented growth hypothesis, was used monthly data of 1987-2003 period. According to Toda and Yamamoto method, which was used in study, it was observed one-way Granger Causality from export toward production index to support export-oriented growth hypothesis. At the same time,

it was identified that there is two-way relation between export and foreign trade rate.

In another study, it was made causality analyse on foreign trade and economic growth of Turkey, by using the data of 2001-2011 period. In this study made by Aytaç and Akduğan (2012) the relations between growth of related period and foreign trade, tested with Granger Causality Analyse. In the study, in which short and long term are similar, it was achieved the result about that the growth affected by both export and import.

The another study which investigate impacts of export and import on economic growth was made by Saraç (2013). In the study, which handles the data of 1989-2011 period in Turkey was used nonlinear econometric method. In both contraction and expansion periods of economy, at the end of study it was occured that the export and import affected the economic growth positively.

In the study of Toledo (2014) headed "Instability in Terms of Trade and Production Increase in Bolivia" searched whether negative relation between data variables. The instability in terms of trade of Bolivia measured by price variance of three imported goods. It was found reverse directed relation between the instability in terms of trade and production increase. Because of trade's terms impact the production value of tradable goods (components), fluctuations in terms of trade as fluctuations in production causes to prices of export and instability of export.

Gül and Kamacı (2012) who searched impacts on growth of foreign trade with panel data analyse, investigated in their study underdeveloped seven countries and developed twelve countries. In study in which used data of 1980-2010 period for developed countries, data of 1993-2010 period for underdeveloped countries, it hasn't found the causality relation from growth toward export for both county groups. Nevertheless it was concluded that there is relation from export and import toward the growth.

In the study headed "Growth by Target (Where do you export): Trade with China and Growth in African Countries" Lutz(2011) applied the panel data analyse related 1995-2008 period. It was obtained three different results: The first result, it hasn't found the empirical evidence about that the increasing export to China can increase the economic growth. Secondly, it was found that the China is more lucrative than other countries through product variety. Thirdly, on the contrary to widespread opinion in the direction of the negative effects of imports from China, in total import of country, it was found empirically the positive impact of strong share of China on growth of country. Finally, it was found the negative relation between export to developed countries and economic growth in African countries. Whereat, it was supported with study which hypothesis made about it has relation between to where export made and growth of country that make the export.

In the study by Soukiazis and Antunes(2012) which made in 1980-2004 period and covers the 14 countries of European Union, it was analysed foreign trade and impacts to economic growth of human capital by making the panel data analyse. In the study, in which tested Neo-classical theory, it was obtained that the human capital and foreign trade are important variables in USA, affecting

the economic growth. It was reached to that export-oriented growth and balance of payments are effective on growth between information and technology diffusion and human capital.

In the study headed "Does economic growth of Latin American countries based on Export or Import?" in which analysed international trade and economic growth based on export and economic growth based on import, with Panel Data Cointegration Analyse, Kristjanpoller and Olson (2014),reached the result about the export drags growth in GDP. In spite of impact of import on economic growth is negative generally, it was achieved the result about in Bolivia, Brazil, Columbia, Ecuador, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Mexico and Paraguay has growth based on export; in Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras has growth based on import; Peru affected by both export and import positively, Uruguay affected by both export and import negatively. The astonishing finding is nonexistence of growth based on export and import which is supposed in theory at the same time in the country and existence of negative correlation between impacts of import and export to growth in GDP.

In the study of Zhu and Kotz headed "The Export and Investment Dependence of China's Economic Growth"(2011)it was analysed the increasing role of export and investment in fast growth of China since 1978 with Input-Output tables. The authors in this study interrogates sustainability of export's and investment's dependence occured in exchange phase and available growth model of China. The fast economic growth of China even though based on internal market especially on increasing consumption of public and households initially, after 2001 the export possessed in main significance with constant investment. With investigation of impacts on economic growth by total request of various components;

-They proved that foreign demand measured by domestic input(content) ratio of export in GDP, not by associated with GDP export increase.

In the study of He (2011),headed "A note on impacts of International Trade on Economic Growth and Inflation", it was found the growth of inflation, GDP, real GDP of international trade in short and long term; temporary alteration with constant or wavy exchange rate or accumulated trade deficit. The causality between trade and other macro economic variables vary according to the periods. For example, it was obtained the structural breaking relationship which starts in 2003 GDP, between import and GDP.

In studies of Cristina and Iona (2008) headed "Some Determinatives of Economic Growth in Rumania: Foreign Trade and Immediate Foreign Investments" they achieved the result about the agreements intended liberalization of foreign trade and USA influence export and import more intensely of Rumania, which is a member now. After communism it was formed positive view generally which brought about positive externalities in international economy to liberalization and foreign entrance of Rumania. But, it was found insignificant positive relation between foreign trade and economic growth, the negative relation between direct foreign investment and economic growth with regression analyse. In this situation, the growth affected by other variables also. The

effect on economic reconstruction of foreign trade wasn't enough for Rumania.

METHOD

The long term relations between variables for both periods in the study explained with Johansen Cointegration Method, the short term causality relations Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test. Before these tests the stability of series belonging to variables investigated with Unit Root Test Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) Unit Root Test and Philips-Perron (PP) Unit Root Test.

Stationarity (Unit Root) Test

The series are being stable means that average and variance are stable, covariance is depend on length of delay, not on time. With more technical definition, it is called as stable when the probabilistic process, which average and variance don't change in time and the common variance between two periods depend on distance between two periods only, not on period in which calculated this variance.(Gujarati, 2006:710).

In studies which did with non stable time series, it can occured fake regression issue. In spite of in fake regressions the high R^2 and t statistic can be significant, the parameter prediction is unsignificant economically. The value of high R^2 arised from having the trend tendency more than relations between the variables. Whereat the prediction results in fake regressions are unsignificant economically. (Hendry, Pagan and Sargan, 1984: 1036). Thus situated, it should tested the instability of time series for not to meet fake regression issues in studies, in which used time series.

It is determined as a result of unit root test application, whether time series is stable or not. It was made the Extended Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Philips-Perron (PP) unit root test about checking the stability of variables, which located in study.

The test statistics are compared with critical values to test the zero hypothesis (H_0) against alternative hypothesis (H_1). The ADF Unit Root Test and PP Unit Root Tests show that the series is root unit because of zero hypothesis (H_0) whereas alternative hypothesis (H_1) reveals that the series is stable.

Cointegration Analysis

The concept cointegration defined as common motion between the economic variables in long term. In other words, the cointegration is intended to make stable the direct combinations of unstable variables in long term, hereby cointegration of variables with each other, model and estimate the long term relations between time series. (Johansen and Juselius, 1990: 181). The presence of cointegration relation between variables means real long term relation.

It was investigated that whether cointegration or not between the variables with "Johansen Cointegration Test" in the study. Johansen cointegartion test is the method used in identifying whether the two or more variables in which predict that has relation between them theorically moved or not together, so whether there is long term relation between variables or not. To apply the test, the variables should be stable from same order. Because of all variables in this study is stable from first order [I(1)], it could apply Johansen cointegration test.

In Johansen cointegration test used two methods to determine the number of co-integrator vectors. In the first of these methods, it was created hypothesis for maximum eigenvalues statistic as below successively:

H_0: r = 0, H_1: r = 1

H_0: r ≤ 1, H_1: r = 2

… …

H_0: r ≤ m-1, H_1: r = m

In second method the hypothesis for trace statistics created as below:

H_0: r = 0, H_1: r ≥ 1

H_0: r ≤ 1, H_1: r ≥ 2

… …

H_0: r ≤ m-1, H_1: r ≥ m

If the maximum eigenvalues and test statistics greater than critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected. In this situation it was achieved to result that the variables are co-integrator.

After determining the long term relations between the series, it should be identified the causality relation and direction between variables. But when variables are being co-integrator, the standard Granger causality analyse is wouldn't be valid, in this situation it is made by the causality analyse "The Error Correction of Vector" between the series. (Granger, 1988:203). Because of series belonging to study variables are cointegrated, it is used the "The Error Correction Model of Vector" model instead of "Standard VAR" model in VAR analyse.

Toda – Yamamoto Causality Test

One of the commonly used methods about Granger causality is converted Wald test recommended by Toda and Yamamoto (1995). In the Granger causality tests based on prediction of VAR and VEC models, used F test generally. If the series are not even stable according to Toda-Yamamoto approach, it can be guessed the VAR model in which located level value of series and it can be applied the Standard Wald test. Accordingly the suitable k delay of VAR model identified with the help of information criteria and it is determined the d(max) which is high integration level belonging to variables of models. So that VAR model estimated from [k+d(max)] level and applied Wald test to first k apiece of coefficient matrix. Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test is applied notwithstanding to whether stable, trend-stationary or cointegrated of series or not. According to Toda-Yamamoto approach, it can be showed equations in which located level values of series belonging to two variables as X and Y in which made causality test as below:

In the above equation it concludes that , there is causality relation fromY variable toward X variable. In the below equation the is X variable is cause of Y variable.

DATA

In empirical research in which investigated impacts on foreign trade growth and employment, used annual data belonging to 1923-2013 period variables of GDP, export, import and employment in Turkey. All data used in analyses was taken from web site of Turkey Statistic Organization (TSO).

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In empirical analyse it was made logarithmic conversion by taking the natural logarithm of time series belonging to variables. The reason for this is removing the nonstationarity issue in variance and reducing to minimum the fluctuations in series. In the analysis the GDP showed in LGSYIH notation, exprot in LIHR, import in LITH and employment in LIST notations. In application was used from package program Eviews 7.1.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The data analysed by dividing into two periods as 1923-1979 and 1980-2013. The main reason for this is applying export-oriented industry policies in 1980-2013 period, when applied import substitution policies in 1923-1979 generally. Both two periods analysed separately and obtained results showed in below.

The results of Unit Root Test

Because of prediction results which will be obtained from regression in unstable time series can be fake,it was investigated the stability of series primarily. In this direction it was applied the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) with Phillips Perron (PP) unit root tests. It was used appropriate one from Model 1(stable), Model 2(Trended-stable) or Model 3(without trade and unstable) in ADF and PP unit root tests by looking at time path graphs of the series. The results of unit root test before 1980 shown in Table 1, the results of unit root test after 1980 shown in Table 2.

Table 1. ADF, PP and KPSS Unit Root Test Results (before 1980)

			LGSYİH	LIHR	LITH	LIST
ADF Unit Root Test	ADF Test Statistics		-3,0668 (1)	-1,8916 (0)	-2,2136 (2)	-1,9993 (1)
	Critical Values	% 5	-3,4936	-3,4921	-3,4952	-3,4936
		% 10	-3,1756	-3,1748	-3,1766	-3,1756
	Model		Model-2	Model-2	Model-2	Model-2
PP Unit Root Test	PP Test Statistics		-1,8918 (0)	-1,8916 (0)	-1,9114 (4)	-1,7798 (9)
	Critical Values	% 5	-3,4921	-3,4921	-3,4921	-3,4921
		% 10	-3,1748	-3,1748	-3,1748	-3,1748
	Model		Model-2	Model-2	Model-2	Model-2

			ΔLGSYİH	ΔLIHR	ΔLITH	ΔLIST
ADF Unit Root Test	ADF Test Statistics		-5,2747* (0)	-7,4775* (0)	-6,2103* (1)	-4,9288* (0)
	Critical Values	% 5	-2,9155	-2,9155	-2,9165	-2,9155
		% 10	-2,5955	-2,5955	-2,5961	-2,5955
	Model		Model-1	Model-1	Model-1	Model-1
PP Unit Root Test	PP Test Statistics		-5,0640* (6)	-7,4877* (1)	-4,9731* (3)	-5,6120* (21)
	Critical Values	% 5	-2,9155	-2,9155	-2,9165	-2,9155
		% 10	-2,5955	-2,5955	-2,5961	-2,5955
	Model		Model-1	Model-1	Model-1	Model-1

The values in parentheses refer to the optimal lag lengths. They are identified in the ADF test in accordance with the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) and in accordance with the Newey-West Bandwidth in the PP test.

- Δ at the beginning of the variables refers to the first degree series
- (*) states stability in 5 pct level of significance
- Model-1: constant model, Model-2 : trend-constant model,

Table 2. ADF, PP and KPSS Unit Root Test Results (after 1980)

			LGSYİH	LIHR	LITH	LIST
ADF Unit Root Test	ADF Test Statistics		-3,1030 (0)	-3,0033 (0)	-3,4099 (0)	-1,3672 (0)
	Critical Values	% 5	-3,5529	-3,5529	-3,5529	-3,5529
		% 10	-3,2096	-3,2096	-3,2096	-3,2096
	Model		Model-2	Model-2	Model-2	Model-2
PP Unit Root Test	PP Test Statistics		-3,1030 (0)	-3,2383 (3)	-1,6945 (3)	-3,3642 (2)
	Critical Values	% 5	-3,5529	-3,5529	-3,5529	-3,5529
		% 10	-3,2096	-3,2096	-3,2096	-3,2096
	Model		Model-2	Model-2	Model-2	Model-2

			ΔLGSYİH	ΔLIHR	ΔLITH	ΔLIST
ADF Unit Root Test	ADF Test Statistics		-6,0571* (0)	-6,0011* (0)	-7,3559* (1)	-4,8959* (0)
	Critical Values	% 5	-2,9571	-2,9571	-2,9571	-2,9571
		% 10	-2,6174	-2,6174	-2,6174	-2,6174
	Model		Model-1	Model-1	Model-1	Model-1
PP Unit Root Test	PP Test Statistics		-6,0582* (1)	-6,0374* (3)	-4,9064* (2)	-7,3559* (0)
	Critical Values	% 5	-2,9571	-2,9571	-2,9571	-2,9571
		% 10	-2,6174	-2,6174	-2,6174	-2,6174
	Model		Model-1	Model-1	Model-1	Model-1

- The values in parentheses refer to the optimal lag lengths. They are identified in the ADF test in accordance with the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) and in accordance with the Newey-West Bandwidth in the PP test.
- Δ at the beginning of the variables refers to the first degree series
- (*) states stability in 5 pct level of significance
- Model-1: constant model, Model-2 : trend-constant model,

For before 1980,according to test results given in Table 1, in both tests all variables include unit root at level value, in 1st differential it is becoming stagnant at 5% mean level.

In Table 2, according to unit root test results realized for data after 1980, again in both tests

all variables include unit root at level value, in 1st differential it is becoming stagnant at 5% mean level.

The Results of Cointegration Analyse.

Because of unstable series possess the same trend, it can be looked as model significantly, so it can be occured fake regression issue. This issue can be resolved by taking the series differently, namely by stabilizing the series. But it is clear that it will be information loss if the series taken differently. Therefore, when investigated long term relation between the variables with cointegration analyse, it can be worked with unstable series.

In study, the long term relation investigated with Johansen Cointegration Test. In this method at the first stage should determined length of appropriate delay. In this direction it was determined length of appropriate delay by looking at information criteria as LR (sequential modified LR test statistic), FPE (Final prediction error), AIC (Akaike information criterion), SC (Schwarz information criterion) and HQ (Hannan-Quinn information criterion) on VAR model.

In the analyse both before 1980 and after 1980, all information criteria indicated 1 delay. The delay length of accordingly created VAR models determined as 1, Johansen Cointegration test made accordinly for both periods. The obtained results shown in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3. Cointegration Test Results (before 1980)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value
None *	76,0617	63,8761	46,6082	32,1183
At most 1	29,4534	42,9152	16,8521	25,8232
Model 4 (intercept and trend in CE – no trend in VAR) is used in test Trace test and Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				

* Denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

Table 4. Cointegration Test Results (after 1980)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value
None *	68,5205	63,8761	42,3190	32,1183
At most 1	26,2014	42,9152	14,3500	25,8232
Model 4 (intercept and trend in CE – no trend in VAR) is used in test				
Trace test and Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				

* Denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

According to cointegration analyse result before 1980 and after, given in Table 3 and Table 4, because of the maximum eigenvalues and trace statistics are greater than critic values in first situation, it was rejected the basic hypothesis expressed that there isn't any cointegration vector. At the next stage, the basic hypothesis expressed that there is cointegration vector is accepted, because maximum eigenvalues and trace statistics are smaller than critic values. In this situation, it is proved that there is cointegration relation between variables of both maximum eigenvalues and trace statistics and co-integrator vector which provides this relation. So it has emerged as a result of there is long term relation between variables and this relation can presented with one co-integrator vector.

As a result of Johansen cointegration test, detected long term relation can be interpreted with help of normalized cointegration vector's estimates. Wherein the obtained coefficients express long term flexibility at the same time as well as they reflect long term (co-integrator) relations. The co-integrator coefficients shown in Table 5 for before 1980, in Table 6 for after 1980.

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Table 5. Co-integrator Coefficients (Long Term Elasticities) (before 1980)

GSYIH Model	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LITH**	**LIST**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	-4,0442	-6,2708	1,5062	0,1785
		(0,4570)	(2,5893)	(0,2561)	(0,0579)
Employment Model	**LIST**	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LITH**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	-0,1594	0,6449	-0,2402	-0,0284
		(0,03406)	(0,0782)	(0,0408)	(0,0025)
Import Modeli	**LITH**	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LIST**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	0,6638	-2,6849	-4,1631	0,1185
		(0,14002)	(0,1778)	(1,6964)	(0,0383)
Export Modeli	**LIHR**	**LGSYIH**	**LIST**	**LITH**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	-0,2472	1,5505	-0,3724	-0,0441
		(0,0481)	(0,6262)	(0,0342)	(0,0139)

When we look at long term flexibility coefficients before 1980 in Table 5, the 1% increase in export reduces GDP 4%, increase the employment 6,4% and reduce the import 2,7%. 1% increase in import reduce the GDP 6,3%, doesn't impact the export and employment. It was concluded that the impact of occured variables in GDP to other variables is very small as negligible. 1% increase realized in employment increases the GDP and export 1,5% and reduce the import 4,1%.

Table 6. Co-integrator Coefficients (Long Term Elasticities) (after 1980)

GSYIH Model	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LITH**	**LIST**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	6,1132	-4,1565	8,4693	-0,3941
		(0,7195)	(0,5945)	(1,8913)	(0,0866)
Employment Model	**LIST**	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LITH**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	0,1180	0,7218	-0,4907	-0,0465
		(0,0887)	(0,0811)	(0,1037)	(0,0075)
Import Model	**LITH**	**LGSYIH**	**LIHR**	**LIST**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	-0,2405	-1,4707	-2,0375	0,0948
		(0,1233)	(0,1515)	(0,4583)	(0,0212)
Export Model	**LIHR**	**LGSYIH**	**LIST**	**LITH**	**@TREND**
	1,0000	0,1635	1,3854	-0,6799	-0,0644
		(0,1198)	(0,2878)	(0,1216)	(0,0110)

According to long term flexibility coefficients after 1980, 1% increase in export increased the GDP 6,1%,reduced the import 1,5%. The impact of this to employment is more than 1% and it is positive direct. 1% increase in import reduced the GDP 4,2%, the impact to export and employment is in negative direct smaller than 1%. Again in period after 1980, it is shown that the impacts of occured changes in GDP to other changes is under the 1%. 1% increase realized in employment increased GDP 8,5% and export 1,3%, reduced the import 2%.

The results of Toda – Yamamoto Causality Test.

The Granger causality analyse results based on Toda – Yamamoto approach shown in Table 7 and Table 8 for two periods.

Table 7. Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test Results (before 1980)

Basic Hypothesis	Lag Lengths k+d(max)	-statistics	p-statistics
LIHR LGSYIH	1	8,3535	0,0153
LGSYIHLIHR	1	0,9241	0,6300
LIST LGSYIH	2	0,6340	0,8886
LGSYIHLIST	2	13,1539	0,0043
LITH LGSYIH	2	2,5120	0,4731
LGSYIHLITH	2	11,2049	0,0107
LIST LIHR	2	4,6364	0,4511
LIHRLIST	2	3,8256	0,2809
LITH LIHR	3	4,4518	0,3483
LIHRLITH	3	8,6922	0,0693
LITH LIST	2	0,7593	0,8592
LIST LITH	2	8,5894	0,0353

Table 8. Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test Results (after 1980)

Basic Hypothesis	Lag Lengths k+d(max)	-statistics	p-statistics
LIHR LGSYIH	2	0,7439	0,3884
LGSYIHLIHR	2	0,0410	0,8394
LIST LGSYIH	1	0,3474	0,8405
LGSYIHLIST	1	1,1528	0,5619
LITH LGSYIH	2	4,8542	0,0276
LGSYIHLITH	2	0,7847	0,3757
LIST LIHR	1	0,4598	0,7946
LIHRLIST	1	4,2202	0,1212
LITH LIHR	2	2,8833	0,4100
LIHRLITH	2	1,1650	0,7614
LITH LIST	1	1,1838	0,5533
LIST LITH	1	2,7109	0,2578

In Toda-Yamamoto causality test, null hypothesis showed that there isn't causality relation between related variables and the hypothesis is rejected when p-statistic about hypothesis smaller than 10%. In this direction, in period before 1980, it was proved the causality relation from export toward GDP and import, from GDP toward import and employment, from employment toward import. In the period after 1980 it was found causality relation only from import toward GDP.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The relations between foreign trade, economic growth and employment found the wide investigation area in literature. There are a lot of researches in this regard for Turkey Economy. But a lot of made researches covered different periods. Withal the researches concentrate on foreign trade-growth or foreign trade-employment. In the results obtained in the studies observed differences.

In this study, the relations between foreign trade, economic growth and employment analysed by dividing into two groups as before 1980 and after and in 1923-2013 period. The reason for this is rooted change in foreign trade policies which applied in Turkey according to 24 January 1980's decisions. The basic goal of this study is ability to explain how the policy change affects the relations between variables. Analyses made as short term and long term. The long term analysis is explained with Johansen Cointegraion Method, short term with Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test.

As a result of made analysis, it was identified the causality relations from export toward GDP and import, from GDP toward import and employment, from employment toward import in short term

before 1980's period. After 180 it was found the causality relation only from import toward GDP.

As a result of long term analysis, it was proved that the 1% increase of import reduced GDP, import and employment both in two periods. It was found that the 1% increase of GDP couldn't create the significant impact on variables. With it, in period before 1980, when the increase of GDP reduced the employment and export, it increased the import. After 1980 the increase in GDP when increased the employment and export, şt reduced the import. In this change after 1980, the industrialization policies based on applied export were effective. It was obtained the results supported this also in export. Before 1980 the 1% increase in export, when it reduced GDP and import, increased the employment. After 1980 export increased also the GDP. When 1% increase in employment increased the GDP in both periods, reduced the import. Obtained results is in character which supports the growth based on export generally.

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TÜRKİYE EKONOMİSİNDE DIŞ TİCARET, BÜYÜME VE İSTİHDAM ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLERİN UZUN DÖNEM-KISA DÖNEM ANALİZİ: 1923-2013

Özet: Türkiye sanayileşmekte olan bir ülkedir. Sanayileşmeyi gerçekleştirmek için iki farklı sanayileşme stratejisi uygulanmıştır. Bunlardan biri ithal ikameci sanayileşme, diğeri de ihracata dayalı sanayileşmedir. İthal ikameci sanayileşme dışa kapalı, ihracata dayalı sanayileşme ise dışa açık bir strateji olarak da değerlendirilmektedir. Türkiye 24 Ocak 1980 İstikrar Kararlarına kadar genellikle ithal ikameci politikalar uygulamıştır. 24 Ocak 1980 istikrar kararlarından itibaren ise ihracata dayalı bir sanayileşme stratejisi uygulamıştır. İster ihracata dayalı yani dışa dönük bir sanayileşme olsun, isterse ithal ikameci ya da diğer bir deyişle dışa kapalı sanayileşme stratejisi olsun, her iki stratejinin de ortak hedefleri içerisinde ekonomik büyümeyi gerçekleştirmek ve böylece yüksek bir istihdam düzeyi sağlamak yer alır. Bu çalışmada da Türkiye için dış ticaret, ekonomik büyüme ve istihdam arasındaki ilişkiler 1923-1979 ve 1980-2013 dönemleri için test edilmiştir. Bunun için çalışmada kullanılan değişkenler ihracat, ithalat, Gayrisafi Yurt İçi Hasıla ve istihdamdır. **Yöntem:** Çalışmada her iki dönem için değişkenler arasındaki uzun dönemli ilişkiler Johansen eşbütünleşme yöntemi ile kısa dönemli nedensellik ilişkileri Toda-Yamamoto nedensellik testi ile açıklanmıştır. Bu testlerden önce değişkenlere ait serilerin durağanlığı Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) birim kök testi ve Philips-Perron (PP) birim kök testi ile incelenmiştir. **Veri Seti: Çalışmada GSYİH, ihracat, ithalat ve istihdam değişkenlerinin 1923-2013 dönemine ait yıllık verileri kullanılmıştır. Analizde kullanılan tüm veriler Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu (TÜİK)'nun internet sitesinden alınmıştır. Ampirik analizlerde, değişkenlere ait zaman serilerinin doğal logaritması alınarak logaritmik dönüşüm yapılmıştır. Bunun sebebi varyansta durağan olmama problemini ortadan kaldırmak ve serilerdeki dalgalanmaları en aza indirmektir. Analizlerde GSYİH LGSYIH, ihracat LIHR,** ithalat LITH ve istihdam LIST notasyonlarıyla gösterilmiştir. **Analiz ve Bulgular:** Durağan olmayan zaman serilerinde regresyondan elde edilecek tahmin sonuçları sahte olabileceğinden öncelikle serilerin durağanlıkları incelenmiştir. 1980 yılı öncesi için yapılan birim kök testi sonuçlarına göre hem ADF hem de PP birim kök testinde bütün değişkenler düzey değerinde birim kök içermekte, 1. fark değerlerinde ise %5 anlam seviyesinde durağan hale gelmektedirler. 1980 yılı sonrasında da yapılan test analizleri sonucunda aynı sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Bu doğrultuda durağan olmayan serilerin aynı trende sahip olmaları sebebiyle model anlamlı gibi görünebilmekte, yani sahte regresyon sorunu ortaya çıkabilmektedir. Bu sorun serilerin farkı alınarak, yani seriler durağanlaştırılarak giderilebilmektedir. Ancak serilerin farkı alındığında bilgi kaybı olacağı da açıktır. Bu nedenle değişkenler arasındaki uzun dönemli ilişki eşbütünleşme analiziyle incelenirken durağan olmayan serilerle çalışılabilmektedir. Çalışmada uzun dönemli ilişki Johansen eşbütünleşme testi ile incelenmiştir. Bu yöntemde ilk aşamada uygun gecikme uzunluğunun belirlenmesi gerekmektedir. Bu doğrultuda VAR modeli üzerinden LR (sequential modified LR test statistic), FPE (Final prdiction error), AIC (Akaike information criterion), SC (Schwarz information criterion) ve HQ (Hannan-Quinn information criterion) bilgi kriterlerine bakılarak uygun gecikme uzunluğu belirlenmiştir. Hem 1980 yılı öncesi hem de 1980 yılı sonrası analizlerde tüm bilgi kriterleri 1 gecikmeyi işaret etmektedir. Buna göre oluşturulan VAR modellerinin gecikme uzunluğu 1 olarak belirlenmiş, Johansen eşbütünleşme testi de her iki dönem için buna göre yapılmıştır. Test sonucunda hem 1980 öncesi dönemde, hem de 1980 sonrası dönemde ilgili değişkenler arasında uzun dönemli ilişkinin varlığı tespit

edilmiş ve bu uzun dönemli ilişkiyi açıklayan 1 eştümleştirici vektör bulunmuştur. Johansen eşbütünleşme testi sonucu saptanan uzun dönemli ilişki normalleştirilmiş eştümleştirici vektör tahminleri yardımıyla yorumlanabilmektedir. Burada elde edilen katsayılar uzun dönemli (eştümleştirici) ilişkiyi yansıtmalarının yanında, aynı zamanda uzun dönem esnekliklerini de ifade etmektedirler. 1980 yılı öncesi uzun dönem esneklik katsayılarına bakıldığında, ihracattaki %1'lik bir artış GSYIH'yı %4 azalmakta, istihdamı %6,4 arttırmakta ve ithalatı da %2,7 azaltmaktadır. İthalattaki %1'lik artış ise GSYİH'yı %6,3 azaltmakta, ihracat ve istihdamı etkilememektedir. GSYİH'da meydana gelen değişikliklerin diğer değişkenlere olan etkisinin önemsenmeyecek kadar küçük olduğu bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır. İstihdamda gerçekleşen %1'lik bir artış ise GSYİH'yı ve ihracatı %1,5 arttırırken ithalatı %4,1 azaltmaktadır. 1980 yılı sonrası uzun dönem esneklik katsayılarına göre, ihracattaki %1'lik bir artış GSYIH'yı %6,1 arttırırken ithalatı %1,5 azaltmaktadır. Bunun istihdama etkisi ise %1'den daha az olup etki pozitif yönlüdür. İthalattaki %1'lik artış ise GSYİH'yı %4,2 azaltmakta, ihracat ve istihdama olan etkisi negatif yönde %1'den daha az olmaktadır. Yine 1980 sonrası dönemde de GSYİH'da meydana gelen değişikliklerin diğer değişkenlere olan etkisinin %1'in çok altında olduğu görülmektedir. İstihdamda gerçekleşen %1'lik bir artış ise GSYİH'yı %8,5 ve ihracatı %1,3 arttırırken ithalatı %2 azaltmaktadır. Değişkenler arasındaki kısa dönem nedensellik ilişkileri de Toda-Yamamoto yaklaşımına dayalı Granger nedensellik testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Bu doğrultuda 1980 yılı öncesi dönemde ihracattan GSYİH'ya ve ithalata doğru nedensellik ilişkisi, GSYİH'dan ithalata ve istihdama doğru nedensellik ilişkisi ve istihdamdan ithalata doğru bir nedensellik ilişkisi tespit edilmiştir. 1980 yılı sonrası dönemde ise sadece ithalattan GSYİH'ya doğru bir nedensellik ilişkisi bulunmuştur. **Sonuç:** Yapılan analizler sonucunda, kısa dönemde 1980 yılı öncesi İhracattan GSYH'ya ve ithalata doğru, GSYH'dan ithalat ve istihdama doğru, istihdamdan da ithalata doğru nedensellik ilişkisi tespit edilmiştir. 1980 yılı sonrası ise sadece ithalattan GSYH'ya doğru bir nedensellik ilişkisi bulunmuştur. Uzun dönemli analiz sonuçlarında ithalatta yaşanan %1'lik bir artışın GSYH, İhracat ve istihdamı her iki dönemde de azalttığı tespit edilmiştir. GSYH'daki %1'lik bir artışın değişkenler üzerinde önemli bir etki yaratmadığı bulunmuştur. Bununla birlikte, 1980 öncesi dönemde GSYH'daki artış istihdam ve ihracatı azaltırken, ithalatı arttırmıştır. 1980 sonrasında ise GSYH'daki artış istihdam ve ihracatı arttırırken, ithalatı ise azaltmıştır. Bu değişimde 1980 sonrası dönemde uygulanan ihracata dayalı sanayileşme politikaları etkili olmuştur. İhracatta da bunu destekleyen sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. İhracattaki %1'lik bir artış 1980 öncesinde GSYH ve ithalatı azaltırken istihdamı ise arttırmıştır. 1980 sonrasında ise ihracat GSYH'yı da arttırmaktadır. İstihdamdaki %1'lik bir artış ise her iki dönemde de GSYH ve ihracatı arttırırken, ithalatı ise azaltmaktadır. Elde edilen sonuçlar genel olarak ihracata dayalı büyümeyi destekler niteliktedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dış Ticaret, Gayrisafi Milli Hasıla, İstihdam, Eşbütünleşme, Toda-Yamamoto

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THE ROLE OF RENEWABLE ENERGY RESOURCES IN FIGHTING AGAINST GLOBAL CLIMATE CHANGE: AN ASSESSMENT FOR TURKEY

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Abstract: Efforts for implementing energy and environmental policies with coordination are going on in Turkey where the main objective of environmental policy is the protection and improvement of environment together with sustainable development. In this sense, development of renewable energy resources and getting maximum benefit from these resources are foreseen. In this study, the role of renewable energy resources in fighting against the global climate change which is the leading environmental problems posing threat for the world is discussed and some assessments are made for Turkey.

***Key Words*:** Turkey, Energy Sector, Renewable Energy Resources

Introduction

Global warming and climate change regarded as the main environmental problems constitute an important subject of sustainable development. This multi-dimensional global problem that may contain not only environmental results but also national security and socio-economic results requires international cooperation. This situation highlights the strategies and policies aimed at renewable energy resources within the scope of the control and reduction of greenhouse gas emissions that are the reason for climate change.

With the National Climate Change Strategy Document on fighting against climate change approved upon the Higher Planning Council's decision No. 201078 and dated May 3rd 2010, Turkey has set its vision to be a country that integrates climate change policies with development policies, extends energy efficiency, increases the use of clean and renewable energy resources, actively participates in the fight against climate change within the special conditions and offers high quality of life and welfare to its citizens with low carbon density. This indicates that the strategies and policies concerning renewable energy resources are the basis of Turkey's efforts to fight against climate change.

1. Global Climate Change

Lester Brown who founded Worldwatch Institute in 1974 aiming at finding solutions for global environmental problems with the support of Rockefeller Brothers Fund, and who hold the

presidency of Earth Policy Institute which is a non-profit and inter-disciplinary research organization emphasizes on "environmental and sustainable economy" concept and states that unprotected environment will lead to huge economic costs in the future. He gave an example of lotus flowers that double their numbers each day in a lake and cover half of the lake on 29th day and he associated the risk of 30th day with environmental risks. So he declared the environmental threats in an easily comprehensible way. In the example, the lake refers to our world and lotus flowers refer to the environmental pollution, it is questioned whether the world reaches to the 29th day (Wood and Pennock, 2010).

The problem of greenhouse gas effect, i.e. global climate change has been brought up on the world's agenda with the gradual liberalization of international trade, increase in the number of goods subject to foreign trade each day, more production for more consumption, more energy for more production and increasing fossil fuel consumption with more production and energy and greenhouse gas effects that occur due to consumption of those fuels and by focusing on the launches that will provoke consumption awareness in societies.

The observations conducted in global warming which is closely related to global climate change have indicated that the world has gone through temperature increase at a level of 0.6 C° between 1901 and 2000 during the 20th century (UNEP, 2001: 1.1). In case the projections made regarding greenhouse gas emissions which is related to many variables such as world's population, economic activity, presence of emission control mechanisms, variety of energy resources happen, it is predicted that the global temperature will increase 1.4 or 5.8 0.6 C° (IPCC, 2001: 8).

Natural greenhouse effect that occur due to the greenhouse gases that absorb and reflect back some of the energy in the atmosphere reflected from the ground may vary because of the changes in the amounts of gases and water molecules that constitute the atmosphere. Main greenhouse gases which lead to this effect are carbon dioxide (CO_2), ozone (O_3), methane (CH_4) dinitrousoxide (N_2O), halocarbons and other industrial gases.

In addition to natural greenhouse effect of atmosphere, human activities in such fields as energy, agriculture, industry and transportation raise the human related gas concentrations in the atmosphere and intensify the greenhouse effect. As can be seen in Table 1, a warming effect of 1.6 watt/m^2 is in question due to the industrial greenhouse gases released into the atmosphere as a result of human activities. This effect causes a condition known as global warming.

Table 1: Average Contribution Of Main Greenhouse Gases To Global Warming

	Watt/m²
Carbon dioxide (CO_2)	1.66
Methane (CH_4)	0.48
Dinitrousoxide (N_2O)	0.16
Halocarbons	0.34
Tropospheric ozone	0.35
Stratospheric ozone	-0.05
Stratospheric water vapor	0.07
Field use induced albedo	-0.2
Aerosol	-1.2
Effect of the sun	0.12
Human induced total effect	1.6

Source: (IPCC, 2007: 39)

Due to the industrialization, growing economy and increasing demand for energy, the amount of greenhouse gas emissions per capita and in total has been increasing as of 1990s also in Turkey (Table 2). This situation has increased the interest for renewable energy resources.

Table 2: Greenhouse Gas Emissions Of Turkey

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
Emission Per Capita (ton/ capita)	2.6	2.9	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.2
Total Emission (million ton)	187.0	237.5	297.0	329.9	349.6	380.0	366.5

Source: (DPT-UN, 2010: 50)

2. Energy Policy of Turkey and the Role of Renewable Energy Resources in Fighting against Climate Change

Today the efforts are for the development of not only renewable energy resources respecting the environment but also more commonly used technologies that will ensure cleaner burning of fossil fuels. These changes in energy policies will be effective not only on climate and environment but also on social and economic structure. A new industry will emerge in this field following many researches about new energy resources. Accordingly, new job and investment opportunities will be created. For example it is stated in the Green Paper named "A Sustainable, Competitive and Secure Energy Policy for Europe" published by the European Union in March 2006 that renewable and clean energy resources in the energy policy should be heavily emphasized (EC, 2006: 17).

European Union Commission bears the thought that giving weight to renewable energy resources and those with lower carbon emission will be effective not only for the environment but also for the development of European economy. Due to the fact that European countries play the leading role in technologies of new energy resources, this will provide competition advantage to these countries for the future.

Main strategies and policies based on the security of energy supply of Turkey can be summarized as below (Ministry of Energy and Natural resources, 2013: 2,3):

▪ Ensuring the diversity of resources by prioritizing the domestic resources,

▪ Increasing the energy efficiency,

▪ Increasing the share of renewable energy resources in the energy supply,

▪ Bringing free market conditions into full force and improving the investment environment,

▪ Ensuring the resource diversity in oil and natural gas fields and taking the precautions which will reduce the risks arisen from import,

▪ Conducting the activities in the field of energy and natural resources in an environment-friendly way,

▪ Making our country be an energy corridor by using the geopolitical position owned effectively,

▪ Making energy be accessible for consumers in terms of cost, time and amount,

▪ Forming added value in the country by increasing the production of industrial raw materials, metal and non-metallic mines,

▪ Introducing the natural resources the country owns into the national economy.

The main purpose of energy policy is to prioritize the continuous, qualified, secure and cost-effective supply of the energy within a competitive free market among the policies as required by the economic and social development in Turkey (Table 3); to perform monitoring and evaluation with the purpose of increasing the security of energy supply and to provide higher level of use from domestic and renewable resources. In this sense, determining the potential of pumped hydroelectric plant (HPP), establishing a wind monitoring and prediction center, developing the monitor and supervision system for solar energy plant have been adopted related to the renewable energy resources (DPT, 2011: 113,117).

Table 3: Policy Priorities And Measures Of Turkey In Energy Sector

Priority	Measure
Monitoring and evaluation will be carried out to increase the security of energy supply, domestic and renewable resources will be ensured to be used more.	Security of electric supply will be monitored and the required measures will be taken.
	Pumped Hydroelectric Plant (HPP) potential will be determined as related to the renewable energy resources, wind monitoring and prediction center will be established, monitor and supervision system for solar energy plant will be developed.
	The objectives of domestic coal resources in fighting against the climate change will be taken into account, methods will be determined for its evaluation and the legislation will be changed if deemed necessary.
Use of natural gas except for production of electricity will be expanded depending on the competition, changes in seasonal supply will be taken into account and the security of natural gas and oil supply will be ensured at national level.	A Draft Law on Making Changes in Natural Gas Market Law will be prepared.
	Import of Liquified Natural Gas (LNG) will be evaluated together with take-or-pay obligations of BOTAŞ.
	Studies directed to the natural gas storage activities will be maintained.
	National Oil Stock Agency will be established.
Activities aimed at minimizing the losses/leakage in production, transmission and distribution of electricity and increasing the energy efficiency will be accelerated and the required arrangements will be made.	Studies on secondary legislation related to energy efficiency will be completed and effective mechanisms directed to increasing the energy efficiency and saving will be formed.
Necessary studies will be performed in order to establish nuclear power plants in Turkey.	Legal basis will be formed regarding regulation and supervision of nuclear activities and the necessary corporate structures will be completed.
	In order to initiate the construction of nuclear power plant until 2014; follow-up of the production license and Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) application processes and carrying out the required legislative arrangements and finalization of negotiations will be ensured.
Public electricity production and distribution facilities will be ensured to be privatized in a way to serve the objective of forming a competitive market.	Privatization efforts for electricity production and distribution will continue.

Source: (DPT, 2011: 117-119)

Development of management, supervision and implementation capacity for applying the environmental legislation, performing the studies for fighting against climate change within the framework of National Climate Change Strategy, carrying out the studies directed to the protection

and development of biological diversity and natural resources and bringing economic value in them, ensuring their sustainable use, making the administrative, legal and financial amendments for effective management of water resources, evaluation of the phases of separation, collection, carrying, recycle and disposal of source in solid waste management as a whole in terms of technical and financial ways are among the policy priorities of Turkey regarding the protection of environment (Table 4) (DPT, 2011: 133-135).

Table 4: Policy Priorities And Measures Of Turkey In Environmental Protection

Priority	Measure
Management, supervision and implementation capacity will be developed to apply environmental legislation.	Measurement, monitor, supervision, control and reporting infrastructure will be activated for effective implementation of environmental legislation.
Efforts to fight against climate change will be carried out within the framework of National Climate Change Strategy.	Energy efficiency, renewable energy, eco-friendly transportation methods, forestry, meadow protection projects will be carried out for fighting against climate change and for harmonization, efforts for fighting against drought will put forth.
The studies directed to the protection and development of biological diversity and natural resources and bringing economic value in them will be performed and their sustainable use will be ensured.	In management of environment protection areas, cooperation and coordination among the institutions will be ensured and an awareness study will be conducted concerning the environmental, social and economic value of these areas.
Administrative, legal and financial amendments for effective management of water resources will be carried out.	The model of whole water resources management will be implemented for effective use and protection of water resources.
Phases of separation, collection, carrying, recycle and disposal of source in solid waste management will be evaluated as a whole in terms of technical and financial ways.	Solid waste management will be activated and disposal of domestic solid wastes via local control units in regular storage facilities will be ensured.
	Biodegradable Waste Reduction Strategy and Management Plan will be prepared for municipal wastes.

Source: (DPT, 2011: 133-135)

With the National Climate change Strategy, the main purpose of Turkey in the global fight against climate change has been shaped as participating in the global efforts determined with common mind by cooperating with the international parties in accordance with the sustainable development policies within the framework of common but differentiated responsibilities principle and the special conditions of the country (Ministry of Environment and Forestry, 2010: 5). In this sense, Climate Change Coordination Board composed of senior representatives of institutions and related eight working group have been formed with the Notice by the Prime Ministry with the purpose of carrying out the national studies in Turkey on climate change more effectively, ensuring coordination, determining the strategy and taking

the decisions based on negotiations. These are as follows (DPT, 2007: 25,26):

- Working group for research of the effects of climate change,
- Working group for greenhouse gas reduction in energy sector,
- Working group for greenhouse gas emission inventory,
- Working group for policy and strategy development,
- Working group for greenhouse gas reduction in transportation sector,
- Working group for field use, change in field use and forestry,
- Working group for education and public awareness,
- Working group for greenhouse gas reduction in industry, residential sector, waste management and service sector.

Within the scope of fighting against climate change which will be conducted within the framework of National Climate Change Strategy, it has been foreseen that energy efficiency, renewable energy, eco-friendly transportation methods, forestry, meadow protection projects will be carried out for fighting against climate change and for harmonization, efforts for fighting against drought will put forth. In this regard, studies regarding the regional and sectoral effects of climate change, determining the need for technology and awareness raising on harmonization will be maintained together with the projects in the areas of agriculture, energy, transportation, forestry, industry, waste sectors, emission limitation and harmonization (DPT, 2011: 133). Moreover a potential limitation of carbon dioxide emissions at 7 percent by the reference scenario until 2020 in the energy sector in the long term and raising the share of renewable energy within the total electricity production to 30 percent until 2023 have been targeted (Table 5).

Table 5: Priorities And Measures Of Turkey In Greenhouse Gas Emission Control Directed To Energy Sector

Short Term
All the domestic resources notably hydraulic and wind will be ultimately utilized by using the best techniques and clean production technologies within the domestic and external financing opportunities in parallel to the objectives on security of energy supply and climate change from.
Renewable energy systems in the buildings to be constructed will be made on condition that the first investment cost energy economics is taken into account and recycled within 10 years for the buildings with a construction area up to 20.000 m^2 and within 15 years for the buildings with a construction area of 20.000 m^2 and more.
Energy Performance Certificate will be initiated in new buildings.
The systems will be supported with solar energy collectors in central heating and hygienic hot water systems in hotels, hospitals, dormitories and related buildings for accommodation except the houses and sports centers that will be constructed on an area of use over 1000 m^2.
Medium Term
Energy efficiency potential will be determined in buildings and this potential will be carried out at maximum level; privileged projects for building materials and technologies that will ensure the energy efficiency in cooperation with the industry will be set.
A substructure will be prepared in current buildings for Energy Performance Certificate, heat insulation and other practices that will increase efficiency will be encouraged.
Energy management conforming to its standard will be applied with certified energy managers in industry and construction sector.
Notably renewable energy and clean coal technology, use of low and zero emission technologies including nuclear energy will be encouraged; R&D studies will be conducted in the field of clean technologies and energy resources; domestic industry will be supported in these fields.
Use of new and alternative fuels will be increased, development of economic tools for this purpose will be supported.
Rehabilitation studies of current thermal power plant will be completed and hydroelectric power plants will be ensured to perform more efficiently.
Long Term
An improvement will be ensured in energy consumption of current buildings and facilities of public institutions.
Until 2020, energy density will be reduced to lower levels in comparison to 2004.
The objective will be the potential limitation of carbon dioxide emissions at 7 percent by the reference scenario until 2020 in the energy sector.
The share of renewable energy within the total electricity production will be increased to 30 percent until 2023. In this sense, the whole technical and economic hydraulic potential will be evaluated, the capacity of electricity production will reach to 20.000 MW for wind and 600 MW for geothermal. Production of electricity from solar energy will be encouraged.

Source: (Ministry of Environment and Forestry, 2010: 6)

Turkey aiming to develop R&D and innovation capacity directed to clean production by taking

into account current technology and level of development and to create national and international financing resources and encouragement mechanisms that will ensure an increase in competition and production in this field (Ministry of Environment and Forestry, 2010: 5) has foreseen concerning fighting against climate change that current financing resources should be reviewed and their active use should be provided within the framework of priorities in the short term; innovative, sustainable and additional financing resources must be created in the long term (Table 6).

Table 6: Priorities and Measures Of Turkey In Fighting Against Climate Change Directed To Financing

Short Term
Current financing resources for fighting against climate change and for harmony will be reviewed, their active use will be ensured within the framework of priorities.
Access to financial resources required in order to carry out reduction and harmonization activities will be increased.
Bilateral and multilateral international collaborations will be developed in order to get more benefit from international funds.
New financing resources will be sought for green environment, good agricultural practices and transfer and development of climate-friendly technologies.
Medium Term
Necessary substructure will be created for voluntary carbon markets giving financial support in reducing greenhouse gas emissions. Voluntary carbon markets will be ensured to be encouraging concerning technology transfer, extensification of technology and R&D activities.
Companies already being a member of voluntary carbon markets will be ensured not to be affected negatively from the future legislation, they will be encouraged to enter into these markets.
Orientation to low carbon economy will be accelerated by providing the supports for technology innovation, emission control, production of climate-friendly technology, clean production design and production technologies.
Best practices of public-private sector collaborations will be taken into account and investments for clean technology will be supported.
The projects directed to emission reduction and control and maintaining harmonization in public investment programming will be prioritized.
Long Term
Innovative, sustainable and additional financing resources will be created for fighting against climate change and for harmonization.

Source: (Ministry of Environment and Forestry, 2010: 14)

Policies and priorities concerning energy, environmental protection and financing clearly indicate that particularly a rational environmental financing policy must be developed, financing problems must be solved and investments about

environment must be made in all these processes for the success of fighting against climate change.

Conclusion

"Global warming and climate change" that occur as a result of industrialization, energy production, deforestation and other human activities and particularly the use of fossil fuels are among the environmental problems posing threat to the world. Renewable energy resources notably wind, sun and hydroelectric will play significant role in the solution of this problem that will bring about economic, ecological and sociological problems.

Use of renewable energy resources as an alternative to the traditional energy for Turkey in the future looks promising but there must be an increasing and continuous financing for the development of respective energy resources. The fact that renewable energy technologies have proven power in balancing increasing carbon dioxide emission and other greenhouse emissions requires a rational environmental financing policy that includes governmental supports.

Resources

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KÜRESEL İKLİM DEĞİŞİKLİĞİ İLE MÜCADELEDE YENİLENEBİLİR ENERJİ KAYNAKLARININ ROLÜ: TÜRKİYE İÇİN BİR DEĞERLENDİRME

Özet: Çevre sorunlarının başında gelen küresel ısınma ve iklim değişikliği, sürdürülebilir kalkınmanın da önemli bir konusunu oluşturmaktadır. Sadece çevresel değil, ulusal güvenlik ve sosyo-ekonomik sonuçları da olabilecek bu çok boyutlu küresel sorun, uluslararası işbirliğini gerekli kılmaktadır. Bu durum, iklim değişikliğinin sebebi olan sera gazı emisyonlarının kontrolü ve azaltılması kapsamında, yenilenebilir enerjiye yönelik strateji ve politikaları öne çıkarmaktadır. Türkiye, iklim değişikliği ile mücadelede onayladığı Ulusal İklim Değişikliği Strateji Belgesi ile ulusal vizyonunu; iklim değişikliği politikalarını kalkınma politikalarıyla bütünleştiren, enerji verimliliğini yaygınlaştıran, temiz ve yenilenebilir enerji kaynaklarının kullanımını arttıran, özel şartları kapsamında iklim değişikliği ile mücadeleye aktif olarak katılan, vatandaşlarına yüksek yaşam kalitesiyle refahı düşük karbon yoğunluğu ile sunabilen bir ülke olmak şeklinde belirlemiştir. Günümüzde, çevreye saygılı yenilenebilir enerji kaynaklarının geliştirilmesinin yanında, kullanımı çok daha yaygın olan fosil yakıtların daha temiz yakılmasını sağlayacak teknolojilerin geliştirilmesine de çalışılmaktadır. Türkiye'nin enerji arz güvenliğini esas alan temel strateji ve politikaları ise şu şekilde özetlenebilir: Yerli kaynaklara öncelik vermek yoluyla kaynak çeşitliliğini sağlamak, enerji verimliliğini artırmak, yenilenebilir enerji kaynaklarının enerji arzı içindeki payını arttırmak, serbest piyasa koşullarına tam işlerlik kazandırmak ve yatırım ortamının iyileşmesini sağlamak, petrol ve doğal gaz alanlarında kaynak çeşitliliğini sağlamak ve ithalattan kaynaklanan riskleri azaltacak önlemleri almak, enerji ve tabii kaynaklar alanlarındaki faaliyetlerin çevreye duyarlı halde yürütülmesini sağlamak, sahip olunan jeopolitik konumun etkin şekilde kullanılmasıyla, ülkemizi enerji koridoru haline getirmek, maliyet, zaman ve miktar yönlerinden enerjiyi tüketiciler için erişebilir kılmak, endüstriyel hammadde, metal ve metal dışı madenlerin üretimlerini arttırarak, yurt içinde katma değer meydana getirmek, ülkenin sahip olduğu doğal kaynakları ülke ekonomisine kazandırmak. Enerji politikasının temel amacı, iktisadi kalkınmanın ve sosyal gelişmenin gereksinim duyduğu enerjinin rekabetçi bir serbest piyasa ortamında sürekli, kaliteli, güvenli ve mümkün olan en düşük maliyetle temini olan Türkiye'nin, enerji sektöründe politika öncelikleri arasında özellikle (Tablo 3); enerji arz güvenliğini artırmak amacıyla izleme ve değerlendirme yapılarak, yerli ve yenilenebilir kaynaklardan daha çok yararlanılmasının sağlanması yer almış ve bu kapsamda, yenilenebilir enerji kaynakları ile ilgili olarak pompajlı Hidro Elektrik Santral (HES) potansiyelinin belirlenmesi, rüzgâr izleme ve tahmin merkezinin kurulması, güneş enerjisi santrali için izleme ve denetim sisteminin geliştirilmesi benimsenmiştir. Türkiye'nin çevreyi korumada politika öncelikleri arasında ise, çevre mevzuatının uygulanmasına yönelik yönetim, denetim ve uygulama kapasitesinin geliştirilmesi; iklim değişikliği ile mücadele çalışmalarının Ulusal İklim Değişikliği Stratejisi çerçevesinde yürütülmesi; başta biyolojik çeşitlilik olmak üzere doğal kaynakların korunması, geliştirilmesi ve ekonomik anlamda değer kazanmasına yönelik çalışmaların yapılarak sürdürülebilir kullanımının sağlanması; su kaynaklarının etkin bir şekilde yönetimi amacıyla idari, yasal ve finansal düzenlemelerin gerçekleştirilmesi; katı atık yönetiminde kaynakta ayrıştırma, toplama, taşıma, geri kazanım ve bertaraf safhalarının teknik ve mali yönden bir bütün olarak değerlendirilmesi yer almıştır. Ulusal İklim Değişikliği Stratejisi çerçevesinde yürütülecek olan iklim değişikliği ile mücadele çalışmaları kapsamında; iklim değişikliği ile mücadele ve uyuma yönelik başta enerji verimliliği, yenilenebilir enerji, çevre dostu ulaşım yöntemleri, ormancılık ve

mera koruma projelerinin yürütüleceği, kuraklıkla mücadele edileceği öngörülmüştür. Bu kapsamda, iklim değişikliğinin bölgesel ve sektörel etkileri ile teknoloji ihtiyacının tespitine ve uyum konusunda farkındalığın geliştirilmesine ilişkin çalışmalara; tarım, enerji, ulaştırma, ormancılık, sanayi, atık sektörlerinde projelerle emisyon sınırlandırma ve uyum alanlarında projelere devam edileceği açıklanmıştır. Ayrıca, uzun vadede enerji sektöründe 2020 yılına kadar referans senaryoya göre yüzde 7 karbondioksit emisyon sınırlaması potansiyeli ve 2023 yılına kadar da yenilenebilir enerjinin toplam elektrik enerjisi üretimindeki payının yüzde 30'a çıkartılması hedeflenmiştir. Mevcut teknoloji ve kalkınma düzeyini dikkate alarak temiz üretime yönelik Ar-Ge ve inovasyon kapasitesini geliştirmeyi, bu alanda rekabet ve üretimin arttırılmasını sağlayacak ulusal ve uluslararası finansman kaynaklarını ve teşvik mekanizmalarını oluşturmayı hedefleyen Türkiye; iklim değişikliği ile mücadelede kısa dönemde mevcut finansman kaynaklarının gözden geçirilerek, öncelikler çerçevesinde etkin kullanımının sağlanmasını; uzun vadede ise yenilikçi, sürdürülebilir ilave finansman kaynaklarının oluşturulmasını öngörmüştür. Enerji, çevre koruma ve finansmana ilişkin politika ve öncelikler, Türkiye'nin iklim değişikliği ile mücadele çalışmalarının başarısı için, özellikle rasyonel bir çevre finansman politikasının geliştirilerek finansman sorunlarının çözümlenmesini ve tüm süreçlerde çevreyle ilgili yatırımların gerçekleştirilmesini açıkça ortaya koymaktadır. **Sonuç:** Başta fosil yakıt kullanımı olmak üzere, sanayileşme, enerji üretimi, ormanların yok olması ve diğer insan aktiviteleri sonucunda ortaya çıkan "küresel ısınma ve iklim değişikliği", dünyayı tehdit eden çevre sorunlarının başında gelmektedir. Ekonomik, ekolojik ve sosyolojik problemleri de beraberinde getirecek olan bu sorunun nihai çözümünde rüzgar, güneş, hidroelektrik başta olmak üzere yenilenebilir enerji kaynakları önemli rol oynayacaktır. Türkiye'de gelecekte geleneksel enerjiye bir alternatif olarak yenilenebilir enerji kaynaklarının kullanımı ümit vaat etmekle birlikte, söz konusu enerji kaynaklarının gelişimi için artan ve süreklilik arz eden bir finansman olmalıdır. Yenilenebilir enerji teknolojilerinin, artan karbondioksit emisyonu ve diğer sera gibi emisyonlarının dengelenmesinde kanıtlanmış bir güce sahip olması, hükümet desteklerini içeren rasyonel bir çevre finansman politikasını gerekli kılmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Türkiye, Enerji Sektörü, Yenilenebilir Enerji Kaynakları

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RISK MANAGEMENT IN LIBRARIES, ARCHIVES AND MUSEUMS

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Abstract: Libraries, archives and museums around the globe are exposed to risks stemming from environmental conditions and human-driven potential hazards. Since an emergency/disaster immediately breaks out, the four key principles of disaster management, namely preparedness, damage reduction, intervention and improvement, should strictly be defined proactively, planned and necessary measures should be taken beforehand. In a well set-up Library, Archive (information and documentation centers) and Museum Risk Management, it is important to define the hazards and prioritize them after the assessment of the risks that may be posed by such hazards. Again based on this management system, continuous improvement through Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycles should be aimed. Risk analyses should be performed in consideration of the incidence frequency, severity and duration of emergency/ disasters; number of collection, library and archive items; number of workers; number of users; building characteristics (structural quality, quality of non-structural elements, geological condition of soil, etc.) as well as the properties of hazardous facilities surrounding the building. Separate strategies to control each risk originating from hazards (aimed at controlling the risks in the short, medium and long term) should be defined. In this study, the importance of risk analysis and risk assessment for Libraries, Archives and Museums under the Occupational Health and Safety Law no 6331 has been emphasized, and a sample risk analysis based on the 5x5 risk matrix method is presented.

***Key Words*:** Cultural Heritage Risk Management, Risk Analysis Methods, Risk Monitoring, Risk Management, Information And Documentation Management

1.INTRODUCTION:

Risk management in library, archive and museum buildings is a comprehensive study where potential hazards that may turn into risks if measures are not taken, risks that may give damage to building occupants as well as collection, library and archive materials in the building, and measures to mitigate such risks are regularly assessed. Many researchers have involved projects related with risk assessment studies for reducing risks of library, archive and museum buildings. Institutions such The International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) developed some principles of for its members in library-related activities of disaster risk reduction and in times of conflict, crisis or natural disaster (IFLA's Key Initiatives 2011-2012 programme). IFLA aimed to encourage safeguarding and respect for cultural property especially by raising awareness

and promoting disaster risk management and to strengthen cooperation and participation in cultural heritage activities through UNESCO, the libraries, archives, museums, heritage buildings and sites group. Dowlin (2004) emphasized that the modern academic library building must set new standards for seismic mitigation, ventilation, heating, lighting and openness of the building, security of the staff, collections, and ability to provide a comfortable environment. One of the Risk Assessment Projects is carried out for digitising special collections (Ketzer, Marzo, Pimlott, 2012). Risk magnitudes are defined according to 3 parameters (A. For events, how often does the risk occur? B. How much value is lost in each affected object? C. How much of the collection is affected?). Oketunji (2014) examined occupational health and safety survey in public university libraries in South-West, Nigeria. Senyah, Y. and Lamptey B.L., (2011) carry out a study that critical examination of the personal and security risks to which Kwame Nkrumah University Of Science And Technology Library, Kumasi, Ghana (KNUST) Library staff are exposed to and measures to be put in place to deal with them. Abdul-Wahab (2011) also examined about "sick building syndrome" for Umman Sultan Quaboos University (SQU) library buildings and defined poor indoor condition adverse effect on library staff.

Most common risks for museum collections are: pyhsical forces, (earthquakes, physical damage from staff, vibrations from drawers, repair work); fire (flame, soot); water (floods, plumbing or roof leak); criminal (robbery, isolated theft, vandalism), pests (rodents, insects); contaminants (dust, gasses); light and uv radiation; incorrect temperature; incorrect relative humidity; custodial neglect (data loss, misplacement, sample mixing). Michalski (1992) defined nine agents as common deterioration problems for museum environments: 1. direct physical force, 2. displacers, vandals, 3. fire, 4. water 5. pests 6. contaminants, 7. radiation 8. incorrect temperature 9. incorrect relative humidity (RH). A basic equation is used for finding damage rate: Object damage rate per agent = object value x agent deterioration rate x susceptibility to the agent. Risk assessment is necessary to identify risks and a systematic review of premises and activities with the potential to cause harm and damage (Prideaux, 2007). For museum building risk assessment, Waller (2005) implemented Cultural Property Risk analysis Model (CPRAM) for collection of Canadian Museum of Nature. According to risk management approach it is aimed to identifying all risk which are effect to collections, assessing the magnitude of each risk (from significant to insignificant), identifying possible mitigation strategies. Risk matrix created on basis of frequency of occurrence and severity of effect. carried out British Museum Risk Management Policy (2013) promulgated due to risk management within the Museum is therefore to achieve an optimum response to risk, prioritised in accordance with an evaluation of the risks. British Colombia Museums Association also developed Best Practices Module of Risk Management (Hall, Duckles, 2005). It is aimed to evaluate and prioritize risks by sorting technique (risk matrix contains probability and impact parameters).

Research groups focused on risks that could affect specifically collections, library materials or museum, library staff. Overall aim of the study

is to examine both risks to People (board, staff, volunteers and patrons) and to property (actual property, buildings, artefacts, library materials and equipment). It is aimed to increase awareness among library, archive and museum responsibles and decision makers.

2.MATERIALS AND METHOD:

In this study, health and security risks in library, archive, museum buildings within the scope of Code on Occupational Health and Safety with the number of 6331 and relevant regulations such as Regulation on Risk Assessment for Occupational Health and Safety are evaluated and precautions in order to reduce current risks in acceptable levels are determined. With this aim, "5x5 Risk Assessment Table" method is used in the study. In order to provide that the application shall be operable for all of the library, archive and museum buildings and serve as a model, likely risks not at definite buildings but at any library, archive and museum buildings are evaluated. 5x5 Risk Assessment parameters contains probability and magnitude parameters. Rating the risk score is done by intolerable, significant, moderate, tolerable, insignificant risks scales.

In risk assessment study, risks that shall give harm to both staff and works are analyzed. 5 risk factors are determined diversely for the staff, workplaces and cultural heritage objects, library materials. Undoubtedly, it is possible to mention about hundreds of risk factors at library, archive and museum buildings. However, in this study it is focused on threats that are mostly met.

3. RISK CONCEPT AND RISK MANAGEMENT:

Definition of the risk may vary in the international literature and standards. This is because risk varies by the characteristics of the particular industry or the branch of science involved. While risk terminology relies upon the same rationale in myriad of fields such as engineering, banking, insurance, medicine, psychology and sociology, risk terminology (probability forecasting), there are some deviating aspects in practice. Applying the Chaos Theory renown for its slogan "The flap of a butterfly in the Amazon Rain Forests can lead to a cyclone in the States" to Libraries, Archives and Museums would imply that an emergency/ disaster that may break out in any site of the building may impact the whole building. This might further cause injury and death in workers and loss/damage in collections (destruction of the building, structural members inside the building, furniture and other fixtures/equipment). And this would culminate in primarily fatality and interruption of the operational activities of the library, archive and museum buildings. While describing the risk concept, the concept of uncertainty at the site where the risk is involved should not be neglected. Because, risk is an unwanted event that may take place at an unknown time. As definitions in Table 1 reveal, risk always ends up with damage and loss. Confrontation with risk at work sites such as Libraries, Archives and Museums poses social, environmental, technological, safety and security consequences as well as commercial, financial, social, cultural, political and prestige impacts. Risks leading to loss are characterized to be impeding desired targets for workplaces.

Table 1. Risk Definitions

Definition provided by	Definition
AS/NZS 4360, 2004	Risk: The chance of something happening that will have an impact on objectives.
COSO, 2004	Risk: Events with negative effect creating a value and diminishing the existing value.
HSE (UK)	Risk: Chance (high or low) of harm to a person due to hazard and potential severity of that hazard.
ILO Guidelines, 2001	Risk: Combination of the probability of occurrence of a hazardous event and severity of the damage to human health or injury.
ISO/IEC Guide 51, 1999	Risk: Combination of the probability of harm with the severity of that harm in case of occurrence.
ISO/IEC Guide 73, 2002	Risk: Combination of the probability of an event with the severity of its consequences.
TS 18001, 2008	Risk: Combination of the probability of the occurrence of a hazardous event or exposure with the severity of the injury or the impairment of health that such event or exposure may cause.
Turkish Language Association	Risk: Threat of exposure to harm.
OHS Law no 6331 and Regulation on OHS Risk Assessment, 2012	Risk: Probability of occurrence of a loss, injury or other harmful result due to hazard.

As the definitions suggest, there is a probability, namely a state of uncertainty surrounding the occurrence of a risk, therefore, Libraries, Archives and Museums as well as all other businesses need a risk analysis for forecasting such uncertainty. As a matter of fact, when the risk occurs, it would induce negative effects on the objectives of the business, therefore such risks should proactively be identified. To this end; risk has 2 major parameters, namely :

- The probability of occurrence of the risk,
- The impact of the occurring risk,

and should definitely suggest a result (such as damage/loss).

Hazard involves the potential of causing a damage. To identify the risks, what factors might adversely impact the health and safety of people and the environment in case of occurrence of foreseen hazards should be considered. Several hazards may originate from a hazard source, and several risks may originate from a hazard (Figure 1).

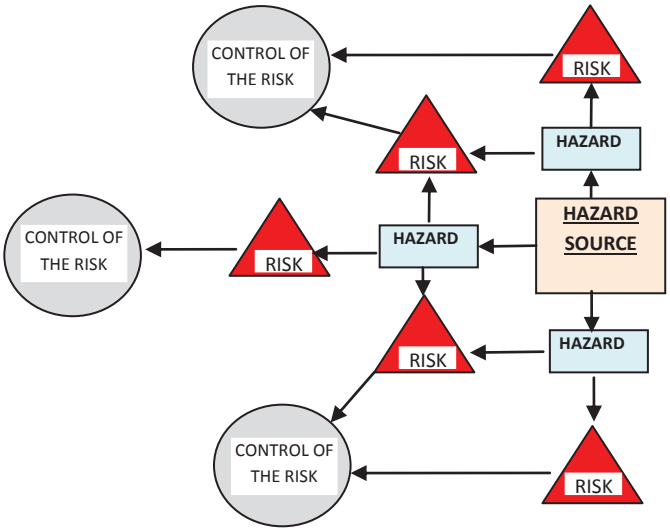


Figure 1. Secondary Hazards And Risks By Hazard Source

In brief, risk can be described as the probability for the hazard to turn into damage. Risk Analysis is the procedure of addressing and qualitatively and quantitatively interpreting all risks that may potentially arise. Hazards augment the potential severity of damage and the magnitude of outcomes once risk has occurred. The greater the available capacity against the risks and the higher the capability of managing the risks (if the organization is capable of responding and producing a capacity), the higher the capability of diminishing the damage. Therefore, the following formulation may be developed:

$$\mathbf{R}\ (\text{Risk}) = \frac{\mathbf{H}\ (\text{Hazard}) \times \mathbf{S}\ (\text{Severability of Damage})}{\mathbf{M}\ (\text{Manageability/Capacity})}$$

A risk analysis is a component of the risk management system. In general, management is fulfilling the set of managerial functions, namely planning, organizing, staffing, guiding and supervising. Turban introduces another definition suiting these functions. Turban describes management as: "achieving particular objectives by using particular resources". The need to management arises out of the requirement to fulfil, through a teamwork, the objectives that persons cannot achieve by themselves. In this sense, management is a group activity that should be performed to attain particular objectives (Altınöz, 2012). In all steps of the "Risk Management" cycle in Figure 2, a group study is of essence. As a matter of fact, in qualitative and quantitative risk analysis methods based on scientific numerical values, in assessing the risks (Step 1, 2 and 3 in Figure 1), in classifying the risk and deciding to act, monitoring the current situation through consistent communication and consultation with internal

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and external stakeholders is totally based on a group study.

An archive building incorporates myriad of functions, complexes and sometimes contradictions. Such a huge facility ensures the preservation of documents and satisfies user demands. While making the calculations and designing the building, the engineer should meticulously address solutions for all problems and avoid new ones. For this reason, solutions to reduce both the investment cost as well as maintenance cost should be developed (Benoit & Neirinck, 1987). Furthermore, attention should be paid to the selection of non-structural materials to prevent injury, loss of limbs and death. Hence, both employees and users as well as collections are protected against damage.

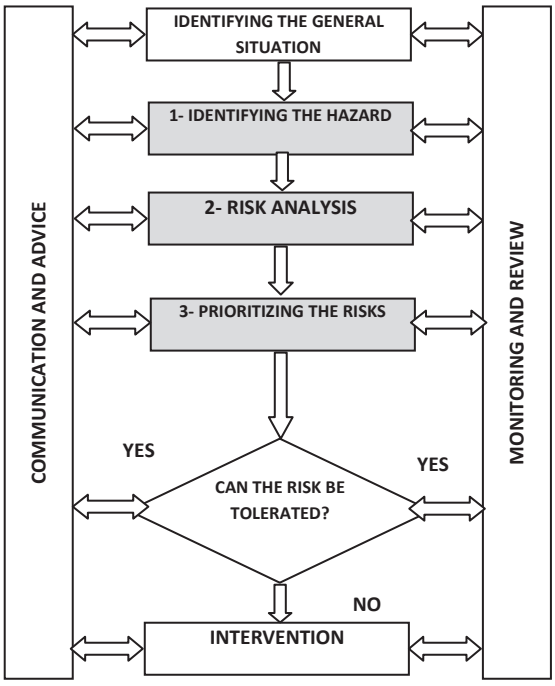


Figure 2. Phases Of Risk Management (ISO 31010, 2009)

In this respect, the directors acting in capacity of employers at library, archive and museum workplaces should conduct risk analyses within the risk assessment process on the basis of the provisions of Law no 6331[1], and workers should contribute to such actions.

1 The Occupational Health and Safety Law no 6331 effective in Turkey requires as a legal obligation the workplaces to take serious measures proactively and analyse and assess all risks. The Occupational Health and Safety Law published in the Official Gazette no 28339 of 30 June 2012 emphasizes risk analyses and highlights the significance of analysing the risks. Appropriate provisions are referred to below:
Article 5- (1) The employer shall its obligations on the basis of the following principles:
a) avoiding risks.
b) evaluating the risks which cannot be avoided.
c) combating the risks at source.
Article 16 - (1) The employer shall inform the workers and workers' representatives of the following issues taking into account the characteristics of the enterprise for the purposes of ensuring and maintaining the occupational health and safety:
a) the safety and health risks that may be confronted at the workplace, and protective and preventive measures.
b) their legal rights and responsibilities.
c) Workers designated to handle first aid, extra ordinary situations, disasters, fire-fighting and the evacuation.
(2) The employer shall;
a) as soon as possible, inform all workers who are, or may be, exposed to serious and imminent danger of the risks involved, and of the steps taken or to be taken as regards protection. b) ensure that employers of workers from any outside undertakings and / or enterprises engaged in work in his undertaking and / or enterprise receive adequate information concerning the points referred to in paragraph 1 which is to be provided to the workers in question. c) ensure that support staff and workers' representatives shall have access to the risk assessment, protective and preventive measures related to safety and health at work, the information yielded by measurements, analysis, technical controls, records, reports and inspections.
Also based on the provisions of Article 7 governing Phases of Risk Assessment under the Regulation for Risk Assessment in Occupational Health and Safety as published in Official Gazette no 28512 of 29 December 2012, all workplaces should monitor, starting from

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The study involves a investigation that what may give damage to workers and users, building, objects and collections, and what measures have been / are to be taken against hazards that pose the potential of such damage should be explored across the whole scale of the building. Buildings, building fixtures, machines, equipment, substances, operation and disasters may give damage to museum objects as well as library and archive materials.

Archives and Record Storage Building should be equipped with safety measures against poor environmental conditions, insects, rodents, moisture and temperature fluctuations, fire, flood, theft and sabotage (Kathpalia,1990). All hazardous factors should be identified and prioritized. After such susceptibility analysis, an assessment should be made on identified risks that may be tolerated and on conditions for which immediate measures should be taken. All workers should be trained on hazards identified, emergency plans should be prepared and drills should regularly be maintained. Scenarios should be developed based on estimated disaster vulnerability of objects and library-archive materials, and such scenarios should address the use and enhancement of existing resources, intervention of workers and measures for the protection of objects. In scenario perspective, also documentation, conservation, preservation and transferral to safer storage areas of the objects damaged after the emergency/ disaster and subsequent secondary disasters in accordance with the intervention of conservators are of essence. Consistent review should be ensured in the Emergency Plans developed.

Cultural heritage is the property of not only the host country but also all people. For safe conveyance of this heritage to future generations, it is an essential responsibility to take measures against risks threatening the cultural heritage.

There are myriad of events held around the globe for risk mitigation and protection. ICOM's Museum Contingency Plan (MCP), UNESCO Cultural Heritage Conservation Plans, US Getty Museum training and implementation campaigns are some of these initiatives. In the Hyogo Framework adopted in the Global Risk Reduction Conference held in Kobe, Japan in 2005, 5 key areas were addressed:

- Governance: Corporate, legal and political frameworks
- Risk definition, assessment, monitoring and early warning
- Management of information and training
- Reducing underlying risk factors
- Effective intervention and preparedness for recovery (UN/ISDR, 2005).

Across these objectives, with a view to reducing the global cultural heritage risks, following efforts have been addressed: strengthening the contribution of local, regional, natural and international bodies; employing information, innovation and training to build up a culture for the prevention

the design or incorporation phase, the processes of identifying the hazards, defining and analysing the risks, establishing risk control measures, documenting the process, updating and when necessary renewing the actions taken.

of disaster risks on the global cultural heritage; identifying, assessing and monitoring disaster risks; and consolidating the groundwork for the reduction of risks.

Moreover, UNESCO's Department for Information General Programme has launched a long-term programme for archive and document management for member countries called "Records and Archives Management Programme-RAMP). Within the scope of this project, the training of even the non-professional staff on conservation has been targeted through campaigns called "Guidelines on Best Practices in Basic Collection Management for Non Professional Staff and the Organization of Training Courses: A RAMP Study (Clements & Thomas, 1992). In addition, within the scope of initiatives launched by the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), principles for the conservation of Library and Information Resources were defined and standards were developed (Adcock, 1998).

According to the classification, by NACE[2] code, of workplaces active in Turkey based on the statistics of the Social Security Institution (SSI); library, archive and museum workplaces are in class 91 (activity code). Data for the period 2010-2012 relating to the number of workplaces, number of compulsory insured workers, number of fatalities and permanent total incapacity as a result of employment injuries have been extracted from SSI's statistical yearbooks (Employment Injury and Occupational Disease Statistics). These are shown in Table 2.

2 NACE: Statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community (**NACE**); is a reference source for producing and disseminating statistics for economic activities in Europe.

Table 2. Statistics Of Accidents That Occurred In Library, Archive And Museum Workplaces (2010-2012)

Year	Number of employment injuries			N' of Permanent Incapacity			N'of Death Cases			Standart employment injury rates
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	%
2010	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	0	2	10.46
2011	1	0	1	1	0	1	5	0	5	7.97
2012	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	36.34

Abbreviations used in the table:
M: Male,
F: Female,
T: Total.
Standardized employment injury (%) has been calculated with the following formula:
Standardized employment injury rates (%)
=Number of employment injuries in the branch of activities in 2012 x 100

Expected number of employment injury

As the table reveals, like in all workplaces throughout Turkey, risks on workers at also library, archive and museum workplaces may result in the injury, incapacity and death of workers. While assessing the risks in library, archive and museum buildings, the process should be set up so that the overall risk is analysed rather than only the risks on objects, library-archive materials or workers.

5. RISK ANALYSIS:

In risk analysis, there are two types of methods, namely qualitative and quantitative methods. In the quantitative approach, mathematical and statistical methods are employed to identify and reduce the risk. In case of no available data on probability, the specialized qualitative methodology where risk is expressed in qualitative terms such as low, moderate and high may be used. The objective of the risk analysis is to predict the severity of the damage that may the artwork may suffer. Risk can be formulated as the Probability of Occurrence of a Hazardous Incident x Impact of the Hazard. The risk analysis decision is made based on this prediction and accordingly protection strategies are developed. While developing these strategies, feasibility and costs should also be taken into consideration.

In the study, the 5x5 matrix method as a qualitative risk analysis method was employed. Risk scores yielded by the risk analysis are found by multiplying the probability of the risk with severity according to the formulation above.

Risk Assessment Criteria have been determined as follows:

Table 3. Probability Of The Occurrence Of The Risk

PROBABILITY	RATING FOR THE PROBABILITY OF OCCURRENCE
VERY LOW (1)	Almost zero
LOW (2)	Very rare (once a year), only in abnormal cases
MODERATE (3)	Rare (several times a year)
HIGH (4)	Frequently (once a month)
VERY HIGH (5)	Very frequent (once a week, every day), in normal work conditions

Table 4. Severity Of The Risk On Workers And Users

MAGNITUDE	RATING THE SEVERITY
VERY LOW (1)	No loss of work hour, no first aid required
LOW (2)	No loss of work day, no permanent effect, ambulatory treatment, first aid required
MODERATE (3)	Minor injury, inpatient treatment required
HIGH (4)	Serious injury, long-term treatment, occupational disease
VERY HIGH (5)	Death, permanent incapacity

Table 5. Severity Of The Risk On Museum Collections And The Library And Archival Materials

MAGNITUDE	RATING THE SEVERITY
VERY LOW (1)	No/very limited damage; no conservation required
LOW (2)	Slight damage; conservation required
MODERATE (3)	Moderate damage (snap, break), conservation required
HIGH (4)	High damage (snap, disintegration, etc.) , conservation required
VERY HIGH (5)	Very high damage (severe damage in the collection / material), conservation required

Table 6. 5x5 Risk Matrix

	RISK LEVEL				
	MAGNITUDE				
PROBABILITY	VERY SERIOUS 5	SERIOUS 4	MODERATE 3	WEAK 2	VERY WEAK 1
VERY HIGH 5	HIGH 25	HIGH 20	HIGH 15	MODERATE 10	LOW 5
HIGH 4	HIGH 20	HIGH 16	MODERATE 12	MODERATE 8	LOW 4
MODERATE 3	HIGH 15	MODERATE 12	MODERATE 9	LOW 6	LOW 3
LOW 2	MODERATE 10	MODERATE 8	LOW 6	LOW 4	LOW 2
VERY LOW 1	LOW 5	LOW 4	LOW 3	LOW 2	LOW 1

Table 7. Rating The Risk Score

CONCLUSION	RISK CATEGORY
Intolerable Risks (25)	The work should not be started or any running process should immediately be stopped until the identified risk is brought down to an acceptable level. If it is not possible to reduce the risk despite the actions taken, the activity should be avoided.
Significant Risks (15,16,20)	The work should not be started or any running process should immediately be stopped until the identified risk is reduced. If the risk is linked with the progress of the work, then immediate measures should be taken and decision should be made on the progress of the work based on such measures.
Moderate Risks (8,9,10,12)	Actions should be started to reduce the risks identified. Such actions should be applied in accordance with a specific plan.
Tolerable Risks (2,3,4,5,6)	Additional control processes may not be needed to eliminate the risks identified. However, existing controls should be maintained and such maintenance should be audited.
Insignificant Risks (1)	Planning control processes and retaining the records of actions may not be needed to eliminate the risks identified.

Table 8. Indicating The Scores Based On The Matrix Method On The Risk Analysis Table

NO	HAZARD SOURCES / HAZARDS	RISKS IDENTIFIED	DAMAGE	P	M	R	CORRECTIVE PREVENTIVE CONTROL MEASURES
1a	Cable insulations are worn out	Electrical shock / fire	E Injury / death	5	4	20	Immediately replacing defective and worn-out cables not conforming to the standards Undertaking periodical checks
1b	Cable insulations are worn out	Fire	C Damage / loss	5	5	25	Additional measures should be taken to protect objects against fire, number of fire extinguishers should be increased.
2a	Electric leakage in electrical equipment	Electrical shock / fire	E Injury / Death	4	5	20	Using uninsulated sockets Insulating the electrical switchboards Placing an insulated mat in front of electrical switchboards Installing residual current relays
2b	Electric leakage in electrical equipment	Fire	C Damage / loss	4	4	16	Fire measures should be extended.
3a	High concentration and disorganization of wiring	Tripping	E injury/	3	4	12	Avoiding the potential electrical leakage and the resulting fire, all cables should be organized and arranged in conduits.

3b	High concentration and disorganization of wiring	Fall down of the artwork carried by the tripping worker	**C** Damage / loss	2	3	6	Handling the artworks not manually but in containers Avoiding manual overload
4a	Attaching labels and warning signs to the electrical switchboard	Electrical shock / fire	**E** Injury / death	5	4	20	Warning signs and labels indicating the hazard should be attached to electrical switchboards. Operating instructions for all devices should be prepared and hung.
4b	Attaching labels and warning signs to the electrical switchboard	Fire	**C** Damage / loss	4	4	16	Fire measures should be extended.
5a	Failure to take necessary fire-fighting measures	Fire	**E** Injury / death	5	5	25	1- printed instructions for a fire condition should be in place, fire trainings should be presented, fire-fighting equipment should undergo regular maintenance, warning signs showing emergency escape routes during a fire should be attached, and such routes should be kept clear (tables, chairs, cabinets, etc. should be removed).
5b	Failure to take necessary fire-fighting measures	Fire	**C** Damage / loss	5	5	25	Additional fire fighting measures should be taken in areas hosting the objects (exhibition, reading, storage areas).

Abbreviations:

Sections marked with (a):

Employees: **E**

Sections marked with (b):

Collections and library, archival material: **C**

Probability: **P**

Magnitude: **M**

Total Risk Score: **R**

On Risk Analysis forms; date of realization, validity date, location, person-department in charge of control measures against identified risks, and deadline for the correction of identified problems should be specified.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

Certainly, hundreds of hazards and resulting risks leading to loss may be defined for library, archive and museum buildings. In this study, 5 hazards only for workers and users, and 5 hazards for the materials and collections in the libraries and achieves were identified followed by risk analysis. Risk indexes (magnitude table of the risk analysis) are created not only for library, archive and museum staffs /users (Severity of the risk on workers and users **Table 4**) but also for museum collections and library and archival materials (Severity of the risk on museum collections and the library and archival materials **Table 5**). Risks should be categorized based on risk analysis results for all risks at library, archive and museum buildings by means of particular risk analysis methods including control forms as the simplest basic risk analysis method, the 5x5 matrix method, Fine-Kinney method and the Failure Mode and Effects Analysis (FMEA). In such studies, all workers should be trained, and a behavioural change, namely a risk culture should be created throughout the facility. Scored yielded by the risk analyses should be decreased and minimized through regular reviews (within defined period).

Risk assessment studies should be focused on matters below:

- People (board, staff, users, visitors, volunteers and patrons)
- Property (actual property, buildings, artefacts, library and archival materials and equipment)
- Income (revenue sources from a variety of sources)
- Community Perception (officials, relevant associations, other cultural organizations, and the
- general public)

The goal of a collections, library and archival materials risk assessment is to determine:

- What is the probability of the occurrence of a risk in building scale?
- What is the probability of the occurrence of a risk in areas (key areas) which exist collection, library and archival materials?
- What will be the resulting loss?
- What is the probability of the event happening?
- What is needed in order to overcome this situation?
- What are institutional sources (interior and exterior level)?

All individuals and institutions should be involved risk management (include risk analysis and risk assessment) studies and should be prepared to respond appropriately to assure safety of personnel and collections and library and archival materials. Risk analysis should be maintained as overall risks assessment in order to reduce

likely risks to those assets that are critical to the museum. With this analysis;

- Identification of all hazards
- Identification of all risk related with these hazards
- Prioritisation of all risks (overall risks)
- Mitigation
- To ensure the security with sources in library, archive and museum workplaces.

The present work is aimed to deal with overall risks which threat to library, archive and museum workplaces and to develop a risk assessment method for library, archive and museum workplaces responsibles and decision makers.

7. CONCLUSION:

According to study results each risk should be defined not only for collection and library, archival materials scale but also staff and users level. For a successful risk management in library, archive and museum workplaces;

- Occupational Health and Safety policy and objectives should be developed in library, archive and museum workplaces,
- OHS workplace unit should be created,
- Tools and activities such as written instructions and warning signs should be used to develop safe behaviours.
- Management should allocate resource and time for occupational health and safety, participate in the accountability of risk, and attend board meetings on safety,
- Employees and users should embrace, take an interest in and assume responsibility for practices on occupational health and safety,
- Physical, biologic, chemical, psychosocial and ergonomic risk factors in the workplace should be reduced to levels legally prescribed,
- Some promotional strategies should be established with a view to creating awareness on employees in protection against risks,
- Briefings on occupational safety, group meetings and training employees on occupational health, hygiene and job stress,
- Seminar programmes incorporating the Occupational Health and Safety week, emergency management, reporting and investigation of accidents, safety and environmental management systems should be held.

Such actions towards all risks in the building and its content should meticulously be implemented, risks should be eliminated in an descending order of significance and brought under control. It should be kept in mind that a successful risk management owes to a teamwork.

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KÜTÜPHANE, ARŞİV VE MÜZELERDE RİSK YÖNETİMİ

Özet: Tüm dünyada kütüphane, arşiv ve müzeler, çevresel koşullar ve insan kaynaklı potansiyel tehlikelere bağlı risklerle karşı karşıyadır. Bir acil durum / afet ise aniden meydana geldiğinden afet yönetiminin dört ilkesi olan hazırlıklı olma, zarar azaltma, müdahale ve iyileştirme aşamalarının mutlaka önceden proaktif yöntemlerle tanımlanması, planlanması ve önlemlerin alınması gerekmektedir. Başarılı bir Kütüphane, Arşiv (bilgi ve belge merkezleri) ve Müze Risk Yönetiminde tehlikelerin tanımlanarak bunlardan kaynaklanabilecek risklerin analizinden sonra önceliklendirilmesi önemlidir. Yine bu yönetim sistemine bağlı olarak Planlama, Uygulama, Kontrol etme ve Gözden Geçirme (PUKO) döngüleriyle sürekli iyileştirme amaçlanmalıdır. Acil durum / afetlerin meydana gelme sıklığı, büyüklüğü, süresi, kütüphane, arşiv, müze binasının büyüklüğü, koleksiyon, kütüphane ve arşiv malzemesi sayısı, çalışan sayısı, kullanıcı sayısı, binanın özelliği (yapı kalitesi, yapısal olmayan malzemelerin kalitesi, jeolojik açıdan zeminin durumu vb.), bina çevresindeki tehlikeli tesislerin özellikleri de dikkate alınarak risk analizleri yapılmalıdır. Tehlikelerden kaynaklanan her bir riskin kontrolü amacıyla ayrı ayrı stratejiler (kısa, orta ve uzun vadeli olarak risklerin kontrolünü amaçlayan) belirlenmelidir. Çalışmada, Kütüphane, Arşiv ve Müzelerde 6331 sayılı İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunu kapsamında risklerin analizi ve risklerin değerlendirilmesi konularının önemi vurgulanmış, 5x5 risk matrisi yöntemiyle uygulanan bir risk analizi önerisi sunulmuştur. Bu çalışmada 6331 Sayılı İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunundaki mevzuat kapsamında kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binalarındaki sağlık ve güvenlik riskleri değerlendirilmiş, mevcut risklerin kabul edilebilir düzeye indirilebilmesi için alınması gereken önlemler belirlenmiştir. Bu amaç için "5x5 Risk Değerlendirme Tablosu" yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Uygulamanın tüm kütüphane ve arşiv binaları için kullanılabilir olması ve bir örnek teşkil edebilmesi için belirli bir bina yerine herhangi bir kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binasında karşılaşılabilecek riskler değerlendirilmiştir. Risk değerlendirmesi çalışmasında hem çalışanlara hem de koleksiyon ve kütüphane, arşiv malzemesine zarar verebilecek riskler değerlendirilmiştir. Çalışanlar ve koleksiyonlar için ayrı ayrı 5'er adet olmak üzere toplam 10 adet risk faktörü belirlenmiştir. Şüphesiz ki kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binalarına yönelik yüzlerce tehlike ve bunlara bağlı kayıplarla sonuçlanabilecek riskler tanımlanabilir. Ancak çalışmada en çok karşılaşılan tehlikelerden sadece 5'i üzerinde odaklanılarak bir modelin geliştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. En basit risk analizi yöntemi olan kontrol formlarıyla, 5x5 matris, Fine-Kinney, Hata Türü Etki Analizi (FMEA) gibi risk analiz yöntemleriyle kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binalarındaki tüm risklere yönelik yapılacak risk analiz sonuçlarına göre risklerin kategorize edilmesi gerekir. Bu çalışmalarda tüm çalışanlar eğitilmeli, bina genelinde bir davranış değişikliğine gidilmesi yani bir risk kültürünün oluşturulması sağlanmalıdır. Risk analizleri sonucunda elde edilen skorlar sürekli gözden geçirmelerle (tanımlanan süre içinde) daha aşağı değerlere çekilerek riskleri minimize etme yoluna gidilmelidir. Ülkemizde yürürlükte olan 6331 sayılı İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunu ve ilgili yönetmeliklerden İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Risk Değerlendirmesi Yönetmeliği, İşyerlerinde Acil Durumlar Hakkında Yönetmelik, Binaların Yangından Korunması Hakkında Yönetmelik gibi mevzuat hükümleri doğrultusunda kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binalarında öncelikle çalışanlar olmak üzere bina ve eklentilerinde bulunan koleksiyonlar ile kütüphane / arşiv malzemesinin güvenliklerinin sağlanması ile mevcut tehlikelerin belirlenerek, bu tehlikelere bağlı oluşabilecek risklerin en aza indirilmesi ya da tamamen ortadan kaldırılması sağlanmalıdır. Çalışma ile 6331 sayılı İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunu uygulamalarının kütüphane, arşiv ve müze binalarında dikkate alınması vurgusu yapılarak, çalışanların çalışma koşullarının iyileştirilmesi ile müze

koleksiyonları ve kütüphane, arşiv malzemesinin korunmasında binalarda alınması gerekli İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği önlemlerine dikkat çekilmiştir.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Kültürel Miras Risk Yönetimi, Risk Analizi Metotları, Risk İzleme, Risk Yönetimi, Bilgi ve Belge Yönetimi

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THE EFFECT OF ETHNİC NATIONALISM IN THE CAUCASUS ON THE INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM AFTER THE COLD WAR

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Abstract: This study entitled as "the effect of ethnic nationalism in the Caucasus on the international system after the Cold War" tries to explain conflicts that took place in the Caucasus after the collapse of USSR. During this period, the Caucasus turned into a war zone and a number of long-lasting conflicts even which still continue today occurred between various ethnic groups,. The most important reason of these conflicts is that ethnic nationalism, as an ideology, substituted the communism of the USSR period. At the same time, the strategic location and natural resources of the Caucasus geography cause this competition over the region by using ethnic nationalism. The purpose of owning the Caspian resources and the policy of dominating over the Caucasus are also the reasons of these conflicts. In this sense, the conflicts faced by the society are the means of competition for domination. The USA and Russia are the biggest powers in the Caucasus and Russia can have a say in the region by manipulating these ethnic conflicts.

***Key Words*:** Caucasus, Ethnic Nationalism, Russia, USA

INTRODUCTION

The Caucasus is a geography in which it has always been possible to witness multilingualism, different religions, different nationalities and bloody conflicts between powers in the competition for hegemony. Although these conflicts have mainly ethnic origins, the ultimate aim of regional and global powers is to possess hegemony over the Caucasus. In the 21st century, economy of the Caucasus depends on its natural resources and hydrocarbon energy. It is a globally important area of interest and competition and therefore known as "New Big Game". Within this perspective, any international problem in the area should be regarded in a geopolitical frame. Oil and natural gas resources in the region as well as its geopolitical and geostrategic location are the reasons of many regional and international problems.

The population policy applied by the Tsardom of Russia and the USSR, practices and institutions left by Soviet regime and the fact that the ideological gap after the Soviets was filled with nationalism lie at the bottom of ethnic nationalism

and conflicts that have appeared in the region after the Cold War. However, it is actually personal interests of global powers who want to dominate the region that lie behind these conflicts. These conflicts have also changed the international system. After the Cold War, the system which had been monopolar became multipolar as a result of the ethnic conflicts and power struggles in the Caucasus.

In this study, we tried to explain the effects of ethnic nationalism in the Caucasus on the international systems. Within this scope, we first analysed the geography of the Caucasus and then continued with regional conflicts. The conflicts were explained in a classification such as "the North Caucasus" and "the South Caucasus" and finally the politics and approaches of Russia and the USA were discussed by looking at the international system dimension of nationalist movements in the Caucasus.

THE CAUCASUS REGION

The word "Caucasus" derived from the Persian word "kafkah" meaning "the mount of Kaf". The Greek usage of the word "Caucasus" to describe the region is "Kaukasos" which is originally Latin. This term derived from the Persian word "Kraukasis" meaning "sparkling with its ice-covered surface". The Turkish word "Kafkas" and Russian "Kavlaz" also derive from the same root (Çelikpala, 2006:39).

The Caucasus is situated between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. In the north, there are Don and Kuma regions known also as the "Caucasian front" where the Caucasus Mountains end. In the south, there are the Aras River valley and the Kars plateau. Arab travellers call the Caucasus as "Cebel-i Elsine" that means "Mount of Language". The region is divided into two parts by the Caucasus Mountains: south and north (Yalçınkaya, 2006:9). The Kuan valley, the Stavropol plateau and the Terek valley are on the north of the mountains. This part is under the Russian authority and is called as "North Caucasus" or "Caucasian front". On the south of the mountains, there are Small Caucasus Ridge, Rioni and Kura valleys. Armenia, Georgia and Azerbaijan are also in this part of the mountains. It is called as "South Caucasus" or "Transcaucasia". Politically, whole of the Caucasus are regarded in the continental Europe (Yıldırım, 2007: 7).

Throughout the history, power struggles have always existed in the Caucasus and various communities have invaded the region. As a result of the Caspian attacks, Arabs had to withdraw from the Caucasus where they first came in 625. While the Caspian Empire reigned in 7th century, the Caucasus was under the reign of Abkhazian Kingdom in the 8th century. Starting from the 10th century, Kipchaks in the north and Oghuz Turkmen tribes in the south started to appear. In the 13th century, the Caucasus was invaded by Mongolians and later on Timur ruled over the region. Finally in the 16th century, the Caucasus was tied to the Ottoman Empire. Because of the wars between Persian, Ottoman and Russian Empires, the owner of the Caucasus changed in the following years and in the 19th century the region was invaded by Russians. Sheik Shamil became the symbol of resistance against Russian invasion. There were many atrocities of Russian Empire in the Caucasus and many people immigrated to Anatolia to escape from this situation.

After the Cold War, the USSR fell apart and the South Caucasus gained its freedom. However, the North Caucasus still remains in Russian borders (Yıldırım,2007: 7).

The autonomous regions in the North Caucasus are the Republic of Adygea, the Republic of Karachay-Cherkessia, the Republic of Kabardino-Balkaria, the Republic of North Ossetia, the Chechen Republic, the Republic of Ingush and the Daghistan Republic. The independent states in the South Caucasus are Azerbaijan, Georgia and Armenia. The autonomous regions of the south are the South Ossetia, Abkhazia, the Republic of Adjara, the Javakheti region, Nakhchivan and Nagorno- Karabakh (Yıldırım,2007:8-9).

The Caucasus is one of the richest regions in the world in terms of ethnicity, religion and language. Over one hundred languages and dialects are spoken in the Caucasus where more than fifty ethnicities live together. The native inhabitants of the North Caucasus are Vaynahs (Chechen, Ingush), some of Daghistan communities (Avar, Lezg, Dargin,Lak), Abkhazians and Circassians (Kabardin, Adygea, Circassian). Apart from them, there are many Turkish groups accepted as native in the area. They are Karachay, Balkar Turks, Kumyks and Noghai. Ossets and Tats who are known as Persians also live in the region (Çelikpala, 2006, 41). There are also many Slavic people (Russian and Ukrainian) in the area. On the other hand, in the South Caucasus there are Georgians (Svan, Megrel, Laz and Bat), Ajarias, Azerbaijani Turks, Armenians, Taleshis, Kurds, Jews, Ossets, Tats, Abkhazians, Avars, Lezgians, Ingushs and Assyrians (Yıldırım, 2007:17-19).

The languages spoken in the Caucasus are divided into three groups: Caucasian languages, Indo-European languages and languages that belong to Turkish language group. The Caucasian language group forms 35%, Ural-Altaic language group which include Turkish speakers forms 35% and the people who speak Indo-European languages form 28%. (Yalçınkaya, 2006: 12). The Caucasian languages are Adyghe, Kabardin, Abkhazian, Abkhasian, Ubih language, Georgian, Laz language, Chechen, Ingush, Avar language, Lezgian language and others. The Ural-Altaic languages are Azerbaijani, Karachai language, Balkarian, Kumyks language, Noghai language and others. Finally, the Indo-European languages are Armenian, Russian, Ukrainian, Ossetic language, Tati language, Taleshi language and other.

In terms of faith, there is a variety of religions in the Caucasus. But the most common religion is Islam followed by Orthodox Christianity. Islam started to expand in the Caucasus after the 8th century. Today, the 80% of the Azerbaijani population together with communities living in Azerbaijan such as Dargin and Lezgi, Tat and Taleshi are Shiite. Other Caucasus communities (Avar, Dargin, Kumyks, Laks, Tabasarans, Rutuls, Aguls, Kaytaks and other Daghistan people) are Shafii and Hanafi (Noghai, Kabardin, Chechen, Ingush, Karachai, Abazin, Muslim Abkhazians, Adygea, Balkar Turks, Circassians, Ajarias and Muslim Ossets) which are both Sunni branches of Islam (Çelikpala, 2006: 42). Russians, Armenians, Georgians, Ossets and Abkhazians are Christian communities.

It is known that 55.9% of the residents is Muslim, 43.6% is Christian and 0.4% is Jewish. As the

most dominant community, the Turkish people comprise 36.6% of language group, 65.5% of religion group and 56.6% of the geography. It is also important to mention that these people have become Turkish because of their Muslim affiliations, they have relations with Turkish people and have strong pressure group in Turkey(Yalçınkaya, 2006: 13).

As for the geopolitical and geostrategic importance of the Caucasus, the region is situated in the middle of Europe-Asia-Africa connections. It also lies at the eastern part of a water corridor created by the Mediterranean, Aegean Sea and the Bosporus on the one hand; the Marmara, Black Sea and the Sea of Azov on the other. It also has connections with the Caspian Sea in the east. Shortly, the Caucasus is a region which is situated in the connections of roads coming from north-south and east-west (Yıldırım, 2007, 27).

The Caucasus region is like an entrance gate of the Middle East. It is also like a passage leading to Western markets for the Middle East. Because of its rich oil and natural gas sources, various big powers are competing with each other in the region (Kantarcı, 2006(a): 59-60). On the other hand, the Caucasian mountains are very rich in terms of its mineral deposit reserves such as coal, iron, lead, zinc, copper, molybdenum and manganese(Yıldız, 2006: 25).

Lying between the Middle East and the West, it is possible to say that the Caucasus is the most important place in the world in terms of its geopolitical and geostrategic location as well as its rich ground and underground resources. Moreover, it has become an important competition area due to the energy transmission lines which have been completed recently.

ETHNIC CONFLICTS IN THE CAUCASUS AFTER THE COLD WAR

An ethnic conflict within the borders of a country is regarded as a large-scale opposition of one or more ethnic groups against other groups or against central administration in which other groups are in dominant position. Here, the term "ethnic group" refers to the societies which involve people organizing and coming together for their common descent, common historical background or common language and culture. Although the blood relation is an important element for ethnic consciousness and identity, it is not mandatory. Ethnic identity is about emotions and psychological relations. And this relation can be defined as subjective when the people are regarded(Yılmaz, 2006: 18).

The Caucasus has suffered from a geopolitical trauma after the collapse of the USSR which was one of the two biggest powers in the world. The area has turned into a war zone. As a result, a geopolitical gap occurred in the Caucasus region and many global and regional actors started to compete with each other for the purpose of filling this gap. As Brezezinski says, the Caucasus is "the Balkans of Eurasia" (Brezezinski, 1998: 112-113).

This ethnic diversity has resulted in an important cultural and social variety but this situation has also paved the way for the intervention of powers coming from outside of the Caucasus. The Caucasian societies were compelled to immigrate and minorities were placed among them. They

wanted these minorities to govern the majority and this kind of situations raised the level of hostility in the region. The population of ethnic groups, their distribution and importance have changed in years but the only element that has remained the same is the ethnic richness (Demir, 2003: 70).

With the intervention of Stalin, the demographic structure which had rather been sensitive became much more complicated. It also constituted the base of today's conflicts. In accordance with Stalin's settlement policy, the people living in the North and South Caucasus were never allowed to settle in their own regions and the unity was fragmentized by sending some of the people to different locations in Soviet Russia and placing others in their regions. Conflicts and frictions occurred between new and old owners of these lands due to the problems stemming from these policies (Kantarcı, 2006(a): 35).

Another reason of ethnic conflicts faced in the Caucasus is the USSR heritage in institution, idea, faith and opinion system. Especially the countries that won their independence in the South Caucasus have passed through a very difficult period. It was for the first time in history to adopt democracy and market economy by leaving the totalitarian regime and socialist economy. The notions of state, nation, identity, ideology, politics and economy had to be rebuilt in these countries (Elma, 2009: 198-199). There have been many problems in this rebuilding process and ethnic nationalism has increased.

Ethnic Conflicts in the North Caucasus

After the collapse of the USSR, people have faced a number of conflicts stemming from ethnic nationalism in the North Caucasus which is situated within the borders of Russia today. These conflicts can be divided as Russian-Chechen war, Osset-Ingush conflict in the North Ossetia and others (conflicts between Karachai-Circassian and in Daghistan). Especially the Russian-Chechen war attained the interest of international community and witnessed the power struggles.

Russian-Chechen War

The tension between Russians and Chechens started in 27 October 1991 when Chechens declared their independence from Russia and the foundation of independent Chechen Republic after the President of the Executive Board of All-National Congress of the Chechen People Dzhokhar Dudayev was elected as the President. At the end of 1993, Russia finalized its policy against Chechnya that was threatening its own existence and interests in the Caucasus. Russia who had been supporting both economic embargo and opponents till that time started to use more rigid policies (Tavkul, 2002: 93-94).

On 26 November 1994, 50 Russian tanks cooperating with Chechen opponents attacked Grozni and the First Chechen- Russian war began. Dzhokhar Dudayev successfully defended the country and destroyed half of the Russian tanks. The fact that the unity of opponents was destroyed and 26 Russian soldiers were captured shocked everybody in Russia. In return, Russia bombed Chechnya with aircrafts and rockets. Dzhokhar Dudayev died in one of these attacks and peace settlement was signed between Chechens and Russians on 30 August 1996 (Tavkul, 2002: 96-102).

After Dudayev, another election for presidency was held and Aslan Mashadov won the election. With this new president, Chechnya started to fall into a civil war. Mashadov had to face Shamil Basayev as the guerrilla leader. At the same time Movladi Udugov who supported the Islamist view and Dudayev's assistant Zelimkhan Yandarbiyev started to fight for power. As a result, the silence of Chechnya was destroyed. Basayev accused Mashadov of being pro-Russian. Udugov supported Wahabis contrary to Mashadov who was worried about the rise of Wahabism in Chechnya and the problems between wahabis and other Muslim Chechens. Finally various different powers occurred in Chechnya (Tavkul, 2002: 103-107). After a Russian general was kidnapped and a building in which Russian officers were living was bombed by Chechens, the Second Chechen-Russian war began. It was much more violent than the first one. Because the Russians took lessons from the first war, they commenced the war with the support of special units and air forces.

On 23 September 1999, the war officially began with the bombing of the capital of Chechnya, Grozni. Starting from the first day, civil Chechens began to leave their country. More than 60 thousand of Chechens gathered on Chechen-Ingush border. Aslan Mashadov was both inviting the International Peace Keeping Forces to the region and seeking for ways of negotiation. Although Russia wanted Basayev and guerrilla Hattab to be turned over, Mashadov resisted. On 30 September 1999, Russian troops started to invade Chechnya overland. On the 12th of November, after they invaded the second biggest city of Chechnya, Gudermes, Russians captured Grozni. The number of refugees escaping from Chechnya reached 200 thousand. Russians adopted very rigid policies in this war. At the same time, the fact that Russians manipulated some pro-Russian Chechens and put the blame on them showed that it was actually Russians who wanted the outbreak of the war and became the winner. On 31 December 1999 the President of Russia Boris Yeltsin surprisingly decided to leave his post to Vladimir Putin. Presidential elections were held three months later and Putin won the election. After that the Russian Federation started to adopt more rigid policies. (Tavkul, 2002: 113-121).

The reason why the Chechens challenged Russia to such an extent and waged an independence war is the religious emphasis of Chechen nationalism. The power of radical Islam has increased after the Cold War particularly in the North Caucasus. Moreover, the role of Islam and especially the Naqshbandi Tariqa led by Sheik Shamil during the liberation movements in the past was really important. The Qadiri Tariqa and Wahabism with foreign support were very common in Chechnya. Iran, on the other hand, supported and helped Chechnya for the purpose of increasing its power in the Caucasus. However, changes in the international system and the cooperation between Moscow-Yerevan-Tehran in the following years caused this help to cease. Especially the nuclear facilities developed by Iran and the changes in the international system obliged Iran to be on Russia's side (Malek, 2008: 34).

The aim of the Chechen opposition in the North Caucasus originated in Saudi Arabia and supported by Wahabis is not only to establish a state ruled according to the sharia, but also to decrease the power of Russian Federation in the region and

to solve the problems of sharing oil and natural gas reserves. It is well known that if the conflicts continue, the transmission of oil through the Baku- Novorossiysk pipeline will halt, the oil price will go up and the oil producing Arab countries, Saudi Arabia in particular, will get the best of the situation (Kantarcı, 2006(b): 66).

The 9/11 attacks just after Putin came to power enabled Russia to solve the Chechen problem. During an interview in 2002, Putin told that the Chechens in the North Caucasus desired to establish the Caliphate and Russia was facing the "Islamic Terrorism" referring to the conjuncture(Malek, 2008: 33). This discourse and the outlook of international system on "Islamic Terrorism" paved the way for Russia and the balances changed in the Chechen war in 2000s in favour of Russia.

The tension de-escalated to some extent after Aslan Mashadov was assassinated, Shamil Basayev died as a result of Russian attacks and Abdulhalim Sadulaev was killed in 2006, and therefore Russia brought Ramazan Kadirov to the power of Chechnya. Yet, Chechnya is still the most problematic part of the North Caucasus (Tavkul, 2002: 85-91).

The North Ossetia Problem and Ossetian-Ingushetian Ethnic Conflict

North Ossetia is one of the Caucasus Republics which is situated on the North Caucasus' door opening to South Ossetia and has an important strategic location. The most important problem in North Ossetia resulting from ethnic nationalisms is Ossetian- Ingushetian conflict. The main reason of this conflict seems to be historical but it happened after the dissolution of the USSR as a result of Russian policies.

Ingushetians used to live on the right side (of the right side of Terek River which is called Prigorodni Rayon) Vladikavkaz, which is the current capital city of North Ossetia. However they were accused of collaborating with Nazis in the Second World War and exiled to Central Asia together with Chechenians and Karachays. Ingushetians have tried to take Prigorodni region since 1957 which is the date they came back. Ossetians have aimed to give the region to the immigrants having come from South Ossetia and thus turn the region into Ossetian region. The first conflict between Ingushetians and Ossetians emerged in 1981. However the bloodiest battles happened after the end of Cold War. Ingushetians demanded from others to give the region to them. In the conflicts between Ossetians and Ingushetians in the autumn of 1992, 2,000 people died and 76,000 people escaped from Ossetia. While around three thousand Russian soldiers combatted on the Ossetian side in the Ingushe-Ossetian battle, Muslims took side with Ingushetians. Although the severity of the battles passed off, they lasted until 1997. The Government of Russia gathered the presidents of the sides together in order to stop the battles but the ongoing nationalistic attitude of the both sides hindered an agreement. At the present time the problem seems to have subsided. The most important factor in that situation is Russia. Ossetians did not make war with Russia, opened their territories in Chechen War and always adopted pro-Russian policies. All these factors had an effect on Russians taking side with Ossetians.

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The Ethnic Conflicts in South Caucasus

The peace environment which was established gradually in the South Caucasus on the period of the USSR gave its place to violent political, ethnic and military conflicts. The Soviet Regimes, trying to keep ethnic groups under the roof of empire used communist power and economic and political tools belonging to the Russian Empire. According to the Soviet Republics, the policy was implemented successfully in order to exercise supervisory control onto the peoples. However with the sudden collapse of Soviets, this policy caused ethnic conflicts which were really difficult to solve in Eurasia geography(Yılmaz, 2010: 23).

After the dissolution of the USSR; Georgians, Armenians and Azeri Turks gained their independence but a good number of ethnic groups continued to live under Russian authority. However they caused ethnic conflicts since they were attracted by nationalist revival of the era. In contrast to the ethnic conflicts in the North Caucasus, the ethnic conflicts in the South Caucasus have not been solved yet.

Another important factor in the emergence of ethnic conflicts in South Ossetia results from its location. The South Caucasus is located between Caspian Sea and Black Sea, surrounded by Iran, Turkey and Russia and located over Caspian resources and has routes transporting them to the Western markets. Its security should be provided in accordance with the economic interests of West. On this point EU, NATO and the USA work for stability in the region (German,2008: 64), but the actors of international system and debate over the region do not make it possible.

The Georgia-Ossetia and Georgia- Abkhaz conflicts in the borders of Georgia and the Nagorno–Karabakh problem which is a result of Armenian occupation of Azerbaijani territory are the conflicts that maintain their importance and still continue.

Problem of Abkhazia and the South Ossetia

Georgia is the most problematic country in terms of ethnic conflicts in the South Caucasus. The country was at a certain level of welfare during the USSR period. But after 1991, it lost economic privileges of being in a political unity. Georgia does not have resources such as oil and natural gas that may attract foreign investment and bring economic income to the country. That is why the political reflections of the economic problems in the country were much more intense than the other countries. In such an environment, the first conflicts between Georgians, South Ossetians and Abkhazians occurred at the end of 1990 in the post-Soviet period. The economic problems and social and political turmoil in Georgia after 1991 were also felt in other regions of the country which are geographically farther and ethnically mixed. In the region where ethnic problems occurred, the existence of economic problems and the belief that the policies of the central administration in Tbilisi were not enough caused these nationalist and separatist sentiments to increase in 1990s. The expectations that the solutions would come from local politicians, who were always claiming the best, worsened the situation (Öztürk, 2009: 6).

On the other hand, the Georgian identity and the structuring of nation-state after the independency in Georgia also caused dissatisfaction among other ethnic groups. On 26 May 1991, elections

were held in Georgia, in which Abkhazians and Ossetians did not participate, Gamsahurdiya was elected as President. He started to adopt policies based on Georgian nationalism and followed the idea of "Georgia for Georgians". In order to protect the rights of Georgians, his aim was to affect the policies in Abkhazia and in South Ossetia where Georgians were also living. These policies were based on converting people into Georgian and Christian identity, therefore they were strongly rejected by the authorities of Abkhazia and the South Ossetia (Kalkan, 2010: 94).

Finally, it was Russia that caused the conflicts to occur and the ethnic nationalism to become so powerful in Georgia. Georgia is a Caucasian country with whom Russia has had the tensest relations. According to Eduard Shevardnadze, the President of Georgia in 2000, the reasons of this problematic relation between two countries are Moscow's support for the separatist regions and its double standard policies in terms of the territorial integrity of old Soviet Republics (Kamalaov, 2008: 103).

In order to understand the problems of the South Ossetia and Abkhazia, it is necessary to look at the occurrence and the historical development of these problems. Not only the Georgian-Ossetian relations but also the Georgian-Abkhazian relations and some other issues in Georgia after the Cold War caused some ethnic conflicts among these communities.

The Georgian-Abkhazian war which started at the end of the Cold War and became violent a few years ago may actually be seen as national independence movements of both countries. Georgia started this war to escape from the constant Russian threat although it has won its independence and to secure its borders. On the other hand, Abkhazians started this war to obtain their independence like all other South Caucasus communities. In short, the behaviours of both groups are parallel to each other (Petersen, 2008: 198).

Abkhazians are one of the native communities of the Caucasus who has the tradition of a deep-rooted state going back to the 12th century. Abkhazians are Sunni Muslims and they speak Abkhazian which is one of the Caucasian languages. Abkhazian Autonomous Republic is situated within the borders of Georgia and it is geographically a part of the North Caucasus. The main reason that lies behind the conflicts with Abkhazia is their desire to be an independent state (Kantarcı, 2006(b): 53).

Abkhazia was exposed to various assimilation policies both in the Tsardom and the USSR period. They were regarded as minorities in their own country. As well as their attempts to be an independent republic in 1970s, their desire for independence strengthened in the Gorbachev administration. On 23 July 1988, they consulted to the USSR and demanded to be given the status of "Soviet Republic". After the collapse of the USSR, the Abkhazian Parliament declared independence in the session on 23 July 1992. In reply, the Georgian army entered the capital of Abkhazia, Sukhumi, in the same year and started the armed battle. After these conflicts, the North Caucasian Autonomous Republics demanded Russia to interfere in favour of Abkhazians. Although the ceasefire agreement was signed on 20 May 1993, the conflicts reoccurred in July 1993 and

the Abkhazians crossed the natural borders and occupied a part of Georgia. As a result of these battles, a great deal of Georgians (250 thousand people), who were the majority in terms of population, had to escape from Abkhazia and people who have Abkhazian origins were settled in their place (Kantarcı, 2006(b): 54).

Manipulating the ethnic conflicts in the Caucasus on behalf of itself and turning them into pressure agent, Russia benefitted from this conflict. In Georgia, defeated by Abkhazia, rebellions took place in 1933, the country come within an ace of dismemberment. Gamsakhurdia quitted and he was succeeded by Eduard Ševardnadze who Russia favored more and the Georgia government, doing its best not to accede to Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), acceded to it even if reluctantly. Beside its CIS membership, Georgia also signed the agreement which provided that the Russian military bases could stay there for another 25 years (Kamalov, 2008: 104).

The Abkhazia problem also continued after this process. While Abkhazians demanded total independence, Georgians resisted on the grounds that the unitary structure would be destroyed. Another problem is the Georgian immigrants. Abkhazians does not want the Georgians immigrants to come back on the grounds that Abkhazians will fall into status of minority. According to the UNICORD estimates; the population of Abkhazia is 230,000; 90,000 of which is Abkhazian and the remaining 40,000 is Georgian and the remaining part is Russian, Armenian and Greek. Abkhazians took side with Russians and Georgians in the 2008 Russian – Ossetia and Georgia war. The Government of the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia already behaves as a de facto free state and Georgia- Abkhazia conflict remains (Kantarcı, 2006(b): 55-56).

Ossetian people are an ethnic group who live in the Caucasus, speak the Ossetic- a member of Persian of Indo-European languages- and add up to 700.000. Located within the borders of Georgia, South Ossetia has an area of 3900 square kilometers and the number of Ossetians living here, adds up to only five per cent of the total number of Ossetians in the Caucasus. South Ossetia is located on the shoulders of the Caucasus Mountains and its east, west and south is surrounded by Georgia. Its north border is connected to Russia by a tunnel and naturally this is connected by North Ossetia (Öztürk, 2009: 4-5).

Before the collapse of the USSR, the South Ossetian Popular Front announced the South Ossetia as a separate and sovereign republic, Democratic Republic of South Ossetia, within the USSR in 20th September of 1990. In the same year, boycotting the elections in Georgia, Ossetians carried out their independent elections. However, nationalist Gamsakhurdia administration terminated the autonomous status of the South Ossetia by discrediting the elections in Ossetia. The 1991 year passed with the conflicts between two parties. The 1992 year also passed generally with close combats and towards to the end of the year after the appropriate parties accepted the truce, a peace force made up of Russians, Georgians and Ossetians, was placed in the area under the custody of Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (Öztürk, 2009: 7).

At the first stage the South Ossetians demanded independence from the Georgian administration.

Later uniting with North Ossetia, they demanded to establish the Great Ossetia Republic and enable it to connect to Russia. Russia got more involved in the area thanks to the extreme western- oriented and nationalistic policies of Saakashvili governance that came into power by the 2003 Rose Revolution. This situation has led to conflicts since 2004 in the area where the silence had prevailed since 1992 and later to the outbreak of Russia- Georgia war.

The Russian Assembly Duma took a decision firstly in July of 2004 and later in August of 2005 to support the liberation movements in the South Ossetia and Abkhazia. With this policy, Russia tried to expand its efficiency and increase the radius of action in Caucasus. Two factors caused this decision to be taken. First of them is extreme western- oriented policies of Saakashvili administration and its clearer and harsher attitude towards Russian benefits. Second of them was that Russia could give an answer to the developments in the Balkans and Eastern Europe which it could not dominate any more over Caucasus. Especially the independence of Kosovo and its support from Europe and the USA caused Russia to take precautions (Öztürk, 2009: 8).

At the end of the war which began in 7th August of 2008 with the Georgian troops' attacks to South Ossetia and involvement of Russia due to the attacks to Russian Peace Force soldiers, Georgia was completely defeated. Previously the Ossetians' attack to a helicopter carrying the Georgian Defense Minister in 3th September of 2006 and the Russian jet planes' launch to a Georgian village were the indications of the beginning of the war. The tension caused by those events led Georgia to attack to South Ossetia. However, the Russia side stated that it got involved into the Georgia attack in order to protect the Russian citizens in the area and the attack that targeted the Russian Peace Force soldiers did also cause them to take part in the war. In addition to South Ossetia and Russia, Abkhazians took place in the battles between the dates of 7th and 16th August of 2008. As a result of Russia's bombardment in the important cities of Georgia with its land, naval and air forces, the Georgian troops moved aside from Abkhazia and South Ossetia. Russia also occupied certain parts of Georgia territories. Later although Russia disengaged its soldiers from Georgia within the frame of the Sarkozy Plan, its military existence remains in South Ossetia and Abkhazia which it accepted as separate independent states in 26th August of 2008 (Öztürk, 2009: 8-9). The balances in the region changed due to the South Ossetia and Abkhazia wars. The balance that will be the result of those wars will be shaped by the identities and interests of the agents and thus it will be understood whether the future of the South Caucasus is pregnant with wars or not (Ditrych, 2008: 123).

The Nagorno-Karabakh Problem

Like other ethnic conflicts in the Caucasus, the Nagorno-Karabakh Problem resulted from historical reasons. Exchange of population and power still exists as has often happened. In the year of 1823 when Russians were not in the Caucasus, the 92 per cent of Karabakh population was Azeri Turks whereas 9 per cent of it was Armenian. When Russia achieved dominance in the Caucasus, 65 percent of Karabakh population was made up of Azeri Turks and 35 percent of it was Armenian

in 1832. Russians started to make the region populated with more Armenian people with the aim of constructing of a buffer zone which was made up of Christians in their south. In 1871 population rates were like this: 24 per cent Armenians, 76 percent Azeris. In 1897 population rates were like this: 39.5 per cent Armenians, 59.5 percent Azeris. In 1897 the population rates were like this: 70 per cent Armenians, 30 per cent Azeris. In 1979 the rate of Armenian population was 75, 9 per cent and the rate of Azeri population was 23 per cent and before the collapse of the USSR in 1989 the rate of Armenian population was 76.9 per cent, the rate of Azeri population was 21.5 per cent (Baguirov,2008: 13-14). As it is clear from the numbers, Russians' making Karabakh a region which was populated much more with Armenian people caused ethno-nationalism to increase in the region.

The underlying reason of the Karabakh problem is Russians' attempts to make the region much more populated by Armenians and the wish of Azerbaijan to protect its territorial integrity against the wish of Armenians who were majority. Especially Armenian occupation of the region within the frame of the idea of "Great Armenia" and slaughtering Azeri Turks in Karabakh made the situation worse.

In 1987 a petition demanding Nakhchivan's connection to Socialist Armenia and which was signed by 75.000 people, a group of Armenian activists, was presented to Soviets. The conflicts began in February of 1988 when Karabakh Region's Council demanded from Azerbaijan and Armenian Supreme Council that Karabakh region should be handed over to Armenia. The Soviet Union Supreme Council declined the change of borders and decided to found a special administration in Karabakh. With this decision it was officially registered that Karabakh would stay within the borders of Azerbaijan. With the proclamation of the Karabakh Republic, Karabakh local government declared that it seceded from Azerbaijan. Under these circumstances Azerbaijani government abolished the autonomous status of Karabakh in 1991. In the face of such a situation Armenian people revolted and the Azerbaijani army went into Karabakh. In return, Armenia attacked Azeris in Armenia and thousands of Azeris left the country. In reaction to this situation, Azeri nationalists attacked Armenians in Sumgait. Because of the violence among ethnic groups there were considerable numbers of mutual moves between the years of 1989 and 1991. Later, Armenian troops (more precisely, reinforced with Russian troops) occupied Karabakh region. By occupying certain parts of Azerbaijan territories in order to use as a trump card later, they even put out of the sight the possible border that might appear between Azerbaijan and Turkey. Being supported by Russian and Armenian diasporas in other countries indicate the determination of Armenian nationalism in the occupation of Karabakh (Gürses, 1996: 158-160).

Khojaly Genocide following the Karabakh occupation appalled the political situation in Azerbaijan. More than 1000 Azeris were slaughtered in Khojaly in March of 1992. Khojaly incident resulted in a government reshuffle in Azerbaijan; Ayaz Mutallibov resigned and fled to Moscow. Azerbaijan Popular Front leader Abulfaz Elchibey came into power and his first job was to take Azerbaijan from CIS (Gürbüz, 2008: 120).

Turkey did not remain unresponsive to the occupation of Azerbaijan territories and to killing of its cognates. All the diplomatic relations with Armenia were stopped and the Armenian border was closed. This situation is even an important problem of Turkey-UN relations and also Turkey-USA relations. However, since the beginning of the problem, all Turkish governments have stated that the occupation should be removed in order to open Armenian border. In addition to Turkey, this problem has been subject of discussion in international community. To resolve this problem a 11-membered Minsk Group was formed by the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe. However, both Russia's and the USA's support of Armenian policies makes the solution of the problem difficult.

Since there were no concrete steps in solution in the 2000s, in the Heydar Aliyev military ceremony, Azerbaijan Defense Minister Safar Abiyev's statement as "Azerbaijani army is ready to save the territories under occupation" proved that the tension was still high in the region

With its decision on 14th May of 2008, the UN General Assembly stressed the hegemony and territorial integrity of Azerbaijan. Within the decision accepted by 39 affirmative votes against 7 dissentive votes, certain issues such as the support of Azerbaijan's territorial integrity, sending away the Armenians unconditionally from Azerbaijan's territories they occupied, the returns of Azerbaijani people who were in the status of refugees to their country were included

While Western countries' and foundations' attempts on the Nagorno-Karabakh problem remained, with the effort of Russia wishing to maintain its efficiency in the region, Azerbaijan and Armenia signed the Moscow Declaration. In this declaration certain issues such as parties' measuring up Madrid Criteria and establishing peace as soon as possible were debated (Kalkan, 2010: 84-85). However, in the current situation peace has not been reached and especially the Armenian side's harassments have continued. Nagorno-Karabakh, where the great majority of population was Muslim Azeri Turks until 20th century, faces Armenian separatism and irredentism (Baguirov, 2008: 23-24). The resolution of this problem seems very challenging.

THE INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM DIMENSION OF THE ETHNIC CONFLICTS IN CAUCASUS

Following the end of the Cold War after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the dissolution of the Eastern Bloc and the USSR in 1991, the international system entered in the process of reorganization which still continues today. In this process during which the bipolar international system disappeared, sources of instability appeared. On the one hand as the economic cliff between the rich and poor countries has grown wider, the East-West antagonism has given its place to North-South antagonism(Sander, 2002(a): 585). On the other hand regional conflicts have caused tensions in various regions. The Caucasus is on the top of the list of such conflicts. In fact the regional conflicts having resulted from filling the ideological vacuum that occurred in the dissolution process of the USSR with the aggressive nationalism reveals the hegemony race over Nagorno- Karabakh, Abkhazia, South Ossetia, Chechnya and Caucasus(Sander, 2001(b): 608)

Regarding to hegemony effort in Eurasia from the end of the World War II until today, in two different periods such as the period of the Cold War years and the period following the Cold War, the USSR (Russia) and the USA should be mentioned as important powers that are rivals at global levels and conflicting powers. After the Cold War period, the rivalry and hegemony fight between the two powers has taken place in both political and military initiatives depending on economic, political and military properties(Öztürk,2009:12). At this juncture, the Caucasus politics of these two countries (Russia and the USA) and their views of the ethnic conflicts in the Caucasus will be examined.

USA and Caucasus

After the collapse of the USSR and the Eastern Bloc, the USA took an action to fill the gaps that appeared in Eastern Europe, the Balkans, Middle East, the Caucasus (South Caucasus) and Central Asia. Within this scope, especially Middle East and Caspian Basin which owned the great majority of the world's oil had importance for USA(Canar, 2006: 44-45).

Wolfowitz, indicated the importance of the region from the point of the International System by saying "as long as its natural resources are controlled, the hegemony of any enemy capable of producing a global power should have been blocked". Therefore, Kalpgah (the heart of Eurasia) surrounded by the regional forces - Iran, Turkey and Russia - is quite important for the USA to maintain its hegemony over the world from the point of not only transporting the energy resources in Casper Region to international markets but also the strategic location due to the its closeness to the Central Asia and Middle East. Not desiring any global or regional rivals after the Cold War, the USA is against the hegemony of Russia and Iran in the Caucasus.

The Caucasus was initially not focus of interest because it was an unknown geography and there were violent conflicts. However, after its strategic importance was noticed, the interest of the USA increased. After the Gulf War in 1990, President of the USA George Bush stated that in the Caucasus, they would support the developments of "democracy, free market economy and human rights" concepts which are the corner stones of the "new world order". The USA much more activated its Caucasus policy at the time when Russia was defeated in the Chechen War. Considering that Russia could not protect its own territories, the USA marked its Caucasus policy after 1996 and declared the region "zone of vital interest".

The USA desired that especially South Caucasus states would accept democracy and free market policy. The most important tool used by the USA for the purpose of achieving its goals in the region was assistance programs. By giving economic support to Caucasus States which become independent with the "Freedom Support Act", the USA also provided certain foundations (such as the World Bank, USAID Credit Guarantees, USDA sale donations) to support the region. The assistance programs of the USA in the region can be listed under the titles of democracy, economic reform, security, law reform and humanitarian aid. In addition to this, the democracy policy of the USA which considers enhancing the efficiency in the region with certain foundations and organiza-

tions is mainly enabling the pro-USA people to come into power. For example, Saakashvili who came into power in 2003 with support of Soros foundations and thanks to the Velvet Revolution (Rose Revolution) is noticeable for his pro-USA policies(Canar, 2006: 47-51).

Another side of the foreign strategy of the USA for this region is to establish cultural hegemony in the region. The cultural hegemony has been established on three stands. First of them is language. The use of English is aimed to be extended. Second of them is that USA supports "moderate Islam" in the region. What is meant by moderate Islam is that being moderate in the moderation of the positioning in the international power centers. Third of them is democratization(Kantarcı, 2006(b): 86). Establishing cultural hegemony enables the USA much more to step into the region and thus to constitute policies in the region.

By declaring the region "zone of vital interest" on the matters of the Nagorno Karabakh problem and territorial integrity of Georgia, the USA took an active role in the solution of these problems. Former Adviser of the Foreign Affairs Minister of the USA Strobe Talbott expressed that he did not want instability and conflict in the South Caucasus and Central Asia which were sitting over the 200 billion barrel oil. Therefore, the regional conflicts threatening the reach of Western companies to oil and gas reserves which were vital had to be solved in accordance with the interests of the West. Meanwhile the USA desires to put an end to Russian strength in the region by solving these conflicts which enable its activity in the South Caucasus to remain. For this reason, as Talbott stated "the primary duty of the USA" is to put an end to the conflicts in the region(Canar, 2006: 56-57).

There is no doubt that the most important matter of the USA's Caucasus policies is the pipelines which transporting the Caspian energy resources to the Western markets. Currently there are two routes: Baku–Novorossiysk and Baku–Tbilisi–Ceyhan (BTC). The underlying reason of the pipeline struggle in which the other states in the region besides RF and Turkey, actors outside the region, national and multinational companies took place is to establish economic and strategic efficiency in the region. Therefore, the main point for the states is not to transport these resources to the Western markets by the nearest road but to transfer through the most appropriate states. The aim of the USA is to put an end to Russian efficiency in the region. Therefore, it supports the BTC pipeline. The fact that Azerbaijan does not want Armenia and that the USA does not want Iran has increased the importance of Turkey and Georgia in the region. For this reason, the USA desires stability in the region but Russia causes instabilities by using ethnic controversies(Canar,2006: 40). It is Georgia which is most affected by this situation. In Georgia through which the BTC pipeline passes, the wars resulting from ethnic nationalism threats the security of the pipeline and this is against the interests of the USA.

Russia and the Caucasus

Having participated in the international system as the successor of the USSR after the collapse of it, RF firstly aimed to establish a democratic regime and to accommodate with free market economy inside and become integrated with the West outside. However, RF again fixed its eye

on former Soviet republics in accordance with Eurasianism movement. The spokesman of this movement was Sergei Stankevich, the foreign political advisor of Yeltsin. Russians depicted this as "near-abroad strategy". They tried to establish hegemony over the former Soviet republics through the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).

RF entered into competition firstly with the regional forces, Turkey and Iran. RF considered that Iran with Pan-Islamic policies and Turkey with Pan-Turkish policies aim to establish hegemony in the region. RF later tried to send away Turkey from the Caucasus by collaborating with Iran and by adopting anti-Turkish policies. Russia has become the most important power determining the quality of international system in the Caucasus which has been turned into a battlefield of ethnic conflicts, in the North Caucasus in its own borders and in its bordering region South Caucasus.

The North Caucasus is the main land which is the entrance door of the Caucasus and which has strategic importance that can provide control over the region. It is a necessity to have the North Caucasus in order to control the South Caucasus. Therefore Russia tries to keep the North Caucasus in its hands. Again for this reason, Russia rejected the independence demands in the North Caucasus and waged an intense war against Chechnya(Kantarcı, 2006(a): 62).

There are certain reasons that make the geostrategic importance of the North Caucasus clear for Russia. The reasons are as follows: Russia has the shortest route to reach the hot seas, It has formed its natural boundaries, reassured its defense against the threats that may come from the south, Russia has remote control over East Mediterranean Sea and Persian Gulf, Russia is a region that can be used as supplementary attack heading in an operation over the Balkans and thus Russia is a region that enables to manipulate the major threat forces(Yıldırım, 2007 29).

Apart from these, what makes the North Caucasus important for Russia is that the pipelines enabling oil resources and the Caspian oil and gas to reach to the Western market. The reason for the outbreak of war and exploitation of Chechens by Wahhabis also results from this fact. Chechen and Ingush Republics have 60 million tons of oil reserve. At the same time, the main reason for the Chechen War is the Baku–Novorossiysk pipeline which transports Caspian sources to Western market. Global powers try to alienate Russia from the system by questioning the security of this pipeline and at the same time they use Chechens against Russia by forming nationalistic movements among Chechens on the religion axis(Tavkul,2002:122-123). Similarly other states try to deactivate Russia by BTC pipeline in the South Caucasus. On the one hand Russia tries to destabilize Georgia by means of ethnic conflicts; on the other hand it tries to increase its Russia that is being tried to deactivate in the South Caucasus by the BTC tries, on the one hand, to destabilize the key country of the pipeline, Georgia, by means of ethnic conflicts; and on the other hand to control the Caspian sources with the help of the agreement which it signed with Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan in May of 2007(German, 2008: 72).

NATO's decision in 1999 - its 50th anniversary – in terms of enlargement and intervention to the region which had been out of its traditional area

of responsibility also had an effect on Russia's policy change for the Caucasus. Russia perceived this decision as a threat. With the Security Doctrine accepted in 2000, Russia declared itself as a global power and opted for a multipolar world(Yılmaz,2006: 25).

Together with Putin, RF follows a multidimensional policy in accordance with multipolar world. With this manner it approaches to the South Caucasus which it defines as "near-abroad zone". In contrast to increasing the USA efficiency in the South Caucasus, RF gives importance to collaboration with the states in the region, in other words, it tries to balance the USA hegemony with the aid of the collaboration with various states.

In order to regain its power in the region, RF, on the one hand, tries to protect its claims in the former Soviet territories by the help of "near-abroad zone" policy, and uses ethnic conflicts as a tool to resettle into the region on the other hand. Georgia and Azerbaijan strives to become integrated with West and Russia considers that attitude as disloyalty. Russia succeeded to punish those two states by supporting the separatist powers in Abkhazia, Nagorno-Karabakh and South Ossetia. Establishing its control over the South Caucasus, Georgia and Armenia; Moscow is able to put pressure on Tbilisi by means of manipulating ethnic conflicts with a great skill especially in Adjara in Georgia, South Ossetia and Abkhazia and remain its military superiority in the region. Similarly Moscow achieves to remain its military existence in Armenia thanks to the Nagorno-Karabakh problem and for the reason to protect border security against Turkey. It can be noticed that Moscow has reestablished its hegemony over the Caucasus(Kantarcı, 2006(b): 72).

The USA's unquestioning support for the anti-Russia movements in Georgia (energy corridors, economic integration, conflict psychology and solution of separationist problem and other regional problems) and the USA's initiatives for various areas in the region threatened the Russia's regional interests. Especially "the Rose Revolution" in Georgia and following anti-Russia policies impelled Russia to more rigid policies. Russia could not prevent the independence of Kosovo and deployment of the USA rockets in Czech Republic and Poland. However Russia prepared determinedly for revenge through Georgia. By manipulating ethnic nationalism in Georgia with a great skill, Russia provoked Ossetians and Abkhazians in the 2008 war. Russia later alleged Georgia's attacks against Ossetians and Abkhazians as a pretext and defeated Georgia and therefore revenged the West. Besides Georgia considered that its security would be guaranteed by western institutions through means of NATO's enlargement. Russia entered into this war in order to prove that this guarantee would never be realized and to teach a painful lesson and Georgia was fallen apart(Muzalevsky, 2009: 125).

THE CONCLUSION

Thanks to its nearness to the Central Asia and the Middle East, its location between the Caspian basin and the Black Sea and its convenient strategic and economic location, the Caucasus has attracted all the agents of international system. A similar battle to the one that British, Russian and Ottoman Empire made for the hegemony of

the Caucasus took place with the participation of more agents after the dissolution of USSR.

The USA, trying to remain its hegemony over the Caucasus in the international system, and Russia, advocating multipolarism against the USA hegemony, are up against each other. The USA is allied with Azerbaijan, Georgia and Turkey in the region. In contrast Russia is allied with Armenia and Iran.

After the dissolution of the USSR, old hostilities reappeared and the Caucasus people were in search of independence. This search of independence resulted in conflicts (Chechnya, South Ossetia, Abkhazia and Nagorno- Karabakh) that reached to the war level due to the increase of ethnic nationalism. At the end of those conflicts, tens of thousands people died, were injured and fell onto the refugee status. Billions of dollars' worth material damage resulted.

The South Caucasus sub-system appeared with the participation of the former Soviet republics Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia that entered into the process of reorganization after the Cold War and won their independence in the international system. The ethnic conflicts which appeared when the gap having emerged after the dissolution of Soviets was replaced with nationalism and which were not solved yet left their mark on the region and became a tool used by regional and global powers that were on the race of hegemony in the region. Those ethnic conflicts are tools on behalf of hegemony over region and possession of Caspian sources. The states in the Caucasus and the states wishing hegemony in Caucasus should take all these facts into consideration.

Benefitting from ethnic nationalisms in the Caucasus is one of the ways applied by regional and global powers competing with one another. For example in Georgia which approached to the West Block, by using Ossetians and Abkhazians, Russia both made this country's access to CIS possible and dissolved Georgia which behaved against its interest as in the case of the 2008 war. In fact the purpose of Russia was not to help the ethnic groups to win independence. Since a lot of ethnic groups live in its own country and these groups can be provoked by the West as in the case of the Chechen war. The purpose of Russia is to put those countries under political pressure by making use of ethnic conflicts, providing that they don't act against its interests and to prevent them from being the USA' satellite. However the USA tries to settle to the region, therefore the USA aims to establish governments close to itself and provide financial support.

As a result the ethnic nationalisms in Caucasus influence deeply the structure of international system. Making use of the ethnic controversies, Russia tries to prevent the USA's settling to the region and becomes successful at this. Russia is on the status of most powerful actor in the region. The underlying reasons for this situation are as follows: Russia knows the region, it used to be there before and it knows the reasons of the occurrence of the ethnic conflicts (therefore manipulates the region easily with population exchanges). Even though the USA and NATO desire to enter into region and solve the ethnic conflicts, they aren't successful at this. The survival of Russia depends on the condition that it holds the Caucasus in its hands. As a matter of fact that's why Russia did not want Chechnya's and

Dagestan's independence in the North Caucasus. The South Caucasus is also as important as the North Caucasus. Russia could relinquish from Central and Eastern Europe and did so but it is not possible to relinquish from the Caucasus. The hegemony in the Caucasus is the only condition for Russia besides other agents to survive with its geopolitical position and energy sources.

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SOĞUK SAVAŞ SONRASI KAFKASYA'DA ETNİK MİLLİYETÇİLİĞİN ULUSLARARASI SİSTEME ETKİSİ

Özet: Kafkasya, geçmişten günümüze çok dilli, dinli, milletli yapısı ve hegemonya yarışındaki güçlerin ve grupların kanlı mücadelelerine tanık olunan bir coğrafyadır. Bu mücadeleler genellikle etnik çatışmalar şeklinde geçmesine rağmen, asıl hedef küresel ve bölgesel güçlerin Kafkasya üzerinde sağlayacakları egemenliktir. Kafkasya, 21.yüzyılı yaşadığımız bu günlerde, barındırdığı doğal kaynaklar ile hidrokarbon enerjisine dayalı dünya ekonomisi için, "Yeni Büyük Oyun" olarak da ifade edilen, bölgesel ve küresel düzeyde önemli bir ilgi ve rekabet alanıdır. Bu sebeple bölgede vuku bulan hemen her uluslararası sorunun, yerel ve görünür özelliklerin ötesinde bölgesel ve küresel ölçekte, jeopolitik bir çerçevede değerlendirilmesi gerekilir. Bölgenin sahip olduğu petrol ve doğalgaz kaynakları ile jeopolitik ve jeostratejik konumu birçok bölgesel ve uluslararası sorunun doğmasında etkendir. Bölgede Soğuk Savaş sonrası ortaya çıkan etnik milliyetçilikler ve bunların neden olduğu çatışmaların temelinde, Çarlık Rusya'sı ve SSCB'nin bölgede uygulamış oldukları nüfus politikaları, Sovyetler sonrası ortaya çıkan ideolojik boşluğu milliyetçiliğin doldurması ve Sovyet rejiminin bırakmış olduğu alışkanlıklar ve kurumlar etkili olmuştur. Ancak bu çatışmaların arka planında bölgede hâkimiyet kurmak isteyen küresel güçlerin çıkar hesapları bulunmaktadır. Bu çatışmalar uluslararası sistemin niteliğini de değiştirmiş, Soğuk Savaş sonrası tek kutuplu hale gelen sistem, Kafkasya'da yaşanan etnik çatışmalar ve güç mücadelelerinin sonunda çok kutuplu bir yapı halini almıştır. Çalışmada, Kafkasya'da yaşanan etnik milliyetçiliklerin uluslararası sisteme etkisi ortaya konulmaya çalışılmıştır. Bu bağlamda öncelikle Kafkasya coğrafyası ele alınmış ve bölgedeki çatışmalar, "Kuzey Kafkasya" ve "Güney Kafkasya" şeklinde bir ayrıma tabi tutularak analiz edilmiştir. Son olarak çalışmada, Kafkasya'daki milliyetçi hareketlerin uluslararası sistem boyutu ele alınarak, Rusya ve ABD'nin Kafkasya politikaları ve buradaki çatışmalara yaklaşımı incelenmiştir. Çalışmada öncelikle, bölgedeki çatışmaların ve kavgaların nedenini anlayabilmek için Kafkasya bölgesi tanımlanmıştır. Kafkasya sıradağlarının ikiye böldüğü Kafkasya, Büyük Kafkas Dağlarının kuzeyinde bulunan Kuban çöküntüsü, Stavropol platosu ve Terek çöküntülerinin oluşturduğu ve Rusya Federasyonunun egemenliğinde bulanan "Kuzey Kafkasya" ve ya "Kafkasönü", güneyinde Küçük Kafkas Dağları, Rioni ve Kura çöküntülerinin oluşturduğu Ermenistan, Gürcistan ve Azerbaycan'ın yer aldığı "Güney Kafkasya"dan oluşmaktadır. Güney Kafkasya için günümüzde "Transkafkasya" deyimi sıklıkla kullanılmaktadır. Siyasi açıdan Kafkasya'nın tamamı Avrupa kıtası içinde değerlendirilmektedir. Günümüzde Kuzey Kafkasya'da yer alan özerk bölgeler şunlardır: Adige Cumhuriyeti, Karaçay-Çekes Cumhuriyeti, Kabardin-Balkar Cumhuriyeti, Kuzey Osetya Cumhuriyeti, Çeçen Cumhuriyeti, İnguş Cumhuriyeti ve Dağıstan Cumhuriyeti. Güney Kafkasya'da yer alan bağımsız devletler ise, Azerbaycan, Gürcistan ve Ermenistan'dır. Özerk bölgeler ise; Güney Osetya, Abhazya, Acara Cumhuriyeti, Cevahati Bölgesi, Nahçivan ve Dağlık Karabağ'dır. Kafkasya etnik, dini ve dil bakımından dünyanın en zengin bölgelerinden biridir. Elliden fazla etnisitenin yaşadığı Kafkasya'da yüzü aşkın dil ve lehçe konuşulmaktadır. Dini inanç bakımından da çeşitlilik gösteren Kafkasya'da en yaygın din İslam'dır. İslamiyet'ten sonra Ortodoks Hıristiyanlık gelmektedir. Kafkasya bölgesi, Orta Asya'nın giriş kapısı, Orta Asya bakımından Batı pazarlarına açılan bir geçit olması ve Orta Asya ile bir bütün olarak ele alındığında zengin petrol ve doğalgaz rezervlerine sahip olması bakımından büyük güçlerin mücadelelerine tanık olunmaktadır. Zengin yer altı ve yer üstü kaynakları ile Orta Asya ve Batı arasında yer alan Kafkasya hem jeopolitik hem de jeostratejik açıdan dünyanın en önemli bölgesidir diyebiliriz. Bunun yanında son dönemlerde tamamlanan enerji nakil hatları sebebiyle bölge büyük bir rekabet alanına

dönmüştür. Çalışmada, Kafkasya bölgesinde yaşanmış olan büyük etnik çatışmalara yer verilmiştir. Bu çatışmalar, Çeçenistan-Rusya Federasyonu, Gürcistan-Güney Osetya, Gürcistan-Abhazya ve Karabağ üzerinde yaşanan Azerbaycan-Ermenistan savaşlarıdır. Bu savaşların temelinde, tarihsel bağlamda bölgenin yönetiminde hem Çarlık dönemi hem de SSCB döneminde söz sahibi olan Rusların, bölgeyi daha rahat yönetebilmek için uygulamış olduğu nüfus politikaları etkili olduğu görülmektedir. Etnisiteler arasında huzursuzluk çıkararak bölgeyi daha rahat yöneten Ruslar, Rusya Federasyonunun kurulmasından sonra bölge üzerindeki hâkimiyetini devam ettirebilmek için yine bu ihtilaflardan yararlanmaya çalışmışlardır. Bu çatışmalar günümüzde stabil durumda olsalar bile hala çözüme kavuşturulamamışlar ve her an alevlenme tehlikesi bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca çalışmanın geniş bölümünde, bölge üzerinde hegemonya çatışması veren iki devletin (ABD ve RF) Kafkasya üzerindeki politikalarına yer verilmiştir. Özellikle Güney Kafkasya devletlerinin demokrasiye ve serbest piyasa ekonominse geçmesini arzulayan ABD'nin bölgeye yönelik hedeflerinin gerçekleştirilmesinde kullandığı en önemli araç yardım programları olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır. ABD'nin bölgeye yardım programları, demokrasi, ekonomik reform, güvenlik ve hukuk reformu ve insani yardım başlıkları altında toplanabilir. Bunun yanında çeşitli vakıf ve kuruluşlarla bölgede etkinliğini arttırmaya çalışan ABD'nin demokrasi söylemi, daha çok ABD yanlısı kişilerin iktidara gelmesini sağlamaktır.ABD'nin Kafkasya politikaları içindeki en önemli konu şüphesiz Hazar enerji kaynaklarını Batı pazarlarına ulaştıran boru hatlarıdır. ABD'nin hedefi bölgedeki Rus egemenliğini kırmaktır.. Bölgedeki eski nüfuzunu kazanmaya çalışan RF, bir taraftan "yakın çevre" politikası ile eski Sovyet toprakları üzerindeki iddialarını korumaya çalışırken, diğer taraftan bölgedeki etnik çatışmaları, bölgeye yeniden yerleşmekte bir araç olarak kullanmaktadır. Rusya, Batıyla bütünleşme çabası içinde olan ve kendine göre Gürcistan ve Azerbaycan'ın bu sadakatsizliğini, Abhazya, Dağlık Karabağ ve Güney Osetya'daki ayrılıkçı güçlere destek vererek, cezalandırmayı çalışmaktadır. Güney Kafkasya'da, Gürcistan ve Ermenistan üzerindeki egemenliğini kuran Moskova, bilhassa Gürcistan'da Acaristan, Güney Osetya ve Abhazya etnik çatışmalarını ustaca kullanmak suretiyle, Tiflis'e baskı yapabilmekte ve bölgedeki askeri varlığını sürdürebilmektedir. Aynı şekilde, Dağlık Karabağ sorunu nedeniyle ve Türkiye'ye karşı sınır güvenliğini korumak gerekçesiyle, Ermenistan'daki askeri mevcudiyetini sürdürmeyi başaran Moskova'nın, Kafkasya'daki hâkimiyetini yeniden kurduğu görülmektedir. Kafkasya'da etkili olan bölge ülkelerinin bölgeye yönelik politikalarının analiz edildiği bu çalışma, Kafkasya'daki etnik milliyetçiliklerin uluslararası sistemin yapısını derinden etkilediği sonucunu ortaya koymaktadır. Rusya etnik ihtilafları kullanarak bölgeye ABD'nin yerleşmesini engellemeye çalışmakta, bunda da başarılı olmaktadır. Rusya, Kafkasya'daki en güçlü aktör konumundadır. Bunda bu bölgeye tanıması, eski bakiyesi olması ve etnik çatışmaların ortaya çıkış nedenini (nüfus değişimleri böylece bölgeyi rahat idare edebilmesi) bilmesi yatmaktadır. Her ne kadar ABD ve NATO bölgeye girmek ve etnik çatışmaları çözmek istese de bunda başarılı olamamaktadır. Rusya'nın ayakta kalabilmesi, Kafkasya'yı elinde tutmasına bağlıdır. Nitekim Kuzey Kafkasya'daki Çeçenistan ve Dağıstan'ın bağımsızlığını bu yüzden istememişti. Güney Kafkasya'da aynı şekilde öneme haizdir. Rusya, Orta ve Doğu Avrupa'dan vazgeçebilirdi ve vazgeçti ama Kafkasya'dan vazgeçmesi mümkün değildir. Kafkasya'da sağlanacak egemenlik, bütün aktörlerden ziyade Rusya için jeopolitik ve jeostratejik konumu ve enerji kaynakları ile hayatta kalabilmesinin tek koşuludur.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Kafkaslar, Etnik Milliyetçilik, Rusya, ABD

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BLOSSOMING OF THE LOVE: FLOWERS AND LOVE IN THE OTTOMAN POETRY

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Abstract: Ottoman poets evaluated love in relation to all parties involved (lover-beloved-rival) by mirroring their own inner world in their couplets they wrote within the context of love song and love portrait. As arts and aesthetics were at the forefront in Ottoman poetry, landscape and natural images were benefited mostly. The element that outstands mostly in these portraits and narrations is picturesque flowers and is liked by everyone and arouse the sense of admiration in everybody. Ottoman poetry is like a garden in which flowers fall in love and the love blossoms.This paper is going to touch on flowers such as roses, tulips, hyacinths, daffodils, jasmines, violets, basils, cercis, carnations, lotus, wallflowers, lilies, lilacs etc. which portrait love and speak of love; and the relation between beauty of flowers and charm of love is going to be revealed by emphasizing how Ottoman poets handled these flowers.

***Key Words*:** Ottoman Poetry, Love, Lover, Beloved, Flowers, Nature

GİRİŞ

Aşka ve sevgiliye hitaben pek çok duygunun dizeler hâlinde ifade edildiği divan şiirinde sevgili, erişilmez güzelliği ile idealize edilerek işlenmiştir. Sevgilinin sahip olduğu uzuvlar ile huy ve karakterini betimlemek amacıyla da pek çok unsurdan yararlanılmıştır. Bu durumda âşık (şair) sevgilinin ayva tüylerinden çene çukuruna, gamzelerinden zülüflerine kadar pek çok unsura güzellemeler yazmıştır. Bu şiirlerde sevgilinin ulaşılmaz konuma yüceltilmesi ve âşık ile mâşuk arasına fiziksel bir engel konulmuş olması ile sevgiliye duyulan aşkın daima taze ve canlı kalması sağlanmıştır. Bunlarla âşık, sevgilinin kendisine ulaşmaktan ziyade onun hayali ile yaşayarak büyünün bozulmamasını sağlamaya çalışmıştır. Ayrıca, sevgilinin dünyevî güzelliklerin ötesinde bir varlık olarak tahayyül edilmesi sevgilinin kendisini yücelttiği kadar ona duyulan aşkı da yüceltmiştir. Sevgilinin tasvirinde ve sevgiliye övgü ya da sitemlerde özelde çiçek genelde de tabiat unsurları ziyadesiyle bu şiirde kullanılmış ögelerdendir.

Divan edebiyatında betimleme yoluyla en fazla kullanılan çiçek gül olmuştur. Gül; ilahî ve beşerî aşktan ahlaka, zamanın ve hayatın geçiciliğinden sosyal hayatın (meclislerin) betimlenmesine, sultan ve diğer önemli devlet adamlarının övgüsünden

savaş aletleri ve savaş terimlerine, şaraptan kadehe, süs eşyalarından giyim-kuşama, yazı araç-gereçlerinden mesleklere, tuğladan yapısal malzemelere varıncaya kadar pek çok unsurun betimlenmesinde kaside, gazel ve şehrengizlere konu olmuştur.

Öte yandan divan edebiyatında simgesel anlamları ile yoğun bir şekilde kullanılmış olan tek unsur gül değildir. Yapı malzemelerinden giyim-kuşama, savaş aletlerinden mesleklere, gündelik hayat gereçlerinden yiyeceklere, kısacası iğneden ipliğe pek çok unsur imgelem yoluyla şiirlere konu olmuştur. Sonraki yıllarda pek çok araştırmacının da dikkatini çeken bu durum incelendiğinde, mahremiyetin titizlikle korunduğu, dinî kural ve yasaların hüküm sürdüğü bu toplum yaşayışı içerisinde duyguların ifade edilebilmesi ancak bir perde arkasından mümkün olabildiğini göstermektedir. Şairler de bunun için doğrudan değil dolaylı anlatımı tercih etmişlerdir. Bu sebeple divan şiirinde kullanılan imgelerin insanın kendini ifadede bir perde vazifesi gördüğü aşikârdır.

Âşık ile mâşuk arasındaki iletişimin imgelerle ifade edilmesi dönemin şiirinde yoğun bir şekilde işlenmiştir. Bu doğrultuda, pek çok yerde sevgili, çiçeğin bizzat kendisi olarak tarif edilmiştir. "Meydan-ı siyaset" olarak tabir edilen ***yüz***de sevgilinin yanağı gül, gözleri nergis, kirpikleri zambak, ayva tüyleri reyhan, saçları sümbül, zülüfleri menekşe, yanağı lale, ağzı gül goncası, dudakları erguvan, beni karanfil, teni yasemin, boyu servi olmak üzere her bir uzvu başka başka çiçekler ile ifade edilmiştir.

Çiçekler bunların dışında sevgilinin yürüyüşü, oturduğu ev ya da mahallesi gibi unsurların tanımlanmasında da yoğun bir şekilde kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca kanlı gözyaşlarının erguvana benzetilmesi, sevgilinin söylediği kötü bir sözün gülün dikeni olarak nitelendirilmesi gibi konularda âşığın çektiği derdini anlatırken de kullandığı araçların en önemlisi çiçekler olmuştur. Bununla birlikte gelenekte kullanılan benzetme ögeleri hemen her şiirde aynı kelime ile ifade edilmiş ancak bu ifadelerde farklılığı ortaya koyan, şairin üsluptaki ustalığı olmuştur. Ancak yine de divan şiirinde özelde çiçek isimleri, genelde tabiat unsurlarının sıklıkla kullanılmış olması yoluyla şiirde yararlanılan imgelerin değiştirilmemesi ve aynı benzetmelerle çoğaltılıp yeni kuşaklara taşınmış olmasını, divan şiiri geleneğinin kendi geleceğini yaratması olarak görebiliriz. Bu durum aynı zamanda bu şiirde çiçek isimlerinin bu yoğunlukta kullanılmasının sebebini de açıklar niteliktedir.

Divan şiirinde şairlerin sevgiliyi anlatırken kullandıkları ifadeler çoğunlukla *güzel* olarak ifade edilen unsurların bizzat kendisi değil, *güzel* kelimesinin çağrıştırdığı her şeyi kapsamaktadır. Bu doğrultuda sadece beşerî aşkta değil, ilahî aşkın dile getirilişinde de güzel ile ilişkilendirilebilecek her unsur şairlerce değerlendirilmiştir.

1. Divan Şiirinde Çiçeklerin Dili ve Aşkın Çiçek Hâli

Türklerin yerleşik hayata geçmelerinden bir süre sonra yaşanılan çevrenin güzelleştirilmesi çabalarının bir sonucu olarak ortaya çıkan estetik zevk ve buna bağlı olarak alışkanlıklarının değişmesi ile birlikte çiçekler; atasözlerinden deyimlere, sanattan mimariye kadar oldukça geniş bir alanda kullanılmaya başlanmış, sonrasında ise bu topraklarda yaşayan insanların *gizli dili* hâline gelerek önemli bir işleve sahip olmuştur.

Divan şiiri kapsamında değerlendirilen eserler incelendiğinde; insanın dış görünüşünün, sosyal çevresinin, davranış tarzının, duygu ve sözlerinin, yani insana [ve doğaya] dair tüm unsurların, şaşırtıcı ayrıntılarının dahi zarif bir söylemle ifade edilmiş olduğu, şairlerin sözlerini birer kuyumcu hassasiyetiyle yazıya nakşettiğini göstermektedir.

Divan şiirinin içinde büyüyüp geliştiği toplumun kurallarından bağımsız olarak değerlendirilmesi, bu yönlü bir araştırma için hatalı sonuçlara varılmasına neden olabilecektir. Bu dönem sosyal hayatında günümüzdekinden oldukça farklı olarak, sevgiliye yaklaşmak ve hatta dokunmak ve çoğu zaman imkânsız olduğundan, âşıkların birbirleri ile ilişkileri, temastan tam anlamıyla bağımsız olacak şekilde simgesel unsurlar (çiçek, mendil, meyve, vb.) ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu durumda bazen işitilmiş bir ses ile *aşk* başlamışken, bazen çok daha ileri gidilerek sevgilinin elinin, bileğinin, yanağının, saçlarının ve hatta suretinin görülmüş olması ile başlamıştır büyük sevdalar…

Çiçeklerin kültürümüzdeki yeri çok farklıdır. Bu konu klasik dönemde coğrafyamızın sahip olduğu niteliklere sahip olmayan yabancıların da dikkatini çekerek onları çiçekler konusunda araştırmaya sevk etmiştir. Örneğin 16 Mart 1718 tarihli mektubunda *Lady Mary Wortley Montagu* (ö. 1762)*;* Türk kültüründe renklerden çiçeklere, taşlardan kokulara, eşyalardan meyvelere kadar pek çok şeyin kendine has bir manası olduğunu belirttikten sonra, âşıkların mektuplarında mürekkep kullanmaksızın öfke, aşk, özlem, hayal kırıklığı ve ümitsizlik gibi duygularını iletebildiklerini şaşkınlıkla gözlemlediğini söylemiştir. Sözü edilen iletişim yöntemi, İstanbul'un XVIII. yüzyıldaki hâlini gravürleri ile yaşatan *Thomas Allom* (ö. 1872)'un da dikkatini çekmiş, mektup yerine "selam" adı verilmiş olan bu çiçek demetlerindeki çiçeklerin sayısı ve çeşitleri vasıtasıyla âşıkların his dünyalarını ifade ettiklerini söylemiştir (Bayram, 2010: 210).

Divan şiirinde [çiçekler başta olmak üzere] doğa ve doğa ile ilgili diğer unsurlarla yapılan benzetmeler, şairin kendisini [duygularını, derdini] ifadede önemli bir alan teşkil etmektedir. Divan şairleri, doğaya ait bu benzetmeler, mazmun ve motiflerle yoğun bir şekilde doğanın güzellikleri ile doğaya özgü çeşitli niteliklerden yararlanmaktadır. Ancak divan şiiri ile bahsolunan güzellikler çoğunlukla doğal güzelliklerin kendisi değildir (Batıislam, 2005: 95). Çünkü divan şairlerinin doğaya bakışı, görünenin anlatılmasından ziyade, görünenin kendi hayal gücünde çağrıştırdığı anlamların, şairin kendi üslubu ile ifade etmesini yansıtmaktadır ve doğayla ilgili olarak bahsedilen her bir konu, insanı anlatmak için kullanılan bir araç niteliğine bürünmektedir (Demirel, Ş. 2009: 1002). Öte yandan divan şiirinde kullanılan benzetme unsurları, her ne kadar çoğunlukla doğa ve doğaya ait unsurlar olsa da, yapılan edebî tahlillerde iğneden ipliğe kadar her bir unsurun sahip olduğu niteliklere göre başka bir hayal içinde benzetme aracı olarak kullanılmış olduğu da görülmektedir (Sefercioğlu, 2009: 2).

Divan edebiyatında benzetme amacıyla yararlanılan birçok unsurun çok fazla değiştirilmeden divan şiiri geleneğinde uygulanmış hâliyle kullanılmış olması, divan edebiyatının değişmez motiflerini meydana getirmiştir. Bu motifler çerçevesinde şairin işleyeceği her unsur, gelenek tarafından belirlenmiş ilgi ve imgelerle gizemli bir o kadar da kapalı bir daire oluşturmuştur. Bu daire içerisinde

kullanılan her motif, birbirine bağlı unsurlarla oluşturulmuş olduğundan, [her ne kadar şairine ait bireysel özellikler taşısa da] kullanılan benzetmelerin hangi imgelerle birleştirilip tamamlanacağı ve hangi çağrışımlarla yorumlanabileceği az çok önceden belirlenmiş durumdadır (Batıislam, 2005: 96). Divan şiirinde tabiata ait unsurların (çimenden ağaca, güneşten aya kadar) bu denli yoğun bir şekilde kullanılmış olması (maddi ve manevi diğer ögelere ek olarak) şairlerin, ilahî ya da beşerî aşklarını ifade ederken, güzeli tanımlama şekli olarak benzer kelimelerden yararlanmış olmaları ile de ilişkilendirilebilir.

2. Şairlerin Çiçek Bahçesi: Divanlar

Bayram (2007:217); divan şairlerinden Şeyhî, Cem Sultan, Karamanlı Aynî, Mesîhî, Mihrî Hatun, Adlî, Necâtî, Amrî, Bâkî, Fuzûlî, Hayâlî, Helâkî, Nev'î, Taşlıcalı Yahyâ, Zâtî, Nef'î, Nâbî, Mezâkî, Kafzâde Fâ'izî, Fehîm-i Kadîm, Neşâtî, Sükkerî, Şeyhülislâm Es'ad, Şeyhülislâm İshak, Nedîm ve Şeyh Gâlip divanlarının taranması ile elde ettiği araştırmasının sonucunda; gül, nesrîn, nesteren, lale, şakâyık, sümbül, nergis, yâsemin, menekşe, reyhân, sûsen, erguvân, karanfil, nîlûfer, şebbûy (şebboy), za'ferân, zambak, b. meryem, leylâk, mercanköşk, sedâb ve lisânüssevr adlı çiçeklerinin toplamda 9684 defa kullanıldığını tespit etmiştir. Taranan bu divanlarda en fazla kullanılan çiçek isimleri, Tablo.1 ile gösterilmektedir:

Tablo 1. Taranan Divanlarda Çiçek İsimlerinin Kullanılma Sayısı

Çiçek ismi	Kullanılma Sayısı
Gül	6206
Lale	1019
Sümbül	709
Nergis	487
Yasemin	348
Menekşe	286
Reyhan	161
Erguvan	93
Karanfil, Nilüfer ve Şebboy, Leylak	123

(Kaynak: Bayram, 2007: 217)

Divan şiirinde çiçekler ve doğaya ait diğer unsurlar, bu dönem şiirinin en belirgin özelliği olan söz sanatlarının incelikleri içerisinde kullanılmıştır. Örneğin, Tâcîzâde Ca'fer Çelebi, *gül gibi nazik sevgiliyi mavi elbisesi ile görenlerin,* gül çiçeğinin yapraklarla süslenmiş olduğunu düşüneceğini söylediği beytinde, bahar kelimesini hem yaprak hem de çiçek anlamını verecek şekilde iki defa kullanarak, şiire sadece içerikte değil, biçimsel olarak da zarif bir anlam katmıştır (Yılmaz, 2011: 185):

Hil'at-i nîlûfer ile bu gül-endâmı yine
Dir görenler kim *bezenmişdür bahâr ile bahâr.*

Ağırlıklı olarak aşk teması üzerine kurulmuş olan divan şiirinde aşk; ilahî aşk ve beşerî aşk olmak üzere iki farklı şekilde ifade edilmektedir. Bu durumda bahsedilen sevgili kimi zaman Tanrı, kimi zamansa beşerî güzelin kendisi olup (URL-1, Erişim Tarihi: 10.07.2014) bazen gül, bazen lale, bazen peri bazen de ceylan olmak üzere pek çok güzellik unsuru ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Akgül, 2011: 333).

[Beşerî sevgilide] bütünden ziyade parça güzelliğine ihtimam etmekte olan divan şairleri, güzelliğe dair her bir unsuru tek başına mükemmelleştirecek imgelerin arayışında olmuştur (Şahin, 2012: 386-387). Bu noktada çiçekler en çok göz, yanak, saç, yüz, dudak, ağız, çehre, saç gibi somut unsurlar ile endam ve huy gibi soyut unsurların tanımlanmasında da kullanılmıştır (Demirel, Ş. 2009: 1002). Bunların dışında çiçekler, sevgilinin yaşamakta olduğu mekânların [mahalle, ev, vb.] tasvirinde de kullanılan bir araç olmuştur. Bu şiirlerde ayrıca sevgilinin yaşadığı yerlerin gülşen, gülzâr, gülistan, şükûfe-zâr, çemen-zâr, bû-sitan gibi ifadeler ile adlandırılması da çiçeklerin sevgiliyi yüceltmede kullanılan önemli bir araç olduğunu gösterir niteliktedir (Sefercioğlu, 2009: 2).

2.1. Gül

Divan şiirinde sevgiliyi betimlemekte en sık kullanılan çiçek şüphesiz [çoğu zaman bir bitki ve hatta bazen anlam genişlemesi yoluyla "bahar" anlamıyla da kullanılmış olan] ***gül***dür. Gül, rengi, şekli ve imgelere açık yapısıyla antik mitolojiden dinî unsurlara[1], kimi devletlerin kuruluş hikâyelerinden orduların amblemlerine kadar tarih boyunca pek çok unsurun temsilcisi olarak kullanılmıştır; ancak edebiyat tarihindeki asıl yerini aşkın betimlenebilmesinde sahip olduğu rol ile almıştır. Aslında dikenli bir çalı türü olan gülün Klasik Türk Şiirindeki önemini sadece onun fiziksel özelliği ile açıklayabilmek mümkün değildir. Çünkü ele alınan konuyu sadece fiziksel özellikleri ile değerlendirmek, dinî kural ve yasaların hüküm sürdüğü bu coğrafyada, dinî etkilerin toplum yaşamına ve dolayısıyla edebî eserlere de yansımış olan izlerinin göz ardı edilmesine ve bundan kaynaklı olarak hatalı çıkarımlara varılmasına neden olacaktır.

İslam kültüründe gül, manevi değerleri sembolize etmesinden ötürü önemli bir yere sahiptir. Bununla ilgili olarak, Hz. Muhammed'in Allah'nın huzurunda Cebrail ve Burak ile terler dökmesi ile Cebrail'in terinden beyaz, Burak'ın terinden sarı ve Hz. Muhammed'in terinden de kırmızı gülün meydana gelmiş olduğu rivayet edilmektedir (Tanç, 2009:970). Bununla birlikte, tasavvuf dilinde bazen Allah (cc)[2] bazen de Hz. Muhammed'in simgesi olarak kullanılmış olan (Uludağ, 2002:149) gül ayrıca; gonca hâlinde iken birliği, açılmış hâlde iken çokluğu sembolize etmektedir. Gül bahçesi ise kirlerinden arınarak gönül açıklığı ile ilahî güzelliğin etkilerine hazır hâle gelmiş olan kalbi simgelemekteyken, açılmamış gül [gonca] insanın kendisi ve Allah ile baş başa kalışını anlatmak için de kullanılmıştır (Ayvazoğlu, 1999: 87).

1 Hristiyanlığın ilk çağlarında Hz. İsa'nın sembolü olan gül, sonrasında Hz. Meryem'e "dikensiz gül" denmesi ile de anılmıştır. Daha sonra ise gül, tıpkı daha öncesinde olduğu gibi pek çok dini önder ve inanışın temsilinde simgesel yönüyle kullanılmıştır.

2 Allah'ın sevgisini konu edinen beyitlerin bazılarında gül sembolü kullanılmışken, bazı şairler de bu aşkı (ilahî aşk) anlatan dizelerde lale çiçeğini kullanmayı tercih etmişlerdir.

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Divan şiirinde gülü Allah veya peygamberin simgesi olarak pek çok kez kullanmış olan *Fuzulî* de Hz. Muhammed'i anlattığı Su Kasidesi'nde peygamberin yüzünü tasvir ederken; *gül bahçesiyle uğraşarak bahçıvanın boşuna zahmet çekmeyip sele vermesini çünkü bin gül bahçesini sulasa da peygamberin yüzü gibi bir gül yetiştiremeyeceğini* söylediği;

Suya virsün bağ-bân gül-zârı zahmet çekmesün
Bir gül açılmaz yüzün tek virse min gül-zâre su

beytinde, Hz. Peygamberin yüzünü benzeri kabil olmayan bir güle benzetmektedir ve (Güfta, 2013:218);

Sûret-i hâline hayrân eyledi ârifleri
Açdı irfân ehline gencîne-i esrâr gül

beytinde de kapalı [gonca] hâlde ilahî sırların hazinesi olarak gördüğü gülün açıldığı zaman irfan ehlini hayran bırakacak manevi hazinesinin de açılacağını söylemektedir.

Divan edebiyatında gül ile ilgili birçok rivayetten biri [ve en fazla kabul görmüş olanı], gülün kırmızı rengini alış hikâyesidir. Hikâyeye göre bülbül güle âşık olmuştur ancak gül, bülbülün aşkına karşılık vermemektedir. Bunun üzerine gidip gülün dalına konan bülbüle gülün dikenlerinin batması ile akan kanlar gülün köklerinden damarlarına dek yayılmış. O günden sonra da gül, kırmızı renkte açar olmuştur. Dünya edebiyatında bülbülün güle aşkını işleyen pek çok eser gibi bu bülbül-gül aşkı üzerine divan edebiyatında da çok sayıda gazel ve kaside yazılmıştır. Bunlar (Tanç, 2009:970-974): Feridüddin Attar'ın Hûsrev-nâme'si ile Attar'a atfedilmiş olan Bülbül-nâme, Mevlânâ Celâleddin Rûmî'nin yazdığı düşünülen Bülbül-nâme ile yazarı bilinmeyen ancak Mevlânâ'ya atfedilmiş olan Hikâye-i Bülbül-nâme'nin dışında;

- Bülbül Nâme (Rıfaî),
- Gül ü Bülbül (Vâhidî),
- Gül ü Bülbül (Fazlî),
- Gülşen-i Ebrâr[3] (Münîrî),
- Bülbüliyye[4] (Fuadî),
- Bülbül-nâme (Es'ad Efendi),
- Bülbül-nâme (Âgah Osman Paşa),
- Bülbül-nâme (Yenişehirli Avnî)

adlı eserler de gül ile bülbülün aşklarını konu alan eserlerdendir. Gül ve bülbülün aşkını anlatan bu eserler ile nakledilen hikâyelerin dizeleri ile de bazen satır aralarında ince mesajlar verilir, (Güfta, 2013:227) şair;

O gül-i handânı görmek mümkin olsaydı bana
Sen tek ey bülbül gül-istâna güzâr etmez m'idim
(Bakî)

diyerek yeni açılmış bir gül kadar güzel olan sevgiliyi görebilmek mümkün olsaydı âşığın bülbül misali gül bahçesine gideceğini söyler. Aşağıdaki beyitte ise her baharda gül fidanında olanın gül olmadığı, aslında onun diken kılıcı ile parçalanmış bülbül gönlünün olduğu söylenir (Yılmaz, 2011:180):

Her bahâr olan nihâl-i gülde sanman gül durur
Pârelenmiş tîg-ı hâr ile dil-i bülbül durur" (Vasfi)

3 Münîrî'nin Gülşen-i Ebrâr'ı; Attar'ın Bülbül-nâme adlı eserinin genişletilerek tercüme edilmiş hâlidir.

4 Fuadî' nin Bülbüliyye'si ise yine Attar'ın *Bülbül nâme* adlı eserinden bazı bölümlerin çevirisi ile oluşturulmuştur.

Beyitlerde beşerî aşk anlatılırken aynı zamanda ilahî aşk da konu edilmektedir. Bu hikayelerde gül, bülbülün ilahî aşka erişmesini sağlayan mecazi bir güzelliği simgelemektedir ve bu yaklaşımda gül, benliği (ruh) ile özdeşleşip aslına varabilirse, ilahî güce de yaklaşabilecektir (Demirel, G. 2004: 95):

Gördi âyînede çü 'aksin o hûr
Kendüyi gördi itdi kesb-i gurûr (Fazlî)

Divan şiirinde beşerî aşkın ifade edilişinde ise gül; renklerinden (pembe, beyaz ve kırmızı) başka sahip olduğu hoş kokusu sebebiyle de simgesel anlamda kullanılmıştır (Kaya, 2000:249) ve gülün sahip olduğu özellikler olan ince ve narin yapı, tazelik, nazlılık ve zarafet sadece gülün değil, aynı zamanda sevgilinin de özellikleri olarak hayal edilmiştir. Bu doğrultuda (Özerol, 2012: 150-155);

Açıldı dâğlar sînemde çâk itdüm giribânum
Mahabbet gülşeninde açılan gül-nârı görsünler (Bakî)

dizeleri ile âşıkların feryadı, döktükleri kanlı gözyaşları ve kanlı aşk yarası kırmızı güle benzetilmekte iken, "*Ruhun berg-i gül-i sîr-âbâ* ;(*benzer*" dizesinde, ve Bakî'nin (Düzlü, 2011: 5

Ârız-ı gülgûnun üzre hâl-i fettânun senün
Fitneden hâli değül her lahza âl üstinedür

beytinde sevgilinin güle benzeyen yanakları üzerindeki benlerinin kargaşa çıkarmaktan geri durmayan hâli konu edilmiştir. Sevgilinin yanaklarının güle benzetildiği bir diğer beyitte de (Batıislam, 2005:103):

Bâd-ı sabâ her subh-dem bustâna seyr-it iste yol
*Ol yanağı gül kandadır ol zülfü sünbül nicedir. (*Şeyhî*)*

denilerek sevgilinin hâli sabah rüzgârından sorulmuştur. Bunların dışında Nef'i'nin (Karahan, 1985: 186);

Kızarse gül gül olsa tâm-i meyden rûyu hübânın
Ruh-i cânânı hem gül hem gülistân olduğun görsem

Sevgilinin yüzü şarabın verdiği hararet ile kızarsa da yanağın hem gül hem de gül bahçesi olduğunu görsem dediği beytinde sevgilinin yanağı güle ve hatta gül bahçesine benzetilmiştir. Selvi boylu sevgilinin gül bahçesini seyretmeye gittiğinde âşığının kalbini ateşler içinde bırakmasını konu alan beyitte ise (Düzlü, 2011:5);

Kaçan o serv-i semen seyr-i gülistâna çıkar
Duhân-ı âteş-i dil sûy-i âsumâna çıkar (Nev'î)

denilerek sevgili ile gül bahçesi arasındaki bağ bir kez daha kurulmuştur. Bakî'nin divanında sevgilinin kendisinin güle benzetildiği dizelerde ise (Güfta, 2013: 227):

Öyle ra'nâdır gülüm serv-i hırâmânın senin
Kim gören bir kez olur elbette hayrânın senin

denilerek, sevgili bir kez görmeyle bile herkesin âşık olacağı nazlı bir güle benzetilmiştir.

Gamdan öldüm demedim hâl-i dil-i zâr sana
Ey gül-i tâze revâ görmedim âzâr sana

dizelerinde ise sadık âşığın gamdan ölecek olsa bile zarif ve nazlı bir gül olan sevgilisini incitmemek için inleyen gönül derdini söylemeyişi anlatılmıştır. Tâcîzâde Ca'fer Çelebi'nin (Yılmaz, 2011: 185);

Hil'at-i nîlûfer ile bu gül-endâmı yine
Dir görenler kim bezenmişdür bahâr ile bahâr

beytinde sevgili "gül gibi nazik" olarak betimlenirken, Fatih Divanı'nda ise;

Görün ol gonca-leb-i kim nice ra'nâ olmış
Bir nihâl idi kadi serv-i dil-ârâ olmış

gonca dudaklı sevgilinin güzelleştiği, boyu bir fidana benzerken gönül süsleyen bir serviye dönüştüğü söylenmektedir (Doğan, 2004: 65).

Divan şiirinde gül goncası, şekli sebebiyle darlık ve sıkıntıyı simgelerken açılmış [gül] hâli ise sıkıntıdan kurtulmayı ifade etmektedir. Bu imgelem itibariyle susmuş dudaklar goncaya, söz söylemek için açılmış dudaklar ise güle benzetilmektedir (Küçük, 2002:233). Sevgilinin gülmesi, goncanın açması ve güzel koku yaymasına, sevgilinin ağzı ise içinde mücevherleri (inci dişler) barındıran sandığa benzetilir (Pala, 1995:204).

Dil-dâdelerün hakkına söz geçmedi hergiz
İnsâf 'aceb teng imiş ey gonca dehânun. (Bakî)

dizeleri ile kendisine gönül verenler hakkında asla söz söylemeyen sevgilinin ağzı kapalılık, sır saklama yönüyle goncaya benzetilmiştir (Özerol, 2012:150). Sevgilinin henüz açılmış bir gül goncasına benzeyen dudakları için âşık kan ağladığı ve sevgilinin ağzını gördüğünde şaşkınlıktan dilinin tutulup konuşamadığını söylediği (Güfta, 2013:229);

Âh eyledigim serv-i hırâmânın içindir
Kan agladıgım gonce-i handânın içindir (Bakî)

beyitte ise çiçekle ifade edilen aşkın en zarif anlatımlarından birini görmekteyiz. Gülün açılmadan evvelki hâli olan gonca için başka bir ilgi de oruç ile kurulmuş (Sefercioğlu, 2009:3);

Şükûfelerle çemen îd-gâha döndi niçün
Bu nâ-şüküfte gönül gonca gibi sâ'im ola (Nev'î)

beyti ile şair, çimenliğin çiçeklerle bayram yerine dönmesine rağmen, açılmamış gönlünün neden gonca gibi kapalı [oruçlu] olduğunu sormaktadır.

Sevgilinin yanağının güle, dudağının goncaya benzetilmesi gibi, ayva tüyleri de bu gül ve goncanın yaprağına, dikenine veya genel anlamda bitkiye benzetilmiştir. Bu benzetmede, baharın gelmesi ile tabiatın canlanarak yeşermesi esas alınmıştır. Nasıl ki baharın gelişi ile doğa canlanmış oluyor, ayva tüylerinin çıkmış olması da; şaire, sevgilinin bahar mevsimine erdiğini [sevilme çağına geldiğini] duyumsatmaktadır. Bu sebeple sevgilinin çene çukuru, dudak ve yanağının "yeşilliklerle" çevrilmiş bir gül olarak tasvir edilmesine divan şiirinde sıkça rastlanmaktadır. Mısra'larında kullandığı çiçeklerin çokluğu ile divanını bir çiçek bahçesine çevirmiş olan Bakî'nin (Şahin, 2012: 396);

Çihre gül sîne semen çeşm-i mükehhal nergis
Hat çemen gonca dehen ca'd-ı mu'anber sünbül

beytinde; yüzü gül, göğsü semen, gözü nergis, ayva tüyleri çemen, ağzı gonca, saçları sümbül sevgiliden bahsedilmektedir. Benzer şekilde Hecrî de sevgilinin ayva tüylerini, içinde her tür çiçek bulunan bir gül bahçesine benzetmiştir:

Gülzâr-ı hatt-ı dilberi seyr eyle ey gönül
Reyhân deste deste biter gül demed demed

Bunların dışında, kalem ve sevgilinin boyu gülün fidanına, hokka ve sevgilinin ağzı ise güzel bir goncaya benzetilmiştir (Sefercioğlu, 2009: 8-17):

Gonca-i ra'nâ devât oldı nihâl-i gül kalem
Yazmağa kadd ü dehâ (Tâcîzâde Ca'fer Çelebi)

Aşağıdaki beyitte ise *gül bahçesine benzeyen mahallende gönül kuşu yuva bulursa Firdevs Cenneti'ne doğru [dahi] uçup gitmez* denilerek sevgilinin oturduğu mahalle gül bahçesine benzetilmiştir:

Gülşen-i kûyunda dil mürgı bulursa âşiyân
Uçmağa meyl itmeye firdevs-i a'lâdan yana (Helâkî)

Bunun dışında Hayretî'nin sevgilinin cevr ü cefasından çok çektiğini ve içine kapandığını anlatan şiirinde gönlünü hiç açmamış bir güle, kendisini de belalara uğramış bir bülbüle benzettiği (Sefercioğlu, 2009: 12);

Gülmedi gül gibi açılmadı gönlüm bir zaman
Gonce-veş dem-besteyem derd ile bağrum tolu kan
Lâle-vâr eksük değül cânumda bir dâğ-ı nihân
Gözüme her bir çemen bir hançer-i terdür hemân
Hâsılı zindânım olmuşdur bahâr u bôstân
Bir belâlı bülbülem işim durur âh u figân
El-amân ey çarh-ı bed-kirdâr elinden el-amân (Hayretî)

dizelerinde şairin derdini tabiat unsurları ile ifade etme geleneğinin güzel bir örneğini görüyoruz. Ayrıca bu edebî türde sıkça kullanılmış olan gül-bülbül temasının da bir örneğini görmekteyiz. Gül ile bülbül divan şiirinde pek çok kere kullanılmış olsa da bunun istisnasına, kudretinin yetmeyeceği işlere yeltenen kazın hikâye edildiği Şeyh Galip Divanı'nda rastlanılmıştır.

Şiirde, bülbülün sahip olduğu sesin güzelliğini, bülbülün gıdası olduğunu düşündüğü "yaprak kebabı" na bağlayan kazın kötü sesiyle şarkılar söylemesinden sonra, sesi güzelleşsin diye gülün yapraklarını koparak yemesi nükteyle işlenmiştir (Azlal, 2013);

İşitmiş anı bir kaz-ı bed-âvâz
Kenâr-ı bâğda olmuş dehen-bâz
Edip tavsîf-i bülbül tâkâtin tâk
Isırmış berk-i gülden birkaç evrâk.

Son olarak gül, ömrünün kısa oluşu ile hayatın ve güzelliğin geçiciliğini hatırlatması sebebiyle de sevgilinin ve aşkın betimlenmesinde seçilen bir benzetme unsuru olarak kullanılmıştır (Pala, 2003: 182). *Allah, sen gül yanaklıyı bağışlasın, güzelliğinin çiçeği asla solmasın* anlamındaki dizeler,

Bagışlasun Hudâ sen gül-'izârı
Hemîşe solmasun hüsnün *bahârı. (Üsküplü İshak Çelebi)*

ile sevgilinin (güzellik) yaprağının, hüzünlü âşığın ateşli [harlı] âhı ile tıpkı gül yaprağı gibi berbat olacağı uyarısının yapıldığı beyitleri buna örnek olarak gösterebiliriz:

Bâda virür berg-i gül gibi bahâr-ı hüsnüni
Sakın ey gül-çihre âh-*ı 'âşık-ı gamnâkden (Helakî)*

Helakî'nin beytinde "bâda (yele) vermek" deyimi ile en alımlı ve gösterişli yaprağın bile eninde sonunda rengini kaybedip solacağı vurgulanmaktadır (Yılmaz, 2011: 190-191).

Güzel ve güzelliğe dair unsurlar, divan şiirinin temel konularının başında gelmektedir. İnsan vücudu ile ilgili güzelliğin doğrudan veya dolaylı [soyut/manevi] olarak dile getirildiği bu şiirlerde, bilhassa "meydan-ı siyaset" olarak tanımlanan yüz ve yüze ait unsurlar üzerinde sıkça durulmaktadır (Kahraman, 2009: 223). Meydan-ı siyasetin anlam pınarı ise, hem insanın ruhunu en iyi yansıtabilen

uzuv olması hem de tesir kabiliyeti sebebiyle hiç kuşkusuz nergise benzetilen gözdür.

2.2. Nergis

Divan şiirinde ***nergis***; beyaz ve sarı renklere sahip taç yaprakları ile bu yaprakların yere yakın ve eğik durumda olması, çiçek kısmının yuvarlak bir şekle sahip olması, ince ve narin görünüşü sebebiyle bazı yerlerde taç, kadeh, külah gibi nesnelerle ilişkilendirilmiş, bazı beyitlerde ise sarhoş, âşık ve hasta anlamlarını çağrıştıracak şekilde kullanılmıştır. Ancak divan şiirinde nergis en çok, "sevgilinin gözü"nü anlatmak için ön plana çıkmıştır (Bayram, 2007: 214). Nergis divan şiirinde "abher, nergis-i bed-mebt, nergis-i bîmâr, nergis-i bîmâr-ı çemenzâr, nergis-i mest, nergis-i pür-hâb, nergis-i şehbâz, nergis-i şehlâ ve zerrin-kadeh (nergis)" şeklinde kullanılarak; sevgilinin baygın bakışlı gözleri ve o gözlere bakan âşığın sarhoş olmasını simgelemiştir (Kaya, 2000: 254).

Nergis, divan edebiyatı dışında, bazı ülke ve kültürlerde yer alan efsaneler ve edebî eserlerde benzetmelere sıkça konu olmuştur. Nergis, mitolojideki Narsis ile ilişkilendirilmiştir: Oldukça yakışıklı olan fakat âşıklarına hiç yüz vermeyen bir delikanlı olan Narkisos (Narsis) suya yansıyan aksine âşık bir genç olarak tanımlamaktadır. Genç kızların aşklarına cevap vermeyip perişan olmalarına neden olan Narsis, tanrıların verdiği cezaya maruz kalmış; göle yansıyan kendi suretini aşkla seyre dalmışken, aşkıyla bütünleşme arzusu ile göle atlayıp boğularak ölmüştür. Narsis'in ölü vücudunun olduğu yerde ise göze benzeyen bir çiçek bitmiş ve tüm güzellere baygın baygın bakan bir nergis olmuştur (Kahraman, 2009: 242).

Şarktaki bir efsane ise, gül ile nergis arasında yaşanan aşkı konu almaktadır. Efsaneye göre âşıklardan nergis, göz biçiminde bir şekle sokulmuş ve sonsuza dek hicran içinde intizar çekmeye mahkûm edilmiştir (Pala, 2003: 369-370):

Gül hasretinle yollara dutsun kulağını
Nergis gibi kıyâmete dek çeksin intizâr (Bakî)

Acep mi tutsa el üstünde nergisi dildâr
*Ezelden aralar*ında göz âşinâlığı *var (Nâdirî)*

Gerek mitolojide gerekse şark efsanesinde nergis çiçeğinin hikâyesi bedbaht bir şekilde nihayet bulmuş olsa da divan şiirinde nergis; bazen fiziksel yapısı itibariyle kişileştirilmiş, bazen göz feri olarak ifade edilmiş, bazen de sadece sevgilinin güzel gözlerini betimlemek amacıyla kullanılmıştır.

Göz diküp nergis yola şimşâd durmış muntazır
Seyr-i bâğa gûyiya ol gözleri şehlâ gelür (Fatih-Avnî)

dizelerinde gözünü yola dikmiş nergis ile şimşir ağacının emre hazır beklemekte olduklarını çünkü şehla gözlü (güzel) sevgilinin bağı seyretmeye geldiğini söylemektedir (Doğan, 2004:65). Nergis ve göz ilişkisinin kurulduğu başka bir beyitte ise (Ay, 2009: 122);

Açılur senden yana her gün gözüm nergisleri
Âfitâbum hânenün câmı güne karşu gerek
(Taşlıcalı Yahya)

şair, dünyasını bir güneş gibi aydınlatıp gözlerine fer veren sevgilisine seslenmektedir. Necatî ise, gül yüzündeki gözlerini bırak, uyusunlar ki bahar günlerinin tazeliği vursun anlamındaki (Tarlan, 1992b: 174);

Nergislerini ko uyuşunu gül yüzünde kim
Olur bahâr günleri hâb-ı seher leziz

ile (sevgilinin) sümbül saçları ve herkesi hasta eden nergis gözlerini özleyenlerin sabah rüzgârı misali tüm yollardan esip geleceğini söylediği beytinde (Tarlan, 1992b: 227);

Sünbül saçınla nergîs-i bîmârın özleyen
Bâd-ı sabâ gibi kamu yoldan eser gelir.

ve Hamdullah Hamdî' nin (Özyıldırım, 1999: 86);

Süsen gibi zebân uzada nûr-ı ravzaña
Nergis gibi meğer gözüne irmedi ziyâ (Hamdullah Hamdî)

dizelerinde de nergis-göz ilişkisinin örnekleri görülmektedir. Öte yandan bazı özellikleri sebebiyle nergis ilahî aşkın işlenmesinde de yararlanılan bir çiçek olmuştur (Demirel, G. 2004: 101):

Aldı zerrîn kadeh ele nergis
Toldı şevk ile ser-te-ser meclis (Fazlî).

Nergis, elinde taşımakta olduğu altın kadehte ilahî aşk şarabını tutmakta ve bu kadehle mutlak iradenin varlığından da haberdar olduğunu kişileştirme yoluyla göstermiş olmaktadır.

2.3. Sümbül

Divan şiirinde sevgilinin tasvirinde en fazla kullanılan çiçeklerden biri de ***sümbül***dür. Sümbül, divan şiirinde sahip olduğu hoş kokusu ile "müşgîn, 'abîr, mu'anber, 'anberîn" olarak kullanılmaktayken; dalgalı, kıvrımlı ve karmaşık yapısı sebebiyle de "***âşüfte***, perîşân, târmâr, halka halka, ***çîn***, târ" tanımlamaları ile anılmış, ayrıca baharda açan bir çiçek olmasından ötürü baharın müjdecisi olarak da değerlendirilmiştir. Sümbül, divan şiirinde ağırlıkla saç ve zülüf, kâkül gibi saça ait unsurların tanımlanmasında kullanılmıştır (Bayram, 2007: 213). Örneğin;

Semenber ol nazardan gâfilidi
*Ki sünbül nergisine hâyilidi (*Şeyhî*)*

beytinde sümbül gözler üzerinden dökülen saç olarak betimlenmektedir (Gibb, 2000: 216).

Divan şiirinde sevgilinin saçı, kıvrım kıvrım yapısıyla yanakların etrafına düşmüş bir görüntü olarak hayal edilmiştir. Bu sebeple saçların bazen sümbüle benzediği, bazen de güzelliğiyle sümbülü kıskandırmakta olduğu tahayyül edilmiştir (Kaya, 2000: 246-248).

Divan şiirinde sevgili dünyevî olan her şeyden daha güzeldir. Bu sebeple, sümbül özellikle fiziksel yapısı ve kokusu sebebiyle saç ile ilişkilendirilmiş olsa da, sevgilinin saçının güzelliği ile boy ölçüşebilecek kadar güzel değildir.

Ahmed Paşa'nın sevgilinin saçına öykünen sümbül çiçeğinin sabah rüzgârı tarafından az kalsın cezalandırılacağını söylediği beyti, buna örnek olarak gösterilebilir (Batıislam, 2005:108):

Öyküdüğü (y)çün kâkül-i reyhanına sünbül
Bâg içre sabâ saçını anun yola yazdı (Ahmed Paşa)

Benzer şekilde Bakî de, sevgili ile kıyaslandığında sümbülün özelliklerini küçümsediği bir beytinde (Şahin, 2012: 388);

Hat-ı müşgîn-i leb-i la'lüne mânend olmaz
Bulsa ger perveriş-i çeşme-i Kevser sünbül (Bakî)

diyerek, sevgilinin dudak kenarındaki mis kokulu *hat*'a Kevser Irmağı'ndan beslenen sümbülün bile erişemeyeceğini söylemiştir.

Kaddün katında kâmet-i şimşâd pest olur
Zülfün yanında revnak-ı 'anber şikest olur (Bakî)

beyti ile sevgilinin boyu karşısında şimşir ağacının boyunun alçak kaldığını ve saçının güzelliği ve parlaklığı yüzünden sümbülün sönük kaldığını ifade etmiştir (Küçük, 2000: 110).

Zülfünün dest-resin tuydı meğer ruhlaruna
Bağda sünbülün ahvâli perîşân dirler (Bakî)

dizelerinde ise şair, sevgilinin saçının yanaklarına el uzattığını duymuş olmasından dolayı bahçedeki sümbülün hâlinin perişan olduğunu söylemektedir. Sümbülün divan şirinde pek çok kere "perişan" sıfatıyla ifade edilmesi, sümbül çiçeğinin fiziksel yapısının dalgalı ve dağınık olmasından kaynaklanır. Bakî'nin beyitlerinde söz edilen perişanlık, sümbülün sevgilinin saçlarını kıskanması yüzünden düştüğü durumdur. Şairin (Küçük, 2002: 265);

Olsa zülfi o gül-'izâra nikâb
(Olur âşüfte sünbül-i sîr-ab (Bakî

dizeleri de, o gül yanaklı sevgiliye saçlarının yüz örtüsü olması hâlinde sümbülün durumunun [kıskançlıktan] perişan olacağı söylenmektedir. Divan şiirinin son büyük şairlerinden olan Şeyh Gâlip ise, sevgilinin gerdanına değin uzanmış sümbül gibi saçları karşısında âşığın düştüğü çaresizliği aşağıdaki dizeler şöyle anlatmaktadır (Düzlü, 2011: 7):

Tâ gerden-i sefîdine inmiş o kâfirin
Sünbül gibi bu zülf-i siyeh-târı n'eyleyim (Şeyh Gâlip)

2.4. Yasemin

Divan şiirinde sahip olduğu yumuşak dokusu, çiçeklerinin sarı ve beyaz renkli olması ve sarma özelliğine dikkat çekilerek sevgiliye övgüde tercih edilen çiçeklerden birisi de ***yasemin*** çiçeğidir. Yaseminin sahip olduğu fiziksel özelikler, divan şiirinde pek çok betimlemede sevgilinin veya güzelin saçı, yüzü, yanağı, bağrı ve teni ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Bayram, 2007: 214).

Sevgilinin yüzünün yasemine, ağzının gül bahçesinin goncasına, beninin de karanfile benzetildiği (Özerol, 2012: 152);

Kad serv-î çemen yâre dehen gonca-î gülzâr
Hat müşg-î hoten çihre semen hâl karanfûl (Bakî)

dizelerinden başka, yanağının yasemine benzetildiği dizeler (Pala, 2003: 493);

Tuttı müşg-i Huten etrâfını berg-î semenin
Kuşadı sünbü-î ter dâiresin yâsemenin (Karamanlı Nizamî)

ile seher yelinin yasemin çiçeğinin gümüş gerdanını açtı, dikenin tırnakları gülün düğmelerini çözdü anlamındaki (Doğan, 2004: 27);

Semenün sîmînin açup bâd-ı seher
Çözdi gülşende gülün düğmelerin âhun-î hâr (Fatih)

beytinden başka, sevgilinin gömleğinin yasemin-le, yaka düğmesinin şebnemle ilişkilendirilmesi yoluyla lale yanaklı güzelin bir gül bahçesine döndüğü anlatılmıştır (Çavuşoğlu, 2011: 29):

Pîrehen ber-î semen gûy girîbân şebnem
Gülîstan oldı bu gün bir sanem-i lâle-îzâr (Bakî)

2.5. Menekşe

Hafif kokusu, güzel renkli çiçekleri ve şekil yapısı sebebiyle divan şiirinde işlenen bir diğer çiçek ise benevşe olarak da anılmış olan menekşe çiçeğidir. Menekşenin pazarda demetlerle satılıyor olması ve yapraklarının yuvarlaklığı menekşe-saç arasındaki ilişkiyi [saçın büklümlerini ve beliklerini] ortaya koyar (Pala, 2003: 217). Tüm bu sebeplerden dolayı menekşe; sevgilinin saçı, kâkülü ve zülfünün benzetileni olarak âşıkların duygularının ifadesinde kullanılan temel benzetme ögelerinden biri hâline gelmiştir (Bayram, 2007: 215).

Güle saçmış benefşe dâne dâne
Urur sünbüllere dendân şâne (Şeyhî)

dizelerinde menekşe ve sümbülün sevgilinin saçları ve gül yüzü olarak betimlenmiş olması buna örnek verilebilir (Gibb, 2000: 215). Bununla birlikte menekşe (Sefercioğlu, 2009: 9):

Jâle arakı lâle kadeh gonça sürâhî

Meyhâne çemen kâfir-i hummârı benefşe (Tacîzâde Ca'fer Çelebi)

dizelerinde; rakının jale, kadehin lale, sürahinin gonca ve yeşil alanların meyhane olarak betimlendiği şiirde menekşe [yapısının eğriliği nedeniyle] meyhanenin sarhoşu olarak tahayyül edilmiştir.

2.6. Lale

Divan şiirinde simgesel olarak gülden sonra en fazla kullanılan çiçek laledir; Türk kültüründe bir devre adını verecek denli baş tacı edilmiş ve benimsenmiştir (Önal, 2009:2). Tıpkı gül gibi lale de çeşitli kültür ve inanışlarda yer almış olup fiziksel güzelliğinin yanı sıra dinî anlamda da özel bir yere sahip olmuştur.

Mitolojide lale güneş ve bitki tanrısı olarak anılan Adonis can verdiğinde bedeninden süzülen kanlar ile sulanan toprakta yeşermiş bir çiçek olarak tanımlanmaktadır. İran mitolojisinde ise lale, üzerindeki çiğ tanesine düşen yıldırım sonucu yaprağının alev alması ve o anda donup kalması sonucu göbeğindeki siyah lekeye (yıldırımdan kalan yanık izi) sahip olmuştur. Hristiyanlıkta ise, Hz. İsa çarmıha gerildiğinde annesi Hz. Meryem'in döktüğü gözyaşlarının toprağa döküldüğü yerde yeşermiş bir çiçek olduğuna inanılmaktadır. Bu sebeple lale (ters lale) aynı zamanda Hz. Meryem'i de simgelemekte olan bir çiçektir. Tarihinde oldukça uzun bir dönem İslam hukuku ile yönetilmiş olan coğrafyamızda laleye atfedilen önemin kökeninde ise lalenin Arapça yazılışı ile Allah'ın aynı dilde yazılışında aynı harflerin kullanılıyor olması yatmaktadır. Lalenin *hak cemali* olarak betimlenmesi ile ilgili olarak yapılan benzetmeler, lalenin *altı yapraklı* olması, Allah'ın zatî sıfatlarının altı tane olması, Kâbe' nin geometrik olarak altı yönlü oluşu ve insanın altı yönlü bir varlık olmasının yanı sıra, yazılışta lalenin de Allah'ın da ebced değerlerinin altmış altı olması[5] sebebi ile ilişkilendirilmektedir (Ersoy, 2011: 1-5). Lalenin ism-i celâl (Allah) harfleri ile yazılmış olması (Akgül, 2011: 334);

Mazhar-î "ism-î celâl" olmasa îdi lâle,
Bulamazdı bu kadar rütbe-î vâlâ lâle (İzzet Ali Paşa)

dizelerinde de yer bulmuş, lalenin Allah adına mazhar olmasa bu denli ulu bir rütbeye erişemeyeceği söylenmiştir. Lalenin dinî anlamda bu denli önemli bir varlığı simgelemesi, dinî

5 Her iki kelimenin de ebced değerlerinin aynı olması sebebiyle tasavvufta lalenin Allah'ın birliğini simgelediği düşünülmüştür.

inanışların yoğun bir içerikle yaşandığı Osmanlı kültürünü yansıtan divan şiirinde de önemli bir yer edinmesine imkân tanımıştır.

Lale, divan şiirinde [narin, dikensiz yapısı ve renklerinin güzelliği nedeniyle] sevgiliyi, gelini ve güzeli tanımlarken bunun yanında sevgilinin yanağı veya dudağı; âşığın yüzü, bedeni, kanı, gözyaşı ve yaralarının betimlenmesinde de tercih edilen bir imge olmuştur (Bayram, 2007: 213).

Sevgiliye hitaben yazılan şiirinde, şair kendisini gam dağının bela Ferhad'ı olarak nitelendirirken başında bulunan âh şulesinin dağ lalesi olduğunu söylediği beyti (Aydın, 2013: 458);

Ben belâ Ferhâd'ıyım kûh-i gâm-ı dildârda
Şu'le-i âhım başımda lâledir kühsârda (Hayalî Bey)

ile gam dağında lale gibi kan ağlamasına rağmen tatlı ağızlı sevgilinin hâlini sormayışına sitem ettiğini söyler.

Bunca demler kûh-ı gamda lâle-veş kan ağlaram
Demez ol şirin-dehen hâlin ne *Ferhâd'ım benim (Hayalî Bey)*

dizeleri ile de lale, âşığın kanı ve yarası ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Âşığın, aşkı sebebiyle duyduğu acı ise (Demirel, Ş. 2009: 1008);

Kanlu tîrün dostum bu sîne-i pür-dâğda
Lâlezâr içre bitürmişdür nihâl-i ergavân (Revânî)

dizelerinde sevgilisine, göğsündeki kanlı okların lale bahçesi içinde erguvan fidanı yetiştirmiş olduğunu söylemektedir.

Bunlardan başka lale ile şarap, güneş, ay, ateş ve kadeh gibi varlıklar arasında da benzetme ilişkisi kurulmuştur (Bayram, 2007: 213). Lalenin kırmızı duvağıyla gelin olduğunun tasvir edildiği aşağıdaki beyit ise lalenin kişileştirilmesine örnek verilebilir (Tarlan, 1992a: 39):

Nitekim lâle ola al duvağı ile arûs
Her nihâl akçe saça üstüne barân-şekil (Hayalî Bey)

Lalenin ortasında bulunan ve Yunan mitolojisinde yangından kalan iz [yara] olarak nitelendirilmiş olan siyah beneğe ise *dâğ-ı lale* adı verilmiştir. Dâğ-ı lale, lale çiçeğinin bir güzele âşık oluşundan sonra ondan ayrı düştüğünün de bir işareti olarak düşünülmekte (Akgül, 2011:338) ve bu leke aşk yarası olarak simgelenmektedir (Kahraman, 2009: 242). Bunun dışında dâğ-ı lale ile sevgilinin beni de ilişkilendirilmiştir (Küçük, 2002: 207):

Lâle çemende başı açuk kıpkızıl deli
Sevdâ-yı hâl- yâr ile muhtel dîmâgı var (Bakî)

beytinde lalenin sevgilinin benine duyduğu aşk ile aklını kaybedip çimenlikte korkusuz [kıpkızıl) bir deliye benzediği söylenmektedir. Sevgilinin gül yanağını gören lalenin, gördüğü güzellik karşısında (sevgiliyi kıskanmasından ötürü) ayağının çamur içinde kaldığı, saçlarını gören sümbülün ise kederden perişan olduğunun söylendiği beyitte (Özerol, 2012: 148);

Lâle reşk-i ruh-ı gül-gûnun ile pâ-der-gil
Gam-ı zülfünle perîşân u mükedder sünbül (Bakî)

dizeleri ve sabah rüzgârının lalenin gül yanaklı sevgiliye öykündüğüne inanarak onu cezalandırıp kanlar içinde bırakmamasının istendiği aşağıdaki beyitte (Batıislam, 2005: 108);

Ey sabâ bâğda ol gül-ruha öykündü diye
Lâlenin yüzünü kan eyleme kim bühtândır (Ahmed Paşa)

ve şebnem çiçeğinin, lalenin dudağını âşıkane bir şekilde ısırdığının söylendiği beytinde de lale çiçeğinin kişileştirilmesi örnekleri görülmektedir (Gibb, 2000: 217):

Sunivirmiş leb-i lalini lâle
Urur dendân-ı dürrin aña jale (Şeyhî)

Lalenin, âşığın dertli hâlini ifade etmekte kullanıldığı beyitte ise şair, sevgilisini bedeli ne olursa olsun görebilme arzusunu, *gözlerim lâle-i Nu'mân gibi kan içinde de kalsa gel ki gülen goncaya benzer yüzüne bakayım* diyerek dile getirmektedir (Akgül, 2011: 337):

Gele bakam yüzüne gonca-i handân şekil
Kana gark olsa gözüm lâle-i Nu'mân şekil (Hayâlî)

Bunların dışında, divan şairlerince *kırda veya çölde oturan* yani sahrâ-nişîn olarak tanımlanan lalenin meclis adabı (usul-erkân) bilmeyen taşralıya benzetildiği (Önal, 2009: 916-917);

Taşradan geldi çemen mülkine bîgâne diyü
Devr-i gül sohbetine lâleyi iletmediler (Necâtî Beg)

dizeleri ile (Tarlan, 1992a: 61);

Lâle-i dil-sûhte tutmağa geldi dâmenin
Dediler bunda yaramazsın sen ey sahrâ-nişîn (Hayâlî)

dizelerinde de lalenin geldiği yere, yani dağlara geri gönderildiği söylenmektedir.

2.7. Reyhan

Divan şiirinde sıkça anılan çiçeklerden biri de fesleğen adıyla da tanınmakta olan ***reyhan***dır. Reyhan, divan şiirinde sevgilinin teni, saçı (kâkülü ve perçemi), ayva tüyleri (hatt-ı reyhân), dudağı (râh-ı reyhânî) ile ilişkilendirilmişse de (Kaya, 2000: 18-22) güzel ve güçlü kokusu sebebiyle en çok sevgilinin saçı olarak simgelenmiştir (Bayram, 2007: 215).

Şeyhî' nin (Şahin, 2012: 389);

Cân gûbar eyledi reyhân hat-ı reyhânın için
Ol muhakkakdı ki nesrîn ü semendir kokusu (Şeyhî)

ve

Hatûn reyhân-ı cennetdür yeşermiş Kevser üstinde
Ya rahmetden bir âyetdür yazılmış bedr-iken aya (Ahmedî)

Ahmedî'nin dizelerinde ise reyhan, önce sevgilinin ayva tüylerinin [hat-ı reyhân] kokusunun tanımlanmasında kullanılmış, ardındaki beyitte ise sevgili Kevser Irmağı üzerinde yetişmiş bir reyhan cenneti olarak tanımlanmış ve aya hilal (hâlinde) iken yazılmış bir ayet olarak betimlenmiştir.

2.8. Erguvan

Kültürel anlamda ***erguvan*** da tıpkı gül ve lale gibi çeşitli kültürlerde önemli bir yere sahip olan bir çiçektir. Hristiyan kültüründeki bir efsaneye göre; Hz.İsa'yı ele verdikten sonra kendini bir erguvan ağacına asan *Yahuda*'dan dolayı erguvana *Yahuda'nın A*ğacı da denir. Erguvan ağacındaki çiçeklerin Hz. İsa'nın gözyaşlarını, çiçeklerin renginin de Yahuda'nın utancını yansıttığı rivayet edilmektedir. Bunun dışında erguvan, Kızılderililerde baharın müjdecisi olarak kabul edilmiştir. Eski Mısır ve Roma toplumlarında ise asaletin rengi olarak tanımlanmış olup erguvan renkli pelerini giyme hakkı yalnızca imparatora tanınmıştır. Türk toplumunda ise Sultan Tuğrul ve Kanuni Sultan Süleyman'ın çadırının rengi

olması itibariyle kendinden bahsedilmiştir (Demirel, Ş. 2009: 1000).

Kırmızı, eflâtun ve eflâtunun tonlarındaki taç yaprakları nedeniyle divan şairleri tarafından şarap, kadeh, kan, dudak, yanak, yara, sevgili, âşık gibi unsurlarla ilişkilendirilmiş olan erguvan [ergavân] çiçeği de divan şiirinde sıkça kullanılmış olan çiçek isimlerinden biridir (Bayram, 2009:216). Erguvan çiçeği divan şiirinde (Pala, 1995:171);

Ger edersem kadd ü ruhsârın yolunda cân revân
Bitiser sinümde sînem üzre serv ü erguvân (Karamanlı Nizamî)

ve (Özerol, 2012: 150);

Küh-sâr-ı gamda gözyaşı hecrünle dem-be-dem
Hâşâk u hârı şah-ı gül ü ergavân ider (Bakî)

beyitlerinde görüldüğü üzere ağırlıklı olarak aşkın betimlenmesi amacıyla kullanıldığı gibi ayrılık, gam, acı ve yara gibi aşkın acı dolu yönlerinin tasvirinde de kullanılmıştır. Bunun dışında, utanmanın rengi olarak betimlendiği (Demirel, Ş. 2009: 1003-1008);

Eyledi şermden görince yüzün
Çehresin reng-i ergavâna gonca (Hayâlî Bey)

sevgilinin yanağını düşününce dimağının erguvan bahçesine döndüğünün söylendiği;

Ergavân-sitân olur fikr-i ruhıyla hâtırum
Şâh-sâr-ı yâsemendür dilde yâd-ı kâküli (Nâmî)

ve karşısında sakinin kadehi ile sevgilinin yanağı dururken güle, erguvana ve bahara kim minnet eder denilen;

Ruh-ı dil-ber ü câm-ı sâkî nazarda
Ne minnet bahâr u gül ü erguvâne (Bâkî)

beyitlerinde erguvan çiçeği sevgilinin yanağı ile;

Didüm yâre ki yüzün ergavândur
Didi kim kâmetum serv-i revândur (Ahmedî)
Olsun şehâ yüzüne gül ü ergavân fidâ
Tûbî sıfatlu boyuna serv-i revân fidâ (Ahmedî)

beyitleri ise erguvanın sevgilinin yüzü ile ilişkilendirilmiş olduğu örneklerindendir.

Tenüm hûn-ı sirişkümden nihâl-i ergavânîdür
Vücûdum oldı vîrân şehr-i rûyum za'ferânîdür (Nevî)

dizelerinde ise şair [sevgiliye duyulan aşk nedeniyle] acı çekmekte oluşunu; teninin kanlı gözyaşları sebebiyle erguvan ağacına döndüğünü, vücudunun viran, yüzünün ise sapsarı olduğunu söylemektedir. Daha çok renk ilgisiyle kurulan bu benzetmelerde Fasihî de kanlı gözyaşını erguvana benzettiği,

Hasret-i la' lünle cânâ bâde kan oldu bana
Eşk-i hûnînüm şarâb-ı erguvân oldı bana

dizeleri ile şarabının kan, kanlı gözyaşının ise erguvan şarabı olduğunu söylemektedir.

2.9. Diğer çiçekler (şebboy, leylak, zambak, karanfil, nilüfer)

Divan şiirinde çokça kendinden bahsedilen çiçeklerden başka, az bahsedilen çiçekler de vardır: Güzel kokusu ve geceleri açması özelliklerine sahip olup, sevgilinin saçı ve zülfünün dışında hâl, göz, sûfî ve hırsız kelimeleri ile ilişkilendirilmiş olan şebboy (şebbû, şebbûy); mor ve beyaz

çeşitleriyle sevgilinin ayva tüyleri, hatt ve saçı ile ilişkilendirilen leylak;

Bir bağdır cemâli ki gül-berk-i rûy-ı âl
Şeb-bûyu hâl sünbül ü leylâkı zülfü hat (Nedim, G55/2)

ince, uzun ve beyaz renkli taç yaprağı ile anılan ve kirpik, boy, yüz gibi güzellik unsurlarının tasvirinde yararlanılmış olan ***zambak*** (zanbak);

Zanbakuñ goncasıdur bâga gümiş bâzû bend
Zaʿferân ile yazılmış ana hatt-ı tûmâr (Bakî, K.18/20)

güzel kokusu ve sarı taç yapraklarıyla tasvir edilen ve yara, ben, göz, çene, zülüf, güzel ve sevgili gibi unsurlar ile de ilişkilendirilen ***karanfil;***

'Aşkuñla kılup kāmetini dāl karanfül
Arz itdi saña mūy-ı sefīd āl karanfül (Bakî, G.284/1)

suda yetişmesi, yapraklarının su yüzeyinde açması, geniş ve yuvarlak çanak yapraklara sahip olması, ve çeşitli renkte çiçekler açması özellikleriyle anılan ve yanak, yüz beniz, dudak gibi güzellik unsurlarıyla ilişkilendirilen ***nilüfer***;

Tâ gülşen-i nilüferi zeyn eyleye encüm
Pür-katre-i şebnem ola bu sebze-i minâ (Ahmet Paşa, K11/100)

ve daha bir çok çiçek fiziki özellikleriyle beyitlerde kullanılmış çeşitli güzellik ögeleriyle ilişkilendirilerek geniş ve zengin bir anlam çerçevesi oluşturulmuştur (Bayram, 2007:215-216).

Divan şiirinde sevgili anlatılırken "âb-ı hayât, âb-ı hayvân, ayyâr, büt, cevher, cevher, çerağ, dürr, elif, fettân, fitne, gonca, gül, gülşen, Hızr, hokka, hoş reftâr, hubrû, hun-hâr, hûrî, hümâ, Îsâ, keklik, lale, mâh, mekkâr, melek, mest, mihr, müşterî-cebîn, nev-bahâr, nihâl, nûr, perî, sanem, sehhâr, semen, serv, sîm, şehbâz, şeker, şem, şîrîn, şimşâd, Tûbâ, Yusuf" gibi kalıp ifedelerden sıkça yararlanılmıştır (Kaya, 2000: 243). Bunların dışında sevdanın ve sevgilinin tasviri ile sevgiliye yazılmış övgü ve sitemlerde çiçekler ve diğer doğa unsurları sıkça kullanılarak aşka konu edilmiştir. Bahar mevsiminde ve sabahları çiçeklerin üzerine düşen çiğ tanelerinin (şebnem) lalenin üzerine düşerse inci, goncanın üzerine düşerse sevgilinin dişi ve nergisin üzerine düşerse gözün üstündeki yaş misali gözyaşına benzetilmiş olması buna örnek verilebilir (Pala, 2003: 504).

Uykusun açmak için etti seher
Şebnem ile gözünü ter nergis (Ahmed Paşa)

3. Çiçeklerin Güzel Kokuları

Öte yandan gülşen ve bağ gibi yerlerde dolaşarak; goncayı açıp güle döndüren, nergisin gözünü açan, laleye kırmızı rengini veren sabah rüzgârı [bâd-ı sabâ] bu görevlerini tamamlamasının ardından *can veren özelliği* ile âşıklar meclisine uğrayıp sevgiliye âşığından [koku ile] haberler getirmesi ile işlenmiştir. *Sabah rüzgârı* zülfüne el vurursa saf misk kokar, *gömleğinin düğmesini açarsa gül suyu kokar* anlamını taşıyan beyit (Batıislam, 2005: 98-100):

Sabâ ki dest ura ol zülfe müşk-i nâb kokar
Açarsa 'ukde-i pîrâhenin gül-âb kokar (Nedim)

ile sabah rüzgârı sevgilinin saçına dokunduğu için âşıkdan önce saçının güzel kokusuna da ulaşmıştır [âşığı kıskandırır];

Çîn-i zülfünde giriftâr kalırdı dil-i zâr
Erişip bâd-ı sabâ etmese nâgâh meded (Nef'î)

sevgiliye ait kokuların *âşığın gönlünü sevgilinin saçında asılı bıraktığı [aklını başından aldığı*] vurgulanarak rüzgarın haber getiricilik özelliğine ve dizelerde rüzgâr-koku ilişkisine temas edilir:

Getirdi nükhetin bâd-ı sabâ gülzâr-ı dil-cûnun
Açıldı 'ukde-bendi yâsemînin verd-i şeb-bûnun
Efendim işte olsun gayr.....hümâyûnun
Açıldı lâleler seyr-i çırâğan vaktidir şimdi
(Nedim, Müstezatlar (şarkı) 43/II)

SONUÇ

Klasik dönemde beşerî aşkın ifadesinde kullanılan mazmun ve imgelerin [âşıkların çoğunlukla konuşma, görüşme gibi imkânlardan yoksun olmaları sebebiyle] gelişme fırsatı bulduğu bir gerçekse de; diğer yandan sevgiliye atfedilen eşsiz ve benzersiz güzellik ve erişilmezlik, âşığın sahip olduğu aşkı yüceltmesi için bir anlamda tam da istediği durumu oluşturmuştur. Âşıklar, aşkın hem acıtan hem de acı içinde mutluluk veren yanına vurgu yapmışlardır. Onlar hiçbir zaman vuslatı düşünmemişlerdir. Çünkü bu şiirde âşık için sevdiğine kavuşma, yani vuslata erme hâli, aşkın yokluk ve mecazla beslenerek büyüyen gücünü kaybetmesi anlamına gelmektedir.

Divan şiiri, duygu ve düşüncelerin doğrudan ve açık bir şekilde dile getirilemediği bir toplum yaşayışının ürünü olarak, akla gelebilecek hemen her unsurdan nitelik veya nicelik özelliklerine göre yararlanılmış bir edebiyat türü olarak ülkemiz coğrafyasının bir dönemine damgasını vurmuştur. Örneğin, Divan şiirinde gülün ve gül goncasının bu denli geniş bir imgelem içerisinde kullanılmasının gülün sadece fizikî nitelikleri ile açıklanması mümkün değildir. Çünkü dinî ve toplumsal zorunlulukların son derece katı bir geçerlilikle yürütüldüğü Osmanlı yaşayışında gül sadece bir çiçekten ibaret değildir ve diğer çiçeklerden farklı olarak dinî inanışlar açısından da sembolik bir değere sahiptir.

Şiir; toplum yaşantısından etkilenmiş dil özellikleriyle, hususan tabiat ve tabiata yönelik unsurlardan beslenmiş zengin yapısıyla üst dili de kullanarak sonuçte "çiçek bahçesi" olarak nitelendirebile-ceğimiz bir yazın türü ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu türde bazen sevgilinin kendisi çiçek olarak ifade edilirken, bazen de sahip olduğu uzuvları çiçeklere benzetilmiş ya da âşığın çektiği acılar, gönül yarası ve gözündeki kanlı yaş, çiçeklerin özellikleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Kısacası bu bahçede çiçekler dile gelmiş, anlatılamayanı, yani aşkı anlatmışlardır.

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AŞKIN ÇİÇEK AÇMASI: DİVAN ŞİİRİNDE ÇİÇEKLER VE AŞK

Özet: Bu çalışmada beyitlerde geçen ve aşkı tasvir eden, aşkı hatırlatan, dile gelip aşk diyen çiçeklerden; gül, lale, sümbül, nergis, yasemin, menekşe, reyhan, erguvan, karanfil, nilüfer, şebboy, zambak, leylak vb. bahsedilecek ve divan şairlerinin bunları nasıl işledikleri üzerinde durularak, çiçeklerin güzelliği ile aşkın letafeti arasındaki bağ ortaya konulacaktır. Divan şairleri aşkın terennümü ve sevgilinin tasviri sadedinde yazdıkları beyitlerde kendi iç dünyalarına da ayna tutarak, aşkı tüm taraflara (âşık-maşuk-rakip) göre değerlendirirler. Divan şiirinde san'at ve estetik ön planda olduğundan en çok tabiat manzaralarından, doğal imgelerden yararlanılır. Bu tasvir ve anlatımlarda en öne çıkan öge ise; herkesin hoşuna giden ve herkeste hayranlık hissi uyandıran güzel kokulu, tablo güzelliğinde çiçeklerdir. Divan şiiri, çiçeklerin aşka geldiği ve aşkın çiçek açtığı bir bahçe gibidir. Bu bahçede sevgili, erişilmez güzelliği ile idealize edilerek işlenmiştir. Sevgilinin sahip olduğu uzuvlar ile huy ve karakterini betimlemek amacıyla da pek çok unsurdan yararlanılmıştır. Bu durumda âşık (şair) sevgilinin ayva tüylerinden çene çukuruna, gamzelerinden zülüflerine kadar pek çok unsura güzellemeler yazmıştır. Bu şiirlerde sevgilinin ulaşılmaz konuma yüceltilmesi ve âşık ile mâşuk arasına fiziksel bir engel konulmuş olması ile sevgiliye duyulan aşkın daima taze ve canlı kalması sağlanmıştır. Bunlarla âşık, sevgilinin kendisine ulaşmaktan ziyade onun hayali ile yaşayarak büyünün bozulmamasını sağlamaya çalışmıştır. Ayrıca, sevgilinin dünyevî güzelliklerin ötesinde bir varlık olarak tahayyül edilmesi sevgilinin kendisini yücelttiği kadar ona duyulan aşkı da yüceltmiştir. Bununla birlikte gelenekte kullanılan benzetme ögeleri hemen her şiirde aynı kelime ile ifade edilmiş ancak bu ifadelerde farklılığı ortaya koyan, şairin üsluptaki ustalığı olmuştur. Ancak yine de divan şiirinde özelde çiçek isimleri, genelde tabiat unsurlarının sıklıkla kullanılmış olması yoluyla şiirde yararlanılan imgelerin değiştirilmemesi ve aynı benzetmelerle çoğaltılıp yeni kuşaklara taşınmış olmasını, divan şiiri geleneğinin kendi geleceğini yaratması olarak yorumlayabiliriz. Bu durum aynı zamanda bu şiirde çiçek isimlerinin bu yoğunlukta kullanılmasının sebebini de açıklar niteliktedir. Divan şiirinde şairlerin sevgiliyi anlatırken kullandıkları ifadeler çoğunlukla güzel olarak ifade edilen unsurların ta kendisi değil, güzel kelimesinin çağrıştırdığı her şeyi kapsamaktadır. Bu doğrultuda sadece beşerî aşkta değil, ilahî aşkın dile getirilişinde de güzel ile ilişkilendirilebilecek her unsur beyitlerde değerlendirilmiştir. Betimleme yoluyla divan edebiyatında en fazla kullanılan çiçek, gül olmuştur. Gül; ilahî ve beşerî aşktan ahlaka, zamanın ve hayatın geçiciliğinden sosyal hayatın (meclislerin) betimlenmesine, sultan, vezir ve diğer önemli devlet adamlarının övgüsünden savaş aletleri ve

savaşa dair terimlere, şaraptan kadehe, süs eşyalarından giyim kuşama, kalem kâğıt gibi yazı araç gereçlerinden, mesleklere hatta tuğla ve çivi gibi araç gereçlere kadar pek çok unsurun betimlenmesinde kaside, gazel ve şehrengizlere konu olmuştur. Divan şiirinde gülün ve gül goncasının bu denli geniş bir imgelem içerisinde kullanılmasının gülün sadece fiziki nitelikleri ile açıklanması mümkün değildir. Çünkü Osmanlı yaşayışında gül sadece bir çiçekten ibaret değildir ve diğer çiçeklerden farklı olarak dinî inanışlar açısından da kutsal bir yere sahiptir. Öte yandan şiirde simgesel anlamları ile yoğun bir şekilde kullanılmış olan tek unsur gül değildir. Divan edebiyatında iğneden ipliğe pek çok unsur imgelem yoluyla şiirlere konu olmuştur. Sonraki yıllarda pek çok araştırmacının da dikkatini çeken bu durum incelendiğinde, mahremiyetin titizlikle korunduğu dinî kural ve yasaların hüküm sürdüğü bu toplum yaşayışı içerisinde duyguların, ancak bir perde arkasından ifade edilebilmesi ile mümkün olabildiğini göstermektedir. Bu sebeple, divan şiirinde kullanılan unsurların *insan*ı ifade edebilmek için kullanılan bir perde vazifesi gördüğü aşikârdır. Divan şiiri kapsamında değerlendirilen eserler incelendiğinde; insanın dış görünüşünün, sosyal çevresinin, davranış tarzının, duygu ve sözlerinin yani insana [ve doğaya] dair tüm unsurların şaşırtıcı ayrıntılarının dahi zarif bir söylemle ifade edilmiş olduğu, şairlerin sözlerini birer kuyumcu hassasiyetiyle yazıya işlediği görülmektedir. Divan şiirinin içinde büyüyüp geliştiği toplumun kurallarından bağımsız olarak değerlendirilmesi, bu yönlü bir araştırma için hatalı sonuçlara varılmasına neden olabilecektir. Bu dönem sosyal hayatında günümüzdekinden oldukça farklı olarak, sevgiliye yaklaşmak ve hatta dokunmak çoğu zaman imkânsız olduğundan, âşıkların birbirleri ile ilişkileri, temastan tam anlamıyla bağımsız olacak şekilde simgesel unsurlar (çiçek, mendil, meyve, vb.) ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu durumda bazen işitilmiş bir ses ile *aşk* başlamışken, bazen çok daha ileri gidilerek sevgilinin elinin, bileğinin, yanağının, saçlarının ve hatta resminin/rüyasının görülmüş olması ile başlamıştır büyük sevdalar… Âşık ile mâşuk arasındaki iletişimin imgelerle ifade edilmesi, dönemin şairlerince yoğun bir şekilde işlenmiştir. Bu doğrultuda, pek çok yerde sevgili, çiçeğin bizzat kendisi olarak tarif edilmiştir. "Meydan-ı siyaset" olarak tabir edilen *yüz*de sevgilinin yanağı gül, gözleri nergis, kirpikleri zambak, ayva tüyleri reyhan, saçları sümbül, zülüfleri menekşe, yanağı lale, ağzı gül goncası, dudakları erguvan, beni karanfil, teni yasemin, boyu servi olmak üzere her bir uzvu başka başka çiçek/bitki ile ifade edilmiştir. Çiçekler bunların dışında sevgilinin yürüyüşü, oturduğu ev ya da mahallesi gibi unsurların tanımlanmasında da yoğun bir şekilde kullanılmasından başka; kanlı gözyaşlarının erguvana benzetilmesi, sevgilinin söylediği kötü bir sözün gülün dikeni olarak nitelendirilmesi gibi konularda aşığın sahip olduğu derdini anlatırken de kullandığı araçların en önemlisi olmuştur.

***Anahtar Kelimeler*:** Divan Şiiri, Aşk, Aşık, Sevgili, Çiçekler, Tabiat

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