



THE HANDBOOK OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

VOLUME-2

Editors

Prof. Dr. Bekir PARLAK

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kadir Caner DOĞAN



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The Handbook of Public Administration, Vol. 2

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PREFACE

Public administration, as an interdisciplinary field, is based on a wealth of theory. As a matter of fact, a detailed analysis of public administration with different concepts, approaches and theories will confirm this determination. With this book, which contributes to public administration from quite different fields as a handbook, public administration has been subjected to a detailed examination. In this book, public administration is explained at the concept-theory-practice level with articles from different disciplines. In this book, public administration is a handbook prepared by academics working at many different universities in Turkey. Almost all important issues related to public administration are covered in the book.

In our age, public administration has emerged with very different dimensions with paradigm shifts, great transformation and change. In this regard, concepts and approaches such as postmodernism, new public management and governance are particularly important.

In this respect, the discipline of public administration has been dealt with in different articles in this work at the theoretical and practical level. On the other hand, analyzing this great transformation with a handbook will make a great contribution to the discipline and practice of public administration. This book has emerged as a very comprehensive work of interest to undergraduate, graduate and other researchers. With this handbook, which includes structural and functional analyzes of the political, social, economic and cultural analyzes of public administration, it is aimed to contribute to the field of public administration in the world, especially in Turkish public administration. As a matter of fact, in this study, theoretical and practical sections are included.

We would like to express our deepest gratitude to both the esteemed authors and the representatives of the publishing houses for the preparation of this work. Finally, we hope that this book will be of great use to all readers.

Prof. Dr. Bekir Parlak & Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kadir Caner Dođan
Editors

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CHAPTER XVIII

INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND NEW CORPORATE ECONOMICS

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1. Introduction

The second half of the 20th century witnessed a series of new social, political, and economic developments. New global organizations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank) emerged for economic and commercial stability and the United Nations for political stability. Meanwhile, the Cold War in the bipolar world took place in this period. The dominant economic worldview of this period—at least for Western societies, including Western Europe and the USA—was the “demand-oriented” Keynesian economics and advocated states’ intervention in the economy as opposed to the liberal Laissez-faire “market-centered” approach.¹ Keynesian economy affected the world economy and politics from the 1930s to the 1970s. While Keynesian economics was dissolving after the crisis in the 1970s, neo-liberalism, which was the continuation of classical liberalism, superseded it by simply adapting to the new situation. Neo-liberalism, a new-period adaptation of classical liberalism, began to express itself with new concepts, institutions, and forms. One of these concepts is governance (Levent, 2016).

The governance concept was criticized as a new “exploitation tool” for liberalism when it emerged in the post-1970 period. Nevertheless, it became widespread in almost all fields of social sciences with interdisciplinary use since it brought a “civil and democratic” understanding of the ruler-ruled, private-public, and state-market dichotomies. In terms of 20th-century socio-economic

policies, the importance of the concept of governance, which was both criticized and admired by economic circles, emerged as time progressed.

2. The Concept of Institution

Douglass North, who defines the “concept of institution” as “the rules of the game played in society,” is the first name that comes to mind in economic terminology on this issue. While these rules regulate the interaction and communication between people, they lay the groundwork for the structure that provides stability in daily life. Institutions help to eliminate uncertainty with restrictions imposed by individuals. Institutions that prioritize communication and interaction politically, socially, and economically thus build their incentive elements (North, 1991).

Institutions often help create expectations about what people will do and dominate them by shaping their interactions. Institutions have the function of regulating joint activities within the community. According to Ostrom (1990), institutions are a series of operating rules used to determine consequences (reward or punishment) depending on the individuals’ actions. These rules regulate limits on who is the decision maker in which areas, what activities are allowed or prohibited, what community rules apply, and so on.

Many objects and entities, such as newspapers, supermarkets, telephone booths, and so forth, are defined as “institutions” in the literature. So much so that usually there is no clear distinction between “institution” and “organization.” Expressing the concept calls for separating the “game” from the “players”: the institution is the rules of the game; the organizations are the players of the game (Temel, 2022). There is an interaction between institutions and organizations. Founders set up organizations with specific goals and try to seize and exploit the opportunities that arise from the existing constraint cluster. Attempts to achieve these goals are one of the main tools of institutional change. It might be possible to found organizations in political (parties, city council, supervisory boards), economic (companies, unions, family farms, cooperatives), social (church, clubs, sports organizations), or educational structures (schools, universities, vocational training institutions) (North, 2010).

As North (2010) puts it, “institutions resemble a patchwork bundle, which consists of elements that lead to both an increase and decrease in productivity.” The institution is a living thing and has a fragmented structure. It bears the traces of different historical periods, societies, and civilizations, as well as the willful intention and coincidence that revealed it; it contains various traditions,

customs, and thought structures. In this respect, an institution is a complicated and contradictory body (Chavance, 2019).

According to Veblen (2017), institutions are dominant thought habits, instincts, and behaviors that regulate the relations of individuals or groups in the community and have particular functions. People live under the guidance of institutions. Commons explains this situation in a collective action frame. According to him, institutions are atomistic units just like individuals, but they are wholes that include collective action (Yılmaz, 2000). While defining the institution, Commons (1931) distinguished between unorganized traditions and organizations. However, he stated that the joint principle uniting them all was collective action, which controlled but also liberated individual acts.

Schmoller similarly defines the institution as a partial order that serves community life. According to Schmoller, an institution is a set of habits and rules that have a goal and form a system. It provides a solid basis for social actions such as property, slavery, serfdom, marriage, tutelage, market system, and free trade in a long-term process (Richter, 1996).

Fredrick August von Hayek dealt with the emergence of institutions. He pointed out the difference between an organization and a spontaneous order while examining the rules and orders constructed in the economic and social fields. While organized order is an external, relatively simple, artificial, and consciously established order, spontaneous order is an internal, complex, self-generating, and growing order. The ethical code of conduct shapes spontaneous order, as in Adam Smith's "invisible hand" phrase, where he describes how a person heads for a goal beyond his self-interest (Hayek, 1973).

Based on all these definitions, it is possible to say that this complex concept, carrying the traces of the current period and past, encompasses all the rules and organizational forms that regulate social life.

3. Conceptual Framework of New Institutional Economics: Methodology and Assumptions

New Institutional Economics (NIE), which emerged in the 1980s, has significantly contributed to explaining economic development differences. The NIE reminded Development economists that rules and appropriate institutions are essential for anti-poverty, pro-development approaches (Thorbecke, 2016). The school artfully incorporated the heterodox concept of the institution into established economic theory, institutionalized the problems of regulation, change, and organization to increase global growth and development performance, and

transferred them to the Neoclassical development economics literature (Orhan, 2011).

NIE claims institutions are the primary determinant, or in other words, the cause of economic development. Literature has significant findings to prove this claim (Acemoglu, Johnson, & Robinson, 2001; Hall & Jones, 1999; Rodrik, Subramanian, & Trebbi, 2004). Some regard the institution quality as the main reason for different development levels between countries. The quality of institutions is the quality of rules, regulations, laws, and policies that affect the economic incentives required to invest in technology and physical and human capital. Rich countries with higher per capita incomes generally own quality institutions. Therefore, a strong link exists between the quality of institutions and economic development. North, who made the first theoretical contribution to this field, stated, “it is necessary to rethink the entire economic process to read historical and contemporary evidence.” The primary source of economic growth is the institutional/organizational structure of the political economy (Przeworski, 2004).

Institutional economics has a bad reputation among economists in the USA and some countries post-World War II. A significant part of the economic research developed in this period seems as a reaction to the “old” institutionalism, which was the research focus of previous years. Unlike the OIE tradition, NIE did not seek to fit all economic, cultural, political, and social institutions under its umbrella or focus on all economic performance aspects (Joskow, 2008). NIE treats the field in an inclusive and well-focused way. The “new institutional economics” refers to various theoretical currents that accept the importance of institutions and can also employ the tools of standard economic theories if some corrections and modifications are made (Chavance, 2019).

According to Ronald Coase, the primary purpose of the “new institutional economics” was to differentiate from the old one. Coase has argued that John R. Commons, Wesley Mitchell, and others are intellectually well-respected but anti-theoretical, and thus, without a theory connecting their phenomena, these people had little to convey (Coase, 1998). Langlois claimed that the problem with most early institutionalists was that they wanted an economy without theory but with institutions. On the other hand, the problem with many neoclassical economists is that they accept an economic theory without institutions. NIE seeks to establish an economic analysis that includes theory and institutions (Nabli & Nugent, 1989). While criticizing the protective belt of the Neoclassical

school, NIE added the concepts “external benefit” and “external cost” to the strengthened price theory that formed the hard core of the school. NIE has increased the problem-solving ability of neoclassical economics by transforming the institutions, which mainstream economics consider “impartial” in market operations, into an active analysis tool (Orhan, 2011).

While emphasizing rules and norms, NIE also accepts diversity in disciplines and methodologies, allowing closer contact with other disciplines, especially within the social sciences. The broad acceptance of the proposition “Institutions matter” points out many scientists from diverse disciplines who deal with institutional issues from different perspectives (Joskow, 2008). Even though it was basically divided into two leading schools of thought from the beginning, the strong institutionalization of NIE is noteworthy. The first school of thought proposed by Coase and Williamson focuses on a firm-level analysis of property rights and contracts. Second, the school of thought suggested by North analyzes broader institutional settings and the role of the state (Ménard & Shirley, 2011).

Four main types of constraints apply in neoclassical economics. These are individual preferences, technological opportunities, physical and human capital, and market opportunities. In the analysis with these constraints, the institutional framework is considered unchanged, and in many cases, it is completely neglected. In the end, analyzing institutional constraints does not remain to economists but social scientists—typically political scientists, lawyers, sociologists, and anthropologists. NIE aims to overcome this limitation of Neoclassical economics (Nabli & Nugent, 1989). NIE accepts most of the standard Neoclassical paradigm, except the fundamentals that characterize it. NIE insists on comparing plausible corporate systems in the real world, which are rich in the transaction and other costs, rather than comparing the imaginary standards of a “frictionless” environment with individual behaviors (Langlois, 2016).

NIE accepts the Neoclassical school’s basic assumptions, such as scarcity and competition, but rejects assumptions, such as complete rationality and complete knowledge, taking them as unrealistic. NIE has made some changes in the assumptions about the nature of the individual (limited rationality, methodological individualism, opportunistic behavior) and the market mechanism (information and transaction costs, property rights, collective action). It introduced a new and different methodological perspective. In this respect, NIE is considered an internal debate within the Neoclassical school.

However, this internal debate represents a divergence of opinion that can go as far as a breaking point (Chavance, 2019).

3.1. Bounded Rationality

In perfect rationality, institutions and institution analysis are unnecessary. The neoclassical approach accepts that an organization, for example, a firm, behaves rationally in every situation and always chooses the best alternative. But in the real world, people are nearsighted, and therefore limited rationality applies. NIE takes individuals as opportunistic and limited rational (Temel, 2022). Individuals' behavioral codes make up the micro-foundations of an organization, and in NIE analysis, opportunistic behaviors and bounded rationality are the main assumptions underlying transaction expenses and incomplete contracts. In bounded rationality, achieving the perfect optimal level of output necessarily requires a cost. A proper negotiation mechanism is essential between the parties to exclude or minimize the problems of the production process. This negotiation mechanism is possible through effective contracts (Çetin, 2012). Bounded rational individuals develop institutions to reduce the uncertainty of the future and the risks posed by incomplete information. These institutions can be informal, such as customs, traditions, beliefs, and codes of conduct, or formal, such as constitutions, regulations, and contracts.

3.2. Methodological Individualism

Methodological individualism is a commonly accepted assumption by NIE and the Neoclassical school. NIE takes the individual as data while making an analysis from individuals to institutions. This approach is called "methodological individualism." Although people act for the sake of a group or at least for a part of it, in reality, each action is individual (Şenalp, 2007). While designing the social and economic system, the individual appears as the primary starting point within the framework of his hypothetical behavioral characteristics. The emergence, existence, and functioning of social institutions are explainable within the framework of this assumption (Yılmaz, 2007).

3.3. Transaction Costs

In Neoclassical economics, economic actors are rational and have full knowledge. Transactions run at no expense. On the other hand, according to NIE, economic actors have limited rationality, and every transaction has a

financial burden. In the first place, even using the price mechanism has a cost. Since the information to discover the price levels in the future is insufficient, incomplete, and asymmetric, uncertainty about the future prevails. To eliminate this uncertainty, individuals have to bear transaction costs (Temel, 2022).

In societies where transaction costs are consistently high, less trade and specialization and lower investment and productivity emerge (Shirley, 2005). Identifying and implementing the contracts and arrangements underlying corporate change generate transaction costs. These costs contain all the expenses of the political and economic organizations that allow economies to profit from the trade. Coase claims that there is a mutual interaction between transaction costs and institutions. While transaction costs depend on official or informal institutions in a country, transaction costs shape the structure of political and economic institutions. Institutions are contractual arrangements between principals and proxies made to maximize the earnings and wealth resulting from specialization. (North, 1984).

3.4. Property Rights

Property rights authorize individuals in a society to choose and use one of the non-prohibited uses of a particular asset. Anyone other than the person authorized to use an asset should pay a usage fee to the owner. Property rights are prominent tools in regulating community relations. It helps a person set reasonable expectations in his dealings with others. Property rights allow someone who owns the property to have the consent of other people to act in particular ways. The property owner expects the state to prevent others from interfering with his actions (Demsetz, 1967) because determining and protecting property rights rests with the state. However, laws alone cannot ensure the legitimacy of property rights. These rights should also be supported by social values, habits, norms, and traditions (Şenalp, 2007)

There is a very close relationship between property rights and transaction costs. If property rights do not have a clear definition, transaction costs increase, it becomes difficult to determine and implement contracts, and the market mechanism cannot operate effectively. On the other hand, when transaction costs are positive, it becomes impossible to define and execute property rights. Since trading in the market becomes costly under asymmetric information conditions, the property rights of the contract parties cannot be included in the contract and applied perfectly. Because of positive transaction costs, contracts become incomplete; property rights become undefined. In this case, the parties do not

want to trust third parties; the behaviors and decisions of individuals change, and Pareto efficiency cannot occur (Çetin, 2012).

4. Governance and The Theoretical Framework

Globally accepted that neo-liberalism started to rise after the 1970s. This process is characterized with terms such as globalization, the downturn of the welfare state, the weakening of the nation-state, the post-Fordist production process, the rise of privatization efforts, and the acceleration of economic liberalization. In the post-1970 transitional period, the Keynesian economic worldview evolved into neoliberal economics. The Concept of Governance first emerged in this process (Levent, 2016).

According to Bob Jessop, Governance has a “pre-theoretical” and “eclectic” background. It bears the traces of the concept of “steering of boats” in Classical Latin and Ancient Greece. The concept is a style or action of directing, guiding, and managing, which coincides with Governing. Accordingly, while Governance is the style and form of Governing, Government is the theories and institutions related to Governing, and Governing refers to actions (Jessop, 1998; Güzelsarı, 2003).

The French word “Gouvernance” entered into English as Governance in the 14th century. The concept was away from popularity for a long time until used again by the World Bank in 1980 (Hewitt, 1998). In addition to the World Bank, IMF, UN, and international non-governmental organizations adopted and used the Concept of Governance. The people who caused the World Bank to start using this old word with a new meaning were the new institutional economists who followed in the footsteps of the American economist Ronald H. Coase (İnsel, 2004).

While Government explains the formal and institutional processes that are functional at the nation-state level in providing public order and requirements, Governance is a preferred concept to emphasize the deviation, change, new methods, new processes, and new actors in Government. It is hard to find a clear and agreed-upon definition of the Concept of Governance. Governance can appear with very different and contradictory meanings. The concept stands out with its “pre-theoretical” feature (Jessop, 1998). Its base view is essentially the “crisis of governing.” This view refers to how a political union relates to structures and institutions within and outside of itself. In this context, the “crisis of governing” stands on the assumption that the state can no longer “govern” domestic and international structures in its “state-economy” relationship in globalization.

In the areas determined by the public and private interests, Governance emerges to solve the “crisis of governing” that traditional methods cannot overcome (Aygül, 1998). Therefore, from this point on, Governance began to loom over the waning nation-state and improving globalization processes. Since the late 1980s, has expressed a “transformation” in the general functioning and understanding of public sector management, and showed a new management style emerging with the participation of non-governmental organizations or the third sector (Zabcı, 2009).

Government emphasizes the management understanding based on a hierarchical (vertical) bureaucratic structure. On the other hand, Governance underlines a heterarchical (horizontal) management approach based on the interaction/cooperation between unofficial, independent social actors and organizations—such as nongovernmental organizations and the private sector—and their effective participation in the management activities. Therefore, Governance stands out with its heterarchical character, as opposed to the hierarchical nature of Government (Jessop, 2002).

When the term Governance, in its current meaning, was first used by the World Bank in the report *Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth* (1989) was defined as “the use of political power for the management of national activities” (Bayramoğlu, 2002). Governance was elaborated on all its aspects in the reports, *Governance and Development* (1992), *Governance* (1994), and *State in a Changing World* (1997). According to these reports, Governance has eight elements: the rule of law, transparency, participation, effectiveness, accountability, responsiveness, equality, and strategic vision.

5. Governance and New Institutional Economics Relationship

Contrary to popular belief, the theoretical backdrop of the governance approach lies in new institutional economics rather than neo-classical orthodoxy. The governance approach has totally adopted the main propositions, definitions, and assumptions of the new institutional economics about the state, institutions, and transaction costs (Bayramoğlu, 2005; Scott, 1984).

The new institutional economics started to be organized rapidly in the 1970s. First, it treated businesses as institutions and analyzed them economically. Then it examined social, political relations, and even historical development outside the business, using the same concepts. Oliver Williamson (1984), the leading economist of this movement, first started to deal with internal management policies over the Business Governance and Governance Structures concepts. He aimed to explain how the most efficient management could be selected and

implemented from the two management styles: hierarchical and contractual. From now on, control in the enterprise is shifted from the company owners to the managers. In this context, governance means the integration of economics and a kind of politics (İnsel, 2013; Yılmaz, 2009). However, this policy is limited and does not position capitalism at the center of its analysis. In other words, this is the integration of neoliberalism-compatible politics with economics.

A parallel can be drawn between the new institutional economics emphasizing the state's importance for the functioning and development of the market economy and the new roles of the governments—as described in the *State in A Changing World* (1997) report—given by the world bank for a well-functioning global market. Other authoritative international organizations also adopt the World Bank's governance approach. For example, both the OECD and the EU share the World Bank's approach to governance in their relevant publications (Bayramoğlu, 2002).

The revision of neo-liberalism, including institutionalism, took place in two stages. The first stage was the World Bank's 1997 development report. This report titled "State in A Changing World (1997)" co-authored by Peter Evans, one of the leading theorists of institutionalism, brought up the concept of State instead of Governance, contrary to before, and emphasized the need for increasing the state's capacity to regulate the markets. The second phase of the revision resulted from the effort to redefine the state's role in response to the South Asian crisis that followed the report's publication. The prominent author at this stage was World Bank chief economist Joseph Stiglitz. In his speech titled "Redefining the Role of the State (1998)," Stiglitz stated that after the South Asian crisis, the minimal state concept completely fell off the agenda and that the main problem now was to redefine the role of the state and its decision-making mechanisms (Levent, 2016).

The World Bank 1997 Development Report enabled the concept of the state, which had been pushed to the background by the Governance paradigm for a long time, to return to the neo-liberal paradigm through an institutionalist intervention. Furthermore, Stiglitz's subsequent intervention redefined the refreshed state concept under the stage of neo-liberalism. Thus, the institutionalist revision of neo-liberalism was completed. This conjuncture terminated the ground to put forward institutionalism as an alternative to neoliberalism. From then on, neo-liberalism stood out with its new institutional features (Oğuz, 2006).

The relationship between governance and new institutional economics also brings up the approach of "economic imperialism.⁶" Ronald H. Coase

discovered that cooperation within a business reduces transaction costs—such as contracts, negotiations, inspections, quality norm definitions, and price-seeking—of purchasing goods and services from outside. From this point of view, he concluded that the original reason for the existence of the enterprise was reducing these transaction costs. Coase thus noticed a work-sharing within the enterprise that, though resolvable in terms of efficiency, cannot be exchanged commercially. For neo-classical economics, the concept of business, hitherto a closed box, has been reintroduced into the general logic of comparative utility and efficiency, thanks to the calculation of transaction costs.

Coase outlined the foundations of the new institutionalism in his article titled “The Nature of the Firm” in 1937: It is a social thought that efficiently and effectively interprets social and political relations, history (North, Williamson), and internal social relations by the general method of neo-classical economics with purely economic terms (Coase, 1937). This new approach is called “Economic Imperialism” because it tries to spread neo-classical economics to all social sciences.

In the 1970s, “Business governance” and “Governance structures” began to be mentioned within the new corporate school. Specifically, in Williamson’s work (2002), these concepts define the internal policy, internal protocols, contracts, temporary partnerships, and norm usages—in short, all the tools to provide effective coordination—of the enterprise, which is a composite whole. This situation is the metaphor in which politics is reinterpreted in terms of “economic imperialism.” Institutional economists are concerned with the different efficiency mechanisms of power relations inside and outside the enterprise. The next stage will be the basis for the transition “from Fordism to post-Fordism” and from post-Fordism to modern “networked economics.” This situation is the metaphor of “Governance,” namely, the politics of managing people for profit (Brown, 2002).

In-business management discussions affect the concept of governance. The transfer of control from the shareholder to the manager in business management has created tension in the decision-making mechanisms. This tension has led to two categorical formations in job descriptions: The first is the duty of care. The duty of care makes up the legal basis for managerial tasks in business activities. The second category, the duty of loyalty, implying a conflict of interest between managers and shareholders, has necessitated the review of internal decision-making mechanisms. For example: who decides the business investments in new areas? Shareholders or managers? The new decision-making processes of these

two categories within the business revealed the concept of business governance (Scott, 1984; Shleifer and Vishny, 1997).

As a result, the research on Governance and Institutions—new institutional economics—showed that governance generally serves for results, while institution serves for the causes generating these results. However, it is challenging to distinguish between the concepts of governance and institution (Aysan, 2012).

6. Conclusion and Evaluation

In the mid-1990s, some circles started to criticize neo-liberal policies and brought up some approaches, such as “the changing role of the state.” The “changing role of the state” expresses the harmonious cooperation of the “state, market and civil society.” The World Bank used the Governance concept as the glue that holds this triple combination together. The harmonious cooperation of three components—state, market, and civil society—and the adoption of the concept by the World Bank have led to increasing suspicion towards the concept of Governance. In the relevant period, the new institutional economics idea rising and acting as a savior for the congested neo-classical economics caused people to associate it with governance. The concept of governance is significant for understanding the relations among “state, market, and civil society,” while new institutional economics is significant for understanding Governance.

The philosophical background of the governance concept is the new institutional economics. In other words, these two concepts are handled with a relationship of priority and posteriority in the post-1970 period. Governance seems difficult to understand without evaluating the new institutional economics’ relationship with Neo-classical economics, Transaction costs theory, and Business governance.

It is essential to relate Governance to New institutional economics to comprehend the post-1970 world’s economic and political developments, rising civil society debates, and the transition process “from minimal state to effective state.” Such a relationship necessitates an interdisciplinary approach, at least in social sciences.

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CHAPTER XIX

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC CHOICE THEORY

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1. Introduction

Administration is a phenomenon encountered in all areas of life. Administration is also a valid phenomenon in the state, which is the most extensive and comprehensive human structure. Over time, due to the importance attributed to the state or the changes in the definition of the state, the perspective on the state especially on decision makers has also changed. The crises, wars and economic developments in the world has also contributed to this change of perspective. In the traditional, charismatic or divinely organized state, there was absolute loyalty to almost every decision made by the decision makers. However, developments in scientific, economic and intellectual fields have also affected people's evaluations of decision makers, especially politicians. It has been argued that there are many factors and variables affecting the decision-making processes of decision-makers, who were previously seen as omnipotent and thought to serve the public interest. One of the theories systematically explaining these assertions or findings is the public choice theory.

Public choice theory began to take shape in the second half of the 20th century. The public choice theory asserts that public personnel and politicians, like decision makers in the private sector, primarily prioritize their own interests in the process of decision-making. Public choice theorists explain these assertions using the concepts and principles of economics. Scholars who take part in the development of the public choice theory express that decision makers in government institutions will prioritize their own interests over the public interest and social benefit. According to the public choice theory scholars, this is what it

should be and the behaviours of the decision makers should not be surprising. In fact, human beings will strive to maximize their own interests regardless of the given task. Therefore, according to public choice theory scholars, this situation is purely natural. As a result, public choice theory scholars analyzed the existing characteristics of decision makers rather than what these characteristics should be.

2. Public Administration

Administration has a universal meaning. According to social scientists, it is a class or respectability system (Kuluçlu, 2006: 4). For conservatives, there is a parallelism between the concepts of state and social order (Duman, 2011: 44). According to the Marxist understanding, the interest that the state claims to defend in countries, which have adopted the capitalist system, is the interest of the ruling class. And, this class becomes bourgeois. According to the liberal understanding, the policy dissolves in the economy due to its structure, politics and economy are same and integrated with the interests of the state (Tortop et al., 2014: 17-18). Another opinion of public choice theory concerns 'government failure'. While most economists will agree that markets are not perfect, the conventional wisdom that these shortcomings can be corrected by the state is wrong (Maclean, 2011: 47). The classical Administration approach is generally the legal rules in which the state determines the issues that the private sector should or should not do on the grounds of "public interest" (Sariso, 2010: 281). Public choice theory theorists consider the state as an interventionist organization that supports monopolies, eliminates entrepreneurship, narrows the field of choice, and leads to an increase in waste and inefficiency by providing unnecessary services (Özer and Kartal, 2021: 64). Public choice theory has been applied to the behavioral symmetry assumption for policy making in order to illustrate how special interests corrupt the suppositions of benevolence on the part of policy makers (Thomas, 2019: 11). Yet, a brief overview will show not only why Public Choice scholars interested in practical applications should not make this error but why they should recognize the inherent link between Public Choice and Public Administration (Aligica, 2015: 114). Public Choice Theorists hold both classical and Keynesian economists equally responsible for the increasing share of the state in national economies (Kuşat and Dolmacı, 2011: 132).

Since the public administration is in a social system, it is affected by the phenomena arising from the political and economic conjuncture. Naturally, the

processes of change that occur in the administration activity have been built, relatively, on the good or bad aspects of the previous ones. In the field of public administration, the classical system initiated by Fayol and strengthened with Weber was effective in solving the problems experienced in state organizations and other organizations of that day. In this way, the importance of efficiency and productivity in administration was emphasized, and the necessary road map was drawn to achieve the goal of efficiency and productivity in administration. Weber stated that the state has a structure that implements reasonable legal rules, and therefore citizens should comply with the bureaucratic actions and transactions of the state, as they are reasonable (Şahin, 2011: 60).

Weber's bureaucratic administration approach is a discipline that brings the mind to the fore. Therefore, it is the politicians who are in the decision-making position in state offices, which are the product of reason. Politicians make impersonal decisions by following the rules of law, which is a product of reason. Therefore, the decisions taken by politicians will not be for their own interests, but for the public interest. This is one of the basic assumptions of bureaucracy.

2.1. Towards Public Choice Theory

Public choice theory emerged as a result of the economic, political, social and philosophical developments experienced in the third quarter of the 20th century. The theory has been used in predicting political behavior and modeling non-market decisions with the help of rational choices hypothesis (Ağırkaya, 2021: 47). Public choice theory is the product of a process that argues that statist Keynesian policies should be abandoned. What is the meaning to be expressed by public choice theorists that it tries to explain which priorities the public personnel act while fulfilling a duty. Therefore, the word preference refers to a situation such a choice between A and B, as it is expressed in the Oxford dictionary. In other words, the point that is wanted to be explained to us with the theory of public choice is that the priorities and choices of public personnel are not much different from those of private sector employees. As a matter of fact, the aim of public choice theorists is to explain the behavior of public personnel. These explanations are made within the context of the cyclical developments of the age. In this respect, it is important to analyze how decisions are made in the public sector, outside of the market mechanism for public choice theory. While doing this, it also deals with the officer-supervisor relations in the hierarchically shaped public administration system on the axis of individual benefit. For

example, while an officer acts to please his superiors in order to be promoted, the officer can sometimes act outside the classical ethical understanding (Dülgar and Tosun, 2019: 170).

In this framework, public choice theory deals with what the proposed state intervention means to solve market failures. In other words, it focuses on how resources are allocated in the public sector, and resource allocation in the public sector, which is neglected in traditional welfare theory, constitutes the main research area of positive public choice theory (Özkivrak, 2018: 41). Buchanan, who rejected the traditional welfare theory, stated that the benefit can only be measured by individuals who make decisions, either ordinarily or cardinally, so it has a structure in which the benefit can be evaluated subjectively (Odabaş, 2019: 91). It is assumed that many people, from politicians to bureaucrats, will act rationally and prioritize their private interests while making decisions. The issue explored here is how impersonal bureaucrats or politicians can act in the positions they come from or aspire to. In its simplest term, man is not a machine or computer software. The most striking feature that distinguishes man from them is the existence of his self. It is an effort to satisfy the self. The public choice theory also emphasizes the fact that the priority of every working individual, whether it is the private sector or government institutions or organizations, is to satisfy his own self. It is normal for a politician or a bureaucrat to be a human being, just like a manager in the private sector. Thus, he tries to increase his influence by using the public resources he has by carrying out development activities for the place where he works. Although behavioral economists are against it, the rational individual in public choice theory will work in this direction.

Rational choice is an economic discipline that investigates how social events and phenomena depend on individual priorities and preferences under the principles of homo economicus and rational action (Kalkan and Özkan, 2016: 3996). The rational choice theory has some assumptions that support the public choice theory. Because in the theory of rational choices, the individual tries to maximize his own pleasure and interest. The individual here may be a retired person who continues his daily life, or he may be a white-collar employee, bureaucrat or politician in the private sector. Their common point is to satisfy their feelings of pleasure in line with the opportunities provided by the environment they are in. It is also necessary to mention the methodological individualism approach here. Because methodological individualism evaluates the explanation of social phenomena in terms of individual satisfaction.

Therefore, both the work and the beliefs will serve to individual satisfaction. The reflection of the rational choice theory to the public choice theory is that the individual trying to maximize his interests may ignore the public interest (Demir, 2020: 18). Game theory similarly explains an order in which actions and decisions of different actors are to maximize their individual interests and minimize their harms. From the point of view of the Public Choice theory, the relations among the elements in the political process are based on mutual interests (Aktan and Diçiler, 2009: 62).

Keynes's understanding of public administration and welfare state was built on the failure of the market system. Moreover, public choice theory deals with the problems of the Keynesian model and the welfare state through the market system. Therefore, public choice theorists have emphasized the phenomenon of individual choices. They associated the decision makers' preferences with market principles. The public choice critique of economic orthodoxy intervention first articulated a standard regarding behavioral symmetry, which assumed that "the average person will always act according to the same value scale, whether they participate in a political activity or an economic activity" (Buchanan and Tullock, 1962: 23).

2.2. Differentiation Between Classical Public Administration and Public Choice Theory

As it is known, it is accepted that civil servants act impersonally while performing their duties in traditional public administration. In the period when the classical public administration approach was effective, the border between economics and public administration was seen more clearly. Considering the current conditions in the period when classical economists lived, it was clear that this view about the state was justified (Özkıvrak, 2018: 42).

Traditional public administration, which initially emerged in a technical direction with the aim of achieving the distinction between politics and public administration (Ömürgönülşen, 2014: 14), was built on the thoughts of Woodrow Wilson, Max Weber and Frederic Taylor. The fact that public administration in the United States became a separate and elaborated area, which was largely provided by Woodrow Wilson. Public administration was the name given to the structure formed in order to ensure the common needs of citizens and the security of the country. With the emergence and settlement of the nation-state understanding in the 19th century, the foundations of public administration were laid (Toksöz, 2008: 13). According to this understanding, public administration

explains that the government organizes and manages people and goods in order to achieve the short and long-term strategic goals of the state, that the mentioned administration prepares administration plans and programs beforehand and audits it in the process after the administration process (Polatoğlu, 2003: 55).

“There is not a single government task that used to be simple but today is not complex and intricate,” Wilson says in his book entitled *The Study of Administration*. Indeed, while the duties of the states are getting wider and the functions of the government are getting more complex and difficult day by day, there is an increase in the number of these functions as well. Therefore, there must be a science of administration that will seek to facilitate the affairs of government, strengthen and purify the organization of government. According to Wilson, the necessity of such a science was also here (1887: 200-201). The organizational and theoretical ground of traditional public administration is based on Max Weber’s understanding of bureaucracy (Biricikoğlu and Güleler, 2008: 211). Weber’s most important contribution to traditional public administration is the understanding he called the “ideal type”. According to this understanding, Weber foresees a system based on strict rules and structuring and structured on the basis of hierarchical relations. Again, according to this understanding, authority, division of labor, written and official rules have an important place. Weber states that the civil servants in this system will be recruited according to their knowledge, that is, with merit (Polatoğlu, 2003: 64). Since civil servants are appointed on the basis of merit, patronage and nepotism cannot be presented in institutions where bureaucracy is settled (Eryılmaz, 2020: 37). Continuity is essential in Weber’s model of bureaucracy. According to this, those who work in institutions and organizations where bureaucracy is settled are aware that they will transfer their place to others when the time comes. The organization is permanent and continuous. Furthermore, in bureaucracies, the administrative section does not hold the ownership of those they govern, but they are only the trustees who are given to manage during the administration period (Şahin, 2019: 61-65). Therefore, bureaucrats act with the awareness that they are in the position of trustee of the place they are in, regardless of their position or duty. Therefore, whatever they do, they do it in the name of the public interest and in line with the requirements of the state. However, the theory of public choice is based on the theory of individualistic choice, since public opinion is formed by separate actors in society based on their personal decisions and preferences (Gunko, 2018: 40).

According to the theorists of public choice theory, the state, which is an interventionist organization that supports monopolies, destroys entrepreneurship,

narrows the field of choice, and wastes resources with unnecessary service items (Kızılböğü, 2012: 99). In traditional economics, only the decisions and preferences of producers and consumers in the private sector have been analyzed, but public choice discipline brought an innovation to the science of economics by analyzing decision-making and preferences in the public sector other than the private sector (Aktan and Bahçe, 2013: 103). The main subject of public choice theory is the same as the main subject of political science. It can be summarized as state theory, voting rules, voter behavior, party policies, bureaucracy, and pressure groups (Özkıvrak, 2018: 46).

Public choice theory has interacted with some approaches and concepts. The interaction that occurs in public administration with the effect of public choice theory generally manifests itself in three areas. These are public interest, neoliberalism and constitutional economics.

Public interest

The main task of classical public administration is the fulfillment of structural and functional tasks. One of the reasons for the existence of public administration can be shown as the establishment of public interest (Özdemir, 2008: 181). One of the activities required to ensure social peace, welfare, justice and trust in a state is the public interest. Of course, the public interest does not include an interpretation that disregards individual rights and belittles the individual. Officials performing public activities should pay attention to the compliance of their behavior with ethical principles and the importance of individual and social moral values while applying the laws (Özdemir, 2008: 192). Public choice theorists emerged as a reaction against the growth of the state and the “myth” that the government is “philanthropic” and is concerned with the public interest and common good (Demir, 2020:17).

According to the public choice theorists, providing the public interest cannot be achieved with the common values shown collectively as in the classical public administration understanding. According to the public choice theory, utility is only the result of bargains between individuals for profit and loss. The common good in the common public good will therefore be the result of mutual bargaining of profit and loss between individuals, just as in the economy. For example, by considering the activities of political parties in social life and their importance for today’s democracies, we can conclude that they are parts of a public interest realization process that supports the theory of public choice.

Neoliberalism

Liberalism is a political and economic ideology that deals with the rights and freedoms of the individual and rejects all kind of restrictions against the rights and freedoms of the individual, especially the state (İnce, 2008: 24). Liberal thought advocates the market mechanism system as an economic system. In classical liberalism, the security problem is not limited to ensuring the safety of life and property of citizens, but at the same time, generating maximum social benefit from social cooperation depends on individuals' trust in each other during all kind of exchanges (Kalkan and Özkan, 2016: 3996). This will lead people to the path of exchange. While neoliberalism supports the assumptions in the public choice theory, it has also led to the reinterpretation of the concept of public interest.

It can be said that some perception changes were effective in the transition from classical liberalism to neoliberal understanding. Especially with Keynes's statement that the market also has a tendency to destabilize and that the market can come back to balance even under underemployment conditions, the new liberals have question about the current liberal system. In this process, while the new liberals started to lose their trust in the market mechanism, they started to trust the state more as a control tool (İnce, 2008: 37). A different interpretation has been made while defining the neoliberal understanding. According to this interpretation, Neoliberalism does not separate economy and politics. It advocates the absolute dominance of the market in social life and production (Kilim, 2009: 2). Similarly, public choice theory says that there is no difference between behaviors that take into account economic expectations and political decision-making behaviors.

Constitutional Economics

The basic subject of constitutional economics includes the principles that draw the framework of human economic behavior (Sakal and Şahin, 2009: 78). As a reflection of the theory of public choice, constitutional economics is a scientific approach that came to the fore after the second world war and explains economic decision-making preferences in the political process according to the methods and assumptions of economics (Baysuğ, 2017: 87). As can be understood from this evaluation, it can be said that public choice theory has an important place in the formation of constitutional economics.

Constitutional Economics advocates the determination of political rules and institutions that will create a good social order based on social contract

theory (Kızılboga, 2012: 102). The efforts of individuals to maximize their profits may cause chaos or corruption in the field of economics. Constitutional economics is also an approach in which the rules of the economy are set within the constitutional framework. By using the tools of constitutional economics, the behavior of politicians and other actors can be controlled. By functioning as an automatic stabilizer, constitutional economics becomes one of the tools that operates the process in public choice theory.

3. Public Choice Theory

Kenneth ARROW, Duncan BLACK, Anthony DOWNS, Mancur OLSON, James M. BUCHANAN, and Gordon TULLOC are the scholars who brought public choice theory to the literature. Political and economic conditions played an important role in the formation of public choice theory. Since the 1950s, social scientists have developed an interest in the political dimension of economic growth and development. This new interest has come from the fact that traditional development models have not been able to provide effective solutions to the problems of poverty and underdevelopment in many regions of the world (Mbaku, 2008: 429). The foundations of the theory, whose idea environment was prepared in the 1950s, started to be laid in the 1960s and the idea of public choice theory has spread since the 1970s.

In the early 1960s, Gordon Tullock and James M. Buchanan, who had been studying the political dimension of wealth creation and economic growth, introduced the public choice model as a more effective and intellectually satisfying paradigm for the analysis of public policy (Mbaku, 2008: 429). The pioneers of the public choice theory are James M. Buchanan and Gordon Tullock with their book “The Calculus of Consent”, but we can say that Buchanan and Tullock were influenced by Knut Wicksell and even considered Wicksell as one of the first pioneers of the Public Choice approach (Kul and Yuksel, 2018: 91). Public choice theory is a theory that explains the relations between decisions taken in public administration with politics and economy and the behavior of individuals operating in this field. The assumption of the public choice theory is that individuals see their individual benefits above the public interest when making political decisions. After the Second World War, with the excessive growth of the public sector, continuous and high budget deficits and inflation, Keynesian policies began to be discussed seriously and intensely (Baysuğ, 2017: 89). According to this theory, the individual does not consider the needs of the public institution and citizens as a priority when making political or

administrative decisions. The important thing for him is to satisfy his individual profit and pleasure.

Public choice applies the methods of economists to politics and specifically addresses two main problems (Aktan and Bahçe, 2013: 103). These are the problem of collective activity and the problem of total preferences. In fact, it is the analysis of economists on the behavior of politicians and decision makers. This analysis is about sometimes congruent and sometimes conflicting interests. The main contribution of the public choice theory to the public administration literature, as well as its main thesis, is that there is a natural balance between the interests of politicians, voters, interest groups, bureaucrats, and legislators in a democracy (Kurun, 2018: 87).

Buchanan defines public choice theory as follows (Buchanan, 1991): *Public choice theory essentially takes tools and methods developed in economic theory for highly detailed analysis and applies these tools and methods to the political process, public sector, policy and public economy. Public choice analysis, as in the public economy, individual actors in the public sector. For example, it tries to relate the behavior of voters, candidates for government, deputies, leaders or members of political parties, bureaucrats (all of which refer to actors who play a role in public choice) with the combination of results we observe or can observe. Public choice theory provides an explanation for the complex institutional interactions that take place in the political sector. I emphasize the word “complex” here. Because an appropriate comparison to be made is an approach that shapes the state as a kind of monolithic entity structure, unlike individuals who participate in the process as an entity on their own.*

Tullock (2002: 6-7) makes the following definition when comparing the decision makers in the public with the decision makers in the private sector: *In considering the consequences of this simple view of government one special problem exist, economists have based their predictions on the notion that purchasers in the market are perfectly informed. Unfortunately, in the case of politics the information problem is much worse than it is in the market. Consider the following example of individual behavioral incentives in a private market choice. In purchasing an automobile I invest a certain amount of time and resources in learning about new cars, for the example reason that I know a mistake will directly affect me and my wallet, convenience, and comfort.*

According to the public choice theory, people, decision makers in particular, do not act on the principle of social benefit. For the Public Choice Theory, there are four basic groups that make up the economic and social life. These are politicians, bureaucrats, voters, pressure and interest groups (Kul and Yüksel,

2018: 99). Public Choice Theory also is the result of individual subjective evaluations faced by groups or organizations independent of individuals, unlike the social interest approach (Özer and Kartal, 2021: 50). The Public Choice Theory emphasizes that all four groups will exhibit attitudes towards their own benefit maximization and that the political equilibrium will be reached through an exchange in which each group will provide its own benefit (Kul and Yüksel, 2018: 99). According to Buchanan, Public Choice Theory aims to establish a link between economics and political science. It is a working discipline (Odabaş, 2019: 99).

Public choice is a discipline that explains the decisions and practices taken in the political process with the tools, methods and assumptions used by economics. In other words, Public Choice analyzes the issues of political science with the help of the tools and techniques of economics (Baysuğ, 2017: 91). While the Public Choice Theory evaluates political events from an economist's point of view, it is generally based on the failure of the state. According to theorists, there is a direct correlation between the increase in the efficiency of the state in the economy and the increase in economic and bureaucratic corruption (Özer and Kartal, 2021: 51). One of the most important effects of public choice theory has been the expansion of the field of positive analysis in public finance (Buchanan, 1989: 131).

Politicians, including not only political-party members but also the representatives of organized groups, do make statements about distributional justice and do argue such notions as the reason for various policy demands (Lane, 1990: 72). Tullock has recently argued that these serious problems have to be faced within the framework of public choice analysis and not be resolved by means of simple fiat placing the burden of argument with those who question these implications (Tullock, 1987: 165). They are likely to seek to further their own well-defined interests (Buchanan, 1988: 11). According to Lane, the principles of public choice theory in the literature are listed as follows (Lane, 1990: 76-80):

I. Methodological Individualism: When the simplicity theory about human motivation is combined with a strong version of the doctrine of methodological individualism, the difficulties become pronounced. What is meant by methodological individualism is the individual; Man is primarily an individual, whether the social group is huge groups or large public institutions.

II. The Wicksell State Ideology: Buchanan (1987: 244), Referring to Wicksell's statement, "If there is no individual benefit in society, there is no social benefit", he defined a systemic explanation of a natural phenomenon

for public choice theory. The Virginia version of the public choice approach is not just a positive theory about the public sector based on the two fundamental assumptions of utility maximization and methodological individualism. Crucial in the Virginia interpretation is also a normative theory about the state that is straightforward ideology of a neo-liberal kind, or what used to be called Manchester liberalism. It is vehemently opposed to the welfare state and its justification in externalities and equity. The foundation of the normative approach is the elements of a state theory proposed in 1896 by Knut Wicksell in *A New Principle of Just Taxation*, in which Wicksell launched his special decision rule for policy-making, which is the unanimity rule. In a very original way, Buchanan has employed the unanimity rule as the basis for a contractarian theory of the state. Considering the fact that the Wicksell idea never had any practical consequences, the article was not even available for a wider Swedish audience until 1987, this is no small accomplishment (Buchanan, 1986).

While explaining the public choice theory, Wicksell highlights methodological individualism, *homo economicus*, and political exchange as the three basic principles of the theory (Buchanan, 1987):

Methodological Individualism: According to this principle, decision makers are individuals. In social groups or other similar formations, decision makers are individuals. Therefore, when making decisions, individuals give priority to their own interests rather than the general interests of the human community.

Homo Economicus: Public choice theory rejects the idea that social interest can be produced. Individuals work for their own interests within the framework of certain rules and priorities. In order to talk about a social interest, it is necessary to calculate the total interests of people as individuals.

Political Exchange: It is the political relations between this principle and the individual involved in the decision-making processes. These political relations are more comprehensive and complex than economic relations. Here, individuals make decisions by acting according to the situations encountered.

III. *Politics as Exchange:* The axiom of politics as exchange means that each and every public policy must be based on the consent of all the citizens, as unanimity is the criterion for which the policy works in the interest of the citizen. This is certainly, as Buchanan emphasizes, a very optimistic interpretation of the nature of politics as legitimated by the interests of the citizens. However, this is not positive theory but elements of an ethical theory of the state. In the public choice domain, which the public choice approach is aimed at understanding, politics reveals itself in a number of different ways. These are coercion over

corporate interests formed at the expense of consumer interests and the few cases where broad citizen interests rule. The unanimity rule introduced by Wicksell may be given two different interpretations between which Buchanan does not distinguish. Additionally, we have the positivist interpretation meaning that politics is exchange between individuals in a setting of political institutions.

IV. Constitutional Economics: The normative framework in the Virginia public choice interpretation becomes very visible in the theory about economic constitutionalism. The theory of normative public policy is to be a theory about the rules of the political decision-making process which could meet with unanimity. At the same time as the notion of a constitutional economics is a normative one, it is a part of a highly restricted normative theory about politics. It not only admonishes the public choice scholar to evaluate existing politico-economic institutions but also forbids all evaluative approaches except the unanimity rule.

4. Conclusion

From the day when people started to live under the roof of the state organization; There have been many changes both in the definitions of the state and in the state organizations. The classical public administration approach reveals an understanding that the government officials fulfill their duties with a focus on the public's benefit, peace and the interest of the society. Perhaps the definition here may be due to the need to accept a feature that should be as if it had happened. Or perhaps it can also be considered as an expression of the characteristics expected from people performing a public service. Public choice theory explains many relations from politicians to pressure groups by applying the principles, concepts, and methods of economics.

According to the theory, whichever job people do, they are primarily individuals. The definition of individuals in economics is the effort to maximize the individual's many demands such as pleasure, pride and financial gain throughout his life. Therefore, the individual in the government will try to maximize his feelings of pleasure and interest by generally reconciling and sometimes conflicting with other people. According to the theory, the reason for that is, people make individual decisions and try to maximize their profits. For the individual here, the control gap is the limits that constitutional economics can set.

For the individual, the opportunities given by the position should primarily serve the individual's interests. Therefore, collective goals and ideals such as the public welfare are unrealistic. It is a state of conflict with one's own nature.

Therefore, the public choice theory criticizes statist policies and the viewpoint towards the state because the classical definition of public servant is not valid for them. Whether the person works in a public institution or in the private sector, the demands will always be the same. Therefore, public choice theory analyzes how the relations in this structure ranging from politicians to bureaucrats occur.

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CHAPTER XX

DIGITALIZATION IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS OF E-GOVERNMENT IN TURKEY

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1. Introduction

Rapid improvements in information and communication technologies have resulted in the birth of a new era called the information age. The information age necessitates competence in information technology, the ability to use them effectively, and the ability to process and produce information. Transformational and changing actions are observed in every step of the information age. Information and communication technologies facilitate every sphere of life by processing, reproduction, sorting, classifying, and transferring information through networks. It takes on an important strategic mission that shapes the socio-economic future of nations and determines whether or not they are first- or second-class (Tamtürk, 2017: 852).

In the age of information and communication technologies, the utilization of information and communication technologies is crucial in terms of ensuring everyone has access to information. The computer is the most commonly utilized instrument for digital information technologies developed with electronic and digital methods. However, smartphones have gained popularity alongside computers over time. Today, information and communication technology have made it possible for various institutions, organizations, companies, and company owners to gain access to the entire database. They are employed in many fields, including everyday life, health, transportation, banking, the

economy, communication, production, engineering, architecture, and industry (URL 1).

The advancements in information technology have provided solutions to the problems caused by the traditional public administration mentality and established a good communication network between the government and the citizens. In the era of information and technology, positive developments have been observed through e-government applications to improve public service efficiency, facilitate communication with public institutions, and expedite and improve the functionality of communication between citizens and the government.

The process of digitization, which was brought about by technical advancements in the fulfillment of public services, has also had an impact on how those services function. In accordance with the demands of the era and the requirements of public administration, the functioning of public institutions has evolved into a digital structure. Because of the disruption of public services and the slow operations of bureaucratic procedures, e-government has gained importance. E-government applications improved the information processing capacity, and a government structure capable of responding to emerging needs and making quick decisions has been established. The Electronic Government operates in four stages: information, communication, transaction, and transformation. In the first stage, government institutions and organizations provide citizens with information through their websites. The second stage allows citizens to express their demands and needs via the electronic system, which strengthens the network of communication between the citizen and the government. In the third stage, transactions, including payments for a passport, driver's license, and tax, are conducted swiftly through electronic media. In the final stage, information systems are merged so that citizens can access public services from a single location, which ensures the transformation of relations between government institutions and other establishments. The Electronic Government is based on the principles of developing public services in accordance with the needs and desires of citizens, ensuring societal participation, making public services more accessible, and attempting to deliver information more efficiently and effectively (Strict, 2021: 1-2).

This study investigates Digitalization in Public Administration: The Development Process of Electronic Government in Turkey. The primary reason for addressing this topic is to examine the extent to which countries that aim to make public services more effective and transparent benefit from information

and communication technology, as well as the repercussions of this situation on the development of countries. Turkey is the specific focus of the study. In this regard, Turkey, which is a developing nation, has adopted the electronic government system alongside other developing nations and has been among the countries that have managed this process efficiently. The present study seeks to uncover the development process of the e-government system and its effects on public administration in Turkey.

2. The Concept of Electronic Government

Government is a legal entity based on the territorial integrity of a nation or society possessing political authority, and its power is determined by the quality of its services. The modernization efforts of society and the rapid change in technology impose important responsibilities on the government. The traditional understanding of the government falls far short of providing the service needs of society. In this framework, the service provided by the government to its citizens should be transparent and easy to understand (Demirel, 2006). This situation illustrates the need for a governmental mechanism that can adapt to the changes brought on by the modern era. With the advancements in the information system and the widespread use of the internet, the relationships between the government, its citizens, and its businesses have taken on a new dimension, and the e-government concept has emerged to meet the demands of the era (Çevik, 2004).

The development of e-government emerged only in information technologies in the 1960s and 1970s. The widespread use of personal computers in the 1980s was a major turning point for e-government. Later on, the increased usage of computers in public institutions enabled the decentralization of information management activities. In the 1990s, the rapid development of the internet and the increase in information production made it possible for significant advancements to be made in e-government. In this context, the concept of “e-government” was first used in 1993 during the “National Performance Research” conducted in the United States (Maraş, 2011: 122).

There are many definitions of the concept of “e-government” in the literature. One of these definitions, given by West, states that e-government is the online provision of governmental actions and transactions to the public, made possible by using the internet and other digital instruments. Another definition states that e-government is the intensive and widespread use of information and communication technology to meet the governmental services demands (Şahin

and Örselli, 2003: 344). Based on all of these considerations, e-government can be defined in its simplest form as the provision of government-provided services to citizens in an electronic environment. In a broad sense, e-government is the process of executing duties and responsibilities the government and citizens have toward one another in a mutually reliable and uninterrupted manner in developed societies (Çarıkçı ve Yavuz, 2010: 98). Although e-government is attempted to be defined as a virtual government in certain transactions, E-Government is the restructuring of the real-world government in accordance with the needs of the era through the use of information and communication technology. In reality, e-government is a way of life that demands ongoing supervision and monitoring (Şahin ve Örselli, 2003: 344).

E-government, which emerged to address society's growing needs, is not only a service and technological concept but also a way for the government to communicate with all its stakeholders (Demirhan ve Türkoğlu, 2014: 238). Based on these definitions; E-government applications aim to provide faster, more affordable, higher-quality services, strengthen relationships with citizens, provide faster access to information, increase societal productivity, develop an active administrative structure, and improve public services above international standards (Şahin ve Örselli, 2003: 345; Çelikkol, 2008: 75).

Moreover, the concept of e-government differs based on the management understanding of the countries. A well-functioning e-government system indicates that a country has a more effective communication technologies infrastructure and is able to construct a dynamic government structure.

3. Comparison of Traditional Government and E-Government

The outcomes of the “electronic government,” abbreviated “e-government” due to the technological infrastructure, are significantly higher than expected. E-government mostly emphasizes the utilization of technology. E-government assumes important roles in assuring the strategic use, efficiency, transparency, and development of information technologies, providing electronic communication between citizens and institutions, and restructuring processes (Bozkurt, 2017: 100).

Uçkan has made a comparison between the traditional government and the e-government to highlight the differences that will take place in the perceptions between the e-government, government, and citizen. The findings are summarized in Table 1 (Uçkan, 2003: 47).

The findings in Table 1 highlight citizens' active participation in e-government while revealing their passivity in traditional government. The electronic structure serves as the foundation for communication, while the

horizontal structure forms the organizational structure in the e-government. In the management approach of e-government, governance is prioritized, audits are performed automatically, and payments are delivered by electronic money transfer. In addition, the relationship between differentiated service, low transaction costs, efficiency, and participation is taken as a basis. On the basis of these findings, the e-government model is regarded as a participation-based democratic method.

Table 1. The Viewpoint of the Traditional Government and the E-Government Towards Citizens and Public Administration

Comparative View	Traditional Government	E-Government
Role of Citizen	Passive Citizen	Active Citizen
Fundamentals of Communication	Communication Through Paperwork or Face to Face	Electronic Communication
Hierarchical Structure	Vertical Configuration	Horizontal Configuration
Data Entry	Data Entry of the Management	Data Entry of the Citizen
Debriefing	Personnel Response	Voicemail or Call Center Response
Cooperation Relationship	Personnel Assistance	Self-help/expert help
Management Mentality	Classic Management	Governance
Audit Structure	Personnel-Based Inspection Mechanism	Audit Through Automatic Data Update
Payment Method	Cash Flow / Check	Wire Transfer
Quality of Service	Standardized Service	Personalized/Differentiated Service
Transaction Costs	High Transaction Costs	Low Transaction Costs
Efficiency Relationship	Inefficient Growth	Efficiency Management
Mode of Interaction	One-Way Interaction	Interaction
Relationship Status	Nationality Relationship	Participation Relationship
The Government's Dimension	Closed Government	Open Government

Source: Balcı, A., et al., (2003): 267.; Uçkan, 2003: 47).

The comparison between traditional government and e-government frequently appears in the literature. Following the studies by Balcı et al. and Uçkan, Yılmaz, and Bozkurt (2011) addressed the comparison between the traditional government and e-government from a different angle. In contrast to the classical government mentality, which is characterized by a structure dominated by bureaucracy, excessive waste of time and resources, and constant change of administrators, the e-government mentality addresses participatory and continuous democracy, open and transparent government understanding, strengthening the society, and resolving the transactions swiftly.

In light of the findings obtained from the literature, while the traditional government is defined as a closed, inefficient structure that produces uniform

services and allows one-way communication, the e-government reveals a structure that is open, efficient, creates an interactive environment, and produces personalized services. Although e-government is a necessary application, certain qualifications must be highlighted. Citizens take an active role in e-government; however, the activity has a low level of effectiveness. Bureaucrats have significant responsibilities for enhancing the effectiveness of e-government. Consequently, it is crucial to construct the software and hardware infrastructure, transfer public services to the electronic environment, and educate public officials.

4. The Advantages and Limitations of E-Government

Although e-government services offer certain benefits, they also have significant limitations. The interaction area and a number of advantages give e-government services an advantage. Related findings are presented in Table 2. Table 2 summarizes the interactions between e-government, government and citizens, government and commercial institutions, government and suppliers, and government with public institutions.

Table 2. Advantages Obtained from E-Government Service

Type of Interaction	Areas of Interaction	Advantages
Government-Citizen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Information ✓ Education ✓ Health ✓ Culture ✓ Tax 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Decrease in Transaction Cost ✓ Diversity in distribution channels ✓ Fast and easy personalized service ✓ Transparency
Government-Commercial Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Tax ✓ Support programs ✓ Regulations ✓ Advice and Guidance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Decrease in Transaction Cost ✓ Decrease in Bureaucracy ✓ Effectiveness in Communication
Government-Suppliers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ E-purchase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Decrease in Transaction Cost ✓ Increase in productivity
Public Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Interaction between Public Institutions ✓ Interaction between Central and Local Authorities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Flexible Working Environment ✓ Transparency in Information Sharing ✓ Increase in productivity

Source: Aktan (2003).

As shown in Table 2, all services, ranging from education to health, culture to taxes, working environment to production growth, interact with citizens and institutions. This interaction offers stakeholders various benefits within the context of e-government.

In an overall evaluation, e-government services have considerable effects on corporate efficiency, transaction time, business and transaction volume, and stationery (Demirhan and Türkoğlu, 2014). As a result of the employment of technology in public services, internet-based electronic instruments are chosen over paper for the internal and external correspondence of public institutions. Through widespread employment of these instruments, bureaucracy is picking up speed, processing times are decreasing, and significant time and paper cost savings are being realized (Metin, 2012). One other advantage that e-government offers is that it facilitates e-participation. Through the e-government gateway, citizens can transmit their desires, requests, and complaints to relevant agencies, which allows residents to participate directly in the decision-making, problem-solving, and policy-making processes of the central government (Bozkurt, 2017: 104).

In addition to all of these advantages, e-government services have a number of limitations. In 2011, Demirhan related these limitations to digital divisions, technology abuse, security vulnerabilities, and economic, political, and cultural issues. In terms of access to technology, there is unbalanced distribution. Not all citizens have equal access to e-government services. The successful use of existing technology by individuals or groups reveals a limitation, such as the theft of personal information or the use of cyberattacks for personal gain. In addition to all of these factors, sociocultural characteristics, financial needs, and personal preferences also arise as limitations.

5. The Development Process of E-Government in Turkey

Rapid technological advancement, which has increased the economic gap between developed and developing countries, has raised competition between nations and revealed the need for new strategies in the information society. In the 1980s, the public sector was subjected to intense criticism over its performance and functioning, and in response to these complaints, an expectation arose that the traditional government approach should be abandoned. The slow functioning of bureaucratic affairs, the presence of ineffective practices in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, and the severe criticism of citizens who cannot use public services at the time of desire have led public administrations to conduct new

searches (Çukurçayır, 2009: 1). In order to avoid falling behind the times, countries needed to adopt a structure that incorporated cutting-edge technology and modern management techniques and placed the service at the forefront. One of the most significant cornerstones of all these structures is “e-government”.

In Turkey, the transition to e-government began in the 1980s. During these times, when liberal policies gained prominence, significant research on the formation of the government began. On the other hand, the transition to electronic government accelerated from the 1990s to the 2000s, and technology and science policies began to evolve. The radical transformation in information and technology that occurred in the 2000s impacted Turkey as much as the rest of the world. The adoption of the “E-Europe action plan” during this time period had a significant impact on Turkey. In this way, “E-Turkey” laid the groundwork for the information society. In order to facilitate the use of information and communication technologies and to transfer the interaction between the government and the citizen to the electronic environment, the Public Technical Board underwent considerable structural changes in 2002, and it was decided to establish a government portal (Çarıkçı and Yavuz, 2010: 103). Later on, many other projects were planned and implemented, which laid the foundation for a variety of e-government applications. The most significant application is the “E-transformation Turkey Project” (SPO, 2003). In 2005, e-transformation action plan was developed. 50 actions are outlined within the frame of this plan. Information Society Strategy and Action Plan, which constitute the most important part of the developments in the field of e-government, came into effect in 2006. Following the implementation of this plan, there were deficiencies and delays. Accordingly, an e-government Advisory Group was established in 2008 to expedite the transactions. Some projects in this group have been prioritized. These projects include e-auction, online vehicle registration, e-criminal record, e-appointment, e-tax, e-commerce, e-environmental permit, consumer portal, and online legal proceedings (URL 2).

The “One-Click Service” application, developed by the General Directorate of Social Assistance and Solidarity under the Ministry of Family and Social Policies in 2011 and was put into practice with the Social Assistance Information System (SOYBIS), quickly provided 28 distinct inquiries under 13 headings. With this application, the fact that approximately one million documents every month fell onto disuse and millions of Turkish liras were saved has become the most notable aspect of e-government applications in Turkey (Yılmaz and Bozkurt, 2014: 308).

The Information Society Strategy and Action Plan by the Ministry of Development between 2015 and 2018 and the National E-Government Strategy and Action Plan by the Ministry of Transport, Maritime Affairs, and Communications between 2016 and 2019 are recent developments in the field of e-government in Turkey. During this time, the Information Society Strategy Project and Participation Portal were established, and many technological opportunities, including social media, began to be utilized (URL 2).

The launch of the internet in Turkey in 1993 is the foundation of e-government advancements in the country. However, there is no law that addresses e-government in all its aspects in Turkey, and the laws and regulations on the subject are disorganized. For instance, e-government-related laws include the Right to Information, the Universal Service Law, and the Electronic Signature Law. The 2016 Personal Data Protection Law is the latest and most recent example that may be evaluated with regard to this subject.

Prior to the transition to the presidential system, e-government activities in Turkey were partial. With the transition to a presidential government system in 2018, new administrative structures have formed, including existing ministries, institutions, and organizations that execute e-government activities. Accordingly, the Department of E-Government Services manages the services in the e-government field which has three branch directorates. Apart from these, the Information and Communication Technology Department and the Digital Transformation Office are among the other organizations operating in the field of e-government in Turkey (URL 2).

6. E-Government Applications in Turkey

In Turkey, e-government practices have mainly emerged from the independent initiatives of various institutions within the central government (Köseçik and Karhn, 2004: 123). The most effective of these applications is the Central Population Management System (MERNIS). Each person was assigned a unique identification number when the project was initiated in 1972. In 2002, the project was launched online. Tax Offices Automation Project (VEDOP) is another initiative that supports the e-government application. It is a project conducted within the body of the General Directorate of Revenue of the Ministry of Finance, which comprises 22 provinces and 10 district centers, connects 153 tax offices to the center through a shared network, and enables these tax offices to perform services electronically. The scope of this project was then broadened, and VEDOP II was put into practice, allowing citizens to carry out tax-related

transactions electronically. Accordingly, the automation of 300 tax offices was completed with an application covering 81 provinces. In October 2004, the application for obtaining declarations through the Internet (e-Declaration) was launched as part of this project. Moreover, the Modernization of the Customs Administration (GIMOP) and all customs procedures were planned to be automated. Through this application, 99.5% of all international trade transactions in 69 customs administrations are now conducted electronically (Erdem, 2014: 739).

Today, there are many projects that offer services within the body of the current e-government structure. These projects are covered by Turkish National Information Systems (KAMUNET). In this context, projects involving a messaging system, data banks, data dictionary, digital maps, and information security infrastructure can be diversified as follows (Çelen, Çelik, and Seferoğlu, 2011: 3; Erdem, 2014: 739):

- Population and Citizenship Information System,
- Land Registry and Cadaster Information System,
- Ministry of Finance Information System,
- Ministry of Justice Information System,
- Health Information Systems,
- and Social Security Information Systems.

The elements that will play a significant role in Turkey's transition to information society must be thoroughly analyzed. Accordingly, the elements of citizen-government-information-computing-R&D and innovation should be in cooperation (DPT, 2006; Erdem, 2014: 740). In order to provide citizen-government interaction, <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr> address has been established. This website can only be used for informational purposes and inquiries. The citizens can access all of their information by clicking on the link that belongs to them. Today, the e-government gateway fulfills most of the need for inquiries and forms.

7. Potential Benefits of E-Government Applications for the Government

E-government has become a part of both the change and adaptation processes due to digital transformation and the increase in the number of technological products used. During this process, e-government has the potential to enhance the effectiveness of public administration, the savings of public institutions, the quality of service delivery, and the transparency of political authority.

7.1. Efficiency

Efficiency is one of the potential advantages of e-government for the functioning of public institutions and organizations and the production of services. There are two basic practices that increase efficiency. The first practice aims to increase labor productivity by automating administrative processes. The second practice increases efficiency by reducing the cost of public procurement. In order to achieve these, a market network, competitiveness, and effective market research are required and transparency and efficiency gains prominence. In this context, reform-oriented electronic auctions (e-auction) have become the government's preference and with the implementation of the e-auction, abuse of public funds and corruption have been prevented. Efficiency can also be increased by ensuring strong cooperation and coordination. It is essential to consider the cooperation among institutions to address the growing service and networking needs in public institutions (Ozan, 2020: 732).

On the other hand, national governments should act in compliance with the law while establishing their own standards and not restrict technological innovation and market competitiveness. The regulation of these measures by governments will also improve the internal efficiency gains and technical benefits that e-government will offer to institutions.

7.2. Service Delivery

The objective of e-government applications is to improve public functioning capabilities and the delivery of public services. In order to reach this objective, it is essential to ensure efficiency in resource distribution. Moreover, efficient utilization of resources can facilitate determining the extent to which service or infrastructure packages are suitable for consumer preferences. This should not just be considered in public institutions and organizations but also the distribution of resources.

Then, resources will be distributed to proper channels, and the time required to acquire services will be reduced (Ozan, 2020: 733).

7.3. Savings

The e-government application offers the ability to share information and documents electronically between institutions, prevent human errors, accelerate business processes, and perform all transactions electronically. These benefits decrease or eliminate costs associated with time, personnel, labor, stationery,

mail, transportation, and communication, which makes it possible to state that e-government practices in public institutions increase the amount of savings. The obtained results back up this assertion. In 2010, stationery and transportation costs were reduced by 11,8 million TL through SOYBIS, which was put into practice by the General Directorate of Social Assistance and Solidarity. Similarly, the National Judicial Network Project (UYAP), Electronic Invoice Recording System (EFKS), Vehicle and Driver Information System (ASBIS), and SOYBIS provided savings of approximately 2,643,771,223.25 TL annually through the use of e-government applications (Akcagündüz, 2013: 139).

7.4. Transparency of Political Processes

The growing interest in e-government has made prominent the issues about participation in political processes, the intensification of information and communication flows, the development of the capacity of public institutions, and openness and transparency of public affairs. The gradual evolution of these issues into a general pattern has facilitated their incorporation into e-government. Indeed, technological advances provide access to information sources, facilitate political discourse, and empower government authority to make a move. In addition to all of these positive developments, and even if the proper steps are taken to enhance the functioning of the e-government, the inadequacy of the initial investments made in e-government applications can prevent the anticipated gains from being realized. At this point, investments in information and communication technology should be improved (Ebrahim and Irani, 2005: 594-596; Ozan, 2022: 732).

CONCLUSION AND EVALUATION

Significant progress has been made in Turkey toward the establishment of e-government through the use of information and communication technologies, with the goals of delivering more effective and efficient public services and providing faster, quality, and reliable service to citizens and business environments of public institutions and organizations. The report titled “Global Information Technology” is a significant study in terms of assessing Turkey’s digitalization status and examining the country’s technical infrastructure indicators in addition to its ability to develop technology, the level of service provision and development, human capital, and legal arrangements. According to this report, Turkey placed 50th out of 82 countries in 2002-2003 and 56th out

of 106 countries in 2003-2004. (SPO, 2004). According to the “E-Government Turkey Survey” conducted by the OECD in 2006, Turkey has made substantial progress in the use of e-government and in making the government more accountable in terms of e-government efficiency.

With the onset of the 2000s, e-government applications began to be utilized in nearly all areas of public service delivery at a growing rate. E-government applications such as MERNS, TAKBS, UYAP, ASBIS, and EFKS, which have been made available to citizens and private sector institutions by public institutions during the past few years, are among the most effective and widely used applications of the modern era. One-Step Service Application,” on the other hand, is an e-government service that could not find a place in the public’s agenda because of its content and quality differences from standard e-government practices. This service, which has been in operation since 2006, has not yet been the topic of an academic study in the public administration literature, either because it was developed to address the needs of a particular community or because it is not widely available in the printed and/or visual media. Besides a small amount of numerical data released to the public by the relevant public institutions, no information has been provided about the “One-Step Service Application,” a more common service since the introduction of SOYBIS. As of 2012, the transformation of “One-Step Service Application” into new and independent units established within the Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundations is an appropriate arrangement that will increase quality and effectiveness in public service delivery.

In 2011, SOYBIS’ “One-touch Service” application performed 28 separate inquiries organized under 13 headings in a matter of seconds. With this application, the fact that approximately one million documents every month fell into disuse and millions of Turkish liras were saved has become the most notable aspect of e-government applications in Turkey.

The Information Society Strategy and Action Plan by the Ministry of Development between 2015 and 2018 and the National E-Government Strategy and Action Plan by the Ministry of Transport, Maritime Affairs, and Communications between 2016 and 2019 are recent developments in the field of e-government in Turkey. Within the scope of these plans, the Information Society Strategy Project and Participation Portal were established, and all technological opportunities, including social media, began to be utilized.

Consequently, it is essential to analyze the factors that will play an active role in Turkey’s transformation into an information society, to continuously

improve public service standards, meet the needs and expectations of citizens efficiently, and expand the number and quality of e-government applications.

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CHAPTER XXI

EVALUATION OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN SMART CITIES: ISTANBUL PROVINCE EXAMPLE

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1. Introduction

The concept of smart city has emerged with the widespread use of developments in information and communication technologies in urban areas. smart city; Cities supported by advanced technologies, smart economy, smart environment, smart life, smart mobility, smart people and smart governance in order to increase the economic, social and cultural life quality of citizens. With the concept of smart city, it is aimed to increase the quality of life by solving the problems created by industrialization (Simonofski, Hertoghe, Steegmans, Snoeck, & Wautelet, 2021). Today, based on the developments in the smart city philosophy, investments in social capital, information and communication technologies in urban areas are used to significantly increase the quality of life by promoting sustainable and economic development through participatory governance. However, both in the scientific studies and in the reports prepared by internationally recognized institutions and organizations such as the European Commission, the European Parliament and the European

Council, it has been concluded that participation with smart applications cannot provide full effectiveness and efficiency (Galderisi, 2018).

In this context, in this study, it is aimed to measure the effect of smart city applications on participation in decision-making processes in the province of Istanbul, based on the data collected by the survey method, which is among the quantitative research methods. In this context, the study, which aims to measure the participation decisions in the province of Istanbul, which is among the most successful examples of smart city applications in Turkey, consists of two main parts. In the first chapter, the concept of smart city is emphasized, and it is emphasized how citizen participation is discussed in the literature. In the second part, the relationships between demographic and descriptive features for smart city applications were examined based on the survey interview outputs. The main limitation of the study is that the survey cannot be generalized for the whole of Turkey since it was conducted in the province of Istanbul.

2. The Smart City Concept and Its Basic Components

Increasing industrialization movements and technological developments in the 19th century and later increased the opportunities and labor demand in urban areas significantly. When the positive conditions created by these developments are combined with the driving factors such as mechanization in agriculture in rural areas, security problems, division of lands through inheritance, and insufficient rural infrastructure opportunities, urban areas have become centers of attraction that receive intense migration (Koyuncu, 2015: 50-63). This rapid population growth has revealed many risks and problems in urban areas over time, such as squatting, unregistered settlements, lack of basic infrastructure, security, housing and transportation inadequacies (Şahin, 2013; Grierson, 2007). One of the approaches put forward by various disciplines in order to solve these problems that emerged in the post-industrialization process is the philosophy of the smart city (Mirghaem, 2019). Although it is difficult to define the concept due to the diversity of the technological elements used and the study by different disciplines, there are various definitions in the literature (Uçar, Şemşit, & Negis, 2017).

Smart city; It is defined as a city shape that takes precautions for the protection of critical infrastructures such as roads, bridges, water resources, subways, energy infrastructure, optimizes resources and provides high-level services to citizens, especially security. These cities aim to solve the problems

in urban areas through technological databases and electronic networks (Hall, 2000). In addition to these networks, smart cities focus on improving the quality of life through creative economies supported by knowledge and technology-based plans and projects (Thite, 2011). There are thinkers who emphasize that smart cities are a strategy-based project supported by smart applications. The concept of smart city has emerged as a result of supporting the ecological, competitive and logistics performances of cities with information-intensive activities (Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012). In another definition, cities that facilitate human life by using governance elements, sensor networks and smart devices through modern thinking mechanisms are defined as smart cities (Cretu, 2012). In addition to facilitating, enabling participation and increasing the safety of critical infrastructures, there are also definitions focusing on the environmental protection aspect of smart cities. Accordingly, the smart city reflects an understanding of a city that produces added value in this way, which refers to the green economy by reducing the amount of carbon dioxide in nature, supported by certain socio-cultural and intellectual efforts. In smart cities, priority is given to green, open, smart, innovative and social designs by using innovative systems (Zygiaris, 2012).

Studies conducted in recent years focus on 6 basic components of smart cities (Bilici & Babahanoğlu, 2018);

- **Smart Economy:** It covers all initiatives that strengthen urban areas economically and aim to increase the quality of urban life. Digitization of business relations with smart applications, increasing sustainability with technology-based applications, improving the general business environment and ensuring the continuity of competition are among the main objectives of the smart economy criterion (Grab & Ilie, 2019).
- **Smart Environment:** Thanks to smart environmental applications such as smart meters, motion sensitive street lighting, air quality monitoring systems, water scarcity, climate change, excessive use of conventional energy sources, etc. important solutions are produced for global environmental problems (Korkmaz & Ceylan, 2021).
- **Smart Life:** It is aimed to increase individual well-being by increasing the quality of social and digital life with smart home technologies, use of social media, and smart life applications such as e-health (Maer, Pop, Popa, & Gros, 2021).

- **Smart Mobility:** It is aimed to increase the efficiency of transportation and service quality in urban areas with applications such as electric vehicles and bike sharing (BSC, 2020).
- **Smart People:** In smart city theory, people are constantly willing to learn. They have an open-mindedness and the ability to adapt to changes in their environment. Individuals have a democratic structure and actively participate in decision-making processes (Gupta, Mustaf, & Kumar, 2017).
- **Smart Governance:** Applications that make the system more transparent in order to facilitate citizens' participation in decision-making processes are evaluated under this heading. Web portals, phone applications, online and physical applications that take into account the suggestions of the public are among the elements of smart governance (Mutiar, Yuniarti, & Pratama, 2018).

As can be seen from the smart people and smart governance components, the smart city approach includes efforts to make citizens active citizens by using decision-making mechanisms. As a matter of fact, in the study conducted by Anastasiu (2019), it was emphasized that creating participatory cities would pave the way for claiming rights from smart cities in a practical context. In this way, both belonging to the city will increase and efficiency will be ensured in the decision-making processes. Sennet, who conceptualized the open city by being influenced by the intellectual legacy of Karl Popper and Charles Darwin, states that the future problems of cities will reach an unpredictable level. Emphasizing the open-endedness of current and future problems and the need for diversification of methods of struggle, the thinker sees the participation of the public in decision-making processes as important in solving their problems (Sennett, 2006; Helleman, 2018). According to the advocates of the opposing view, it focuses on the uselessness of people due to the fact that they have a political identity, they are open to influences, their productivity is low, and the public is not interested enough in participation (Fung, 2015).

3. Understanding Citizens Participation in Smart Cities

The inclusion of the public in urban planning processes was first brought to the agenda by Jean Jack Rousseau in the 18th century. It has been systematized and used in public, private and civil organizations approximately 200 years later (Rousseau, 2020). Citizen participation, in its most general terms, is defined as

the involvement of the public in decision-making processes. In recent studies, citizen participation has begun to be used to develop efforts to involve inactive citizens in decision-making processes. This concept emphasizes arguments for public participation, increased level of knowledge and authority, problem-solving ability, and information exchange between organizations and individuals (H.S.Baum, 2001 AgustíHernández, 2021). Citizen participation should include the right to be involved in decision-making processes and to some extent have the power to change the course of the process (Leino & Puumala, 2020).

Citizen participation in the creation and sustainability of smart cities is among the issues discussed in the literature. Apart from smart applications developed by ruling parties and/or local governments, it is highly controversial to what extent citizens meet the criteria of smart citizens. Individuals, whose wishes are not fully known, and to whom smart practices are imposed by the ruling class, fall into the status of “systematic performative citizens”. As a matter of fact, there are studies that state that individuals are made collaborators of the state and private sector rather than smart citizens in smart city applications (Datta, 2018).

Another criticism brought about citizen participation in smart cities is related to the goal of taking individuals under control under the name of digital applications, that is, creating a panopticon society. Panopticon, which literally means all-seeing, is a construction model that allows individuals to be controlled by making them believe that they are under constant surveillance through various means (Foucault, 2019). It is emphasized that smart electronic devices cause panoptic observation, technological clusters, social classification, control shifts and increase inequalities. Such criticisms show that there are serious consequences for the private life of the residents and that citizen participation is not far from an ideological basis (Kitchin, 2014).

The extent to which citizens are allowed to use their emotional side while urban planning is carried out with smart applications is among the issues felt in the literature (Willis & Nold, 2022). Urban areas are designed according to human needs. Although elements such as buildings, roads and bridges built by people are of physical nature, the impact of the emotional aspect, especially the cultural elements, cannot be denied in this construction process (McGaw & Vance, 2008). However, these smart practices ignore the emotional aspect of citizen participation. Applications that facilitate participation in decision-making processes with a single click through completely electronic tools, mechanize people without caring about emotions. Scientists, who have become aware of

this situation recently, have created smart city descriptions that benefit from the emotional state of citizens by observing the mental state of the residents through social media networks and blogs that provide public access (Guthier, Abaalkhail, Alharthi, & Saddik, 2015).

Lack of technological opportunities, internet infrastructure problems, cultural barriers, security and privacy problems, economic difficulties, not fully adopting virtual participation in the provisions of the legislation, application differences between countries, difficulties experienced by disadvantaged individuals are among the other criticisms of citizen participation in smart cities (Panti, 'c, et al., 2021; Collins, Augsberger, & Gecker, 2016; He, Boas, Mol, & Lu, 2017; Oughton, 2008; Hosein, Rizia, Amin, & Senob, 2022).

There are also thinkers who emphasize the importance of citizen participation in smart cities. It is stated that a significant part of the problems between the public administration and citizens can be solved by the effective, efficient and inclusive implementation of smart city applications. Considering that a significant part of the relations of citizens with the public administration stems from the problems experienced during and after the decision-making processes, it is thought that the ability of citizens to participate in these decision-making processes with e-applications, regardless of time and place, will increase belonging and social consensus (Lebrument, Zumbo-Lebrument, Rochette, & Roulet, 2021).

The participation of the public in decision-making processes also increases accountability, which is among the requirements of smart people and smart life. Due to its responsibility for accountability, the public authority monitors the implementation of the targets with regular reports, making efforts to fulfill the requests (OECD, 2020). Increasing social pressures on public authorities that do not act in accordance with the wishes of the people will weaken the public official and narrow his field of action. The willing executive group, which does not prevent the emergence of this situation, will try to respond to the wishes of the people as soon as possible.

In the light of these discussions in the literature, the analysis of Istanbul, which is shown as one of the leading cities in terms of using smart city applications in Turkey, will be made. In this analysis, the impact of smart city applications on participation in decision-making processes will be measured.

4. Method

In this part of the research, the research objectives and scope, the structure of the data collection tools and the structural validity and reliability analysis findings for the said tools, research hypotheses, research model and statistical methods used during data analysis are mentioned.

4.1. Purpose and Scope

The aim of the research is to measure the perceptions of the citizens living within the borders of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality towards Smart City Applications and to determine the relationships between this perception and demographic and descriptive features. On the other hand, examining the relations between the usage habits of the citizens of Smart City Applications and their participation in Smart City Applications is also included in the scope of the research.

4.2. Data Collection Tools

In the research, data was collected through a questionnaire.¹ The questionnaire form created for research purposes includes the Personal Descriptive Form and the Participation Scale for Smart City Applications in order to measure their perceptions towards Smart City Applications. Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis findings are as in Table 1.

¹ The questionnaire used in the research was applied by developing the questionnaire used in Armağan's (2018) doctoral thesis titled "Smart cities in the information society and participatory citizenship".

Table 1: Explanatory Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis Findings

Matter	Dimension			Explained Variance (%)	Cumulative Variance (%)	α
	F1	F2	F3			
I avoid escalating a problem to local administrations because of the thought of not being able to find a contact person.	0.877					
I avoid escalating a problem to local authorities because I don't believe I can get results.	0.810			24.250	24.250	0.776
I avoid escalating an issue to local authorities because I hold a different political view.	0.773					
I avoid escalating a problem to local authorities due to the difficulty of accessing communication channels.	0.733					
As a citizen, I refer any local issue to the municipality.		0.852				
I participate in the activities of non-governmental organizations other than trade unions and trade unions.		0.811				
I would like to follow the decision mechanisms of the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality online and share my thoughts within this mechanism.				22.473	46.723	0.829
I follow the developments in the city I live in.	0.799					
I follow the developments in the city I live in.	0.561					
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality is required to take the views and opinions of the citizens on issues that concern citizens.			0.850			
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality should further expand the free wi-fi areas within the scope of the Smart City.			0.800	19.305	60.028	0.742
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality should improve communication channels with citizens.			0.714			
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Sampling Adequacy Criterion					KMO=0.757	
Bartlett Test of Sphericity					$\chi^2(55)\approx 509.604^*$	Sig.=0.000
Scale Cronbach's Alpha					$\alpha=0.800$	

*(5%) Indicates the rejection of the H0 hypothesis at the significance level, H0 for the Bartlett Test of Sphericity: Correlation relations between the scale items are not at a sufficient level to explain the superstructure. χ^2 : Chi-square Test Statistic, \approx : Approximate value, (includes the test degrees of freedom in parentheses. F1: Participation Avoidance Dimension F2: Participation Dimension, F3: Expectations from Participation Dimension

When the Kaiser Meyer Olkin Sampling Adequacy Criterion is examined in the table, it is seen that the scale has a very high sampling adequacy ($KMO>0.7$). The Barlett Test of Sphericity findings show that the scale items have sufficient correlation at the 5% significance level to explain the superstructure ($\chi^2(55)\approx 509.604$, Sig. <0.05).

When the variance rates explained by the three-factor structure are examined, it is seen that 24.250% variance is explained by the first factor, 22.473% by the second factor, 46.723% by the first two factors, 19.305% by the third factor, and 60.028% cumulatively by the three factors. The fact that the said ratio is above 50% can be interpreted as a positive finding in terms of the measuring power of the scale. Similarly, if all factor scores calculated for the scale items are above 0.5, it is interpreted that the contribution of these items to the measurement function is sufficient (Özdamar, 2016: 142- 149).

When the reliability coefficients are examined, it is seen that the dimensions of Avoidance of Participation and Expectations from Participation are good ($0.7<\alpha<0.8$), while the Participation dimension is very reliable measurement tools ($0.8<\alpha<0.9$). DFA findings are reported in Table 2.

Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Findings

İtem	Dimension	β	Std. β	S.H.	t	Sig.
Participation4	Participation	0.590	0.301	0.141	4.196***	0.000
Participation3	1.533	0.907	0.244	6.273***	0.000	
Participation2	← 0.625	0.319	0.124	5.047***	0.000	
Participation1	1.000	0.579	-	-	-	
Avoidance4	From Participation	1.000	0.638	-	-	-
Avoidance3	Avoidance	0.547	0.113	8.523***	0.000	
Avoidance2	← 0.963	0.854	0.138	10.562***	0.000	
Avoidance1	1.453 1.480	0.886	0.140	10.584***	0.000	
Expectation 1	Participation	1.000	0.595	-	-	-
Expectation 2	← Expectation	0.672	0.147	7.781***	0.000	
Expectation 3	1.143 1.395	0.839	0.176	7.948***	0.000	
Model conformity indices						
$\chi^2/SD=2.482$		AGFI=0.900		CFI=0.936		
GFI=0.936		IFI=0.937		RMSEA=0.077		

*(%5) It expresses the rejection of the H0 hypothesis at the significance level, H0 for the Parameter Significance Test: $\beta=0$, Std. B: Standardized path coefficient, S.H: Standard Error, - : One path is accepted as the basis for all factors and the standard error of the basic path, t and sig. Statistics are not calculated. The items selected for the basic pathway were changed and the findings were checked.

According to the table, it can be said that the model fit is sufficient for the DFA model. When the path coefficients estimated in DFA are examined, it is seen that all of them have statistically significant coefficients (Sig.<0.05) at the 5% significance level, while the ones other than 2 of the standardized path coefficients are greater than 0.5. While standardized path coefficients above 0.5 are desirable in terms of the contribution of the items to the measuring power of the scale, it was decided to keep 2 items with standardized path coefficients below 0.5 due to the adequate level of DFA model fit indices.

In line with the findings of AFA, DFA and Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis, it can be said that the scale is a measurement tool that provides structural validity and reliability with 3 factors and 11 items.

4.3. Research Hypotheses

The research hypothesis, which is aimed to be tested within the scope of the research, is that there is a relationship between participation demographic data, mobile applications they use and participation levels.

4.4. Data analysis

In the first part of the findings section, the demographic and descriptive features of the sample included in the research are included, and in the second part, the frequency distributions of the scale questions are included. While the third part includes descriptive statistics and normal distribution tests for the sub-dimensions of the scale, the fourth part includes testing the research hypotheses with appropriate test statistics. Chi-Square Test and Cross Tables were used during the testing of hypotheses that require examining the relationships between categorical variables. The null and alternative hypotheses for the Chi-Square test are as follows; H₀: There is no difference between the groups in terms of the occurrence frequency of the searched case or event. H₁: There is a difference between the groups in terms of the frequency of occurrence of the searched case or event. The Independent Sample T-Test was used during the testing of the hypotheses involving the examination of the difference between the two groups in terms of continuous variables (scale sizes). The null and alternative hypotheses for the independent sample t-test are as follows. H₀: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ (There is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups.).

H1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ (There is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups.)

When the calculated t-test statistic (t) significance value (p) is compared with the chosen significance level (5%), H0 hypothesis is rejected in case of $p < 0.05$ and H1 hypothesis is accepted, otherwise H0 hypothesis should be accepted. If a statistically significant difference is detected as a result of the test, the group averages can be compared and it can be decided which group level is higher (Karagöz, 2016: 383-391). The Anova test was used to test the hypotheses involving the comparison of the means of variables containing more than two groups. The null and alternative hypotheses for the Anova test are as follows. H0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_m$ (There is no statistically significant difference between m group averages.) H1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_m$ (at least one of m group averages is statistically significantly different from the others.)

When the significance value (p) of the Anova test statistic (F) calculated similarly with the independent sample t-test is compared with the chosen significance level (5%), the H0 hypothesis is rejected in case of $p < 0.05$ and the H1 hypothesis is accepted, otherwise the H0 hypothesis should be accepted (Karagöz, 2016: 419).

For parametric tests such as the independent sample T-Test and the Anova test, the assumption that the number of members of the compared groups is above 30 was checked, and the said assumption was provided by combining the possible consecutive groups (Karagöz, 2016: 419). On the other hand, due to the fact that a reasonable group combination could not be made during the examination of the differences due to the use of mobile applications, it was neglected to examine the differences due to the use of some mobile applications.

5. Results

In this part of the research, the findings obtained as a result of data analysis are shared.

5.1. Demographic and Descriptive Findings

According to the descriptive and demographic statistics of the sample included in the study, the distribution of the participants by gender is as follows; 51.8% female (n=131), 43.9% male (n=111), 4.3% do not want to specify. (n=11). The distribution of the participants by age groups is as follows; 28.5% aged

24 and below (n=72), 34.8% aged 25-34 (n=88), 22.9% aged 35-44 (n=58), 9.5% aged 45-54 (n=24) , 4.3% 55 years and older (n=11). The distribution of the participants according to their education level is as follows; Literate 0.4% (n=1), 4.7% Primary Education (n=12), 20.9% High School (n=53), 60.1% Undergraduate-Associate Degree (n=152), 13.8% Graduate (n=35). The distribution of the participants according to their duration of living in Istanbul is as follows; 5.5% less than 1 year (n=14), 15.8% 1- 4 years (n=40), 27.7% 5-10 years (n=70), 51% more than 10 years (n=129). The distribution of the participants according to their income levels is as follows; 26.1% Minimum wage and below (n=66), 17.8% between 5501-8000 TL (n=45), 11.9% between 8001- 10500 TL (n=30), 14.2% between 10501- 13000 TL (n=36) , 13.4% between 13001-18000 TL (n=34), 9.1% between 18000-23000 TL (n=23), 7.5% 23001 TL and above (n=19).

Statistics about the daily internet connection time of the participants are as follows; 4% 0-1 Hour (n=10), 17.8% 1-2 Hours (n=45), 36.4% 2-4 Hours (n=92), 26.5% 4-6 Hours (n=67), 15.4% 6 and Over Hours (n=39). The distribution of the participants according to the duration of using the mobile application is as follows; 5.5% less than 1 year (n=14), 14.6% 1-2 years (n=37), 29.2% 3-5 years (n=74), 50.6% 6 years or more (n=128).

The percentages of participants using mobile applications are as follows:; %76.7 E-devlet (n=194), %29.6 İBB Cep Trafik (n=75), %14.6 İBB Kent Rehberi (n=37), %15.8 İstanbul Senin (n=40), %20.9 İBB Şehir Tiyatroları (n=53), %13.8 İBB İstanbul (n=35), %15.8 İBB Beyaz Masa (n=40), %16.2 İspark (n=41), %4 Miniaturk (n=10), %20.9 İTaksi (n=53), %9.1 İstanbul Şehir Haritası (n=23), %5.5 Yürü& Keşfet (n=14), %3.2 İstanbul Senin Anket (n=8), %8.3 İstanbul Eczanesi (n=21), %5.9 Mobil İSKİ (n=15), %3.2 İSEM (n=8), %5.5 İBB İmar Sor (n=14), %12.3 İsbike Akıllı Bisiklet (n=31), %3.6 Sesli Kütüphane (n=9), %6.3 İBB Karekod (n=16), %2 TUDES (n=5), %0.8 İBB AR (n=2).

5.2. Frequency Analysis

The frequency analysis findings of the items in the scale form are as in Table 3.²

Table 3: Scale Items Frequency Analysis

Matter	I strongly disagree		I do not agree		I'm undecided		I agree		Absolutely I agree	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
I am very eager to get a new service.	6	2.4	9	3.6	69	27.3	109	43.1	60	23.7
My social circle consults me for advice on a new technology	9	3.6	21	8.3	56	22.1	111	43.9	56	22.1
When I come across an innovation, I announce it to my social circle.	11	4.3	20	7.9	54	21.3	102	40.3	66	26.1
I follow the developments in the city I live in.	44	17.4	59	23.3	65	25.7	53	20.9	32	12.6
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality should improve communication channels with citizens.	9	3.6	17	6.7	76	30.0	90	35.6	61	24.1
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality is required to take the views and thoughts of the citizens on issues that concern citizens.	9	3.6	11	4.3	40	15.8	100	39.5	93	36.8
Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality should further expand the free wi-fi areas within the scope of the Smart City.	10	4.0	10	4.0	54	21.3	92	36.4	87	34.4

² While there is no harm in publishing frequency analyzes, which is an item-specific analysis, for the items excluded from the scale during the structural validity and reliability analysis, it should be known that the items in question will not be included in the additive values by excluding them from the scale structure.

I participate in the activities of non-governmental organizations other than trade unions and trade unions.	40	15.8	49	19.4	67	26.5	60	23.7	37	14.6
As a citizen, I refer any local issue to the municipality.	20	7.9	31	12.3	68	26.9	95	37.5	39	15.4
I would like to follow the decision mechanisms of the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality online and share my thoughts within this mechanism.	17	6.7	34	13.4	79	31.2	84	33.2	39	15.4
I avoid escalating a problem to local authorities due to the difficulty of accessing communication channels.	31	12.3	42	16.6	86	34.0	59	23.3	35	13.8
I avoid escalating an issue to local authorities because I have a different political view.	67	26.5	54	21.3	51	20.2	54	21.3	27	10.7
I avoid escalating a problem to local administrations because of the thought of not being able to find a contact person.	36	14.2	44	17.4	65	25.7	68	26.9	40	15.8
I avoid escalating a problem to local authorities because I don't believe I can get results.	37	14.6	39	15.4	64	25.3	68	26.9	45	17.8

The items in the table with frequency analyzes above were analyzed by dimensioning as participation, avoidance of participation and participation expectations. This sizing study enabled the examination of the presence of the relationship between the demographic data of the participants, the mobile applications they use and their level of participation. While naming these dimensions below, they are expressed as participation, avoidance and expectation.

5.3. Descriptive Statistics and Normal Distribution Test Statistics

Variable descriptive statistics for the variables obtained from the averages of the items providing validity and reliability after the structural validity and reliability analyzes are as in Table 4.

Table 4: Variable Descriptive Statistics

Variable	N	Minimum	Maksimum	\bar{X}	σ
Participation	253	1.000	5.000	3.169	0.855
Avoidance	253	1.000	5.000	3.022	1.042
Expectation	253	1.000	5.000	3.883	0.827

\bar{X} : Average, σ : Standard deviation

Participation dimension is distributed between a minimum of 1,000 and a maximum of 5,000, with a standard deviation of 0.855 around a mean of 3.169. The avoidance dimension is distributed between a minimum of 1,000 and a maximum of 5,000, with a standard deviation of 1.042 around a mean of 3.022. The expectation dimension is distributed between a minimum of 1,000 and a maximum of 5,000, with a standard deviation of 0.827 around a mean of 3.883. The normal distribution statistics of the variables are as in Table 5.

Table 5: Variable Normal Distribution Statistics

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk		S	K
	W(253)	Sig.	D(253)	Sig.		
Participation	0.111*	0.000	0.975*	0.000	-0.406	0.050
Avoidance	0.108*	0.000	0.963*	0.000	-0.273	-0.619
Expectation	0.157*	0.000	0.895*	0.000	-1.211	2.433

*(%5) At the level of significance, it expresses the rejection of the H0 hypothesis. For normal distribution tests, H0: The variable conforms to the normal distribution. S: Skewness, K: Kurtosis

As can be seen in Table 5, the normal distribution test statistics calculated for the variables do not fit the normal distribution of the variables according to the significance values (Sig.<0.05). It is known that it is a rare ideal situation to see normal distribution with the normal distribution tests performed with the data collected with the help of scales for social sciences. In the literature, it is suggested that the skewness coefficients should be examined for such data and it would be correct to assume that the assumption of normal distribution is provided if there is no significant skewness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). When the variables are examined in terms of skewness coefficients, it is seen that all of them are less than 1.5 in absolute value. In this case, it can be said that the variables do not have a significant skewness ($|S|<1.5$) (Hair, 2013). In line with the normal distribution

statistics, it was decided that it would be appropriate to use parametric test techniques, which are known to be more reliable under the same conditions, in the hypothesis tests to be made with the variables (Karagöz, 2016).³

5.4. Hypothesis Tests

This part of the research includes testing the research hypotheses with appropriate test statistics. For the first research hypothesis, it was decided to examine the Chi-Square test and Cross Table statistics, which were conducted to examine the relationships between categorical questions. Chi-square test findings are as in Table 6.

Table 6: Chi-Square Test Statistics and Cross-Table Findings Testing Differences in Daily Internet Usage by Demographic Characteristics

Feature	Category	Statistics	Daily Internet Usage Time		Total	Chi-Square
			Between	Over 4		
			0-4 Hours	Hours		
Gender	Female	n	76	55	131	$\chi^2(01)=0.039$
		%	58.0%	42.0%	100.0%	
	Male	n	63	48	111	Sig.=0.473
		%	56.8%	43.2%	100.0%	
Age	Under 35	n	88	72	160	$\chi^2(01)=1.721$
		%	55.0%	45.0%	100.0%	
	Over 35	n	59	34	93	Sig.=0.119
		%	63.4%	36.6%	100.0%	
Education	High School and Below	n	46	20	66	$\chi^2(01)=4.931^*$
		%	69.7%	30.3%	100.0%	
	Associate Degree and Above	n	101	86	187	Sig.=0.018
		%	54.0%	46.0%	100.0%	
Income	Under 10,500 Turkish Lira	n	88	53	141	$\chi^2(01)=2.429$
		%	62.4%	37.6%	100.0%	
	Above 10,500 Turkish Lira	n	59	53	112	Sig.=0.076
		%	52.7%	47.3%	100.0%	

*(%5) It expresses the rejection of the H0 hypothesis at the level of significance, H0 for the Chi-Square Test: There is no difference between the groups in terms of the ratios of the variable, which is the comparison criterion. χ^2 : Chi-square test statistic, (includes test degrees of freedom in parentheses)

³ Although H0 is correct, the probability of 1st type error, which can be defined as finding the H1 hypothesis correct as a result of the research, is higher in non-parametric hypothesis tests (Kalaycı, 2006: 85).

There is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level between female participants and male participants, participants under the age of 35 and participants over the age of 35, and income level in terms of daily internet usage time.

A statistically significant difference was found at the 5% significance level in terms of daily internet usage time between the participants with high school or lower education and those with associate degree or higher education. When the ratios are examined, it is seen that 69.7% of the participants with high school and below education have less than 4 hours of daily internet use, while this rate is 54% for the participants with an associate degree or above. On the other hand, the rate of 4 hours or more internet usage was calculated as 30.3% for the participants with high school or below education, while it was calculated as 46% for the participants with an associate degree or higher education level. To put it more clearly, the daily internet usage time of the participants with higher education level is higher than the participants with low education level.

The results of the Independent Sample T-Test, which tests the differences in terms of gender, are as in Table 7.⁴

Table 7: Independent Sample T-Test Findings Testing Differences by Gender

Variable	Gender	N	\bar{X}	σ	Levene	T-Test
Participation	Female	131	3.233	0.873	F(1, 240)=0.138	t(240)=1.148
	Male	111	3.106	0.839	Sig.=0.711	Sig.=0.252
Avoidance	Female	131	3.008	1.104	F(1, 240)=2.587	t(240)=-0.339
	Male	111	3.054	1.012	Sig.=0.109	Sig.=0.735
Expectation	Female	131	3.908	0.850	F(1, 240)=0.523	t(240)=0.629
	Male	111	3.841	0.810	Sig.=0.470	Sig.=0.530

*(%5) At the level of significance, H0 refers to the rejection of the hypothesis, H0 for the Independent Sample T-Test: There is no difference between the compared group means. \bar{X} : Mean, σ : Standard Deviation, T-Test statistics Levene test was chosen in accordance with homogeneity/heterogeneity findings. F: F Test Statistic, t: T-Test Statistic, (brackets contain test degrees of freedom.) F(S.D.1, S.D.2), t(S.D)

In terms of participation, avoidance and expectation dimensions, there is no statistically significant difference between male and female participants at the 5% significance level. The findings of the Anova Test, which was conducted to examine the differences depending on age groups, are presented in Table 8.⁵

⁴ Eleven samples that did not specify gender were excluded from the comparison.

⁵ The $n > 30$ condition was met by combining the samples aged 45-54 ($n=24$) with the samples aged 55 and over ($n=11$) to form a sample group aged 45 and over ($n=35$).

Table 8: Anova Test Findings Examining Differences by Age Groups

Variable	Age group	N	\bar{X}	σ	Levene	Anova	P.H.
Participation	1)24 and below	72	3.139	0.879	F(3, 249)	F(3,249)	-
	2)25-34	88	3.165	0.844	= 0.875	= 0.717	
	3)35-44	58	3.082	0.905	Sig. =	Sig. =	
	4) 45 and Above	35	3.386	0.736	0.454	0.402	
Avoidance	1)24 and below	72	3.035	1.026	F(3,249)	F(3,249)	4>1, 2, 3
	2)25-34	88	2.997	1.070	= 0.926	= 5.383*	
	3)35-44	58	2.707	1.045	Sig. =	Sig. =	
	4) 45 and Above	35	3.579	0.774	0.429	0.001	
Expectation	1)24 and below	72	3.958	0.773	F(3,249)	F(3,249)	-
	2)25-34	88	3.848	0.885	= 2.201	= 1.285	
	3)35-44	58	3.741	0.909	Sig. =	Sig. =	
	4) 45 and Above	35	4.048	0.589	0.088	0.280	

(%5) At the level of significance, H0 expresses the rejection of the hypothesis, H0 for the Anova Test: There is no difference between the compared group means. \bar{X} :: Mean, σ : Standard Deviation, Post Hoc test type Levene test was chosen in accordance with homogeneity/heterogeneity findings. F: F Test Statistic, (includes test degrees of freedom in parentheses.) F(S.D.1, S.D.2), P.H: Post Hoc, - Post Hoc Tests were not required for the groups that did not have a significant difference according to the Anova test.

In terms of participation and expectation, there is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level between the participants in the age groups of 24 years and below, between the ages of 25 and 34, between the ages of 35 and 44, and between the ages of 45 and above.

In terms of avoidance, there is a statistically significant difference or differences at the 5% significance level among the participants in the age groups of 24 years and below, between 25 and 34 years old, between 35 and 44 years old, and between the ages of 45 and above. The findings of the Tukey Post Hoc test performed to determine the group or groups that are the source of the difference are as follows; While the level of avoidance of the use of smart city applications of the participants aged 45 and over is lower than all other participants, there is no statistically significant difference among the other participants in this regard.

The findings of the Anova Test, which was conducted to examine the differences depending on education levels, are presented in Table 9.⁶

⁶ The condition (n>30) was met by combining the literate (n=1), primary (n=12), and high school (n=53) groups by forming high school and below (n=66) education groups”.

Table 9: Anova Test Findings Examining Differences by Age Groups

Variable	Education	N	\bar{X}	σ	Levene	Anova	P.H.
Participation	1) High School and Below	66	2.739	0.807	F(2, 250) = 0.030	F(2, 250) = 12.338*	1<2 ve 3
	2) Undergraduate-Associate Degree	152	3.322	0.820			
	3) Undergraduate	35	3.314	0.834	Sig. = 0.971	Sig.=0.000	
Avoidance	1) High School and Below	66	3.042	1.043	F(2, 250) = 0.027	F(2, 250)=0.017	-
	2) Undergraduate-Associate Degree	152	3.016	1.034			
	3) Undergraduate	35	3.007	1.104	Sig. = 0.974	Sig.=0.983	
Expectation	1) High School and Below	66	3.758	0.991	F(2, 250) = 0.190	F(2, 250)=1.046	-
	2) Undergraduate-Associate Degree	152	3.956	0.761			
	3) Undergraduate	35	3.800	0.742	Sig. = 0.827	Sig.=0.217	

*(%5) At the level of significance, H0 expresses the rejection of the hypothesis, H0 for the Anova Test: There is no difference between the compared group means. X:: Mean, σ : Standard Deviation, Post Hoc test type Levene test was chosen in accordance with homogeneity/heterogeneity findings. F: F Test Statistic, (includes test degrees of freedom in parentheses.) F(S.D.1, S.D.2), P.H: Post Hoc, - Post Hoc Tests were not required for the groups that did not have a significant difference according to the Anova test.

In terms of participation, there is a statistically significant difference or differences at the 5% significance level between the participants at high school and below, undergraduate and associate degree, and postgraduate education level. The findings of the Tukey Post Hoc test performed to determine the group or groups that are the source of the difference are as follows; While the level of participation in smart city applications of the participants with high school and below education is lower than all the other participants, there is no statistically significant difference among the other participants in this regard.

In terms of avoidance and expectation dimensions, there is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level between the participants at

high school and below, undergraduate and associate degree, and postgraduate education levels.

The findings of the Anova Test, which was conducted to examine the differences depending on income levels, are presented in table 10.⁷

Table 10: Anova Test Findings Examining Differences by Income Levels

Variable	Income	N	\bar{X}	σ	Levene	Anova	P.H.
Participation	Minimum wage and below	66	3.140	0.924	F(5, 247)=1.797	F(5, 247)=0.376	-
	5501- 8000	45	3.122	0.834			
	8001- 10500	30	3.300	0.664	Sig.=0.114	Sig.=0.865	
	10501- 13000	36	3.285	0.845			
	13001- 18000	34	3.132	0.702			
	18001 and Above	42	3.101	1.018			
Avoidance	Minimum wage and below	66	3.186	1.054	F(5, 247)=1.779	F(5, 247)=0.939	-
	5501- 8000	45	2.994	1.145			
	8001- 10500	30	3.025	1.065	Sig.=0.118	Sig.=0.456	
	10501- 13000	36	3.042	0.955			
	13001- 18000	34	3.059	0.915			
	18001 and Above	42	2.744	1.061			
Expectation	Minimum wage and below	66	3.854	0.817	F(5, 247)=0.682	F(5, 247)=0.730	-
	5501- 8000	45	3.985	0.804			
	8001- 10500	30	3.822	0.870	Sig.=0.638	Sig.=0.602	
	10501- 13000	36	4.000	0.627			
	13001- 18000	34	3.686	0.860			
	18001 and Above	42	3.921	0.959			

*(%5) At the level of significance, H0 expresses the rejection of the hypothesis, H0 for the Anova Test: There is no difference between the compared group means. \bar{X} : Mean, σ : Standard Deviation, Post Hoc test type Levene test was chosen in accordance with homogeneity/heterogeneity findings. F: F Test Statistic, (includes test degrees of freedom in parentheses.) F(S.D.1, S.D.2), P.H: Post Hoc, - Post Hoc Tests were not required for the groups that did not have a significant difference according to the Anova test.

⁷ By combining the groups between 18000 TL and 23000 TL (n=23) and 23001 TL and above (n=19), the 18001 TL and above (n=42) group was formed, and the condition n>30 was met.

In terms of participation, avoidance and expectation dimensions, 5% significance among participants with income level below minimum wage, between 5501 TL and 8000 TL, between 8001 TL and 10500 TL, between 10501 TL and 13000 TL, between 13001 TL and 18000 TL, 18001 TL and above level, there is no statistically significant difference.

The findings of the Anova Test, which was conducted in Istanbul to examine the differences in life expectancy, are presented in Table 11⁸

Table 11: Anova Test Findings Examining Differences According to Life expectancy in Istanbul

Variable	Ist. Life time	N	\bar{X}	σ	Levene	Anova	P.H.
Participation	0-4 Years	54	3.148	0.962	F(2, 250)=3.693*	F(2, 250)=0.263	-
	5-10 Years	70	3.232	0.755			
	Over 10 Years	129	3.143	0.863	Sig.=0.026	Sig.=0.769	
Avoidance	0-4 Years	54	3.148	1.090	F(2, 250)=3.766*	F(2, 250)=1.451	-
	5-10 Years	70	3.125	0.876			
	Over 10 Years	129	2.913	1.099	Sig.=0.024	Sig.=0.236	
Expectation	0-4 Years	54	3.877	0.835	F(2, 250)=3.457*	F(2, 250)=1.190	-
	5-10 Years	70	3.762	0.838			
	Over 10 Years	129	3.951	0.816	Sig.=0.033	Sig.=0.306	

*(%5) At the level of significance, H0 expresses the rejection of the hypothesis, H0 for the Anova Test: There is no difference between the compared group means. \bar{X} : Mean, σ : Standard Deviation, Post Hoc test type Levene test was chosen in accordance with homogeneity/heterogeneity findings. F: F Test Statistic, (includes test degrees of freedom in parentheses.) F(S.D.1, S.D.2), P.H: Post Hoc, - Post Hoc Tests were not required for the groups that did not have a significant difference according to the Anova test.

⁸ By combining the groups less than 1 year (n=14) and between 1-4 years (n=40) and forming a group between 0 and 4 years (n=54), the condition n>30 was met.

In terms of participation, avoidance and expectation dimensions, there is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level among participants living in Istanbul for 0 to 4 years, 5 to 10 years, 10 years or more.

The Independent Sample T-Test findings, which were conducted to examine the differences between participants using and not using certain mobile applications, are as follows:⁹

There is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not and do not use E-Devlet, İBB İstanbul, İTaksi and İsbike applications.

There was a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who did not use the İBB Cep Trafik application and those who did. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the İBB Cep Trafik application.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not use the İBB Kent Rehberi application and those who do. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the application.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not use İstanbul Senin application and those who do. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the application.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not use the İBB Şehir Tiyatroları application and those who do. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the application.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not use the İBB Beyaz Masa application and those who do. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the application.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of participation size between the participants who do not use the İspark

⁹ Since the Independent Sample T-Test $n > 30$ assumption is violated if there are less than 30 members in any of the categories of mobile applications using or not using, comparisons of mobile applications that do not meet the aforementioned requirement were not made.

application and those who do. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants using the application.

According to the Independent Sample T-Test findings, which was conducted to examine the differences in the avoidance dimension between the participants who use and do not use certain mobile applications, there is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of avoidance dimension between the participants who do not use and who do not use E- Devlet applications. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants who do not use the application.

There is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of the avoidance dimension between the participants who do not use and use the İBB Cep Trafik, İBB Kent Rehberi, İstanbul Senin, İBB Şehir Tiyatroları, İBB İstanbul, İBB Beyaz Masa, İspark, İTaksi, İsbike applications.

According to the findings of the Independent Sample T-Test, which was conducted to examine the differences in expectation dimension between the participants who use and do not use certain mobile applications, those who do not use E- Devlet, İBB Cep Trafik, İBB Şehir Rehberi, İstanbul Senin, İBB Şehir Tiyatroları, İBB İstanbul, İTaksi, İsbike applications. There is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of expectation dimension between the participants and the participants.

There is a statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level in terms of the expectation dimension between the participants who do not use and use İBB Beyaz Masa and İspark applications. When the averages are examined, it is seen that the difference is in favor of the participants who use the applications.

6. Conclusion

The data collected from 253 people living within the boundaries of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality, using a 5-point Likert scale, were measured in terms of their perceptions of Smart City Applications and the relationships between this perception and demographic and descriptive features were examined. Another issue that is examined in the obtained data is the relationship between the usage habits of the citizens and their participation in Smart City Applications.

51.8% of the participants were female, 43.9% were male, and 4.3% did not want to indicate their gender. The distribution of the participants by age groups

is as follows; 34.8% are aged 25-34, 28.5% are aged 24 and under, 22.9% are aged 35-44, 9.5% are aged 45-54, 4.3% are aged 55 and over.

The distribution of the participants according to their education levels is as follows; While 60.1% Undergraduate-Associate Degree, 20.9% High School, 13.8% Graduate, 4.7% Primary Education, 0.4% Literate, no illiterate participants were encountered during the research.

The distribution of the participants according to their duration of living in Istanbul is as follows; 51% have lived in Istanbul for more than 10 years, 27.7% 5-10 years, 15.8% 1- 4 years, 5.5% less than 1 year.

The distribution of the participants according to their income levels is as follows; 26.1% Minimum wage and below, 17.8% between 5501 and 8000 TL, 14.2% between 10501 and 13000 TL, 13.4% between 13001 and 18000 TL, 11.9% between 8001 and 10500 TL, 9.1% between 18000-23000 TL, 7.5% 23001 TL and above.

Statistics about the daily internet connection time of the participants are as follows; 36.4% 2-4 Hours, 26.5% 4-6 Hours, 17.8% 1-2 Hours, 15.4% 6 and Over Hours, 4% 0-1 Hours. The distribution of the participants according to the duration of using the mobile application is as follows; 50.6% 6 years or more, 29.2% 3-5 years, 14.6% 1-2 years, 5.5% less than 1 year.

The rates of participants using the said mobile applications are as follows; 76.7% E-Devlet, 29.6% İBB Cep Trafik, 14.6% İBB Kent Rehberi, 15.8% İstanbul Senin, 20.9% İBB Şehir Tiyatroları, 13.8% İBB İstanbul, 15.8% İBB Beyaz Masa, 16.2% İspark, 4% Miniaturk, 20.9% İTaksi, 9.1% İstanbul Şehir Haritası, 5.5% Yürü & Keşfet, 3.2% İstanbul Senin Anket, 8.3% İstanbul Eczane, 5.9% Mobile İSKİ, 3.2% İSEM, 5.5% İBB İmar Sor, 12.3% İsbike Akıllı Bisiklet, 3.6% Sesli Kütüphane, 6.3% İBB Karekod, 2% TUDES, 0.8% İBB AR.

No relationship was found between income level and daily internet use. There was no statistically significant difference between the duration of daily internet use and the male and female participants, and the participants under the age of 35 and over the age of 35. On the other hand, a statistically significant difference was found between the participants with a high school or lower education level and those with an associate degree or higher level in terms of daily internet usage time. According to the analysis, 69.7% of the participants with a high school or below education have less than 4 hours of daily internet use, while this rate is 54% for the participants with an associate degree or above. On the other hand, the rate of 4 hours or more internet usage was calculated

as 30.3% for the participants with high school or below education, while it was calculated as 46% for the participants with an associate degree or higher education level. To put it more clearly, the daily internet usage time of the participants with higher education level is relatively higher than the participants with low education level.

There is no statistically significant difference between male and female participants in terms of participation, non-participation and participation expectations dimensions.

In terms of participation and expectation from participation, there is no significant difference between the participants in the age groups of 24 and below, between the ages of 25 and 34, between the ages of 35 and 44, and between the ages of 45 and above.

In terms of Avoidance of Participation, among the participants aged 24 and below, between the ages of 25 and 34, between the ages of 35 and 44, and between the ages of 45 and over, the avoidance levels of the participants aged 45 and over were lower than all the other participants in this regard. there is no statistically significant difference.

In terms of participation, there are statistically significant differences or differences between the participants at high school and below, undergraduate and associate degree, and postgraduate education levels. Namely, while the participation level of the participants with high school and below education level is lower than all the other participants, there is no statistically significant difference between the other participants in this regard.

In terms of avoidance of participation and participation expectations, there is no statistically significant difference at the 5% significance level between the participants at high school and below, undergraduate and associate degree, and postgraduate education levels.

There is no statistically significant difference between income level and duration of living in Istanbul and the dimensions of participation, avoidance of participation and expectation of participation.

Participation, expectation of participation and avoidance of participation according to the mobile applications used by the participants are as follows: In terms of participation, no significant relationship was found between the participants using or not using E-government, İİB Istanbul, İTaxi, İsbike Smart Bicycle applications. When other applications are examined in terms of participation dimension, it has been determined that the participation levels of

the participants who use IMM Mobile Traffic, IMM City Guide, Istanbul Sen, IMM City Theaters, IMM White Table, İspark applications are higher than those who do not.

In the dimension of avoiding participation, the findings of the participants according to the mobile applications they use are as follows: Participants who do not use e-government applications avoid participation at a higher rate than those who do. No relationship was found between other mobile applications and the dimension of avoidance of participation.

In terms of participation expectations, no relationship was found between E-government, IMM Mobile Traffic, IMM City Guide, Istanbul You, IMM City Theaters, IMM Istanbul, İTaxi, İsbike mobile applications. Participants using the IMM Beyaz Masa and İspark mobile applications were found to have higher participation expectations.

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CHAPTER XXII

STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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Introduction

Service to the citizen is the main purpose of public administration. The quality of services has become questionable, with the transition to a citizen-oriented management approach instead of a management approach in which bureaucracy and paperwork are excessive and citizens' demands cannot be fully fulfilled. With the prevalence of uncertainty and a chaotic environment, it is difficult to provide a standard product and service in public administration. For this reason, it is necessary to determine the objectives in advance and to determine the road map related to this (Toy, 2021: 336; Güngör and Kutlu, 2018: 306). Therefore, the importance of strategic planning cannot be denied. With strategic plans, public institutions are moving towards their goals and evaluating the results. The clear presentation of the strategies is an important factor in the success of the institutions. "Doing the right job" is important (Hatipoğlu, 2020: 13; Yazıcı, 2014: 164).

Public performance management is important for personnel management. With performance management, it can be determined to what extent the public personnel execute their duties according to the determined targets and to what extent they apply the strategic plans prepared in the public sector.

Strategic planning and performance management are the main tools of public administration reforms.

In this study, strategic management and performance management in the public sector were examined. The study aims to analyse strategic planning and performance management in the public sector and to identify the difficulties encountered. In the first part of the study, strategic planning, which is important in strategic management and performance management in public administration, is explained. In the second part, performance management in public administration is explained. Finally, the relationship between strategic management and performance management in the public sector is examined.

1. Strategic Management and Strategic Planning in Public Administration

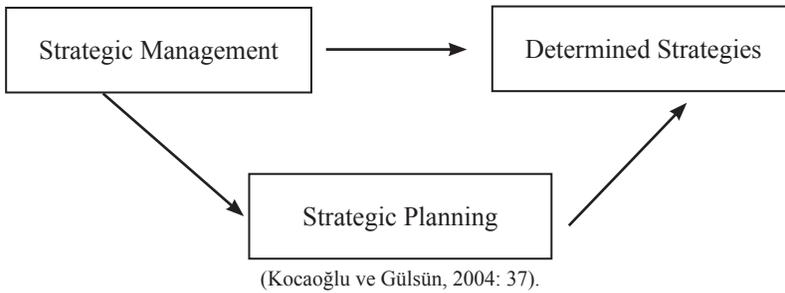
Although strategic management is a method applied in the private sector, it is the right way to achieve goals. Although the history of strategic management dates back to the 1960s, its star shone with the crises experienced. Strategic management means coping with problems in the medium and long term in private enterprises, being careful against uncertainties, and being able to adapt to environmental changes in the future for public institutions (Güngör and Kutlu, 2018: 305; Taner, 2015: 33-34; Aydın and Aksoy, 2007: 294).

Strategic planning took its place in the private sector in the late 1950s and early 1960s, with the reflection of the advantages or disadvantages of environmental uncertainties on the plans (Miller et al. 2001: 234-235). This management technique was introduced as planning, programming, and budgeting system in the US Department of Defence in the 1960s. As a result of the oil crisis and increased competition in the late 1970s, it was also adopted in the public sector. The reason for the adoption of this approach is that planning, programming, and budgeting systems place a heavy burden on information processing and management capacity in the public sector and that public reforms emphasizing decentralization are harmonious with strategic planning (Wauters, 2019: 15, Boyne et al. 2004). After 1980, with the Next Step reform in the UK, the determination of policy targets of public institutions as service-producing units, and the enactment of the Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 in the USA made strategic planning widespread in the public sector (Poister et al. 2013).

Although strategic planning and strategic management are similar concepts, there are some differences between them. It is important to see the future in strategic planning. Strategic planning is an important guide for

institutions to reach their goals and evaluate the results. Strategic planning is the first stage and function of strategic management. Strategic management pays attention to the harmony of organizations with the changing environment. Strategic management, which is produced from the concept of strategy, is not limited to planning; it is also related to the implementation and evaluation of plans. Examining alternatives by creating strategies and evaluating the results are the main objectives of strategic management. (Kocaoğlu and Gülsün, 2004: 37; Saruhan, 1994: 18; Kevser, 2019: 31; Birinci, 2014: 136).

Figure 1. Relationship between Strategic Management, Strategic Planning and Strategy



Strategic planning is a guiding study in making decisions that take into account the identity, mission environment and actions of the organization (Bryson, 2011: 5-6). Igor Ansoff's book *Corporate Strategy*, published in 1965, is considered the basis of strategic planning. Ansoff focuses on long-term planning, goals and strategies in organizations and analyzes the environment of the organization multidimensionally by considering possible situations (Ülgen and Mirze, 2004: 34-36). Strategic planning is a systematic process in which priorities for the mission of the institution are accepted (Allison and Kaye, 2005: 1-2). The stages of this process are "preparation, situation analysis, basic values, mission and vision statement, strategic goals and objectives, performance indicators and determination of activities, implementation and evaluation (Sağlam, 2012: 81, Figure 1)". The process aims to determine the success to be achieved in the future and contributes to the development of goals and corporate culture by looking at the organization as a whole in the long run (Grünig and Kühn, 2015: 8-10).

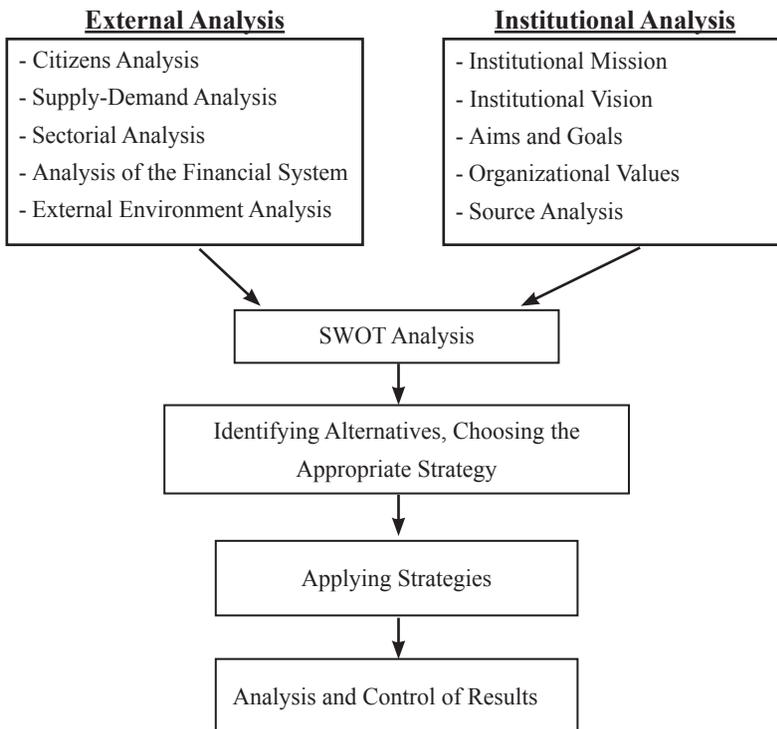
For strategic planning to be functional, it has to be realistically prepared. Institutions prepare their plans with their mission and vision (Taner, 2015: 41-42). Another point to be considered while preparing strategic plans is participation.

It is an acceptable necessity to consider stakeholders when formulating the plan. Participation should not be superficial and should be considered comprehensively. Long-term strategic plans may end with unsuccessful results. The reason for this is that the plans made by the managers are not sufficiently adopted by the lower administrative levels (Arıbaşı, 2013: 81-98; Hatipoğlu, 2020: 13).

In the strategic management of institutions, public administrators must have a clear vision and a personality that can take strategic decisions. Various supports should be provided to public personnel and administrators to think strategically, and the process should be supported with in-service training (Güven, 2014: 77).

Since strategic plans are related to many administrative functions, they cover different data and predict the decisions that the organization will take based on its mission (Özer et al., 2016: 289-291). With a strategic plan, organizations can determine their long-term plans and proactively deal with urgent problems. Strategic plans are generally reports created for five years (Kevser, 2019: 32; Kocaoğlu et al., 2020: 225).

Figure 2. Strategic Planning Process



(Kevser, 2019: 33.)

Public institutions determine their strategies by considering the SWOT approach and other approaches and evaluate the general situation with a result-oriented approach (Özer and Bozkurt, 2017: 186). SWOT is important in the formation of strategies in organizations. It is related to the comparison of situations such as threats that may be experienced in the external environment and strengths in the internal environment, aspects that need improvement, opportunities and threats (Küçüksüleymanoğlu, 2008: 407, Figure 2). After the SWOT analysis, the mission, vision, principles, strategic goals and targets are determined. The mission is the reason for the existence of the organization. The vision is the point that the organization wants to reach in the future. Principles describe institutional working values. Aims point results based on a certain time, and goals show specific and measurable sub-goals. The determination of strategy, activities and projects is followed by monitoring, evaluation and performance measurement processes (Özer et al., 2016: 302-306). Although strategic management is more comprehensive than strategic planning, it is seen that strategic planning is more common in public administration. While strategic management is implemented according to the policies determined by the central government, the plans are created by each public unit itself (Genco, 2021: 283).

Aims in public administration are determined by strategic plans. Progress according to the determined goals and targets is realized by measuring and evaluating the performance. Strategy in public administration is a way to increase organizational performance to create a sustainable public value (Erbaş and Kutlu, 2020: 71; Walker, 2010).

The foundations of the transition to strategic planning in Turkey were laid with the Programmatic Financial and Public Sector Adjustment Loan (PFPSAL-1) signed with the World Bank in 2001. Credit prerequisite commitments are macroeconomic measures, banking reform and public sector reform. The public sector reform includes budget reform and the transition to strategic planning in public administrations (Yılmaz, 2003: 75-77). The application of strategic management tools in public administration was realized with the report of the special expertise commission on the improvement and restructuring of the public administration, which was prepared within the scope of the 8th five-year development plan. Strategic plans for the use of public resources have been created since 2006. Local governments have also started strategic plan preparations (Demirkaya, 2021: 395; Karaaslan, 2015: 89). Strategic plans implemented in local governments play an important role in ensuring citizen participation and shaping public services according to citizen preferences (Güngör and Kutlu, 2018: 306).

2. Benefits and Challenges of Strategic Planning

In times of rapid change and high competition, organizations need to cope with this change and competition. The best way for this is strategic planning. It is possible to say that the works are done under the objectives through strategic planning (Kocaoğlu and Gülsün, 2004: 34; Saruhan, 1994: 20).

Strategic planning plays an important role in organizations anticipating threats and opportunities arising from uncertainty. It is a practical tool that has the power to increase the adaptation of public institutions to the uncertain and unpredictable future. It develops strategic thinking and the ability to take the right steps. It gives institutions the chance to solve the problems they encounter and to take precautions against the problems in a flexible way (Tunç, 2015: 70; Bryson, 1988: 78; Walker, 2013).

Organizations can focus on their internal problems with strategic planning. Organizations that make strategic plans can overcome the difficulties they encounter more easily (Kurt, 2020: 34; Demir and Yılmaz, 2010: 84). The organization's budget is prepared according to the aims and goals. Citizen-oriented public service production and delivery are provided, making it possible for the public administration to allocate resources according to statistical data (Demirkaya, 2021: 393). Strategic plans are more comprehensive than other plans, open to innovations, and updated from time to time. It emphasizes defining the institutional structure, acting according to priorities, and preparing action plans that will achieve development goals (Ertan, 2010: 43-44; Usta, 2014: 31). Participation is important in strategic planning. Determining organizational policies with the participation of everyone from the top to the bottom makes it easier to reach strategic aims and goals (Güngör and Kutlu, 2018: 315).

The first of the challenges faced by strategic planning concerns institutional executives. The authoritarian or exclusionary attitude of corporate managers poses a significant problem. Administrative problems arise from the fact that managers do not believe in or adopt strategic management. As a solution, managers need to be trained. Structural problems are that although politicians adopt strategic management, they can deviate from the aims and goals of populist policies because they want to be re-elected. One of the most important difficulties encountered in strategic planning is that public institutions implement their duties without directing their budgets in line with strategic aims (Sakin, 2018: 88-94). The lack of competition in the public sector and the fact that the concept of customer does not mean the same as the concept of citizen makes the implementation process of strategic plans difficult. Public institutions cannot

set realistic and attainable targets in line with their mission and vision. It is seen that the targets in the strategic plans are not based on concrete criteria. While it is more reasonable to prepare strategic plans in-house with the personnel, usually having them outsourced for a fee reduces the institutional experience (Karakılçık 2013a: 227, Taner, 2020: 67; Özgür and Aydın, 2020: 27).

Mintzberg (1994: 109-111) mentions three misconceptions about strategic planning. One is to assume that the strategy formulation process and outcomes are predictable. The second is separability. Separating activities from mathematical calculations and planners from executors causes errors. The third misconception is that the human element is ignored in the programming and use of the process.

3. Performance Management in Public Administration

Performance is the behaviour of the personnel, the level of an implementation of a task and is mostly related to concepts such as profitability, efficiency, and leaving competitors behind. It was first used as a concept by Beer and Ruh in 1976, but its first applications can be traced back to decision support systems in the 1970s. Performance, which prioritized the profit motive in the early stages of its emergence, is now associated with the satisfaction of citizens and the monitoring of environmental conditions. Measurements in performance management are based on outcome and quality criteria. Care is taken to ensure that the criteria are simple, concrete and objective. It is important to analyze and monitor the results after the measurements (Karakılçık, 2013b: 320-323, Özer et al., 2016: 369-374).

Performance management gains importance in determining the extent to which the strategic plans determined by the organizations are complied with. Performance management consists of planning, implementation and review phases. Planning is essential for a realistic evaluation of performance. The application includes annual performance processes. The review is about the scoring and evaluation of the performance (Özer et al., 2016: 378-379). These processes ensure that organizational and functional strategies are ensured with harmonious institutional goals. It plays a role in making effective managerial decisions through feedback (Başat, 2010: 32-34). It is important to decide what is important in the processes, to have the right information and to obtain the necessary information to achieve better performance (Marr, 2009: 1). Evaluation of personnel according to determined criteria can be expressed as performance management. For the effective implementation of performance management, human resources should be measured with objective criteria and continuity in

efficiency and productivity should be ensured. Keeping the change experienced by organizations under control and monitoring is realized through performance management (Kanpara, 2017: 83; Tunçer, 2012: 152; Özer, 2009: 4).

Performance management can be divided into individual and institutional. While individual performance is the evaluation of personnel's achievement of goals, organizational performance is the systematic analysis of data and results. Team performance management for personnel working as a team refers to the efforts of individuals with different skills and abilities towards a common goal (Özkaya, 2013: 20). Performance management measures the performance of the personnel according to the determined standards and leads a systematic management approach based on individual, department and organization. It analyzes all the elements related to the goals of the organization, measures the individual potential, and identifies the areas to meet the performance expectations of the individual (Sikyr, 2013; Costello, 1993).

Through performance evaluation and measurement, it is determined to what extent the organizations implement or fail to their objectives (Aktan, 2009: 26). In the 1800s, performance evaluation was based on the measurement of individuals' characteristics, and a relationship was established between performance and professional qualifications at the end of the 1950s, criteria based on the observation of behaviours were developed in the 1960s and from the 1970s until today, experts used multidimensional criteria in evaluations (Barutçugil, 2002: 123-125). Performance management is important for the accuracy of the decisions to be taken by public institutions. With performance management, organizations can control their efforts and measure the satisfaction level of citizens from the services provided. Performance measurement plays an important role in the control of institutions, in making the stakeholders have a say in the decisions to be taken, and in evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the personnel. This information is a guide for managers (Uysal, 2015: 32, Öztekin, 2005: 22; Çavdar, 2021: 120; Erbaş, 2020: 260). Informing the government, citizens and parliament by public institutions mediate the determination of structural problems of public services and the democratic discussion of the results in front of the public (Taner, 2020: 55). If it is determined in the performance evaluation results that the person cannot fully implement the institutional goals, the current situation should be improved with training programs (Beyoğlu, 2016: 51). Internal or external specialization training is effective in the emergence of performance problems and their solution (Ndrepepaj, 2021: 65).

In the measurement of performance, concepts such as efficiency, profitability and productivity are used as performance indicators (Cavlak, 2021: 102). One of these concepts, which can also be said as economy, efficiency and effectiveness (3E), economy is the reduction of resource costs. It means reaching the most suitable output and source with the least cost. Efficiency is to get the maximum benefit from resources. In productivity, the relationships between inputs and outputs are defined. Effectiveness is the degree to which goals are achieved. It is expressed as the ratio of produced output to total output. Quality can be added to these elements. Evaluation of quality helps organizations offer their services more effectively (Taner, 2020: 62, Eroğlu, 2011: 22-26).

With the effect of globalization, public administration is transforming. With the new public management (NPM) approach, the quality of the service has been given importance and purposes such as the correct use of resources have become important. Meeting the demands of citizens and the desire to spread the best practices in the private sector in the public make performance management practices necessary (Eren and Kahraman, 2020: 305; Yılmaz and Turan, 2019: 314).

Increasing public expenditures and budget deficits justify the necessity of performance management. Restructuring and reform processes brought the demands of citizens to the agenda and the effective use of scarce resources in public administration (Ateş, 2012: 170-173). The spread of performance management in the public sector took place after the 1980s. With the development of new public management (NPM), performance management has become important for public institutions. Along with the new public management, it was thought that some techniques in the private sector could also be valid for the public sector (Köseoğlu and Şen, 2014: 114-115; Karasoy, 2014: 257-258). “Public performance management aims at the continuous development of all personnel in public institutions and is the process of performing the measurement, planning, and evaluation and audit functions needed to achieve these goals (Yılmaz and Turan, 2019: 314)”. Performance management in the public sector gives importance to the empowerment of personnel. For this reason, functions such as planning, evaluation and supervision have to be carried out regularly. Performance measurements for institutional purposes provide monitoring of institutional activities based on results (Karakılıç, 2013b: 318).

The principle of institutional performance has gained importance with the public performance management approach. Accountability in traditional public administration is based on inputs or bureaucratic procedures, while in new

public management; accountability is evaluated with outputs or results (Haque, 2000: 600-605; Özkaya, 2013: 21).

The determination of objectives and the uninterrupted exchange of information in public institutions make it possible to continuously monitor the performance and make an objective evaluation at the end of the year. A holistic approach should be considered for the effectiveness of the process (Yaman, 2018: 283). Thus, the level of accountability of the institutions for the results achieved in the sector in which they are authorized, whether they work for the purpose or not and whether they serve certain interest groups or the public, is easily determined (Holzer and Yang, 2004: 16-17).

The Public Financial Management and Control Law No. 5018 enabled the transition to performance management in Turkish public administration. Various regulations regarding performance management have been made by law. Performance management has been expanded in public institutions. Public Financial Management and Control Law No. 5018 is the legal basis of strategic planning. It is an important tool in controlling and implementing the policies determined by that Law. The law also discussed the performance-based budgeting model. This model constitutes the essence of a management approach based on strategic planning. Law indicators laid the foundation of performance management by enabling public institutions to plan, measure, monitor and evaluate according to performance indicators (Özer, 2009: 21-22; Yörük ve Bozok, 2015: 2; Taner, 2015: 31; Ateş ve Bektaş, 2020: 34).

Necessary legal arrangements have been made for the preparation of strategic plans in local governments as well. Metropolitan municipalities prepare strategic plans within 6 months at the latest following the general elections of local governments. The budget will be prepared under the strategic plan. In all municipalities with a population of more than 50000, local governments prepare a strategic plan within 6 months at the latest after the general elections. The provincial governor is responsible for the preparation and implementation of the strategic plan in special provincial administrations. With a law enacted in 2005, the establishment of strategy development units in public institutions has become a legal obligation. Strategy development units are responsible for strategy, management/planning, developing performance and quality criteria, establishing management information systems and monitoring financial services (Demirkaya, 2021: 397-399).

Some situations make performance management difficult in the public sector. Some of these are limitations in budget management and human resources management, lack of accountability, and top-down definition of the

strategic management process. Situations such as the inadequacy in the number of experts and the bureaucratic approach of the management to control make the implementation of performance management difficult. The main problems are that the goals and aims are not understood by the public personnel, the performance management cannot be linked with the strategic targets, and the institutional performance and individual performance are not considered as processes that affect each other. In particular, the inability to determine the performance criteria exactly increases the uncertainties. It is necessary to associate performance criteria with targets and figures, to define them specific to the institution, monitor achievements and behaviours, and be based on observation. The inability to clearly define the goods or services offered in the public sector makes it difficult to measure organizational effectiveness (Öztürk, 2009: 150-152; Taner, 2020: 62; Efe, 2012: 134-138; İnci, 2013: 16; Demirkaya, 2021: 408, Özer ve diğerleri, 2016: 398). Law No. 5018 was mostly based on institutional performance, policies of public institutions or individual performance systems were ignored, and processes related to strategic planning were perceived as a legal formality. The top managers of the institution do not play an active role in monitoring, controlling and evaluating the performance (Taner, 2020: 63). Problems such as the multiplicity and variety of stakeholders in the public sector, the inability to limit the beneficiaries of the service, the complexity of the objectives, the difficulties in setting criteria and measuring satisfaction, bureaucratic resistance and centralization are the biggest obstacles to the success of performance management (Eren and Kahraman, 2020: 306-322).

4. The Relationship between Strategic Management and Performance Management in Public Administration

Although strategic planning is perceived as a concept related to the private sector, it has become a concept used in public institutions over time. Strategic planning and strategic management have been adopted in public administration with the effect of New Public Management. While making future-oriented decisions in strategic planning, the concrete data available are examined, the situations are analyzed and the plan is created. Strategic planning for the public sector contributes to strategic thinking, acting on goals and controlling results. Public institutions determine strategies that are in line with goals and policies. Various expectations have to be satisfied, such as strategically thinking, implementing, and acting under goals in every task given in public institutions (Eryiğit, 2013: 170; Dölkeleş ve Özer, 2021: 296; Genco, 2021: 280; Altan ve diğerleri, 2013: 112, Taner, 2015: 41).

It is thought that situations such as cost problems in public administration and an increase in inflation are due to poor performance. This increases the importance of performance management in the public sector. Increasing efficiency and productivity in the public sector is possible with performance improvements. Performance measurement systems should be in harmony with organizational strategies to determine the effect of internal and external environments on performance. The consistency of the targets and indicators in the strategic plans of public administrations with the performance programs and government policies is closely related to the generality and consistency of the performance evaluations (Karakılıçık, 2013a: 322; Yılmaz ve Turan, 2019: 313; Taner, 2020: 64).

Performance-based budgets and strategic plans are not different concepts. The two concepts seem to complement each other. The goals to be achieved are determined by the strategic plan. The performance-based budget allocates public resources according to the indicators in the strategic plan and annual performance program. Public institutions that carry out their activities with strategic plans become accountable for their administrative and financial performance with annual reports (Karasu and Demir, 2012: 340; Songür, 2015: 60).

Studies carried out for objectives in public institutions can be evaluated with strategic plans and this contributes to the qualitative development of the public sector. Transparency in administrative processes greatly reduces corruption in public administration. The use of performance information with strategic priorities in public administration shows the existence of a process based on good governance by a wide stakeholder community including the media, public opinion, politicians and experts (Usta, 2014: 52; Taner, 2020: 60). With the transition to the presidential government system, the Strategy and Budget Presidency was established in 2018. The management of public institutions at the central level with a strategic management approach, including strategic planning, is effective in making the right decisions that will ensure rationality in public administration (Alkan, 2021: 82).

Conclusion

In traditional public administration, bureaucracy and paperwork are high, public works are progressing slowly, and more procedures are given importance. Public administration reforms after 1980 put citizen participation, accountability and responsiveness on the agenda. With the influence of the New Public Management, the strategic management approach has also been adopted in public administration.

The strategic plans prepared by public institutions enable them to progress in line with the goals and to see the results of the activities more easily. Strategic planning and performance management complement each other. Performance management is an indicator of whether institutions apply strategic plans. It is a way of evaluating how effectively public personnel use limited resources in line with their aims. Observing the status of personnel according to performance indicators is an important factor in the success of institutions. It is necessary to ensure that the process works faster and more accurately by motivating the personnel with different motivation sources. In line with the aims prepared in the strategic plan, if the desired results are not achieved, public institutions should implement performance improvement programs by organizing different training programs. Participation should be ensured while preparing strategic plans. Participants are more easily informed about strategic plans. This will ensure the effective formulation and implementation of strategic plans in the public sector. The importance of public resource allocation and the rationality of public expenditures in state administration will increase gradually. With the latest reforms, the Presidency owns the strategic plan studies at the highest level of the state are an important prerequisite for success. Making use of the experiences of the private sector and other stakeholders, public institutions revise their aims and results based on the feedback of the citizens, and strategic planning and performance management will no longer be a routine activity.

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CHAPTER XXIII

AN ASSESSMENT ON THE APPLICABILITY OF LEAN MANAGEMENT POLICIES IN THE PUBLIC

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1. Introduction

There is a rapid development process in the world under the framework of globalization, technological developments, and transition to information society. States and organizational structures start their own modernization processes in different dimensions in order to keep up with this change. Especially in the last quarter of the 20th century, a new approach to the management of the public sector emerged in the world. This approach, called the new public administration approach, has added many new concepts and values to public administration, arguing that the traditional public administration approach cannot meet the changing needs of today. The concept of “Lean Management” is among the new concepts that the new public administration approach brings together with the public administration in line with its principles. This understanding whose foundations are laid in the private sector was first applied in enterprises,

and then tried to be adapted to public administration with the paradigm change that was experienced.

The approach of lean management comes to the fore as a result of such factors as the increase in competition among businesses in the private sector, the advancement of techniques and methods in the production of goods and services, and the expectations of customers for quality goods and services. Because of reasons such like globalization, economic changes, advancement in technology and information, and the increasing competition, the businesses that take more responsibility for meeting the expectations of their customers such as low prices, quality products and services, and fast delivery have had to adapt to constantly changing orders placed in smaller quantities of various products and services in order to fulfill this responsibility. Today, as in the 1900s; the idea of “I sell what I produce” has lost its validity, and such aspects as adaptation to demand changes, which businesses lack, cost, speed, and variety have begun to be filled by other businesses as opportunities. For this reason, businesses have had to form an organizational structure and adopt a management style in a way that quickly adapts their management and production understanding to changes, meets customer expectations, eliminates unnecessary and wasteful elements, and ensures efficiency, and also efficient use of resources. This need has enabled businesses to switch to *lean management*. The lean management approach, which is experienced and tested within the scope of enterprises, has been presented as a solution offer to the public sector, which has difficulty in meeting these expectations with the change and increase in the demands and expectations of the society as a result of the wide-ranging change throughout the world.

In this context, the first part of the study examines the concept of lean management with its general framework, and briefly mentions its historical development and explains the principles of lean management. In the second part of the study, the process of adapting lean management to the public, as a concept originating from the private sector, is discussed. In this direction, it is explained that the stages of transition to lean management in the public sector are evaluated in the light of the development of public administration and that how the concept is reflected in practice. Finally, the advantages and disadvantages, encountered in the adaptation of lean management to the public, are given and suggestions thought to facilitate the application are made, depending on the differences arising from the basic characteristics of the private and public sectors.

2. Lean Management with its General Framework

This section discusses the concept of lean management with its various and historically dimensions and expresses the principles of the concept of lean management.

2.1. The Concept of Lean Management

Before mentioning the concept of lean management, it is useful to mention the concept of 'lean thinking'. Lean thinking is based on the "*muda*" principle. The word "*muda*", which comes from Japanese, can be expressed as "getting rid of the elements that do not form value and cause waste (Wee and Wu, 2009: 336; Ruttimann and Stockli, 2016: 144). The concept of lean thinking was first discussed by Krafcik (1988); the concept started to be known by Womack et al. (1990)'s one of the best-selling books of 1990, "*The Machine That Changed the World*" (Womack et al., 1990: 13; Poppendieck, 2002: 1). According to Womack and Jones (2003: 15), lean thinking can be expressed as getting rid of the elements that cause waste, such as the production of goods and services that is non-compliance with customer expectations, the errors that require correction, the overproduction and increase in the stocking costs due to this reason, the excessive movements of employees and unnecessary transportation of goods, and the waiting of the people in the process due to unfinished works.

The philosophy of lean management began to flourish at Toyota's manufacturing plant in the mid-21st century in Japan. Lean management, which broke new ground in the industry with its philosophy and technique, was noticed in the West in the 1980s. The lean management system is also known as the 'Toyota Production System'. Its biggest contribution to the industry is the wholly elimination of unnecessary stocks and the formation of a philosophy about producing everything in line with the customer's demand and desire (Marchwinski et al., 2008: 52). Lean management philosophy can be expressed as examining the entire system and getting rid of these activities in order to reduce the time spent on the activities that do not add value to the business (Shannon et al., 2010: 281). In other words; the lean management aims at increasing customer satisfaction and reducing costs by eliminating all kinds of waste in the entire process from production to shipment in the businesses (Mabry et al. Morrison, 1996: 96; Katayama and Bennet, 1996: 9). In lean management, it is possible to improve processes by using production factors optimally with the least possible resources and at the lowest cost according to customer expectations (Kuriger

et al., 2010: 489). In the light of this information; lean management can be expressed as 'a management philosophy' which is based on catching flexibility in meeting customer expectations by eliminating waste elements in businesses, avoiding all kinds of waste, and planning activities to constitute added value at once and without any problems.

When the literature is reviewed, it is seen that the sources of waste are examined in the eight titles as excessive production, waiting, transportation, unnecessary processing, excessive inventory, excess movement, defects (errors), and human waste. Excessive production waste expresses producing more than customer's demands; waste of waiting sometimes is called queuing and inactivity at flow activity times; transport waste shows an ongoing business processes moved from one process to another; unnecessary action indicates extra operations such as work-process duplication and storage, which are caused by excessive production or holding excessive stocks and various errors in enterprises; stock wastage refers to unnecessary stocks for orders that customers do not need; waste of movement, every extra step that workers and equipment take; defects (errors), final products or services that do not match the customer's expectations, and human waste means the inefficient use of the workforce, that is, the inability to use people's thoughts and creative inputs to improve processes and applications (Ohno, 1988:19-20; Liker and Meier, 2005: 35-36; Hicks, 2007: 236-237).

2.2. History of the Concept of Lean Management

Lean management can be traced back to the time and motion studies of F.W. Taylor (1911) and F.B. Gilbreth (1911). According to Taylor (1911: 24-29), the extra body movements of the workers and the time that they wait without working reduce the productivity. The fact that Japan was exposed to the restrictions after the Second World War and therefore went through a bad economic process caused a great lack and insufficiency of basic production factors such as raw materials, human resources, and capital. The country in this process lagged far behind the USA in terms of working systems and economy when compared to other countries (Hara, 1998: 224-225). Then, Toyota's employee Eiji Toyoda (a member of Toyota's founding family) and Taiichi Ohno (Toyota's production engineer) went on an expedition to the USA to study on the Ford production systems (a mass production system). However, as a result of their research, they concluded that the growth rate of the Japanese economy is relatively low, that the customers in the USA prefer a small variety of products in large quantities;

the customers in Japan, on the other hand, decided that Ford's production system was not suitable for Toyota due to reasons such as the fact that customers prefer a wide variety of products but in small quantities, mass production removes flexibility in the production of goods and services, prevents the efficient use of production factors and causes a rigid hierarchy (Ohno, 1988: 93; Arnheiter and Maleyeff, 2005: 9). For this reason, they stated that it would be necessary to turn to a new management and production approach. Under the leadership of Toyota's geniuses -Eiji Toyoda and Taiichi Ohno-, the "Toyota Production System", known today as "lean management", in which production is examined step by step and all waste sources are eliminated, was developed (Duque and Cadavid, 2007: 71-72). Toyota has achieved great success in this way (Husar, 1991: 1). The concepts of "lean" and "lean thinking" were introduced to the literature by John Krafcik (1988), who worked as a researcher at the International Motor Vehicle Project, which is a research unit at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Womack et al., 1990: 13). In addition, the concepts have become known by the books of Womack et al.'s "*The Machine That Changed the World*" (1990) and Womack and Jones's "*Lean Thinking*" (1996) (Liker and Hoseus, 2008:15).

2.3. Principles of Lean Management

Lean management practices are handled within the framework of some principles. These principles are included in the book "Lean Thinking" published in 1996 and rearranged in 2003 by Womack and Jones. The principles consist of "value", "value stream", "flow", "attraction", and "excellence". 'Value' relates to the importance attributed to customers for a product or service. In other words; value is the product or service that meets the customer's needs and expectations at a certain price at a certain time and place. 'Value stream' refers to the elimination of non-value-added activities (elimination of waste) and to the most efficient way to deliver the product or service to the customer. 'Flow' is about keeping the value-making elements in flow and trying to remove all obstacles in the process. It can also be expressed as providing that the raw material flows from its arrival to the final products and services so that the products and services can be presented to the customer on time. Attraction means setting up a production system that operates with zero stock logic by taking into account the customer's wishes and expectations; in other words, it means that no product or service is produced without demand. Excellence, on the other hand, can be defined as striving to achieve the best products and services through continuous

improvement (*kaizen*) instead of great leaps in activities (*zero faults*) (Womack and Jones, 1996: 16; Woehrle and Abou-Shady, 2010: 68; Radnor et al., 2013: 365). In the light of these principles, lean management is expressed as providing products and services to make value for customers and meet their expectations, with the least error, away from waste sources to increase costs, and with the principle of continuous improvement of activities.

3. Lean Management Practices in the Public Sector

In the 21st century dominated by globalization; all countries of the world continue their existence in a competitive environment transcending border. In this period when the approaches based on ensuring transparency in the public service provision and the active participation of citizens and non-governmental organizations in the formulation and implementation of public policies has begun to come to the fore, the idea of implementing many private sector-based methods within the scope of public administration have gained weight. Lean management, which is at the forefront of these methods, has come to the fore as an approach which is beneficial to use due to the economic global developments and crises led by the competitive environment in mention. Because, the approach of lean management that aims to ensure that all resources of the organization are used efficiently has been evaluated among the most appropriate methods for public administration of which primary purpose is to provide effective and efficient service to the citizens.

3.1. Stages of Transition to Lean Management in the Public Sector

The traditional understanding of public administration, which had strict, hierarchical, and bureaucratic features that made its presence felt intensely throughout the world until the 1980s has left its place to a more flexible, decentralized, and market-oriented public administration understanding as a result of the paradigm shift in the administration. The events having effects on a wide range of political, economic, social, and cultural areas such as globalization and developments in information and communication technologies have brought about a change in public administration, basically. The administrative and multi-faceted restructuring studies that were initiated for traditional public administration understanding and practices since these dates have made such concepts as efficiency, transparency, accountability, and participation under the title of “governance” the dominant principles of the administrative system

(Yaman and Onalp, 2017; Sahnagil, 2020a: 416; Gundogan, 2007). In other words; the centralized and non-changeable organizational structures of the traditional management approach have been replaced by the new structures where local governments are strengthened and participatory democracies begin to gain weight, and where some principles like efficiency, effectiveness, accountability, locality, and openness in service provision are determinative, especially in the 2000s.

The fact that the traditional bureaucratic structure of the public administration is insufficient to meet the ever-increasing and diversifying service demands of the society has brought the need for restructuring efforts to the fore, and the rediscovery of civil society has come such concepts like decentralization and governance to the fore. This situation has changed the nature of the relationship between the people, who benefit from the public service, and the service provider, and the principles such as efficiency in service, effectiveness, resource saving, transparency, citizen-orientedness, and pluralism have been added to the public administration literature (Sahnagil, 2020b; Acar and Akman 2021). With the “New Public Management Approach”, which emerged as a solution proposal in order to eliminate the deficiencies of the traditional management model; the structure, viewing methods, production, and presentation of public services have also changed. It has been accepted that public services can be provided by the private sector and voluntary organizations as well as the public sector, and the techniques and methods specific to the private sector have been started to be used in the production of services. With the implementation of the new management techniques in the private sector under the field of public administration, the traditional management approach focusing more on rules and processes has shifted to a managerial approach that focuses on goals, results, and performance measurement (Kocaoglu, 2015; Parlak & Sobaci, 2012: 226; Sezer & Buyukpinar, 2021: 81). The efforts towards providing public services effectively have brought the use of management principles and techniques of the new public management approach to the agenda (Christensen, 1988: 55). Lean management is one of these techniques in this point.

One of the factors leading the businesses to switch to lean management is to minimize personnel costs. Moreover, the companies that compete with time in an intense competitive environment have to constantly review themselves and adapt quickly to changes. Companies that have to provide their products and services in a customer-oriented manner can work in teams instead of being overly attached to the center via lean management. Lean management providing

companies with a certain level of freedom by this feature also highlights an understanding that supports the participation of all actors in the organization. Lean management, which imposes the responsibility of developing vision and motivating employees on the top managers, requires the organizational culture to be open to developing and learning (Yaman, 2007, 75; Tunc, 2016: 32). As a result of the new public management approach, the application and also applicability of market methods and competitive mechanisms for public administration has led to the idea of reflecting lean management to the public by these features. Because, the idea that the public administration is self-sufficient has left its place to the idea of public satisfaction and the performance audit process with the 2000s (Arikboga, 2007: 43). Therefore, such issues as the necessity of public institutions to use their resources as efficiently as possible and to adapt to developing technological opportunities, and the fact that they are accepted as the organizations that meet the needs of individuals at the least cost and aim to maximize individual satisfaction, have enabled the implementation of lean management policies in public administration.

Lean management, which first manifested itself as the government's undertaking strategic tasks in public administration and the transfer of services that causes inefficiency to the private sector by contract, made its presence felt in practice with more concrete steps with the adoption of a customer-oriented/citizen-centered public administration approach. In this context, such reforms as developing a new personnel policy to reduce employment in the public sector, making administrative units simpler and more transparent, distributing the decision-making and responsibility in line with the understanding of decentralization, forming conditions in the public sector that are similar to competition in the market, increasing the quality of public services and products as a requirement of the understanding of competition, and the transition from the vertical organization model to the horizontal organization model (Hood, 1991: 5; Pollit, 2007: 110 Fábíán, 2010: 37-42; Parlak & Sobaci, 2012: 227; Lamba, 2015: 128) support the functionality of lean management in public administration and paved the way for lean management philosophy in the public sector.

3.2. Lean Management Practices in the Public Administration

The executive function in lean organizations is based on decentralization or delegation of authority. Lean management designing a system in which top managers can delegate their authority to subordinates keeps the team spirit alive by giving the employees the authority to find and implement the changes which

can make their work efficiently and effectively (Vergiliel, 1998). In addition, responsibility to the public, which is one of the important requirements of the new public management approach, is another issue that constitutes the common ground with the approach of lean management. Public employees in this context are held accountable not to politicians, but to the public; the transparency, openness and ways of obtaining information are facilitated in the administration. In this way, it is desired to increase the quality-of-service delivery by making the service-oriented managerial approach dominant (Eryilmaz, 2013: 54-55). Municipal organizations are among the areas where these situations are most clearly reflected in the practice. Municipalities, as the closest units to the citizens in terms of service production, aim to use their public resources in order to ensure citizen satisfaction while maintaining the service quality. Lean management goes on line as an important understanding to execute the objectives of municipalities to provide quality service at the least cost. According to Aktas (2021: 119), the lean management approach emerges as an approach that enables the effective and efficient use of resources in the public sector, to increase power of savings, reduce costs, boost performance and efficiency, bring quality and competitiveness to a high level, and correct strategic and operational works, mostly in one go, with a true and an economic study.¹

In addition to the new principles that were brought to the managerial process and understanding; the reorganization of the distribution of duties, authorities, responsibilities, and resources between the central administration and local administrations and giving more authority, responsibility, and resources to the local administrations in general and municipalities in particular (Yaman and Önalp, 2017) constitute another result of the reform period when also included lean management. In this context, the local government reforms were made in

¹ E.g.; Metropolitan Municipality of Bursa started to carry out the process with the plans that It prepared for lean transformation as an example to the public in 2020. Firstly; the municipality reduced the overtime expenses of the administration by 52% by the end of 2020 by restructuring the overtime needs and existing working models in services such as road works, parks and gardens, urban aesthetics, cemetery services, machinery operation, where overtime is performed, in accordance with the lean management approach. As a result of the simplification works carried out in 2020, the Municipality saved 71.8 million TL in total (Aktas, 2021: 119). Addedly; Osmangazi Municipality has increased the speed of service delivery by 52%, by reducing the time wasted, with the improvement and process integration studies which It has done with the value stream map and the transition to the *Electronic Document Management System* (Cetin, 2014: 67).

accordance with the lean management approach and so the legal infrastructure studies were carried out in the local organizations, especially in the municipalities on the basis of such issues as participation, openness, transparency, resource savings, financial control, delegation of authority, and citizen satisfaction.² In many municipalities, the plans of emergency and medium-term action were prepared and implemented, and the lean transformation studies were carried out on the basis of the strategic plan, quality management system, public internal control standards, and business processes of the institution(s) (Aktas, 2017: 119). In addition, the legal arrangements were made for the municipalities to be authorized in having many works and services done or having them operated, in addition to granting concessions or having some works and services done with the build-operate-transfer model (Lamba, 2014: 142).

The developments experienced in information and communication technologies have been facilitating factors in the reflection of lean management on public institutions in such cases as the increase and diversification of transportation opportunities. Lean management in which the use of information has an important place includes the free decision-making authority of the self-administered groups and the employees, unlike the bureaucratic management where certain behavioral patterns and centralism are adopted. Because, the coordination in lean management takes place in a non-hierarchical and horizontal structure rather than being carried out within the framework of the chain of command (Tunc, 2016: 57). In this context, e-government policy is one of the important policies to simplify the managerial process by reducing bureaucracy. ‘Electronic government’ or ‘e-government’ in short name can be defined as

2 E.g.; the Municipal Law No. 5393 is one of the most important steps of the reform efforts in the local governments. The general rationale of the law states that there is a process of change and transformation in the world, and such concepts and understandings like new public administration, effectiveness, participation, efficiency, pluralism, transparency, predictability, accountability, and result-oriented have emerged in this process. By the framework of this understanding, the distribution of duties, authorities, responsibilities, and resources between the central and local administrations were rearranged, and also it was envisaged to give more authority, responsibility, and resource to the local administrations in general and the municipalities in particular (Yaman and Onalp, 2017). Moreover, the legal studies such like the Right to Information Law No. 4982 and the Public Financial Management and Control Law No. 5018 supported the implementation of the lean management approach by implementing practices like strategic planning and management of performance and process in the public institutions in line with the principles of new public management.

the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in the provision of services by the public institutions and the participation of the governed in the democratic managerial process (Yildiz, 2007: 39). E-government that uses information technologies as a basic tool and includes many service items from health to education and security to environment provides an opportunity to increase the efficiency of public services offered to various segments such as citizens, public institutions, and business world (Carter and Belanger, 2005: 5). Therefore, the transition to the e-government model is important in terms of moving away from the heavy bureaucratic processes and paperwork that the state goes through while providing public services, and meeting the ever-increasing public needs effectively and quickly (Ari, 2009: 13). In addition, lean management in the public sector means that employees constantly focus on eliminating waste, just like in product production, and that managers see employees as “the owner of the business”. In this context, in order to ensure the communication of the employees working in the central and provincial organizations of many public institutions; software is being developed to regard their duties and integrate the central and provincial organizations over the intranet network in order to accelerate the information exchange between the departments, to reach the sought information quickly, to minimize the problems experienced in communication, and to facilitate cooperation.

In the light of developments in information and communication technologies; public institutions have faced the necessity of attaining an innovative and dynamic structure suitable for the age, and this situation has had positive effects on citizen satisfaction. Lean management, which saves time in a sense, has started to gain a place in the public sector both with the ease of communication opportunities of the citizens to public institutions and with the development of the understanding of service delivery over the internet. In this context, public institutions have developed mobile lines that citizens can reach 24/7 with communication facilities and provided the mechanisms which undertake the function of providing accurate information and solve the problem through call center lines. Such policies bring along the process of increasing citizen satisfaction with less time, less cost, and more correct solution (Tunc, 2016: 87). Additionally, new generation technologies that connect devices, machines, vehicles, goods, structures, institutions, systems, objects, and people via the internet based on a certain electronic address, which are called ‘internet of things’, are also used for providing public services today among the mechanisms that support simplification. In this context, institutions

and administrations that form the public sector have started to benefit from advanced networks, wearable technologies, GPS systems, sensors (sensors), and applications in order to use the technology of ‘internet of things’ for their purposes. Public institutions, which also use cloud technology effectively, reduce data storage costs and also realize the acquisition, processing, and use of information with less time and cost with artificial intelligence applications (Yilmaz and Mecek, 2021).

4. Conclusion and Evaluation

The aim of lean management is to ensure that the organization is transformed into an efficient one with all its resources and to save the organization from unnecessary expenses or negativities by making the necessary improvements within the organization. This purpose makes the lean management an important element for all levels of public administration that uses a limited public resource and strives to provide quality service to its citizens. Lean management expressing the processes in which extravagance is minimized and easily adapts to change provides significant advantages on the efficiency and effectiveness of the management process when applied in a planned and controlled manner. At the beginning of these advantages is access to the service in a fast and easy way. According to Cetin (2014: 23); since the administrative structures where bureaucratic processes are intense and do not have a flexible structure cannot effectively use the ways of feedback, they have difficulties to meet the demands of the citizens quickly. Lean thinking comes into play exactly at this point and is able to achieve the targeted citizen satisfaction by focusing only on the facts that the citizen sees as value, without making large-cost investments. Because when it comes to public institutions, it is necessary to place the citizen at the center of the process, not the public official or the policies.

The plans in lean management which is shaped on plans containing strategic decisions are made to ensure the harmony of innovations with strategies. This situation contributes to the (public) segments that provide services and benefit from the service at the point of providing the optimal benefit by making quick and effective decisions in public administration. Additionally, the lean management approach documents and streamlines the business processes and helps standardize the managerial process.

Moreover, the development of software in which the central and provincial organizations of public institutions are integrated within themselves through

the intranet network prevents the wastes such as waiting, transportation, and unnecessary transactions, which are waste sources, and enables the institution to continue its activities in a more efficient environment of work. In addition, lean management acts with the logic of zero hierarchy ensures that the management processes are carried out within the scope of effective communication and citizen satisfaction, helping citizens to participate in the managerial processes at many points. Therefore, lean management improves services first of all, increases quality, and realizes standardization of process that is decreased in the public sector.

In addition to its various advantages, there are also some disadvantages faced with adapting lean management to the public, depending on the differences arising from the basic characteristics of the private and public sectors. The private sector, in a narrow sense, provides services in accordance with a certain customer group and their potentiality, taking into account their demands and wishes. In the public sector, as it is difficult to restrict the beneficiaries of the service and the variety of services, it is not possible to define citizens as 'customers'. Thus, once a public service is offered, all citizens benefiting from this service should be observed. (Celik, 2013: 66; Akcakaya, 2012: 192). This situation may prevent lean management from realizing the principles of meeting the needs of service users completely, error-free, on time, and in the most efficient way. The mechanisms of decision-making and implementation in the public sector have to work together with different pressures from the society, interest groups or politicians. The excess of actors in public administration emerges as a compelling factor for lean management that is based on delegation of authority and aims to prevent waste of employees.

The lack of competition in the public sector constitutes a significant disadvantage for lean management that gains strength with the increase in competition among enterprises in the private sector. Because competition is one of the basic dynamics of the free market and the private sector and also one of the most important factors that determine the qualities of the goods that circulate in the market as it becomes cheap, high quality, and accessible. It requires being ahead of its competitors basically in order to be preferred in terms of the reasons why consumers prefer a certain product or service. Improving the quality of the service or product in the environments where there is no competition may not be seen as 'an absolute necessity'. Accordingly, the lack of alternative providers in many of the services in the public sector; that is, the absence of any alternative option to improve the service and its conditions determined by the government

through competition (Eren and Kahraman, 2020: 308; Akcakaya, 2012: 193; Karasoy, 2014: 269) may prevent the public from paying necessary attention to lean management principles. The fact that the goals of public institutions cannot always be determined as clearly as those of private sector institutions (Cuganesan et al., 2014: 281); the difficulty of determining exactly the services provided in the public sector, and the outputs obtained from this service and even the inputs provided as a resource (Akcakaya, 2012: 193), and that public personnel or the public is closed to innovations can also negatively affect the development of approach of lean management.

As a result; it should be placed the principles and practices of lean management throughout the organization first of all, and the studies on lean transformation should be handled as a process, not as a project at the institution/organization. Units to carry out the simplification policies of the institutions and to provide coordination should be determined; competent personnel should be assigned in this regard. In addition, the organization should internalize the lean transformation with pilot studies and use it as a managerial tool. In this context, raising the awareness of managers and personnel on lean management and providing basic and lean tools training to expand their capacity are among the elements to ensure a healthier progress in the process. Besides, having an infrastructure oriented towards human management; in other words, the formation of a team spirit is among the conditions of having a lean management for institutions. Employees start to adopt the team spirit more quickly when they feel safe in their working environment. Accordingly, motivating the personnel and conducting studies on this can be seen as one of the methods that will ensure the loyalty of the employee to the institution. Therefore, lean practices should be valid and improved in all processes within the organization. All personnel, starting from senior managers to department managers and employees, should make the necessary analyzes and reveal all process problems for it. Considering the developments in information and communication technologies; supporting the information security process with legal and technical infrastructure as well as technical or administrative security measures is an important requirement for the success of lean management practices that is implemented based on technology; especially *e-government*. In addition, an effective element of providing continuous improvement, an integral part of lean management, is to establish successful communication and to build the improvement on it. In this context, the role of communication should be embraced by all levels and a feedback culture should be built.

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CHAPTER XXIV

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MIGRATION MANAGEMENT

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1. Introduction

Some researchers have termed the period that covers the end of the last century and the century we are in as the age of migration (Castles & Miller, 2009). Although it is the age that we live in which has been specifically termed as the age of migration, the phenomenon of migration is as old as the human history. However, it is also an undeniable fact that the developing technologies, transportation and communication opportunities, people's desire for a better life, the increase in life expectancy, rapid population growth, wars, internal turmoils, social deterioration, increase in natural and man-made disasters and the increase in exposure to these disasters both triggered and facilitated the mobilization of people, thereby resulting in the age that we live in to be specifically termed as the age of migration (Çavuş, 2019; IOM, 2022).

Immigration has become one of the most important dynamics of the 21st century and continued to occupy the agenda almost everywhere, from the populist rhetoric of right-wing parties against immigration and immigrants to the headlines of high-level newspapers, and from scientific congress halls to street fights (Eule, 2016).

According to the report published by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the number of international migrants has surpassed 280

million worldwide in 2022, compared to 84 million in 1970, indicating not only a numerical, but also a proportional increase. In other words, compared to 2.3% of the world population in 1970, immigrants constituted 3.6% in 2020, i.e., one out of every 30 people living in the world has been classified as an immigrant (IOM, 2018a). As these quantitative data suggest, migration has turned from a problem that concerns only one or a few regions or countries into a dire situation that affects all countries in the world in one or another way, requiring the adoption of a coordinated and joint intervention with a global approach in its solution (Çağlar, 2018).

Effective management of migration is extremely important in terms of preventing the country of origin, country of destination and the transit countries from the negative effects of migration. Moreover, with a successful migration management, the countries in question may not only avoid the negative effects of migration, but also gain certain benefits (ILO, 2018).

2. Migration Terminology

Migrations may occur due to many different factors, resulting in different positive or negative effects in the societies of destination countries. As a matter of fact, many studies in the literature draw attention to the complexity of the phenomenon of migration and that it concerns many disciplines. Long-term research data have demonstrated that migration is not a uniform phenomenon and is shaped by many economic, geographic, demographic and other factors. In parallel, the sizes of the populations affected by migration, which has a dynamic structure, in different parts of the world vary greatly (Öner, 2012; IOM, 2022), and migration terminology reflects this diversity.

The phenomenon of migration, which is defined as the displacement process of a person within the borders of a state or across the national borders in the dictionary prepared by IOM (IOM, 2019), can also be seen as a survival strategy for individuals and families (Adepojou, 2004).

According to Kane, migration is simply a barometer of change. Migration is an indicator and reflection of various grievances ranging from poverty to violation of human rights. Additionally, migration does not simply refer to a positive or negative situation. It is rather a response to modern economic systems, transportation facilities, communication networks, political chaos and individual factors that form the basis of displacement (Kane, 1995).

Both the definitions made in the literature and the definition made by the IOM indicate that migration can actually be considered as an umbrella term.

IOM further describes migration as a form of displacement that encompasses any movement of individuals, regardless of the duration, causes, or consequences, and any action by refugees, asylum seekers, stateless persons, displaced persons, illegal immigrants, those who immigrated for work, family reunification and for other objectives (IOM, 2018b).

All these evaluations on migration indicate that migration can be categorized into different types, that the concepts of migration and immigrant are different from each other, and that there are also different types of immigrants based on different reasons for migration. This diversity stems from the fact that immigration is handled in a variety of different ways legally, administratively, scientifically, statistically, etc. (IOM: 2022). For the purposes of this study, the definition of migration given by IOM, which is an important actor in migration, is used. As stated in the IOM's dictionary, further categorizations are possible under the umbrella term of migration. Some of these categories are; economic migrants, who are defined as the migrants displaced by economic opportunities (IOM, 2019), international migrants, who are defined as the migrants who leave their country of citizenship or their country of birth and migrate to other countries (OHCR, 2019), and irregular migrants, who are defined as the migrants who have identification documents, but migrated to any country without appropriate documents for entry and exit (UNTS, 1999). There are also other categories created to express the individuals who had to migrate forcibly such as asylum seekers, internally displaced persons and refugees. The individuals who migrated forcibly constitute a small part of the total immigrant population, yet they need the most help and support the most compared to other immigrants (IOM, 2022).

An asylum seeker, i.e. an individual seeking individual protection, is entitled to protection in the country where he/she applied for asylum during the period his/her application reviewed. In other words, although not every asylum seeker is a refugee, every refugee is initially called an asylum seeker (UNHCR, 2006).

A refugee, who has a legal status, has been defined in the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and its Protocol dated 1967 as follows:

“Any person who is outside the country of his/her nationality because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership to a particular social group or political opinion, or who is unable or unwilling to benefit from the protection of the country of

his/her nationality due to such fear, or who does not have a nationality, or who is outside the country of his/her former residence due to such events, or who is unable or unwilling to return the country of his/her former residence due to such fear”

On the other hand, an internally displaced person is defined as a person who has been forced or compelled to leave their home or place of residence, especially to avoid the effects of armed conflicts, widespread violence, human rights violations, and natural and man-made disasters, and has not or could not cross an internationally recognized state border (IOM, 2019). Migrations can also be categorized in terms of their scope. For example, in a study, migration was categorized as forced and voluntary migration, permanent and temporary migration, internal migration, seasonal migration, labor migration, laborer migration, and population exchange migration (Naz, 2015). In this regard, Petersen’s study is widely accepted as one of the very first and most important studies on the categorization of migration types. Petersen divided migration into five categories: primitive, forced, impelled, free and mass migration (Petersen, 1958). However, given the complex and dynamic nature of migration mentioned earlier, new classifications of migration have emerged in the following years.

In the broadest sense, migration is typically classified as voluntary and forced migration in the literature (Fitcher, 2006; İçli, 2002). İçduygu and Sirkeci stated that migration can be divided into forced and voluntary migration, internal and external migration, economic migration and political migration, permanent migration and temporary migration (İçduygu & Sirkeci, 1999). A review of the literature reveals that the migration-related concepts are intertwined with each other. For example, migration from rural to urban areas within the borders of a country can be classified under the scope of internal migration as well as voluntary migration. Similarly, in addition to the migration due to armed conflicts, widespread violence, human rights violations, the act of emigration to another country due to drought, unemployment or natural disasters can also be classified under forced migration. Hence, different classifications are made depending on the events, the perspectives of the researchers and the solution strategies.

In this study, various types of migration classified under forced and voluntary migration and the reasons thereof will be discussed conjunctively. For example, forced migration is fed by two factors: natural hazards and man-made hazards. Persecution and torture, which can be given as examples of

man-made hazards, are the triggering factors of forced migration which can, in fact, adapt to current legal and political norms the best. An important fact regarding internal or international armed conflicts, which is considered as one of the other driving forces of forced migration, is that although people generally migrate to avoid dying, sometimes they migrate as the wars directly target their displacement. Political instability and violence are among other human-induced factors that trigger forced migration. For example, violent events following the contested elections in Kenya in 2007, Zimbabwe in 2008, and Ivory Coast in 2011 resulted in large-scale displacements. Additionally, millions of people in the Middle East and North Africa had to relocate in recent years due to political tensions, instability and conflicts. CBRN (chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear threats) accidents can be given as an example of migration due to human-induced hazards. For example, approximately 100.000 people had to be displaced as a result of the nuclear power plant accident that occurred in Chernobyl in 1986 (Hugo, 2017).

Natural hazards such as hurricanes, cyclones, tsunamis, floods, earthquakes, and long-term droughts may also cause forced migration. Mitch and Stan hurricanes in Central America, the tsunamis that occurred in Indonesia in 2004 and in Japan in 2011, the flood disaster in Pakistan in 2010, the Haiti earthquake in 2010, and long-term droughts in Somalia are examples of migration due to natural hazards (Hugo, 2007). 2017).

One of the most important points to note here is that the natural hazards themselves do not directly cause a crisis. It is rather the deficiencies in the organization and governance capabilities of national and local governments, insufficient preparation for emergencies, lack of or insufficient implementation of building regulations, and similar weaknesses in national capacities that have caused these natural hazards to turn into disasters resulting in the displacement of thousands to millions of people. In fact, the key point of the preventive approach for forced migration is the determination and implementation of an effective disaster risk management policy.

One of the concepts used to describe the phenomenon of migration is the concept of voluntary migration. Voluntary migration refers to the type of migration in which the decision to migrate is entirely at the will of the person. Whether this act of migration takes place inside or outside the country, it is considered as voluntary migration if there is no underlying reason such as natural disaster or civil war that forced the individual to migrate (Yalçın, 2004; Erkayhan, 2011).

Individuals who migrate voluntarily may migrate for many reasons, such as having a more comfortable home, living in a good settlement, having a good job, improving their quality of life, attaining economic freedom as well as getting a quality education and living in cities where health opportunities are better (Koçak & Terzi, 2012).

Although the phenomenon of migration is commonly discussed under the umbrella concepts of voluntary and forced migration, it is also possible to address the phenomenon of migration from different perspectives. For example, the migrations caused by the large workforce deficits emerged in the countries that participated in World War II during the post-war period can be considered within the scope of laborer migrations. The migration from Türkiye to Germany during the period of 1958-1961 is one of the most well-known examples of this type of migration (Günay, 2017).

Another such example is the migration of well-educated individuals to countries where they think that they can improve their living conditions and increase working opportunities. This phenomenon is commonly referred to as brain drain. The migration of Turkish doctors who are overwhelmed by the increasing number of violence cases in the health sector and who would like to be compensated better for the work they do can be given as an example of brain drain (Genç, 2022). There are many studies that focus on different types of migration such as population exchange migration, internal and external migration, migration from rural areas to urban areas and urban areas to rural areas, laborer migrations, seasonal migrations, individual and mass migrations.

Migration movements are very important for the development and future of a country. As a reason, migration movements cause countries to constantly undergo dynamic changes. Countries should follow sustainable migration policies so that migration movements do not have negative effects on social life, culture, employment and income levels, economic indicators, and settlements (Aslan, 2015). Moreover, sustainable and up-to-date migration management policies adopted with a view to responding intense human movements should be adopted not only by the destination countries, but also by the developing countries where the immigrants are originated from and the transit countries on the transit route of immigrants.

3. Migration Management

According to the definition made by the United Nations, migration management refers to the coordinated efforts of various government agencies carried out

within the scope of a national system in order to manage cross-border migrations in an orderly and humane way. Accordingly, migration management includes both managing the entry of foreigners within state borders and ensuring the protection measures are provided to refugees and other persons in need of protection (UNDESA, 2019).

The unpredictable and unpreventable nature of migration movements and the need to protect the country's lands from intense migration movements have led states to control and influence migration by using the tools of migration policies (Bolecekova & Olejarova, 2018).

In addition to the regulations enacted by the states within the scope of their own national legislation on resolving and managing migration, there are also some regulations and agreements on migration enforced in the international arena. Accordingly, the countries are a party of some international agreements and conventions in addition to their national immigration policies. For example, Germany, a member of the European Union (EU), which has passed various legal regulations such as Asylum Act, Residence Act, in addition to the Dublin Regulation, Schengen Agreement or Treaty of Amsterdam it has signed with the EU, in order to manage immigration, is one of these countries. There are many other countries like Germany which signed and enacted both national and international instruments on migration. This is expected given the international dimension of migration movements, the security perspectives of countries, the desire of people to live in better conditions or just save their lives. Hence, international joint efforts are necessary to address migration. However, the boats that were capsized while carrying dozens of people in the Aegean Sea, the corpses of children washed up on the shores, and the refugees shot at the borders make it really difficult to provide a positive answer to the question of "Is migration really successfully managed globally?".

3.1. Türkiye's Immigration Management System

3.1.1. History of Migration Management and Structure of Migration Legislation in Türkiye

Türkiye's geographical location is the major reason for its exposure to massive migration movements (GİB, 2015a). These mass migration movements have been continuing at certain intervals since the times Ottoman Empire was ruling the region (Ergüven, 2013). However, the legislative structure that shaped Türkiye's migration management system does not go too far into the past despite these

migration flows. As a matter of fact, the first steps on issues of migration and asylum in Türkiye were taken with the signing of the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, which has an international character (Kap, 2014).

After the institutionalization of migration management in the international sense with the signing of the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, the need to have a national migration management structure has also arisen since Türkiye was exposed to refugee influxes in the later periods due to the Iran-Iraq war, the Gulf war and the civil wars in the Middle East countries.

The national migration regulation enacted in 1994 introduced two concepts, i.e., asylum seeker and refugee, in accordance with the 1951 Geneva Convention and its Protocol dated 1967. However, as stated in Article 3 of the regulation, Türkiye continued to maintain its reservation imposed by its geographical location, and therefore continued to classify those coming from Europe as refugees and those coming from outside of Europe as asylum seekers (Official Gazette, 1994).

Although the regulation enacted in 1994 filled some gaps with regards to the issue of migration in Türkiye, it also brought some problems with it. For example, the fact that the foreigners who took refuge in Türkiye were not sufficiently informed about the process by the authorities and the uncertainties experienced about the process prevented the necessary applications from being made in the limited time stipulated in the regulation (Bozbeyoğlu, 2015: 69). Such process-related problems have resulted in some consequences such as deportation, which has led to the filing of a number of legal cases against the state (Ergüven, 2013). These deficiencies and the verdicts of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) against Türkiye led to the enactment of an amending regulation to the 1994 regulation. Accordingly, 5 articles have been amended, including the removal of time restrictions and uncertainties (RG, 2006).

However, an adequate infrastructure on immigration law could not be established since 1951 resulting in ECHR to continue to pass verdicts against Türkiye (Bozbeyoğlu, 2015).

All these negative developments have led to the Asylum and Migration Bureau of the Ministry of Interior to prepare the Foreigners and International Protection Law (YUKK) No. 6458 in order to overcome the said problems. YUKK has been published in the Official Gazette on dated April 11th, 2013 and entered into force one year after this date (RG, 2013).

3.1.2. Foreigners and International Protection Law (YUKK) No. 6458

The current regulation on migration management in Türkiye is the “Foreigners and International Protection Law (YUKK) No. 6458” published on April 11th, 2013. YUKK consists of 5 sections.

First section includes the objective and scope of the law, the related definitions and prohibition of refoulement; the second section addresses foreigners; the third section addresses international protection; the fourth section includes the common provisions on foreigners and international protection; and the fifth section contains the provisions regarding the Presidency of Migration Management.

In the rationale of this law, it was emphasized that Türkiye was exposed to significant migration movements due to its geography, strategic location, cultural position and political environment, that Türkiye has gradually become a destination country from being a transit country in terms of migration movements and the current regulations in force are insufficient to meet the needs, that a need has arisen for a public institution specialized in migration and asylum, and that Türkiye’s legislation and system related to migration should be harmonized with the EU *acquis*. In particular, the necessity of fighting against irregular migration movements, human trafficking and smuggling was emphasized in YUKK. In accordance with the 1951 Convention, to which Türkiye is a party with geographical limitation, the international protection statuses were regulated as refugees, conditional refugees and subsidiary protection in YUKK (www.goc.gov.tr, 2019).

YUKK covers the procedures related to foreign nationals, international protection procedures to be provided for individuals seeking asylum in border regions, and temporary protection to be provided urgently to foreigners who cannot return to their country of origin and who come to Türkiye *en masse*. Article 2 of the YUKK stipulates that the provisions of international agreements and special laws to which Türkiye is a party are reserved in the implementation of YUKK (RG, 2013). Accordingly, if there is a conflict between a provision included in YUKK and a provision included in an international agreement to which Türkiye is a party, the provision included in the international agreement will supersede the provision in YUKK (Ekşi, 2016).

According to Article 4 of YUKK, no one can be sent back to a place where he/she will face torture, persecution, inhuman or degrading treatment, or be threatened because of his/her ethnicity, religion, nationality or membership of a certain social group (RG, 2013).

This provision, which is stated in paragraph 1 of Article 4 of the YUKK, is related to the “prohibition of refoulement” specified in Article 33 of the 1951 Convention.

Furthermore, some important statuses that were not included in Türkiye’s previous official instruments on migration, i.e., refugee, conditional refugee, and subsidiary and temporary protection statuses, were instituted in YUKK.

According to the 61st Article of YUKK;

“In relation to the events taking place in European countries, any stateless person who is outside the country of his/her nationality because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership to a particular social group or political opinion, or who is unable or unwilling to benefit from the protection of the country of his/her nationality due to such fear; or who does not have a nationality, or who is outside the country of his/her former residence due to such events, or who is unable or unwilling to return the country of his/her former residence due to such fear is given the status of “refugee” after the completion of the relevant status determination procedures” (RG, 2013).

This refugee status defined in YUKK accords with the refugee status defined in 1951 Geneva Convention, which was revised with the 1967 protocol, and the 1994 regulation. It is emphasized in the YUKK that certain conditions must be met in order to gain the refugee status defined thereof (Ekşi, 2016).

Accordingly, for an asylum seeker to be granted asylum;

1. The event that gave rise to his/her asylum has to occur within European countries,
2. His/her fear of being persecuted has to be due to his/her race, religion, membership of a particular social group or political opinion,
3. His/her fear of being persecuted needs to be justified,
4. He/she needs to be outside the borders of his/her country, and
5. He/she cannot benefit from the protection of his/her home country or does not want to benefit from it due to a well-justified fear.

Any person who meets the above-mentioned criteria becomes a refugee as per Türkiye’s domestic law, regardless of whether he/she is connected to any country through citizenship (Ekşi, 2016).

According to the 62nd Article of YUKK;

*“In relation to the events taking place outside of European countries, any stateless person who is outside the country of his/her nationality because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership to a particular social group or political opinion, or who is unable or unwilling to benefit from the protection of the country of his/her nationality due to such fear; or who does not have a nationality, or who is outside the country of his/her former residence due to such events, or who is unable or unwilling to return the country of his/her former residence due to such fear is given the status of “**conditional refugee**” after the completion of the relevant status determination procedures, and allowed to stay in Türkiye until he/she is resettled in a third country” (RG, 2013).*

The term “asylum seeker”, which has been used before YUKK came into force, was abolished with YUKK and the term “conditional refugee” began to be used instead, even though they basically require the same criteria to be met (Ekşi, 2016).

Accordingly, for a person to be granted conditional refugee status;

1. The event that gave rise to his/her asylum has to occur outside of European countries,
2. His/her fear of being persecuted has to be due to his/her race, religion, membership of a particular social group or political opinion,
3. His/her fear of being persecuted needs to be justified,
4. He/she needs to be outside the borders of his/her country,
5. He/she cannot benefit from the protection of his/her home country or does not want to benefit from it due to a well-justified fear,
6. He/she is to be resettled to a third country, and
7. He/she is to be allowed to reside in the country until he or she is resettled in the third country.

According to the 63rd Article of YUKK;

“any foreigner or stateless person who does not qualify as a refugee or conditional refugee, who cannot benefit from the protection of the country of origin or the country of residence, or who does not want to benefit from it

due to the threat in question, but who, if returned to his/her country of origin or country of residence, will:

- a) *be sentenced with capital punishment or executed as a result of this sentence,*
- b) *suffer torture, inhuman or degrading punishment or treatment, or*
- c) *face a serious threat due to indiscriminate acts of violence in situations of international or national armed conflict*

*is given the status of “**subsidiary protection**” after the completion of the relevant status determination procedures” (RG, 2013).*

Additionally, in accordance with Article 91 of YUKK, persons who migrated to Türkiye’s borders en masse due to compulsory reasons can be provided temporary protection.

According to subparagraph f of paragraph 1 of Article 3 of the Temporary Protection Regulation, **temporary protection** is defined as:

the protection provided to foreigners who have been forced to leave their country, cannot return to the country they left, come to or cross our borders en masse or individually during this mass influx in order to find emergency and temporary protection, and whose international protection request cannot be evaluated individually (RG, 2013).

Temporary protection status is granted only in cases of mass influx, provided that certain conditions are met.

Accordingly, only the persons who:

1. are forced to leave their country en masse,
2. are unable to return to their country, and
3. need temporary and immediate protection

can be granted temporary protection status.

A general framework of temporary protection is included in YUKK. The details of the temporary protection procedures were determined by a regulation called the Temporary Protection Regulation issued in 2014 (Ekşi, 2016).

In the Temporary Protection Regulation, it is stated that foreigners who come within the scope of a mass influx are within the scope of this regulation, regardless of which country they come from (Bozbeyoğlu, 2015). Accordingly, the Syrians who took refuge in Türkiye for instance are granted the status of “Temporary Protection”, which came into force pursuant to Article 91 of the YUKK. In addition, Syrians fall within the scope of “prohibition of refoulement” provision in accordance with both Article 4 of the YUKK and Article 6 of the Temporary Protection Regulation.

3.1.3. Presidency of Migration Management (GİB)

The current authorized institution specialized in migration issues in Türkiye is the Presidency of Migration Management, which serves under the Ministry of Interior, producing and carrying out migration policies. The Presidency of Migration Management was established with the Foreigners and International Protection Law (YUKK) No. 6458 No. published in the Official Gazette numbered 28615 and dated April 4th, 2013, and regulated as a General Directorate by Article 103 of the relevant Law. Later, it was given the status of presidency with another arrangement made within the institution (GİB, 2022).

3.1.4. Responsibilities of the Presidency of Migration Management

Responsibilities of the Presidency of Migration Management are (GİB, 2022);

- to carry out the necessary works for the development of legislation and administrative capacity related to migration and to ensure that the relevant policies determined by the President are carried out,
- to carry out the works and procedures related to migration,
- to ensure the protection of individuals who are victims of human trafficking,
- to identify stateless persons in Türkiye and to take the necessary actions in relation to these persons,
- to carry out the compliance policies,
- to execute the temporary protection process,
- to manage all stages of the migration process together with law enforcement units and relevant institutions and organizations in order to combat irregular migration, and
- to fulfill all duties stipulated by the immigration legislation.

3.2. *Germany's Immigration Management System*

Although Germany is reluctant to accept its status as a country of immigrants, it has always been a destination for immigration (Fahrmeir 2000; Scheffer 2001). The majority of those who immigrated to Germany after the Second World War were Germans who came from the former German territories in Eastern Europe and the German Democratic Republic (Geddes, 2003). After the 1950s, a new dimension of immigration emerged with the concept of guest workers. Consequentially, a total of 2.6 million workers, mostly male, were accepted through bilateral agreements with Italy (1955), Spain (1960), Greece (1960), Türkiye (1961), and Portugal (1964) (Oezcan 2004; Schmahl 1995). Although an immigrant population came into existence in Germany as a result of these agreements, the German immigration law was not developed in the early periods (Eule, 2016).

With the increasing number of immigrants, the first Foreigners Law was enacted in Germany in 1965 (Geddes, 2003). The 1965 Foreigners Law was severely criticized for often lacking any essential content and based on incorrect or undefined terms (Dollinger & Speckmeier, 2007; Schuback 2002). The immigrant population in Germany increased rapidly during this period, especially due to family reunification and generously distributed asylum rights (Geddes, 2003). The political pressure to reduce and control immigration reached its peak with further rise in number of immigrants coming to Germany in the late 1980s. Therefore, the provision in the 1965 Foreigners Law that made such extent of immigration possible was amended such that the entry of asylum seekers has been complicated and their deportations were made easier (Guiraudon & Joppke, 2001). As a result, the number of asylum applications dropped from 440.000 which reached its peak at the height of the Yugoslav civil war in 1992 to a staggering 19.164 in 2007 (Guiraudon & Joppke, 2001).

Although additional restrictive regulations were entered into force in the following years, Germany had already become a destination country in terms of migration movements. As a matter of fact, the number of immigrants lived in Germany without German citizenship reached 7 million In 1993 (BAMF, 2009). Of these immigrants, 70% had been living in Germany for 10 years or more, 1.5 million had been born in Germany, and the immigrants who were naturalized constituted less than 0.5 percent of the total population (Geddes, 2003). The centre-left government that came to power in 1998 included both citizenship and immigration law reform in the coalition agreement. Hence, a new citizenship law and a new residence act were enacted in 2000. The new citizenship law radically amended the German citizenship criteria stipulated by

the previous regulation, significantly streamlining the naturalization process of immigrants. Accordingly, children born in Germany and parents with secure legal residence were automatically issued German citizenships (Mandel 2008; Schiffauer 2006). In parallel, the naturalization rates initially increased, yet began to fall quite steadily since then to even below the 1998 level by 2008 (Eule, 2016).

Today, the institution responsible for producing and executing Germany's immigration policies and controlling human mobility at all stages is the Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs and Community (FMIC). One of the four official state secretariats operating under FMIC is responsible for immigration, refugees and return policies. There are two directorates under this secretariat, one responsible for immigration and refugees and the other for refoulement processes. Furthermore, there are five divisions under each directorate (FMICa, 2022). Policies on immigration in Germany are ensured by both domestic legislation and various contracts and agreements signed and prepared within the scope of EU, based on the fact that Germany is a EU country. Therefore, the federal offices responsible for immigration in Germany interact with other European countries in making these policies (Eule, 2016).

Germany has been one of the countries affected by the recent radical increase in international mobility. Information obtained from German sources indicates that immigration movements towards Germany generally originate from outside the EU and triggered by factors such as family reunification, employment or business opportunities, and training opportunities to acquire a profession. Moreover, the number of applications filed under the category of forced migration in Germany has been on the rise particularly since 2009 (FMICb, 2022).

The current immigration policy of the Federal Republic of Germany is designed to manage, control and limit the immigration movements of foreign individuals into the country. In terms of migration policy, Germany pays attention to the integration ability of the immigrants, its interests in terms of economy and labor market, and the acceptability of the immigrants by German society. In addition, Germany's immigration policy is committed to serve to meet humanitarian obligations (FMICb, 2022).

The relevant literature data suggest that the debates on the nature of Islam, the legislation on terrorism targeting some ethnic and religious groups, and the intense migration movements from war-torn countries have significant effects not just on Germany, but also on the Western world and European societies (Eule, 2016).

Migration regulations in Germany are handled under different legal regulations. The Residence Act (AufenthG) and the Asylum Act, which are the two recent laws related to immigration enacted by the Federal Republic of Germany, as a member country to the EU, will be addressed in detail in this study.

3.2.1. The Residence Act (AufenthG)

The objective of the Act on the Residence, Economic Activity and Integration of Foreigners in the Federal Territory, also known as the Residence Act, is to carry out the procedures related to migration such as the entry of foreigners into the country, their residence, employment, and termination of residence. Integration procedures of foreigners into the country and society are also regulated out by the Residence Act. The Residence Act does not apply to EU citizens with freedom of movement, their family members and diplomats (FMICc, 2022).

In this section, the Residence Act currently in force in Germany will be reviewed and information on whether the foreigners who are immigrants can attain residency status will be provided (FMICd, 2022).

According to German law, persons who are not German citizens are called foreigners. Foreigners need a permit, i.e., visa, residence permit, settlement permit or long-term permit, to enter and live on the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany, unless otherwise provided in the legislation or legal documents of EU. These permits are generally granted provided that the foreigner's livelihood is secure, there is no reason for his/her deportation, he/she does not endanger the interests of the Federal Republic of Germany, and he/she has entered the country with a necessary visa. If a foreigner is subject to one of the reasons for deportation specified in the Residence Act, the residence permit is refused (FMICd, 2022). Citizens of EU member states, citizens of Iceland, Norway, Liechtenstein, Switzerland, Austria, Israel, Japan, Canada, the Republic of Korea, New Zealand and the USA are exempted from residence procedures and hence have the right to freedom of movement and access to the job market on German territory without the need for a visa. Countries other than these mentioned countries are subject to various permits and procedures (Bulut, 2020). If a foreigner is not legally entitled to a residence permit and has applied for asylum, a residence permit may only be granted with the approval of the highest state authority if it is in the interests of Germany. Residence permits can be extended by the foreigners office in accordance with the provisions of the relevant law when necessary. A foreigner who has been deported is prohibited

from re-entering the Federal Republic of Germany and staying on the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany, particularly, if this prohibition has been imposed without a time limit such as in cases when the foreigner in question has committed a war crime or any other comparable crime (FMICd, 2022).

According to German legislation, an illegal entry is defined as the entry of a foreigner into the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany without a residence permit or a passport or any document that replaces a passport. In addition, a foreigner may be prevented from entering the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany, if there is any reason for the deportation of the foreigner, if there is a suspicion that the foreigner's motive to enter into the territory of the Federal Republic of Germany is an unacceptable one or if the foreigner does not fulfill the application conditions (FMICd, 2022). All authorities responsible for migration management are in constant communication with all actors, including destination centers and reception centers (CEAR, 2019).

A foreigner can stay in a number of ways in Germany. For example, he/she can be granted a residence permit to study at a state or state-recognized university or similar educational institution. In this case, residence permit for educational purposes can only be granted if the foreigner is registered to the relevant educational institution. A foreigner can also be granted a residence permit for a maximum period of nine months to make an application to an educational institution. The residence permit of a foreigner, which had been granted for educational purposes, may be extended for up to one year after the successful completion of the education in order to look for a job compatible with the respective education, when there is a public interest and a regional interest or an interest in the economy and the labor market, provided that the employment quota for foreigners has not been filled in that particular job category (FMICd, 2022).

In addition, foreigners with high qualifications, such as scientists with special knowhow, teaching staff and scientific personnel in important positions, experts with special professional experience can be granted a residence permit. A residence permit may also be granted to a foreigner for the purpose of conducting scientific research. A foreigner can also be granted a residence permit to establish a business, provided that there is a predominant economic interest or a special regional need, where the activity is expected to have positive effects on the economy (FMICd, 2022).

A foreigner may be granted a residence permit while he/she is abroad in order for him/her to be admitted to the country in accordance with international

law or for urgent humanitarian reasons. A residence permit is issued if the Federal Ministry of the Interior or the body appointed by the Federal Ministry of the Interior to protect the political interests of the Federal Republic of Germany declares that the foreigner will be admitted (FMICd, 2022).

A residence permit may be granted to a foreigner who has been granted temporary protection based on the resolutions of the Council of the EU and has declared that he/she wishes to be admitted to the Federal Republic of Germany. A foreigner is granted a residence permit if he/she is deemed to have an undisputed right to asylum (FMICd, 2022).

A residence permit may be granted to a foreigner also to allow him/her to live together with his/her dependents. This residence permit may be extended on the grounds of protecting marriage and family. Family reunions of different sizes, specific children or spouse-related circumstances even if the spouses are separated, may constitute grounds for a residence permit (FMICd, 2022).

Foreigners living legally and permanently in the federal territory are provided with support for their integration into the economic, cultural and social life of the Federal Republic of Germany and are expected to undertake proportional integration efforts in return. The aim of the integration process is to successfully introduce the German language, legal system, culture and history to foreigners. Among the duties of the federal authorities is also conducting research on immigration to obtain clear analytical information in relation thereto (CEAR, 2019; FMICd, 2022). Although the duties of the federal authorities to provide integration are specified in the German law, there are some criticisms in the literature that the integration centers are not accessible and the integration centers in the federal regions are not within a certain standard (Bulut, 2020).

Foreigners may engage in political activities within the framework of the provisions of the general law in force. There are certain conditions that restrict the continuation of these political activities, such as attempts to endanger public safety (FMICd, 2022).

A foreigner may be forcefully deported if he/she:

- has been sentenced to at least three years' imprisonment for one or more intentional crimes, or to a total of at least three years' imprisonment within five years,
- has committed an intentional crime under the Drug Act, or
- has been sentenced to an unappealable prison sentence for human trafficking.

Pursuant to the implementation of the relevant article of the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, a foreigner may not be deported to a country where his/her life or freedom is threatened or where there is a tangible risk of torture or inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (FMICd, 2022). Under German law, Germany is a party to the relevant article.

3.2.2. German Asylum Act

Persons granted asylum status in the federal territory are granted legal status under the Convention on the status of refugees. According to the relevant law:

Any person who is outside the country of his/her nationality because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership to a particular social group or political opinion, or who is unable or unwilling to benefit from the protection of the country of his/her nationality due to such fear, or who is outside the country of his/her former residence due to such events, or who is unable or unwilling to return the country of his/her former residence due to such fear are granted “refugee” status.

Any foreigner who has applied for refugee status yet has committed a war crime or a crime against humanity, has committed a cruel crime other than a political crime in the region where he/she lived before applying for refugee status or has acted against the purposes and principles of the United Nations is not granted refugee status.

Detailed explanations about the situations that entitle a foreigner to the refugee status and the crimes that abolish the right to refugee status are discussed in the German Asylum Act. For example, for a foreigner to be granted refugee status on the basis of being persecuted because of his/her religious views, he/she should have been persecuted or oppressed due to having theistic, non-theistic and atheistic beliefs or participating in or avoiding official worship or other religious acts or issues in private or in public, alone or together with others ((International Labour Organization (ILO), 2022)).

According to the Dublin Regulation, first, the country through which the asylum seeker who would like to benefit from international protection will continue this process is determined. Dublin Regulation stipulates the continuation of the application process through the country in which the asylum application was made first. For this reason, it is queried whether the foreigner

seeking asylum have applied for asylum in any country before, through the database developed. If it is determined that the foreigner seeking asylum has applied for asylum before in any other country, Germany does not accept the asylum application and sends the foreigner in question to the first country where the application was made. Thus, this system prevents duplicate applications and ensures that each application is made in only one country (Bulut, 2020).

The body that evaluates the asylum applications based on the Asylum Act is the Federal Office for Immigration and Refugees. The Head of the Federal Office for Immigration and Refugees, who is appointed by the Federal Minister of the Interior, ensures that asylum procedures are properly organized. The Head of the Federal Office for Immigration and Refugees is tasked with establishing a branch of the Federal Office for Immigration and Refugees in the form of a Central Reception Facility with a capacity of accommodating 1000 or more persons on a long-term basis, in consultation with the state concerned (ILO, 2022).

Immigration offices and reception centers located at the border regions, which are the first places where immigrants and asylum seekers take shelter, have an important role in evaluating foreigner's eligibility to stay and entitlement to residence. Although these units are at the bottom of the state hierarchy, they are very important for foreigners who have just moved to the country as they represent the state and the legal system in the eye of a foreigner. Hence, the behaviors and treatment of the officers working in immigration offices and reception centers towards asylum seekers can have a significant impact on their perception of the state and positively or negatively affect the success of their integration in the future. (Eule, 2016).

The authorities responsible for the implementation of the Asylum Act may collect as much personal data from asylum seekers as necessary in order to carry out their duties for the purpose of implementing the Act. The data may only be used for the purpose for which it was obtained. Parents have the right to represent their minor children in the asylum application processes (ILO, 2022). However, the increase in the number of immigrant children with no legal guardians causes problems in this regard (Bulut, 2020: 273).

An application for asylum shall be deemed to have been made, if the foreigner expressly states verbally, in writing or by any other means of communication that he/she would like to be protected from political persecution or from being sent to another country by staying in the federal territory. Any foreigner seeking asylum from a border authority responsible for surveillance

of cross-border human traffic shall be immediately referred to the authorized reception center, or to the nearest reception center if the authorized reception center is not known, for registration. The border authority takes the foreigner's photograph and fingerprint. After the application for asylum has been lodged, the Federal Office informs the foreigner in a language he/she can reasonably understand of the course of the procedure and of his/her rights and obligations, in particular the relevant deadlines and the consequences of missing these deadlines (ILO, 2022).

The spouse or registered partner of a foreigner who has been granted asylum status is entitled to asylum, upon application for asylum, provided that the asylum status of the foreigner in question is indisputable and a marriage or same-sex partnership bond exists in the country of residence between the asylum seeker and the spouse or registered partner of the asylum seeker (ILO, 2022).

If another country is responsible for carrying out the asylum procedure or if the country willing to readmit the foreigner is considered a safe third country for that foreigner or if a non-EU country willing to take the foreigner back is considered a third country, the application for asylum may not be accepted (ILO, 2022). Federal authorities are not bound with any time restrictions as to the finalization of this process. If a decision has not been made within the first 6 months, the asylum seekers are informed. For example, the average time to process and finalize asylum applications was 7-8 months in 2017 (CEAR, 2019).

If the foreigner is to be deported to a safe third country or a country responsible for processing the asylum application, the Federal Office orders the deportation of the foreigner to the relevant country in the shortest time possible. In other cases where a foreigner is not granted asylum status by the Federal Office, he/she is given 30 days to leave the country. In the event that a lawsuit has filed against the decision of not being granted asylum and that the verdict has not changed, the deadline for leaving the country will be 30 days after the final verdict. Foreigners who are required to apply for asylum at a branch of the Federal Office should have been living in the responsible reception center for a period up to six weeks, but not longer than six months in any case (ILO, 2022).

Foreigners are not entitled to paid employment as long as they are required to stay in a reception center. An asylum seeker who has stayed in the federal territory for three months may be entitled to paid employment upon Federal Employment Agency's approval (ILO, 2022).

The obligation to live in the reception center may cease before the expiry of six months, provided that certain conditions are fulfilled. These conditions are (ILO, 2022):

- to reside elsewhere or in another accommodation center,
- to be granted asylum status or the right to international protection,
- to get married or to form a same-sex partnership in the federal territory, or
- to meet the legal requirements for a residence permit in accordance with the Residence Act.

Foreigners who need to stay in a reception center or community accommodation center will need to undergo a medical examination for infectious diseases, including an X-ray of the respiratory organs. The country's highest health authority or an other authority designated by the country's highest health authority determines the scope of the medical examination that the foreigners have to go through to stay in a reception center or community accommodation center and the physician that will perform this medical examination. The results of the medical examination are notified to the authority responsible to accommodate the foreigner in question (ILO, 2022).

One of the criticisms is that healthcare services provided to foreigners seeking asylum are limited to acute situations only (Bulut, 2020). Ninety percent of the local population in Germany is insured. There are differences in access to healthcare services between refugees living in Germany and the local population living in Germany, especially since refugees who have just arrived in the country and are staying in reception centers are not insured. The refugees are then granted the right to access healthcare services in the places where they are transferred later during the first 15 months of their transfer, and then the right to benefit from healthcare services is limited to acute illness, pregnancy and birth, except for unaccompanied minors (Rolke, 2018).

The foreigner, who has applied for asylum and has been photographed and fingerprinted, is issued a registration document (arrival certificate) without delay. This document must contain information such as first name, last name, maiden name, photograph, date of birth, place of birth, nationality, gender, height, eye color, the name of the reception center responsible for the foreigner, the number of the document issued, the number and names of their children, if any, the validity period of the document, and the barcode for machine reading, in a visible manner (ILO, 2022).

The asylum and refugee status of a foreigner, who is no longer able to refuse to seek the protection of the country to which he/she is a citizen of in particular, shall be canceled without delay as the conditions on which the relevant status has been based on would no longer exist (ILO, 2022).

One of the important points regarding immigration legislation in Germany is that, as stated before, country's immigration policies are shaped by the agreements and conventions that Germany has signed within the EU, which provide us with some indicators regarding the EU's attitude towards immigration, in addition to the relevant domestic immigration legislation and laws.

3.3. Evaluation of the German Immigration System in the context of the EU Immigration System

The Dublin-I and Dublin II Regulations signed within the EU contain content on immigration control, refoulement policies, visa issuance and biological data of asylum applicants. Dublin Regulation prevents duplicate applications by ensuring that each asylum application is made in only one country and stipulates that any applicant is to be sent back to the first country where they applied for asylum. In this way, the internal migrant mobility provided by the Schengen Agreement has been hindered by the Dublin Regulation. Although mobility within Europe has become easier with Schengen Agreement, external border controls have improved and it has become more difficult for irregular migrants to enter Europe. With these legal instruments, one of the main strategies of the EU has been to move the border controls away from within Europe to the borders of Europe and to continue the surveillance of immigrants before they reach these border. As a result, opportunities for legal immigration have been limited and illegal entry has become even more difficult. Hence, immigrants who insisted on crossing to Europe had to resort to more dangerous routes (Eule, 2016). The member states of the EU have transposed the provisions of these agreements into their domestic laws (Dürgen, 2015).

According to the Schengen Agreement, the common borders of the member states that signed the agreement were abolished (Güleç, 2015). Schengen Agreement also imposed some rules and limitations which have been set to prevent unwanted immigrants from being admitted to the EU. According to these limitations, it is not possible for an asylum seeker who has not actually entered European territory to apply for asylum in the EU (Ünlü, 2007). Western societies, which have socio-cultural approaches that see diversity as wealth, are human-centered and aim to offer quality life to all people, have

been criticized in the literature for not allowing the millions of asylum seekers who have come at their doors entering their territories and for making them wait at borders, as evidenced by the decrease in the naturalization and refugee acceptance rates. Hence, regardless of the content of the respective laws of the relevant countries, the situation in practice for asylum seekers does not look optimistic in terms of the countries they leave from, travel through and arrive at (Duruel, 2017).

One of the policies developed by the EU to control immigration is readmission agreements. Readmission agreements are legal instruments which include arrangements for sending people who have illegally entered the countries within the EU and are still living in these countries, and people who do not have the right to be officially present in EU due to reasons such as the expiration of their visa even if they had met the conditions at the time of entry, back to their countries of origin. Readmission agreements are deemed very important by the countries of the EU, as they are considered an important argument in controlling immigration. In this way, the EU has brought responsibility to third countries by moving migration management beyond its borders (Çelik, 2014). Closing the borders to immigrants, taking police measures, and assigning units to the outer borders do not solve the problem of immigration. On the contrary, such acts cause immigrants who cannot return and thus have to emigrate by taking all risks, to lose their lives (Duruel, 2017). Given that an effective solution has not been developed on migration, the European Neighborhood Policy stands out as another important EU policy on migration. With this policy, it is aimed to prevent migration mobility by taking initiatives through neighboring countries located on the borders and the countries in the Middle East, Africa and Asia which are the source of migration (Samur, 2009). The safe third country policy is another policy developed by the EU with a view to preventing immigration. Safe third countries are defined as the countries where the asylum seeker has made his/her first asylum request or where he/she can seek asylum even though he/she has not requested asylum before applying for asylum in one of the EU countries (Dal, 2016). Based on this policy, EU countries can reject the asylum application of an immigrant who has been in a country where he/she could have applied for asylum before (Peker & Sancar, 2007).

The criticisms made in the literature on the migration policy of EU emphasize that EU does not get to the root of the immigration problem and the problems of asylum-seekers, and that EU's migration policies usually consist of police measures which aim to only save the day. Two concepts, namely

securitization and externalization, stand out in EU's immigration policies (Canpolat & Armer, 2012).

3.4. Comparison of Migration Managements in Germany and Türkiye

In Germany, which has a population of 83.78 million and a high level of human development, there are 15.76 million immigrants, which corresponds to 18.81% of the general population. The number of immigrants that came to Germany as a result of forced migration is 1.453.700 (WMR, 2020). As it can be seen, Germany has become a country with a high immigrant population over a long period of time, both because of the foreigners it has accepted due to the labor shortage in the past and the desire of people to live in a developed country. However, the rate of forced immigrants in the general immigrant population is relatively low.

On the other hand, there are over 3.5 million immigrants who are under temporary protection in Türkiye, constituting the largest immigrant group among the approximately 6 million immigrants (WMR, 2022; GİB, 2022). The number of forced immigrants in Türkiye is much higher than the number of forced immigrants in Germany, both numerically and proportionally. This is in line with the UN's data, which report that 86% of the forced migrants are hosted by developing countries (UNHCR, 2020).

For many years, Germany has been exposed to voluntary migration because it has better living conditions. Türkiye, on the other hand, has moved from being a source country to a destination country, especially after the Syrian civil war, and has been exposed to intense and rapid forced migration. The major difference between the two countries in terms of migration is that although the overall number of immigrants in Germany is higher, the fact that Germany mainly has been receiving voluntary immigrants over a long period of time puts Germany in a better position than Türkiye, which had to accept forced immigrants in a much shorter time (Bulut, 2020).

Türkiye's administrative and legal structure regarding migration management does not go back too far, contrary to Germany. In order to cope with the mass forced migrations it has experienced in recent years, it has enacted a law for the establishment of a specialized institution. However, even though the migration structure has become stronger compared to the past, there are still deficiencies in migration management. For example, the immigration legislation of Türkiye is more superficial compared to the immigration legislation of Germany.

Both in Germany and Türkiye, the migration structure is structured around a central organization, with branches in states and provinces in Germany and Türkiye, respectively.

The institutions responsible for migration issues serve under the Ministry of Interior in both Germany and Türkiye. In addition, the central organizational structures of these institutions are also similar.

Germany's migration policies, against forced migration in particular, are stricter compared to Türkiye's migration policies, given that Türkiye follows an open-door policy and does not exclude forced immigrants who took refuge in its territories.

Germany offers a limited right to healthcare services for refugees and immigrants, especially for the ones who have just taken refuge in its territories, which only includes meeting health needs such as acute illnesses, pregnancy and labor. On the other hand, Türkiye offers asylum seekers and refugees the right to healthcare services free of charge and without any restrictions.

In the light of the above information, it can be concluded that the Türkiye's immigration policy is mostly based on humanitarian and conscientious factors, whereas Germany's immigration policy is based on security and keeping the immigrants outside the country's borders.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

Research data indicate that the immigrant population in the world continues to increase every year, both numerically and in proportion. The pace of this increase is particularly higher in the case of forced immigrants, i.e., refugees and asylum seekers, who are generally victims and in need of more help. A review of the migration policies in force around the world indicates that the fight against migration is mostly aimed at managing the relevant crisis situations, and the procedures followed mostly pertain to the phases after the migration has taken place. It should be noted that migration, as a phenomenon that cannot be prevented despite all the police measures, is one of the most topical issues of today's world. Hence, following considerations should be taken into account if an effective migration management is to be carried out:

- An effective fight against natural, human and technology-related disasters that cause people to migrate at the first place would ensure that peace, security, prosperity and quality life will be evenly distributed throughout

the world. In this way, people will not have to migrate at the expense of losing their lives. It should not be forgotten that 80 million out of the 280 million immigrants in the world today are forced immigrants.

- Disaster management should be incorporated into the migration management in order to eliminate the disaster-related causes of forced migration. It is only in this way that the natural and human-made disasters that cause forced migration such as climate change, drought, earthquake, floods, famine, wars, terrorist acts, internal turmoils can be addressed with a more humane perspective.
- Crisis management and risk management concepts should also be incorporated into migration management.
- The dynamic and complex nature of migration prevents addressing the phenomenon of migration under a single category. Therefore, the perspective of every discipline that has a role in the migration process should be incorporated into migration management and the issue of migration should be addressed with an international effort.
- Forced migrations cannot be prevented unless disasters and political crises are prevented. Attempts to prevent forced immigration process with unscrupulous police measures would undoubtedly be a violation of human rights. Therefore, use of the police measures in the prevention of forced migration should be abandoned and the forced migrants should not be left in danger outside the borders.
- More humane, not preventive, policies should be adopted against forced migration. Preventing people who have valid reasons to seek asylum, keeping them outside the borders would mean preventing the basic human right to asylum.
- Migration policies that will possibly lead to human rights violations should be rejected, and constructive and permanent policies should be adopted instead. Additionally, the concept of migration management should be preferred instead of migration control and the concepts of internalization and integration should be used instead of the concepts of externalization and security. In parallel, integration policies should be adopted for both forced and voluntary migrants.
- The centers established to facilitate the integration and harmonization processes should be of a standard and accessed by both forced and voluntary migrants.

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CHAPTER XXV

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, SECURITY AND PUBLIC ORDER

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1. Introduction

It has been reported that at the beginning of history when there was no state, but nature-based life was dominant, humankind terminated this and the concept of a state emerged based on a framework contract. As a result of the transition to social life, which constitutes a significant phase of human history, it is seen that the main problems faced by people are the issue of who and how to meet common needs such as physiological, security and belonging.

In order for the social needs mentioned here to be met in line with social life, in a certain order to ensure security, individuals in society had to give up a certain part of their freedoms and transfer their powers to institutions representing authority in public administration issues. Because of this, it is stated that public power has become a field of study in the literature for thousands of years, and thinkers such as Plato, Aristotle, Hobbes and Locke put forward their ideas regarding this issue. Based on this, we can say that throughout history, many civilizations have formed institutional structures and organizations that represent public power and authority in different forms and for different purposes.

It could be stated that many security approaches, such as realist, neo-realist, constructivist, Copenhagen school, critical, and collective, address different dimensions of security, but in fact, they also offer the key to public order because public order is based on the fact that society lives in prosperity, peace and well-being. The approaches, together with the different perspectives they put forward rather than a single definition of the subject of security, also show that public order cannot be solved with a purely traditional state-centred understanding. On

the other hand, it should not be ignored that the term “security” differs according to time, space and period to meet the requirements of social peace, people, environment, world, international system, the economy, and politics.

In this study, the importance of security and public order in public administration was emphasized and the concept of public order, as in the concept of security, which differs depending on the time, place and conditions of the period, was discussed to make public administration sustainable in a healthy way. It has been identified that public administration, public order and security concepts, and various emerging threats have become unmanageable and unsustainable with the traditional security approach, and the paradox between the concepts in public administration has been made clear.

2. Conceptual Dimension of Public Administration

With the most general definition, public administration is defined as all the activities carried out in the execution and implementation of public policies to meet the needs of society in a certain order (Yıldırım, 2019: 579). Laxmikanth (2011) reports that Woodrow Wilson defined public administration as the detailed and systematic application of the law of the executive function and as the most visible aspect of the government. It is understood in the study conducted by Shafritz and Hyde (2015) that the reasoning of public order as an academic discipline and a professional field of expertise are very clear (Laxmikanth, 2011: 3-5; Shafritz and Hyde, 2015: 14-15).

Leonard D. White, who was the U.S. Civil Service commissioner from 1934 to 1937, stated that the introductory preface of Leonard D. White’s book is the first and most influential public administration text in the literature and sheds light on public administration research. Here, attention is drawn to four critical assumptions that form the basis of public administration; management should be seen as a single process, the basis is management rather than law, and management functions will be valuable when taken as ideal and formed the heart of the problem of modern government (Shafritz and Hyde, 2015: 14-15). With his assumptions here, White reveals that public administration is a field of study and discipline that must remain close to reality.

As can be understood from the explanations above, public administration, which is seen as a discipline and a professional field of expertise, has been one of the concepts that are difficult to define conceptually in the historical process. However, there is no consensus on how public administration should be implemented, but it is stated that almost everyone has a general idea of

what public administration is. It is seen that what enables the formation of the general idea here is expressed that public administration is seen in many areas (Rosenbloom et al., 2009: 3).

On the other hand, it is stated that with a simple approach, public administration is defined as the government in action at the point of management of public affairs and implementation of its policies (Shafritz et al., 2017: 6). However, it is understood that such a simple definition is insufficient to explain an area where such important tasks are carried out.

Public administration is seen as an aspect of politics that expresses the broader field of management to achieve the goals and objectives set out for political decision-makers. It is stated that the word “public” in the concept of “public administration” means “government” and refers to state administration. Therefore, the public bureaucracy is accepted at the centre of public administration. Based on this, it could be seen when you look at the literature that there are many definitions put forward by the authors regarding the concept of public administration, and these definitions have been brought together by Laxmikanth (2011). A few of these definitions;

Luther Gulick *“Public administration, which is primarily associated with the executive branch where government work is carried out, is the section of management science that is related to government.”*

F.A. Nigro *“Public administration is a collective group work put forward by the legislative, executive and judicial powers in the public sector.”*

James W. Fesler *“Public administration is the creation of policies and the execution of these policies. The public administration is the bureaucracy and it is the public itself.”*

James W. Davis *“Public administration can best be identified with the executive branch of government.”*

John A Veig *“Public administration refers to the organization, personnel, practices and procedures necessary for the effective performance of civic functions entrusted to the executive branch of government”* (Laxmikanth, 2011: 3-5).

With all these definitions, Woodrow Wilson and Frank Goodnow, who are expert academics in the field of public administration, defined public administration as an area where politics and management should be separated from each other. Wilson argued that the main purpose of government is to organize common interests against private interests. Goodnow, on the other hand, argued that a distinction should be made between the function of politics and

the administration of government. Although the views put forward by Wilson and Goodnow are considered to keep the field within a narrow framework, it is still stated that they partially define public administration. On the other hand, it is stated that Leonard White defines public administration as “the management of people and materials for the realization of the purpose of the state”, although it is considered incomplete in terms of the concepts of democracy and social equality (Holzer and Schwester, 2015: 31).

Shafritz (2017) defines public administration by putting it into different categories; legal as it covers all kinds of acts of the state, political due to its distinctive context from private and commercial management and legal, political and administrative practices of execution (Shafritz et al., 2017: 6-17).

Public administration, which is seen as an instrument of governments to achieve their goals and objectives, is defined as the relationship among legislative, executive and judicial powers to create public policies and coordinate them in the public field Rosenbloom (2009), on the other hand, claims that he has put forward the most serious and effective effort with his definition of the concept of public administration (Rosenbloom et al., 2009: 4). Another noteworthy definition of public administration is that it continues to operate for the solution of complicated and often conflicting problems in social life and it is defined as an administrative mechanism that performs public services (Eryilmaz, 2021: 8). It is important to say at this point that, as Laxmikanth (2011) quoted from Willoughby, the legislative, executive and judicial activities are considered the fourth power in all the business transactions regarding management and public administration except Willoughby’s legislative, executive and judicial activities and management is handled in the narrow sense (Laxmikanth, 2011: 3-5).

If an analysis of the above definitions is made, it could be stated that definitions that include the activities of the legislature, executive and judiciary define public administration in a broad sense, while definitions that include only the activities of the government as an executive body define public administration in a narrow sense.

3. A Component of Public Administration: The Concept of Security

Traditionally, it is seen that many authors and academics agree that the concept is controversial at the point of defining the concept of security (Williams, 2008:5). At this point, it is understood that the concept of security, which has never lost its importance in the history, is defined as being free and free from threats to

the basic values of people. Security is defined as a framework concept covering all conditions that can ensure vital continuity (Birdiřli, 2017: 25). Cicero and Lucretius first put the concept of security forward as “*securitas*”, which expresses the philosophical and psychological state of the mind (Brauch, 2003: 52). It is stated that it would be more useful to understand its essence before analyzing the meaning of the word “security”. It is stated that the principles of security have not changed since ancient times. It is stated in this sense that the fact that a person trying to ensure the safety of the cave will warn the insiders in a negative situation by keeping guard at the cave entrance and that all insiders who know this feel safe constitutes the essence of security (Cabric, 2015: 3; Gemici and Yılmaz, 2019: 16). On the other hand, the modern concept of security is reported to start separation from external security, which is a fundamental element of national and international security, military policies and international law, and development at the 17th. Century (Brauch, 2008:3; Rothschild et al., 2007: 6; Tekiner and Gemici, 2019: 17-18). On the other hand, it is stated by the authors and academicians in the field that security is conceptualized in three dimensions: individual, national and international (Aydın et al., 2012: 156). Today, the concept of security has become the issue that nations focus on the most in the changing world order. This concept, which we hear very often as human beings at the point of individual security, also shapes the steps that countries will take politically and the decisions they will take at the national level. At this point, many and various security threats are perceived today, both individually, nationally, and internationally, and appropriate solutions, measures and living standards are being created for these threats.

Security, as it is most commonly defined, is associated with mitigating threats to our values. However, although the concept of security is usually associated with the phenomenon of survival, it seems that the two concepts are not synonymous. While survival is expressed as a survival condition, it is reported that Ken Booth (2007) defines security with a new addition to the concept of survival. At this point, he defines security as survival, as well as some freedom from threats, and therefore some life choices (Booth, 2007: 106).

With all these definitions, it is possible to define two security philosophies frequently seen in the literature. The first approach considers power as a path leading to security. In this sense, it considers security synonymous with property, money, weapons, armies, power accumulation etc. The second approach, on the other hand, opposes the idea that security comes from power. Instead, it bases security on liberation, where justice and human rights are ensured. From this

point of view, security is defined as the relationship between different actors that will ensure the absence of elements that threaten security rather than an accumulation of power.

Security is linked to the creation of a security equation that will provide predictability based on trust between the relevant parties. As a result, it is expressed in the second philosophy that a real or stable security environment is based not on the ability to exert power over others, but on cooperation between the parties involved. In practical terms, it is stated that this encourages liberating politics that takes justice and human rights issues seriously in public security, public order and public administration (Williams, 2008: 5-6).

Although the approaches to the definition of the concept of security have not brought a consensus, they have expanded the scope of the concept. Thus, the idea that security should be defined beyond its individual, national and international dimensions has also been brought to the fore. In this sense, Barry Buzan suggests that the political, economic, social, environmental and military dimensions of security should also be considered in the analysis of the concept (Aydın et al., 2012: 156). In addition to a such expansion of the scope of security, security has been defined with the political, economic, social, environmental, health, natural disasters, accidents and crimes as state and non-state factors enriching the definition with the factors which may disrupt the individual, social, national and international security environment (Yılmaz, 66-72).

As a reality of public administration, security is considered an indisputable requirement by both individuals, states and international organizations. As can be understood from the studies carried out, some prefer to expand the concept in a way that may be appropriate for today's conditions following a straightforward approach to the definition of the concept. As will be discussed in the next chapter, it is seen that governments today consider a conceptually expanded version of security in ensuring public order, which is a prerequisite for maintaining the functioning of public administration well. As a result, we can conceptually define security, in its simplest form, as an effort to take actions that will take away from all conceivable threats or terminate the related threats, regardless of the agent of the action.

4. The Reality of Public Administration: Public Order

In line with Weber's view, it is understood that the state is considered to have authority not only because it has a monopoly on the use of violence, but also because the monopoly on the use of violence is legitimate (Bal, 2014: 248-

249). In parallel with the change in the content of the concept of security, it is observed that this understanding, which focuses on the state as the only authority in ensuring public order, requires a re-interpretation of the definitions put forward regarding public order. However, before the emergence of the modern state understanding, the modern state was defined as a state law that limited itself by the rules of law (Parlak and Doğan, 2016: 53). In France and England, it is stated that people agree on the responsibility of the respective kingdoms in maintaining public order and social peace.

It is stated that the kingdoms that see the increasing theft incidents disturbing the peace of society and ruining the public order have taken steps together with local forces to restore the public order (Kaeuper, 1988:139). This aspect of the concept of public order ensures the legitimacy of the relevant authority to use force by transferring the monopoly on the use of force to the supreme authority with the desire of people living in society to live in peace, well-being and security. Public order, which is expressed as an abstract and broad concept, has many aspects that are necessary for social life. It is seen that the state, which has the legitimacy to use force, is the only and legitimate authority to ensure public order as well as fundamental rights and freedoms. On the other hand, it is stated that the concept of public order includes the material foundations of social life such as general security, health and public order. Although it is expressed as an abstract and broad concept, the criterion of public order put forward by the state should ensure security in society by restricting fundamental rights and freedoms (Özdemi, 2016: 91-93). At the same time, it is clear that the concept of public order should be evaluated together with the elements that occur in the material foundations of social life and expand the content of the concept of security.

As with the ideas put forward regarding the definition of the concept of security, there is no complete consensus on what public order is. Public order is considered to be the foundation for ensuring the existence of both a constitutional state and security of society, protection of interpersonal interests and fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals (Çinar, 2014: 5). When viewed as the reality of public administration, public order appears to have been produced with the use of words “public” and “order” together. While the public is defined as all the people and society within the state, it is seen that the word “order” is used to mean peace, tranquility, well-being and order (Tekiner and Gemici, 2019: 19). In addition to these, public order is defined as the provision of peace through the protection of cultural, economic, political, and military

values and the strengthening of social solidarity. At the same time, in line with the modern public management approach, it has been reported that alternative methods should be implemented according to the structure of society to ensure a participatory, cooperative, consensus-based and solution-focused understanding (Paçacı, 2013: 154-155).

Along with the change in the approach to the content of the concept of security, the considerations regarding the concept of public order have also changed. There was a break away from the approach that pushed away the fundamental rights and freedoms brought about by the continuity of the state, which the Cold War period centred on, and the individual was brought to the forefront because of the expansion of security. The creation of a safe society in which fundamental rights and freedoms can be lived without any restriction has become the main goal. With this changing approach, it is seen that the concept of public order is connected to the management understanding that will make social life sustainable in a democratic state of law and eliminate possible obstacles (Beriş, 2015:13).

It is understood here that public order has ceased to be a case that can be disrupted only as a result of social events or due to increasing crime rates. Putting forward more security measures to ensure public order or choosing the path of restricting fundamental rights and freedoms are far from being the only instruments to be used to ensure public order. The fact that concepts such as political, economic, social, environmental, health, natural disasters and accidents are counted among the factors that will threaten safety, has also made all these factors capable of breaking public order. From the point of view of public administration, considering all the elements that may pose an indirect threat to security and public order becomes a prerequisite for the sustainability of management.

Günday (1997) and Gözler (2009) state that there are three elements of public order: public security, public peace (peace and harmony) and general health (Gözler, 2009: 473; Günday, 1997:192). However, due to the reasons stated above, it has become impossible from the point of view of public administration to say that public order has only three elements. Today's conditions have now made security and public order complicated from a national and international point of view. We can say that the existence of both military and non-military threats such as political, economic, energy, cyber, social, environmental, health, and natural disasters also reveals that the elements public order has at the point of ensuring a healthy public order have diversified.

5. Conclusion: Security, Public Order, Public Administration and Paradox

After the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, the states are observed to have come up to the present day as the most powerful actors in the international system. The absence of a supreme authority in international relations that will prevent conflicts and regulate interstate relations puts states at the centre of political legitimacy. At this point, it is understood that the provision of security has made clear the fact that it is the main responsibility of governments. The desire to live in peace, well-being and trust that social life brings with it is facing several threats because of the change and transformation of concepts and the developing and changing world. The fact that security has become the responsibility of governments also changes the structure of measures and precautions to be taken against related threats and makes it mandatory to depart from the traditional understanding of security and follow different paths.

With the start of the 21st century, states have faced many problems to be solved in the solutions to the threats to public order, security, and public administration such as technological factors, biological, chemical, nuclear, laser, and various weapons, regional conflicts increasing population, the refugee issue, migration, food, economy, health, global pandemics, natural disasters and global warming. Based on this, it seems that states should reconsider their public administration policies to ensure their security and public order. However, the implementation of an effective public administration that will form the infrastructure of a democratic public order, the introduction of an information management system, and the shortening of decision-making processes can make the paradoxical look of the problems stated above clearer.

On the other hand, the logic behind the emergence of the public administration system, which is considered the means of the state to provide public services to society, is the political, physiological, psychological and social needs of societies. In a democratic state governed by the rule of law, the army, intelligence, police and gendarmerie are shown as the main organizational actors in the basic structure of the state, responsible for maintaining public order and eliminating all dangers and threats to society. However, the expectation that this structure, from a state-centred point of view, will be effective against the elements listed above and threaten public order can be seen as an eclipse of reason in the context of the effectiveness of public administration. It is seen that today's public order, public health and public security have exceeded the quality

that can be achieved solely through law enforcement, which can give peace, prosperity and well-being to society.

Understanding whose security is meant in ensuring public order and taking security measures against new threats is the next important question to be answered. Because the lack of a reference object to ensure security also makes all threat and security discussions meaningless. When we look at the flow of history, it is a fact that the focus of security has been on the states for many years. We see that this point has changed and transformed, especially after the end of the Cold War. While states or national security continues to be the focus of security, the diversity of elements that threaten security and public order also changes the focus of security. Over time, the idea has been claimed that the security concept would have no meaning in a security approach where there is no human being, and therefore human beings should be taken as the centre. It is reported that what is meant by human security here is a concern about human dignity. This situation has been defined as “a child who did not die, a disease that did not spread, an ethnic tension that did not explode, a dissident who was not silenced, a human spirit that was not crushed” (Haq, 1995:116). Another approach suggests that the most important reference object of security is society, because of both identity and the desire to take part in a particular social group. Along with these views, an approach that analyzes the reference points of security such as bureaucracy, states, regions, civilizations and the international system, including the individual at the lowest level, has also emerged. In recent years, planet earth has been at the centre of security instead of all the security reference points listed above, which is shown as the fifth approach. This perspective argues that security policies should have an ecological meaning because people are connected to the environment and ecosystem (Williams, 2008: 7-8). What we understand from this is the fact that without a livable environment, all other references to security could be disputed.

The public administration approach put forward to maintain security and public order healthily should be structured by including all the security issues stated above because security, public order and public administration have now become a paradox nowadays. The variety of problems and threats faced by people, societies, states, the international system and the world, the only known habitable planet shape the security steps that states or decision-makers responsible for the administration of public administration will take to ensure public order. The belief that mankind can solve all these threats without a supranational authority with common goals is becoming less and less every day.

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CHAPTER XXVI

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DISASTER MANAGEMENT

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1. Introduction

There are many parameters that affect the development levels of countries. Developed countries have more means to solve the problems they encounter than underdeveloped countries. Developed countries develop policies and make innovations that enable them to maintain their development level (Ekşi, 2016). It is in this way only that the welfare and confidence level of the people can be kept at the desired level. Events that will disturb the peace of the society and cause it to go backwards in terms of development level including traumatic events such as disasters are among the situations that elected governments never want to encounter (Stallings, 2005). A thorough review of the disasters occurred in the past reveals that it has taken decades for the impact of disasters on societies, particularly in terms of economics, to wear off. Economic losses are a major threat to the development level and welfare of countries, and are thus among the main challenges to be overcome for public administrations. Public administrations need to employ professionalism in their management processes were they to overcome such challenges (Vermeiren, 1989, Güvel, 2008). Events that have negative impacts on societies such as disasters require preparedness in advance. The planning and implementation phases of the

preparation works, on the other hand, require utilization of public resources and facilities. Coordination of the officials in charge of carrying out the preparation works is an important step towards preventing the negative effects of disasters on the development level of a country (Ekşi, 2013; Chapman et al., 2008).

In today's modern world, which requires being prepared for threats, it is now known that this process will not end by simply eliminating the existence of the threat. The disasters that have been experienced in the past showed that counteracting the destructive processes of the disasters that threaten the society economically may only be possible by making the structural changes needed in both the public administration and the disaster management (Kadioğlu, 2011; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). Both the modern approaches developed by the public administrations to meet to the needs of the people and the risk-oriented multi-stakeholder disaster management approach developed to minimize the disaster-related losses aim to increase resilience. The concept of resilience is one of the focal points of this study. The shift in the public administration paradigm will likely increase societies' resilience to risks, including disaster threats, and, in this way, the development level of countries will not have to be compromised (Thomas, 2015). The structural changes in both public administration and disaster management feature moving away from rigid management styles and adopting a multi-minded management style and ensuring flexibility (Çevik, 2010; Macit, 2019). In the light of the foregoing, the primary objective of this study is to investigate the effects of the changes in the concepts of public administration and disaster management on each other and to predict the outcomes of this changes in terms of providers and recipients of related services. Secondly, it is aimed to determine the possible benefits of the harmonization of disaster and public administration paradigms.

2. The Concept of Public Administration

Public administration has been a dynamic concept from past to present given the need for a hierarchical order to respond to the continuous needs of individuals in social structures (Hodgetts, 1999). Given the vastness of the administrative sciences, the researchers conducting research in this field sometimes have trouble to draw lines between the numerous concepts studied within the scope of administrative sciences (Altıntaş, 2021). The word society implies individuals living a social life together compared to living alone, since meeting certain needs and reaching certain goals can only be possible within a community or society (Sözen, 2013). Communities and societies need to be administered if

they are to meet certain needs and fulfill certain goals. Chaos emerges in the absence of an administrative order. Therefore, the concept of administration, which includes maintaining order, responding to the needs, using resources correctly and ensuring administrative order, is critical for maintaining a society (Hodgkinson, 2008; Bhatta, 2006; Aytac, 2004).

There are many disciplines under administrative sciences. Public administration, which includes managing material and human resources, is one of these disciplines. In public administration, where needs come into play, the phenomenon of ‘the people’ comes to the fore. In addition to its theoretical framework, public administration is also a functional concept which includes the fulfillment of public needs and ensuring compliance with public policies and legal processes (Shafritz and Hyde, 2015; Matei & Dogaru, 2013). The concept of public administration can be addressed basically from four aspects, which are (Sözen, 2013):

- Function,
- Structure,
- Science, and
- Occupation.

The functional aspect of public administration includes implementing the laws and policies. The structural aspect of public administration includes ensuring the uninterrupted functioning of organizational order. The scientific aspect of public administration includes facilitating the harmonization of different disciplines. Lastly, the occupational aspect of public administration includes specializations such as supervising, coordinating, planning and executing (Sözen, 2013; Stillman II, 2005). In this section, the concept of public administration has been introduced from the perspective of administrative sciences, taking into consideration the paradigm shifts that occurred in this new world, primarily as a result of globalization. Accordingly, the traditional public administration approach has been replaced by the novel public administration approach.

2.1 Traditional Public Administration Approach

The traditional public administration approach of 19th century gradually lost its effect in the following periods. Concepts such as effective use of resources and efficiency have not been emphasized in the traditional approach (Sözen, 2013). Concepts such as equality, accountability and public interest come to the fore

in the traditional approach. Additionally, in the traditional approach, politics is perceived as a policy-making mechanism, whereas administration is perceived as a mechanism for implementing these policies. In short, administration and politics are addressed separately in the traditional public administration approach (Hughes, 2014; Al, 2002; Sözen, 2013). The public and private sectors are also addressed separately in the traditional approach. Public sector is deemed different from the private sector as a rule-intensive sector with public power as well as the political environment, arbitration and political leadership it is subject to. Another characteristic of the traditional public administration approach is that it tends to create bureaucratic obstacles against situations that will benefit the public (Hughes, 2014; Al, 2002; Sözen, 2013). The traditional approach has undergone structural and functional changes in order to adapt to the changing global trends. As a result, the rigid and bureaucracy-oriented structure of public administration has been eliminated. The main features of the traditional public administration approach are as follows (Baransel, 1979; Özer, 2005):

- Large and centralized organization,
- Strict hierarchical organization,
- Division of labor and specialization,
- Formality and intensity of rules,
- Mechanicalness,
- Confidentiality and openness to innovations,
- Professionalization,
- Monopolism, and
- Recognition of public administration as a special form of administration.

Traditional public administration approach has been the target of criticism from various aspects throughout its existence (Al, 2002; Hughes, 2014). Criticism towards the traditional approach primarily stems from the fact that humans are perceived as mechanical beings in this approach and that social, environmental and psychological values are not taken into account. Other criticisms directed at the traditional public administration approach are that it does not adapt to the ever-changing technological developments in the context of globalization, it promotes a bureaucratic structure and is not based on the understanding of democratic administration, its control mechanisms are based on quantity rather than quality and individual interests come to the fore. Finally, reasons such as disruption of service due to its hierarchical structure brought the end of this

administration approach (Hughes, 2014; Baransel, 1979; Saran, 2004). As a result, the novel public administration approach has fully emerged by 1990.

2.2 Novel Public Administration Approach

The novel public administration approach, one of the most important reform movements of recent years, has been an important step in the field of public administration. What makes the novel public administration approach unique is that it is independent of political understanding. This system of administration, which manifests itself in practice, has been created with the contributions of academicians. Hence, it would not be wrong to define the novel public administration approach as a recovery process (Tunç, 2015; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). Traditional management approaches render the effective and efficient use of human resources difficult. Therefore, it is important to take the human aspect and current practices into account in the steps taken by organizations for the sake of professionalization (Altıntaş, 2022). Among the major factors that has led to the transformation from the traditional public administration approach to the novel public administration approach are the need for renewal and to adapt to the changes of the modern world, and the increase in the needs of the society. These factors have led to changes in the political field, thereby resulting in the replacement of the traditional public administration approach by a more modern one. The novel public administration approach focuses on the concept of efficiency in the context of a common living area where the need for resources is steadily increasing (Özer, 2005; Drechsler, 2009).

Hood and Dunleavy (1994) stated that it is not correct to express the novel public administration approach through a single definition and indicated that the main aspects of the novel public administration approach that distinguish it from the traditional approach are that it ensures the efficient use of resources, removes the distinction between the public and private sectors that is available in the traditional public administration approach, ensures the use of tools in the public sector which have been proven to be useful in the private sector, includes an active control system, clearly specifies responsibilities, gives importance to performance, provides a transparent measurement of performance and does not utilize strict management styles (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994; Hugges, 2017). To summarize, the novel public administration approach, which emerged since the traditional administration has become inadequate, is a management approach that draws a line between administration and politics, gives importance to the customer, and establishes its own values and principles (Laking, 2000; Hughes,

2017). Another important concept introduced by the novel public administration approach is governance. Instead of one-sided management and relations, which had become a habit in the traditional approach, a human-centered management approach with multiple participants, where everyone's opinion is taken, has been adopted in the novel approach. Thus, a transition has been made from the introverted and hierarchical traditional management style to a multi-minded management style (Frederickson, 2016; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994).

The novel public administration approach is based on certain basic principles that ensure its operability. These principles, which provide validity to the approach in structure and practice, are as follows (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992; Osborne, 1993):

- Result-oriented management,
- Competitive management
- Catalyst management,
- Forward-thinking management,
- Customer-oriented management,
- Entrepreneurial management,
- Mission-oriented management,
- Citizen-owned management,
- Market-based management, and
- Human-centered management.

In addition to these basic principles, the concepts introduced by and substantiate the novel public administration approach include giving importance to values such as equality and security, abstaining from hierarchical management, prioritizing market mechanisms, giving weight to outputs and preferring lean, horizontal and independent institutional structures (Pollitt, 2001).

2.3 The Differences Between Traditional and Novel Public Administration Approaches

The differences between the traditional and novel public administration approaches are detailed in Table 1 below to facilitate understanding by the readers.

**Table 1. Traditional Public Administration Approach vs.
Novel Public Administration Approach**

Traditional Public Administration Approach	Novel Public Administration Approach
Rigid bureaucratic structure	Narrow central structure
Effective hierarchical order	Wide borderless environment
Powerful centralized structure	Decentralization
Dominant central control structure	Performance targets
Excessive number of staff	Fewer staff, more specialists
Centralized negotiations	Localized negotiations
Strict management	Flexible/participatory
Legal assurance	Benefit/cost analysis
Status-related issues	Issues related to efficiency, productivity, economy, quality and profitability
Detailed rules and norms determined by legal regulations	Reduction and simplification of legal regulations
Concerns about power, usurpation and transition of power	Concerns about achieving goals and objectives
Rules	Roles, public service standards
Conservativeness	Change
Citizen	Customer
Order - command	Participatory decision making and management
Stagnation	Mobility
Respect for public authority	Perceiving the citizen as a customer, sensitivity to the needs of the citizen
Audit: legality, legitimacy	Guidance, value for money, control of success
Equal pay	Achievement-based pay
General managerial habits	Project management
Classical government accounting and budgeting system	Cost-benefit ratio, cash flow estimation, return on cost
The absolute dominance of the public sector	Efforts to benefit more from the private sector
Monopoly of the public sector	Competition, market type management tools
The classic concept of ownership	Re-perceiving the concept of ownership
“Quantity” in service delivery	“Quality” in service delivery
Time and action research, human relations	Performance management, results management, sensitivity management, responsibility, total quality management
Limited employee contribution	Maximum employee contribution
Closed information channels	Open information channels
Bureaucratic manager	Entrepreneurial manager

Source: Karaman, 2000

As seen in Table 1, the inadequacy of the traditional public administration approach to adapt to changing conditions, the economic losses due to the neglect of performance in the traditional public administration approach and the fact that the human-centered nature of the modern day organizational structure rendered political contradictions unimportant resulted in the transition from the traditional public administration approach to be novel public administration approach depending on social and other factors.

3. The Concept of Disaster Management

Disaster management, which is another area covered by the administrative sciences, is a process that is difficult to control due to its complex structure. The disaster phenomenon, which causes many negative factors to emerge one after the other when it occurs, requires a professional management approach (Quarantelli, 2000; Kadioğlu, 2011). This section features the literature findings on the concept of disaster from a broad perspective.

3.1 *What is Disaster?*

Disasters are among the most dangerous events that disrupt the ongoing life cycle. In some cases, the events disasters cause are very difficult to predict in advance. In this respect, disasters are a social paradox for minds. The analysis of the general characteristics of disasters that occurred in the past indicates that helplessness comes to the fore at the time of disasters (Simonovic, 2011). Disasters are extraordinary events that are highly damaging, have the potential to leave both large and small-scale societies vulnerable, cause secondary crises in some cases, strain capacities and are very difficult to predict. Therefore, disasters require professional approaches compatible with the realities of the modern world apart from the standard management approaches due to their complex structures (Quarantelli, 2000; Kadioğlu, 2011; Shaluf, 2007) .

3.2 *What is Disaster Management?*

Intervening in disasters, which are complex events, can only be possible with pre-planning and a systematic approach. Good management is essential both before and after disasters to ensure that the damages caused by the disasters are minimized. Therefore, disaster management has taken its place as a separate discipline in the management literature. Disaster management has 4 basic

phases, which are: preparation, mitigation, response and recovery. Disaster management simply ensures the structural functionality of each phase and the harmony of these phases with each other. The current understanding of risk-oriented disaster management is based on making the necessary preparations before extraordinary situations occur (Leblebici, 2014; AFAD, 2018). It would not be wrong to assume that insufficient preparedness will affect the other phases as in the case of falling dominoes. Hence, fully planned and well-managed phases are essential for a quality disaster management (Lavell & Maskrey, 2014)

3.2.1 Preparation Phase

The preparation phase of disaster management includes the planned works carried out before the disaster occurs in order to minimize the damages that can be caused by disasters. Among the systematic works carried out in the preparation phase are: installation of early warning systems developed to predict disasters, supply and storage of critical materials that may be needed in the event of disasters, planning the personnel and material resources that may be needed in the response phase, strengthening the relevant infrastructures, increasing the communication channels, developing the technological facilities, inclusion of experts in the preparedness works, training both the staff and the public against disasters, and conducting relevant emergency drills. The preparation phase is a capacity building effort against the helplessness experienced at the time of disasters (Diekman et al., 2007; Perry; 2001; Kadioğlu, 2008).

3.2.2 Mitigation Phase

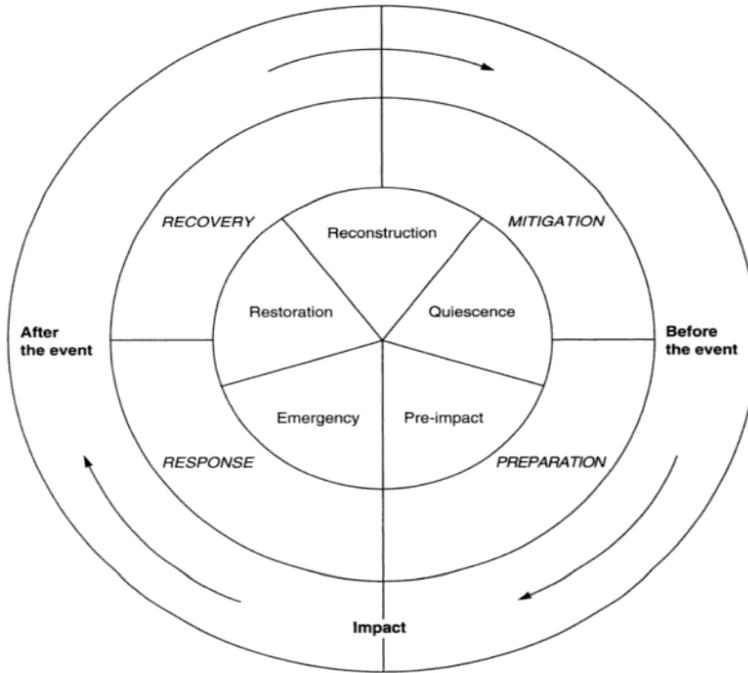
Risk management is based on eliminating the risk or minimizing its impact. In parallel, risk-based disaster management in general and the mitigation phase in specific also aim eliminating the risk or minimizing its impact. This phase includes estimation studies on the causes of disasters before they occur and the extent of the damage that will occur after the disasters, and the relevant training activities, legal studies, engineering measures, and R&D works. Long-term intensive works are needed to ensure that the mitigation phase is carried out efficiently. The important point to be considered at this phase is to ensure the resilience of the society. In a society with a high level of resilience, the damages that will occur due to disaster is minimized in parallel with the decrease in the vulnerability of the society (Coppola, 2007; Kadioğlu, 2008; Simonovic, 2011).

3.2.3 Response Phase

Response phase is different from the preparation and mitigation phases in that it includes the works to be done after the disaster. Timing is of utmost importance in this phase as a faster and appropriate response is likely to save more lives and property. The works to be carried out in this phase, which focus on crisis management unlike the preparation and mitigation phases include meeting the healthcare needs and the basic needs such as food, shelter, etc., quick removal of the debris, conducting search and rescue operations, and ensuring the implementation of the measures taken before the disaster. The quality of the preparation and mitigation works carried out before this phase in terms of effectiveness, applicability and elimination of the relevant risks at the source directly affects the effectiveness of the response phase (Altıntaş & Akbulut, 2022). Therefore, it is essential to have an integrated disaster management that ensures the harmony between each phase (Kadioğlu, 2008; Coppola, 2007; Tomaszewski et al., 2015).

3.2.4 Recovery Phase

The effects of a disaster cannot be completely counteracted without restoring the order that existed before the disaster. Although the restoration activities are initiated in the response phase, they cannot be carried out fully in that phase since meeting healthcare needs and search and rescue operations are priority. Thus, the phase where the restoration activities are carried out to a full extent is the recovery phase. Hence, as with the preparation and mitigation phases, the response and recovery phases are a continuation of each other. The recovery phase, which starts with the complete removal of the debris, includes the necessary infrastructure works, rehabilitation and psychological support processes, re-construction of the city, the transition to permanent housing instead of temporary accommodation, review of economic support and legal regulations, strengthening works and risk assessment studies. The recovery phase is considered to be completed at the point where the order is restored. The rehabilitation works carried out in the recovery phase may also form a strong basis for disaster preparedness (Mayer, 2019; Kadioğlu, 2008; AFAD, 2021).

Figure 1. Disaster Management Process Diagram

Source: Alexander, 2002

The disaster management process diagram is shown in detail in Figure 1. Accordingly, the disaster management process was initially divided into two: pre-disaster management and post-disaster management. Pre-disaster management includes preparation and mitigation phases and the post-disaster management includes response and recovery phases. Pre-disaster management is characterized by risk management, impact analysis and addressing the possible scenarios, whereas the post-disaster management is characterized by crisis management, strengthening of the infrastructure, and restoration and reconstruction works (Alexander, 2002).

4. Public Administration and Disaster Management Processes in Türkiye

As a field of research, administrative sciences consist of many different disciplines such as public administration (Hodgetts, 1999; Snellen, 2014). A review of the history of public administration in Türkiye reveals that it has first started under the rule of Ottoman Empire and developed as a result of an

increase in administrative tasks and a state bureaucracy that expanded in parallel with the said increase. During this development process, institutions such as Public Administration Institute for Türkiye and the Middle East and other specialized departments were established in the field of public administration and the corresponding programs were launched in educational institutions in parallel with the developments in Europe and the United States (Altunok, 2011; Karasu, 2004). Recently, this traditional public administration approach has been gradually replaced with the novel public administration approach and public administration has been accepted as a separate discipline in our country.

A review of the history of disaster management in Türkiye shows that it can be examined in 4 different periods until the establishment of the Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency (AFAD) in 2009. The first of these periods is the period before 1944 characterized by the works carried out since the sultan's edict in the Ottoman Period in the name of legislation and institutionalization (AFAD, 2018). The second period covers the period between 1944 and 1958. In addition to the works on legislation and institutionalization, the legal regulations regarding mitigation of the disaster risks and preparation in advance of disasters emerged for the first time in this period. The third period covers the period between 1958 and 1999 characterized by significant policy changes. The period after the Marmara Earthquake of 1999 until the establishment of AFAD in 2009 is considered the fourth period, which is characterized by new legal regulations, establishment of the Natural Disaster Insurance Institution (DASK) and various structural changes (AFAD, 2018). A different period has started in 2009 in terms of disaster management with the enactment of Law No. 5902, which stipulated the establishment of AFAD as an institution affiliated to the Prime Ministry. In this way, all the authorities and responsibilities related to disaster management were gathered under a single roof. AFAD has been subordinated to the Ministry of Interior with the Presidential Decree No. 4 published on July 15th, 2018. With this Decree, an integrated disaster management system that is based on a risk-based approach has entered our lives, and the disaster management processes have become more dynamic (AFAD, 2018).

The analysis of the development process in public administration and disaster management in Türkiye clearly indicates that it was innovation-driven. The harmonization between the traditional and novel public administration approaches strengthens the bond between the public administration and disaster management. With the multi-management approach, flexible structure, and elimination of the strict and hierarchical order, structural and legal regulations

have been made that will help both to protect the public from disaster damage and to prevent problems in the public sphere that will occur as a result of disasters. The multidimensional interaction between public administration and disaster management has paved the way for successful management mechanisms (Leblebici, 2014; Ekşi, 2016).

5. Relationship between Public Administration and Disaster Management

Vulnerabilities are the main factor that causes societies to face crises of various impact. The critical point here is to develop a capacity that will enable coping with crises of different levels. Disasters are one of the major events that drag countries and even continents into major crises (Mitroff and Pearson, 1993; Kadioğlu, 2011). A review of the great tragedies that recently occurred in the world demonstrates that a significant amount of these tragedies were caused by disasters. Disaster phenomenon, which has a complex structure, can occur in various types and forms. The common feature of all disasters is that all have the potential to cause damages in the form of both loss of lives and material losses, leading to the feeling of helplessness in the society (Oksay, 2015; Kadioğlu, 2011). Hence, disasters pose a major threat to the sustainability of public services and utilities. Disaster preparedness is among the most effective ways to avoid crisis situations that are likely to cause a disruption in the provision of public services and utilities (Leblebici, 2014; Comfort, 2007; Gözler, 2007).

Changes that have occurred in the public administration paradigm over time have also affected other management processes related to the public administration (Aktel, 2003). The objective of public administration is to protect the welfare, peace and security of the people (*Legislation, 2004*), and disasters pose a threat to all these. Disasters constitute a security risk because of the events experienced in their aftermaths as well as a major welfare and peace risk as they affect the society in terms of housing, nutrition and health (Mayner & Arbon, 2015; Kadioğlu, 2011). As a result, legal entities that are responsible for performing the public administration function are obliged to work to increase the quality of life of the society affected by the disaster. This can only be possible through the harmonization of the structural changes that have occurred over time with other disciplines of management such as disaster management. Given that it is not possible for a management style constructed in a strict and hierarchical manner to be effectively functional in face of complex situations such as disasters, it is expected that the novel public administration

approach will be more compatible with the risk-based disaster management process as compared to the traditional public administration approach. On the other hand, the works to be carried out both before and after the disasters under a professionally functioning public administration is expected to be of better quality and trouble-free. Given that the disruption of the balance between public administration and disaster management can cause an inextricable process for both states and societies, a sustainable balance between the two is crucial (Ekşi, 2013; Ekşi, 2016; Chapman, 2007).

5.1. Common Features of Novel Public Administration Approach and Integrated Disaster Management

An analysis of the prominent features of the novel public administration approach reveals that it has moved away from bureaucracy and hierarchical order. The centralized structure brought by the hierarchical management style is the source of most problems. In hierarchical management style, only the opinions of a certain group are taken into account and ideas coming from lower hierarchical levels and different ideas are generally disregarded. Thus, important matters were overlooked and problems were only swept under the rug. In contrast, the novel public administration approach has introduced a multi-stakeholder structure and in this way, coordination has come to the fore (Çevik, 2010; Hood, 1991). This new management style, which sets future goals, has also incorporated some performance measurement methods into the system in order to increase efficiency. Communication has been given a key role in the novel public administration approach, since, as a principle, everybody's opinion from bottom up counts. Transparency is deemed another principle in the novel public administration approach in order to ensure that the relevant mechanisms are built on solid foundations (Frederickson et al., 1992; Hood, 1991). The multi-disciplinary novel public administration approach, which draws attention to the importance of effective use of resources, efficiency and results, continues to be the dominant management approach today.

Integrated disaster management, on the other hand, is a new management style that has come to the fore in recent years and brought a new breath to the management of disasters, as in the case of novel public administration approach. Integrated disaster management aims taking precautionary measures and producing the right solutions instead of primitive and security-deficient approaches stemming from the crisis management approach of the past. Integrated disaster management is an understanding that advocates the

participation of even the youngest individual in the society in the disaster management process. It is a multi-stakeholder mechanism that seeks the right solutions through brainstorming, rather than a stereotyped systematic structure. Hence, as a system that advocates a flexible and non-hierarchical structure, a centralized understanding is not desired in times of crisis in integrated disaster management. A flexible and well-coordinated management structure that prevents decision-making mechanisms and communication processes from causing further damage in the event of a crisis is among the basic features of integrated disaster management (Kadioğlu, 2008; Macit, 2019).

In sum, certain parameters such as flexible structures, multi-stakeholder management styles that value ideas, the importance given to the society and to reducing the vulnerability of the individuals, effective use of resources and coordination are common to both novel public administration approach and integrated disaster management.

5.2 Public Administration and Risk Management in the Event of Disasters

Risk, as a concept, is defined as a factor that contains a threat element in relation to the future (Coppola, 2015). It is necessary to take precautionary measures against the risks that have a high potential to cause damages. Otherwise, disasters may lead to consequences that cause destructions in the society (Bakić, 2019). As mentioned in the introduction section, as the resilience of the society decrease, the severity of the risks that arise also increases. The way to increase resilience is to take the necessary precautions. In other words, imprudence paves the way for disasters. Taking precautionary measures against the risks with a high potential to cause damages can save lives. The discipline of administrative sciences that deals with these issues is called risk management. In the course of adapting to the changing and transforming conditions, the crisis-oriented disaster management approach has been gradually replaced by a risk management-based disaster management approach. Studies converge on the conclusion that a risk-based disaster management approach is a necessary and effective method. The risk mitigation works to be carried out before the disasters occur as per the risk-based disaster management approach will ensure that the response phase of disaster management is free of major problems (UNISDR, 2009; AFAD, 2014). It is expected that the officials in charge of the public administration will also be responsible for conducting the risk mitigation works within the scope of disaster management, which is a public service.

On the other hand, according to the community-based disaster management approach, each individual is expected to be ready for disasters (Macit, 2019). Both the novel public administration approach and the community-based disaster management approach are based on governance, a concept introduced by the novel public administration approach. However, it is important to note that community-based disaster management does not reduce the responsibility of public administration regarding disasters. Risk mitigation works against disasters can be deemed a public service considering that they aim to ensure the sustainability and development in the public sector. Damages caused by disasters are a serious threat to both the economy and sustainability. Therefore, the public administration approach to be adopted needs to ensure the welfare and security of the society (Özler, 2019; Ekşi, 2016). The harmonization of community-based disaster management with the novel public administration approach is not expected to be difficult since governance is common to both management approaches.

Disaster preparation and mitigation phases need to be integrated into development-targeted processes that are in the public interest. With the adoption and execution of disaster resilience works by public administrators, which will ensure foreseeing risky situations, both the vulnerability of the society will be reduced and the damages that can be caused by disasters and which can hinder the achievement of development-based goals can be eliminated. A resilient society will be formed with the disaster risk management works carried out in accordance with the principles of public administration that ensures the continuity of the public interest. In this way, a step will be taken towards the development level targeted by the public administration (Ekşi, 2016).

5.2.1 Disaster Risks that Hinder the Sustainability of the Public Interest

The actors, who have an important role in ensuring social trust and are the basis of public peace, also have the potential to prevent the negative consequences of disasters by mitigating the related risks. Realizing this potential is of great importance in terms of a sustainable and successful public administration system (Quarantelli & Dynes, 1977). The continuity of public services can only be ensured by structural and legal policies to be developed for disaster risks that may occur (Rosenthal & Pijnenburg, 1991; Ekşi, 2016). Disaster risks that are a barrier to achieving the desired sustainable social development

can be listed as follows (Özkul & Karaman, 2007; AFAD, 2020; World Risk Report, 2019):

- Losses caused by natural disasters,
- Losses due to man-made disasters,
- The lack of quality in the efforts to mitigate the disaster-related risks and the lack of support from experts,
- Low disaster resilience of the society,
- Insufficient development level of the society,
- Lack of training and awareness activities,
- Not adopting the disaster culture in the society and administration,
- Inadequate early warning and forecasting systems,
- The absence or incompleteness of disaster risk management plans,
- Failure to take structural and non-structural disaster risk mitigation measures, and
- The disregard of disaster risks by those in charge of carrying out public services.

The aforementioned disaster risks act as a barrier for sustainable development in public administration. Hence, these disaster risks are to be mitigated, were sustainable development to be achieved.

5.3 Public Administration and Crisis Management in the Event of Disasters

The integrated disaster management approach, which aims to eliminate or mitigate the risks by preparing for crises in advance, has replaced the crisis management-based disaster management approach (Macit, 2019). The past experiences revealed the shortcomings of the crisis management-based disaster management approach. As a reason, it is very difficult to address all the parameters that can arise during a crisis situation. Moreover, making immediate interventions in unpredictable situations may even inflict further damages. In addition, the conflicts that may arise in crisis situations can adversely affect the decision-making capability of decision makers (Yılmaz, 2003; Aykaç, 2001). Therefore, flexible decision-making is important at times of crises. Crises require preparedness in advance so that both the crisis caused by the disaster and the internal crises of the decision makers can be managed. It is in this way only that loss of life, a possible consequence of disasters unlike other crisis situations, can be prevented (Quarantelli & Dynes, 1977; Rosenthal & Pijnenburg, 1991).

In order for the crises caused by the disasters not to impair the welfare of the people and harm the public interest, detailed preparations must be made beforehand. The important point here is to ensure coordination in the moment of crisis (Rathod, 2010). Disruptions in the coordination and communication network in the crisis response process where there are too many stakeholders will prolong the process. At this point, it is important to increase functionality with governance, which the novel public administration approach has added to our lives, during the response to disasters. Loss of social trust as a result of the deterioration of public order, disruption of services and the loss of function of the structure is one of the possible consequences in crisis situations (Kirschenbaum, 2004; Leblebici, 2014). Multiple crises, which may arise from the complex nature of disasters, pose a great threat to public administration and therefore to public order.

Particularly, response and recovery processes, which are important phases of disaster risk management, are the processes during which crisis management fully demonstrates its impact (Kadioğlu, 2008). The resources needed for the works to be carried out in these phases may substantially increase. On the other hand, it is quite difficult to predict the needs that may arise, since disasters can cause a vicious circle with secondary crises, thereby bring the existing resources to the point of exhaustion. Therefore, administrative processes play a critical role in crisis management processes in disasters where public resources are needed. At times of crisis, taking a wrong decision and implementing this decision can cause the crisis to escalate exponentially. It is inevitable for the administration to become dysfunctional as the crisis gets out of control (Leblebici, 2014; Ekşi, 2016). Hence, the fulfillment of the preparation activities by public service executives against crises caused by disasters, which is perhaps one of the most complex issues in the discipline of public administration, is crucial.

Public administration at times of crises includes steps such as efficient planning, professional decision making in the public interest, and ensuring the effective use of resources, coordination between the relevant agencies, and communication. All these steps require preparedness in advance. As per the principles of public administration, it is a necessity not just to intervene in disasters in order to maintain order, but also to prepare for these interventions beforehand. Crisis preparations to be fulfilled by public administration is based on foreseeing the crisis before it occurs and eliminating any relevant vulnerability. On the other hand, the steps to be taken after a crisis emerges are part of crisis management (Leblebici, 2014; Ekşi, 2016; Tortop, 2007; Rosenthal

& Pijnenburg, 1991). Preparation works minimize security vulnerabilities. In addition, the fact that the public damage that may be caused by a disaster can be eliminated with an effective public administration approach reveals the link between public administration and crisis management in the event of disasters.

6. Conclusion

This study focused on the importance of risk-oriented approaches in management processes. The desired outcomes will more likely be achieved if due importance is given to the risk studies and to the incorporation of preparation works into the sustainable development works by those in charge of public administration. The integration of disaster management into public administration processes is crucial in preventing both material and nonmaterial losses caused by disasters, which pose a threat to the development and progress of countries. In this context, adopting the correct approaches will facilitate coping with crisis situations. Desired developments in both areas, i.e., public administration and disaster management, will be achieved through further research and by reflecting this multi-disciplinary structure to the field. In this way, traumatic events that will arise especially in crisis situations due to vulnerabilities and the effects of which will continue for years will be prevented. In the light of the above findings, it is recommended that following steps are taken to strengthen the harmony between these two management areas:

- To ensure the applicability of the novel public administration approach in the disaster management cycle,
- To analyze the process correctly in order to ensure that the governance concept brought by the novel public administration approach is used effectively in disaster management processes,
- To take disaster threats into consideration in any sustainable development work to be carried out in public interest,
- To take the risk-oriented approach into account in the novel public management paradigm, especially in disaster-focused works,
- To prepare flexible and highly applicable plans in order to ensure the effective and efficient use of public resources in disaster risk mitigation works,
- To predict the possible public damage that may occur as a result of disaster by considering the qualitative characteristics of disasters in addition to

their quantitative characteristics and to urgently take the corresponding measures,

- To ensure that the experts of both public administration and disaster management are involved in harmonization of these two disciplines,
- To prevent possible conflicts in order to ensure the effective progress of the two management approaches, and
- To promote the relevant studies to be carried out both in theory and practice, without neglecting the advantage of the common aspects of the multi-stakeholder and disciplined structure of both management styles.

In the light of the events that have taken place in recent years, it is no longer possible to address public administration and disaster management as independent processes. Hence, achieving the desired outcomes in terms of both vulnerability in disasters and social welfare will only be possible with the efforts to harmonize these two disciplines of management. Therefore, the public administration discipline should facilitate disaster management by eliminating the obstacles to its effectiveness both by using public resources and in the legal sense, that is, through inclusion of disaster risk mitigation efforts in policies in the public interest.

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CHAPTER XXVII

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

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1. The Concept of Public Administration

Public administration refers to the behaviors of people or groups serving in the state organizations or people, equipment, and management units organized to realize the purposes determined by the state. In addition, Public Administration refers to the group of all institutions that provide technical assistance in formulating and executing public policy (Bozkurt et al., 2008, p. 133). While in a narrow sense, this concept only includes activities and organizations that perform executive functions, in a broad sense, it covers administrative institutions and activities that perform legislative and judicial functions, as well as executive assignments (Gözübüyük, 2010, p. 1).

Public administration emerged after political system formations and the implementation of administrative activities with a systematic program. However, this concept has recently been studied as a scientific discipline.

Besides getting a better understanding of the relationship between administration and society, public administration should create a more sensitive management approach to the demands and needs of society. Essential to the fulfillment of this purpose is effective and efficient management practices aimed at meeting human needs (Özer, 2005, p. 29). As a science discipline, public administration deals with the political, social, and legal environment that impacts the functions of public institutions and organizations.

In this context, public administration is also in a relationship with various disciplines such as political science, sociology, and law and feeds on these disciplines. In academic terms, it strives to understand and develop the relationships between the public bureaucracy and the society producing goods and services (Eryılmaz, 2014, p. 11).

Public service should be “for the public” and “intended for public interests” and performed by “public institutions” or “institutions” and “private legal entities” *under the supervision and control of public institutions* (Bozkurt et al., 2008: p. 128). Since these services are open-access to the public, equitable access to public services should be emphasized to citizens. Individuals must benefit and participate in public services under the idea of equality (Gözübüyük, 2010, p. 27).

Public services should focus on the whole society, not on a specific group (Sezer, 2008, pp. 150-151). There is usually no competition to state institutions providing the public services intended to meet the shared needs of the public.

With globalization, the public service perceptions of individuals have also changed. Indeed, today public services have been reorganized and supported by private institutions in many services to be executed. Another significant change has been in funding public services. Some believe that public services should not be free and suggest that beneficiaries of the services should pay a fee (Özer, 2007, p. 116).

Most of the products and services produced by the public sector are either publicly owned or semipublic. Public goods and services have nationwide benefits and affect the general interests of the entire population. However, semipublic goods and services benefit only a specific social region or segment and are indivisible in this respect. Public services have both qualities. Public services are offered to the public to produce social benefits in line with the public interest rather than profit (Eryılmaz, 2014, p. 18). Public service must be regular, continuous, and in the public interest.

Public interest should be comprehensive, protect the peace of the society and its people, and be compatible with the society’s gains. Public services in the public interest have superiority over the individuals’ profits and may limit them. In developing rules for the public benefit, an objective and obligatory relationship should be established between the desired limits and the service, based on factual cause and effect (Saraç, 2002, p. 7-9). While arranging public administration services, not the individual but the entire society or community segments should be considered. When individual interests and social interests conflict, the state should stand by the social interests (Gözübüyük, 2010, p. 7). The idea of public interest first concerns reconciliation between categories of interests in society, and second, integration of social and institutional interests.

2. The Concept of Public Relations

Public relations apply in every situation where there are ruler-ruled and seller-buyer relations because it is both a connection produced by the organizational outputs and an effort to present a structure to this relationship and to influence environmental components.

2.1. Features of Public Relations

Public relations are voluntary activities increasing understanding in society, providing information, influencing the masses, and reducing social reactions. Public relations activities are organized activities that provide solutions to various problems and also cover regular work involving research and analysis. An effective public relations activity is established on the performance and actual policies of the individual or organization.

The purpose of public relations is to serve the public interest, not to provide an advantage to the organization (Okay and Okay, 2007, p. 9). Public relations requires two-way communication between the organization and the target group. During this activity, the effect of the information -given to other parties- on the organization's public can be evaluated through feedback (Yavuz, 2006, p. 2). Public relations is remarkably effective when used to inform senior management decisions. Public relations involve not only disseminating information but also counseling and problem resolution. In this sense, public relations is a management function.

2.2. Public Relations and Human Relations

Human relations can exist between two people, between a person and a group, or between two groups. Human is the primary part of public relations (Yavuz, 2006, p. 6).

“Public relations” and “Human relations” are similar in terms of ends and means. These two branches that work with comparable purposes aim to understand and influence people and human behavior and use similar tools and procedures. Both highly deal with human personality, behavior, social dynamics, and communication (Sabuncuoğlu, 2001, p. 18).

The concepts of “Human relations” and “Public relations” that seem similar are distinguished according to their target groups. Human relations primarily focuses on intra-organizational behaviors, while public relations deals with internal and external contacts.

2.3. *Public Relations and Communication*

Communication is the foundation of public relations and includes an ongoing process. For this reason, it is essential to define the communication between individuals and organizations first (Yavuz, 2006, p. 14).

The transmission of messages from one person to another or individuals means communication. The purpose of communication is to establish a connection by transmitting understandable signals to the other party to influence the attitudes and actions (Tengilinoğlu & Öztürk, 2016, p. 53).

When evaluating the link between communication and public relations, it is significant to remember that communication is the foundation of public relations. Occasionally, one-way communication serves, and no feedback is available. However, two-way communication and feedback are essential in public relations.

2.4. *Public Relations and Public Opinion*

Public opinion is people's attitudes, feelings, and opinions towards a situation. Rulers should not ignore the power of these people during the decision-making process.

In terms of public relations, it is significant that the public has the power to influence the administrative and political systems. Here, opinion leaders are analyzed as well as typical individuals, because public opinion is formed by the ideas produced by thinkers.

Developing public relations creates a strong and effective public. One of the responsibilities of public relations is to produce a public opinion about a particular sector of activity. The more similar the qualities of the target group, the more efficient the application will be. Public relations studies seek to change public opinion, develop new views, and reinforce existing beliefs.

2.5. *Tools Used in Public Relations Practice*

There are many different tools used in public relations practices. Among this diversity, it is crucial to choose the most appropriate tool for public relations practices. The unit primarily aims to determine which tools, when, and how to apply. First, which tools are most suitable for the application should be decided. However, previous studies that examine and evaluate public relations can shed light on this selection. Mass media are the most frequently used tools in public relations practices. Mass media, used in many areas of daily life, make it possible to address, persuade and manage large human masses by transmitting messages

quickly and easily. The public information role of public institutions has become a fundamental requirement in modern democracies. Face-to-face interactions with the public do not meet this need. Face-to-face or direct contact is no longer possible due to the complexity of the social system. Therefore, to carry out public relations activities effectively, mass media are used. However, the use of mass media alone will not be sufficient in the practice of public relations, both inside and outside the institution. Other means are available to achieve the goal effectively and efficiently, and they should all be considered as a whole. Since two-way communication is the basis of public relations, innovations in communication have affected and enriched public relations operations. Institutions and organizations have begun to rely more and more on public relations practices to communicate their aims in society quickly and efficiently. For this reason, the effectiveness of mass media in communicating and interacting with the public should be acknowledged and respected (Durgun, 2000, pp. 421-423).

In public relations, it is crucial to choose which people to address and how. However, after this decision, it is also critically important that the information communicated is correct and understandable for the target group. The human aspect is influential in the practice of public relations. An efficient public relations practice should work both internally and publicly. For this, the public relations department of the institution should use the methods applied in public relations education. The public relations unit should be knowledgeable about applying all tool kinds because the tools differ according to the institution applying public relations practices, the structure of the activity, the type of communication, and the conditions of the target groups (Şen and Çerçi, 2004, p. 32).

The growing importance of public relations can be attributed to the advancement of mass media technology. The practice and effectiveness of public relations have increased dramatically with the mass media. With the rapid spread of the mass media, the terms “press” and “journalism,” traditionally used for newspapers and other periodicals, are now used for a broader system that includes radio, television, photography, and news and movies. Because public relations is the most prominent communication tool, it should be widely understood and accepted. Thus, it will be easier to attract attention, gain trust and give information in public relations.

2.5.1. Textual Tools

One group of successful tools used in public relations studies is textual tools. These technologies undoubtedly play a critical role in communicating the

people's wishes to the state and developing public relations. The administration can learn the people's desires, general tendencies, and favorable or unfavorable thoughts and declare various information to the public using these tools (Durgun, 2000, p. 423). Textual tools are newspapers, magazines, books, brochures, newsletters, yearbooks, flyers, posters, letters, etc.

For centuries, textual tools have been preferred more than oral tools. This situation can be attributed to the earlier development of textual tools compared to oral tools and the acceptance and application of "textual tool notions" in oral tools. Besides, printed media, especially newspapers and magazines, interact with the audience sincerely and deeply (Tokgöz, 2001, p. 141).

In public relations practices, the most effective means of enlightening the public is undoubtedly newspapers and magazines. In this context, the public relations unit needs to analyze these successful techniques and understand and define the methods of the press.

In public relations, the print media educates the people about the administration, and while conveying information, they also convey the principles. On the other hand, the administration has the authority and responsibility not to worry the public in the print media.

Administrations collect information to ensure and reinforce their continuity as a long-standing practice (Tokgöz, 2001, p. 142). In public relations practice, the most profound textual tools of administrations to inform the public are newspapers. In order to get the most out of this tool, it is necessary to understand its features and, most importantly, how it works. There are two factors to consider in using newspapers as a public relations tool: Newspapers are private companies that should make a profit. The connection between the newspaper and the reader should be considered by rulers. This distinctive feature, which is also directly linked to the profit motive, should act effectively on various concerns, from the timing of regular management news to being up-to-date and helpful to the reader, without forgetting what the reader expects. When public relations practitioners want to make money from newspapers, they should know the various concerns associated with the newspaper. Each newspaper has a readership within a particular category by the issues and problems they address.

Timely news is newsworthy. Journalism accepts news undelivered on time as *musty*. There is no assurance that what information about an organization is newsworthy and the relevant organs of the press decide on it. However, public relations experts' relations with journalists might influence this decision. Newspaper news should be clear and understandable to attract the target

audience's attention. Many organizations that publish a newspaper or magazine-style periodicals today employ public relations personnel.

Printed publications, which are usually continuous, are published regularly to inform the public and discuss what is going on in the organization. In terms of the target audience, these publications can be divided into three categories (Kadıbeşegil, 2000, p. 101): School newspapers, in-house newspapers, and newspapers produced for distribution outside the institution. Today, in-house newspapers are very popular. The purpose of the newspaper is to inform and educate employees about general policies, goals, and performance in the organization, notify them of new hires and leaves, and update employees in other departments. A newspaper should cover social, cultural, and institutional news and should have social content. Employees should be supported to write articles for the newspaper and share their ideas about the administration. Thus, employees feel they participate in the management.

Newspapers printed for distribution outside the university are created with considerable care and attention. Statements are written in a language that individuals on the street can understand. In PR practice, the newspaper is forwarded to the target audience via a distribution list. It should be kept in mind that the newspaper should not only include news about the institution but also news about social and environmental events. The newspaper should never bring the organization to the fore. The language used in both internal and external periodicals should be comprehensible to employees and people outside the company.

The primary distinction between newspapers and magazines is the time of their regular publication. Most magazines are published weekly, and any notable event that occurs during the week can be featured in the magazine.

Brochures distributed to various audiences through newspapers and magazines are another tool to educate the target audience in public relations. While preferring the way of distribution, the decision should be made based on target audiences. Brochures usually consist of several pages and many photographs, and their front and back covers should be attractive. The message on these alluring pages should be easily understandable by the target audience. Institutions developing brochure contents themselves will be advantageous in their public relations practices. Eventually, the message for the target audience and the organizational impression must be carefully considered. In a brochure-creating process, providing information about the organization, clarifying the organization's goals, activities, and rules, or drawing the public's attention to

a social issue is always crucial for a positive company impression. Bulletins, which are studies published in particular periods and presented to the attention of people related to the subject, are also textual tools of public relations. Bulletins can serve both internal and external public relations purposes. Bulletin boards, where institution personnel can learn about the announcements, new decisions, and communications, may suffice for internal interactions. (Asna, 2003, p. 84).

2.5.2. Visible and Audible Tools

Radio, television, cinema, short films, and videotapes are crucial public relations tools that appeal to the eye and ear in daily usage. These instruments appeal to numerous people in poor and rich countries but more severely affect poor-country people with lower literacy rates (Durgun, 2000, p. 425). Since these media tools are visual and audible, they are very functional in addressing uneducated and hard-to-reach audiences. Television is the most successful of these instruments because of its visual and audible broadcast performance, and as technology progresses, it has increased its sphere of influence. One should not overlook that the target audience can be easily reached with television today that enters almost every home. In practice, television is a one-way communication tool used to convey a message from the government to society. In television programs, not pursuing any political goals, discussing the problems of the administration and the people, promoting the services of the administration, and determining the people's wishes are the methods of eliminating the "one-sided publication" criticism for television broadcasting. Television is a beneficiary tool for public relations units in their activities. However, television broadcasting is a costly and complex enterprise. Therefore, it is expensive for an institution to produce and broadcast a public relations program on television. In general, the budgets of the institutions' public relations units cannot afford these expenses. In this regard, institutions can benefit from the organizations established to create programs or directly request assistance from television broadcasting companies. In either case, the public relations officer should assist in the program preparation and pay close attention to whether the organization's messages are included in the program prepared. It should be noted that television publication is expensive. Therefore, programs should be concise. Fundamental public relations principles, "accuracy and realism," apply in the program's creation. It may be possible to benefit from television free of charge by producing documentary programs.

In countries where the state has a monopoly on broadcasting, it is not always possible to profit from television. Access to television in such countries

primarily depends on excellent relations with television executives. A public relations-oriented program cannot achieve its purpose simply by showing it on television. Hence, investigations should be conducted to determine whether the target audience has been achieved.

Radio is another public relations tool to reach people whom the printed media cannot. Since the radio appeals to ears, it addresses individuals even while they are busy with other certain tasks (Şen and Çerçi, 2004, p. 39).

All radio programs, such as news, documents, interviews, panels, and short announcements, can serve as public relations practice. Radio newsletters are created in the same way as print media. However, the public relations department should pay attention that it is the radio management's decision whether an event is newsworthy and meets the institutional criteria. Public debates on the radio are a remarkable technique for promoting and expressing organizational beliefs. The public may also participate in open forums to discuss an institution's services. These forums are where messages are conveyed to the public, and people's problems and wishes are learned. Also, within the public relations practice, institutional messages that create a favorable image in the public mind might be broadcast on the radio via commercials for a few seconds. Although studies have been conducted on the benefits of radio and television to society in Western countries, such an investigation has not been made for Türkiye or developing countries. Within public relations activities, it is possible to reach broad audiences with movies using a proper distribution mechanism in the long run, although not as much as radio and television.

2.5.3. Organizational Activities

Organizational activities in public relations practice include seminars, information fests, festivals, conferences, international events, and even small events such as lunches and drinks. They are—when well-structured—very effective, permanent, and publicly widespread. Press conferences are the most prominent public relations strategy. It is a public relations strategy used when conveying substantial institutional news to the mass media to help promote the institution and the services offered. Press conferences, as written and oral statements, update the public on the service and departments of the institution. The mass media representatives of the country or region invited to the press conference must be relevant and competent. Considerable public attention and influence will make press conferences successful. From the beginning to

the end, the press conference should be under the supervision and control of a liable public relations unit. A press conference should have a crucial topic and a purpose. In addition, all tools and equipment needed by journalists and guests should be available where the press conference will take place.

Another successful method for the organization to introduce itself, that is, to establish direct mass relations, is to organize festivals and draw the attention of the citizens to an activity in a city or region. When the region becomes the focus of national interests, it becomes easier to draw the attention of the out-of-towner to the institution. As a result, the public gets an impression of the establishment. Festival organization is not the responsibility of only one institution. Collaboration with many organizations—including the public relations units—is ensured to promote the organizations.

2.5.4. *Other Instruments*

In addition to the above, employee participation in decision-making in an organization is considered a public relations activity. Management participation stemming from a social need emerges as a social product demonstrating the philosophy of a particular self-management relationship, managing working relationships, and influencing social behavior. Although management participation may seem like a social request, managers might place a lower value on it. At the board meetings, although the subordinates discuss the management proposals, they usually approve them because of the management pressure asking for the decisions to be approved. Effective institutional administration can only be possible when the employees understand the corporate goals and principles, recognize the institution, and believe that the corporate can meet their economic needs such as prestige, security, education, and production (Onaran, 2001, p. 202). Participation in management varies depending on the characteristics of the institution. Institutional personnel who can take part in the board have a strong influence on administrative preferences. The significant point here is explaining the top management decisions directly to the subordinates. Organizations with successful management participation achieve some of their intended objectives through the practice of internal public relations. It seems extremely difficult for this to happen using face-to-face and direct communication in today's increasingly complex social system. In this context, it is necessary to use the tools outlined so far to ensure that the public relations practice is more efficient and successful. As mentioned before, numerous apparatus in public relations practice are available.

3. Public Relations in Public Administration

Public relations aims to carry out two-way communication with society robustly and effectively, while public administration's purpose is to gain the trust of the masses. In terms of the public administration, this situation is not only a matter of gaining the public's confidence. Public administration also has other purposes as follows:

- Enlightenment of public opinion
- Public adoption of the organization's policies
- Public's positive attitude toward the administration
- Easily accessible administration for the public
- Getting decisive information from the public in decision-making processes
- Ensuring citizens get the relevant information and comply with the prohibitions
- Cooperating with the public in the provision of services
- Evaluating the wishes of the people in defining and solving problems.

The above items imply that public relations practices are a recognition and promotion activity in the public administration. The promotion activities in public relations ensure an information flow between the public and the state, establish the administrator and administrated relationship, help the people adopt the decisions taken, and contribute to a positive public opinion. On the other hand, official institutions' activities in line with the people's requests, suggestions, and complaints are recognition activities.

There are various definitions and significance levels of public relations in the public and private sectors. The public relations concept in the public sector refers to a two-way communication effort to get public support, change within institutions and persuade the public to adopt the institutional demands (Yalçındağ, 1987, p. 57). The private sector's public relations understanding covers the techniques to research and discover the areas where businesses may encounter political and social risks and diagnose the problems early.

The public and commercial sectors shape the goals of public relations according to their target audiences. In the public sector, public opinion is formed by the citizens, while in the private sector, consumers form it. As a result, public relations creates proposals to ensure that the rules are developed in accordance with the attitudes and expectations of the public in the public sector and in accordance with the attitudes and expectations of the consumers in the

private sector. While the purpose of public relations in the state is political and administrative, in the private sector is profit. While the public sector tries to increase the quality of public services through public relations, the private sector aims to enhance the quality in the service area, which is much more limited than public services. The aim in every field is to persuade the target audience to use the institutions (Mihçioğlu, 1976, p. 16). In democratic societies where two-way contact with the public is a government policy, people have a variety of duties other than voting. Elections, execution, and supervising are examples of these responsibilities. Close public relations are a prerequisite for successful management activities. Customer happiness is prioritized in the non-profit private sector. The concept of public relations has critical importance in all these activities (Tortop, 2009, p. 35).

Public relations aims an excellent two-way communication. Public relations managers evaluate the public's satisfaction with the organization's services and predict future performance. The organization also chooses how much public interest will be associated with public relations departments (Özkara, 1999, p. 26). Since all these implications result from the necessity of public relations in public administration, public relations practices in public administration should be comprehensively examined.

3.1. The Need for Public Relations in Public Administration

Many reasons encourage public relations practices in public administration. In particular, the emergence of the information society in line with the development of the mass media, the pluralist democratic system, the war against paperwork, and the search for organizational effectiveness are among the driving factors.

In the information age, influential factors are developing technology, increasing competitive environment, and supra-national interaction. The information age has also increased the diversity of technological production, which rapidly boosted the information society. Computers, office tools, e-journals and newspapers, smartphones, electronic promotional devices, training, advertising, and R&D activities are among the output-producing tools of this period (Erkan, 2000, p. 206).

Today, since information and technology are as crucial as capital in the production and management of institutions, they are among the indispensables of management science. As a result, knowledge management has become the most critical component of corporate governance to regulate mental capital (Odabaş, 2003, p. 10). Corporate public relations units and efforts are decisive

in distributing information to the target audience, successfully evaluating feedback, and managing knowledge.

Globalization-related competition and rapidly growing information and communication technologies structurally changed companies and customers in our age. Customers' demands from businesses are more information, understanding and reliability, consistent customer relations, and easy access (Göksel and Baytekin, 2008, p. 89). These demands also apply to public institutions. The target audience (public) who started to access information faster thanks to technology has made it necessary for public institutions to transform through more transparent management and development of public relations. However, in the information society, real investment is made through information, not machines. In order to be ahead of others in competitive environments, it is necessary to focus on people by showing sensitivity. Thus, public institutions and businesses need a public relations unit (Göksel and Baytekin, 2008, p. 86).

A pluralistic democratic system is an alternative system established to defend against the exclusionary influence of the system when powerful minority groups see the practice of democracy turn into majority oppression. Therefore, the definition of ideal democracy today is a liberal, pluralistic understanding of democracy that protects people's freedoms (Turhan, 1991, p. 405).

Public relations plays a significant role in a pluralistic democratic system. In these systems, the public relations method might contribute to participative management. The people whose political participation in the administration is "*limited to voting*" and who cannot be thoroughly represented in the parliament much more desire to participate in the administration. This situation requires the government not to remain indifferent to the people's problems, to ensure their political participation in the administration besides voting, and to be more sensitive to the demands of individuals from all walks of life. The government tries to tackle democratic challenges by promoting a two-way connection with the people and ensuring the participation of the multi-actor government in the upcoming political elections. This effort indicates that public relations as a management function are crucial weapons for the legitimacy and continuity of the administration (Uysal, 1998, pp. 27-30).

Another reason for public relations practices in public administration is the effort to reduce tension in certain controversial situations arising from state actions. Globalization, technological progress, and the changing world order have diversified public services. As a result of structural changes, public

administration became challenging, while management improved in quality and quantity. Bureaucracy is a product of quantitative development. States' structural expansion has increased bureaucracy. People comply with some procedures and principles when applying to a state institution. Forms, questionnaires, and application documents are barriers between the public administration and the citizens in bureaucratic systems. Overuse of these methods and concepts results in paperwork. Bureaucracy, so-called paperwork, refers to the whole of the official transactions performed by state institutions while fulfilling their obligations (Öztürk, 2002, p. 45). With the reforms carried out in public administration, solutions have started to be sought for stationery, which is a growing problem. The People's widespread use of computerized technologies in public institutions, such as e-government, is considered a big step in solving the problem (Kazancı, 2003, p. 14).

Organizational effectiveness is another significant element in the development of public relations in public administration. Public relations is part of the management system and is influenced by organizational theories. Because public relations is of critical importance for the structure, functioning, performance, and human resources management of an enterprise (Uysal-Sezer, 1986, p. 48). The previous two theories—*classical organizations theory* and *human relations theory*—have influenced contemporary organizational theory, which is the basis of public relations in public administration.

Classical organization theory, the oldest of theories, forms the basis of organizational theories. This idea came to the fore when society started to consume more with the change in consumption habits after the industrial revolution, and the enterprises increased their production to meet this consumption. This theory is the first comprehensive review of organizational activities and is the basis for future theories (Yağmurlu, 2004, p. 33).

This theory has been modeled in the form of a *working machine*. The theory claims that organizations must be designed and run like machines to achieve efficiency. Here, “job evaluation, standardization of tools, personnel selection and training, performance-based compensation, supervision, and planning” are accepted as basic management concepts. However, the theory has been criticized for not considering concerns such as personality, informal groupings, and in-organizational and inter-organizational interaction (Özer, 2015, p. 30).

The classical theorists' perception of the organization as a machine and its employees as a part of this mechanism shows that the institutional framework in

organizations is more important than the person. Due to the rise of hierarchy as a basic concept, organizational communication is vertical from top to bottom in a centralized structure (Yağmurlu, 2004, p. 38). The neoclassical theory has been developed to complete the deficiencies of the classical organization theory. More broadly, neoclassical organizational theory is not opposed to but complementary to classical organizational theory. For this purpose, it includes new concepts to the classical theory, gives importance to human relations, and aims to increase the organization's effectiveness (Efil, 1999, p. 38).

The neoclassical theory has made many contributions to classical organization theory. First, neoclassical theory values the physiological characteristics, emotions, morale, and connections of employees in the organization. Second, it focuses on the value of communication and delegation as well as vertical and horizontal communication. In brief, this theory emphasizes employee motivation, democratic leadership, participatory management, and job satisfaction (Nohutçu, 201, p. 25).

Human relations theorists, who study the roles of individuals in society, evaluated the contribution of the theory to public relations and analyzed the reactions given by the group members. These studies made significant contributions to public relations management and public relations. While classical theory deals with organizations through their mechanical structures, the neoclassical theory explores individuals, employees' feelings and thoughts, their backgrounds, and their communication with each other. This distinction refers to the revision and restructuring of a strict mechanical arrangement according to the external environment and human factor (Sezer, 1986, p. 53).

In short, theorists' acceptance of public relations as a state's function and their assertion that "*informing the public will increase the government's competence in society*" is one of the critical turning points in public relations. This implication led to the realization that public relations units are significant for public administrations as well as for non-profit organizations operating in the private sector.

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CHAPTER XXVIII

A NEW APPROACH TO READING OF CONTEMPORARY PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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1. Introduction

The comparative method in social sciences is a methodology which enhances a social phenomenon to comprehend and explain in a better way and uses general results to formulate, to classify and to predict ultimately. The comparison as a referred scientific method frequently in every fields of the social sciences during the history provides to present the similar and diversifying dimensions of the existing situation with the other ones easily. Thus it makes easier to classify and explain the functional factors which are effective in conceptualizing and developing the phenomenon. The necessity to compare and contrast has been developed with the same logic in the Comparative Public Administration (CPA) as an important part of the social sciences. Generally the CPA has been defined as the study of the similarities and the differences of the administrative systems together or as the reassertion of the structure of public administration for a chosen country (countries). This method helps generally to put the systematic and molds of the administrative structure and analyze the working mechanism. Therefore, the development of a administrative system can be studied easily within a determined time and its historical development process and demonstrate the similarities and differences with different systems with the same measurement.

The understanding of that the comparative studies in the administration is a subject of politics and law has been extended to the Ancient Greek. However, while Aristo suggests the six modes of administration within the constitutional system, Plato compares the best and the worst modes of administration each other and Xenophon focused on investigating the question of who is the ideal administrator. Machiavelli studied ambiguously on CPA after centuries later than the Antiquity in his work “Discorsi” which mentioned the notions of the state, power and administration in Antique times. During his study he preferred to compare the Roman administration and her similar ones and tried to interpret the existing modes of administration in his period. Nevertheless, the CPA studies have sustained in a deep sleep for centuries.

XVII. century when the modern state have emerged is also known as the important turning point for the public administration. In this century, the Cameralism emerged in Prussia has been accepted as the beginning of a western type modern public administration. Principally Cameralism as a German administration school is a striking example of powerful centralized modes of administration depended upon the mercantilist economy politics. Cameralism with its peculiar administrative understanding is one of the inspiring sources for the Weberian “Ideal Bureaucracy Typology”. Thus the public administration (PA) has developed with its original theoretical and practical dynamics. Nevertheless, the public administration developed in this century shaped in Europe follows the trajectory of philosophical and theoretical discussions. Even though the discussions of state have been initiated within the politics and law, the independent PA discipline couldn't be established yet together with the universalistic PA except the Cameralist thinking. In other words PA in 19th century Europe PA can only be established as an organization.

In respect of PA discipline, while the situation as like in Europe, the vitally important turning point has been witnessed in the USA within the same times. Taylor and Wilson laid the foundations of “Scientific Thought of Methodology” which can be applied to both public and private sector. The late period of XIX. century is remembered as the period when the USA state administration has been reorganized and restructured in theoretical and practical manner. These years at the same time is a period when the CPA studies have been initiated simultaneously. In fact the comparative perspective which was brought into the PA discipline provided the opportunity for the American administrative scientists to analyze the European state and public bureaucracy and give new

rooms for the American administrative system with federal structure. However it is not wrong to claim that the CPA emerged within the PA discipline together and simultaneously.

The emergence of CPA in USA paved the way for the universal PA studies. However, in this way, within the first quarter of the 20th century the science of PA has gained a very momentum. While the foundations of modern world laid in past-WWI period, this idea was prominent in the focus of the idea of mandate which is located at the main axis of the League of Nation. The western powers has accelerated the CPA studies in order to strengthen the newly independent winner nation-states. Thus the CPA has been developed as a new discipline and the field of study during this period of time within the western PA literature.

However it is to bear in mind that the studies concerned with the CPA has increased in post-WWII. Especially within the bipolar world order which has been created together with the Cold War the CPA has gained the multidisciplinary character being in the first place the finance and including the economics, politics and law. In this period the direction of the CPA studies was centralized on the unification of the public bureaucracies of the countries rank among the western realm and remove the failing parts. The CPA which played vitally significant roles in working of some supra-national institutions such as UN, IMF, World Bank and the EU became determinant in the development management, integration and the unification policies as well. Nowadays the CPA which sustains its importance increasingly is a dominant parameter privately within the transfer of executive reform.

It is really hard job to elaborate the historical development and the stages of the CPA studies. The reasons are the emergence of CPA studies and discipline together with the PA almost within the same period of time, its multiple purposes and functions, its confusion with the other social disciplines such as comparative politics, its pragmatic and inclusive character and its development by the American social scientists. Moreover there is no attempt to produce the theory except the Americans in the CPA fields. Both Europe and the rest of the world's researchers are merely focused on the basic comparative measurement and not settle a systematic establishment. Therefore, this study aims to introduce the main theorists together with their theories and the historical background of the discipline, thus, to elaborate the range of CPA within the modern PA theories by moving the assumption that the discipline emerged by means of the USA-centered point of view.

2. The Early Period in CPA Studies: Appearance of the Discipline and Its Founders (1880-1914)

It is really important to repeat that the first studies in CPA was initiated by the PA at the end of the XIX. century to the beginning of the WWII. The main characteristic of this period was its appearance in the USA and by the Wilson as the founder of the contemporary PA and the CPA and 28th President of the USA and the academician. His most important contribution was his exclusion the PA from being a subject of the politics and law. However in his article published in 1887 he claims that this divergence and exclusion must be in earlier times and PA was disappeared within the state administration along with the centuries (Wilson 1887: 197-198). According to Wilson the sources of the PA should be sought in Europe. In this context, according to him, the first studies related with the discipline was done by the Great Frederick (II. Wilhelm, 1712-1786) in Prussia and Great Frederick perceived the PA as independent form the stat administration and consisted of the original and autonomous units. This tradition has been kept by his grandson III. Frederick (1797-1806) by emphasizing its organizational and functional identity (Wilson 1887: 204). Wilson considered the French Revolution as a development to promote the PA into the constitutional foundations. After the Revolution, especially within the periods of the Restoration PA has been transformed into a body of executive and it was declared clearly in 1848 French Constitution. Thus PA has been differed from the state administration although it is late. According to Wilson, there is another splendid example can be witnessed in Britain for the sake of this separation. In Great Charter concluded agreement in the period of Angevin Kingdom King Henry II promised to make an important reforms in the state administration and made the PA independent by separating it from the politics (Wilson, 1887: 206). This attempt of the King Henry II is directly relevant with the institutional and personnel aspect of the PA discipline.

The other work of Wilson related with the topic is his book “*State*” drawn up in 1889 as the extended version of his article written in 1887 mentioning about the comparison among the modes of the administration for the Britain, France, Prussia and Germany. The mentioned states have been categorized as the unitary and parliamentary democracies and the Austria-Hungary and Swiss and Norway as the double monarchies. In the second chapter of the book Wilson mentioned about the nature and the structure of the governments with their historical development processes and functional peculiarities. From this aspect, Wilson is the founder of both the PA and the CPA.

Another academicians, in addition to Wilson, who works on this topic in early period was Frank J. Goodnow with its book “Comparative Administrative Law” defining the PA within the executive body and apart from the politics and law. According to Goodnow the government executives are very familiar with politicians and applying the decisions of the policy-makers into the practice from the first hand but they can not be considered as the natural part of politics. For this reason he claims the first bureaucratic mechanisms purged by the politics has been established in Prussia between 1720-1808 and later France and Britain possessed such a kind of institutions and bureaucratic mechanisms apart from the politics (Goodnow, 1893: 1-9). In his work Goodnow elaborated the Britain, France and German administrative systems deeply as succeeding regimes Antique Rome, Prussia and stressed the importance of the institutions and bureaucratic mechanisms apart from the politics with the effective and influential legal executive systematic body. The most important difference of Goodnow is also his definition of the administrative jurisdiction with detailed analysis which is required to be inspected (Goodnow 1893: 144-178).

John W. Burgess is another administrative scientist and writer who we meet within the early period CPA studies with his book published in 1896 “Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law” which its second volume accepted as the first study CPA has been used in a political science excluding the sociology and the history (Savcı 1961: 191). As a contrary to his contemporaneous thinkers he asserts that the PA is directly relevant with the political regime of a state and carries the influences of this regime on it. By moving from this thesis Burgess mentions about the three basic state regimes such as aristocratic, monarchic and democratic which has power to determine the structure of the government (Burgess 1891: 1-2). The governmental systems depended upon the the regime of the state is influential over the direction of PA. In other word, the regimes leads the governments to determine depending upon the direct and representative systems which shapes the character of the PA. Secondly Burgess is interested in the structure of the government which focus on seeking the fundamental difference between the centralized and federal governments and investigates to construct the ideal state structure (Burgess 1891: 6-9). The third case mentioned Burgess in his work the coming the governments into the power by inheritance and the elections which determine the working process of the PA (Burgess 1891: 9-11). The fourth point the writer focused on is the relations and differences between the executive and legislative bodies which manifested as the presidential and parliamentary system on the perspective of the executive law.

He examined the political structures, constitutions and bureaucracies of Britain, France and Germany comparatively for this purpose. His book composed of two parts. First part is directly relevant with the sovereignty and independence of the mentioned countries has been comparatively analyzed and within the second part of the book the legislative, executive and judicial bodies have been elaborated within the structural, institutional and functional framework. With mostly historical and partially legal perspective, Burgess attempted to put the state administration of these similar states in all respects.

Another academician attracted the attention with his early period works is A. Lawrence Lowell as the reformist rector of Harvard University made his mark the literature with his book "*Governments and Parties in Continental Europe*" published the first time in 1896. This book subjected the administrative systems of Bismarck Germany, Austria-Hungary and Switzerland comparative analysis systematically. The writer asserts that Germany is federal state depend on the monarchy and Prussian model shapes the relations between the prime minister and Emperor (Lowell 1891: 1-5). As an example for the Germany Lowell defines the Austria-Hungary as the multi-ethnic and multi-structural federal state composed of Roman, Bosnian, German, Hungarian and Slavs (Lowell 1896: 72). According to Lowell the most democratic and the most liberal state is the Switzerland for the respect of having the right of referenda as the better working in comparing with the USA (Lowell 1896: 293-296). Another study of Lowell is the *The Government of England* (1908) which refers the difference of British state administration than the traditional constitutional modern state (Lowell 1908: 1-3). The author who seeks the sources of American state tradition within the Britain state one analyzes the existing legislative and executive bodies together with the traditional working of political party system. That is the first work which makes the local government analysis and first detailed book about the CPA scope with French influential institutions, British government system and Italian political and administrative structure and the political balance of Germany as well as Austria-Hungary ones. For two reasons he analyzed the Austria-Hungary. First of all the multi-ethnic, multi-religious and multi-cultural character of this state during the Medieval Ages and secondly after its annexation the emergence of ten states from her body. For his reason, according to Lowell, Austria-Hungary is an extraordinary miracle of the politics (Lowell 1922: 328).

When we look more generally, in early period of time CPA has emerged in the USA and focused on the comparison of USA state administration with the European similar ones by means of comprehending the main methodology of the PA over the separation of politics and PA as well as the British local

governments and USA ones. The most striking point in this period of time is the first theoretical studies pertaining with the administration law. Especially Goodnow paved way to the comparative administration law new dimensions and offered an insight into USA relations with regulating the federal state and federation fall within the Anglo-Saxon legal system.

3. The Classical Age of CPA: The Development Years of the Discipline

This period covers the aftermath of the WWI beginning with the discussions of the new world order continuing into the 1960s and turning the CPA as a sub-division and diversified with various methods and approaches. As it is known, after the end of the war the nation-states have been built and the western powers enlarged the main studies of the CPA as the institutionalized body in line with the newly established nation-states in respect of content and methodologies. The league of Nations established in post war period had the mission to institutionalize the CPA and the Wilsonian principles are used as parameters in practical examples by the standing mandate committee and popularized the CPA especially after the WWII.

In respect of the reasons and results of the WWII led to the drastic changing in the realm of social sciences. During and after the war many political and administrative scientists have been appointed to be decision making mechanism in USA governments (Yourarticlelibrary, 2018). Thus they had an opportunity to implement their theoretical knowledge into the practice. This situation directed the CPA studies to focus on investigating the modes of public administrations for the developing countries. Practically Marshall Plan and Truman Doctrine was the embodiment of CPA studies achievement. When the inadequacy of the local governors in managing the financial, technical, military and administrative aids, the USA authorities accelerated the CPA studies in order to construct an effective and influential PA (Yourarticlelibrary, 2018). In post-war period, a new understanding of PA has been laid under the leadership of the USA together with the functions of the UN. However one of the most important mission of the UN is to adapt the existing administrative systems of the developing countries in Asia and Africa into the new economic and legal system. Therefore the PA was seen as the incentive parameter to economic and social development (UN 2008: 6)¹. However in the first meeting of the General Assembly of UN held in 1946 the process of providing the technical aid was prompted and culture-

¹ The missions of the UN related with the PA is getting increased in recent years. Some of them are UNPAN, UNPOG, UNDP, DPIDG, DESA ve UNU. At the present the UN evaluated as an organization working on PA area with multidisciplinary and serious manner.

based geographical planes haven prepared depending upon the expert opinions under the leadership of ECOSOC² for the developing countries. In addition to this, it was provided to establish a permanent International Education center for Public Administration under the coordination of ECOSOC at the end of 1948 with the resolution with the number 246 (III)³ taken by the UN General Assembly (UN 2008: 7). By means of the another resolution (304-IV)⁴ taken by the UN General Assembly in 1949 ECOSOC was taken full authority in preparing the technical specifications about the PA by including the PA into the “Extended Technical Aid Program”. It was witnessed that the UN increased her activities about the PA by means of direct education, expert consultancy service, cooperation groups, seminars and periodical publications. In line with this decision, the resolution with the number 723 (VIII)⁵ taken by the UN General Assembly ordains the establishment of an autonomous executive and administrative unit and the the organization of the private periodical committee to run these activities vigorously. In addition to his decision, the PA programs have been revised and PA has been made as a permanent part of UN aid programs.

Certainly, the “System Theory” of Easton greatly contribute to these decisions especially in extending the CPA studies over the all administration systems all over the world (Yourarticlelibrary, 2018). Easton’s theory depending on the open society ideal is vitally significant in exposing the close relationship between the politics and the other environmental systems which reflects itself in APSA⁶ tangibly. As one of the most effective and influential scientific academy in USA at present ASPA entered the comparative politics and democracy studies into the literature since 1950. As a matter of fact the establishment of ASPA⁷

2 UN Economic and Social Council

3 For this resolution please refer <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/RESOLUTION/GEN/NR0/044/17/IMG/NR004417.pdf?OpenElement> (22.02.2018)

4 For this resolution please refer <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/RESOLUTION/GEN/NR0/051/23/IMG/NR005123.pdf?OpenElement> (22.02.2018)

5 For this resolution please refer <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/RESOLUTION/GEN/NR0/044/17/IMG/NR004417.pdf?OpenElement> (22.02.2018)

6 American Political Science Association. This association firstly held in 1903 and became the most effective and influential scientific academy in USA at present. For detailed information about APSA <https://www.apsanet.org/> (26.02.2019)

7 American Society for Public Administration went into action in 1939 eventhough it was officially founded in 1945. Its first president was Louis Brownlow. For details <https://www.aspanet.org/> (27.02.2019)

, established in line with the Reports of Brownlow Committee⁸ penetrated the development of the discipline for the sake of CPA. In this period of time both CPA and PA has arrived the theoretical foundation by the activities of ASPA.

The institutional role of ASPA within the scope of PA directly shaped the CPA studies apparently. As a matter of fact the universities in USA teaching the PA has increased and the syllabus and schedules have been revised in accordance with the advises of ASPA. In this context, that is the first time in American history the CPA issue and its main principles have been declared in a conference held within the body of PAC House⁹ of Princeton University in 1952. In accordance with this declaration, it was decided to encourage the CPA studies and determine the ways of inducement and fix the data methodologies (Ibietan and Florin 2013: 49).

This change in the realm of American Public Administration can be observed apparently in the studies of this time's administrative scientists. Lepawski who considered as the leading figure of the classical period drawn up a book entitled as "Administration" and each nation has an original administration even though there is a universal idea of PA (Lepawski 1949: 153). He argues that the original units and structures are consist of cultural, economic and social parameters in analyzing he administrative structures of Germany, Britain, Soviet Russia, Latin world and League of Nations and United States within the scientific and political perspectives (Lepawski 1949: 153-184). Another government executive Siffin has the most radical narratives about the CPA by saying that we need the determined borders for the proper course of action and well-identified methods and bureaucracy as the starting point for the CPA (Siffin 1956: 16). In this context Siffin who open up the CPA for discussion with a normative perspective has offered an influential and economy-led approach.

8 This committee has been established by the Roosevelt in 1937 in order to meet the necessity of reform and known as The President's Committee on Administrative Management and directly bounded to the Presidential Execution Office. Its first mission was to issue the Reorganization Act of 1939 For detailed information please refer: Jay M. Shafritz, E.W. Russel, C.P. Borick ve A.C. Hyde (2017), "Introducing Public Administration", Routledge Press, New York, USA, (s:110-112)

9 Its extended name is Public Administration Clearing House has been established within the body of Princeton School of Public and International Affairs in 1939 and gives graduate and undergraduate education about the CPA discipline and provides exchange of views and opinions.

Briefly in CPA studies the period 1914-1960 can be defined as the discipline has made greatly progress and was addressed in institutional level. This development witnessed in CPA was reflected into PA by the settlement of the normative framework of the discipline and the bureaucracy and the state institutions addressed together. From the beginning of the fifties it was emphasized that the PA is a sub-discipline who seek to compare the similarities and differences of the developing and developed countries administrative systems in order to arrive the universal principle about the discipline (Sapru 1979: 468). However the CPA studies are rudimentary yet and just applicable to recover the American administrative system and consist of following the American school. Moreover it is necessary to point out that the data gathering and processing methods of the discipline couldn't be sufficiently and adequately developed yet. Therefore the practices of the UN and League of Nations as supra-national institutions together with the ASPA can be example to remove this shortage.

4. The Modern Period of the CPA: the Construction of a Theoretical and Institutional Sub-discipline (1960-1980)

The modern period in CPA studies starts with 1960 and continues into the 1980 as a paradigmatic process. The sixties as the golden years of the American dream are turning point for the future of the CPA studies. As a matter of fact the establishment of CAG¹⁰ has come into the agenda by the support of USA government and Ford Foundation. CAG is a working group aims to implement the administrative doctrines accepted in USA for the different administrative cultures and composed of administrative scientists who perform a duty in third world countries. In spite of the various criticisms CAG keeps studying on the administrative capacity, development and progress management reflected into American foreign policy with multi-discipliner understanding (Loveman 2006: 292). It is very obvious that the notions, concepts and new PA methods has been developed in order to fight with the communism. Against the Soviet expansion over the third world countries CAG has a private mission to build a liberal democracy and bureaucracy in Basil, Iran and South Kore as failure attempts as an obstacle for economic welfare and rapid development and modernization (Loveman 2006: 293). At the same time this private mission of CAG gave way

10 Comparative Administration Group has been established by the Freed Riggs as the prominent CPA scientist together with D.Waldo, F. Heady, D.Stone, M.Esman ve F. Sherwood. These studies became classical cult for a lapse of time in CPA discipline.

the USA to intervene into the foreign policies of the third world countries and provide a rich source for the sake of development of the CPA discipline.

The richness of the sources and data can be seen in the works of the administrative scientists working in CAG. Nevertheless F. W. Riggs who formalize the ideal type bureaucracy model for non-western powers such as Southeastern Asia countries thought that the western experience has been absorbed by the third world countries as a misdetection (Keskin 2003: 14). In this framework Riggs concentrate on two issues in their books. One of them is dedicated to determine the place of CPA within the PA discipline with three tendencies developed within the last fifty years. First of all is a transition into the more empiric approach depend on the analysis of the real administrative cases from the normative PA studies and approaches. The second tendency is transition from idiographic¹¹ approach into the nomothetic¹² one which depends on the generalizations laws and theories resulted from the regular administrative behaviors or institutional models. Third tendency is shift towards the environmental and ecological approach (Riggs 1962: 9-15). The concept ecology which Riggs mentioned in third tendency is a demographic concept mostly used by the sociologists rather than biologists for referring the social environment. The environment of PA of a country shapes from the economic and social structures, political symbolic and communication systems. Each body and institution or system emerges and develops in a very special situation (Riggs 1961: 4-21). Moreover after years Riggs explained the word with detailed analysis and defines the “decision-making ecology” or “political and administrative ecology” by combining the PA and ecological tendencies (Riggs 1980: 107-108). The second topic which Riggs discussed is in which parameters the developing countries to be analyzed. The author developed an original method called as Prismatic Model to classify the developing and developed countries apart from the classical studies (Dereli 1988: 108). Generally the Prismatic Model called the transition societies as a mixture of the traditional and modern as prismatic or developing countries (Sapru 1979: 469). The most important distinctive parameter is the social and economic relations. Riggs used three analytic models as ecologic, structural-functionalist and opinion models in order to explain his prismatic model (Marume, Jubenkanda ve Namusi, 2016:1025). These three categories represent the traditional, modern

11 The approach to describe an event within its own individuality

12 The approach directed to a general principle and law to produce the knowledge and findings.

and developing society structures together with their production capacities. In this adaptation the agraria type of administration in traditional societies, the industria in modern societies has emerged¹³. The fused model and diffracted model have been developed by the Riggs according to the functional analysis of the social structures (Keskin 2013: 15). According to Riggs there is no fully fused and purely diffracted model of society in modern times but prismatic-sala model¹⁴ (Riggs 2006: 35). This situation is much more valid for the prismatic societies and they have inherited cultural models. Therefore they adopt to have flexible decision-making mechanisms and it is necessary to analyze this kind of societies for their own character (Peng 2008: 215). Briefly the administrative ecology and prismatic model put forward by Riggs is suitable to compare the society within the framework CPA discipline focusing on different countries' administrative systems and environments. From this point of view Riggs can be considered one of the founding fathers of the CPA studies (Jones ve Klinger, 2007: 192-193).

F. Heady who belongs to the CAG school and known with his original and exclusive studies concerned with the subject article written in 1960 entitled as "*Recent Literature on Comparative Public Administration*" and this article turned into a book "*Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*"¹⁵ and mentioned about the comparison among the social scopes keeping for two centuries (Heady 2001: 4). In his work he mentioned about the basic foundations and historical evolution of the committed and performed works in Europe and the USA and considered the CPA as the intellectual reading of PA. However according to author we can mention about the five main reasons to emerge the CPA as theory seeking, the incentive of practice, comparative politics, extension of administrative law and the solution of the PA issues within the framework of comparative analysis (Marume, Jubenkanda ve Namusi, 2016:1026). The concept of Heady's CPA has been influenced by the comparative political studies. In this context, the first thing to be done for the sake of CPA is to elaborate

13 According to Riggs while the traditional agricultural societies (agraria) are coherent, the industrial societies (industria) are fragmented.

14 This model has been hardly criticised by the later scientist because it is accepted as pessimistic and deductive and indifferent to the social sciences (Dereli 1988: 260).

15 The work of Heady has been firstly published in 1966 by "Englewood Cliffs, N.J Prentice-Hall, USA" and this original copy is not accessible but the 6th copy published in 2001 is attainable at the present.

the the dynamics of the political system for the analyzed country¹⁶ (Heady 2006: 67). Briefly this approach he called as “structural functional analysis” is focused on demonstrating the administration and politics in developed (west) and developing (rest of the west) countries. The author who constructed this approach over the developing countries singled out the “bureaucratic model” in CPA studies. He defined the bureaucracy as basic structural peculiarities in all modern public services and builds the bureaucratic theory to induce the empirical studies to test the hypothesis related with the behavioral molds in various bureaucracies and aimed to put the difference in western and eastern bureaucracies (Heady 1959: 525). He inspired by the Weberian ideal bureaucracy and argued that his kind of bureaucracy regulates the removes the problems for possible pathologic issues and deficiency of the functions. Heady elaborates the literature studies in CPA field within four categories in his book published in 1984 with 3. Edition through 1980 as altered traditional, secondly progress-oriented, thirdly general system and lastly middle level theories (Otenyo and Lind 2015: 5). The most continuous category within them is the first one in respect of content and extent. The other striking issue in CPA studies that the developing countries do not contribute to the related literature because the USA and western states stigmatized the discipline and transferred the technology into the developing countries.

In sixties the author who stigmatized as his activities in CAG is D. Waldo. He focused mostly on the scientific bureaucracy and PA description and perceived the CPA as sub-discipline in philosophical meaning. According to Waldo the aim fo CPA studies is to establish more productive institutions and administrative organizations in restructuring of Europe within the framework of Marshall Plan promulgated after the WWII by studying the the working principles of the local administrations (Waldo 1963: 183). Impliedly the CPA is not simultaneous discipline but the product of a model purified from the uniformity and founded on diversity and dynamism. Actually CPA has been inspired by the comparative political studies and extended comparative government analysis. Thus the CPA has been emerged as an independent discipline (Waldo 1963: 191-192). CPA studies principally depend upon the Weberian bureaucracy as the founder of modern PA and ideal type as fundamental paradigm of modern PA is influential over the analysis of public bureaucracies (Waldo 1963: 196-197). Waldo prefers the Riggs model with the terms *agraria* and *industria* which performs in

16 For this aim Heady asserts that there are two kinds of bureaucracies during the history as bureaucracy-oriented and directly political-oriented.

elucidating the prismatic society model by using inductive model together with the comprehension of both sociology and anthropology. Due to the fact that Riggs model is most comprehensive approach in CPA studies because its nomothetic, empiric and ecologic parameters are very strong and plausible in comparing with the rest ones (Waldo 1963: 198-199). The most important problem and conflict in CPA studies, according to Waldo is determine and decide whether the most comprehensive model to include almost all PA studies all over the world (Waldo 1963: 206). Certainly it is possible to develop large and small theories but they are bound to be related with the Riggs ecology model because this model includes the technic and normative components and inter-cultural environment. Therefore the CPA study just merely depended upon progressive technical analysis with narrow-minded understanding can not conform to the idea of dynamic and always developing PA (Waldo 1963: 209-215).

Through the seventies it is seen that the CPA has lost popularity in USA and turned into the small circle private area of study because of the political turmoil and socio-economic crises. In this period of the American PA concerned with the public finance and budget and accelerated to develop a productive and efficient administrative system (Farazmand 1996: 361). During that time the CAG-oriented studies ended and all studies pertaining with literature shifted into the academy. However the most important academician of the seventies Keith M. Henderson claims that CPA is an independent, new and original discipline because it adds the significant dimensions for traditional studies (Henderson 1964: 49). As a matter of fact the CPA is rapidly transforming into the concern of the public policies instead of being a sub-discipline of PA. therefore the CPA must be regarded as an important model referring the all times and stages of the PA main discipline. Nevertheless the American CPA studies are restricted to study the administrative structures and practices of foreign countries (Henderson 1964: 49-50). This regular practice and habit leads to the anomy and loss of identity (Henderson 1969: 75). Therefore it is inevitable to add new models into the literature. Henderson analyzed the contributions of Riggs and Heady offers three basic approaches as bureaucratic system, input-output system and the system of components. Briefly this approach depends upon principally the idea of "catch all" approach to find the communication links between the administrative system and the environment (Henderson 1964: 57-60).

Another important actor in this period of time is Peter Savage who express that the CPA has the pragmatic and traditional roots and reached into the permanent and inevitable level in PA studies even though it lost its impetus

and momentum in recent years (Savage 1976: 415-416). Notwithstanding the CPA arises from its internal dynamics independent from the main debates of PA, therefore, reflects the internal confusion and conflicts an influenced by the outgoing discussions in PA. The adaptation of CPA into the traditional PA methodologies such as developing theory and determining a restricted aim affects the future of the discipline negatively. In line with this development, the attempts of CAG to develop a discipline nourished by empiricism and progress-oriented diverted it form its own trajectory. Almost all studies of CAG are directed on holistic system analysis and theoretical or empiric works over the bureaucratic structures. As a matter of fact after closing down the CAG as if works like a holding, the CPA experienced a crises and lost its popularity (Savage 1976: 416-418). Whereas the CPA has a potential to contribute greatly to PA and make its mark for the future of the discipline and became the leading figure of New PA Movement (Savage 1076: 420). After hardly criticizing the previous studies and point of views about the CPA, Savage gave the CPA three roles¹⁷ as the influence of the other disciplines. Primarily the CPA is not interested in the bureaucratic bodies but directly relevant with the political parties, leaders, public opinions, legislative bodies and other social political issues (savage 1976: 420). This relation of CPA with the politics maintains and strengthen its place in front of the PA. Secondly the CPA is one of the eclectic and omnipotence approach for the social sciences (Savage 1976: 421). Because of its this peculiarity, the CPA has a capacity to transform the idea of PA drastically. In line with this reality, the CAG has been established in order to create this awareness of changing , waving and transformation. Thirdly the CPA offered the suitable and plausible reform choices towards the developing countries' own cultures and humanitarian needs (Savage 1976: 421). Briefly Savage admits that the CPA separated from the PA, but lack of paradigm of PA and contribute in shaping the practical examples for the PA. these realities gives opportunity for the CPA keep alive in the future solidly.

The IPA as the new are of study in PA literature underlies its intellectual grounds from the Comparative Public Administration (CPA) which became apparent in recent years. It is not wrong to argue that the concept IPA took part in literature by the efforts and contributions of Ferrel Heady. As a matter of fact, in his study drawn up by Heady and his friends from the group, he mentioned about the history and extent of the CPA in 1989 and argued that a new world order had been established after the WWII and international organizations were

17 Savage called this influence as inheritance or heritage

strengthen than ever before and these organizations will make their mark on the next century (Heady, 2007: 605-606). According to Heady, the international organizations became attractive as the sub-production of the specialization for the political science during the WWII. Therefore, this area is directly relevant with the methodologies of political science and international relations. There are many studies on this matter in sixties and seventies. Nevertheless, it is inevitable that the international organizations became integral part of the PA. Moreover SICA established¹⁸ within the body of the ASPA in 1973, the academic support has been provided for the IPA studies. For this reason, it is integral part of PA studies (Heady, 2007: 606). In Heady's mind, this transformation is thanks to the contributions of the CPA and IPA as sub-disciplines. In other words, the organization, the bureaucratic mechanism of this bodies, and the activities of the official working there are the common concern of the both CPA and the IPA. In this context, it can be argued that these remarks of Heady refer the IPA as exclusive and authentic sub-discipline of the PA. Despite the fact that Heady took part the discipline into the social science literature, he displayed the differences between them. Heady who established a correlation between the Political Science and International Relations declared that there is a huge distance in order to do what needed to be done for an intrinsic and independent identity for the discipline (Heady, 2007: 608). However Heady put forward the five basic topics of discussion in order to be established an authentic and independent IPA studies as follows: Determination of the intersection points between the national PA and international public institutions, make the empirical data available, confirming the executive capacities of the less-developed countries, finding the possibilities to have access to authorized public services acting sufficiently in international organizations within the context of a global nation-state and the calculation of the possible influence of the system transformations within the future (Heady, 2007: 609).

Heady, in his another work he draw up, offers the SICA, as the sub-working unit to develop IPA studies (Heady, 1998: 33). It was very important vision fixing the future of PA researches on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of SICA. Even though Heady expressed that the SICA was not successful in combining the studies of CPA and IPA so far, advised for both discipline to

18 American Society for Public Administration, for details: <https://www.aspanet.org/SICA>: Section on International and Comparative Administration kurum hakkında detaylı bilgi için ayrıca bkz. <http://www.sica-aspa.org/> ASPA: American Society for Public Administration ve SICA: Section on International and Comparative Administration

lead in respect of having their competitive characters among all social sciences and to remove all pressures over them. In this context, according to Heady, the influence of the globalization had paved way to converge the PAs all over the world thanks to the growing effectiveness of the international organizations. Thus, SICA could easily collect and analyze all necessary data concerned with the discipline. Vehemently, Heady added that if the IPA keeps company with the CPA, it will find a broader field of study. In his 1989 dated work he repeated the field of studies determined for the IPA and mentioned about the difficulties in literature. In line with this argumentation, the definition of the paradigms is really hard, contentious and open to debate. The four theoretical processes led such a kind of discussions as the chronological lines within the half century of the international relations: Idealism, realism, globalism (or modernism) and neo-realism. Especially the globalism and neo-realism rather newly emerged processes. These theoretical processes are the short-cut terms for the extent, focus, methodology and the normative tendencies of the phenomenon. The Neo-realist approach is the latest and more popular one in comparison with the rest. Neo-realists widen and enlarge the executive extent of the international organization by emphasizing the importance of the international regimes. Especially the scope of the international organization is located at the chaotic atmosphere in Neo-realist perspective. Another aspect of the Neo-realism is its having pessimistic and fatalist character about the futuristic expectations. The value management of the Neo-liberalism depends upon the “implied prejudices against the drastic changes in the motive of the world policies” (Heady, 1998: 34). Consequently, this theory and approach does not have enough prudence and opinion in comparing with the CPA about how the pragmatic framework could be drawn. CPA has a capacity to collect sufficient data because it takes the transformation of the existing structure in micro-scale. Already at this point IPA, CPA may act in concert and analyze the functional and organizational area movements of the supra-national organizations. Although Heady has a pessimistic attitude, it is obvious that the IPA is getting enlarge its scope increasingly depending on time and space.

In fact, since the beginning of two thousands the academic studies about the topic has accelerated and increased in global level. The most important parts of the research works approve and confirm the problems which Heady referred previously. While a group of academics concerned with the topic has focused on the definition of the IPA, another group investigates the place of the IPA within the PA discipline. Another point of discussion related with the

topic is the relation of the IPA with the other scopes of the social sciences, especially about the comparative politics. Some research works also argues that IPA is the scope of the CPA. This argumentation has been constructed on the scopes of the bureaucratic focusing of the CPA and attributed into the systematic analysis of the international bureaucracies. Even though it is suffered a kind of incomprehensibility about the IPA, it can be said that this concept become established in existing literature of modern PA and it will take hold in very near future (Heady 1998: 33-34).

In seventies the CPA gained remarkable popularity especially in Europe together with the USA because the CPA offers a unified Europe in line with the administrative reforms. In this period The Easton model was prevalent in all social science and PA was seen as the sub-discipline and political sub-system of each country and inter-disciplinary by means of the socio-political interaction with the Riggs' ecology theory (Rathod 2007: 29). The another outstanding actor out of America in this field is F. Morstein Marx with his book *The Administrative State: An Introduction To Bureaucracy (1969)* which analyzed the "Administrative State" and tackle with the structural problems of the PA. according to him the requirement of the PA is rationality, responsibility, authority, and continuity by emphasizing the forceful strength of the bureaucracy over the administration. In this way, he mention about the four type of bureaucracy (Marx 1969: 54-69). The first one is the Guardian Bureaucracy the first time mentioned by Plato and defined as the supporter of tutelage and focused on the welfare of the society ad implemented ideally in Prussia between 1640-1670 (Marx 1969: 55-60). Cast Bureaucracy as the second type inherited from the Roman times and found the area of application in Britain in European continent and India and Japan in out of the Continent. This kind of bureaucracy is encountered in oligarchical regimes or political systems and shows an aristocratic character (Marx 1969: 60-65). The third type of bureaucracy is Patronage Bureaucracy used widely in Britain and the USA since XIX. century and subject of changing in line with the change of existing power (Marx 1969: 65-69). The last type of bureaucracy is Merit Bureaucracy which depends on the competence, rationality and qualification as well as competition and seen mostly in Continental Europe (Marx 1969: 69-73). The aforementioned types of bureaucracies were compared each other and referred them in demonstrating the general outlook of the administrative systems in Europe and categorizing the political systems of the states over the bureaucracies. The contribution of Marx to the literature especially his paving the way for the CPA studies in Germany of "Hochschule of Administrative

Science in Speyer¹⁹ by transforming the school into university and initiated to remove the difference among the administrative bodies and units which constitutes the German federalism in forties as a crucial center in CPA studies under the body of EEC. However the EGPA²⁰ founded immediately aftermath of the Speyer Conference under the leadership of Marx in 1975 under the auspices of the ILAS which transfer the American cooperation model into Europe (Fish 2018: 17). Even though EGPA is affiliated with the USA school, this academy aims to develop European-oriented solutions for CPA issues. For this aim the central committee of the academy was constituted by the EEC representatives and academicians and increased the number of working groups and issues a periodical *International Review of Administrative Sciences* (Snellen and Van de Donk, 1998:580).

At the end of the seventies CPA became popular in Europe and the rest of the world gradually even though the studies of CPA in USA has lessen because of the socioeconomic conditions of the period. Nevertheless in Europe the CPA became a ever to unite the European states under a political umbrella. The discipline CPA a referential source to develop the theories of the NEW PA and techniques and in establishment of the comprehension of European PA(Snellen and Van de Donk, 1998:580). In this way, it was performed a work to establish a common European administrative zone and evaluated the academic developments and studies by means of the regular conferences and seminars as well as together with the rest of the world within the analytical basis of comparative CPA studies.

5. The Widespread of the CPA Studies and Development: Institutional and Principal Regulations (1980-Nowadays)

Generally the eighties is a period when the neoliberal narratives began to emphasize the end of welfare state within the world. Notably economy the state refrained herself from the almost all fields of the life diminished and lessened. The goods, services, money, capital was opened to be circulated freely within the global level and the notion of globalization which made its mark over the XXI. century. The first affected discipline from the globalization is PA. it was not surprising because at the end of the seventies the notion New

19 For detailed information <https://www.uni-speyer.de/en/>

20 IIAS: International Institute of Administrative Sciences. For more detail: <https://www.iias-iisa.org/> EGPA: The European Group for Public Administration. Another souce: <https://egpa.iias-iisa.org/index.php>

Public Administration Movement has been constructed as the harbinger of the globalization. The areas of searching such as New Public Administration (NPA), the Movement of the New Public Administration (MNPA), Governance and Comparative Public Administration (CPA) are the most popular topics of the modern times. However, a new concept has been added to the literature known as the International Public Administration (IPA). IPA is a new and comprehensive field of study including the impacts of the supra-national organizations such as UN, NATO, EU, and IMF on the state and public administration within the global, regional and local levels as well as their structural and functional appearances. Substantially IPA studies inspired by the CPA and the Governance will be transformed into an important sub-discipline of the PA in a near future and frequently come to the agenda. In this context, this study aims to put forward the general terms, point of focus and relations with the other fields of areas of the term IPA with the brief perspective and fix public administrators' attention on this subject matter.

Nevertheless, it is witnessed that this understanding has been changed as a reaction into the exclusive conditions of the developed countries in post-WWII. It was mostly criticized the increasingly interruption from the idea of the direct servicing for the public institutions and mere focusing on the outputs in executing the public services instead of inputs. The increasing critics on the concept traditional state have been found a new area of implementation within the framework of MNPA which was initiated by Thatcher in Britain at the beginning of the eighties. The transformation initiated in Anglo-Saxon PA was rapidly spread over developed OECD countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and USA as well as developing countries such as India, Jamaica, Thailand, South Korea and Singapore. Especially the institutions such as OECD, WB, EU, IMF and UN had entered into the tendency to support the MNPA. Briefly the MNPA has been constructed over the critiques of the administrative system of the traditional modern state on the main points. Briefly these critiques have been summarized as: The lack of the flexibility to meet the diversified needs of the modern state in the age of globalization, the numerical and functional complexification of the bureaucratic institutions and mechanism on behalf of the welfare state implementations, the constitution of a privileged class within a social structure as a result of these mechanism and, thus, the emergence of a needlessly large state with its unproductive, clumsy and hard hierarchy. One of the most important critiques on the traditional public administration is own influence over the delay and the impediment of the MNPA. The thinking of the

NPA which has been put forward the first time in sixties has confronted with the oil crisis in seventies and entered into the literature as a radical way of solution over the failure in overcoming the crises which were developed in global level in national one.

The MNPA alone is not a thinking production which intends to solve the cumulative problems of the traditional PA but just consist of the practical implementations for this aim. The MNPA has seen as the symbol of the interruption from the traditional PA independently. The MNPA has been developed for two main targets: The first target is the redefinition of the role of the state and the public services executed on this scale. The second target is the increase the effectiveness and productivity in executing the public sector and services. In order to realize these two targets NPA has been shaped on the answering of three basic questions. The answers will shape the fundamental principles of the NPA. The first question: Is the role-taking of the public compulsory in a public activity pertaining with an executing public service? The answer of NPA if it is not compulsory, the public institutions overtaken this public service should rapidly be deactivated or privatized. The second question: if the public compulsory in executing a public activity, how can be the activity more effective and influential? Could the activity become more effective by favor of the public sector or by favor of private one? The answer of NPA is, if the private sector is influential in executing a public sector, this should have public service done outside by means of a contract or use alternative models. The third question: if the realization of the public activity in inside is compulsory, is there any public organization related with this target? The answer of the NPA is that it is necessary to implementation the private sector rules into the public one and to re-structure the public organizations depending on the responsibility and performance (Özgür and Ciğercioğlu 2015 108).

With the placement of the MNPA within the PA literature, it is thought that the diversified and complicated public services can be easily solved in a globalizing world. In other words, the MNPA is a magic key to solve the problems which the traditional PA cannot be remedy. In fact, this movement underlies the intellectual base of the IPA which will be popular in years two thousands. However, the end of the Cold War was the final flare of multi-polar or nonpolar international system. New atmosphere of the globalization had payed way for the political and administrative regulations making the international cooperation inevitable. In this context, the MNPA became apparent as the infrastructure national regulations to underlie a different PA. However it will be

hard for a traditional PA to adapt into our global world with its hierarchical and vertical organization, its restriction himself in performing with the previously announced public services and its distance with the politics decisively. In order to integrate with the globalization, it is required to have a new PA system with its horizontal and flexible organization in accordance with the politics and the current conditions. Certainly all these needs were derived from the creation of a world state which will be prevalent in 21th century. The aforementioned scientist are Guy Peters, Ferrel Heady, Charles T. Goodsell, Jong S. Jun, Milton Esman ve Gerald. E. Caiden. According to Peters within the last years especially in industrial societies the importance of the public bureaucracy is getting increased and this situation has been noticed by the policy makers (Peters 1981: 56-57). Briefly in the developed industrial societies called as west, the bureaucracy is more than the Weberian bureaucracy and the bureaucrats are politicians and political bureaucrats. Briefly this new bureaucracy called as *bureaucratic government* is both a politically decision-maker and routinely new ideological approach (Peters 1981: 65). Actually it is apparently seen that the world has been initially administrated within the more integrated systems in the last quarter of the century we are living. In particular UN and its subdivisions partaking under its umbrella together with the international organizations such as OECD, EU, AfB, WB and IMF reduced the movement area of the traditional nation-states. The liberalist- inspired and ambiguous concepts of the MNPA such as regulatory state, governance, and bio-government become more apparent in the course of time (Heady 1989: 573). Moreover each passing day, the activities of the aforementioned international organizations and their powers in producing the public policies raised a lot. Even though the IPA has not a deep ground between the concrete concepts of the nation-state as the source of politics, it can be predicted that it will gain an institutional status within the local public administrations apparently in near future (Frederickson at all 2012: 21). The nature of the administration and the increase in its efficiency, it is necessary to widen and enlarge the content of CPA to make the comparison in national and international level of analysis. As like Heady, Jun expresses that the CPA has been focused on developing the theories and methodologies and achieved to do in seventies. In new era the new mission of the CPA is to create an academic awareness by moving form the obtained theories and accumulations (Jun 1976: 642). In his aforementioned article Jun argued and defended that the CPA studies fed by the behaviorist school in post-WWII and focused on the similarities and differences of developing countries in sixties and this tendency brought

the disadvantageous position because of the complexities of the variables in micro-level analysis (Jun 1976: 642). Again according to Jun, the most basic problem of CPA studies in constructing the theoretical models and paradigms. He mentioned about the difference between Heady and Riggs and focused on exploring the subjective meaning of the social structure and elucidating the new modality of relations between the politics and bureaucracy. In this way the CPA must be seen as the widest part of the PA rather than being an isolated discipline. Esman mentioned about the correlation between the modernity and economic development and the developing countries' capacity to constitute the various tools of action and their capabilities to implement (Jreisat 2005: 233). For this reason he added the economy, political parties, ethnicity, culture and identity to the studies of CPA. Esman applied the approaches of Heady and Riggs into the various country analysis with sociopolitical perspective. Exactly like Esman, Caiden made contribution into the CPA in many respects and expressed that the comparison must be made in accordance with the process, aims, structures, environmental interactions and intercultural administration process (Lakshmaiah 2019: 16). The CPA studies of Caiden focused on the corruptions in administration and the necessity of reform. He wrote a book in 1990 entitled as *Public Maladministration and Bureaucratic Corruption* and brought the literature the concept public maladministration. He intentionally used the term administrative instead of bureaucratic because of attracting the attentions on the ill-intentions in models of administrations (Caiden 1981: 56-58). Briefly the administrative distortion, political corruption and bureaupatology leads to the secrecy, discrimination, privilege, eligibility, inequality, deprivation and social competition (Caiden 1981: 65-67). By emphasizing the administration is also identical with the cultural process Caiden compared and contrasted the American federal administrations, Latin America, USA-Britain, Australia- Israel with each other in his article he wrote in later years as well as reform attempts in India. In eighties the CPA studies was directly relevant with the supra-national, trans-national and international organizations. The CPA studies have been used by the World Bank (WB) in 1986 in reforming the Sub-Sahara countries as well as IMF followed the same trajectory many times with different occasions (Caiden and Caiden 1990: 388). Thus the international organizations and the novelties they depend have been evolved towards a reformist and multi-dimensional, having the information technologies and sibernets instead of classical PA studies. Briefly under the title of the *Governance* almost all reforms have aggregated and the CPA studies were extracted from the national bureaucracy studies

and directed into the international studies as having the statue of subject. All development we mentioned here paved the way for the Age of Globalization providing the transfer of technology and reform and developing the progress-oriented administration principles (Bapuji and Rao 2001: 579).

The nineties in CPA studies gave the new opening ups to the discipline by bringing new initiatives to prevent the deadlocks in CPA studies. After the Cold War period a new academic studies focused on the comparative analysis regained prestige and they concerned with the budget making process, health services and educational policies (Politt 2011: 118). In these years Heady tried to revitalize the CPA studies and removed the reasons of failure in recent past years (Heady 1989: 575-577). Some academicians supported Heady in his reformist activities such as Wart and Cayer with commonly written article in 1990 by emphasizing the multidisciplinary character of the CPA studies (Wart and Cayer 1990: 239). Withstanding, even though Wart and Cayer could not achieve to define the discipline with an original manner, they proved that the CPA is not deprived of having an original identity and exclusive character in comparing the other branches of the social sciences (Wart and Cayer 1990: 246). In nineties the discussions of Globalization and New World Order became influential over the CPA literature. The PA of Globalization means the internationalization of communities transcending the national sovereignty. The enlargement of the global market and the circulation of information and capital in accordance with this globalization has drastically changed the constrains of the PA. almost all administrative structures all over the world needed to adapt this global transformation. The natural narrative of the New World Order required to induce the pluralist democracy, market-oriented economy and privatization (Farazmand 2006: 705-718²¹). However the phenomenon of the globalization didn't bring the end of states and bureaucracies. In this period of time the states have been identified repeatedly by considering the newly emerged socio-political parameters. In this case, the states are interwoven and inter-connected each other and bound to cooperate and subject to the detection of the supranational organizations (Farazmand 1999: 515). This situation has been clearly declared by Heady. According to him by the end of the Cold War, the capacities of the international organizations have been enlarged to provide a

21 For the first edition of this article please refer: *Public Administration in the Global Village*, (Ed.J.Claude GarciaZamor and Renu Khator), Chap:3, (61-81), Westport Ct: Praeger

balance and decisiveness in international politics. Naturally, the comparisons of these structures which bring their powers into play are inevitable.

As Heady expressed that the years two thousands is a period when the CPA studies enlarged and widened in institutional and scientific respects. On the one hand the number, diversity and quality of CPA studies have increased in global scale, on the other hand the discipline has been institutionalized by including the international organizations such as OECD, WB, EU and UN²². The institutionalized studies of CPA paved the way to emerge the “international public administration” (IPA) within the existing literature (Bapuji and Rao 2001: 574-575). In this framework the new scope of CPA studies are focused on the human rights, debureaucratization, dependencies of bureaucracies and citizen contract studies, reforms, public services, civil society and the transfer of public sector into the private one (Marume at II 2016: 1028). Nevertheless, this situation is the topic of criticism for the developing countries (Politt 2011: 122-125). In such a kind of countries the demands of permanent administrative reform over the governance and political accountability made the CPA studies policy makers rather than academic initiative and discipline with its imposing and enforcing character (Walle and Brans 2018: 102-103). The public policies managed by transition process into the governance and e-state implications made the CPA studies out of being rational planning and analysis process and transformed into the directly relevant with the policy transfer-oriented discipline. Even though this situation was seen the enrichment of the discipline but the developing countries considered this process as the westernization of the local administrations over the ethno-centric point of view (Farazmand 1996: 357). The other criticism can be esteemed as below (Fitzpatrick at all 2011: 822). The first one is removing the difference between the politics and PA gradually. Nevertheless, it is witnessed that this understanding has been changed as a reaction into the exclusive conditions of the developed countries in post- WWII. It was mostly criticized the increasingly interruption from the idea of the direct servicing for the public institutions and mere focusing on the outputs in executing the public services instead of inputs. The increasing critics on the concept traditional state have been found a new area of implementation within the framework of MNPA which was initiated by Thatcher in Britain at the beginning of the eighties. The transformation initiated in Anglo-Saxon PA was rapidly spread over developed OECD countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and USA as well as developing countries such as India, Jamaica,

22 The PUMA (OECD), EGPA (EU) can be given as an example among these institutions

Thailand, South Korea and Singapore. Especially the institutions such as OECD, WB, EU, IMF and UN had entered into the tendency to support the MNPA. Briefly the MNPA has been constructed over the critiques of the administrative system of the traditional modern state on the main points. Briefly these critiques have been summarized as: The lack of the flexibility to meet the diversified needs of the modern state in the age of globalization, the numerical and functional complexification of the bureaucratic institutions and mechanism on behalf of the welfare state implementations, the constitution of a privileged class within a social structure as a result of these mechanism and, thus, the emergence of a needlessly large state with its unproductive, clumsy and hard hierarchy. One of the most important critiques on the traditional public administration is own influence over the delay and the impediment of the MNPA. The thinking of the NPA which has been put forward the first time in sixties has confronted with the oil crisis in seventies and entered into the literature as a radical way of solution over the failure in overcoming the crises which were developed in global level in national one. The second critique is the continuous character of the inadequacy of the theoretical ground related with the discipline since the sixties. Moreover together with the deficit of the new theories, the existing studies do not follow the previous theories. This situation prevent the CPA to be an original discipline. The third critique is abundance of the methodological deficiencies because the CPA researchers suffered from the negation of the empirical data. On the other hand studying the PA systems peculiar to any country principally is hard and rather complicated. Moreover this difficulty is getting increased because of the increasingly complexification of the administration systems.

In spite of every critique and problems, if the the emergence of the discipline and the stages it passed were taken into account, it can be said that the CPA runs validity and reliability in studying the PA systems and keep its importance as sub-discipline in two thousands if it overcomes the existing problems.

6. The Evaluation

The comparative perspective within the general discipline of the PA old at least as much as the emergence of the discipline. In this direction, it will not be a hyperbaton to argue that the CPA emerged and developed together with the PA discipline and as inseparable part of it. The emergent developments and the theories proposed in modern history of the PA demonstrates this situation apparently. As a matter of fact immediately after the WWII the ongoing inceptive

theory studies brought the initiative for the scope. However it is necessary to express that the CPA takes part within the PA as sub-discipline. Its reason can be found in the topics involved and the method referred. Nevertheless, the attempt to be an independent sub-discipline has been witnessed during the WWII. Therefore the main literature of the PA finds place within the narratives of the Globalization and New World Order.

Primarily the CPA is an area of research which provide the contribution into the comparing the PA systems in developed, developing and less developed countries and exposing the similarities and differences by means of using the various parameters. In addition to this, CPA includes a flexible and interdisciplinary aspect. Certainly this contribution became apparent for no reason and suddenly. The transition efforts form the implementation of progress-oriented well-fare state into the neo-liberal and governance-oriented has been realized over the readings of CPA studies together with the other scopes of the social sciences. In this direction it can be asserted that one of the key elements of the integration into the global world is CPA studies. As a multi-directional discipline CPA made its mark for the XXI. Century.

Like almost all areas of the social sciences CPA has been criticized in many respects. In fact, the increasing criticisms proves its popularity and it is worth considering by the large circles. The criticisms directed into the CPA can be categorized under three titles. One of them, as mentioned above, is that the CPA is increasingly depends upon the American ethnocentrism and turned into an area imposing the Anglo-Saxon administrative assumptions. The reason behind this imposition is that the discipline emerged in USA and supported by the American academicians. Nevertheless, this reality does not mean that a discipline can be monopolized by certain actors because nowadays technology and information allow to develop a discipline for the other regions of the world. Moreover the interdisciplinary character of the CPA is suitable to remove this critique. If the studies of the local administration culture can be included into the discipline, this critique will loose its legitimacy. The second critique is directed into the deficiency of theory in CPA discipline. No doubt this critique can not be ignored or overlooked. Merely the problem of theory is a research question in almost all social sciences because it is hard to arrive the certain realities. The third critique has been focused on the geographies and its limited character with the North America, Europe and Asia. Nevertheless the main question is not geography but gathering the certain and reliable data. However the studies concerned with the discipline is getting widen and enlarged. Especially the CPA studies have been

expanded to contain almost all world because the academicians living in other geographies involved in CPA studies.

Even though the interest for the CPA studies decreased from time to time never ended within the historical process. The comparative perspective in respect of not only theory but also academic contribution one of the mostly used methods in PA studies. In order to secure the survival of the discipline it is necessary to spread the studies of the CPA, define well in order to be referred in PA studies, test the theories developed previously, to display the contributions of the other disciplines such as international relations, politics, sociology and economy into the CPA.

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CHAPTER XXIX

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE AMERICAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM AND THE EUROPEAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM*

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Introduction

Many international protection systems have been established to ensure the protection of human rights in the international arena. The common goal of these systems is to protect human rights. Established to protect human rights at the universal and regional level, the common source of all existing protection systems is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, and their starting point is to achieve the universality of human rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was referenced not only at the beginning of the human rights conventions adopted by the United Nations but also in the preambles of the European Convention on Human Rights, the American Convention on Human Rights, and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. When we look closely at the universalization process of human rights protection, it is seen that there are many international conventions, that these conventions have different protection systems, and that the rights recognized in these conventions are symbolized in different ways. Therefore, it is not surprising that individuals are given the freedom to choose between universal or regional protection systems. Surprisingly, when there is a human rights violation, the principle of applying the most favorable norm prevails. According to this principle, whichever of the international law norms in a universal or

* This study was prepared from the author's Ph. D. Dissertation.

regional agreement and the domestic law norm is more liberal, that norm is applied. Such a complementarity characteristic of human rights instruments at the universal and regional levels is due to the autonomy of international law, which is a protective law in the field of human rights. International protection of human rights implies the creation of an inspection and sanction mechanism that transcends national borders, national order, and national characteristics. A prerequisite for this to happen is the reconciliation of many states and, as a result, the adoption of a multilateral international agreement. This is also the basic condition for the protection of human rights at the regional level. In order to establish an international protection system in the field of human rights, these issues must be realized, however, the success, development, and effectiveness of the established system depend on many factors. For this reason, the European system and the American system differ in many respects in the protection of human rights at the regional level.

In the study, the differences and commonalities between the American system and the European human rights system are mentioned. American and European human rights systems are compared within the framework of some criteria. These criteria are; the legal basis of human rights systems, the supervisory bodies, and the form of human rights violations.

1. The Form of Human Rights Violations

In order to understand the emergence of regional human rights systems, it is necessary to examine the factors that cause human rights violations. The reason why such an analysis is needed is to compare the European and American human rights systems and examine the reason for the existence of different regional systems (Wolny, 2003: 9).

The development of human rights in Latin America has gone through a difficult phase. For years, almost all of the states in Latin America have lived either under military rule or in revolutionary turmoil (Smith, 2010: 116). Due to the economic and political and relations of Latin America, there have been numerous human rights violations, especially in the 1980s. The rights to life, liberty, and safety, which are basic human rights, have been violated. During that period, abductions, ill-treatment, torture, arbitrary arrests, and deaths occurred in Latin American countries (Mower, 1991:30). Human rights violations were caused not only by crimes committed in authoritarian states but also by violations of the law in countries that give high importance to protection. For example, in

Argentina, despite the transition to democracy, there were numerous violations of the law that were recorded. The killing of criminals by the police or the torture of criminals had become common human rights violations. Even suspects could be detained for days without any charges. They were forced to confess, whether they committed crimes or not (U.S. Department of State, 1988: 371-374). In addition to the violations of law mentioned in the region, there were problems such as extreme poverty, abuse and discrimination of women and children, and immigration problems. In 1987, it was proved that human rights were violated intensively in seven different Latin American states (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, Colombia, Honduras, and Jamaica) within the framework of an international study (Wolny, 2003: 9).

While the rights to life and safety were at the forefront in Latin American states, in Europe, importance was given to the functioning and finalization of the legal processes. In European countries, there was rarely any ill-treatment of criminals, including violence against terrorists, but actions such as execution were out of the question. Contrary to the Americas, in Europe, great importance is attached to a fair trial process, freedom of assembly, protection of private life and family, freedom of thought and expression and non-violation of property (Wolny, 2003: 9-10).

There are differences between human rights violations in both regional systems. In Latin American countries, measures such as ensuring the safety of people's lives and property, preventing the restriction of people's freedoms, and preventing abductions are at the forefront, while in European countries, the protection, supervision, and enforcement of existing rights are at the forefront (Mower, 1991: 30).

2. The Development and Legal Basis of Human Rights Protection

2.1. The Development of the American System and Human Rights Conventions

The existence of the American system begins with the establishment of the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1948 (Meray, 1975: 303). The American system has been characterized as a dual institutional structure for the protection of human rights. The first system was developed based on the Charter of the OAS, which developed over time; the other system was born from the American Convention on Human Rights (Davidson, 1997:8). In the context of these legal bases, the "Inter-American Commission on Human Rights" and

the “Inter-American Court of Human Rights” fulfill the supervisory function (Shaver, 2010: 643; Harris, 1998: 1).

One document of the system based on the OAS is its Charter, and the second document is the “American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man” adopted at the same conference as the Charter on May 2, 1948. The Charter of the OAS mentions little about human rights (Buergenthal, 1984: 470-471; Freeman and Van Ert, 2004:101). However, a detailed list of rights was created with the “American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man”. The rights included in the declaration range from civil and political rights to economic and social rights. In addition, the Declaration contains a few duties for the individual (Davidson, 1997: 13).

In terms of its legal nature, the “American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man” is a non-binding document, like any other declaration. Although adopted at the same conference as the Charter of the OAS, it was not formalized as part of the Charter (Buergenthal, 1984: 471). With the change of the Charter of the OAS and the Protocol of Buenos Aires, which entered into force in 1970, the status of the “American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man” has also changed. The amended Charter of the OAS adopted the Declaration as the document containing the list of rights protected by the Charter (Buergenthal, 1975: 828-829.) In addition, in the advisory decision of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, one of the supervisory organs of the American System, in 1989, it was emphasized that the “American Declaration of Human Rights and Duties of Man” is a text that contains an obligation for the member states of the OAS (Buergenthal, Shelton and Stewart, 2009: 262).

The second pillar of the American System is the American Convention on Human Rights, which was opened for signature at the Inter-American Diplomatic Conference held in San Jose, Costa Rica on November 22, 1969, and entered into force on July 18, 1978 (Mower, 1991:43). Unlike the European system, the member states of the OAS were not willing to ratify the convention (Buergenthal, et al, 2009: 279).

With the specific and detailed civil and political rights it contains, the Convention greatly expands the scope and content of the American Declaration of 1948. It also corrected the poor legal status of the Declaration (Freeman and Van Ert, 2004: 103). While the Convention excluded some of the rights in the Declaration, it did not include any of the Duties of Man. The content of the Convention covers only civil and political rights (Mower, 1991:46).

2.2. Development of the European Human Rights System and Human Rights Documents

The European system was established in 1949 under the auspices of the Council of Europe (Buergethal, et al., 2009:160). The main Convention of the system is the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, which entered into force on September 3, 1953 (Smith, 2010: 95). The rights enshrined in the European Convention on Human Rights are civil and political rights (Mower, 1991: 53). Entered into force on February 26, 1965, the European Social Charter filled the gap in the Convention in terms of economic and social rights (Döner, 2003: 96).

The European Convention on Human Rights has been in constant change and development since its entry into force. For this reason, amendments and additions have been made to the European Convention on Human Rights (Çağiran, 2007: 2).

The European Convention on Human Rights originally envisaged a tripartite supervisory mechanism for the protection of human rights, including the European Court of Human Rights, the European Commission on Human Rights, and the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe. With Protocol No. 11, which entered into force in 1998, the Human Rights Commission was abolished and all powers related to the trial process were gathered in the European Court of Human Rights, whose establishment and structure were reorganized. Thus, the European Court of Human Rights became the sole supervisory body of the Convention (Weiisbrodt and de la Vega, 2007: 313). In addition, with Protocol No. 11, the Committee of Ministers has reorganized the powers of the Committee during the trial process, making the Committee essentially the organ that oversees the implementation of the decisions taken by the Court (Çağiran, 2011: 5). Protocol No. 14 introduced additional measures for the better functioning of the new structure that emerged after the reform made with Protocol No. 11.

2.3. Comparison

Due to the changing political situation and structure in North and South America, developments in the American rights system for the protection of human rights have progressed more slowly compared to Europe. The European Convention on Human Rights is the basic human rights document of the European system. In the American System, there are two basic human rights documents; the Charter

of the OAS and the American Convention on Human Rights (Mower, 1991: 63). At first, the Charter of the OAS did not contain regulations aimed at supporting and protecting human rights, nor did it have a binding feature. However, with the amendment of the Charter of the OAS in 1970, it was accepted as a binding international agreement (Wolny, 2003: 10).

There are also parallels in human rights conventions that have legal bases in both Systems. Although the American Convention on Human Rights is a comprehensive text consisting of 82 articles, it is a document consisting of civil and political rights and freedoms, namely classical rights, like the European Convention on Human Rights, with the exception of Article 26 of the Convention. In both systems, the gaps in the field of economic and social rights were filled with separate regulations. While the “European Social Charter”, which entered into force on February 26, 1965, filled the gap in the European Convention on Human Rights in terms of economic and social rights, the American Convention on Human Rights filled the same gap with the “Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights in the Area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights”.

3. Supervisory Bodies of Human Rights Systems

3.1. Supervisory Bodies of the American System

Since the American system of human rights protection has two separate legal bases, it has a dual institutional structure. The first of these institutions is the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, established by the Charter of the OAS and the other is the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, originating from the American Convention on Human Rights. The Commission is an investigation and conciliation unit with political and quasi-judicial powers. The court, on the other hand, is the judicial unit that definitively decides the cases brought before it (Gözlügöl, 1999: 75).

3.1.1. Inter-American Commission on Human Rights

The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, which plays an important role in the protection of human rights in the region, was established in 1959 with the decision adopted at the 5th Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs and started to work with the approval of its status by the Permanent Council of the OAS in 1960 (Scheman, 1965: 336). It is headquartered in Washington D.C. With Article 9 of the Statute, the Commission was

authorized, albeit limited, to ensure the development of human rights. These authorities include preparing country reports, advising the governments of member states, and enabling member states to take measures in the field of human rights (Buergenthal et al., 2009: 264-265; Scheman, 1965, s. 338). At the Second Special Inter-American Conference held in Rio de Janeiro in 1965, the Commission's authorities were adjusted to allow individual applications. However, this authorization was limited to accepting individual applications for certain rights only (Shelton, 2008: 498).

The status of the Commission gained a firmer institutional basis with the Protocol of Buenos Aires, which entered into force in 1970. The Commission is no longer an "autonomous unit" of the OAS, but is directly regarded as its "fundamental organ". The main function of the commission is stated as "to promote the observance and defense of human rights...". With this Protocol, the Commission became the official organ of the OAS (Buergenthal et al., 2009: 265).

With the entry into force of the American Convention on Human Rights (ACHR) in 1978, the Commission assumed dual functions and duties both as an organ of the OAS and as a Convention organ. Accordingly, the Commission has the authority to promote the observance and defense of human rights in both the Contracting States and the member states of the OAS outside the Convention. However, the human rights documents used by the Commission for the two of those are different (Smith, 2010: 120-121). According to the second paragraph of Article 1 of the Statute of the Commission; the Commission uses the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man for member states of the OAS other than the Convention. In the context of the contracting state to the Convention, the Convention is based on the rights regulated.

Consisting of seven members with outstanding moral qualities and recognized competence in the field of human rights, the Commission represents all member states of the OAS. Members are elected in their personal capacity (to hold office) by the General Assembly of the OAS for a four-year term and may be re-elected only once. However, at the first election, the terms of office of three of the elected members will expire at the end of two years. Immediately after the first election, the General Assembly will determine the names of these three members by drawing lots. In addition, two citizens of the same state cannot take part in the commission (ACHR art. 34-37).

The Commission differs from similar institutions in the diversity of its functions. In practice, it has two main tasks, such as preparing reports by making

on-site visits (in loco) and examining individual applications on the other. In addition to these duties, it assists in the preparation of agreements and other documents and prepares thematic reports for the protection of human rights in the region. While on-site visits and country reports played an important role in the work of the Commission until the entry into force of the American Convention, the importance of individual applications has increased in recent years, especially due to the establishment of the Court and the binding of its decisions (Harris, 1998: 19-20). As per Article 44 of the Convention, the Commission is authorized to examine applications from individuals, communities of individuals, and non-governmental organizations. It examines interstate complaints as well as individual complaints (ACHR art. 45). However, there is a difference between the two applications at the point of their functioning. It is because a state has automatically accepted the individual application procedure by becoming a party to the Convention, while the relevant party states must make a separate and special declaration that they recognize the authority of the Commission in order for the interstate application procedure to work (Gemalmaz, 2010: 1248). There are possible findings as to why the interstate complaint procedure is not used in the region. The first of the findings is the existence of other procedures that the Commission can use, and the other is the unique history of the region, especially the adoption of the policy of non-intervention. For these reasons, states are reluctant to use this procedure (Leckie, 1988:261).

In order for an interstate complaint application and individual applications to be considered admissible, they must meet certain criteria. These are the fact that domestic legal remedies have been exhausted, to submit an application within a 6-month period from the receipt of the final decision, and the subject of the application is not being examined within the framework of another international mechanism (ACHR art. 46/1 a,b,c).

3.1.2. Inter-American Commission on Human Rights

The basic construction of the American Court of Human Rights was built in 1979 (Pasqualucci, 2003:7). It is headquartered in San Jose, Costa Rica. The Court consists of 7 judges who are citizens of the Members of the OAS. In accordance with the Convention, judges are selected from among "...lawyers with the highest moral qualifications and recognized competencies in the field of human rights...". Judges of the Court are elected by the General Assembly of the OAS, by secret ballot of the absolute majority of the Contracting States, from among the candidates nominated by the Contracting States for 6 years.

The Contracting States may nominate up to three candidates; if three candidates have been proposed, at least one of the candidates must be a citizen of a state other than the one that has proposed the list of candidates (ACHR art. 52-54). According to Article 12 of the Statute of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, the Court elects a President and a Vice-President from its members for a term of two years; re-election is possible.

The Inter-American Court of Human Rights is not a permanent court like the European Court of Human Rights. The Inter-American Court of Human Rights convenes in ordinary and extraordinary (special) sessions (Harris, 1998: 3). The quorum for holding court deliberations is 5 judges. Decisions are taken by a majority of the judges present. In case of equality of votes, the vote of the President is decisive. Hearings are public unless decided otherwise. Negotiations are held in closed sessions. The provisions are read publicly (Gemalmaz, 2010: 1247).

The authorities of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights differ in many ways. While the commission has various tasks, the court is mostly responsible for the proceedings. The Court has the “contested jurisdiction” to make the necessary judgments about the contracting states that violate the Inter-American Convention on Human Rights, as well as the “authority to make recommendations” regarding the interpretation of the Convention and certain other human rights treaties, and the power to take “temporary measures” to prevent individuals from suffering irreparable harm (Buergenthal, 1982: 235; Smith, 2010: 123; Trindade, 1998: 145).

3.2. Supervisory Bodies of the European Human Rights System

In the original form of the European Convention on Human Rights, two institutions were envisaged as the organ for the protection mechanism. These institutions are the European Commission of Human Rights and the European Court of Human Rights. With Protocol No.11, which entered into force in 1998, the dual inspection system consisting of the Commission and the Court was replaced by the Court as a continuous inspection system that would deal with and examine the stages of the whole mechanism, along with the admissibility of applications, as well as the task of establishing friendly reconciliation (Gözlügöl, 1999: 192). With Protocol No. 11, the function of the Committee of Ministers is regulated as to monitor the execution of the Court’s decisions and to take relevant actions for this purpose. Protocol No. 14 came into force to ease the workload of the court and fasten the trial process (Bilir, 2011:126).

3.2.1. European Court of Human Rights

Before the current system, there was a Commission and a Court in the European System. Currently, there is only the European Court of Human Rights in the current system, and the Court is authorized in all matters related to the interpretation and application of the European Convention on Human Rights and its Protocols, including individual and state applications (EHRC, art. 32). In the current system, the jurisdiction of the Court is now compulsory for all Contracting States (EHRC, art. 33-34). Another issue on which the Court is authorized is that the Court can issue an advisory opinion at the request of the Committee of Ministers (EHRC, art. 47/1).

Established by Protocol No.11, the General Assembly of the European Court of Human Rights consists of judges equal to the number of contracting states to the Convention. The formation of the court, the selection of judges, their characteristics, and terms of office are indicated in Articles 19-25 of the Convention. The judges are elected by a majority vote of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe among the three candidates nominated by the contracting states for a period of nine years. Judges must be qualified and recognized lawyers with outstanding moral qualities and qualifications to be appointed to a high judicial office. Judges attend the Court on their behalf. These judges can hold office until the age of sixty-five. During their term of office, judges may not undertake any task incompatible with their independence, impartiality, and the requirements of the permanent office.

The work of the court consists of a single judge, committees, chambers, and a grand chamber. There is also a General Assembly of the Court consisting of all members. The General Assembly has mainly administrative duties and powers (EHRC, art. 25). The main function of the court, the adjudication, is carried out by committees, chambers, and a grand chamber. A single judge has the power to reject manifestly inadmissible individual applications that do not require further examination. If it does not make a decision on refusal, it sends the application to the committee and chamber (EHRC, art. 27).

The committees consist of 3 judges, the chambers of 7 judges, and the grand chamber of 17 judges. The chambers of the court form committees that decide the admissibility of a case for a certain period of time (EHRC, art. 26/1). Chambers of 7 judges decide on the merits of all interstate complaints and individual applications (EHRC, art. 29/1-2). If the case pending before a Chamber raises a serious problem with the interpretation of the Convention or its Protocols, or if the resolution of a problem before that Chamber would

result in judgment inconsistent with a previous ruling by the Court, the chamber concerned shall relinquish jurisdiction to the grand chamber of seventeen judges (EHRC, art. 30). The decisions of the Grand Chamber are final (EHRC, art. 44/1).

3.2.2. *Committee of Ministers*

The Committee of Ministers is the body of the Council of Europe and has the task of supervising the implementation of the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights (EHRC, art. 46/2). It may also seek advice from the Court on legal questions relating to the interpretation of the Convention and its Additional Protocols. Recommendations to the court are taken by a majority vote of the representatives who have the right to participate in the Committee (EHRC, art. 47).

If the Committee of Ministers, which supervises the implementation of the final judgment of the Court, considers that the supervision of the execution of the final judgment is hindered by a question concerning the interpretation of the judgment, it may refer the matter to the Court for a judgment on the matter of interpretation. The decision to refer must be made by a two-thirds majority of the representatives authorized to participate in the Committee (EHRC, art. 46/3). If the Committee of Ministers is of the opinion that the relevant state refuses to abide by the final decision in the case, they can bring the issue of whether the relevant party complied with the decision to the Court, with the decision of the Committee by a two-thirds majority (EHRC, art. 46/4). If the Court finds that the relevant state does not comply with the decision made, it sends it to the Committee of Ministers for consideration of the measures to be taken. If the Court does not find a violation, it sends the case to the Committee of Ministers, which will finish the review of the case (EHRC, art. 46/5). Authorization of the Court as well as the Committee of Ministers in terms of determining whether the decisions have been fulfilled prevents political attitudes on this issue.

3.3. *Comparison*

The control mechanism brought by the American Convention on Human Rights consists of the Commission and the Court, as in the original form of the European Convention on Human Rights. The supervisory bodies of the American system are the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights. Although the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, whose legal basis is the Charter of the OAS,

had limited powers at the time of its establishment, over time it became the main organ of the OAS and had a wide variety of functions in order to ensure the development of human rights in the region. In the European System, the Commission was abolished with Protocol No. 11 in order to put an end to the double work before the Commission and the Court and to make the inspection mechanism completely judicial. With Protocol No. 11, the dual system consisting of the Commission and the Court has been replaced by the Court as a permanent supervisory body.

There are some differences between courts regarding the number of judges, their term of office, and their re-election. The American Court consists of seven judges, while the European Court consists of judges equal to the number of contracting states to the Convention (EHRC, art. 20; ACHR, art. 52/1). While judges at the American Court are elected to office for six years; judges at the European Court of Human Rights are elected for nine years (EHRC, art. 23/1; ACHR, art. 54/1). Judges in the American Court can only be re-elected once (EHRC, art. 54/1). Two judges who are citizens of the same state cannot take part in the Court (EHRC, art.52/2). In the European Court of Human Rights, it is not possible to re-elect judges (EHRC, art. 23/1).

In both systems, both the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and the European Court of Human Rights have structural differences as well as similar aspects. For example, the regulations related to the qualifications that judges must have in order to hold office and the conditions of judges incompatible with the judgeship are similar in both Courts. According to the relevant provisions, the Courts elect their judges from among the judges who have the qualifications of “lawyers with the highest moral qualifications and recognized competence in the field of human rights” and are represented by the judges elected in both regulations (EHRC, art. 21/1; ACHR, art. 52/1). Moreover, during the course of their duties, judges may not engage in any activity incompatible with their independence and impartiality. If there is any doubt about incompatibility with the judge, the Court makes the decision (EHRC, art. 21/3).

The protection mechanisms of both systems act through individual and interstate applications. In both systems, the individual application system is automatically accepted with the approval of the Convention. However, the initiation of the interstate application varies between systems. In the European system, while the interstate application system starts to operate automatically, in order for the interstate application to work in the American system, the parties must declare that they accept the interstate application. Because the American

System considers interstate applications optional, leaving the decision to the member states (Mower, 1991:70).

There are three units authorized to make individual applications in the European and American systems. These are “persons”, “groups of persons” and “non-governmental units”. In the European system, these units can only apply to the Court on their own behalf (EHRC, art. 34). In the American system, these units, which are authorized to make individual applications, are authorized to apply on behalf of third parties as well as on their own behalf (EHRC art. 44).

In the European system, the units authorized to make individual applications have the opportunity to bring the relevant case directly before the Court. In the American system, since individual applications are made to the Commission, the case can only be brought before the Court by the Commission.

Both systems have stipulated the fulfillment of certain conditions for the acceptance of applications. Most of these conditions required for applications to be accepted are the same or similar to each other. Conditions required in both systems; exhaustion of domestic remedies for the acceptance of the application, the fact that the subject of the application is not pending within the framework of another international settlement procedure, the rights violated are regulated in the Convention, and the application clearly not being groundless and contrary to the rules. In the European system, among the conditions sought for the acceptance of the individual application, the applicant must suffer significant damage (EHRC, art. 35/2-3; ACHR, art. 46-47). However, there is a difference in terms of filing an application within a certain period of time after the exhaustion of domestic remedies. With the entry into force of Protocol No. 14, this period has been determined as four months in the European system (EHRC, art. 35/1). In the American system, an application must be submitted within a six-month period (ACHR, art. 46/1). Unlike the European Convention on Human Rights, the American Convention on Human Rights does not require the condition of being a victim of a violation of a right to be able to file an individual application. Therefore, in the American system, it is possible to refer to the *actio popularis*.

In both systems, the Court is functionally competent in all matters relating to the interpretation and application of Conventions, including individual and state applications (EHRC, art. 32; ACHR, art. 62/3). In this context, it can request advice from the Courts on legal issues related to the interpretation of the Convention (ACHR, art. 64/1).

According to article 64/1 of the American Convention; “American Convention”, “Other treaties of the American States for the Protection of Human Rights” and “domestic acts of the Members of the OAS” can be interpreted by the Court and an advisory opinion can be stated. The “Members of the OAS” and the “bodies listed in section X of the Charter of the OAS” (limited to matters falling within their jurisdiction) have the right to request the recommendation. In the judgment, the jurisdiction of the Court to give advisory opinion has been broadened both in terms of issues that can be given advice and in terms of units that can give advice. Contrary to the American system, the only body authorized to seek advice from the Court in the European system is the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe. The scope of the recommendation is the interpretation of the European Convention on Human Rights and its Protocols (EHRC, art. 47).

In the European system, the jurisdiction of the Court is mandatory for the Contracting States, while in the American system, the jurisdiction of the Court is optional for the Contracting States. The contracting states to the American Convention may accept the jurisdiction of the Court by itself, by making a special declaration, or by a special treaty (ACHR, art. 62).

In both systems, the Contracting Parties undertake to abide by the final judgment of the Court (EHRC, art. 46/1; ACHR, art. 68/1). However, the American system is not as effective as the European system in terms of the implementation of decisions. It is because it has not established any special mechanism such as the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, which exists in the European system, in terms of the implementation of the decisions.

As can be seen, there are similarities as well as differences between the two systems. The main reason for this is that each system is shaped according to the conditions of its region.

The table created regarding the comparative analysis of the American human rights system and the European human rights system is given below (Table 1).

Table 1: Comparison of the American human rights system and the European human rights system

	The American System	The European System
Organizations that ensure the establishment of regional human rights systems	-Organization of American States (1948)	-Council of Europe (1949)
Human rights documents of regional systems	-Charter of the Organization of American States (1948/1951) -American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man (1948) -American Convention on Human Rights (1969/1978)	-In the European Convention on Human Rights, on Human Rights (1953)
Content of human rights documents	-The Charter of the American States mentions little about human rights. The American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man includes social and cultural rights as well as civil and political rights. In addition, the duties of man are also mentioned in the Declaration. -Except for one article (article 26), economic, social, and cultural rights are not mentioned in the American Convention on Human Rights.	-In the European Convention on Human Rights, only civil and political rights are mentioned.
The year of establishment of supervisory bodies of systems	-The Court was established in 1979 -The Commission was established in 1960. The Status of the Commission was amended in 1979.	- In 1998, a single Court was established. It replaced the Commission and the Court.
Headquarters of Supervisory Bodies	-Court: San Jose, Costa Rica -Commission: Washington D.C. C.	-Strasbourg/France

Number of members of supervisory bodies	-The Court consists of 7 members. -The Commission consists of 7 members.	- It consists of as many members as the number of countries party to the Convention.
Election of members of supervisory bodies	-Judges and Commissioners are elected by the General Assembly of the Organization of American States.	-One of the 3 candidates nominated by each contracting state is elected by the General Assembly.
Term of office of supervisory bodies	-Judges are re-elected only once for a 6-year term. -The members of the Commission are re-elected only once for a 4-year term. Both organs do not work full-time.	-Judges are elected for a term of 9 years. They cannot be re-elected. The court works full-time.
The period during which an application must be submitted from the date of exhaustion of domestic remedies	-Within six months	-Within four months
Applications to supervisory bodies	-Individual application and state application (Individual application is mandatory, state application is optional)	-Individual application and state application (both application procedures are mandatory)
Jurisdiction of the court	-The jurisdiction of the court is optional.	- It's mandatory.
Contentious jurisdictions of supervisory bodies	-The court has contentious jurisdiction.	-The court has contentious jurisdiction.
Authority of supervisory bodies on interim measures	-The court has the authority to take temporary measures. -The Commission has the authority to take temporary measures.	-The court has the authority to take temporary measures.
Authority of supervisory bodies to issue recommendations	-The court's authority to give an advisory opinion is broad.	-The court's authority to give an advisory opinion is limited.

<p>The procedure followed by supervisory bodies in violations of human rights</p>	<p>-The court decides whether there is a violation or not. It may order compensation for damages or other means of compensation. - The Commission issues final reports in cases that cannot be referred to the Court.</p>	<p>- It determines whether there is a violation or not, and decides on fair compensation.</p>
<p>Supervision of decisions made by supervisory bodies</p>	<p>- The Court observes whether the decision is implemented or not.</p>	<p>-The Committee of Ministers oversees compliance with decisions.</p>

Source: Created by the author.

4. Conclusion

When the American system and the European system are compared, it is seen that there are both similarities and differences. In order to understand the American and European human rights systems and to have an idea about these, it is necessary to look at the nature of the human rights violations that have taken place.

While the protection of the right to life, personal freedom, and security is a priority in Latin American countries, the provision and expansion of judicial rights and guarantees are at the forefront in European countries. Although convicts also complain about ill-treatment and resorting to violence within the framework of the fight against terrorism on occasion, forced abductions, political murders and executions do not occur in Europe. When the events taken to the European Court of Human Rights are analyzed, it is seen that human rights violations in Europe are mostly related to the right to a fair trial, freedom of expression, freedom of assembly and association, protection of private and family life, and the right to property. As it can be seen, the types of human rights violations experienced in the two regional systems in question differ greatly from each other.

When a comparison is made in terms of the development and legal basis of the protection of human rights, it is seen that the development of the American system is slower than the European system. The main reason for this is that the political problems and structures of North America and South America

are different. While the European Convention on Human Rights is the only legal source in the European system, there are two different legal sources in the American system: The Charter of the OAS and the American Convention on Human Rights. Since the Charter of the OAS does not include procedural safeguards to protect and promote human rights, this gap was later filled by the American Convention on Human Rights. Initially, the Charter of the OAS did not have legal binding. However, in 1970, the Charter became an international treaty of a binding nature.

When both regional systems are compared in terms of supervisory bodies, it seems that they were similar to each other until 1998. Indeed, until Protocol No. 11 came into force, the European Convention on Human Rights had two supervisory bodies, the Human Rights Commission and the Court of Human Rights, just like in the American system. The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights was originally set up for the sole purpose of promoting human rights and it is not expressly stipulated that the Commission has any other mandate beyond that. With the amendment of the Statute in 1970, the Commission has become a body that decides on individual applications, prepares country reports, and conducts on-site examinations and investigations. In the European system, the European Commission of Human Rights was abolished with Protocol No. 11, and the European Court of Human Rights became the only permanent and full-time supervisory body. In the European system, individuals apply directly to the European Court of Human Rights, while in the American system, individuals do not have the right to file a lawsuit directly at the American Court of Human Rights. Although the American Court of Human Rights functions just like the European Court of Human Rights, it also has a very comprehensive function of expressing opinions.

In both territorial systems, the contracting parties undertake to comply with the final decision of the Court. However, the American system is not as effective as the European system in terms of the implementation of decisions. It is because it has not established any special mechanism such as the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, which exists in the European system, in terms of the implementation of the decisions.

If it is necessary to make a general assessment of the American Human Rights Protection System, the lack of political stability and economic prosperity in the American country affects the realization of human rights in the Americas. But the preparation of regional special contracts in the Continent is promising.

To make a general assessment, the lack of political stability and economic prosperity in the Americas caused the development of the American human rights system to progress more slowly than the European human rights system.

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CHAPTER XXX

COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION WITH EXAMPLES FROM EUROPE

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The emergence of the comparative public administration approach dates back to the end of the 19th century, when the first studies on the discipline of public administration were made. As stated in Wilson’s article “The Study of Administration” published in 1887, Public Administration should be studied as a separate discipline rather than being an object of law and politics, and its foundations should be sought in the European continent (Caner, 2020, 275). In this period, the science of public administration in Europe developed in the shadow of theoretical and philosophical discussions (Caner, 2020: 274). Due to the fact that public administration has many aspects other than law and politics, the necessity of examining it as a separate discipline emerged in the United States with the view that public institutions and private sector organizations complement each other in administration (Eryılmaz, 2019, 38)

The science of public administration in Europe has developed in the shadow of theoretical and philosophical discussions in this period (Caner, 2020: 274). Due to the fact that there are many aspects of public administration other than law and politics, the necessity of studying it as a separate branch of science has emerged in America with the view that public institutions and private sector organizations complement each other in management (Eryılmaz, 2019, 38).

As stated in Wilson’s work, the view that “good governance structures of other states should be taken as an example in the management of world states” has laid the groundwork for the discipline of comparative public administration (Wilson, 1961:70). According to Wilson, the science of public administration

should be adapted as a discipline that has been developed according to unitary and centralized states, but can also be adapted to different administrative structures in federally structured states such as the USA (Wilson, 1961: 63-64)

The different management searches that gained momentum with the World War II forced the state to be managed with an interventionist understanding in order for the world states to emerge from the destruction of the war. Although the increased public spending after the war was beneficial for the reconstruction of societies, in the long run it led to the collapse of the social welfare state. The expansionist management approach that started in the 1945s experienced a transformation when it came to the 1980s, along with the current of globalization, the nation state lost its importance by being limited, and international institutions and organizations came to the fore Decisively. During this period, supranational organizations, which have minimized the nation-state, have begun to develop recipes for how to improve state governance (Çelik Efşan, 2019:5).

In the 1980s, during the reigns of Thatcher in England and Reagon in the USA, along with the claims and policies for the functioning of the public administration like a market and making it efficient, privatization was directed, while public expenditures were limited, efforts were made to structure and operate public organizations around the understanding of public management (Aksoy, 1995:166–167).

During this period, economic policies came to the fore in the country's administrations and social expenditures were restricted (Kökalan Çımrın; 2009: 198). Therefore, while this current is seen as the political process of restructuring, it is aimed to radically change the state's intervention in the economy (Şaylan, 1994:130).

Inefficiently used public resources until the 1980s led to excessive expansion of the state budget; these countries, which are financially dependent on foreign countries, have taken their share from the destructive domino effect of globalization with the dominant effect of international organizations such as the UN, IMF, World Bank, OECD, UNDP (Çelik Efşan, 2019:5).

The administrative proposals of these organizations, which are policy makers in the world, have become guiding principles for underdeveloped and developing countries, and have become binding on country administrations (Fedai, 2019: 1124).

While globalization obliges financially dependent countries to be controlled administratively and to go to policy-making in accordance with some specified criteria, supranational institutions established in the US in particular have set a

US standard in these administrative reforms, establishing sovereignty over the member states that depend on them. This sovereignty started in European states in the first place and changed hands by leaping to the USA with globalization (Fedai, 2019: 1138).

Therefore, while the globalization movement, which started in the USA with the effect of neo-liberal policies, is a driving factor for developing countries to review their administrative, political and economic structures, the nation states whose sovereignty area is getting narrower gradually become “structural cohesion” and “stability” as European states and developing countries. they started to produce policies under the name of (Kökalan Çımrın, 2009:200, Güngör, 2018: 63).

The globalization approach reveals different effects on different world states in this period. While some countries are introverted in the face of globalization, some countries are trying to integrate the forms of government of other world states into their own administrative systems. In these transitions between different countries, factors such as political actors, civil society structure and national culture contribute to the adaptation process (Kutlu, 2006:19)

The phenomenon of globalization has had a direct impact on the internal dynamics of the nation-state in accordance with the principle of “transparency” in the adoption and implementation of public decisions, forcing the nation-state to be subject to global supervision and comply with global service standards (Güler, 2020: 41).

During this period, at the same time, the changes and transformations in the field of information and technology in the world and global interactions has opened the door to new discoveries brought new production processes. For this reason, it is thought that globalization will be necessary for the production of a political culture that covers a large part of societies and includes all states in the world (Dror, 2002: 59).

These developments, which enabled the development of the comparative public administration discipline, which started at the end of the 19th century and developed until the 21st century, are illuminating in the implementation and evaluation of public administration in the world. Administrative and management systems of the countries that have different functional comparison in the study of the different periods within the same country, less developed or developing countries and in developed countries in the functioning of the functioning of production, an adaptation policy in the discipline of Comparative Public Administration in the making of policy transfer between countries is

important. Even in states with modern management systems, striking results can be achieved even by comparisons made within the same country on the grounds that the values accepted by the majority of society are adhered to when determining public policies (Riggs, 1963; 329)

Based on this, the purpose of this study is to examine the Anglo Saxon countries, which have been an example to the whole world with their public administration structure and democratic values, England and Continental European countries, France and Germany in accordance with the principle of separation of powers.

The administrative structures of the countries mentioned in the study will be briefly mentioned and the legislative, executive and judicial functioning will be compared. Literature review was used in the study.

1. GREAT BRITAIN

1.1. Political Regime and Constitutional Structure

Its official name, which is referred to as the United Kingdom or England in daily and academic literature, is the Great Britain and Northern Ireland English War (Oakland, 2002: 10).

England, the cradle of parliamentary democracy, has become the United Kingdom with the integration process of regions such as Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. With the reign of British sovereignty in Britain, some communities resisted maintaining their own management systems, while others integrated seamlessly into the United Kingdom (Karasu, 2020: 175-176).

The United Kingdom is a parliamentary democracy with deep-rooted administrative and political traditions (Arslan, 2018: 2871). England is a country that has exported the structure of public administration to the world. The United Kingdom, which has a strong administrative structure that can also be an example for democratic countries, is also a model for countries such as France and the United States, which come to the fore with their democratic structures (Eroğul, 1993: 30).

The form of government in England is constitutional democracy (Ateş, 2008: 184). The head of state is the monarch (queen), while the head of government is the prime minister. While the constitution in England determines the division of duties between the institutions and organizations of the state and the legislative-executive and judicial organs, some elements are the source of this unwritten constitution. These five main sources on which the British Constitution is based can be summarized as follows (Leach et al., 2018):

Written law: These sources are the sources that come before the customary law, regulating the powers and duties of the two-wing parliament

Customary law: These sources constitute judgements rendered in English courts for centuries. The most important examples of these are the laws on freedom of expression and parliamentary sovereignty.

European Law: Refers to the entry into force of EU laws by taking precedence over the British Constitutions of EU law with the entry of the UK into the EU.

Traditions and customs: These mean routines that are not based on any written source, but have continued in the same way for centuries. An example can be given that the prime minister and the cabinet should be elected from the majority in parliament.

Comments: The works written by constitutional experts and are formed depending on the doctrine.

The principle of parliamentary sovereignty lies at the heart of the fact that there is no written constitution in the UK. The Parliament, as the supreme legislator in the English legal system, has adopted a structure in which there is no authority over itself (Loveland, 2006:23, Lijphart, 2012:9; Eşki, 2009:603).

The Magna Carta signed in 1215, in which the king renounced his powers as a result of the power struggle between the king of England and the seigneurs, is the basis of the modern English Parliament (Şaylan, 1981:38-39).

Magna Carta takes a stand against the authority of the British monarch. With the entry into force of the document, the crown is obliged to consult with the barons on the issue of increasing taxes. Otherwise, barons have the right to confiscate castles, lands and goods belonging to the crown if the desired arrangements are not made (Acemoğlu and Robinson, 2013: 185).

In addition, this document has been the keystone in the evolution of the British government from absolute monarchy to constitutional monarchy and from there to parliamentary democracy (Kubalı, 1965: 506). This document is of such great importance that the state of the kingdom, which had to act within the framework of law after the contract, formed the milestone of the principle of separation of powers in England (Karasu, 2020: 179).

This constitutional process, which began with the Magna Carta (1215), was shaped by the Petition of Rights (1628). The writ of Habeas Corpus Act (1679), Bill of Rights (1689), Act of Settlement (1701), Judicature Acts (1873 and 1875) and finally the Parliamentary Acts (1911 and 1949) have been completed with the completion of the process. While these enacted laws constitute the British traditional state tradition, they have emerged as texts in which the kingdom

transfers its powers to the parliament and the legislative branch is strengthened (Parlak and Caner, 2020:194).

1.2. Legislative- Executive-Judicial Activities in the UK

1.2.1. Legislative

The British parliament, which we have seen the first example of in the world, indirectly controls the public administration and the functioning of the government depending on its authority to make laws (Doğan, 2014: 35).

Since the parliament building is located in Westminster, the parliamentary system is also referred to as the Westminster model. The history of parliament in England goes back to the convening of the first English Parliament in 1265. The main functions of the British Parliament are the adoption or rejection of laws, the making of legislative proposals and negotiations, the amendment or repeal of existing laws when necessary, the supervision of government policy and the discussion of issues that are important to the country (McCormick, 2020: 126).

In the UK, the Westminster Model refers to both a parliamentary model and the functioning structure of all UK administrative institutions. The principles of “parliamentary sovereignty” and “separation of powers” are more dominant in the foreground due to the fact that the concepts of “royal” and “parliament” are given more meaning instead of the state (Kama, 2016: 162-163).

Legislative activities in England are run by the people, namely the Lords, the House of Commons and the Crown. In the 15th, from the 15th century onwards, the 15th knight and the people’s worker’s parliamentary sections from England consist of the House of Lords as a cross-section of the elite consisting of the Commons, planners and aristocrats. In other words, the Commons; while the knight consisted of the petty nobles and the bourgeois; Lords are also composed of barons, nobles and senior clergy (Çam, 1976: 18).

The maturation of the child of the social status living in these two wings of the separation of the Parliament: (Mosca, 2013: 160). The common feature of both assemblies is facing the king (Göze, 2011: 464). The House of Lords has lost its way to the House of Commons, with the defenses of the use of the working class and the industries of changing the country’s politics, in the history of failing the worker- employer-tripod (Roskin, 2009:34).

The British Parliament has gained power in history. The basis for this is that the crown loses power with the transfer of authority to parliament, and the kingdom’s political irresponsibility is revealed and goes into the background.

As a result, the ministers (executive) have become responsible to the legislative body with the institution of “impeachment”. This has led to ministers being tried by the House of Lords when they are accused by the House of Commons (Yücel, 2009:55). However, as of today, it is seen that the institution of impeachment remains in theory, because it seems impossible for parliamentarians to blame their own executive staff within the framework of strong party discipline (Çam, 1993:58).

In the economically classified English society, whose history goes back to the 1830s; The parliamentary structure, in which the landed wealthy had a say, changed with the Great Reform Law of the 1830s. As a result of the reform, this change was achieved through representation in proportion to the population, without associating political rights with property ownership (Yolcu, 2011: 29-30). In addition, with the Reform Law of 1832, new regulations regarding the right to vote and be elected were included (Gemalmaz, 2007: 126-127).

The House of Commons is so powerful in legislative activity in England that it can dethrone the Crown, dissolve the parliaments of the United Kingdom states, and even bind the Church to the Crown. It can change its mandate, intervene in social matters subject to civil law, and retroactively enforce laws. It can enact special laws for its citizens residing outside the UK. He has full authority in financial matters. It can impose additional financial obligations on legal and natural persons, in this sense, the powers of the House of Commons are almost unlimited (Gözler, 2009: 366-374).

The House of Commons (Çam, 1993:53), whose members are elected by the people for five years and have 625 deputies, has five main roles in the British Parliament; they represent, make laws, hold the prime minister accountable, ensure the discussion of national issues, and act to oust members of the government (Leach et al., 2018). The House of Commons consists of 650 members. The House of Commons is presided over by the Speaker of the House, who is elected from among its members and belongs to the party with the majority, this chairman is called the “Speaker” (McCormick, 2020:128).

Laws passed in the House of Commons are sent to the House of Lords, the House of Lords is not obliged to accept the law as it is, and may request it to be reconsidered. In this case, joint commissions are established with the House of Commons to achieve consensus. After the law is approved by both parliamentary wings, it is submitted to the approval of the “Taj”. There is no chance for the crown to reject an adopted law (Parlak and Caner, 2020:203).

When it comes to the House of Lords, the number of members as of 2008 is 735 (Precee, 2002: 60) and its members are people who are considered noble by the royal family. Accordingly, non-spiritual Lords in the House of Lords composed of persons who, although not of royal lineage, have served in public service and have been ranked with nobility by the Queen at the proposal of the Prime Minister; Spiritual Lords consisting of 26 priests of the Church of England and hereditary nobility-earthly (temporal) Lords from the royal family are members (Dinçkol, 2021: 888; McCormick, 2020: 127). Most members of the House of Lords are affiliated with the major political parties. The Lord Chancellor presides over the House of Lords (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 206).

The Lord Chancellor does not have as much authority as the Speaker and serves as a representative in the parliament (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 206).

The powers of the Lord Chancellor are very complex. Until 2003, the Lord Chancellor was considered the head of the judiciary in England and Wales and was also authorized as the minister of justice. Along with being a cabinet member, he can also participate in election campaigns by collecting money on behalf of his political party. He also has the power to act as a judge in the highest court of appeal. In order to eliminate these oddities, the Constitutional Reform Act, which was enacted in 2005, was adopted (Woodhouse, 1998: 7). Purpose of the Law •To regulate the duties and powers of the Lord Chancellor, •Abolish the jurisdiction of the House of Lords and transfer this authority to the United Kingdom High Court and establish a new high court, • Judicial Committee of the Privy Council and Privy Council. to regulate the judicial powers of the president, •To determine the provisions regarding the appointment and discipline of the personnel affiliated to the judicial body” (Yolcu, 2011: 37).

The British parliament has always taken a strong stance against the executive since Magna Carta. On the other hand, the power of the parliament is limited by the EU membership in 1973. The Westminster Parliament is not binding in EU Law, and the Westminster Parliament is subject to EU law in judicial disputes (Kama, 2016:195).

Even though the UK left the EU in 2016 with the Brexit Referendum on the continuation of EU membership (Topaloğlu, 2018: 348), there was no legal break. The UK will transfer EU law to its own legal system immediately after leaving the union with the Great Termination Act of 2017. A large part of EU law will still take its place in English law, as it will not be possible to adapt all laws to English law, some laws will be adapted to English law. The domestic legal

regulations arising from the obligations brought by the law and EU law to the UK will remain in force in the same way (https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/604516/Great_repeal_bill_white_paper_accessible.pdf) This process has officially started with the end of the UK's EU membership in 2020.

1.2.2.Executive

In the UK, the executive branch consists of the Crown (Queen), the prime minister, the cabinet, the government and the general administration (Eroğul, 1997: 18).

The crown is the head of the executive and judiciary. Being the permanent head of state of the country, he also forms an important power in the legislative body, at the same time he is the highest commander of the armed forces, the highest representative of the Anglican Church of England, as well as the head and owner of the state, he can exercise most of his powers with the countersignature of the prime minister and the relevant minister. In this context, the Crown serves symbolically and ceremonially (Gözler, 2010: 598; Eroğul, 1997:19). According to official ceremonies and written texts, it seems that the king has very broad powers, but in reality the crown uses its political powers in the way that the cabinet wants and recommends (Ay Deniz, 2006: 138).

The crown is the head of the state; the prime minister can be characterized as the head of the government. While the crown has symbolic powers in the administration, the prime minister has fundamental political powers (McCormick, 2020:123).

The person of the crown represents British national unity. The Crown passes to the throne by succession through laws such as the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement enacted in 1701. The prime minister and the cabinet are responsible for all the political actions of the king, therefore, the king is politically irresponsible and cannot act alone in public decisions and operations (Ay Deniz, 2006: 139). Crown in case of emergency call a meeting of Parliament to be extended in exceptional cases to get passed laws to provide that the election of the government, upon the proposal of the prime minister to appoint bureaucrats, upon request, to those who wish to serve in the House of Lords to give the title of Lord, upon the request of the minister of the interior in the case of chronic illness or old age, because a prison sentence of specimen, has the powers and duties as to ensure that offenders are forgiven (Andrew, 2000: 58-76). In accordance with the principle of parliamentary sovereignty, the Crown carries out a large number

of public transactions through ministers and the prime minister (Karasu, 2020: 200).

The Privy Council, which is one of the oldest institutions of the British state tradition by advising the royal in the public decisions it makes, has occupied an important place in the executive from the past to the present. The Privy Council was established in 1708 and has 701 members as of 2019. Its members are elected from the House of Commons and the House of Lords, and the members of the council consist of ministers, ambassadors, archbishops and scientists. Membership of the privy council continues to exist as a lifelong status. Although it has turned into a symbolic office such as a royal one compared to the past, social assistance institutions such as foundations have been affiliated to the Privy Council (Karasu, 2020: 198-199). The most intensively working commission in the Council is the Justice Commission, and the commission is the highest appellate authority of the disciplinary courts that deal with public officials (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 210).

In the UK, the main determinant in the executive is the cabinet or government consisting of the prime minister and his ministers (Gözler, 2009:599). The Prime Minister is the leader of the party or coalition with the largest number of seats in the House of Commons (Alder, 1994: 45-58; McCormick, 121-122). Since the Prime Minister has the authority to appoint and set the national agenda, loyalty to the leader comes to the fore in the established cabinet. This situation has ensured that the cabinet officials individually have different opinions in making public decisions, but they have the awareness to act jointly in front of public opinion. Therefore, the cabinet in the UK produces policies with the understanding of collective responsibility (McCormick, 2020:124; Kubalı, 1965:510-515).

The Prime Minister has the power to call a general election. According to this, the prime minister can hold the executive power by holding early elections in order to win the election in periods where the government is successful. Although the Prime Minister is the head of the party from which he is elected, he establishes the cabinet, decides how many ministers will be in the cabinet or can reduce the number of them. At the same time, as the head of government, he has the authority to set the national agenda (Leach et al., 2018). As the head of the cabinet, the Prime Minister has two important duties as both the First Lord of the Treasury and the Minister for the Civil Service (Karasu, 2020: 200).

According to the British government structure, there are many ministers in the parliament. On the other hand, not all of these ministers belong to the

cabinet. In other words, they are the ministers appointed from the most important ministries that implement the government's program. Based on this, it would be appropriate to say that the cabinet is the most powerful wing of the executive in the UK (Ay Deniz, 2006: 140). The Cabinet actually works as a force that puts into practice the powers that belong to the House of Commons (Ay Deniz, 2006:141).

The Cabinet, as the basis of the British state administration, constitutes its core. The Prime Minister can take public decisions by bringing together important ministries, especially the minister of foreign affairs and the minister of treasury, in order to make quick decisions on some issues and to Decommission ministers who may oppose their political views, and thus form an internal cabinet (Karasu, 2020: 201-202). Therefore, the Cabinet works to assist the prime minister in carrying out the government program, to coordinate the work of the government, and also has the powers to issue regulatory acts such as decrees on behalf of the crown (Karasu, 2020: 201).

Although the increasing regulatory power of the executive branch seems to be contrary to the principle of parliamentary sovereignty, there is actually no contradiction, since parliament always has the power to revoke the power of attorney granted to the executive branch (Özbudun, 1968: 65-66).

The report titled *The Governance of Britain* (The Governance of Britain) by the British Ministry of Justice on the limitation of the executive in 2007 enabled important laws such as the Constitutional Reform and Governance Act 2010 to be made (Karasu, 2020: 192-193).

The executive is supervised by the parliament through prime minister's questions (Prime Minister's Questions). The prime minister, who has to answer the questions of the leader of the opposition and other parliamentarians on a weekly basis, has to answer to parliament using explanatory language. In addition, the possibility of discussion is created in the last hours of each meeting (Karasu, 2020: 188-189).

The executive is also financially supervised by the parliament. While Parliament allows the executive to collect taxes from the people, it has the right to oversee how public resources are spent. This audit is provided through a final account audit within the framework of the accountability responsibility of the executive (Kızıldaş, 2005: 382).

The right to impose taxes for the first time, starting with the Magna Carta at that time and created a power struggle between the king and the feudal lords 1688 (after the adoption of the bill of rights for the first time in determining the

amount of public expenditures, the expenditures of the crown to the parliament regarding the financial account have been implemented to ensure control of the executive (Dileyici and Özkivrak, 2010: 3). Therefore, while the task of preparing and implementing the budget in the UK belongs to the executive, its control is left to the parliament (Doğan and Şentürk, 2017: 368). Therefore, the supremacy of the parliament over the executive is always observed.

1.2.3. Judgement

The development of the British judicial system has developed in the opposite direction from the legal system in the Continental European countries. In this context, the principle of judicial unity has prevailed in the UK, unlike other Land European countries. In this system, the courts in charge of administrative judicial supervision are the courts of justice (Altundiş, 2007: 341). Since there is no distinction between private law and public law in the English legal system, there is also no administrative jurisdiction. Therefore, judicial procedures related to public administration and public officials are carried out by judicial courts (Bahadır, 2010: 372).

Since the 17th century, the courts and judges have not had a direct and restrictive effect on the state administration. For this reason, it can be said that the effect of the judiciary on the executive in England is more limited than in other European countries (Karasu: 2020: 180).

On the other hand, the UK is a country where the influence of the judiciary on the executive is felt in a more limited way, in a different way from the Continental European countries.

However, in the process of adaptation to the European Union, UK law has become more conducive to audit in terms of compliance with EU law (Jones, 2003: 29-30).

Here in the UK, after 2002, with the legal reforms carried out within the framework of alignment with the European Union, the British judiciary has developed in accordance with the principle of separation of Powers.

The practice in which the Lord Chancellor was the head of the judiciary before, abolished the principle of unity of powers with the establishment of the Ministry of Constitutional Affairs in 2003. In 2007, the Ministry of Justice was established, and the Lord Chancellor delegated authority to the minister of justice. The powers of the House of Lords (Göze, 1989: 438), which works not only as a legislative body but as the highest judicial body, have been transferred to the newly established Supreme Court (Supreme Court), which has 12

judges, and the Supreme Court has been accepted as the highest court of appeal (Karasu,2020: 180-181).

This transfer of authority was made with the Constitutional Reform Act (Constitutional Reform Law) adopted in 2005. The law was passed by the House of Commons with 329 yes votes against 126 no votes. The law is considered to have moved the judiciary in the UK to the modern judicial system. Because, together with the law, the powers of the Lord Chancellor, who holds legislative and judicial powers, have been regulated and a high court called the Supreme Court has been established. The office of High Lord Chancellor of Great Britain has been abolished and all powers belonging to the Lord Chancellor, as well as property and responsibilities, have been transferred to the Secretary of State for Constitutional Affairs (Yolcu, 2011; 60-61).

The judicial powers of the Lord Chancellor after the law were taken away, his de facto post of chairman of the legislature was terminated and he was appointed minister of justice. All the powers of the Lord Chancellor, who controlled the functioning of the justice mechanism until 2003, were transferred to the ministry with the establishment of the Ministry of Justice (Ministry of Justice) in 2007. As a result, the adjectives of the minister of justice and the Lord Chancellor are united in the same person (Yolcu, 2011: 63-64). In addition, the law changed the Speaker of the House of Lords, who is the head of the House of Lords, to the Speaker of the House of Lords (Yolcu, 2011: 65).

2. GERMANY

2.1. Transformation in the Political Regime and the Constitutional Process

Germany, which completed its political union in 1871 (Tatar, 2015:166; McCormick, 2020:145), achieved a democratic structure in its political history between the reunification of the eastern and western blocs separated by the Cold War, which started in 1947, and the reunification of Europe and Europe. It is a country worth examining in terms of being among the most important economic powers of the world.

Looking at German political history, it is seen that Germany has evolved from absolute monarchy to democracy, totalitarian regime and democracy again. The form of government in Germany is a parliamentary democracy and Germany is a federal republic (McCormick, 2020:144).

Unlike other countries, the federal structure in Germany is reflected in the form of federalism that acts together and has a strong bond, instead of an

administrative structure in which the federal state and states act independently (Özgül, 2020: 447).

In Germany, the federal state acts as the only institution that produces policies that ensure national public order and is authorized in all matters related to internal and external security, taxation, health, education and the nation. The federation structure has revealed a compromise in which 16 states called “landers” act together in the provision of local public services in an integrated manner with the federal state. In other words, the active participation of the people is ensured in the provision of local services, not a conflict of powers, but the cooperation of the powers (Parlak and Caner, 2020, 249).

It is thought that it will be useful to look at the political events that require the preservation of the federal structure in Germany and the return to democracy in general in order to get down to the causes of the transformation in the German administrative structure.

The German political union, Prussian prime minister Bismarck, brought the German confederate states together in 1871 and declared the Second World War. It begins with the completion of the political union, also called the German Empire (Tatar, 2015:166). During this period, the country was ruled in an authoritarian manner, with an emperor called the Kaiser and an aristocratic group accompanying him. With Bismarck’s nationalist understanding, the feeling of nationalism in Germany at that time was strengthened. In addition, the Bismarck period was a period in which Germany rapidly industrialized on the way to become a world power and countries such as England and France took into account how they could become superpowers (McCormick, 2020: 146).

These developments were interrupted by the start of the First World War in 1914, a new political structure called Deutsches Reich (German Empire) was formed, and it was named the Weimar Republic by giving the name of Weimar, the city where the 1919 German Constitution was adopted. The Weimar Republic might actually have been a landmark of parliamentary democracy, because the head of state was the president, and the head of government was the prime minister.

In 1939, Hitler’s invasion of Poland and World War II. World War II broke out, and as a result of the division of Germany by the Soviets and Western European states, a two-part state administration emerged as West Germany as the capital Bonn in the west, Berlin as the capital in the east and the Republic of East Germany. During this period, West Germany was governed more democratically than East Germany and was controlled by western allies; It can

be said that East Germany was governed under the influence of a communist regime that was strictly under Soviet control. Since East Germany was actually ruled in an authoritarian style, II. After World War II, escapes towards West Germany increased. In order to prevent this, the Berlin Wall was built by East Germany in 1961 (Tatar, 2015:166). Especially with the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the announcement that East Germans who want to now can cross to the west without any problems, east-west integration has gained momentum.

The differences in economic development between East and West Germany led to the goal of restoring national unity with the Soviet Union, with the waters calming down. Monetary, economic and political unity was achieved in 1990, and the period of reunification as Berlin, the capital of both countries, began in 1991 (McCormick, 2020: 150).

In order to exclude the Soviets in the power struggle in Europe, the policies of industrialized West Germany to reunite with East Germany by completing the political union and to ensure economic integration by connecting this region to itself were successful. In this period, also known as the Great Restoration Process, Germany provided economic support from Western states in response to the Soviet threat and experienced a great recovery process (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 242).

2.2. Legislative- Executive-Judicial Activities in Germany

2.2.1. Legislative

While in Germany, which was ruled by absolute monarchy until the Weimar Republic (1919-1933), all powers were concentrated in the German Emperor, in the Weimar Republic, which was established in 1919 and lasted until the prime ministership of Adolf Hitler (1933-1945), the parliamentary system in France a similar structure is observed. Because, while the ideas of whether the structuring that could be established instead of the destroyed German Kingdom after the World War I would be federal or unitary were discussed, the parliamentary democracy was declared with the unitary structure coming to the fore and the two-winged structure of the parliament, consisting of the parliament and the senate, continued to exist (Özgül, 2020:444).

In the parliamentary structure of the Weimar Republic, the prime minister (chancellor) can be dismissed by the president and the legislature. Therefore, the 15-year Weimar period was a period of weak and unstable governments, in which 14 prime ministers were replaced (McCormick, 2020: 156). Here in

Germany, parliamentarism trials were made in rationalized newly prepared constitutions in order to ensure stability in the administration, since the lack of parliamentary majority broke the power of the government (Gözler, 2004: 108).

In 1949, II. The German Constitution, which was prepared and entered into force after World War II, emphasizes fundamental rights and freedoms between Articles 1 and 19. The Constitution is democratic in that it shows these provisions among the irrevocable provisions and determines the duties and responsibilities. It is the point where citizens turn to the state and the freedom of citizens will be limited (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 251).

This situation is important in terms of guaranteeing individual rights and freedoms by the constitution at the point of ending the fundamental rights and freedoms of the totalitarian regime led by Nazi Germany. In particular, the Basic Law is a guarantor for the reconstruction of the sphere of individual freedom attacked by the fascist Nazi rule.

Today, in Germany, which consists of 16 federated states, the legislative power has been gathered in the federal state by the Federal Constitution (Muratoğlu, 2014:291).

When the legislative, executive and judicial activities are examined in Germany; legislative, executive and judicial powers are divided between the federal state and the federal states as Decisions of the federal state structure. The federal state is the only internationally recognized state in ensuring external security and sovereignty, while the federated states share the authority to govern the state as states with a constitution, laws, judicial organs, parliament, governments and ministries; at the same time, it also prepares the environment for the legislature, executive and judiciary to work subject to a control mechanism within themselves (Erdogan, 2004:36).

The Federal Constitution, as the most inclusive and comprehensive constitution in Germany, grants powers to the federal state and the federal states. The federal state, which is limited by the powers granted to it by the Federal Constitution, cannot intervene in a matter that falls under the jurisdiction of the federal state. The Federal Constitution distributes powers to the federated states other than the powers it grants to the federated state. In this case, there can be no intervention of the federal state in a judicial matter in the federal state.

In Germany, the legislative body (parliament) acts on a double-headed basis. The fact that Germany has created a defense mechanism against the different political orders it has experienced in its political history and the desire to protect the Constitution can be Deciphered among the reasons for this structure.

In Germany, the legislative function is carried out by the “Bundestag”, which is expressed as the Bundestag or National Assembly, in which all German citizens are represented, and the “Bundestrat” (State Assembly or Federal Council), consisting of representatives elected from the states (Yılmaz, 2020: 45).

The Bundestag (Federal Assembly) is the strong wing of the parliament, which is at the center of German political institutions, with the number of parliamentarians renewed for each election, since the elections are held every 4 years and the number of deputies is not determined in the constitution. There are at least 598 deputies in the Bundestag, half of whom are directly elected by the people and the other half are representatives from the states (Özgül, 2020: 453).

The members of the Bundestag are endowed with broad powers by the German Constitution and have a large field of action (Çam, 2000: 291). At the legislative point in Germany, the Bundestag is superior to the Bundestrat. It is essential that the consensus of these two parliaments be achieved in the construction of laws that will directly affect the federal structure. The Bundestrat, on the other hand, can use its veto power in the construction of these laws (Çam, 2000: 293). All legislative proposals are adopted in the Bundestag. However, it can then be vetoed by the Bundestrat or requested to be renegotiated. The law, which is discussed by a commission established by the Bundestrat, is brought to the agenda for re-discussion in the Bundestag when it needs to be changed (Tatar, 2015:172).

In this sense, the establishment of a Federal Senate with a definite veto right next to the Federal Assembly has been an important step in terms of strengthening the parliamentary system and the constitutional judiciary (Özgül, 2020:449).

Although all legislative proposals in Germany are adopted by the Bundestag (National Assembly), the right to appeal to the Bundesrat (Federal Senate) for the coordination of the two-wing parliamentary structure has also been granted (Yılmaz, 2020:48). From this point of view, the influence of the Bundesrat over the Bundestag is relatively small.

2.2.2. Execution in Germany

In the Federal Republic of Germany, executive power is intensively used by the federal states by the Federal Constitution (Muratoğlu, 2014:291). In Germany, the executive function is performed by the Federal Government consisting of the president, the prime minister and the council of ministers (Özgül, 2020: 453).

After the adoption of the Federal Constitution of Germany, the president of the republic was given an isolated status from all his political duties. In this system, the parliament can elect some ministers in the cabinet, while in the German Constitution this power is transferred to the prime minister (chancellor). (McCormick, 2020:156).

In Germany, the most powerful wing of the executive is the prime minister. The ministers in the cabinet are responsible to the prime minister (chancellor) and not to the parliament. The Prime Minister is responsible to the parliament for taking all the political responsibility of the government. The Prime Minister has such a strong place in German political history that 6 prime ministers have taken office since 1946 (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 263).

The Federal Congress, which meets at the election of the president, is elected without any negotiations at a meeting consisting of all parliamentarians in the Bundestag and members elected from the state assemblies. Criteria such as being over the age of 40, being a German citizen and having the right to vote are sought in the election of the president. The term of office of the president elected for a period of 5 years is a maximum of two terms, since all decisions taken by the president must be approved by the prime minister, it can be mentioned that the German president has symbolic powers (Özgül, 2020: 456-457).

The election of the Prime Minister is carried out by submitting the candidates nominated by the political party with the most votes to the National Assembly by the President and voting for the prime minister of this candidate by an absolute majority of the total number of members of the National Assembly. In cases where the candidate nominated by the President cannot be elected prime minister, a candidate is removed from the National Assembly. This candidate is elected prime minister by voting by an absolute majority of the parliament (Parlak and Caner, 2009: 176).

The Prime Minister is equipped with wide powers such as determining the policy of the government, forming the council of ministers, determining the number of ministers and presenting proposals to the President in the change and termination of duties of ministers (Tatar, 2015: 178-179). However, with the federal structure of the state, the control mechanism has been improved and the Constitutional Court has made the office of prime minister open to inspection as a part of this control system (Yılmaz, 2020: 47). The establishment of the Council of Ministers is under the authority of the prime minister and the executive function of the cabinet is fulfilled without seeking a vote of confidence in the establishment of the government (Parlak and Caner, 2020:264).

In Germany, the so-called “Parliamentary State Secretariats” in the executive; There are secondary institutions that carry out the relations between the parliament and the public administration and assist the ministries within the executive function, and these institutions serve with the status of second-degree minister (Parlak and Caner, 2020,265).

2.2.3. Judgement

There is a judicial system in Germany taken from France. The German judiciary is designed as an administrative and special judiciary. Administrative jurisdiction is also limited by the Federal Constitution. Therefore, the proceedings belonging to the administration regarding disruptions in public functioning or the supervision and trial of civil servants are conducted by the Federal Constitutional Court. In this sense, the Federal Constitutional Court serves as the highest court (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 266). According to the Federal Constitution, there are courts and federal courts whose jurisdiction belongs to the federated states (Muratoğlu, 2014: 291).

The most fundamental task of the Federal Constitutional Court is to check the conformity of the laws enacted by the federal state and the federal states with the Federal Constitution; is to intervene in the judicial disputes between the federal state and the federated states (Parlak and Caner, 2020:266).

The Federal Constitutional Court serves for a term of 12 years with 16 members, half of whom are elected from the National Assembly and the other half from the State Assembly.

The court is divided into two senates with eight members each. One of them is to protect individual freedoms, the other is responsible for litigation involving federal state - federated state or interstate disputes. There is a president and eight members in each senate. One of the judges serves as the president of the entire court. The President of the Constitutional Court alternates between the two senates. A two-thirds majority in the Bundestag and the Bundestrat is required to elect judges in the court (McCormick, 2020, 163-164).

In order to ensure legal unity in Germany, the creation of a senate according to the field of specialization in the Constitutional Court is a symbolic practice (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 267).

To resolve disputes and decide between the German courts of the Federal Constitutional Court, to decide the disputes between the federal state and the federated states, to supervise the constitutionality of federal and federated legal rules, to decide on individual applications due to violation of individual rights

and freedoms, autonomy between local administrations It has duties such as adjudicating the disputes that arise regarding the individual applications filed with the alleged violation of the law (Muratoğlu, 2011: 770).

Hierarchically, there are Administrative Courts at the second level, and these courts are organized at the level of states (landers) (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 267).

3. FRANCE

3.1. Transformation in the Political Regime and Constitutional Structure

When the history of France is examined, it is seen that there is a turbulent political structure, which is not stable and stagnant like England, but is influenced by bloody and revolutionary events. The dynamism and volatility in the political past has led to the implementation of a semi-presidential system in France today, where the features of the parliamentary system and the presidential system are blended.

The strengthening of the monarchy in France and the burden of increasing war costs on the people caused the French Revolution to overthrow the king in 1789, which until this period there was a French State ruled with absolute monarchy.

To these developments that laid the groundwork for the French Revolution, the conflicts between the anti-kings who defended principles such as equality, freedom, nationalism and republicanism and the defenders of the Ancien Regime period, that is, the king, can be added. The feature of the period called Ancien Regime is that it reflects the political history of France, which is the oldest in Europe and the absolute monarchy is the strongest, which has had strong advocates in France (Tocqueville, 2004: 268).

The result of the revolution in favor of the nation was King XVI. It was in the form of the assembly, which eliminated Louis, by establishing a new national assembly and having the Declaration of Human and Citizen Rights accepted. The king's authority to dissolve the parliament was taken away and the ministers chosen by the king would not be considered responsible to the parliament (Tanilli, 1999:431; Sarıca, 1969: 82).

At the origin of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, King XVI. Along with the spread of the idea that Louis was thinking of closing the National Assembly in France and gathering power in one hand, the capture of the Bastille Castle by opponents of the king on July 14, 1789 lies (Bıçak, 2013:15-16).

The Republican regime, which started with the proclamation of the 1st Republic by the French General Napoleon Bonaparte in 1799, witnessed political instability due to the defeats in the wars with Prussia, the German and Italian occupation with the start of the First World War.

For this reason, the throne struggles and the collapse of the war in France resulted in the proclamation of five republics in the period between 1792 and 1958.

Since the French Revolution, 15 constitutional amendments have been made in France. The longest of these, III. The Republic lasted for 65 years (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020: 54). The Declaration of Human and Citizen Rights, on the other hand, has been included among the initial provisions of the 1958 Constitution, which is in force as all the constitutions prepared in the history of France (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020: 55).

French Constitution IV. and bears the traces of the V. Republic. The Fifth Republic (1958) inspired the current French Constitution as an administration in which the presidency gained power in order to eliminate the political turmoil by taking the power of the parliament, where the powers and responsibilities of the French General de Gaulle were increased in France, which was administered in an integrated manner with occupied Algeria (Eroğul , 2012:156).

3.2. Legislative- Executive-Judicial Activities in France

3.3.1. Legislative

The principle of separation of powers in France was introduced with the French Constitution of 1791. Accordingly, the structure of the parliament was reshaped in the period from the Kingdom of France to the French Republic (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020: 55).

In France, it can be said that the legislature lags behind the executive branch. IV. Administrative instabilities and political conflicts that arose during the Republic (1946-1958) brought the executive power forward in today's French Constitution (1958) (Çelebi, 2012:51).. Between 1871 and 1940, 104 governments were established. Due to the instability in governments IV. Rationalized parliamentarism was implemented in the Constitution of the Republic (1946) (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020:56). IV in France. In the period from the Republic to the V. Republic, the implementation of rationalized parliamentarism became mandatory, since the parliamentary functioning had an unstable appearance (McCormick, 2020:269).

In this method, also called measured parliamentarism, in which the executive is strengthened and the power of the parliament is broken, the overthrow of the governments in line with the constitutional amendments made as of 2008 will be possible with the House of Representatives giving a motion of no confidence and obtaining an absolute majority on this motion. In addition, it has become possible to enact law proposals without providing a majority in the parliament during the law-making process, without submitting them to a vote in the parliament (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020: 60). In addition, in order to speed up the enactment of legislative proposals, the government has introduced regulations that limit the legislative body, such as setting the agenda and ensuring that some or all of the bills are voted upon their own demand (Karahanoğulları and Yeşilyurt, 2020:61). This is why the legislature in France has lagged behind the executive branch.

In France, the parliament is a two-wing structure. These two titles in the parliament consist of the structure of the House of Representatives, where the population of the country is represented, or the National Assembly, and the Senate, where local governments are represented (Parlak and Caner, 2020:107).

When it comes to the Senate, the Senate mostly works towards the order and functioning of local governments. The common feature of these two chambers is that both chambers can present a bill. The National Assembly has the final say when there is a conflict between the two chambers. From this point of view, it can be said that the national assembly is relatively superior to the senate (McCormick, 2020:269, Çelebi, 2012: 56-579). The National Assembly is authorized in all matters, except for the amendments to the Constitution and matters pertaining to the Senate. The National Assembly is equipped with such powers that the time to discuss the law is longer than that of the Senate, and the budget is the assembly where the law is read for the first time (Çelebi, 2012: 56-57).

The Senate in France is similar to the House of Lords in England. The National Assembly, which determines the number of representatives in the parliament and the policy program of the government, consists of 577 deputies, and the deputies are elected for 5 years with two-round elections (McCormick, 2020:270).

The national assembly has the power to overthrow the government. The National Assembly, which can control the government by means of a no-confidence or vote of confidence, took place once in the French political history during the V. Republic period of Conservative President Charles de

Gaulle in 1962. De Gaulle changed the way the president was elected and declared a referendum, and thus the executive was again brought to a stronger position than the legislature (Eroğul, 2012:156).

While there has been a numerical stability in the change of presidency in French political history, the same cannot be said for the prime ministership. While only 8 presidents served between 1958 and 2018, 22 prime ministers changed in the same period (McCormick, 2020:269).

During the political process in the period from the IV. Republic to the V. Republic lies 29 governments were established until the General Charles de Gaulle Government was established. The factors underlying the political instability experienced are the instability of the executive and the instability of the cabinet. In this period, it has been the subject of criticism that the prime minister and cabinet could not make vital decisions for the country and carried out unsuccessful policies (Huber, 1996:1).

3.3.2. Executive

France is a well-established democracy with a distinctive semi-presidential system. The party system is fragmented, constantly evolving. The parties are generally categorized as left, right and far-right. The president and the members of the parliament are elected separately (Franceschet et al., 2012:28).

In France, the president serves as both the head of the state and the head of the executive (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 113).

The French Republic, which is shaped as a unitary republic, fulfills the executive function with a President elected for two terms of five years, a council of ministers responsible to the National Assembly, and a prime minister presiding over this council of ministers (Parlak and Caner, 2020:113).

In France, the president's duties and powers are broad. If we list them, to be the commander-in-chief, to represent France in the international arena, to negotiate international agreements, to issue amnesty, to make bureaucratic senior appointments, to approve the laws made by the parliament and to ensure that they come into force. The most important of these duties can be shown as the president's authority to appoint the prime minister, but this authority is limited to appointment and the president does not have the power to dismiss the prime minister (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 113; McCormick, 2020:263).

The President also has duties and powers such as presenting the draft laws to the referendum upon the proposal of the prime minister or the parliament, calling the parliament to a meeting on issues concerning the security of the

nation, and appointing three of the members of the Constitutional Council (Parlak and Caner, 2020:113). The most powerful arm of the executive serves as the president. The President is directly elected by the people and is not accountable to the parliament. The President is the head and center of the executive body (Çelebi, 2012: 51).

In France, which is governed by a semi-presidential system, the president has the power to dissolve the legislative body after meeting with the prime minister (Yazıcı, 2011:94-103).

The president, who is elected for 5-year terms by direct popular vote, can be elected for a maximum of two terms with the 2008 reforms (Parlak and Caner, 2020:113).

In France, the President fulfills the executive function with a Presidential Decree. Presidential Decrees are valid for the appointment of senior bureaucrats (Parlak and Caner, 2020:115). Presidential Decrees, on the other hand, are carried out by the General Secretariat, the Private Secretary and the Special Staff, which consists of 500 senior public officials, called the Presidential Headquarters. The Presidential Headquarters represents the highest point of the Presidency (Parlak and Caner, 2020:114).

In the French executive system, the prime minister acts as the second wing of the executive after the President (Çelebi, 2012: 51).

The President, who has the power to appoint the Prime Minister, can appoint from the same party as his party has the majority in the parliament. On the other hand, the political party that dominates the parliament may be a party other than the president's party. In the parliament where the opposition party has a majority, the president can appoint an opposition candidate as the prime minister, since the majority of the parliament is from the opposition. This situation is called cohabitation regulation (McCormick, 2020:265).

Prime ministers appointed by the president have duties such as acting as a bridge between the president and the National Assembly, examining and shaping the policies to be approved by the president in detail, supporting the legislative program by supporting the president in domestic politics, and working to strengthen the president's political position (McCormick, 2020:267).

When it comes to the Council of Ministers, the Council of Ministers constitutes the third leg of the executive. The Council of Ministers is established by the decision of the government and with the approval of the president (Parlak and Caner, 2020:118). In France, the Council of Ministers is designed in a structure where there are 14 state ministers and 18 executive ministries.

These ministries are important because they are active ministries where the government carries out its domestic and foreign policies. On the other hand, there is a third type of ministry organization called “Secretaries of State”, which serves directly under the prime minister or works under any ministry, sometimes appointed independently. Ministers with this status fulfill the duties given by the prime minister within their authority and coordinate the functioning between the legislative body and the executive branch (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 119).

3.3.3. *Judgement*

In France, the judicial system operates in two ways, depending on the disputes between the citizens themselves or with public institutions. While the Supreme Court and independent courts are responsible for disputes between citizens, administrative courts are authorized for disputes between citizens and public institutions (Parlak and Caner, 2020: 119).

The highest constitutional organ of the French judiciary is the Constitutional Council (Çelebi, 2012:55). In France, the members of the Constitutional Council are elected one time. The President appoints three members to the Council, the presidents of the Senate and the National Assembly. The president of the council is appointed by the president, and three of the former presidents of France are members of the council for life (McCormick, 2020: 271).

Council; It is in charge of supervising the elections, controlling the proportionality of the expenditures made in the election campaigns, and ensuring the constitutional legitimacy of the referendums by announcing the official election results.

As of 2010, all individuals had the right to apply to the Constitutional Council for the review of the constitutionality of the court decisions taken in their individual cases, while until 2010 only the President or senior parliamentarians could object to the conformity with the Constitution (McCormick, 2020:271).

4. CONCLUSION

England, which constitutes an institutional model to the world with the principles of parliamentary democracy and where we see the first example of parliament in the world; It has set an example for the countries of the Continental Europe as well as all the countries of the world with its political structure and democratic values. In England, which is governed by a constitutional monarchy, the principle of parliamentary supremacy is in such a strong position that there

is no need for a written constitution tradition. In the democratization process that started with the 1215 Magna Carta, the king renounced his powers and the balance of power between him and the barons was tried to be achieved. This declaration has been the founding element of many constitutions in the history of the British administration, as well as in the world countries, with its articles on the protection of universal human rights.

England, which has exported its institutional structure to all the countries governed by the parliamentary system, with its double-winged parliamentary structure; It has also been referenced in the parliaments of Germany and France.

Again, in Germany and France, which were governed in the parliamentary system, while the sovereignty of the parliament was preserved, the rationalized parliamentarism principle was applied, and measures were taken to protect the executive power and ensure the continuation of the executive without entering into dictatorial tendencies in the administration.

The dismissal of the prime minister of the Weimar Republic in Germany by the legislature and the president, and the change of 14 prime ministers during the 15-year Weimar period made it necessary to implement rationalized parliamentarism in Germany. For this reason, the prime minister in Germany has been given a very powerful status. Only 6 prime ministers have changed since 1949; The president is given symbolic powers.

When evaluated in terms of France, the struggles between the king and the seigneurs brought by the revolution in France have been the peak point of political instability. Between 1871 and 1940, 104 governments were formed. For this reason, in order to strengthen the executive power and ensure stability in governments, rationalized parliamentarism principles were applied in the 1958 French Constitution, and the executive was made stronger than the legislature. During the de Gaulle period in France, the powers of the presidency expanded excessively. However, there was no dictatorship tendency like in Germany. For this reason, there is no thought that negative consequences may occur if the execution is limited. In England, the parliament is in a very powerful position since the king is already equipped with symbolic powers.

In Germany and France, which took the administrative model from England, the parliament has a two-headed structure. Here, the idea of limiting the power and preventing the concentration of the administration in one hand came to the fore. In addition, the parliamentary wing, which holds the power in the struggle for power between the nobility and the people and has more weighted powers in the parliament, is positioned more strongly.

For example, in England, the House of Commons is much more powerful than the House of Lords. In Germany, the Bundestag (National Assembly) is stronger than the Bundestrat (State Assembly), on the other hand, in France, the House of Representatives (National Assembly) is more powerful than the Senate. Although Germany has a federal structure, the parliamentary wing was kept strong, and with the influence of the past Nazi experience, human rights and individual freedoms were protected in the German Constitution in 1949. Likewise, the French Constitution limited the power by including civil rights and freedoms in its Constitution with the Declaration of Human and Citizen Rights adopted in 1789. From this point of view, it can be said that with the protection of human rights in the establishment and stability of parliaments, the initial provisions of the constitutions are shaped and individual rights and freedoms are guaranteed.

The first country to achieve this in the constitutional process was England. With the French Revolution in 1789, which emphasized civil rights and freedoms long before Germany, the struggles between the opponents and supporters of the revolution resulted in the establishment of five republics in France, and it was only in 1958 that it found its place in the French Constitution.

When it comes to Germany, after the defeat of the World War II, he learned from his experiences with the excessive power and centralization of the executive and the shift to totalitarianism. In the constitution he prepared in 1949, he protected individual rights and freedoms and put them into practice before France.

When the judicial systems are examined, there is no distinction between administrative and judicial jurisdiction, since there is no written constitution in England. The judiciary also deals with matters concerning the administrative judiciary. However, at this point, France has become a model for the world countries in terms of judiciary, as it is the first country where the administrative judiciary and judicial judiciary distinction is made. Likewise, there is a distinction between administrative and special jurisdictions in Germany. Germany also imported its judicial system from France.

In England, unlike the continental European countries, there was a principle of judicial unity in the judicial system. This situation changed with the reforms made in 2002. Accordingly, the practice in which the Lord Chancellor was the head of the judiciary was ended, and the Ministry of Justice was established in 2003. In general, with these arrangements made within the framework of harmonization with the EU, a transformation was observed in the traditional administrative structure of the UK through smooth transitions.

Again, within the framework of harmonization with the EU, in France, until 2010, citizens were given the right to apply to the Constitutional Council, which is the highest court for the supervision of the constitutionality of court decisions taken in individual cases.

In Germany, the application to the Federal Constitutional Court was not within the framework of harmonization with the EU, but much earlier; it was secured by the Federal Constitutional Court in 1951 and set an example for the EU judicial system, with its perfect appearance in 1955.

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CHAPTER XXXI

OMBUDSMAN AUDITING IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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1. Introduction

Supervision of the administration is provided by judicial and non-judicial inspections. The reasoning behind this is that no control mechanism is completely perfect. In this respect, each control mechanism offers the opportunity to complete the deficiencies found in another control mechanism. The emergence of the ombudsman, which is a means of controlling the administration, is a product of this logic. Based on this logic, the ombudsman institution introduced itself as an institution that aims to solve the problems between the administration and the person and examines the complaints with a certain method.

The main reason for the emergence of the system is the discussion of the fundamental rights and freedoms of individuals and the question marks regarding the protection of these rights and freedoms. It is obvious that these problems will exacerbate the existing problems in a slow functioning judicial system. At the same time, the lack of certain criteria in today's legal systems, the increase in the discretionary powers given to the administrator and the deficiencies in the control mechanisms have made it necessary to establish an independent auxiliary institution.

Bringing the problems between the administration and the citizen bring to the judicial organs every time will increase the workload of the judicial organs more than necessary and will also cause the process to prolong. As a natural consequence of this, an atmosphere of dissatisfaction will occur. In order to prevent this negative situation, the ombudsman mechanism has become widespread throughout the world.

After the introduction part of this study, which was formed by the literature review method, the conceptual framework of the ombudsman institution is included in the second part. The third chapter is dealt with the emergence process of the institution and with in the form of its historical background, which is the subject of its later dissemination.. In the fourth chapter, by establishing a connection between the ombudsman institution and the state of law, the legal place of the institution has been tried to be determined. In the fifth chapter, the features that distinguish the ombudsman institution from other supervisory authorities are tried to be discussed. In the sixth chapter, various applications of ombudsman in different countries around the world are given. In the conclusion part, which is the last part of the study, a general evaluation about the ombudsman institution was made and the study was concluded.

2. Conceptual Framework of the Ombudsman Institution

Ombudsman mechanism, which first gained a constitutional basis in Sweden in 1809, is considered as the starting point of the modern control mechanism (Erdengi, 2009: 31); It is pronounced with many different names such as “*kamu denetçisi*”, “*mediator*”, “*public arbitrator*”. *Ombudsman consists of the words “ombuds” meaning representative or spokesperson and “man” meaning person* (Tayşi, 2013). In terms of bringing transparency and accountability features to the administration, it has become an institution that spreads rapidly around the world (Duran, 2021: 8).

Since the Ombudsman is a concept created by evaluating the administrative, political and legal conditions of each country depending on its own management philosophy, it is difficult to make an agreed definition. For this reason, it is handled in different ways depending on the management understanding of the countries (Dursunoğlu et al., 2021: 70). However, it is possible to come across studies that define the ombudsman in the literature. The ombudsman, who takes part in the work of Yılmaz, Kılavuz and İzci, is

“The one who is a public official who receives his power from the parliament, acts independently and impartially against both the government and the parliament, upon complaints made by individuals who are harmed by various actions and actions of the administration, or by acting ex officio, to prevent abuse of discretion of the administrators and to act in accordance with the legislation, works to prevent the abuse of discretion of the administrators and to ensure that they act in accordance with the legislation, whose

decisions do not have the power of sanction, but only as a recommendation, and who presents their work to the public and the parliament every year with a report.” (2003: 54).

According to Tortop (1974: 39), who brought another definition to the Ombudsman, it was explained as “An Ombudsman is an organ that *takes power from the parliament, has the authority to supervise the administration, works in a wide independence, is not dependent on excessive formalities and tries to protect the citizens*”.

Pickl, on the other hand, evaluated the Ombudsman system separately from the perspective of the individual and the administration. According to Pickl, while the system ensures justice, a fast and respectful administrative action from the eyes of the individual, it is evaluated as a tool that ensures the elimination of undesirable results that may occur as a result of incomplete and error from the eyes of the administration (1986: 37).

While the state can play the role of the number one protector of human rights, it can also be the number one threat to the violation of human rights, limiting rights and even taking away all rights. Leaving such a powerful mechanism unattended can cause unavoidable problems. As a matter of fact, the basis of the “*Separation of Powers*” is to take this power under control. Just like in the logic of separation of powers, the supervision of the administration is a kind of control of the state.

In many countries of the world, in parallel with the developments in society, the search for improving human rights, supervising the public bureaucracy, dealing with individual complaints and drawing the public’s attention to the disruptions in the public bureaucracy has turned the attention to the ombudsman institution, which is currently practiced in many countries of the world and is structured in different ways according to the political, social, cultural and administrative conditions of each country.

The ombudsman which is a kind of mediator between the state and the citizen, as an independent public official, listens to the complaints of the complainants, conducts examination, research and investigation, and announces the result to the relevant people and the public. The Ombudsman undertakes functions such as educating public officials in the context of human rights and freedoms, preventing violations of rights by public administrators, correcting the wrong works and actions of the public administration, providing better public services, and acting as a mediator between the citizen and the bureaucracy. In addition

to other control mechanisms, the ombudsman institution, which is a secondary guarantee mechanism in terms of protecting the rights of the individual and realizing a well-functioning administration, unlike the classical bureaucracy, defends the rights of the citizen, questions all kinds of administrative bodies on his or her behalf, accesses all kinds of information and documents, and manages the modern administration of the administration with some tools at its disposal. Since it is an institution that helps to ensure that it functions in accordance with its understanding, it has rapidly found application in the world. (Efe & Demirci, 2013: 50).

The emergence of the Ombudsman is effect by the deficiencies in the current inspection methods, the administrative structure of modern states becoming more and more complex, the increasing powers and responsibilities of the states, the granting of wider discretionary powers to top-level administrators, and the need to protect the individual against injustices in administrative procedures were effective in the system and this has further clarified the need (Atay, 2014: 27).

Despite its widespread usage in the world, it is seen that it is pronounced differently in different countries. For example, names such as “Commissioner of the Parliament” in England, “Mediator” in France, “People’s Advocate” in Austria, “Citizen Defender” in Canada, “Guardian of Justice” in Portugal, and “Defender of the People” in Argentina and Spain. In Turkey, the concept of “*Kamu Denetçisi*” is used as the equivalent of the word Ombudsman (Akin, 1998: 521).

In some countries, where the ombudsman has become a traditional control mechanism, some diversification has occurred in the field of expertise of the institution, depending on changing social needs, political and economic developments (Gülener, 2013: 5). Human rights ombudsman, local government ombudsman etc. This diversity is open to further expansion over time within the context of social developments and needs.

3. Emerging Process and Historical Background of the Institution of Ombudsman

The idea that the mechanism that will feel safe in the face of this action that the citizen sees after the administration takes an action against the citizens has emerged a long time ago. This idea has become concrete over time and has turned into a compulsory situation in societies with democracy (Temizel, 1997: 764).

It is known that the institution first appeared in Sweden. It is known that there was a similar structure to this institution in the Ottoman Empire before its emergence in Sweden. Due to the absence of an existing administrative judicial system in the Ottoman period, there were special judges called “*Kadıül-Kudat* “ *who were assigned to examine the complaints of the people against the administration.* These kadis were in charge of examining the complaints that came to them against the actions, activities, attitudes and behaviors of the administration, including the sultan, and making inspections accordingly. It is stated that the Swedish King Charles XII, who was in the Osman State at that time, examined this institution and implemented it under the name of ombudsman when he returned to his country. (Ombudsman Institution Draft Law, General Reason, 2005). In addition to the thought that the institution was taken from the Ottoman Period, some sources state that some complaint mechanisms constitute the basis of the ombudsman institution, as in China and India in 3000 BC (Satyanand , 2002: 547).

After Sweden, the system started to be seen firstly in Finland and other Scandinavian countries, and then in the Anglo-Saxon states and in all continents of the world. Today, the ombudsman institution has established itself in almost all states registered with the UN. Such a spreading process of this system cannot be explained by chance. The developments in science and culture and cyclical fluctuations are in parallel with the spread of the system (Doğan, 2022: 172).

Fendoğlu dealt with the spread of the ombudsman system to the world in four waveforms. According to that; The developments in the Scandinavian countries, where the system emerged until 1945, the first wave, the developments in Anglo-Saxon countries, developments in Continental Europe, the third wave, and lastly, the Soviet satellite states formed as a result of the collapse of the Soviet/communist regime in the 1990s, and the developments in developing countries in Africa and Latin American states (2011).

4. The State of Law and The Ombudsman

In the contemporary understanding of state, the concept of the rule of law is one of the indispensable qualities of the state. It is among the requirements of the state of law that the establishment and functioning of the administration is based on the law and that the actions and transactions of the administration are subject to the control of appropriateness and legality. In the most concise terms, the state of law is a state that adheres to the rules of law in its activities, has adopted the rules that provide legal security to its citizens, and has created the

institutional structure. Based on the concept of human dignity, in accordance with the principle of legal administration, which aims to deliver the right to the righteous; It is one of the principles of the rule of law that the jurisdictions of state organs with public power are certain and that this situation can be known beforehand (Atay, 2014: 3-6).

In parallel with the development of the understanding of the rule of law, the relations between the state and the citizen are also changing. In order for the demands of the people to be met by the state and for the fundamental rights and freedoms of the individuals to be guaranteed, these rights and demands have been tried to be placed on a healthy basis with a number of legal regulations in this direction. Because the actions of individuals and organizations must take place within legal limits (Sevinçli & Göksoy Sevinçli, 2022: 35).

The individual's living in the rule of law can gain meaning by having certain rights, and by providing the right to demand the elimination of his grievances in case of violation of these rights. In this respect, a person should be able to reach and activate protective control mechanisms in order to recover a right that he or she thinks has been violated.

While the individual realizes his/her freedom to claim rights, the audit should be carried out by independent units on a regular basis and when necessary. At the same time, it is necessary to simplify, economize and activate access to legal remedies and, as a result, to accelerate and shorten the post-application process (Atay, 2014: 9).

As a matter of fact, when these issues are taken into consideration, it is striking that the Ombudsman institution is directly related to the rule of law. It is a very remarkable institution in terms of examining the complaints against the administration, revealing the weak and failing aspects of the administration, and thus helping to protect the rights of the person. Ensuring the administration's adherence to the law has a very important place among the requirements of the rule of law and also serves to protect fundamental rights and freedoms.

The concepts of human rights, rule of law and democratization increase in the modern world and the ombudsman serves this purpose, on the one hand, it increases the value of the institution and on the other hand, it gives the institution extra popularity. This popularity of the Ombudsman has led to the fact that every complaint authority operating outside the judiciary is pronounced as ombudsman, and this situation has led to a conceptual confusion. However, in order for a supervisory mechanism to be pronounced as the "*Ombudsman Model*", its duties, powers and status must be determined in accordance with

this model. Because these features distinguish it from all other systems for the protection of individual rights and freedoms, giving the ombudsman a distinct advantage (Büyükavcı, 2008: 11).

In the subsection titled ‘Characteristics of the *Ombudsman Institution*’, these distinctive features of the ombudsman institution mentioned above will be discussed.

5. Qualifications of The Ombudsman Institution

Ombudsman applications in the world, it is striking that the system has some features of its own. It is possible to derive the definitions of duties and powers of the ombudsman from these features. However, it would not be a correct approach to think that these features of the institution are invariably valid for every country. It is inevitable that there are some differences from country to country, both in terms of application and features (Gökçe, 2012: 207).

In the emergence process of the Ombudsman, it is aimed to protect the citizens against the unilateral decisions of the administration and to ensure the rights and freedoms of the individual. The power to supervise the administration also reveals the status of the institution. Another aspect of the ombudsman is that it has regulatory, preventive and transparency-enhancing features. The institution also contributes to the administrative judiciary by easing the workload on the judicial mechanism (Sezen, 2001: 79). Contrary to the fact that the institution alleviates the workload of the administrative judiciary, there have been serious discussions that the ombudsman institution would not be beneficial in the institutions where the administrative judiciary exists, and that it could harm the principle of separation of powers. However, the ombudsman institution, which has been in practice since 1973 in France, which is considered the cradle of administrative judiciary, has left these criticisms unanswered (Süler, 2010: 165).

ombudsman has been introduced in all parts of the world where the institution finds an application area, in order to provide control over the actions and transactions of the administration. In this respect, disputes between legislative and judicial proceedings and private persons do not fall under the jurisdiction of the ombudsman. However, exceptionally, in some country practices, ombudsman supervision can control disputes between private individuals, can also control judicial proceedings and activate the control mechanism over legislative actions (Erhüman, 2001: 307).

The subjects that the Ombudsman is responsible for are generally based on the principle of protecting individual rights and freedoms, helping citizens

who are weak against the administration, and protecting their rights. Büyükavcı determined the ombudsman 's field of duty as the relations between the public power and the individual, and his/her duty;

- ✓ To defend individual rights and freedoms,
- ✓ To protect its citizens against the government,
- ✓ Helping to improve management in order to prevent injustices arising from mismanagement, form of (2008: 11).

Ombudsman institution is important in terms of the results of the decisions taken as a result of the examinations they have made. As it is known, although the tools and powers used by the ombudsman during the examination vary between countries, its powers against the administration are generally within the framework of suggestions, conciliation and orders (2008: 12).

Again, Büyükavcı tried to reveal some of the important features that the Ombudsman institution should have, based on the practices in different countries. (2008: 12). According to this;

- ✓ The Ombudsman is political and impartial.
- ✓ He/she is independent in his decisions.
- ✓ It must have high standards in all respects.
- ✓ The Ombudsman deals with each application individually.
- ✓ The position and functions of the Ombudsman are specified in a separate Ombudsman Law.
- ✓ Public institutions cooperate with the ombudsman.
- ✓ The ombudsman should be easily and directly accessible at no cost.
- ✓ It must have parliamentary support behind it.
- ✓ Must have an active relationship with the media.

The Ombudsman institution draws attention as an independent and impartial institution in general. As a matter of fact, the requirement of independence is the basic building block of this institution. Because it is hardly possible to expect a healthy result from a control mechanism that will be carried out without breaking the ties with the executive and the administration. Otherwise, this control will not go beyond administrative control. In this respect, if we talk about a different control mechanism under the name of ' *ombudsman supervision* ', *this supervision* authority must be strictly independent from the executive and

administration (Erhüman, 2000: 158-159). The idea that an organ to supervise the administration should be directed by the administration is contrary to logic.

Another element of the institution's independent status is the issue of not receiving orders and instructions. The parliament cannot give instructions to the ombudsman about how to handle the complaint, nor can it reconsider and correct its decisions to the complaint brought to the ombudsman (Babüroğlu & Hatiboğlu, 1997: 13). As a matter of fact, an oppressive management style will prevent the desired benefit from the ombudsman institution.

The Ombudsman has no power to change an administrative or judicial decision. It is not a top manager or a superior judicial authority. It usually takes action by a citizen with a complaint against an action taken by the administration. However, there may be cases where the ombudsman takes action *ex officio* in line with his own sensations (Tortop, 1974: 40). In a complaint filed to him/her, the ombudsman will first examine whether this is within his or her mandate and jurisdiction. As a result of the examination, in case of deficiencies, it can be requested from the complainant to correct the existing deficiencies. Depending on the magnitude of the error, referrals can be made to the complainant (Şahin, 2010: 135).

Complaint files, correspondence preparations are made for the files found suitable for the complaint. The process of examining these files can take up to six months and this period may be extended by the ombudsmen depending on the importance of the issue (Doğan, 2022: 175). The Ombudsman has the right to access all kinds of information and documents in the investigations he/she has made during this period. The provision of this information and documents to the ombudsman is guaranteed by law (Efe & Demirci, 2013: 56). The institution activates the warning function by presenting its activities and research reports during the year to the relevant authorities in certain periods. As a result of the examination, audit and research activities he/she has obtained, he/she can make administrative suggestions to the public administration, as well as prepare a legislative proposal to the parliament at the point of reorganization of the public administration (Akin, 1998: 543-544).

Finally, in this section, it will be necessary to address the issue of how ombudsmen are appointed and dismissed. The way the Ombudsman takes office is very important in terms of the expected benefit from the institution and the healthy functioning of the institution. As a matter of fact, their appointment is carried out by the legislative body, which operates on the basis of the will of the nation, and their dismissal is carried out by the parliament. However, there

are countries where appointment and dismissal procedures are carried out by the executive body as an exception (Ağyel, 2007: 59). The appointment by the legislature is subject to criticism in France. Underlying this criticism lies the concern that if the ombudsman is elected by the legislature, people close to the ruling party will be elected as ombudsmen (Tortop, 1998:5).

In general, after taking a look at the quality, function and functioning of the ombudsman institution, it is important to examine the practices of some countries in the world in order to understand the subject more clearly.

6. Ombudsman Practices in Various Countries

Ombudsman practices in different parts of the world will be examined and the functioning processes of the theoretical information tried to be explained above will be discussed.

6.1. French Ombudsman

In the legal system in the world, two different systems are accepted regarding the ways in which the supervision of the administration will be carried out. The first of these is the ‘*judicial union*’ system and the other is the ‘*administrative justice*’ system. The judicial union system is a system in which the judicial review of the administration is carried out by the general judicial organs. This system is generally used in Anglo-Saxon countries. The administrative judicial system, which is another system, is the name given to the system in which the judicial review of the administration is carried out by the administrative judicial bodies established separately from the general judicial bodies. Administrative jurisdiction, also called administrative jurisdiction, first emerged in France and then spread to other Continental European states (Erdengi, 2009: 65-66).

In the above sections, it was discussed that the ombudsman would not be effective and could damage the principle of separation of powers in France, where the administrative judiciary prevails. As the reason for these criticisms, the concern was expressed that the parliament in France never had the authority to appoint and that if the institution was accepted in France, it would cease to be a respected institution and would become the manager of bureaucrats. (Tortop et al., 2010: 138). However, the inadequacy of the administrative judiciary in resolving disputes was influential in the acceptance of the institution (Tutal, 2014: 136).

In France, the ombudsman institution is called “*Mediateur*” and it means “*conciliator*” and “*mediator*”. Although ombudsman appointments are generally

carried out by the parliament in countries where the ombudsman is in practice, in France, on the contrary, the ombudsman (*mediateur*) is appointed by the decision of the Council of Ministers signed by the President (Tortop, 1998: 5). The term of office of these persons is six years and they cannot be reappointed.

Two duties are given to the *Mediateur* in the law regulating the establishment and duties of the *Mediateur* (Klavuz et al., 2003). These;

- ✓ To seek good and fair solutions to the problems between the administration and the governed,
- ✓ To prepare reform proposals to improve the work of the management.

From this point of view, the duty of the *Mediateur* can be explained as accepting the complaints of its citizens who are victims of the actions and actions of the administration and finding reasonable solutions at the point of eliminating this victimization.

6.2. *Swedish Ombudsman*

As explained in the section above, which deals with the historical dimension of the Ombudsman institution, although there were similar practices in other countries before the institution emerged in Sweden, it was first accepted by King Charles XII in the 18th century and placed on a constitutional basis in 1809.

Sweden is a model for countries that want to implement the ombudsman institution. The ‘Parliamentary Ombudsman’ model owned by the country has started to be used by other countries in accordance with their own social, administrative and cultural structures. The Parliamentary Ombudsman (*Justitieombudsmanen*-JO) in the country is the first ombudsman defined in the 1809 Constitution, and a different law was not enacted until 1975. In 1975, the ‘Parliamentary Ombudsman Instruction Law’ was enacted (Arı, 2017: 137). The number of ombudsmen, which was only one until this period, was increased to four in 1975.

According to article 6 of section 12 of the Swedish Constitution, the *Riksdag* (*parliament*) elects four ombudsmen, one of which is the Chief Ombudsman and three of which are the Parliamentary Ombudsmen. In addition, two assistant ombudsmen are elected to serve until a new ombudsman is elected in case of a possible ombudsman position (Gişi, 2017: 13).

No one can control and appeal the decisions of the Parliamentary Ombudsman, including the parliament itself. If the Parliamentary Committee considers the annual activity reports submitted by the ombudsman insufficient

and transfers this situation to the parliament, it can be dismissed if the parliament loses its trust in the ombudsman (Avşar, 2007: 185).

There are a number of ways for the Parliamentary Ombudsman to take action in Sweden. The first of these is that any person submits an application through a complaint. Here, the right to complain is a right granted not only to Swedish citizens, but to everyone according to the Parliamentary Ombudsman Instructions Act. In addition, these persons who have the right to complain regardless of being a party to the incident. As a matter of fact, another way that activates the Parliamentary Ombudsman is to act *ex officio*. The ombudsman, who is heard in some way through newspapers, magazines or television, can take action. Except for the exceptions, the Parliamentary Ombudsman is not obliged to initiate an investigation if two years or more have passed since the incident that is the subject of the complaint (Arı, 2017:138).

6.3. Canadian Federal Ombudsman

In Canada, ombudsmen are called “*Citizen Protector*” (Efe & Demirci, 2013: 51). In addition to ombudsmen from different sectors (military, prison and classical parliament), there are also finance and banking ombudsmen operating in the private sector. In addition to the Ombudsman institution in Canada, there is also the “*Canadian Human Rights Commission*” established in 1977, which is similar to the ombudsman but operates as a quasi-judicial institution. This situation also reveals a dualist structure (Doğan, 2018:261).

Ontario Ombudsman from different ombudsmen in Canada as a basis, this ombudsman was established in 1975 with a law passed. The role of the Ontario Ombudsman, which is independent in its mandate and actions, is edited in law as “*the function of the Ombudsman is to investigate any decision or advice taken or any action taken or neglected in the course of the administration of a public sector entity and any action affecting any person or persons in their personal capacity.*” (Ontario Ombudsman Act, 14/1). The ombudsman may conduct an investigation at the request of any person, at the request of a member of parliament or by the ombudsman’s *ex officio* action. (14/2). Complaints to the Ombudsman must be made in writing (16/1). He is appointed by the president of the state, whose term of office is 5 years, on the recommendation of the parliament (Özden, 2010: 101).

Ombudsman practices in Canada in general terms, it is seen that they do not have any sanctioning power over the courts (Doğan, 2018: 159 cited from Kuye & Kakumba,2008) In this respect, the effectiveness of the decisions taken by the ombudsmen cannot go beyond recommendations (Fendoğlu, 2011: 97).

6.4. Turkish Ombudsman

The Turkish public administration, the establishment process of the ombudsman institution, which is called “*Kamu Denetçiliği*” in Turkish public administration, first came to the fore in the 1970s and was presented as a suggestion to existing problems. In the following years, the ombudsman was included in the 7th Five-Year Development Plan, and the “*Ombudsman Draft Law Draft Commission*” was formed during the 55th Government period (Erhuman, 2000: 156). However, the preliminary draft prepared by the commission could not be enacted.

The enactment process of the institution was realized with the Law on Ombudsman Institution (*Kamu Denetçiliği Kurumu Kanunu*) dated 28.09.2006 and numbered 5548. However, this law was annulled by the Constitutional Court upon the applications of the President of the time and opposition parties. Then, with the 26 September 2010 constitutional amendment, all citizens were given the right to apply to this institution, and the new Ombudsman Institution Law dated 29.06.2012 and numbered 6328 was published and entered into force.

According to the Law No. 6328 on the Ombudsman Institution, the purpose of the law is “*all kinds of actions and transactions, attitudes and behaviors of the administration by establishing an independent and effective complaint mechanism in the functioning of public services; To establish the Ombudsman Institution in order to examine, research and make recommendations in terms of compliance with law and fairness within the understanding of justice based on human rights.*”.

The ombudsman institution, which has gained a constitutional basis in Turkey, has been pointed out in article 74 of the 1982 Constitution that everyone has the right to obtain information and apply to the ombudsman, and it has been stated that the Ombudsman Institution, which was established under the Presidency of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey, will examine complaints about the functioning of the administration. Article 5 of the Law on the Ombudsman Institution includes the job description of the institution. Accordingly, the right to examine, research and make suggestions to the administration against all kinds of actions and transactions of the administration is included in the job description of the institution. However;

- ✓ Transactions regarding the exercise of legislative power,
- ✓ Procedures relating to the exercise of judicial power, and
- ✓ The purely military activities of the Turkish Armed Forces,

It has been excluded from the jurisdiction of the institution.

Chief Ombudsman and the auditors are arranged as four years. Real and legal persons can apply to the institution. In case of request of the applicant, the application can be kept confidential. In order to apply to the Institution, the administrative remedies stipulated in the Administrative Judgment Procedure Law dated 6/1/1982 and numbered 2577 and the mandatory administrative remedies in the special laws must be exhausted. No fee is charged for the applications made.

The institution concludes its examination and research within six months at the latest from the date of application. At the end of each calendar year, the Institution submits its report on activities and recommendations to the Commission. The Commission discusses this report within two months, excluding holidays and recess periods, and sends it to the Presidency, to be presented to the General Assembly, including its own opinions. This report of the commission is urgently discussed in the General Assembly. Institution; It can share with the public the issues that it finds beneficial in its disclosure at any time, without waiting for the annual report.

As stated in the job description of the institution, the ombudsman mechanism implemented in Turkey supports the judiciary, just like the mechanisms in general practice around the world. It is not binding, and its decisions are in the nature of suggestions.

7. Conclusion

Perhaps one of the most important requirements of being a democratic state in the modern world is to ensure the construction of a structure that protects the individual against the administration, both through the judiciary and other non-judicial control mechanisms, and operates in this direction. The bond between the state and the individual obliges, the institution to keep up with the requirements of the constantly changing world.

The most important distinguishing feature of the Ombudsman mechanism is that it displays an independent and impartial attitude by eliminating its ties with all the powers of the state. This feature carries the institution to a reliable position at the point of protection of individual rights and freedoms. Other features of the Ombudsman institution are that it has a cost-effective and transparent structure that can get results quickly. These features distinguish it from administrative control and other control mechanisms.

There is a close connection between the rule of law and the ombudsman institution. As it is known, the state of law refers to the state that adheres to the

rules of law in its activities and provides legal security to its citizens. The fact that the establishment and functioning of the administration is based on laws and that the actions and operations of the administration are subject to the control of appropriateness and legality reveals this strong link between the ombudsman institution and the rule of law. Although the decisions taken by the ombudsman do not have a binding effect, it does not mean that this institution is not effective. It would not be wrong to say that even if the decisions taken by an institution that has the support of the public and the parliament are not binding, it acts as a brake mechanism against the administration. With this power behind it, possible wrong attitudes of the administration are prevented on the one hand, and on the other hand, it is ensured that the administration acts in the light of the decisions to be made by the ombudsman. As a matter of fact, this power of the institution is very important in terms of increasing the prestige and functionality of the institution.

When evaluated in general, the status of the Ombudsman institution is much more than a simple control mechanism. The fact that the institution's not having a binding aspect does not change this situation. When viewed from its political and social dimensions, it is open to further development as a highly effective mechanism for solving problems with the power it will take behind it. As long as the institution maintains its neutral and independent status, it will continue to be reliable and grow.

Source

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CHAPTER XXXII

AN ASSESSMENT ON THE CONCEPT OF UNIVERSITY- INDUSTRY COOPERATION

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1. Introduction

University-Industry cooperation is defined as the whole of the systematic works carried out by combining the current facilities of universities with those of industry in order to develop scientifically, technologically, and economically. In other words, it refers to the whole of scientific, technologic, and economic activities arising from the combination of universities' knowledge and qualified labor force and industry's current experience and financial power within a system (İmamoğlu, 2004).

One of the reasons for prominent countries advancing in technology is the successful utilization of university-industry cooperation. In this cooperation, universities find solutions to various problems of industry and they also contribute to technological advancement by conducting R&D activities (i.e., product development) with companies. In many of developed countries, industrial companies compulsorily allocate funds to product development activities. It significantly contributes to the development of university-industry cooperation. Moreover, by orienting higher education in parallel with the demands of industry, many developed countries increase the students' opportunities to find a

1 The present paper was derived from the author's master of science thesis titled "Üniversite-Sanayi İş Birliğinde Teknoparklar: Bursa Ulutek Teknoloji Geliştirme Bölgesi Örneği (Technoparks in the cooperation of university-industry: The case of Bursa Ulutek Technological Development Zone)".

job after graduation and they also meet the need for the qualified labor force by graduating students in fields that the industry needs (Keleş, Karaçor, and Demir, 2006).

In the following sections, it is aimed to explain the historical development of university-industry cooperation, reasons, expectations from the university-industry cooperation, benefits to be offered, and industrial structures in university-industry cooperation researches.

2. Historical Development of University-Industry Cooperation

The first examples of the University-Industry Cooperation (UIC) date back to the use of scientific-origin technologies (Özüğurlu, 2004: 1). Together with the industrial revolution in the early 19th century, this process began with universities establishing research laboratories, re-designing the technical departments, and rapidly strengthening them, developing a new professionalism for engineering education, and becoming organized. Then, through the late 19th century, it changed its direction especially because the large-scale companies operating in the chemistry and electricity industries preferred establishing in-house research units and got results from the research and development projects, which were carried out via those in-house departments, faster than universities did. Then, in the early 20th century, scientists and engineers constituted the most important actors in industrial countries aiming to establish a technocrat society based on scientific rationalism.

The World War II is an important milestone in the scientific and technological advancement and, consequently, the university-industry cooperation. The success of scientific research projects developed during the war (such as the Manhattan Project etc.) increased the trust of bureaucracy and society in research projects and the resources allocated by large-scale companies to scientific and technological research and development in their laboratory investments increased remarkably. The defense expenditures increasing due to the Cold War caused an increase in public sources allocated to scientific research, especially in industries such as electronics, communication, computer, and high-tech (Özkan-Eser,2005).

It can be stated that, as of the beginning of the 20th century, not only the universities but the entire education system started to be seen as an extension of the new industrial economies. The institutionalization of the science-technology relationship within the body of universities is closely related to the

superiority of industry and the economic competition environment (Özüğurlu, 2004: 1).

The interventionist state policies, which systematized the relationship set developed through the science-based structure of the production at the national scale and named it “science policy”, emerged after the World War II. During this process, the university concept took its place in the national science policy mainly through the leadership of the state, while this relationship started transforming and diversifying after the 1970s. The most interesting aspect of this transformation was the organic institutional relationship of the universities with the private industrial capital.

Putting the transformations in global economy and production process aside, the main factor forcing the universities into a transformation after the mid-1970s was the massification of the demand. Together with the demand boom in university education in the West in the 1980s, the universities were forced into the options of participating in research and development activities as a part of innovation system and educating the “human capital” being capable of competing in the global market. Then, the universities were expected to be “the incubator of new industries in that technology-oriented economy”. UIC can be considered as a programmatic expression of this expectation (Özüğurlu, 2004: 2).

3. Reasons for University-Industry Cooperation

The value of knowledge has constantly increased during the age of information. Becoming one of the most expensive investment components in the information industry continuously developing and renewing itself, knowledge actually transformed the knowledge production locations into a sector. Especially through the Technoparks established in the states having the option of high technology such as the USA and Israel and called mostly “Silicon Valley” in our country, the software priced billions of dollars are marketed and this industry, in which the cost of investment is much lower in comparison to the industrial investments, became more attractive on a daily basis (Kekeç, 2003: 1).

It is known that it is not possible to achieve an additional value in production unless the creative power of knowledge is combined with the creative power of capital. In other words, the universities creating knowledge should cooperate with the industry creating additional value. To date, easy ways to transfer the technology rather than creating the knowledge could be found.

The concept of technology transfer refers to the transfer of knowledge and technology created in academic institutions, universities, and research centers to the industry (Kaymakçalan, 1999: 51). Nowadays, together with the labor being more expensive, technology transfer has put our country into a dilemma, in which we cannot compete with other countries. The important mission of our national industry is to support technological knowledge production rather than choosing the easy way. Both the industry and the universities need this. At this point, university-industry cooperation becomes the most necessary at this point. Both parties should list their inventories and determine their expectations. The communication between these parties should turn into interaction and synergy should be created (Alkış, 2003:30).

One of the most effective ways of translating the knowledge base into production is the university-industry cooperation. The university-industry cooperation plays a very important role in putting the theoretical information, which have been obtained from the studies carried out in universities, into practice. Industries can obtain the technological knowledge, which they need, from the universities through this cooperation. For instance, by means of this cooperation, industries can carry out the researches that are necessary to constantly increase their range of product, produce high-quality products, and decrease production costs. University-industry cooperation will allow the practice, especially in engineering education in universities. This mutual cooperation would accelerate the scientific, technologic, and economic development of the countries (Filik-Başaran and Kurban, 2006: 1). This would, consequently, facilitate the development of the countries by providing what is expected from the university-industry cooperation.

4. Reasons for University-Industry Cooperation

A country cannot be called developed unless the knowledge created in universities is transferred to the industry and it reflects to the production and society. From this aspect, university should rapidly eliminate the lack of knowledge production within the process of university-industry cooperation and the industry should contribute to the participation of professors and academicians of universities in the practice. Universities should open their laboratory facilities to the use by industry and, in conclusion, better outcomes for the country could be achieved by these parties via the incentives from government or international organizations' support.

Industry has some expectations from the universities. These expectations can be listed as follows (Alemdaroğlu, 1999: 4);

- **Benefiting the Qualified Human Force:** through the University-Industry Cooperation, industrial companies can employ the qualified human force equipped with knowledge and technology. Thanks to this cooperation, the business world would also be able to train the human force, which it needs, within daily practice.
- **Research and Development:** through the University-Industry Cooperation, universities might fulfill the research and development function of the industry and help them increase their productivity and revenues by conducting the researches requested by the industry.
- **Market Research:** Universities can offer objective assistance in any market, price, and advertisement research in order to determine the competitive power of the business world, develop products, and find potential markets.
- **Education:** In order to allow them to keep up with the current conditions, improve their knowledge and experiences, and adapt with technological advancements, the current personnel and managers of companies and business world should be given refresher training and informed about new and modern administration methods.

The expectations of universities from the industry can be listed as follows (Alemdaroğlu, 1999:5);

- **Creating Technology via Research Funds:** Research funds can be used in creating the technology and knowledge that the industry needs. Thus, university-industry cooperation can be very useful for maximizing the production of technology and knowledge.
- **Effective Use of Laboratories:** In case of a request from the industry, the laboratories of universities would be utilized more effectively; besides producing technology and knowledge, they could also contribute to circulating capital, as well as creating revenue.
- **Establishing Information Banks and Technology Centers:** University-Industry Cooperation would be beneficial in establishing information banks and technology analysis centers.
- **Financial and In-Kind Contributions:** Training and research activities are very expensive and it is known that states have a very insufficient capacity

for establishing the physical conditions required for quality training. For this reason, universities have to call for some resources other than the state. So, in many foreign countries, universities have sponsors consisting of successful managers and businesspeople from the industrial and business life. These contributions might be financial such as scholarships, donations, and research project funds, as well as in-kind such as allocation, construction, and restoration of lands and buildings or allocation of instruments such as furniture, equipment, books, etc.

- **Modifying the Production Information and Techniques:** through the University-Industry Cooperation, universities will be able to implement and test the information they have created. Hence, it would be possible to put the knowledge into practice and offer benefits to both industry and society.

5. Benefits of University-Industry Cooperation

There are various factors playing role in university-industry cooperation and various benefits that this cooperation might offer. Some of them are summarized below (Baktır and Alkışlar, 1998).

Cooperation: R&D is an operation requiring high amount of money, as well as labor. Rather than universities and companies spending money separately, they can combine their powers and conduct operations that can be translated into technology production. Thus, national resources would be utilized productively and efficiently.

Shared Benefit: Revenue and business potential can be created by putting the information, which has been obtained via university-industry cooperation, into practice (product).

Professional Satisfaction: University-industry cooperation, which necessitates and even forces the individuals working in universities and industry to continuously improve themselves, would increase the professional satisfaction. This sense of satisfaction plays an important role in reducing the brain drain.

International Competition: Receiving support from government would be easier for the university-industry cooperations established in order to carry our projects in technological fields that are critical for the country. Similarly, through university-industry cooperation, universities would be provided with fund and industries would be provided with human force through pre-competition

research studies established within the bodies of European Union and NATO (Cost, Euclid, Eureka² etc.). University-industry cooperation would increase the chance of participating in such activities. Participation in international technology development activities would be very advantageous for the country to follow the current advancements and to put them into practice (product).

Ease in Innovation Processes: The new methods used in university-industry cooperation research programs and the instruments developed during this process offer ease in other innovation processes. For the items listed here, especially the cooperations with university departments conducting scientific researches were taken as basis (Baktır and Alkışlar, 1998).

Increasing Competitive Power: Science-based and technology-intensive industry gradually develops and, in other words, science and technology become a driving force (a production factor) for production. Companies participating in UIC can dominate the technology via this cooperation. Thus, the competitive power of those companies increases and they can become capable of gain a share from the international market.

Effective Communication: This cooperation allows industrial companies to closely keep up with the world of science and technology and to be informed about the strategic advancements in their field.

Fund Revenues: It allows universities to enter into the new technology fields that the industry necessitates and funds are created.

Improvement of Education: The experience that universities gain through this cooperation allows the modification of curricula and course contents in harmony with national needs. In this parallel, the students educated through this cooperation will be able to adapt to the industry more rapidly.

Problem-solving: University-industry cooperation enables academicians to collect knowledge about industrial research approaches, industrial interest, problems in industry, and analysis methods.

² COST was founded in order to coordinate the nationally supported researches around Europe and to support the joint studies of European scientists.

EUCLID was founded in order to provide research and consultation in Europe and in international environment.

EUREKA was founded as an international cooperation platform aiming to support the projects supporting the development of market-oriented products and processes that can be commercialized in a short time.

Practical Improvement: Especially the practical experience of academicians working in applied sciences such as engineering will increase via this cooperation. Similarly, this cooperation will strengthen the scientific knowledgebase of engineers.

6. Conclusion

Elimination of the inequality arising from the concentration of industrialization in specific places and ensuring a fair distribution of welfare within a country by industrializing the disadvantaged regions can be possible only via regional development. Effective regional development can be achieved only as a result or through the establishment of the local development. The development should be sustainable; it should be achieved without preventing the next generations from meeting their needs.

Development can be achieved via technology development, innovation, and research and development. Technology development is an important instrument for innovation industry and informatic companies to gain competitive advantage in national and international market in order for countries to achieve sustainable development. Nowadays, technology is based on technological innovations and advancements rather than natural resources and cheap labor. Technological innovation and consequent technological advancement are necessary in order to catch up with the developed countries and to achieve social wealth. Industrial companies play a leading role in this process. Besides that, the government having the power and capacity to influence the factors determining the economic growth has a regulatory and motivating role in this subject.

Moreover, it is necessary to pay importance to research and development activities in order to gain economic strength and to establish industrial companies that can provide high-quality products with high added-value, which are technologically superior. From this aspect, the knowledge created in universities should be transferred to the industry as soon as possible and an effective university-industry cooperation should be established. In order for our country to have an important place in information society, to have a competitive power in global economy, and to achieve development, the necessary importance and support should be given to the technoparks, where the effective university-industry cooperation is achieved. Furthermore, necessary activities should be conducted for the companies in technoparks to benefit the opportunities at the maximum level.

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CHAPTER XXXIII

THE EUROPEAN UNION AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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1. Introduction

The European Union (EU) of which intellectual bases were quite old from its foundation and roots were laid with the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) established after the World War II (WWII) tries to have a say in the world today as a supranational structure that includes 27 member states. Although the integration of 27 countries to the Union and to each other points to a difficult process, this structure realizing this process successfully with its economic relations in the first place is now making efforts to complete the integration process in the political sense. However, the fact that the member countries have different social, cultural, administrative, and political structures makes it very difficult to reach a common structure in line with the Union's goals, while establishing this supranational structure and ensuring integration.

In order to eliminate this difficulty and to harmonize the countries with the Union and each other in the EU membership process, some common standards and practices are tried to be brought within the framework of the titles of *Acquis Communautaire*. When looked at the situation in terms of public administration in the context of this study, the fact that the member countries have a fragmented, scattered, and heterogeneous structure in public administration draws attention together with the difference in their management tradition. The Union, which does not prefer a direct intervention in this field, has not put forward a model of public administration that it wants for member and candidate countries until now and has left this field to the discretion of the countries. While the thought that the

administrative capacities of the member countries were sufficient until the Fifth Enlargement supported this situation, the fact that the administrative capacities of these countries lagged behind the Union standards revealed the need to make a regulation, especially in the process of incorporation of the Central and Eastern European countries into the Union. In this direction, by the Copenhagen criteria (political, economic, and integration criteria) were accepted in 1993 and the Madrid Summit of 1995 demanded the administrative structure to be organized in line with these criteria, and then with the White Paper on 'European Governance' dated 2001, it was aimed to initiate a convergence process in this area, bringing general/common standards in terms of public administration.

The determination of common standards in public administration within the EU and thus achieving a convergence revealed the 'European Administrative Space', and it is seen that the concepts of 'Europeanization' and 'Governance', the principle of 'subsidiarity', the approach of 'New Public Management', and the 'SIGMA Program' supported the targeted convergence process for public administration. In this part of the book, the thoughts and practices of the EU in the field of public administration is to be analyzed in the context of administrative tradition firstly, and then the European Administrative Area and the concepts and practices that support this field are to be examined.

2. European Union Public Administration in the Framework of Administration Tradition and Partnership

Administrative systems are generally classified according to administrative cultures; that is, beliefs and values regarding the role of the state and civil servants. While the basic values of democracy and rule of law are shared in the EU member states, there are clear differences in terms of national cultures as a reflection of social and political culture and values (Thijs, Hammerschmid, and Palaric, 2017: 34).

There are three or four main public administration systems in the European geography, which are inextricably intertwined with the traditional development of the source states in terms of different political and organizational cultures and management styles. Among these public administration systems, the French and German tradition (Central Europe), which is generally described as 'Continental Europe', and the Anglo-Saxon tradition (island) come to the fore. In addition, the Scandinavian administrative tradition can be added to these traditions. In this context, the Anglo-Saxon tradition can be benefitted from the isolation

of the British island; the French tradition, from the continental tradition of Unitarianism and centralism; and the German tradition, from the tradition of continental federalism and localization, and the Scandinavian tradition combines the features of the Anglo-Saxon and the German tradition (Halasková, 2015: 47). In the context of the subject; the public administration system in the EU countries is strongly influenced by the traditions that also affect the performance of public administration, reform trends, and the direction of modernization.

Table 1: Public Administration Traditions in the Member Countries of the European Union¹

Public Administration Tradition	Countries
Anglo-Saxon Tradition	Ireland, Malta
Continental Tradition	Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Slovenia
Mediterranean-Southern European Tradition	Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain
Scandinavian Tradition	Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Sweden
Eastern European Tradition	Czechia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Slovakia, Croatia
South-East Tradition	Bulgaria, Romania

(Halasková, 2015: 47)

Although the administrative tradition greatly affects the systems of the countries, the EU administration is considered as an atypical structure in the traditional public administration approach, with the analogy of a political hybrid between national and supranational administration. In addition to this difference, two important goals are focused on in order to establish a single public administration system in the EU (Matei and Matei, 2011:172):

- Foundation, consolidation, and optimization of the functioning of the European institutions in line with the aims and mission of the EU;
- Through the national public administration reforms in the absence of an EU management model; the member states help each other in the fulfillment of

¹ In the table, the countries, other than traditions of the Anglo-Saxon, Continental Europe, and Scandinavia, are generally mentioned within the Continental European tradition, and it is thought that a classification has been made considering their geographical features.

treaty-related tasks and ensure the fulfillment of obligations arising from the treaties or from the actions of the Union's Institutions.

The EU did not have any harmonization authority in terms of public administration until the mid-1990s, as seen by the difficulty of implementing a single public administration system and the ambiguity of the situation. However, the necessity of introducing new accession criteria in the EU membership process of the Central and Eastern European countries and the necessity of having sufficient national administrative capacity to comply with the common *acquis* has been effective in the process of determining common values and principles in public administration. In this process, the EU Commission had to put forward common standards in order to measure the administrative capacities of the candidate states. The European Court of Justice clarified the specific procedures for the implementation of sectoral policies and detailed the principles of administrative procedure as well (Heidbreder, 2009: 11).

Although these studies and some constitutional provisions seem to be indirectly related to achieve this goal, there is no general, legal or constitutional regulation related to administrative procedure in the EU. Since the legislation that regulates administrative procedures is also fragmentary, the case law is of great importance in this process. Because the case law of the Union serves to fill the gaps in the proper law and to make a new law. The decisions taken within this framework are based on comprehensive rules applied to the concrete events, and the repeated application of these rules and their relationship with constitutional norms transform them into positive legal principles that are binding on national governments. It should also be noted that the Union in this transformation tries to distinguish between the common and general principles and the principles applicable only to administrative proceedings in the legal and administrative operations. The common principles are listed as *legality; impartiality; subsidiarity; proportionality; motivating decisions; legal certainty; legitimate expectations and fundamental rights*, while administrative principles are expressed as *good management; sound financial management; precision and integrity; the right to defense; stating reasons; and accessing administrative documents*. Although there are question marks about this classification, many member states implement this distinction, however the overlap between the Union's legal system and the national legal system is not fully achieved. In order to ensure this overlapping, the legal systems of the member states fill the supranational level gaps and affect the Union law, and the Union legal

system also conditions the national legal orders by shaping the organizational and functional frameworks of the member states in order to promote integration (Franchini, 2004:184-193).

In order to make these efforts feasible and to reach a common structure and administrative system, the EU tries to determine a single policy target that is “partly supranational, partly national”; it executes many methods of combining organizations and activities both vertically and horizontally. These combinations lead to what are called “common systems” and which are handled together at two levels of government as ‘supranational’ and ‘national’. The common administrative systems correspond to a collective or unifying structure in which supranational administration is involved in the national administrative activities and national administrations in the supranational activities, while also helping to reconcile complex and conflicting but interrelated interests (Cassese, 2004: 22).

It is assumed that the European administrative system rebalances existing decision-making and accountability practices, refocuses adherence to its institutional goals, changes institutional mandates and ultimately transforms the public policy on the basis of this partnership and reconciliation (Bauer and Trondal, 2015: 8). Here, “EU Public Administration” is expressed as a ‘European reality’ that refers to the synergy of European institutional development and the formation of the internal market and that represents its functioning, financial and budgetary policies, security and judicial cooperation policies, and finally the relations between the EU and national, regional, and local governments. Although this situation is quite complex, it also presents the idea of a public administration to Europe that synthesizes and externalizes the effects of different social, political, and economic mechanisms and processes (Matei and Matei, 2011:179).

In conclusion, the EU public administration gives the appearance of a synthesis of values that characterize the complex relationship between the EU administration system and the administrative system of the member states, but it does not imply a ‘fragmented administrative system’. This is an area where the authorities of EU and member states cooperate and ensure the joint application of the EU law (Torma, 2011: 150). However, with the fact that it can be very difficult to realize the objectives, practices, and results as expected in an organizational structure with 27 members; the idea that ‘the adaptations required by the European policies will be more rational if they can be realized with the changes following the “appropriateness logic” ’ is also expressed quite often. Because, the administrative traditions in this process are also exposed

to wide-ranging developments in accordance with the “logic of conformity” and the organizational scope of the European integration pressure (Knill, 1998: 6). The concept of “European Administrative Space” emerges in order to get through this painful process with less dissatisfaction and to make change and transformation more tangible. In the emergence of this concept, it is seen that the researches carried out in the European Institute of Public Administration, which was established in 1981 and whose task was to analyze the relationship between the EU institutions and the institutions of the member states in the field of public administration, the formation and adoption of the Copenhagen criteria, the acceptance of the Amsterdam Agreement, and the OECD’s SIGMA program have important roles (Torma, 2011:151).

3. European Administrative Space (EAS)

The EAS, which points to the goal of integration in Europe in terms of agenda-setting, rule-making, and co-operation of supranational, national, and sub-national governments and relevant parties in Europe (Hofmann, 2008: 670), is a harmonious synthesis of the values that are realized by the formation and implementation of EU law by the EU institutions and administrative authorities of the member states (Torma, 2011: 149). The development of EAS, which is based on the idea of administrative harmonization and convergence of traditional public administration models and traditional public administration/administrative law institutions (Koprić, 2017: 16), is evolutionary and variable, and it is consisted of a case-by-case basis in different policy areas. The phenomenon of administrative cooperation in this field also points to an ‘integrated management’ in the form of intense and often uninterrupted cooperation between national and supranational administrative actors and activities (Leskoviku, 2011: 69).

The EAS, which has a very broad and deep definition, is the administrative principles that the states must take into account as a *metaphor* with practical consequences for member states in the future. If the relevant states do not take these principles into account and do not implement them, they will not be able to fulfill the requirements of the *Acquis Communautaire* and therefore will not be able to join the Union (Torma, 2011: 149). In this process, the candidate country’s horizontal governance systems are expected to meet certain requirements that are crucial for the reliable functioning of the entire administration, including the areas of the *Acquis*. However, it poses problems for the candidate countries that the lack of applicable general EU legislation in the fields of public administration and governance, the different administrative regulations of the

member states, and the lack of a simple model to follow. Despite such setbacks; -as mentioned earlier-, a relatively broad consensus has been achieved so far on the key governance criteria that can be considered as part of the *Acquis Communautaire*, thanks to the case-law of the European Court of Justice. These criteria are grouped in the following four categories, with *the rule of law* in a prominent position (Cardona and Freibert, 2007: 52):

1. *The rule of law*; that is, the legal certainty and predictability of administrative actions and decisions, which refers to the principle of legality versus arbitrariness in public decision-making and the need to respect the legitimate expectations of the individual;
2. *Openness and transparency*, which aim at ensuring that administrative processes and results are scrutinized and coherent with predetermined rules;
3. *Accountability* of the public administration to other administrative, legislative or judicial authorities, which aim at ensuring compliance with the rule of law;
4. *Effectiveness* for the use of public resources to achieve the policy targets set in the legislation and in the implementation of the legislation.

Two different ideas are put forward for these criteria. The first is that these concepts sometimes seem to contradict each other, and the second is that they are “empty concepts” because the definition of these criteria is done in a very broad and difficult to understand way. However, national and supranational actors interact in a multi-level system thanks to the EAS, indirectly in a way that positively affects the public administrations of the member states and so it is put forward a common model in which the national governments tend to converge. As a result, an order emerges as different from national ones and not equivalent to the sum of national public administrations (Rădulea-Zamfirescu, 2011: 167).

Within the framework of this logic, the EAS provides a forum for interaction for the formulation and implementation of EU policies, and mutual learning and transfer of concepts are also carried out in this way. For example, such concepts as the principle of proportionality, public responsibility or right to information often take their place in the legal systems of the member states via the transposition of the EU law. Such concepts not only directly affect the domestic law of the member states, but also affect the policy areas of other member states. Moreover, the great differences in the legal systems, administrative traditions,

and socio-cultural conditions of the member states require the participation of the member states from the first stage of planning a joint action to the final stage of implementation. So, it is observed a movement towards a compulsory integrated administration in all policy areas related to the EU (Hofmann, 2008: 669).

The main features of EAS, which aims to be a common and standard managerial system, are listed as follows (Torma, 2011: 152):

- Political stability, and implementation of the democratic rule of law,
- Sustainable and environmentally friendly economic development based on the principle of solidarity,
- The decreasing of the role of national parliaments and the increasing of the role of national administrations,
- Maintaining and operating a reliable, transparent, and democratic administration,
- The application of the principles of “Europe” and “good governance” throughout the EU (at the EU, the member states, the local government level),
- The harmonization of judicial systems or the ensuring of such rules and institutions that guarantee the application of the EU law (reliability and predictability, openness and transparency, accountability, effectiveness and efficiency),
- Independent and fair procedure in the judicial system,
- Maintaining a public sector that fulfills its mission legally, effectively, and with citizen satisfaction,
- Armed forces and law enforcement agencies that are under civilian control and operate in a politically neutral and legal framework,
- Application of the principles of decentralization, subsidiarity, and unity,
- A stable, competent, highly qualified, and impartial public service (public officials).

As can be seen from its characteristics; it is thought that there is not yet a widespread acceptance about the meaning, mechanisms, and importance of the EAS, despite the developments in research on EAS that can be understood as the process of institutionalization of shared administrative capacity (Bauer and Trondal, 2015: 10, 18). Because the empirical studies reveal that the EU member states exhibit a continuity to maintain the differences in their national systems.

However, it should be noted that the national systems are indeed affected by the European integration, but the desired result cannot be fully achieved because there is no real EU-type public administration to replace the national models. Therefore, the increase in the convergence of national systems does not indicate the existence of the EU administrative space (EAS); solely, it is claimed that the idea of “unity in diversity” is tried to be implemented by strengthening the interdependence and the integrated functioning of various organs throughout the system. As a result, the EAS can also be defined as “the space where the increasingly integrated administrations jointly use the powers that are transferred to the EU in a common sovereignty system” (Heidbreder, 2009: 5).

The EAS is also of particular importance for the European citizens and all other people who come to the European geography. This is because the predictable, legal, and reliable functioning of public authorities at all levels of government is needed. These expectations stabilized after a long process are a normative framework of social institutions and lead to stabilization of managerial behavior. The recurrent administrative models, which have been stabilized on the basis of permanent citizen expectations, are also at the center of the cultural approach to the European administrative convergence. Such a development encourages the European citizens to demand and expect more in a much more quickly manner, and thus lends great strength and durability to the concept of the EAS (Koprić, 2017: 2-4).

Although there are differences of opinion on the existence or continuity of this field, we encounter an intellectual tendency to support this field and process by the Europeanization, subsidiarity, governance, New Public Management, and the SIGMA Program, when we look at the subject from its existence.

3.1. Europeanization

Europeanization, as a controversial concept, is used in different ways to describe various processes of change, and this causes a definite and fixed definition of the concept. Moreover, it is even stated that Europeanization, said to compare the dynamics of Europe with the dynamics of other governance systems, is not a unique process (Olsen, 2002: 921). Despite this negative introduction to the concept; unlike the idea of the European integration, which only aims at a change and a united political society at the EU level, the concept is described as the development of governance institutions at the European level (with or without the EU membership) (Buller and Gamble, 2002: 11, 14), as there are many definitions of Europeanization. These are; the increased

powers and competencies of the EU-level actors and institutions; the influence of supranational authority on domestic politics; the linkage and transmission mechanisms between the European states -whether or not they are EU-oriented-; the distinctive European forms of governance exported outside the European borders; the advocacy and support of national choices, policies, and ideas at the European level; a mutual exchange process connecting the national and European levels and capturing its “interlocking” (Clark and Jones, 2009: 198, Buller and Gamble, 2002). The most well-known definition of Europeanization is “*processes of (a) construction (b) diffusion and (c) institutionalization of formal and informal rules, procedures, policy paradigms, styles, ‘ways of doing things’, and shared beliefs and norms which are first defined and consolidated in the making of EU public policy and politics and then incorporated in the logic of domestic discourse, identities, political structures and public policies*” (Saurugger and Radaelli, 2008: 213).

Based on these definitions; the question arises whether *Europeanization*, which aims for a common administrative system, -there is no a clear answer-, will it make national governments similar to each other or will it form a common institutional model by constituting a kind of ‘artificial EU prototype’, or not (Harmsen, 1999: 82). In addition to the hesitations about its applicability; this question can be answered that the “European Administrative Space” is used to describe the increasing convergence of administrations and administrative practices at the EU level and in the administrations of the member states to a ‘common European model’ and the Europeanization of the administrative structures of the member states (Hofmann, 2008: 662).

In the context of the subject; the Europeanization of public administration is based on a more traditional approach to investigating administrative similarities between the countries with a fairly neutral attitude towards actors, the institutions, and the legal instruments as drivers of convergence. In this process when focuses on results, there is a bottom-up convergence pressure that stems from the common expectations of European citizens as well as top-down Europeanization (Koprić, 2017: 2-4). Although the general tendency is to build common institutions and policies to enable the emergence of a European administration in the integration process within the framework of the idea of Europeanization from the bottom up, it is stated that this purpose or definition is somewhat ‘shallow’. And more specifically; Europeanization is thought to involve “a series of processes in when the political, social, and economic dynamics of the European Union become part of the logic of local discourses, identities, political structures, and public policies” (Irongelle, 2003: 210).

3.2. Principle of Subsidiarity

“Subsidiarity”, which has its intellectual roots in 20th century Catholic philosophy² and is seen by some groups as part of a call to appreciate the “Christian spirit” of Europe (Barber, 2005: 309), is a governance principle designed for giving a meaning to the divisions of power and responsibility between the central government and the constituent states in a federal system. At the EU level, it has been a principle that is used in the Maastricht Treaty of 1992 to show that the EU policies do not mean intervention in the internal (political) order of the member states. According to this principle; the Union is allowed to act in this area if the objectives of the Union cannot be reached sufficiently with the actions of the member states and if the goal can be reached more effectively and efficiently with the actions of the Union. In other words; by this principle, the first word is given to the local and national units as the closest units to the citizen (Inman and Rubinfeld, 1998), an efficiency condition is sought for the distribution of authority. If the central unit (EU) delivers the activity, it is required to present the desired results better than the sub-units (Føllesdal, 1998: 193).

More specifically, the principle of subsidiarity is linked to the idea of decentralization, regionalism, and federalism; it emphasizes the importance of each lower level and its dominance over the upper management levels; protects not only the lower management levels but also the private sphere in the relations of individuals and various social actors (businesses, non-sector organizations, etc.) with the state, and provides a room for action to the EU in cases where the actions of the countries are insufficient by protecting the national authorities against the effects of the EU (Koprić, 2017: 7). This principle, intertwined with the principles of *delegation* and *proportionality*³, seems to limit the EU’s

2 In the papal Encyclopedia Quadragesimo Anno, which was presented by Pope Pius XI in 1931, the principle of subsidiarity was defined as follows: “*smaller social units... not be deprived of the possibility and the means for realizing that of which they are capable and larger units... restrict their activities to spheres which surpass the powers and abilities of the smaller units.*” (Bermann, 1994: 339).

For the differences between the Catholic faith and the principle of subsidiarity as an EU principle, see: Barber, N., W. (2005). “The Limited Modesty Of Subsidiarity. *European Law Journal*, 11(3), 308-325.

3 The principle of *delegation of powers* in the Maastricht Treaty was determined as “*The Union acts within the limits of the powers conferred on it by the Member States in order to achieve the objectives set out in the Treaties. The powers not granted to the Union in the Treaties remain with the Member States.*” (Article 52), the principle of *proportionality* is determined as “*The content and form of the Union action cannot exceed what is necessary to achieve the objectives of the Treaties*” (Article 54) (<https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/treaty/teu/sign>).

decision-making powers at first glance. However, when we look at the principle from another perspective, it is seen to be important that the EU's competence to act and the appropriateness/rationality of such an action are determined as it democratically legitimizes the Union's actions (reducing the democracy gap) and strengthens the hand of national parliaments lost their power in the Europeanization process (Petrić, 2017: 288-295).

For the principle of subsidiarity emerging as a result of a kind of 'national incompetence test' and 'supranational effectiveness test' in the advisory processes and the motivational and informative duties that EU institutions must comply with when proposing and adopting EU legislation; it is used the expression of 'public cry', which is tired of giving too much power and authority to supranational authorities (Fabbrini, 2016: 7, 10). On the other hand, the EU Commission emphasizes that it is very difficult to evaluate the concrete effect of the principle of subsidiarity on Union action and likens this principle to a 'mood'. Although the Committee of Regions acts as the 'protector of the principle of subsidiarity' at the Union level, the Commission tries to turn this uncertainty, inherent in the principle of subsidiarity, in its favor (Van Hecke, 2003: 61, 69).

The EU allows public administration to be managed by national authorities, provided that the objectives set by the Union are achieved based on all these views. Namely, since the EU does not have a European administrative law or a clear public administration system belonging to itself, it is thought to be based on national public administrations that operate according to the principle of subsidiarity. The most important point here is the fact that the ability of the member states to transpose the EU policies and legislation in their own countries can only be realized with an effective public administration. As a result; the right of member states to organize their public administrations as they see fit is not restricted by the EU, provided that they meet the "result obligation" (Georgescu, 2009: 106).

3.3. EU Governance

The EU governance, thought to have no generally accepted definition, expresses the unity of different governance models brought together within the framework of the search for solutions to the crises faced by the EU, but also intertwined, rather than a unique model (Elicin, 2011: 48). However, the concept of (good) governance in the EU context came to the fore with its publication the EU White Paper by the Commission on 'European Governance' (European Commission,

2001) which promotes the principles of openness, participation, accountability, efficiency, and consistency, while also recommending the opening of the policy-making process to involve more individuals and institutions to shape and implement the EU policy. The concept of governance (Beate and Berthold, 2006: 29), which is expected to be effective in a wide area to cover all policy areas in the EU, and these principles are used as a criterion for the evaluation of administrative functioning in the EU member and candidate states and the EU bureaucracy. The principle of subsidiarity, as another concept that appears in the administrative field, strongly supports the governance within the EU (Koprić, 2017: 7).

‘European governance’ is described as “the rules, processes, and behaviors that affect the way powers are exercised at the European level, particularly in terms of openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness, and consistency”. The changes proposed by the Commission regarding the applicability of the concept are grouped into four categories. These are improving participation in the shaping and implementation of the EU policy; developing the quality and implementation of the EU policies; the role of the European governance and the Union in the world; and a more powerful link between the role of institutions (European Commission, 2001:5, 9). In the first category; one of the first actions is to make clearer the way the Union works, and this situation seems directly related to the ‘co-decision procedure’. The ordinary legislative procedure, known as the co-decision procedure, is seen as an “innovation laboratory” in the field of administrative convergence through the mechanisms put into practice over time (Ciora, 2011: 204,206). In addition, the negativities experienced in the decision-making process in connection with governance and this concept are tried to be eliminated with the ‘Open Collaboration Method’. This method, which aims to initiate a process of iterative mutual learning on the basis of various national experiences encountered in the reform process, promotes convergence by avoiding rigid regulatory situations, and is served as the ‘third way’ in EU governance, aims to share experiences and promote the dissemination of best practices rather than forming a single framework (Eberlein and Kerwer, 2002: 2).

In order to support the administration process in this direction, the European Commission and the European Parliament also consult and even cooperate with special groups and organizations that will provide information and expertise (for itself). Additionally, the committees of national officials and external experts work on practical compromise solutions to facilitate the

transfer and harmonization at national and subnational levels. In this process, some practices are carried out based on ‘soft law’, which is not legally binding and therefore has no legal sanction, through new governance methods; talks/negotiations are held at different decision-making levels between the public and private sectors; all relevant actors are included in the decision-making process and finally, effective policy selection is left to the member states in the context of the principle of subsidiarity (Beate and Berthold, 2006: 34-36). However, it is also met with opposite opinions, while accepted that all institutions at the EU level are strengthened with new governance methods (with this power, the EU can intervene more in areas at the center of national identity such as money, borders, and security), and national governments are weakened in terms of democracy and legitimacy. The rise of anti-EU populist extremism as well as the protests in the streets and at the ballot boxes in the recent period are considered as signs of dissatisfaction with this situation (Schmidt, 2018: 1555).

3.4. *New Public Management*

The classical (Weberian style) public administration paradigm in the late 1970s was begun to be criticized because of the financial crises, the turmoil of inflexible practices, and the public questioning of the old-style public administration, and so an ‘endless reform wave’ emerged. In this process, the logic of ‘business’ in public administration rose and such concepts as efficiency, result- and customer-orientation, privatization, public-private cooperation, decentralization, result-oriented budgeting, and value for money became the main topics in the administrative reforms of the public sector. The name of this reform wave was called ‘*New Public Management*’ (NPM) in the axis of Anglo-American discourse. When looked at the subject from the perspective of the EU; the question of how NPM is implemented in different administrative cultures comes to mind. That is; the heterogeneous set of management techniques and approaches included in NPM, and also the efficient, economic, and effective practices rather than its implementation have reduced the differences as much as possible (Homburg, Pollitt, and Van Thiel, 2007:1). In addition, the thought that the concept of governance is seen as combining the understanding of NPM and participatory democracy as well as the idea that the governance and the post-NPM period have passed (Elinç, 2011: 49) shows that the practices at the EU level are intertwined.

Although reducing costs and increasing efficiency in a general meaning is the most important goal of NPM reforms in Europe (Hammerschmid et al.,

2019: 412), the implementations regarding NPM have been realized at different times, speeds, and scopes in the EU member states. Namely, while the NPM practices are more common in the countries where are subject to the Anglo-Saxon management tradition, the countries where are subject to the Continental European management tradition have been cautious against change and progress has been taken slowly. In fact, the OECD, carrying out important studies on the changes that can be experienced in public administration and considered at the EU level, has also approached NPM critically (Demir, 2018).

3.5. *SIGMA Program*

The EAS, which owes its emergence and change to SIGMA (*Support for Improvement in Governance and Management*) is used as a tool to evaluate the reforms of public administrations in the Central and Eastern Europe, was actually formed due to the need to monitoring and guiding the reforms of the administrations of the EU candidate states (Rădulea-Zamfirescu, 2011: 167). SIGMA, on the other hand, was first launched in 1992 to support the public administration reforms of the Central and Eastern European countries under the framework of *the Phare* (Poland and Hungary: Assistance for Restructuring their Economies) *Program* of the OECD and the European Commission. The SIGMA support, whose main task is to help these countries expand their management capacity and implement good governance, was later extended to the other countries that joined the EU in 2004 and 2007. Within the framework of SIGMA, the EU and OECD jointly formulated several different recommendations to support these states prepare to join the EU and implement the EU law, properly. While one of the recommendations is about the preparation of national administrations for the EAS, the second is about the principles of the European administrations. Under the framework of the SIGMA Program, three principals were determined in relation to public administrations (Torma, 2011:151):

- 1) The EU institutions cannot be substituted for the national institutions, but they are obliged to cooperate.
- 2) The national administrations are responsible for the implementation and enforcement of the EU decisions.
- 3) The national governments must operate in a reliable, transparent, and democratic manner. Although the EU has no direct authority over the administrations of the member states, it has a strong influence over them.

The wording of a consequence obligation best describes it. The national government should be reliable, transparent, and democratic.

It is the fact that; public administration is seen as an internal matter of the EU member states, but national public administrations have to implement the EU directives and regulations in a way that ensures that the European citizens can benefit from the rights granted to them by the EU Treaties, regardless of the country in where they live. In this context, the European Commission, via the SIGMA Program, wants to achieve the compliance of public administration with the general EU standards in the EU candidate countries in the Central and Eastern Europe. The candidate countries, in the membership process (Cardona and Freibert, 2007: 51);

- have to have an administrative system that can transfer and apply the *Acquis Communautaire* in a way that achieves the determined results;
- have to meet the criteria for the EU membership as adopted by the European Council (namely; the so-called Copenhagen and Madrid criteria);
- have to ensure that their progress towards the EU membership is measured in terms of their “administrative and judicial capacity to implement the *Acquis Communautaire*”.

The EAS principles, which include technical and managerial competencies within the framework of accountability mechanisms and described within the scope of the SIGMA Program, define the basic regulations, processes, and values of a democratic and efficient public service and provide some foundations for the development of public administration. Moreover, it provides a reliable benchmark for administrative reforms and shows how much a country can integrate the *Acquis Communautaire* into its national system (Archmann and Giffart, 2011: 63).

Although there are different administrative practices in the context of administrative traditions, the common features that should be in the public administration systems are listed as follows in the SIGMA Report No. 23 named “Preparing Public Administrations for the EAS” (Fournier, 1998:127):

I. Central Management and Decision Making

- A constitution guaranteeing separation of powers, rule of law, and right of citizens to change the (political) power;

- To give the Prime Minister sufficient authority to assume the political leadership of the country, which ensures effective inter-ministerial coordination and deals with the budget;
- Constituting the laws and regulations; ensuring that they are legally and technically appropriate; necessary procedures to ensure a coordinated policy formulation and implementation process, including enabling assessment of its financial, economic and social impacts;
- Freeing ministers and policy-making personnel from day-to-day practice, and instead a ministerial organization focused on overseeing the design and implementation of policies;
- The public sector, which is given certain duties within a clearly defined legal framework, has managerial independence in the fields in which it operates;

II. Relationships Between Citizens and Economic Actors with the Regional Government

- Decentralization implemented within the framework of various responsibilities and powers at one or more levels depending on the countries;
- Interaction between regional representations of the central administration and local/regional administrations to ensure the effective implementation of public policies throughout the country;
- Equality in access to public services, verification of decisions and respect for time limitations, implementation of legal processes where all parties have the right to report and the opportunity to be heard, and rectification and appeal processes, etc., which are sometimes determined within the framework of legal administrative procedure and rules governing relations between citizens and the state, including responsibilities;
- Rules ensuring continuous communication between the government and components, including non-governmental organizations and trade unions;

III. Action and Control Tools

- A professional civil service governed by law under the framework of recruitment/promotion based on human resource management policies (including merit, skills, motivation, stable workforce) that faithfully implements government policy;

- A set of rules and ethical guidelines that govern the accountability of public institutions and the ethical behavior of public officials, guaranteeing the reliability of managerial actions;
- Budget and tax authorities that ensure the correct management and efficient spending of public resources by collecting taxes;
- Internal and external institutions responsible for overseeing administrative decisions which are respected by civil servants and provide protection against corruption;
- A court system, accessible to citizens and businesses, with procedures for prompt and final dispute resolution.

Looking at these titles; we see that it is aimed to bring countries closer together in political, administrative, and legal terms, so that such concepts like democracy, rule of law and participation, which are generally accepted values, will be fully embedded in the systems.

4. Conclusion

The EU, which added 27 countries to its body with six enlargement waves, has dealt with the countries that can adapt to the Union structure relatively more easily in terms of economic, social, cultural, political, and administrative aspects until the Fifth Enlargement. It has succeeded in solving various problems in these countries by the arrangements in various agreements and summit decisions accepted in the deepening process following the enlargement process. However, the decision to incorporate the states emerging after the collapse of the USSR into its structure in a short time for strategic reasons has required new arrangements within the Union. Such applications as the obligation to meet the Copenhagen Criteria, the progress reports prepared for each country, and the Accession Partnership Document, which are presented as a prerequisite for joining the Union, have been included in the process with the Fifth Enlargement, and the process has become more bureaucratic if desired to join the Union. The fact that these participating countries are far from the values of the Union, that their administrative capacities are not sufficient for the Union, and that they need serious support in economic terms, have given birth to the rules that come before us under the name of the 'acquis titles' and actually make a country completely compatible with the EU.

When we look at the equivalent of these rules that appear in every field in the public administration, it is observed that the Union tries to make

regulations within the framework of common standards and principles rather than presenting a definite model proposal in this field. Because these 27 member countries are in different classes in terms of administrative tradition, an issue that a state considers 'sacred' and tries to strictly abide is carried out in another state with a more flexible application. In addition to the distinction between administration and management that points to an important difference in public administration; the historical sensitivities, the position of the state, and the fact how citizens approach the administration or the concepts of participation, civil society, local democracy, etc., which are the important concepts of recent times, also significantly differentiates the ideas and practices related to public administration. Besides these reasons, the thought that the EU can replace the nation-state, so that the people can no longer have a voice, and that this may cause a democracy deficit have necessitated the EU to withdraw to some extent. The EU tries to maintain the process in the context of different concepts, practices, standards, and principles in order not to cause a sense of direct intervention in public administration. With the European Administrative Space, emerged within the framework of this logic, it is aimed to reach an effective and efficient structure in public administration with such principles as openness, transparency, accountability, and participation. In order to achieve this goal, it uses the principle of subsidiarity, which it limits itself and leaves the priority to the member states, includes the concept of governance and its different types into the system, which it tries to include all the actors affected by the process in the administration, into the process, and incorporates some elements of the NPM, which has a great impact almost all over the world due to its liberal policies, and it does it by using the SIGMA Program tool and on the basis of intellectual Europeanization.

As a result, the idea of reaching the European Administrative Space, which serves the idea of convergence in public administration, or the success of this area, unfortunately, is subject to discussions as an area where the developments are experienced in order to achieve a more efficient and effective structure, besides the discretion of the countries.

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CHAPTER XXXIV

WORLD BANK, INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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INTRODUCTION

The financial system, which ensures that those who supply and demand funds meet within the legal limits and under the institutional structure, must operate in a stable manner. With the acceleration of the globalization process, it has led to some developments that triggered the crises by causing the deterioration of some indicators and caused by various factors. With the disappearance of the economic borders between countries, it has caused the economic crisis or bottleneck in any part of the world to spread to other countries. In this way, global crises spread rapidly. In previous crises, while the crisis remained in the wise, with globalization, crises that spread rapidly as a chain began to occur. Therefore, instability/crisis in any part of the world infects global markets in a short time. In this case, it causes a decrease in the welfare of people all over the world. After the consecutive crises in the 1990s, there was a need to produce solution mechanisms based on international cooperation and the IMF was established for this purpose.

II. With the effect of World War II, there was a serious confusion in international financial markets and economic relations, the economies of European countries suffered serious damage, their production power weakened and investments decreased (Öztürk, 2010: 97).

Experienced II. After World War II, international organizations such as the IMF, World Bank, GATT, and OECD were established under the auspices of the USA. These international organizations are also the organizations created by the phenomenon of globalization. Almost all of these organizations were

established in the second half of the 1940s. These organizations caused a new wave of globalization in the 1950s and 1960s (Aktan & Şen, 1999:10).

II. After the World War II, cooperation between countries, which was rarely seen before, started to increase after the war and countries needed a system that would liberalize international trade and regulate financial flows in order to eliminate the difficulties that occurred between the two wars.(Seyidoğlu, 2003: 11).

There are 189 countries that are members of the IMF. The primary purpose of this organization, which was activated in 1947, is to follow the global financial order, inspect issues such as the stock market exchange and provide the necessary financial support to the countries in need. The IMF provides funds by borrowing from countries with financial difficulties. The IMF lends to member states with financial difficulties and monitors the global economy. The aim of the IMF is to ensure international economic stability. In addition, the IMF encourages international monetary cooperation. In this way, it also supports the realization of inter-country trade

WORLD BANK

The World Bank Group is a global partnership made up of 189 member countries, employing staff from more than 170 countries and offices in more than 130 locations. It works for the development of sustainable solutions that aim to reduce the existing poverty problem in developing countries, increase the level of welfare and. More than 12,000 development projects have been funded through the World Bank since 1947 through interest-free loans, conventional loans and grants (<https://www.worldbank.org/en/what-we-do>,21.09.2022), (<https://www.worldbank.org/en/who-we-are>,21.09.2022).

The World Bank was established following the Second World War with the specific purpose of transferring investments from rich nations to poor nations. According to the agreement accepted by the Founding Members of the World Bank and called the “Articles of Agreement”, the aims of the World Bank were briefly as follows (Eğilmez, 1997: 65):

- Encouragement of productive capital investments and the development of resource and productive opportunities of the countries in the effort of development in order to help the restructuring and development purposes of the member countries in order to eliminate the damages they have suffered due to the war.

- Giving guarantees to private investments or supporting them with loans, and providing support with their own resources in cases where private investments are insufficient.
- To support the development of international trade and the maintenance of the stability of the balance of payments of the countries by encouraging international investments for development purposes.
- To ensure that the loans obtained from different channels are used in more efficient and urgent projects by reorganizing or giving guarantees.
- To manage international investments in order to provide the most suitable conditions during the transition from the war period to the peace period.



Kaynak: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/archive/history>, (21.09.2022).

In the figure above, the stages that the World Bank went through in its historical processes are presented.

2030 targets are listed on the official website of the World Bank with two items (World Bank):

- End extreme poverty by reducing the proportion of people earning less than \$1.9 a day by no more than 3%.
- To promote common welfare by increasing the incomes of the lower-class people by 40% for each country.

INTERNATIONAL MONEY FUND (IMF)

In the post-World War II period, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) was established to eliminate the factors that hinder the development of international trade and to ensure that financial transactions in this field are carried out effectively. In the First Article of the Founding Agreement, which explains the aims of the Fund; It is stated that the general resources of the IMF will be temporarily presented to the countries in question in order to provide confidence in the member countries, thus providing the countries with the opportunity to resolve their balance of payments problems without resorting to measures that will adversely affect national or international welfare (IMF, 2011: 2).

The IMF aims to enable international trade to be in harmony and thus expand the employment volume, increase real income and contribute to the increase of productive resources. The IMF's monetary function is intended to support achieving these goals. Monetary mission is to prevent the use of associates in increasing exports of member states by stabbing in exchange rates and eliminate the rising exchange restrictions before the development of international trade. Therefore, stability and convertibleness in the Bretton Woods system constitute two main principles. In order for the member states to make the value of their national currencies stable and to transfer to convertibilization, the fund members provided the necessary exchange to obtain the necessary foreign exchange and achieve balance in the balance sheet by providing a help of assistance under the name of "right to withdraw".

After the First and Second World Wars, rapid changes took place in the international monetary system. The gold coin standard, which had been in practice for a century, collapsed in 1913. Instead, the Bretton Woods Monetary System was introduced in 1944. In the early 1970s, the Bretton Woods system was replaced by the floating exchange rate system. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) was established in 1947 with the aim of ensuring the oversight of the international monetary system.

It can be stated that the International Monetary Fund is designed to support countries that are experiencing temporary balance of payments problems so that they do not experience any decrease in their import levels. Countries experiencing external balance problems prefer to limit the level of their imports. With this application, they try to solve foreign trade deficits, that is, current account balance problems. However, the fact that one or a few countries restrict imports in this way causes similar practices to be put into effect in other countries, causing a contraction in the world trade volume. This development reduces

international welfare. In that case, if support is provided to such countries, which are experiencing balance of payments problems, through a monetary fund to be established, a contraction in world trade and therefore a decline in international welfare will be prevented.

The main purpose of the IMF is to increase international prosperity by eliminating regulations that may prevent the increase of international trade and cooperation. For this purpose, the Fund will provide the necessary financial support to the member countries facing balance of payments deficits and prevent the members from resorting to measures that will cause them to restrict their trade. IMF; Unlike the loans provided by other financial institutions, it provides opportunities that can be described as low-interest funds or conveniences that are not in the nature of a loan (Karluk, 1996: 30).

In the first article of the IMF contract, the objectives are listed under 6 headings (Çomu, 2009: 5):

- Ensuring cooperation in international monetary matters,
- Contributing to the development and balanced growth of international trade, ensuring that the real income remains at a high level and helping to increase the productive resources of the member countries as the first objective of the economic policies,
- To ensure the stability of the exchange rate, to protect the exchange rate regulations between the member countries and to prevent competitive depreciation in the exchange rate,
- To correct the instability in the balance of payments with measures that will not harm the world economy and welfare level,
- Reducing the duration and severity of the spread of inequality in the balance of payments of the member states.

Before the 1970s, the IMF tried to solve the economic problems of the developing countries, while after the 1970s it tried to solve the economic problems of the developed countries and took on new roles with the collapse of the socialist regimes after the 1980s (Dayar et al., 2009: 40).

The policies that the IMF wants to be followed are listed below in line with the Washington Consensus (Pettinger, 2012):

- Reducing Government Debt,
- High taxes and low expenditures,

- High interest rates to keep the currency stable,
- Bankruptcy of companies in distress,
- Structural adjustments,
- Privatization, deregulation reducing corruption and bureaucracy

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

There are different definitions in the literature on public administration. Public administration in general; Providing service to the public is defined as the execution of public activities by public officials. Organization of processes, transactions and policies. It is a process of transforming it into activity through management. In this context, it can be stated that business management includes public administration. However, efficiency is aimed in business management and there is pressure to reach the result (Hughes, 1998: 5-6).

It was only in the last century that the problems of organization and management, which are as old as the history of humanity, were handled with a scientific approach. However, in the years before management was considered as a science, the experiences of the past, the views of managers and thinkers gained many principles by shedding light on today's practices (Tekin, 2012: 639).

The establishment of a public service primarily requires the action of a public authority, that is, the will of a public organization. Apart from this, there is no legally valid public service. In addition, a public service cannot be established by the will of any private person or institution (Karahanoğulları, 2004:311).

The economic and political developments in the 1980s has brought the industry to the forefront among the most discussed topics. The developments in this field in Western countries have been evaluated in various ways, especially in the academic field. The economic crisis of the 1970s, the different ideological perceptions of governments in social and economic life, the collapse of the post-war consensus views on Keynesian economic management and the idea of the universal welfare state, the increase in the demands for social services from the welfare state, and the frequent financial crises as a result, the need to develop the economy. researching the most appropriate institutions and techniques, and efforts to increase efficiency and productivity in cumbersome, bureaucratic and compelling administrative structures were among the most discussed topics in this period (Ömürgönülşen, 1997:517).

Public interest is not a concept that emerges spontaneously, and there are some difficulties in its definition. It is very difficult to tell from an activity alone whether it is in the public interest or not. In fact, public interest and private benefit do not always conflict (Gözler, 2019b:261).

From the 1980s to the beginning of the 2000s, the New Public Management model dominated public administration in the transformation of public administration. The basis of the New Public Management model is differentiation, promotion and competition. It is aimed to increase the efficiency and productivity of public institutions through practices such as obtaining measurable results, delegation of authority, privatization, deregulation, performance and competition. However, it is seen that coordination, democracy problems and digital developments are not given importance. By the beginning of the 2000s, it is seen that bureaucracy models with digital technologies in public administration have become applicable. In this new era, it can be stated that paper and telephone-based systems are completely based on digitization (Demirkıran, 2022: 30).

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CHAPTER XXXV

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

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1. Introduction

In the globalizing world, the foreign policy making process is progressing towards a new structuring that goes beyond the classical diplomacy activities. In this process, public opinion and legitimacy are dynamics that states must consider. In the age we live in, the image has surpassed the truth. How states and their policies are perceived by societies has generally become more important than the objective reality of that country. The motto “image is everything” has now become valid not only for individuals, but also for societies and countries (Kalm, 2011: 16-17). Therefore, the “word politics” has become more important than world politics (Quoted in Keohane and Nye, 2011: 217).

Nowadays, it is of critical importance to influence a foreign public for a national success. Because in the absence of military or economic power, most states are remembered for the image they projected abroad. Therefore, it has become as important for states to develop relations with citizens in other countries as talking to their governments (Potter, 2003: 44), which is of course due to the increasing influence of public opinion at the national and international level. The end of the Cold War, the globalization process and the spread of communication technologies have increased the influence of public opinion in the national and international politics. While this process shifted politics to the basis of society, it enabled societies to become political subjects. Doing politics at the community level brought along the transformation of diplomacy based on civil society, civil actors, and public opinion. In this context, the civil society-based restructuring of the global system and the increasing influence of the public in politics have been one of the most important dynamics that led to the emergence of public diplomacy (Ekşi, 2018: 13).

One of the main reasons for the public diplomacy activities of countries originates from the need to communicate and establish relations with the international community. Because the traditional understanding of diplomacy is inadequate for states. Therefore, the states further focus on public diplomacy activities. However, public diplomacy activities are far from being an area that can only be applied with the official actors of the states. In this context, public diplomacy involves the activities of many actors. Moreover, public diplomacy includes studies related to many disciplines. In brief, public diplomacy has a very broad field of study at both the practical and theoretical levels. Due to the limitation of the study, this section will focus only on the conceptual framework of public diplomacy. However, first, the concept of soft power, which is directly associated with public diplomacy, will be briefly mentioned.

2. Public Diplomacy and Soft Power

Public diplomacy is one of the main tools of soft power (Melissen, 2005: 4). According to Cull (2009: 15), it is the mechanism that reveals soft power. However, it is not the same thing with the soft power. Nye (2008: 95) considers that public diplomacy is an important tool in the arsenal of smart power. Because public diplomacy is (inevitably) associated with power (Snow, 2020: 4), especially soft power. These two concepts can sometimes be used interchangeably. However, public diplomacy is more concrete and narrow-scoped compared to the concept of soft power. Because institutions and activities related to the use of soft power take place under the name of public diplomacy (Yılmaz, 2018: 14).

Political scientist Joseph Nye, who examined the concept of power in various dimensions, divided behavioral power into two as hard power and soft power in his relevant early studies (Çevik, 2014: 13). Hard power refers to forcing another actor or actors to change their behaviors by using the economic and military potentials of an actor. In a sense, hard power is based on inducements (carrots) or threats (sticks). However, you sometimes can get the results you want without using concrete threats or money. The indirect way to get what you want is called the second face of power. The second face of power is soft power. Soft power is the ability to shape the preferences of others. In other words, it refers to making others want the results you want. There is no coercion in the use of soft power. Because soft power is the ability to persuade and engage. Engaging refers to persuading. From a behavioral point of view, soft power is the engaging power. In terms of resources, it is the values that create such an

attraction. Those who deny the importance of soft power are like people who do not understand the power of seduction (Nye, 2004: 1-7).

In brief, soft power, which was introduced to the literature by Joseph Nye after the Cold War period and is the ability of an actor to achieve what he wants in international relations with engagement rather than military and economic pressure, constitutes the basis of public diplomacy. Although the concepts of public diplomacy and soft power seem to be associated with each other, they differ in many ways. For instance, just as the concepts of army and hard power, which are considered as close concepts in the literature, define different fields, the concepts of public diplomacy and soft power define different fields. While public diplomacy involves the activities of influencing other societies in line with the targets, soft power includes policies aimed at creating attraction power in other societies. The effective use of soft power depends on the effective use of public diplomacy. While soft power refers to the potential of a country other than its hard power, public diplomacy is a strategic communication tool that a country uses to reflect its soft power resources to the outside world (Eren, 2020: 60). It is important for a country to have soft power in every aspect; however, this power refers to the potential that exists in a sense. This potential should be mobilized to realize the desired policies, and it is public diplomacy activities that will do it. Public diplomacy tools are used to transfer the values that constitute the soft power of a state to the international public. Making a state a center of attraction is possible with an effective public diplomacy policy (Sancak, 2019: 365). Public diplomacy is also the most important instrument in mobilizing and applying the potential resources of a state.

3. Public Diplomacy: Conceptual Framework

Today's world reduces the chance of nations to exist in the universal arena with a single policy, a single method, or similar strategies. Multiple actors and complex relations require different international tools. Public diplomacy is one of these multidimensional tools that nations can use to influence, direct, create a communication environment and build reputation against each other (Yıldırım, 2014: 121). Because public opinion has become one of the determining factors of international relations and global trends. It is no longer possible for any society to remain indifferent to the power of public opinion. The role of national and international public opinion is increasing day by day in the shaping of world politics, which covers a wide area from economic policies to the use of energy

resources, from environmental problems to migration policies, from the media to national and regional disagreements and conflicts, in the implementation of the policies followed and in achieving results or success. Countries that are aware of this fact are trying to use public diplomacy effectively (Kalin, 2011: 17-18).

Although public diplomacy seems to be a new concept, it is a communication method that has been used for a long time and has a very long history (Cull, 2020: 16). States have always been in various communication efforts aimed at other states and their peoples. Therefore, communication efforts aimed at foreign public opinion are not a new phenomenon in international relations. Activities such as image cultivation and propaganda are almost as old as diplomacy itself. Even in former times, prestige-conscious rulers and their representatives did not ignore the potential of public opinion in foreign countries (Melissen, 2005: 3; Gündoğdu and Arafat, 2021: 1279). Public diplomacy has been practiced under different names throughout this long history. However, it was conceptualized in 1965 by Edmund Asbury Gullion, Dean of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy at Tuft University (Cull, 2009: 17).

While traditional diplomatic practices are associated with the actors involved in the largely invisible processes of international relations, public diplomacy is related to establishing diplomatic relations with people (Melissen, 2013: 436). Therefore, public diplomacy has been a concept whose definition has been updated since it was first used in the 1960s. It is a concept that adapts to the political, economic, and social conditions experienced around the world. Gullion, the father of the concept, defined public diplomacy as “the ways in which governments, private groups and individuals shape public thoughts and behaviors in determining and implementing foreign policy” (Birdsall, 2019). In fact, public diplomacy is not just a limited persuasion effort in line with the foreign policy objectives. Public diplomacy also refers that a country tells its own story to the public of different countries (Çevik, 2014: 20).

Although public diplomacy was first defined by Gullion, many definitions of public diplomacy were made afterwards. In fact, more than a hundred different definitions have been made for public diplomacy in the literature (K. Sancak, 2018: 299). For instance, according to Tuch (1990: 3), public diplomacy is a state’s process of communicating with foreign peoples to express its own ideas, ideals, culture, goals, institutional structure, and current policies. Because public opinion has become an important factor in international relations. While Cull (2009: 12) defines public diplomacy as an attempt by an international actor to manage the international environment by engaging with a foreign public,

Taylor (2003: 73-83) defines it as a nation's effort to create a positive image over other nation. Potter (2003: 46) defined public diplomacy as an effort of a state to influence the public and intellectuals/elites of a foreign state for the advantage of its own national objectives. For Fitzpatrick (2009: 168), public diplomacy is not just providing information, it refers to establishing relations. In this context, according to him, public diplomacy is the efforts of a state to establish positive relations with the people of other countries. Therefore, people make public diplomacy effective. Joseph Nye (2008: 95) considers public diplomacy as a tool that mobilizes soft power resources for governments to attract and communicate with their people rather than the governments of other countries.

When the definitions made for the concept are examined, it is observed that each definition emphasizes a different dimension of public diplomacy. The emergence of so many definitions for the concept is also related to the differences in the methods and aims of public diplomacy, as well as the significant changes in the field of international relations over time (Sancak, 2016: 120). Considering the common grounds in the definitions, we can define an inclusive public diplomacy as follows:

“Public diplomacy, which is a tool for mobilizing soft power resources and a type of diplomacy, is the whole of policies and activities carried out as a monologue or by establishing a dialog by expressing oneself to the foreign public or the global community targeted by the state, non-state actors or individuals affiliated with the state, being understood in these societies, expanding representative values, managing the international environment, shaping the public opinion with accurate information, influencing through various methods such as speaking, listening, and mutual exchange for the purpose of promoting an institution, policy, ideology or other elements” (Eren, 2020: 62).

As it is seen in the definitions, public diplomacy is an activity that can serve to establish closer relations and peace between states while serving the interests of the implementing state. In this respect, it can be applied not only between competitor or enemy countries, but also between friendly countries (Sancak, 2021: 294). Because the concepts such as crisis management, reputation management, brand management, strategic communication, lobbying, political communication, perception management, psychological warfare, social

engineering, public opinion formation, and diaspora also come to mind in today's understanding of public diplomacy. The branding of a place, a city or a country is emphasized in the process of public diplomacy. Therefore, both the political, diplomatic, and strategic communication dimensions of public diplomacy come to the forefront. It is necessary to have a short, medium, and long-term public diplomacy strategy to achieve these goals. Thus, it is also necessary to determine the target audience correctly and to ensure the correct coordination and cooperation between the responsible institutions and organizations of public diplomacy. Otherwise, it is very difficult to reach the goal (Doster, 2018: 3). Based on these facts, public diplomacy is considered as a multidisciplinary field with theoretical, conceptual, and methodological connections with many disciplines (communication, history, international relations, public relations, media studies and regional studies) (USC Center on Public Diplomacy, n.d.).

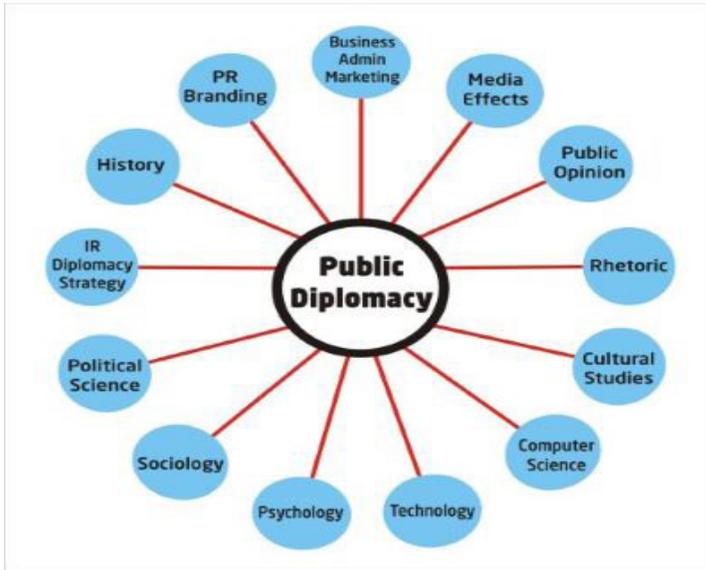


Figure 1. Multidisciplinary Contributions to Public Diplomacy (Gilboa, 2008: 74).

4. Public Diplomacy and Traditional Diplomacy

Public diplomacy is defined as the activity of understanding, informing, and influencing the foreign public opinion. As a strategic communication tool, public diplomacy consists of two dimensions. These activities are carried out in two frameworks: state-to-public and from public-to-state (Krause and Van Evera,

2009: 109). In state-to-public communication activities, the policies followed by the state, its activities and initiatives are carried out by using official tools and channels. In public-to-public communication activities, non-state tools such as non-governmental organizations (NGOs), research centers, opinion research companies, opinion leaders in society, media, universities, exchange programs, associations and foundations are at the forefront. Therefore, public diplomacy goes beyond official diplomacy and covers a wider area (Kalin, 2011: 11-12). Public diplomacy is the diplomacy of the people, in other words, it is the reflection of the values and ideas of the people in the international arena. The aim of public diplomacy is not to assert the power of a state or a social actor as “soft power”. Instead, it is to benefit from the dialogue between different social communities and their cultures. Therefore, its practical purpose is not to persuade but to communicate, not to declare but to listen. Public diplomacy aims to build a public space where different voices can be heard despite their diverse origins, different values and opposing interests. Because the aim of public diplomacy, unlike official diplomacy, is not to claim power or negotiate a reorganization of power relations. The prerequisite of diplomacy is to create a common language and to encourage the formation of a common communication area. Thus, diplomacy reflects not only interests and power building when the time comes, but also mutual understanding and sharing (Castells, 2008: 91). In this context, we can say that public diplomacy is related to establishing relations. Therefore, public diplomacy should be related to looking for spaces for a common purpose and establishing connections/relations, starting from understanding the needs, cultures, and peoples of other countries (Leonard, Stead and Smewing, 2002: 8). Because the attitudes of the people can be effective on the decisions of the states even in autocratic countries. Therefore, it has become a necessity for states to reach the peoples of other countries. The result of this necessity was the division of diplomacy into two. The old diplomacy, called traditional diplomacy, was carried out in the form of government-to-government activity. The new type of diplomacy, called public diplomacy, also includes programs from the government to foreign peoples (Roberts, 2007: 45).

Public diplomacy is not an activity that is carried out only with official institutions. It consists of many actors and networks. State, non-state actors, state-affiliated organizations, embassies, ministries of culture, organizations such as cultural organizations, non-governmental organizations, diasporas, universities, opinion leaders, private sector, global businesses, and pressure groups are considered as actors of public diplomacy (Sancar, 2012: 89-91; Szondi, 2008: 17).

Public Diplomacy	Traditional Diplomacy
Non-state	State
Practitioners	Foreign policy professionals
Unofficial	Official, careful, scientific
Active public	Passive public/audience
Mutual understanding	Comprehension/Understanding
Dialogic, change	One-way informative
Bidirectional symmetric	Bidirectional asymmetric
Behavioral change (target)	No behavioral change (target)

Figure 2. Traditional Diplomacy and Public Diplomacy (Snow, 2020: 8).

There is a close cooperation between public diplomacy and traditional diplomacy. However, both disciplines differ in terms of both the reasons for their emergence and the methods of application. The fact that traditional diplomacy limits the relations that a country will develop with another country with governments and official institutions is inversely proportional to the positive communication process that public diplomacy tries to develop primarily with civil organizations. Although public diplomacy studies are compatible with the long-term strategic objectives of the countries, they aim to gain public opinion that will influence and put pressure on the governments, not the governments directly, to achieve these goals (Erzen, 2012: 103). Thus, the basic distinction between traditional diplomacy and public diplomacy emerges clearly. Traditional diplomacy is the relations between the representatives of states or international actors. Public diplomacy targets the public in foreign countries and specifically informal groups, organizations, and individuals (Cull, 2009: 12; Melissen, 2005: 5).

	Traditional Diplomacy	21st Century Public Diplomacy
Conditions	Disputes, tension between countries	Peace
Objective	Achieving political change by creating behavioral change in target audiences	To gain a reputation abroad and develop political and economic interests that are open to innovations
Strategy	Convincing the managers	To arouse sympathy among the people and establish sustainable relations
Communication Management	Monologue	Dialogue
Research	Very little if any	Scientific research based on public diplomacy where feedback is important
Message Content	Ideologies and interests	Ideas and values
Target Audience (People)	All the people of the target country, message senders and recipients	Segmented, well-defined people + local people; Participants
Channels	Traditional mass media	Old and new communication tools; often using personal communication networks
Budget	State support	Public and private partnerships

Figure 3. Differences Between Traditional Diplomacy and the 21st Century Public Diplomacy (Szondi, 2009: 305).

Public diplomacy has become one of the most important instruments of a state since the role of traditional diplomacy has declined. Therefore, it has become necessary to manage it correctly and finance it adequately. From this point of view, public diplomacy is not only a foreign policy instrument, but on the contrary, it has become the indispensable public face of a state (Roberts, 2007: 52). Because public diplomacy has become one of the most popular political communication topics of the 21st century (Snow and Taylor, 2009: ix). Riordan (2005: 187) goes further and argues that 21st century diplomacy will be public diplomacy.

Contrary to criticism, public diplomacy, which is a method of establishing long-term relations to achieve concrete results, is not propaganda or advocacy although it is similar especially to traditional practices. The reinterpretation of public diplomacy is based on two-way interaction and persuasiveness. It is essential to emphasize that interaction and persuasiveness are based on truth and correct information. In this respect, public diplomacy is the communication built on the values of a country, in addition to a bidirectional symmetric and/or asymmetrical communication model (Çevik, 2014: 24). Because effective public diplomacy is a two-way path that requires listening as well as speaking (Nye, 2004: 111).

Public diplomacy should be related to seeking spaces and building relations for a common purpose, starting from understanding the needs, cultures, and peoples of other countries. As the relations become deeper, there is a hierarchy of influence that public diplomacy can achieve. This hierarchy is as follows (Leonard et al., 2002: 9-10):

- Increased familiarity (making people think about your country and updating their image of the country).
- Increased appreciation (creating positive perceptions about your country and allowing others to see problems from your point of view).
- Increased engaging (strengthening ties from educational agreements to scientific cooperation, ensuring that you are considered as a destination for tourism and education, encouraging them to buy your products).
- Influencing people (encouraging companies to invest in your country, promoting your political behavior, or getting politicians to return to your country as a preferred ally). All actors of public diplomacy should be included in the process in some way to achieve all these objectives.

5. Public Diplomacy and Propaganda

For an effective public diplomacy, the actor transmitting the message is more important than the message. Because if the source is not reliable, even the best prepared argument will not find a response. Therefore, messages to the foreign public should come from non-state actors. Official representatives may lack credibility because they are considered as the representatives of a government. Furthermore, they may also have no specialized knowledge on important issues. Moreover, while official representatives (diplomats)

play an important role in discussions with other governments or politicians, they are not ideal or productive for interacting with foreign public or local NGOs. Diplomats may also have difficulties in establishing relations with the key elements of civil society. In fact, in many countries, seeming too close to foreign diplomats can be dangerous both in terms of career and physically (Riordan, 2005: 190-191). Because it is one of the main reasons for the public diplomacy activities of countries is their need for establishing communication and relations with the international community. When image-building activities in international relations are attempted to be carried out only by the official institutions of the state, doubts about sincerity, credibility and inclusiveness may arise. Moreover, it is getting more and more difficult for foreign affairs or government institutions to carry out such a large area. While the increase in communication technologies has led to the expansion of the target audiences of the states, informing these masses and giving accountability to these masses on global issues have become some of the responsibilities of the countries. Therefore, there is an increasing opinion that countries' external communications and image management should be carried out not only through official actors but also in partnership with civil society. While civil institutions and actors establish a country's relations with the international community, they also create the brand image of that country in the eyes of the international public (Köksoy, 2015: 43-47; İ. Sancak, 2018: 336-339). Therefore, civil actors also make long-term cooperation possible as a communication model that develops interpersonal relations in regions where the state's reputation is weak or in regions where states have not yet revealed their presence sufficiently. Thus, it is very important that the state does not directly implement public diplomacy policies and proves its existence through third parties (Çevik, 2014: 41-42). A contrary situation may give the impression of propaganda. Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish between public diplomacy activities and propaganda.

The aim of public diplomacy is not propaganda, but to create a strategic communication language based on objective facts and truth (Kalın, 2011: 11; Castells, 2008: 91). Because in public diplomacy, the source of information is clear, and its accuracy is certain. However, this is not the case with propaganda. There is complete state control in propaganda. Propaganda involves imposing an opinion and therefore there is pressure in its content. However, public diplomacy, unlike propaganda, is an activity of public relations (Sancak, 2016: 120-121).

Propaganda has a much longer intellectual pedigree compared to public diplomacy (Melissen, 2005: 16). The first use of propaganda dates to 1622. However, it started to be used as a weapon by the states in the First World War. Political propaganda has been used to provide support in the power relations of states and individuals throughout history. It also constituted the basis of soft power, which is used to demoralize the enemy in wars, to raise the morale of people, to provide supporters in elections and therefore to support hard power. Although the term propaganda is mostly used in a negative sense, it is a one-way communication process that protects the interests of the source, does not leave the buyer a choice, and excludes him from the decision-making and participation process (Sancar, 2012: 117-120).

Propaganda is divided into three as white, black, and gray according to its source. In white propaganda style, the source is clear. Because the goal is to provide credibility. However, the messages conveyed in this propaganda style are semi-official and have the traces of the government since they are under the control of the government. This type of propaganda is used more frequently in developed democratic countries. In black propaganda, which means the production of lies and deception, the real source is always hidden. Lying and deception are clearly present. Accurate and fabricated news are used together in gray propaganda, which makes it difficult for the receiver to recognize which message is true and which is false. In general, the news is transmitted as a rumor, it is not clear from whom the message came. The events are distorted, and the truths are reconstructed in the desired direction. In this propaganda style, recipients become confused and become unable to choose between the right and the wrong (Özer, 2019: 15-18).

Some public diplomacy activities can be described as “white propaganda”. Because white propaganda is also based on the expression of facts and accurate information. Therefore, public diplomacy can also be called as “white propaganda” or “truthful propaganda” (Pantana, 2007: 282). However, white propaganda is for a different purpose rather than stating the truth. The main purpose here is to provide information only to support a particular ideology. In white propaganda, the recipients are attempted to be persuaded that the sender is the “good man” with the best ideas and political ideology. Therefore, the information tends to be correct (Jowett and O’Donnell, 2012: 17-32). The main detail here is that the information presented is selective. Since the main aim is to direct the target audience, access to other information is blocked. Some aspects of the subject are preselected and sorted out if

needed and presented to the other party in a one-way manner. Therefore, the visibility of the source is not advantageous. Because the facts are selective and predetermined. Therefore, there is a one-way direction, conditioning, and coercion rather than mutual communication (Bektaş, 1996: 159-160; Gündoğdu, 2021: 31-33).

In brief, public diplomacy is based on known true information, however, propaganda is based on a combination of facts and false information. Therefore, many researchers agree that propaganda means deception and manipulation by its definition while distinguishing between public diplomacy and propaganda. For public diplomacy, it is needed to spread information with high accuracy. Because public diplomacy needs complete reliability. Furthermore, the listening and understanding function attributed to public diplomacy is directly associated with the need for both accurate information and reliability. However, these functions are missing in propaganda (Gurgu and Cociuban, 2016: 131-133). Therefore, propaganda often lacks reliability. It causes an adverse effect, which means loss of reputation for states. Public diplomacy is not just public relations. Transmitting information and selling a positive image are also part of public diplomacy and include building long-term relations for government policy (Nye, 2004: 107).

States must go beyond propaganda for a good public diplomacy. There are of course various difficulties for it. The first difficulty is to understand the target audience. Therefore, the starting point is where the target audience is present. It is not possible to carry out successful diplomacy if you are not ready to hear. The second difficulty is that a one-way flow of messages causes an adverse effect. A one-way message is not just about communication. A one-sided view that ignores local traditions, local histories and local identities is another obstacle to successful diplomacy. In addition to the right message, correct positioning and placement are also very important. The third difficulty is related to the way of communication. Only the verbal dimension of communication will be insufficient for the messages intended to be conveyed to the target audience. Here, the important point is to switch to catching the imagination rather than providing information. A multidimensional communication, including experience, emotions, and images, should be preferred instead of a one-dimensional communication. The fourth difficulty is to prove your level of interest/relevance (to the issue), which means developing relations by understanding the concerns of the target audience and taking advantage of their needs. One way to prove the level of relevance is to concentrate on “niche

diplomacy”¹ (Leonard et al., 2002: 46-53). This is the method of diplomacy that states directly apply to develop their soft power. As it was mentioned previously, soft power is passive and other countries are automatically affected by this power. Thus, they resort to changing their behaviors. Of course, this expression should not mean that it would be sufficient for a country to wait without doing anything in the context of soft power. Soft power sources represent a significant potential. However, there is a need for a mechanism to develop and mobilize these resources to transform them into power. So, public diplomacy comes into play here (Sancak, 2016: 119).

6. Conclusion and Evaluation

Globalization, non-state actors, developing technology, the revolution in communication and transportation, the spread of democracy, the increasing influence of the media, the rise of global civil society and protest movements, and especially the increasing influence of public opinion have transformed the international system established according to the Westphalian paradigm. This situation also forces the international relations shaped based on the nation-state to change. International relations have evolved from an interstate level to a multi-level structure that operates through multi-actor and interconnected networks. States also must deal with these new actors in their foreign policies. Because political legitimacy has become one of the most important issues for states in international relations.

States are required to consider not only their own public opinion but also the international public opinion while determining and implementing their foreign policies. Because international public opinion has become an important reference object for the states. A state that cannot ensure its legitimacy in the international arena can be alone in its foreign policy behaviors, which has revealed that states need to communicate more with the foreign public to achieve their foreign policy goals. Therefore, states must learn to communicate with foreign publics. This reality also transforms the diplomacy. Public diplomacy is the most concrete expression of this change in diplomacy. Diplomatic activities, which are described as traditional diplomacy, were implemented in a state-to-state manner. However, with the new actors, public diplomacy has reached the state-to-people

¹ Niche diplomacy can be roughly defined as the development of a unique diplomacy method in a specific area by medium-sized countries. For detailed information, see. Cooper, 1997.

and people-to-people dimensions. In this context, public diplomacy aims to inform and influence the public in different countries. Public diplomacy is long term and prioritizes consent and legitimacy. It is not unilateral. The information is clear and accurate. Therefore, it is different from propaganda. It aims to be able to communicate with peoples in different geographies, to gain the sympathy of the peoples and to manage their perceptions in a way. Moreover, public diplomacy does not only aim to influence the foreign public opinion. Because its practical purpose is not just to persuade, but to communicate. Communication is also two-way. In this respect, public diplomacy also includes listening. Its main purpose is to build a public space in which different voices are possible rather than one voice. You can update or change your policies by listening. Because policy change is also a part of public diplomacy.

In conclusion, public diplomacy has become a necessity for the states. Nowadays, influencing foreign public opinion, managing perception, and managing and directing target audiences have become decisive in international relations. As it is indicated in the introduction of the study, the “word politics” has become a decisive policy in international relations. Public diplomacy is the most effective tool of this policy today.

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CHAPTER XXXVI

FROM DIPLOMACY TO PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

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1. Introduction

Since the earliest known periods of human history, states have been in a struggle in the international system. Although one of the most prominent aspects of this struggle is the use of hard power, it is not the only option for states (Gündoğdu & Arafat, 2021: 1280). It is because using of hard power is much more costly, even for the victors. For this reason, diplomacy is an important way to achieve goals without fighting. Although he was a soldier, Chinese General Sun Zi, who lived about two thousand and five hundred years ago, said that "...winning a hundred victories in a hundred battles is not the most perfect. The supreme art of war is to subdue the enemy without fighting." (2018: 7). He stated that the gains without war should be preferred to those obtained by fighting.

In addition to classical diplomacy, public diplomacy has gained more importance as we approach today, although its history dates back to ancient times. One of the tools used by states to achieve their foreign policy goals is public diplomacy, which has become a preferred tool both because its results are long-term and because its cost is low compared to wars.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, public diplomacy, which is used more intensively by especially large states, has become an important tool that many more states try to use within their possibilities. Today, many states have private institutions assigned to carry out public diplomacy. This study, which deals with public diplomacy from the past to the present, does not claim

to deal with all the activities in this field in the world. The subject has been studied by considering the important stages in public diplomacy.

2. Traditional Diplomacy

Diplomacy, as one of the concepts at the centre of foreign policy, is defined as an art, process, practice, or method by different scholars. The word originates from the ancient Greek verb “diploun”, which means “to fold”. It was a term used for archival work for a long time before it was used by Edmund Burke to mean the management or conduct of international relations in 1876 (Nicolson, 1970: 30,31).

Berridge sees diplomacy as an important component of state power and one of the main political activities. The main purpose of this activity is to enable states to achieve their foreign policy goals without resorting to force, propaganda, or law (Berridge, 2015: 1). According to Nicolson, a British politician and diplomat, diplomacy is a mechanism and process for conducting negotiations. According to Barber, a historian, it is peaceful conduct of international relations. According to Derian, a documentary director and academic, it is a mediation activity between alienated individuals, groups or entities (Black, 2010: 12). Öymen (2002: 33), an experienced Turkish diplomat, and Akgönenç (2009: 6) and Tuncer (1982: 17), who are academics, see diplomacy as an art of struggle and compromise.

At this point, it should be noted that the terms foreign policy and diplomacy, which are sometimes used interchangeably, are not the same thing; there are differences between the two terms (Gündoğdu, 2021: 7). Foreign policy is a much more inclusive term. According to British Diplomat Sir Victor Wellesley, diplomacy has no separate existence without foreign policy, and while diplomacy determines tactics, policy determines strategy (Freeman, n.d., 287).

It is known that diplomacy practices are quite old, although it has been set forth as a term relatively recently. Diplomacy must have emerged when the first human societies preferred to listen to the message instead of harming the messengers who brought the messages. The first practices were probably seen in ancient Middle Eastern societies in the middle of the third millennium BC. Of course, the available information is limited because the information about this period is epigraphic. However, it is known that diplomatic relations were frequently established (Hamilton & Langhorne, 2011: 7-8). We have some written tablets and eikons of diplomatic practices in Sumerian, Akkadian, Babylonian,

Assyrian, Egyptian, Hittite, Ancient Greek, and Persian civilizations. In these, it is possible to find some details about the diplomatic practices and protocol rules of the period (Sivrioğlu & Yılmaz, 2017). These data show that diplomacy and diplomatic rules are not a product of the modern world; instead, with the first known states, diplomacy is an important part of foreign policy practices.

In the following periods, it is possible to reach much more data on the diplomatic activities of states such as Rome, Byzantium (Dağı, 2007: 296, 297), Islamic (Hamidullah, 2017), and Mongolian states (Berber, 2018). Of course, these were all examples of ad hoc diplomacy. The most important stage in the institutionalization of diplomacy was that Italian city-states opened permanent embassies in neighbouring countries since the 15th century, and this spread throughout Europe in the next century. Diplomacy was used as a way to avoid conflicts for these city-states, which followed a mercantilist economic policy in geography surrounded by strong neighbours and did not have a large military power (Dağı, 2007: 298-299).

Although the Italian city-states were the pioneers in the transition to permanent diplomacy, it is supposed that modern diplomacy started with the French Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1645). According to him, the principal aim of diplomacy is to establish an objective and trusting relationship between the parties. The prominence of the understanding of morality and trust reflects an important change in the diplomatic understanding (Dağı, 2007: 301-302). During this period, when the French understanding of diplomacy dominated Continental Europe, secrecy and intrigues were common features of diplomacy. The protocol was considered an important issue in the diplomatic activities of the period, which were usually carried out in the form of holding multilateral conferences. The Westphalia Conference of 1648 is one of the best examples reflecting the features of the era. Important decisions were taken at the Vienna Congress of 1815 and the Aix-La Chapelle Conference of 1818 to shape the institutional structure of diplomacy, determine the rules of protocol, and ensure that the rights and duties of diplomats were met with an international standard.

The European Harmony established by the Vienna Congress of 1815 began to decimate with the diplomatic moves of Otto von Bismarck, the chancellor of Prussia. In 1871, Prussia ensured its national unity and joined the great powers of Europe. At the beginning of the 20th century, French diplomacy, known as the old diplomacy, came to an end when the great powers, which were separated into the enemy camps, engaged in the biggest war ever seen in the world in 1914 (Dağı 305-306).

Diplomacy, which could not prevent World War I, began to be heavily criticised. Late in the war, in January 1918, US President Woodrow Wilson proclaimed his famous 14 Principles, calling for a new international system. The first of these principles was “Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view”. In a speech to the American Congress in the following month, Wilson called for “no more secret diplomacy of the sort that had led Europe into calculating deals, rash promises and entangling alliances.” In 1917, the Bolsheviks took over the administration in Russia. Their disclosure of secret agreements made during the tsarist era, which was cited as one of the causes of the war, also supported the criticism brought to secret diplomacy (Black, 2010: 188).

Ammon divides the mentality of Western diplomacy into two periods in the historical process. He calls the period from the Renaissance to World War I “ancient diplomacy” and cites secrecy as the main feature of the period. He calls the period from the Renaissance to World War I “ancient diplomacy” and cites secrecy as the main feature of the period. He states that the feature of the post-war period, which he calls “new diplomacy”, is transparency. The reason for this post-war change is the important developments in communication. The newspapers, which were printed in large quantities by serial printing technology and the television broadcasting that emerged in the following period, also radically changed classical diplomacy (Ammon, 2001: 6). It can be said that these developments in the field of communication have made diplomacy no longer just the work of diplomats. With the concept of open diplomacy, the public has also become a part of diplomacy now.

3. Transformation of Diplomacy

Snow (2008: 6) draws a three-dimensional framework of diplomacy. While the first of these three dimensions is traditional diplomacy aimed at governments from governments, the second is traditional public diplomacy aimed at global public from governments, and the third is all the activities of both governments and unofficial units with an understanding of modern public diplomacy aimed at influencing foreign public opinion. Similarly, Manheim addresses diplomatic activities in four ways: from government to government, from diplomat to diplomat, from nation to nation, and from government to nation (Sancar, 2014: 81). While the first two of these forms of activity are traditional diplomacy since its practitioners and targets are official representatives, the third is public

diplomacy since its source and target are unofficial, and the fourth is public diplomacy since its target is unofficial.

The development of democracies and the spread of mass media increased the importance of public opinion. With this increasing importance, public diplomacy has emerged as a much more powerful tool than before. In this study, no attempt will be made to define a detailed public diplomacy. However, the issue will be generally addressed within the framework of Malone's definition of "direct communication with foreign peoples to influence their thoughts and ultimately their government" (Malone, 1985:199).

According to a study on the first uses of the term public diplomacy, the term was first used in a different sense than today in an article criticising then US President Franklin Pierce in an issue of the London Times in 1856. Although it was occasionally used in different newspapers until its use in 1965 by Edmund A. Gullion, Dean of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, USA/Tufts University, these usages mostly meant "open diplomacy" and none of them were the equivalent of today's public diplomacy (Cull, 2009: 19-21).

The inclusion of the term in the literature in its today's meaning in 1965 was a result of the real need for it in the United States. An alternative term to propaganda, which had a bad connotation, was needed to describe the activities of the United States Information Agency, and the term public diplomacy, used for the first time in its today's meaning by Edmund A. Gullion, Dean of the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, USA/Tufts University, would meet this need as a new statement with a positive meaning (Cull, 2009: 19-21).

Since public diplomacy is a relatively new concept among perception management studies, it is not possible to say that there are many studies on the background of this concept. Studies on the history of public diplomacy generally address the issue from the date when the concept emerged. However, public diplomacy had been used as an unnamed practice before the creation of the theoretical framework.

According to Taylor (2003: 19-21), it is possible to mention propaganda activities based on the archaeological finds belonging to societies living in the Euphrates delta in Mesopotamia around 5th millennium BC. Furthermore, Sumerian tablets dating to the 3rd millennium BC in the same region show that public opinion was important in these early political communities although it was primitive. Nowadays, it can be said that many activities that we describe as public diplomacy today were evaluated within the scope of propaganda in

the past. Accordingly, it would be more appropriate to consider the perception management activities in ancient times as a whole.

Although public diplomacy came to the forefront as an important activity in international relations during the Cold War, the first examples of practice date back to very old times (Sancak, K., 2016b: 688). Nowadays, the application areas of public diplomacy can be listed as “listening, advocacy, faith diplomacy, exchange diplomacy, international broadcasting and news management, foreign aid and asylum policy, public diplomacy activities of the armed forces, cultural diplomacy, and citizen diplomacy” (Sancak, İ., 2019: 20). However, we can mention that some activities were carried out in only a part of these areas in the early periods.

The best examples are in the field of faith diplomacy among the first applications. In ancient states where the rulers were considered as a kind of demigod or the representative of the god, the source of power and the basis of legitimacy was god for those who held the power in medieval European kingdoms or Muslim sultanates (Knutsen, 2006: 30-40). In this context, a country’s efforts to spread its religion also had a political meaning besides being a purely religious activity. It is necessary to evaluate these efforts within the scope of faith diplomacy, which is one of the most important application areas of public diplomacy.

It should not be overlooked that public diplomacy activities especially in the religious field mostly serve the interests of all countries sharing the same religion, rather than the interests of a single country. In other words, while carrying out missionary activities in any region serves the interests of not only one country but all Christian countries, similarly, notification activities also serve the interests of all Muslim states, not the interests of a single state.

In this sense, the first large-scale activities must have started within the scope of Christianity. The statements “He said to them, ‘Go into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature’.” (Mark, 16: 15) and “Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in[fn] the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit” (Matthew, 28: 19) in the Bible explicitly encouraged the missionary activities. The first missionary activities carried out in the times when there was not yet a Christian state served the interests of the Christian states in later periods, though not at that time. As a result of the missionary activities accelerated with the support of the Byzantine Emperors and other Christian rulers after the Byzantine Emperor Constantine I (306-337) became a Christian, Greeks, Latins, Franks, Germans, Anglo-Saxons, and Slavs

became Christian in Europe, and almost all of Europe became Christian until 1350 (Kılıç, 2006: 330-331). In particular, the Crusades are important in terms of showing the effect of the religious unity that emerged as a result of these activities in foreign policy.

In the religion of Islam that came later, great importance was attached to inviting people to religion. There are many verses in the Qur'an about notification. The verses such as "O Messenger! deliver what has been revealed to you from your Lord; and if you do it not, then you have not delivered His message." (Qur'an, 5:67) and "But if they turn away, thy duty is only to preach the clear Message." (Qur'an, 16:82) imposed notification as a duty for Muslims. The fact that Islam, differently from Christianity, was a state religion from the very first years, and accordingly, Islamized societies came under the dominance or sphere of influence of the Islamic State gave Islam an official religion. The first notification activities in other countries that started at the time of the Prophet Muhammad, mainly reflected a top-down approach. In this period, the invitation letters sent to the presidents were seen rather than notifications to foreign peoples (Hamidullah, 2017: 853, 854). Since there was communication at the level of presidents, they were classical diplomacy practices, not public diplomacy. In that period, only individual notification activities can be considered as public diplomacy.

The notification activities, which can be considered within the scope of comprehensive public diplomacy, were seen in much later periods. The Islamization of the Balkans and the surroundings of Malaysia can be given as suitable examples in this regard. In Central Asia, followers raised by Hoca Ahmed Yesevi and some of their students reached the Balkans through Anatolia, and a significant progress was made in the way of conquering hearts before the military conquest movements began in the region. The Islamization of the region started with Sarı Saltuk and his tribe, who settled in Dobruja in 1263-64. In particular, dervish lodges established in deserted areas provided services such as providing food and clothing aid to the needy and providing accommodation for passengers. Furthermore, they also communicated directly with the local people through the mills they operated and the water wells they drilled (Sancak K., 2016b: 692, 694). These activities that took place before the establishment of the Ottoman State, which would conquer the region in the future, indirectly served the interests of the Ottoman Empire by their consequences.

At approximately the same time, it was observed that Islamization accelerated around Malaysia. Islamization, which first started on the west

coast of Sumatra Island, soon spread to the Malay Peninsula. There are two different claims that the Malays became Muslims through Muslim traders or Sufi orders. However, since these activities can be evaluated within the scope of faith diplomacy in both ways in terms of our subject, it does not matter which view is correct (Tekin, 2022: 72, 73). In the next years, the relations between the Muslim states in the region and the Ottoman Empire, and the Turkey-Malaysia relations at the present time support the evaluation of these activities as public diplomacy.

4. Public Diplomacy

4.1. Public Diplomacy in the Post-Print Era

Public diplomacy, the application area of which in ancient times was generally limited to faith diplomacy, as seen in the examples above, expanded its application areas through technological innovations. In this respect, the first important technological development was the use of the printing press in Europe and thus the printing and distribution of books and newspapers. In a sense, this development meant the packaging of knowledge. By the end of the century, at least twenty million books had been printed in the printing house used in Europe since the middle of the 15th century. It is a very important figure when it is considered that the total population of the parts of Europe where the printing press was known was approximately one hundred million (Anderson, 1995: 52). By means of the printing house, the person who was the source or conveyor of information and the person who was the recipient of information no longer needed to come together directly. Information and news became much more massive. For individuals or institutions intending to influence the masses, keeping printed works such as brochures, newspapers or books under control could provide quite effective results. Diplomats and state administrators who were aware of this situation attempted to interfere with the content of these printed materials and have publications made in line with their own interests from the 16th century. Especially in the religious wars before Westphalia, the printing house was commonly used in Europe for the spread of religious/political views (Helmets, 2016: 406). The Thirty Years' War was an important turning point for the internationalisation of propaganda (Taylor, 2003: 114-116), which meant the emergence of the first examples of news management, which is one of the important application areas of public diplomacy at the present time.

With the industrial revolution, printed publications such as books, brochures, magazines and newspapers reached large masses in a wide geography and accordingly became a tool of public diplomacy in real terms. Along with the increase in literacy and the development of mail and delivery systems, the scope of printed publications expanded (Özçağlayan, 2014: 134). The first real serial printing technology started in the USA in the 1830s (Ammon, 2001: 22). With this technology, the newspaper became inexpensive and easily accessible to large audiences.

4.2. Crossing the Borders: Public Diplomacy in the First Half of the 20th Century

Along with the spread of the visual and audio media and the acquisition of a great momentum for perception management, which cannot be compared with previous periods, the 20th century differs from previous periods in terms of public diplomacy. The Committee on Public Information in the USA in 1917 and the British Council in England in 1934 were established in order to support foreign policy through cultural diplomacy in the first half of this period. However, the pioneer of this field was the Alliance Francaise, which was founded in France in 1883 (Nye, 2005: 96-97; Demir, 2012: 128). Japan, which started a cultural exchange program to fight against the rising anti-Japanese ideas, especially in China (Ogawa, 2009: 273), also established the Department of Information under the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) in 1921 (T. Akami, 111). Although they remained primitive when compared to today's public diplomacy institutions, these first institutions were important for the institutionalisation of public diplomacy.

The Committee on Public Information was closed in the USA after World War I, and the United States remained outside the international arena until the Division of Cultural Cooperation was established in 1938 under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Following some changes in name and organisational structure, the unit was named as the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs (CIAA) after the Pearl Harbor attack. A short time later, the Office of War Information (OWI), the mission of which is defined as psychological war, was established. However, these units were also dissolved after the war (Pilon, 2007: 353-354).

Shortly after the establishment of the USSR, "In 1923, the Foreign Assistance Commission was created to unite and direct all types of foreign aid to the Soviet republics and to guide the activities of foreign Soviet aid organisations". The

isolation imposed by the international community was attempted to be broken through the cultural activities organised by the commission. Two years later, the commission was named as the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (VOKS). With the cultural trips it organised to the Soviet Union, VOKS played an important role in introducing the USSR to the Westerners (Velikaya, 2020: 79-80).

Considering the period in terms of the tools used, the invention of the radio was almost a revolution for public diplomacy. Lenin used the term “paperless newspaper” for radio, which has been an important mass media tool since the early 1900s (Öymen, 42). It was not easy to circulate printed publications such as magazines, newspapers and books between states. However, when it came to radio broadcasting, state borders could no longer be an obstacle to reach the people within those borders. The disadvantage of newspapers was not valid for the radio.

British broadcasting corporation BBC and the first German radio started to broadcast in 1922 and 1923, respectively. The content of broadcasting had also been determined by the German government, which realised the power of radio, since 1932 (Kasım, 2013: 66). The Japanese NHK (Nippon Hoso Kyokai) channel, the TV side of which is predominant at the present time, was founded by modelling BBC in 1925 (Snow, 2019: 16). It is certainly possible for the radio to become a perception management tool for foreign peoples through international broadcasting. First, the USSR became the pioneer of this field by starting German broadcasting in 1929 (Velikaya, 2020: 77). While BBC, the best-known corporation of the field, started to broadcast in German, Arabic, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese in 1938, German Radio became a major propaganda machine broadcasting in 53 languages in 1939. In this period, there was no radio broadcasting internationally in the USA (Kuruoğlu, 2006: 14, 16). Voice of America (VOA) radio, which started broadcasting on February 1, 1942 during the war, is one of the most important and well-known public diplomacy tools. Rapidly growing VOA became a channel broadcasting hundreds of hours in 27 languages at the beginning of 1943 and in more than 40 languages in 1944. VOA's promise was accuracy, an essential feature of public diplomacy: “News can be good, news can be bad; but we will always tell you the truth” (The Beginning, 2007).

In the same period, the invention of cinema brought a new field to perception management studies. A few years after its invention, short images taken by American soldiers in Cuba during the war between America and Spain

in 1898 were the first images for message purposes (Akyıl, 2017: 130). In the following years, World War I was also a propaganda war for cinema. After the war, especially totalitarian regimes such as the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany attempted to take advantage of the power of cinema (Camankulova, 2013: 104).

4.3. *Post-World War II Period*

The Cold War era, which started with the division of the world into two blocs, was a period during which the activities for perception management peaked. The Information Research Department (IRD) was established in England in 1948 to fight against communism. The statements of British Foreign Minister Ernest Bevin, the founder of the IRD, explained the purpose of the IRD: “It would be wrong to think that we can only succeed in pushing back communism by being superior in terms of financial possibilities [...]. We should appeal to the aid of democratic principles and the religious principles of Christianity, and let us not forget the power of Christian sensibility in Europe. We should present an ideology that will compete with communism.” (Saunders, 2016: 80).

In the same period, the U.S. Information Agency (USIA) was established in 1953 in order to carry out public diplomacy in the USA under the roof of a more regular and continuous institution (Pilon, 2007: 353-354). Studies in the field mostly initiated the history of public diplomacy after this period. Furthermore, in this period during which public diplomacy was implemented in a different way from propaganda, the term was used for the first time by Gullion in its today’s meaning (Helmets, 2016: 401).

Germany, which came out of World War II with great destruction and was also considered as the cause of this devastating war, was undoubtedly one of the countries that most needed public diplomacy. Germany started to take steps in the field of public diplomacy shortly after the war in order to get rid of the negative image inherited from the Nazi period and to gain a respectable place in the world public opinion. The Friedrich-Ebert Foundation, an educational organization operating both inside and outside the country and was closed by the Nazis, was re-established shortly after the war in 1947 (Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, n.d.). Then, Goethe-Institute, which also has an important place in German public diplomacy at the present time, was established in 1951 in order to promote German language learning outside Germany and to contribute to international cultural cooperation (Görevler ve Hedefler, n.d.).

Another country that was in a similar situation to Germany after World War II in terms of its image in the world was Japan. Immediately after the war

in Japan, the Cabinet Bureau of Information was abolished and the Department of Information was re-established. Its mission was cultural exchange but with too few staff and too little budget. Due to financial difficulties, Japan could not work for public diplomacy activities for a long time after the war (Ogawa, 2009: 274)

In 1972, the Japan Foundation was established “to deepen understanding of Japan in foreign countries, promote mutual international understanding, contribute to the World in culture and other fields, create good international environment and contribute to the maintenance and development of harmonious foreign relations of Japan.” (Organization, n.d.). The three main duties of the foundation, which continues its existence at the present time, are “Art and Cultural Exchange; Japanese-Language Education Overseas and Japanese Studies and Intellectual Exchange” (About the Japan Foundation, n.d.)

VOKS, the public diplomacy institution of the Soviet Union, which was the leader of the Eastern Bloc during the escalation of the Cold War, was restructured in 1958 and named as “The All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries (SSOD)”. SSOD would continue its activities until 1992. The dissemination of the Russian language was an important goal of Russian cultural diplomacy during this period. SSOD, which was not considered as successful as VOKS in person-to-person communication, played an important role in the dissemination of the Russian language. Furthermore, the Pushkin State Russian Language Institute was established in 1966 just to teach Russian to foreigners. In the 1980s, approximately 600.000 people in ninety countries learned Russian through SSOD (Velikaya, 2020: 80-81; Pushkin State Russian Language Institute, n.d.).

During the Cold War, the media became one of the most important areas of the struggle between states. During this period, USIA’s quarterly Dialog was distributed by the US diplomatic missions in Moscow and Leningrad, and the Soviet Sputnik magazine had a significant readership in the USA (Critchlow, 2004: 79). However, visual and auditory media, such as radio, television and cinema, which were used before World War II and which had the opportunity to reach much larger masses easily, were used as much more effective propaganda weapons during this period (Ekşi, 2014: 115). According to Nye, Hollywood movies and rock and roll music had crossed the Berlin Wall long before 1989. The efforts of communist regimes to ban carriers of US culture were backfired (Yıldırım, 2015: 220).

During this period, while the BBC in England continued its international broadcasts as in previous periods, the USA took its studies one step further. Radio Free Europe was first established in 1950 to broadcast to Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, and Romania, and then, Radio Liberty was established in 1953 to broadcast to the USSR (History (a), n.d.). Germany, which fell behind the states such as the USA and England in terms of broadcasting organisations, was also aware of the importance of news management in this period. Radio Deutsche Welle, which was established in 1953, began broadcasting in foreign languages in the following year. “It is intended to communicate the values of the young republic to other countries and to support Germany’s readmission to the international community.” (DW milestones, n.d.).

Especially in the post-World War II period, one of the important fields of activity of public diplomacy was education programs. Opening schools in foreign countries or accepting foreign students in their own country was also a method used in ancient times. However, the use of these education programs as a planned public diplomacy activity coincides with after World War II. With the exchange programs between France and Germany, which were on the opposite fronts in World War II, five million student exchanges took place from post-war until 1997 (Scott-Smith, 2009: 50).

However, the most important example that comes to mind when it comes to an exchange program in education is the Fulbright Program run by the USA. As a result of the idea put forward by Arkansas Senator William Fulbright in 1945, the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act, known as the Fulbright-Hays Act, was enacted in 1961 (Türkiye Fulbright Eğitim Komisyonu, n.d.).

The program is also successfully implemented today. According to the data of the US State Department, forty students who studied in the USA under the Fulbright Program later served at the level of head of state or government in their own countries. Some of them are still on duty (Heads of State/Government, n.d.).

The USSR also conducted significant studies in this field. The Peoples’ Friendship University of Russia (RUDN), which was founded in 1960, provided education to more than one hundred thousand students from 170 countries. Some of the graduates of the university, which aims to educate the poor youth of Africa, Asia and Latin America, rose to the head of state in their own countries (Velikaya, 2020: 88). These data show that the USSR also used the exchange programs successfully.

4.4. *After the Cold War*

After the dissolution of the USSR, which was the loser of the Cold War, the Russian Federation, its heir, took over the public diplomacy institutions of the USSR. These institutions also entered a rapid restructuring process during the establishment of a new system. SSOD was transformed into the Russian Association for International Organization (RAIC) in 1992. Furthermore, the Russian Agency for International Cooperation and Development (RAICD) was established to strengthen informational, cultural and scientific relations between Russia and foreign countries. After a short time, the RAICD's tasks were transferred to the Russian Centre for International Scientific and Cultural Cooperation under the Government of the Russian Federation (RusInterCentre). In 2008, the Federal Agency for the Commonwealth of Independent States, Compatriots Living Abroad and International Humanitarian Cooperation (Rossotrudnichestvo) was established to improve Russia's cultural relations with foreign countries, especially with its close neighbours (The Story of Rossotrudnichestvo, 2015). The Russian Mir Foundation was established in 2007 for "promoting the Russian language, as Russia's national heritage and a significant aspect of Russian and world culture, and supporting Russian language teaching programs abroad." (About Russkiy Mir Foundation, n.d.), and the Alexander Gorchakov Public Diplomacy Fund was established in 2010 to contribute to Russian public diplomacy with scientific studies (Kharitonova & Prokhorenko, 2020: 144).

It is observed that Japanese public diplomacy focused on cultural diplomacy and nation branding after the Cold War. However, important studies were also conducted on foreign aids (Zykas, 2013: 18-19, 22-23). Public diplomacy activities of Japan were aimed at two main purposes: "Development of mutual understanding" and "contribution to the international community" (Zykas, 2013: 12).

China, the rising power of the world, was also discovering the importance of public diplomacy during that period. Although the People's Republic of China had a strong propaganda system, it was relatively weak in terms of public diplomacy. One of the most important challenges of China's public diplomacy was the negative image of modern China in the world. In general, Westerners had a positive view of the Chinese and ancient Chinese culture, however, they had negative feelings towards the People's Republic of China, and China was identified with communism (Wang, 2008: 259, 262). In 1991, State Council

Information Office was established “to propel domestic media further along the path of introducing China to the international community”. “The mission of the SCIO is to promote the communication, understanding and trust between China and countries across the World” (About SCIO). Like many other countries, China also established an institution to spread its language in the world. In 2014, the first Confucius Institute, named after the famous Chinese philosopher Confucius, was established in Seoul. The institute, which cooperated with schools and universities in other countries, had 550 departments in 2019 (Wang, Chinenye & Niu, 2021: 218).

It can be accepted that the US public diplomacy entered a period of uncertainty between the dissolution of the USSR and the September 11 attacks. The victory over the world’s other superpower made public diplomacy almost dysfunctional. USIA, which was the centre of US public diplomacy during the Cold War, was closed in 1999 (Yıldırım, 2015: 218). Although this situation was considered as a withdrawal in the field of public diplomacy, new steps were taken.

The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 gave a new impetus to public diplomacy. Despite the great military and economic power it has, the fact that it has been attacked in such a way has raised the need for public diplomacy in the USA (Sancak, K. 2016a: 67). A public opinion poll conducted in different countries at the end of 2001 also clearly revealed this. Most of the people in countries outside of Western Europe believed that the terrorist attacks of September 11 were a result of US policies. Furthermore, the US response was considered to be excessive while supporting the fight against terrorism (America Admired..., 2009).

In the new world order, the new enemy of the USA was defined as terrorism. However, President Bush’s Crusade discourse, and the Afghanistan and Iraq operations that took place after the September 11 attacks caused this discourse to be approached with suspicion, especially in the Islamic world. The fact that Syria and Iran were considered as the countries that supported terrorism also supported this sceptical approach. It is because these four countries were Muslim countries and these activities created an impression that a war was started against Islam, not terrorism (Kurt, 2014: 176).

In an environment where the perception of the USA in the world was getting worse and the USA was considered one of the most unreliable and dangerous countries, American policy makers focused on public diplomacy (Nakamura &

Weed, 2009: 1). The US seemed to have failed to win the psychological war against terrorism.

With the new world order and the perception of a new enemy, the USA had to “write a new story” and tell it to the world. National Security Strategy 2006 began with the sentence that America was at war and then talked about promoting values such as freedom, democracy and human dignity. Spreading these “American values” around the world would be very beneficial for the security of the USA (NSS 2006, 2006). The Quadrennial Defense Review Report (QDR), which was published by the Ministry of Defense in the same year, referred to public diplomacy by including direct strategic communication in its roadmap. What was expected from this communication was stated in the same report as follows: “The Department will work closely with interagency partners to integrate strategic communication into U.S. national security policy planning and operations. The battle of ideas ultimately will be won by enabling moderate Muslim leadership to prevail in their struggle against the violent extremists.” (Quadrennial Defense Review, 2006).

Public diplomacy tools used in previous years continued to be used effectively after the Cold War. Radio Free Europa and Radio Liberty were merged under the name RFE/RL in 1976. After the end of the Cold War and the dissolution of the USSR, this radio was considered to have completed its function for some countries, and the first Hungarian service was closed in 1993. Then, Poland, Czechia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, and Bulgaria services were also closed until 2008. However, it should not be considered as a total withdrawal from one area, but rather as a focus on different areas. It is because broadcasts in some of the countries listed above started again later, and new broadcasts were also initiated for Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Croatia, Macedonia, Kosovo, Pakistan, and Ukraine (History (a), n.d.).

With the changing perception of the threat for the USA, Radio Free Asia (RFA) was established in March 1996, funded by the Broadcasting Board of Governors. Founding President Richter defined the mission of radio by stating that “Our job: quite simply, to bring news and information about their own country to populations denied the benefits of freedom of information by their governments”. RFA currently broadcasts in 9 languages 7 days a week (History (b), n.d.). Nowadays, US broadcasting activities are generally carried out by the Broadcasting Board of Governors; exchange programs and information activities are carried out by the Under Secretary of State for Public Affairs and Public Diplomacy within the Department of State (Yıldırım, 2015: 218).

Television channels broadcasting news continuously in the 1990s played an important role in forming public opinion and managing news. The most striking example in this regard was CNN, which broadcast live from the field during the First Gulf War, which started in 1990 (Bektaş, 2002: 117). Then, other television channels that only broadcast news appeared. In 1995, the Japanese TV channel NHK started broadcasting internationally. In 1998, it started to serve as two separate channels, NHK World TV and NHK World Premium, one of which was a more serious news channel and the other one of which offered softer programs. In particular, Al Jazeera, an international broadcasting corporation based in Qatar, announced the news through the eyes of Muslim Arabs and became an alternative to Western television channels in the Second Gulf War in 2003. In 2005, Russia established its own news channel, Russia Today (RT), and took its place in this field (Stetsko, 2020: 157).

China, which was late in the field of media compared to other major actors, took important steps to close this gap in the post-Cold War period. Nowadays, Xinhua News Agency, China Central Television (CCTV) and China Radio International (CRI) are the most important of these steps. Xinhua News Agency is one of the largest news agencies in the world, broadcasting 24 hours a day in seven foreign languages. In 2010, Xinhua launched an English TV channel China Xinhua News Network, besides a mobile media service and a video news service. CCTV, China's national TV channel, broadcasts in 5 foreign languages. The channel also has a multimedia platform that broadcasts movies and news. CRI, which was established in 1941, is a radio station that broadcasts approximately 1.500 hours a day in 59 languages after the Cold War. It also has a web page broadcasting in 59 languages (Hartig, 2016: 87-89).

It can be said that a new period has been entered in public diplomacy with the widespread use of the Internet around the world. The internet, which was a one-way communication tool similar to traditional media in the early 1990s during which the first commercial use began, has made a significant progress since that day. This is a progress in both the horizontal and vertical directions. The fact that computer prices are cheaper than before, mobile phones owned by many people have become a kind of palm computers, and the internet is accessible in most of the world's geography has ensured horizontal progress. The rapid increase in commercial, individual or public data entry is growing the internet vertically.

The fact that it is possible for anyone with access to the Internet to create content, especially with web 2.0, has brought ordinary individuals from being passive readers to the position of content providers, and in this way, the internet has become one of the most effective public diplomacy tools. In addition to social networking sites such as “Blogs”, “podcasts” and “Facebook”, “Twitter”, “Instagram”, and “TikTok”, Internet-based mobile phone messaging programs and even computer games (Gökırmak, n.d.) are important public diplomacy tools that have recently entered our lives.

In one of his speeches, James Kenneth Glassman, who served as Under Secretary of State for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs from 2008-2009, listed the basic principles of public diplomacy 2.0 as follows: The fact that the messages come from unofficial institutions increases their effectiveness. Public diplomacy practitioners should receive support from expert private sector employees and bring together people who do good work. Speed is extremely important in the internet environment (Public Diplomacy 2.0, 2008). These are the principles that apply not only to US public diplomacy but also to public diplomacy in the world.

At the beginning of 2022, there are 4.62 billion social media users in the world. This figure is increasing day by day. When it is considered proportionately, more than 60% of the world’s population has internet access, while approximately 58% of the total population uses social media (Special Report Digital 2022, 2022). Of course, considering that not all social media accounts are individual accounts, these numbers will appear to be lower in reality, but even so, the importance of the internet and social media in terms of public diplomacy cannot be ignored in any way. In a sense, it even seems possible to say that the future of public diplomacy is based on the Internet.

5. Conclusion

Although the history of perception management activities of states for citizens of other countries goes back a long time, the implementation of these activities as a planned and continuous activity by private institutions has been carried out more recently. With technological developments and the increasing influence of the public, public diplomacy has become more important. For the activities carried out with a small number of institutions and with more limited means in the past, the states have appointed much more institutions today. Institutions operating in several fields of public diplomacy have been replaced by institutions focusing on a single field and cooperating with other institutions.

Public diplomacy activities have generally been more popular in times of war. The Cold War period was no exception to this situation, and it was a period when the struggle for public diplomacy between the blocks reached its peak. Although there was a very short pause after this period, public diplomacy started to gain popularity again, especially after 9/11. Today, every major power in the world, regardless of its hard power, attaches great importance to public diplomacy practices.

When we look at the subject in the context of application areas and tools, as we approach today, thanks to technological developments, a wide variety of and effective public diplomacy tools can be used when compared to previous periods. With the emergence of newspapers, the first mass media, the news source became able to influence the masses with just a piece of paper without physically meeting its target audience. However, state borders were still an obstacle to perception management activities. This problem was overcome by radio and television, for which the borders of the country had no significance.

With the spread of public diplomacy institutions and the Internet, public diplomacy practitioners can reach the masses much more easily and effectively today. Thanks to the cookies uploaded to web pages, the identification of the personal tendencies and sensitivities of individuals have paved the way for personalized activities. While mass media such as newspapers, radio, and TV broadcast to individuals as parts that make up a whole, regardless of personal preferences, for internet publishers, each individual can be a separate target whose personal characteristics are known as if face-to-face public diplomacy is being applied. Especially with web 2.0, the fact that ordinary individuals can easily produce content on social media and reach the masses has greatly expanded the field of public diplomacy.

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CHAPTER XXXVII

IMPLEMENTATION TOOLS AND AREAS OF PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

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1. Introduction

Public diplomacy in a country aims to communicate with the people of that country in order to gain their sympathy, influence them in a way that would make them behave and think in the way that the practitioners of public diplomacy think would benefit the country most. It emerged in the second half of the twentieth century and was practiced extensively. Its importance increased especially in the period after the Cold War, when the idea that the state was the main actor in international politics began to be questioned.

Public diplomacy, which entails all of the cultural, political, economic and social activities a state carries out to enhance and strengthen its own image in the international arena, has become an issue of contention in the last years. Transformations that have taken place in the last 30 years in world politics have led to many important changes in diplomacy as well. While states restructure in the age of globalization, societies have increasingly become political actors with the developments in communication, this, in turn, has paved the way for new searches in foreign affairs and diplomacy.

Conducting diplomatic relations, which were conducted through state officials before, with new diplomacy types have gained more importance after the collapse of the Soviet Union. Especially, public diplomacy has begun to be adopted by many countries after many obstacles were removed with the influence of rapidly developing technology. The fact that the public is included in the diplomatic process with public diplomacy emphasized the importance of public opinion. Public diplomacy, dubbed as “soft power” and conducted with

the help of moral elements of countries, is used by many states who want to be a power in the world.

Joseph Nye, who contributed significantly to the development of the term, argues that states do not always gain efficiency by means of hard power, military and economic sanctions but by soft power that is intended to win the hearts and minds of societies. Nye also points out that the nature of power has changed, and redefines it as the capacity to change the actions of target countries in a way that would benefit the practitioner of power the most. He claims that the balance of power has changed from hard power to soft power (Nye, 2005:23).

Several tools are used to influence the peoples of other countries and use public diplomacy efficiently. Some of these are the programs countries use, means of communication, economic practices, education, sports, art and culture. This study will outline the tools and practice areas used in public diplomacy.

2. Sources and Tools of Public Diplomacy

Since every state's potential for public diplomacy is different, activities of public diplomacy change from one country to another. Similarly, since the temperaments of the peoples of the target countries differ from each other, the methods and tools of public diplomacy to be used against those countries will be different. Therefore, it is not possible to talk about generally-accepted sources and tools of public diplomacy. However, consensus is possible only in terms of goals (Sancak, 2018: 338). For this reason, states have to take into consideration fundamental values and characteristics of their target countries alongside with their own in determining their methods and tools of public diplomacy (Sancak, 2016: 133).

Initially, the only source in public diplomacy seemed to be the state but, in time, the private sector and even citizens became sources. While in traditional public diplomacy relations originated from the state, they got out of the monopoly of the state. While it was initially an activity of communication conducted by the government, a new period started, in which the state was not the only actor in conducting public diplomacy for such reasons as easy access to target masses due to the developments in communication technologies and the indirect participation of multi-national corporations in public diplomacy activities as a result of globalization (Sancar, 2012: 89).

The areas of public diplomacy activities that span a very wide plane are becoming more diverse, improving and taking on new dimensions. Diplomatic

activities can be defined under four categories of relation and communication types; between states, between diplomats, between individuals and between states and peoples. Interstates diplomatic relations are how classic diplomacy is practiced and comprised of classic diplomatic styles and activities. Diplomatic activities between individuals are defined as individual diplomacy and are comprised of one-to-one diplomatic activities between senior state officials. Cultural diplomacy involves media development projects and activities intended to inform the public opinions of other countries about the politics of a country (Gündoğdu, 2021:81).

In order for the country that practices public diplomacy to create a positive image on the target country, the public diplomacy policies the state determines such as cultural, language, local values policies have to be conveyed deftly. The task to to conduct diplomatic relations through people by using these elements is naturally fulfilled by non-governmental institutions. These institutions are supported by the state and even the stage of creating their policies is fulfilled by organizations within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. However, the task of creating the policies of public diplomacy is performed by different non-governmental actors.

Culture is the most developed type of public diplomacy. This stage which influences peoples of other countries differently from the new tools and methods of public diplomacy makes a distinction between the tools of public diplomacy and the practices of classic diplomatic activities. Public diplomacy that has been influenced by global policies and technological developments has changed dimensions and taken on a more social undertones especially since 2001. New policies that the USA, whose practices of public diplomacy changed radically, created within the framework of fight against terrorism caused damage to the image of the USA around the world. This process added new perspectives to public diplomacy. Thus, the notion of public diplomacy is based on cultural diplomacy, media researches, surveys, Non- Governmental Organisations (NGO), understanding, listening and expressing oneself to the person addressed through exchange services and education (Gilboa, 2001:12). Public diplomacy means much more than the technical tools in foreign policy (Melissen, 2007: 14).

The activities of public diplomacy that the global political powers such as the USA, Soviet Russia, France, Germany and China now began to be performed by different countries with different philosophies of administration and size. Today, many small and medium size countries developed methods

of public administration. Interest in public diplomacy even in Ethiopia, the poorest country in the global politics system in terms of both power and size, is increasing (Gilboa, 2001:20).

Means of mass communication are the most basic and traditional tools of public diplomacy. While traditional means of media (newspapers, radio, television) provide individuals with freedom of information, it is also regarded as the fourth estate after legislative, executive and judiciary branches (Jeanneney, 2009:38).

Media is the most important source in all the processes of strategic communication. It has an immense power over individuals and institutions and in creating public opinion on a particular issue and influencing public reaction. Hence, the media has an important role in creating public diplomacy in a country. All the countries that are leaders or actors in the globalized world use the power of media in the international arena (Sancar, 2012:145). Due to the fact that the media has functions such as broadcasting the news, educating, giving information, creating public opinion, persuading and guiding the public, it is a significant tool of political, social and cultural influence. In addition to influencing political preferences of individuals and masses by shaping their opinions and attitudes on particular issues, the media tools have the power of changing their habits and likes and transform their lifestyles (Bostancı, 2012:130). They also transform the process of public democracy with its multi-partite and multi-faceted structure (Sağlık, 2013:167).

Cultural elements are very important elements for public diplomacy that aims to tell the world about its own country and characteristics of its people. Because these cultural elements create the prestige and images of the country. Therefore, public diplomacy is an element that encourages cultural and academic exchange and reveals cultural and national elements to improve a country's prestige in the eyes of other countries (Bostancı, 2012:55). In this sense, while culture adds cultural elements to diplomacy, it also forms a new diplomatic style with tools and methods of practice. Public diplomacy and culture, in one sense, are intertwined. Countries tell about their past to other countries by promoting their history, art and cultures (Ekşi, 2015: 347-349).

In order for the long-term efforts of a country to reach the objective of influencing the public opinion of other countries in accordance with its own interests, using public diplomacy would be more efficient than other classic pressure techniques because of the communication techniques used. Using these nonmilitary and noneconomic techniques These efforts that are spent without

using military or economic pressure is more powerful in winning the hearts and minds of other countries (Erzen, 2014: 123).

Using cultural sources is more efficient in creating a positive influence on the individuals of other countries, one of the objectives of public diplomacy, than using political values and sources of foreign politics. Creating an admiration for the values and quality of life of a country is possible with art, sports and popular culture activities. Thus, a country becomes renowned for a successful cultural activity and this attracts the attention of foreign societies and this is how a positive perception is created (Erzen, 2014: 124).

In short, public diplomacy whose objective is to influence societies makes use of political communication tools to achieve this end (Karadağ, 2016: 88). Political communication can be defined as imposing the ideological objectives of political actors on certain countries, masses and groups, and even realizing this by action when necessary. There are five important elements of political communication process. These are sender of the message, target group, tools, message and feedback. It is necessary to use these elements efficiently to establish political communication (Aziz, 2011:3).

The economic power of states functions as the complement of the image that is formed of cultural richness and communication. That is, a country's culture, political values, foreign policy vision have a bearing on that country's image. If the country's culture is global and overlaps with the values other countries have, its policies find supporters more easily in the international arena. Therefore, the economic power of a country puts it into a privileged position in the international arena. Because economic power contributes to all the factors in other areas and enhances the country's prestige (Bostancı, 2012:57). Owning world famous brands and corporations that creates employment in foreign countries enables an efficient public diplomacy (Nye, 1990: 40). Also, international aid in proportion with the economic power is regarded as an element of public diplomacy. In this respect, foreign aid is at the top of the methods that might boost a country's social, political, economic and cultural influence on another country (Kalaycı ve Koca, 2015: 157). Emergency humanitarian aid or aid for development a country lends another country can be cited among the tools of public diplomacy. This helps create an image of benevolent and peaceful country. Although these aids are for humanitarian purposes, they still provide gains in terms of politics and public diplomacy (Akçay, 2012:6).

Changes and transformations in communication technologies facilitate the practice of public diplomacy. Thus, a country has the capabilities to

communicate its policy to almost all countries at the same time. These activities performed initially by radio and then television and finally the internet achieved a new dimension regardless of time and space. Any development is announced to the world simultaneously. States continue to announce their activities of public diplomacy to other countries by using the new tools the internet and communication technologies provide (Erzen, 2014: 128). Thus, countries introduce their social, cultural, political values and all the elements that can be used as values to other countries through the internet. In this respect, mass communication tools are vitally important for public diplomacy (Bostancı, 2012: 57).

Supra-state organizations are important stakeholders that impart legitimacy to the process of realizing state strategies and are seen as the foundation of foreign policy by great nations. The fact that the USA aligned itself with the NATO with its activities of public diplomacy after the war became a tool that imparted legitimacy to the public diplomacy practices of supra-state organizations (Sancar, 2012: 107).

Civil society organizations, another tool of public diplomacy, play a role in communicating the values of one country to the peoples of other countries (Şahinoğlu, 2020: 190). In order to maintain an activity of public diplomacy, states have use actors who can process information and apply pressure on governments directly or indirectly by mobilizing masses (Aydemir, 2016: 111). Civil society organizations (CSOs) are non-profit organizations that are founded by people in order to address certain issues and problems. These organizations are important elements in a society in terms of their missions. Therefore, CSOs carry out certain activities to create public opinion and pressure for the purpose of raising awareness on common problems, policies and issues that afflict not only one nation but the whole world. CSOs take part in forming foreign policies either by complementing the state in a competitive or collaborative way. They can be active in foreign policy by penetrating the areas left out by the state or they can cooperate with decision-makers directly (Kurtuluş, 2015:192). They advocate the culture, politics and truths of their own country and engage in lobbying by doing things their state cannot (Yalçıntaş, 2013: 212). These activities are usually practiced through international collaboration. The international dialogs and collaborations created by CSOs also lead to countries getting to know and develop an interest in one another and sharing. In other words, they contribute significantly to establishing dialogs between countries and creating positive influences (Erzen, 2014: 127).

Since they have an influence on the behaviours and attitudes of target masses, opinion leaders are also regarded as important tools of public diplomacy. They expedite exchange of opinions, serve as a link between the public and the media, manage perceptions and contribute to countries reaching the citizens of other countries. Thus, they can provide great advantages to a state if employed properly. Today, the USA employs opinion leaders in activities of public diplomacy and communicate its messages to the world through famous journalists, well-known academicians, CSO presidents, entrepreneurs, and youth leaders (Aydemir, 2016: 112).

Since every country's potential for public diplomacy is different, activities of public diplomacy differ from one country to another. Similarly, since the temperaments of citizens in different countries differ from each other, the methods and tools of public diplomacy targeting them also differ. Therefore, it is not possible to talk about generally-accepted sources and tools of public diplomacy. For this reason, states have to take into consideration fundamental values and characteristics of their target countries alongside with their own in determining their methods and tools of public diplomacy (Sancak, 2016a: 133).

3. Implementation Areas of Public Diplomacy

Public diplomacy is a tool that governments employ to influence the peoples of other countries and communicate with them rather than their governments. It aims to influence them by means of publishing and by organizing financed cultural exports and exchanges. However, if the culture, values and political contents of a country are not attractive, the public diplomacy that generates them cannot produce soft power (Nye, 2008: 95).

International arena and an environment of democracy brought about by the new world order made public diplomacy an indispensable discipline for international relations (Erzen, 2014: 121). Much as public diplomacy is seen as activities of communication between diplomats and societies, it means much more than that. It is a process that has a social and civil rather than bureaucratic structure, addresses hearts and minds, prioritizes mutual communication and interaction, aims to listen to the other group and determine their priorities and aims to realize exchange, persuasion and influence by spreading correct information.

The areas public diplomacy is implemented in also serve its purposes when they are implemented independently. In many countries, cultural diplomacy is employed independently of public diplomacy, but still realizes its purposes.

Activities of public diplomacy are performed in various ways. These are culture, education, faith, technology, lobbying and advocacy (Aydemir, 2016: 115).

3.1. Culture

Culture links the past and the present in a society and serves as an indispensable bridge. In addition to political views, behaviours and attitudes, it also influences political organizations and contributes to structuring of political organizations. Culture enables the transfer of political value systems to later generations and has an important role in political socialization along with family, friends, education and tools of mass communication (Kışlalı, 2008: 112). Commonly held beliefs, social customs, identity, ideologies, historical past, traditional practices, symbols, feelings, relationships, humour are all elements of culture.

Culture is the expression of the lifestyles of societies, it starts in the family and forms the core of societies. You need to start learning about the culture of a society if you want to influence that society. Cultural tools, which is also an area of implementation of public diplomacy, are written and visual media, cinema and movies, radio broadcasts, tools of popular culture, music and culture and art activities (Karadağ, 2016: 88).

Globalization, in a sense, erased national borders, and developed tools of communication enabled different cultures to get to know one another better (Sancak, 2021: 302). Therefore, cultural elements are very important for public diplomacy. Universality of a country's culture and its ability to manipulate international areas of activity. It contributes to power in such areas as democracy, freedom, reaching a more advanced level of social prosperity, education and foreign policy (Nye, 2005: 20).

Public diplomacy efforts involving culture, art, sports, fashion, literature and cultural interaction methods put into practice in various other areas contribute immensely to achieving political goals in the international arena. But, it should be kept in mind that these activities should not address only one group. Also, economic, political and socio-cultural structures of the countries that are targeted by activities of public diplomacy should also be kept in mind. Therefore, public diplomacy activities will inevitably produce results (Erzen, 2014: 131). In this respect, culture is an important source of soft power, but it is not a source that has only one source. That is why it can create negative reactions in one part of the society while it can create positive reactions in other parts of the same society (Sancak, 2016b: 19).

Cull defines the implementation area of culture in public diplomacy as follows: the struggle of the actor to manage international environment by facilitating cultural interaction abroad using its cultural sources and achievements (Cull, 2010: 19).

Cultural process, economic system they are integrated to, levels of cultural production of today's modern societies become integrated within the framework of consciousness industry and information. Thus, economic system both produces the culture it needs in accordance with its own capabilities and markets it within a framework that suits its own workings. Mass communication tools carry the cultural process to the target group in compliance with all the processes of the age. Culture in the practices of public diplomacy is used to influence foreign countries positively in order for a country to achieve its goals of foreign politics or diplomacy (Aydemir, 2016: 116).

The cultural activities that are made possible with the protocols signed between countries and joint activities by local governments in different countries are important in public diplomacy. Congenial dialogs between societies that are familiar with one another and their cultures are seen as elements that are easily made use of in achieving political goals. Culture is the sum of values and practices that a society sees meaningful. Therefore, if a country's culture features universal values and its policies advocate encouragement of the shared values and benefits, its chance of achieving desired results in public diplomacy increases (Sancar, 2012: 169).

Countries can continue their communication with other countries through cultural links even if their channels of diplomacy are blocked. Culture of public diplomacy is a behaviour of introducing benefits to the target group and its aim is to make target groups adopt ideas represented by themselves. Thus, it arouses feelings of curiosity in the target group through its messages and destroys prejudices and creates new images. Cultural relations have profound impacts and are more convincing way of changing negative and false beliefs than other methods of reputation management (Szondi, 2009: 302).

Culture, in a general sense, makes societies come closer to each other and accelerates interaction between peoples of different countries. The messages given to target group by public diplomacy create an interest in and an admiration for the culture and it will pave the way for the future political messages to be received positively. It is believed that political interaction between countries whose cultures share similar values is easy. Therefore, a country will influence a target country politically and will realize its objectives in the long run. Thus,

with activities of public diplomacy, a country will influence another country, which it can influence culturally, more easily (Sönmezoğlu, 2005: 362).

3.2. Education

Since education contributes to recognition of a country or its culture in the international arena, it can also contribute to activities of public diplomacy in the long run as well. Public diplomacy makers are important in that universities can reach the youth of the target country. Using public resources in a controlled way so as to draw positive attitudes from the universities of the target country might help. Universities have the capacity to reach the youth of the concerned country and thus have a profound influence on achieving the objectives of reaching a more extensive group. Students who receive education in the universities go to their countries and occupy important positions there and inevitably, they will contribute to improving good relations between their countries and the country in which they received education (Doğan, 2012: 23).

Another important element of public diplomacy along with its cultural tools is educational activities. Many students study at universities of other countries through exchange programs. They receive education at those universities with the help of their countries and private organizations. In addition, many academicians carry out scientific researches, attend conferences and seminars and exchange opinions with academicians from other countries. Authors, journalists and people with other professions take part in educational courses for various purposes. Therefore, education has become a tool as well (Karadağ, 2016: 96).

Powerful countries try to attract actors who, in the future, will be involved actively in decision-making process in their own countries by investing in new educational programs in their countries. These educational investments include cultural exchange programs and opportunities of scholarship to attract the target student group. Every year, hundreds of students, academicians, and scientists visit various countries and carry out studies. This helps establishing such programs between different countries (Erzen, 2014: 130).

Some countries try to create influence in spreading their language and culture through agencies. Thus, cultural interaction is created by Institutes and Cultural Centers financed by governments. These cultural centers spread the culture, lifestyle, and language of their countries (Özkan, 2007: 163).

Especially powerful countries create an influx of students from other countries into their own countries by investing in establishing a remarkable

educational structure. This practice dates far back in the past. Students can get education abroad through these exchange programs and can get to know the culture and social and political structures of the host country firsthand.

Student exchange programs between countries form the most effective part of educational tools. Students spend a part of their education in another country through exchange programs and thus, get to know characteristics of individuals, culture and lifestyle of the host country. Positive impressions that these students get during their education increase their sympathy towards the host country. Thus, a positive effect is created on these students (Karadağ, 2016: 96).

The main objective of exchange programs is to have the students who, in the future, might occupy important positions in their countries entertain positive feelings and moderate policies towards the country they received education in. However, since such objectives can only be achieved over a very long stretch of time, exchange programs are areas of public diplomacy that bear fruit in a very long period. Besides cultural interaction, the motive behind exchange programs is the will to find solutions to political problems. Exchange programs serve the purpose of developing good relations with foreign countries and reducing potential conflicts. Thus, exchange programs inevitably contribute to normalizing of political relations between countries (Smith, 2008: 50).

3.3. Religion

Religion is a diplomatic tool that has been in use in the international arena since ancient times. Many religions sent envoys to other nations in order to advertise their own set of faiths. Especially the envoys called missionaries tried to spread their religion they also looked out for the interests of their own countries. The most fundamental objective of these efforts has always been to maximize the economical interests of one's country (Karadağ, 2016: 110).

Religion is the faith in a superior power in which the whole of human existence depended on. This faith comes with a set of principles that emphasize moral boundaries. When you look at the history of religions, you see an interrelatedness with geography. Religions, like nations, are born, develop and change into moulds. Societies are comprised of individuals who believe in certain religious beliefs. However, the way these societies are organized differs from each other. From another perspective, religious organizations and the sects and orders they create interact with cultures and become a tool of resolving problems that arise between organizations (Giddens, 2000: 466).

Religion is one of the factors that becomes influential in foreign policies and is seen as a way in which people express themselves. In this respect, states can build foreign relations according to religious relations. It is usual to take religion into account in managing and planning foreign policies. If religious elements are deemed as an important factor by the society, religious concepts are often used in foreign policy arguments (Aydemir, 2016: 122).

Religion has lost its function of being the main objective in the formation and of nations and the relations between nations before nation-state period. However, its impact as social and political element still continues. It has become one of the important factors along with the main factors that have a bearing on the working of the system in the international arena that is based on nation-states. The most noticeable characteristic of the nation-state period is that religion is seen and used as a tool. In historical processes, countries used religion as a tool of foreign policy and tried to reach their objectives using it (Çağırın, 2007: 34). This put religion in a special position.

It is a fact that things deemed as important by societies and religious beliefs are transmitted to other societies in the world by actors and organizations. In this respect, religious authorities help important issues for states to be noticed and bring conflicts to the attention of societies. Therefore, religious leaders can campaign for raising international humanitarian aids and aids for development and resolving conflicts. In this respect, religions are important for public diplomacy (Marshall ve Farr, 2009: 198).

Religious diplomacy, which is a common area of practice in international relations and foreign policy, facilitates communication and interaction between societies. Besides, the fact that religious groups in one country communicate with religious groups in other countries provides important benefits for the countries concerned. Religion is used to resolve problems especially in areas of conflict. It fulfills certain functions in terms of public diplomacy. Public diplomacy creates a dialog between societies and a peaceful environment by using religion as power policy and bringing religion to the fore. Also, it forces state representative to behave in a certain manner and is an efficient factor in determining foreign policies (Aydemir, 2016: 124).

In today's world, religion is still important in the international arena and the relations between countries. Spiritual leader of Tibet having problems with China, attack on Bosnia and slaughter of its people especially for their religious beliefs after Yugoslavia was divided and collapsed, Chechenian troops in Russia, the struggle between Israel and Palestine are some of the examples of religion-

based issues of international relations. Generally speaking, the relation between religion and foreign policy is evident. In this context, public diplomacy, which can be defined as bringing about desired results in foreign policy by influencing another country, uses religion as an area of practice in foreign relations and practices (Karadağ, 2016: 112).

3.4. *Military*

Today, Peace Corps and military personnel exchange programs are regarded as the military areas of public diplomacy. Although military areas of practice are not seen as important as the other areas, they are, in fact, among the factors that give credit to countries (Gündoğdu, 2021: 96).

They play important roles in international and regional conflict zones when global or regional formations (UN, NATO, EU) establish order and maintain peace. In addition to establishing security and protecting lives, fighting starvation, regional reconstruction and building infrastructure are some of the activities they undertake. These activities are fulfilled for two purposes. The first is to gain credit in the eyes of the country in need of help, and the second is to gain the status of being a peacekeeping country by creating influence in the international public opinion. Turkish forces operating in Bosnia, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Somalia and Lebanon and their activities can be cited as an example of public diplomacy practices, which are, in fact, activities of winning the hearts and mind (Karadağ, 2016: 106).

3.5. *International Organizations*

Achieving peace and order in the world, spreading of commerce widely and the shift in the understanding of border concept as a result of globalization have led to the emergence of international organizations other than states in the international relations. EU, one of the first examples of these, started to be taken as a model by other countries for its successful activities in commerce at first. Since public diplomacy activities are an area where non-state actors, too, can engage in activities in international relations, it has become an area where private enterprise and formations gain importance. There are many examples of these. The UN, NATO, Arab League, Islamic Conference Organization, African League, ASEAN along with Greenpeace, World Peace Organization, Doctors Without Borders can be cited as examples (Karadağ, 2016: 112).

The United Nations, a universal organization, the NATO, a more regional organization that was established against the Eastern Block and the European Union, first established for economic integration in Europe and later expanded its area of activities, are some of the important organizations that play roles in the international area. These organizations have mechanisms that enable them to operate in case of natural disasters, zones of crisis and conflict with the joint decision of their members. Smaller organizations such as Arab and African Leagues and Islamic Conference Organization, too, perform such activities with the joint decision of their members. These organizations become the center of the attention because of their policies and areas of practice. Especially temporary membership to the United Nations Security Council or membership to the NATO or European Union has become a sign of prestige for the countries that are not members, and so creating appeal and building relationship with these organizations has gained importance. Apart from the prestige, being in such organizations allows countries to do politics and give them the opportunity to influence those policies. Türkiye was a temporary member to the UN Security Council in the 2009-2010 period. Thanks to this, Türkiye was able to follow an active foreign policy and had the right to speak on many international problems during this period. Especially, Turkey worked with another temporary member Brasil against Iran's efforts to become a nuclear power and tried to find solution to the problem. Although the USA rejected the solutions found by Türkiye, positive steps were taken in the process. Thanks to this, Türkiye assumed the role of neutral intermediary and played this role well, and boosted its prestige in the international environment. Türkiye later became a candidate to be the temporary membership to the UN Security Council for the years 2015-2016. As illustrated in the case of Türkiye, joining these groups and organizations and following active policies as a tool of public diplomacy contributes directly to the enhancement of country's image and popularity (Karadağ, 2016:113).

4. Conclusion

In today's foreign policy, defending a country's interests went beyond classical methods of diplomacy such as issuing statements, diplomatic initiative or diplomatic ultimatum. A new period has started in which states began developing policies directed not only at other countries or international organizations but also the peoples of other countries. Due to an increase in the value of public opinion and influencing it, public diplomacy has become an integral part of foreign policy in the international system that was restructured with changes and developments in technology, communication and information. Many states in

the world are engaged in public diplomacy activities to create a positive image in the eyes of other states.

Using public diplomacy to influence the citizens and to mould public's opinion towards a specific objective instead of using diplomacy as a tool to influence the political systems and decision making authorities of other countries has been an indicator of public diplomacy's effectiveness in recent years.

In line with these developments, new methods have begun to be discussed in international politics. In particular, it has been concluded that hard power now plays a negative role in moulding public opinion, and the victory it has achieved can no longer bring out a positive result in the long term. Because of this, many powerful states, especially the United States, have begun to use public diplomacy effectively in order to achieve their international goals, in order to direct the perceptions of the citizens of the country in their favor, rather than just influencing governments in international politics.

In this day and age, it has become a necessity to create global public diplomacy messages that do not differ according to the current management understandings of countries or the political processes taking place within the country. For this reason, in order for states to have a respected position in the international environment, to increase their acceptability and to be respected, they should create a public diplomacy message of this nature and scope. The way to achieve this is through the expansion of cooperation areas. By addressing foreign disputes and controversial issues in accordance with the characteristics of the target opinion, high-level contacts should be increased and an environment that will create support their foreign policies should be provided.

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CHAPTER XXXVIII

GLOBAL EXAMPLES TO APPLICATION OF PUBLIC DIPLOMACY: THE EXAMPLE OF TÜRKİYE

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1. Introduction

The primary purpose of every state in the international system is to protect and sustain its existence. The most important factor thus required is power and the international system is established on a power struggle in a sense. Dahl defines power as the ability of an actor A to make another actor B something that it would not do otherwise (Dahl, 1957:202,203). One of the important theoreticians of our day, John J. Mearsheimer similarly described power as the ability to coerce other states into doing things by establishing effect or control over them (Mearsheimer, 2001:55-70). When the methods used are taken as basis, the concept of power is subject to a dichotomous distinction in itself as hard power and soft power. Hard power is based more on a state's military and economic factors and grounded on a direct intervention towards target state. Soft power, on the other hand, is described as the ability to pull attract to itself and attractive power in Nye's words (Nye, 2005:15) and expressed as the ability of a state to impact policies of others with its admirable culture, foreign policy, and political values. Soft power is passive and expresses a potential (İ. Sancak, 2018:337). In order for values to evoke admiration and turn into soft power, it must be primarily presented to the target audience. This is only possible with public diplomacy activities. Emergence of a trend towards soft from hard in use of power in international relations makes public diplomacy based on soft power even more important.

2. Public Diplomacy Examples in the World

Although the concept of public diplomacy entered the literature in 1965, policies in line with this approach are known to be applied in international relations since ancient times. However, the first step of institutionalization with public diplomacy understanding was taken by the French in 1883 by establishing Alliance Francaise (Nye, 2088: 96). Afterwards, the British and Americans during the Cold War period - mostly in the area of press - established institutions to conduct public diplomacy activities.

Public diplomacy activities are activities to effect other people with correct information and legitimate tools which requires communication. In this context, there is a linear relationship between popularization and accessibility of means of communication and increased effectiveness of public diplomacy activities. Especially in the 21st Century, easy access and popularization of the Internet lead to an unforeseen increase in communication and interaction among people, which increased the importance of public diplomacy policies.

Several states that want to have a say in the global system started to invest in this area. Other than the mentioned states, China was among those states that paid the most attention to this area. Adopting soft power policies as official policy, China lately emphasized public diplomacy activities with Olympics and the like sports organizations (Demirtepe & Özertem, 2013: 103), its cinema and cultural promotion institutions such as Confucius Institute (Zhou & Luk: 2016). Another rising power of the global system, India acts with the same understanding as its neighbor, China. Especially Indian cinema sector, Bollywood makes major contributions in this regard. In addition, corporate structures such as India Cultural Relations Council are active in public diplomacy area (Cull, 2008). Russia is another state that underlines public diplomacy activities despite its contradicting to the official foreign policy (Ekşi, 2015). In addition, countries such as Iran (Şahin & Seyedi, 2020), Japan (Snow, 2016), Germany, Spain, and Italy (Yılmaz & Kılıçoğlu, 2017) invest in this areas with institutions that would promote their language and culture.

3. Public Diplomacy Activities of Türkiye

1.1. Türkiye's Soft Power Policy and Public Diplomacy Policies

In Turkish history, public diplomacy activities have been undertaken for centuries. It is observed that some successful activities were conducted during the Ottoman State in this field (Gündoğdu, 2021:163). Especially Sultan Abdülhamid the

Second is known with his successful activities in this regard (İ. Sancak, 2019). However, such activities could not be continued in the Republican Era following the Ottomans with a corporate structure. Application of public diplomacy in the foreign policy with a corporate identity and in the context of a certain policy started in a recent period in the Turkish history. Following the dissolution of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, new and independent states sharing various cultural values with Türkiye emerged in the east and in the west. This created a suitable environment for Türkiye to conduct public diplomacy activities. The interaction between the parties that are culturally close to each other would be easier, which increases the chances of successful public diplomacy activities. However, in the last decade of the 20th century, reasons such as instability in Türkiye's domestic political structure, terrorism and economic crisis did not allow the implementation of the desired public diplomacy policies.

With the restoration of political stability at the beginning of the 21st century, the AK Party government adopted a political understanding that aims to have a greater say in the international arena. In order to achieve this, the government started to follow a policy that placed soft power at its center (Gündoğdu, 2021:1278). The fact that Türkiye was a soft power or that it was following a soft power policy was expressed on different platforms by both the president (Gül, 2007: 192) and the prime minister of the time (Tübitak, 2013). Türkiye is a soft power discourse was developed parallel to its claim to define itself as a regional power and to have a say in global issues. This situation did not remain at the level of discourse, but was put into practice with the establishment of many institutional structures in the field of public diplomacy. While, new structures were created in the required areas, the existing ones were restructured within the framework of the new foreign policy understanding. More importantly, these institutions, which were not in contact with each other, were coordinated under an umbrella structure in this period and mobilized around a common goal in the context of the determined foreign policy vision.

1.2. Public Institutions that Conduct Public Diplomacy Activities

1.2.1. Directorate of Communications

The increase in institutionalization in public diplomacy together with the AK Party government created the need for coordination between the said institutions. In response to this need, the Public Diplomacy Coordinate was established under

the responsibility of the Chief Advisor of the Prime Ministry in 2010 (Turan & Karafil, 2017). However, after the transition to the presidential government system in 2018, a new structuring was created. The Presidency Directorate of Communications, which served the same purpose, was established with the Presidential Decree No. 14 published in the Official Gazette on July 24, 2018 (Directorate of Communications, 2022).

The Directorate of Communications primarily aims to collect the public diplomacy activities carried out with official institutions around a common goal and to ensure a unity of discourse. The institution explains its purpose as strengthening the brand of Türkiye and takes action on three main directions. The first is to ensure crisis communication by creating rapid responses to developments. The second is to increase Türkiye's capacity of persuasion and influence by reinforcing its public diplomacy with strategic communication management. This area concerns struggle against structures supported by anti-Türkiye global lobbies for several years. The third is to invest in strategic actors as a long-term goal (Özkır, 2019).

Despite being a newly established institution, the Directorate of Communications conducts an active work pace both at the level of directorate and through institutions such as TRT and Anatolian Agency in its structure. Preparing written and visual content including Türkiye's theses to present to the public and to political interlocutors in foreign visits, publishing articles reflecting the opinions of the president, and organizing panel discussions are among the major activities organized by the directorate (Özkır, 2019).

1.2.2. Turkish Cooperation and Development Agency (TİKA)

Established in 1992 under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, The Turkish Cooperation and Development Agency (TİKA) declared its purpose of establishment as supporting the restructuring, harmonization and development processes of the Turkic Republics, that gained independence after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The institution was later connected to the Prime Ministry and restructured in 2011 under the name of the Turkish Cooperation and Coordination Agency Directorate. When the presidential government system was introduced in 2018, the office of prime minister was annulled and this time TİKA was incorporated into the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (TİKA History, 2022).

TİKA conducts activities in various areas such as developing projects in economics, commerce, society, culture, and education. The said activities are

conducted in a broad geography from the Middle East and Balkans to Africa, Latin America, and Pacific.

Activity performance of TİKA displayed differences between the period until 2002 and the period following 2002. In the first period, economic crises and political instability affected activities abroad. TİKA, went through its infancy and conducted a total of 2241 projects in this decade (Akıllı, 2013:120). The new foreign policy outlook that started with AK Party government in the second period after 2002 was reflected on TİKA's activities. In this context, as a reflection of the multi-directional and active foreign policy, there was a significant increase in TİKA's activity areas, number of projects, and budget spending. With 62 program coordination offices established in 60 countries as of 2022, around 30,000 projects and activities were conducted in over 170 countries in almost all areas from education to health, production sectors to development of administrative and civil infrastructure (TİKA, 2021).

TİKA's duty description covers providing economic, commercial, technical, social, cultural and educational assistance to target countries and communities, developing cooperation with them, preparing the economic infrastructure tools and support programs they would need, providing support for reducing unemployment and poverty, increasing the level of education, and such other activities. In addition, TİKA's major duties include ensuring the coordination of humanitarian aid and technical support to foreign countries and communities (TİKA, 2021).

TİKA's duty description does not directly refer to soft power and public diplomacy. However, the said activities are public diplomacy activities that can turn Türkiye's potential into soft power and TİKA comes among the most successful institutions conducting activities in this context.

1.2.3. Maarif Foundation

Turkish Maarif Foundation is the door of Türkiye that opens to the world in international education. Established in 2016, Turkish Maarif Foundation is the only institution that is authorized to directly open educational institutions abroad on behalf of Republic of Türkiye other than the Ministry of Education. A non-profit foundation conducting activities for public benefit, Turkish Maarif Foundation was established to conduct effective activities in every state at every stage of education from preschool to higher education (Türkiye Maarif Foundation).

Operating in 67 countries around the world as of 2022, the Foundation provides education to a total of 48,683 students in 427 educational institutions, including 21 education centers and 1 university in 50 countries. Upon examining the areas where the foundation operates, it is observed that the Foundation has a global spread, instead of regional and aims being active in every region of the world, as in the USA, Azerbaijan, Sierra Leone, Venezuela, Tanzania, Belarus, Colombia and Australia (Maarif Bulletin, 2022).

The foundation conducts activities in areas such as opening of pre-school, primary, secondary and higher education institutions and the establishment of supporting structures such as libraries, laboratories, arts and sports facilities. In addition, establishing educational media outlets, developing and producing educational programs and contents, organizing symposiums, conferences and workshops and cooperating with institutions and organizations operating in this field are also among the activities of the foundation (Maarif Foundation, 2022).

Educational activities are the main field of activity of public diplomacy. In this context, the activities of the Foundation occupy an important place in Türkiye's public diplomacy policy. The Foundation is one of the newest Turkish institutions established in the field of public diplomacy. It is expected that the foundation, that conducted successful activities in a short time, will increase its fields of activity and the number of institutions over time.

1.2.4. Yunus Emre Institute (YEE)

As mentioned above, the initial institutional structures in the field of public diplomacy were established with the aim of promoting and disseminating language and culture. Some countries that invest in this field, such as France, England, Spain, China and Germany, carry out cultural diplomacy activities with their institutions such as Alliance Francaise, British Council, Cervantes Institute, Confucius Institute, and Goethe Institute (Bilkan, 2010: 331). Compared to the said countries, Türkiye was late in establishing institutional structures in this area. However, with the establishment of the Yunus Emre Institute under the Yunus Emre Foundation in 2007, this distance began to close. YEE, which opened its first office in 2009, displayed a rapid development in the 13 years and came to serve in 52 countries with 62 cultural centers (YEE president's message, 2022).

Yunus Emre Institute carries out activities to promote and teach Turkish culture, art and language to the world. The institute presents the rich cultural heritage of Türkiye with music, modern and classical Turkish handicrafts,

theatre, cinema, photography, literature, Turkish cuisine and the such activities including concerts, exhibitions, workshops, stage shows, film screenings, scientific meetings, intellectual meetings, and art courses (Yunus Emre Institute, 2022). Among these activities, teaching Turkish has an important place among activities of the Institute. In addition to the Turkish education given in cultural centers, support is provided to Turkish teaching and Turcology departments by cooperating with educational institutions in various countries (Ünalmiş, 2019: 148).

Increasing the number of activities and students every year, YEE compensated the language trainings that could not be provided face-to-face due to the Covid 19 epidemic, with online training. So much so that Turkish became the fifth most learned language during the pandemic period (Munyar, 2021). YEE, which conducted very successful activities despite being a new institution, has set as its target for 2023, the centennial of the establishment of the Republic of Türkiye, to increase the number of cultural centers to 100.

1.2.5. Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities (YTB)

Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities was established in order to integrate activities concerning groups that previously found the opportunity to be represented at a low level and the activities that were carried out dispersedly by other institutions. The Presidency for Turks Abroad and Related Communities, which was established in 2010 under the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, undertakes the task of coordinating, developing the services and activities for the citizens of the Republic of Türkiye abroad, the sister communities we lived together under the same roof in certain periods of history, and international scholarship students studying in Türkiye (YTB Presidency, 2022).

One of the most functional means of making an impact on the target audience with public diplomacy activities is face-to-face communication. Turkish citizens or people of Turkish origin living in other countries represent Türkiye in the countries they are in and a sense provide an opportunity to form a positive or negative opinion about Turkish people through face-to-face communication. It is highly important for the said diaspora to preserve their identity in the countries they live in, have a sense of belonging to and accordingly to contribute to the promotion of Türkiye. Thus, YTB, which is active in the context of public diplomacy for the diaspora, fills an important gap in a previously neglected area.

Another significant area of activity of YTB is international students. Within the scope of “Türkiye Scholarships” put into practice for them, scholarships

are given to an average of 5,000 international students annually. As of 2021, Türkiye became one of the countries with the highest number of international students, with approximately 148,000 international students, 25 thousand being scholarship students. Türkiye aims to increase this number to 200,000 in 2023 (YTB International Student Mobility, 2022).

1.2.6. Directorate of Religious Affairs

Today, as in the past, religion plays a major role in people's lives. A component of culture, religion is a significant activity area of cultural diplomacy in particular and of public diplomacy in general.

Türkiye avoided adopting a religion-centered attitude in its foreign policy due to its secular structure. However, it benefits from Islamic Faith that is a part of its identity in the context of common cultural value with the people in its region. Islam creates a link between Türkiye and the Muslim people in the world as a common denominator and contribute to Türkiye's soft power. Aware of this, the government underlines religious activities in the context of public diplomacy policies and is more tolerant concerning religious activities towards abroad than activities at home.

Religious activities in Türkiye are undertaken by Directorate of Religious Activities (DİB) at the public level (Coştu & Ceyhan, 2015: 40). Religious activities towards abroad are also undertaken by DİB and related foundations and associations. Article 62 of the Constitution that states "The state takes the necessary measures to ensure the family unity of Turkish citizens working in foreign countries, to ensure their children's education, cultural needs and social security, to protect their ties with the homeland and to assist them in their return home," creates the legal foundation of DİB's activities abroad (Republic of Türkiye Constitution).

DİB is more active in near areas such as the Middle East, Europe, and the Balkans and conducts activities in various areas. As of 2021 there are a total of 459 DİB employees working at foreign organizations 70 of whom are permanent and 389 of whom are contractual. In addition to basic duties fulfilled at missions at foreign representations and religious functionaries at mosques, DİB also conducts activities especially in the area of education. Within the framework of cooperation with the Turkish Religious Foundation and the Ministry of National Education, the Quran course provides education in Türkiye for students from different countries in addition to high school, undergraduate and graduate level education. In this context, 1064 students from 70 different countries continue

their education in Türkiye in 2021 within the framework of the International Students Anatolian Imam-Hatip High Schools Program. In the International Students Theology Education Program, a total of 46 students from 22 different countries, including 17 master's and 29 PhD students, continue their academic studies at different universities. In addition, 136 students who want to receive hafiz or religious knowledge in the Qur'an courses are also trained in the courses (DİB 2021 Administrative Activity Report, 2021).

In addition, the directorate organizes ceremonies such as conferences, meetings, panels and circumcision ceremonies in many places abroad. Also, free books and similar religious materials, in addition to meat of sacrificed animals are distributed almost all over the world. Apart from the aforementioned, DİB adopts a more active attitude in many different areas from the construction of mosques in the context of the sister city project to religious leaders summits bringing Muslims from different regions of the world together and makes a positive contribution to Türkiye's reputation in the international arena (Directorate of Religious Affairs Annual Report 2013).

1.2.7. Turkish Radio and Television Corporation (TRT)

Radio and television are among the first areas of public diplomacy where institutionalization took place. Britain started broadcasting activities about a century ago with BBC (Avşar, 2005: 94) and Türkiye initiated the same activities with Turkish Radio and Television Corporation (TRT) established in 1964. However, TRT started broadcasting towards abroad in public diplomacy framework in the 1990's. Initially TRT-INT broadcasting started towards Turkish workers in Europe which was followed in 1993 by TRT-AVRASYA channel broadcasting towards the Caucasus and the Middle Asia. However the desired success was not achieved with broadcasts made in various different languages and dialects from the same channel. In 2009 a new opening took place on this issue and TRT 6 (TRT Kürdi) broadcasting in Kurdish and TRT Arapça (TRT-El Arabia) broadcasting in Arabic television networks started broadcasting. Starting English broadcasting in 2015 with TRT World network, TRT increased its coverage of broadcasting towards abroad (TRT History, 2022). On the other hand, radio and web-based broadcasting provided the opportunity to address a broader area.

Although television and radio described as traditional media lost their monopoly over broadcasting with prevalence of the Internet and social media in the world, they continue to keep their importance. International broadcasting is

an effective means for states to explain their stories to other people. Although Türkiye was late in this competition compared to many other countries, it tries to close the gap with the steps it took in recent years. Türkiye has two main purposes in its international broadcasting. Broadcasting in languages other than Turkish aims to tell and promote Türkiye's story and ideas to other people, Turkish broadcasting aims to ensure Turkish citizens living abroad keep their culture while foreigners willing to learn Turkish have this opportunity (Zaimoğlu, 2006).

1.2.8. Anatolian Agency

International news agencies are the institutions that determine the majority of the news published by the mass media. There are many newsworthy developments in the world every day. The news agencies decide which of these news will be delivered to the masses. Setting the agenda in public diplomacy is of great importance. News agencies play a decisive role in determining the agenda with their news choices. In addition, the perspective from which the news is presented and the words chosen in the language of the news play a critical role in shaping the public perception. Many countries, which are aware of the importance of news agencies in terms of public diplomacy, try to influence the international public opinion with the news agencies they have established.

Türkiye conducts relevant activities with the Anatolian Agency (AA). Established in 1920, the AA was restructured recently to become an effective public diplomacy institution. AA started publishing in languages other than Turkish from 2012 onwards and made considerable progress in a short time. In its centennial, the institution increased the number of languages it publishes to 13 and started giving services to 2300 subscribers. Publishing in over 100 countries with its more than 3000 employees, the AA became one of the effective news agencies of the world (AA In One Look, 2022).

1.2.9. Other

The purpose of public diplomacy activities is to effect other people and in parallel to increasing means of communication, states conduct these activities through several institutions. While some institutions are established to directly contribute to public diplomacy, some institutions contribute to public diplomacy in addition to their basic missions. Starting from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Culture, various ministries, municipalities, universities, and

public institutions even like the Turkish Armed Forces contribute at different levels to Türkiye's public diplomacy activities in their areas of activity.

1.3. Civil Organizations that Contribute to Public Diplomacy

Public diplomacy activities conducted by civil organizations are more trustworthy compared to those conducted by public institutions, thus they are more effective. Although the independence of the said organizations from the state is a subject of discussion, their perception as civil organizations by the target mass creates the desired effect. Various organizations that can be qualified as civil contribute to public diplomacy activities of Türkiye whether intended or not. One of the first of such activities to come to mind is Turkish TV series and movies. Türkiye exports the highest number of TV series after the USA and Turkish TV series are watched by over 700,000,000 people in more than 150 countries (Sayın, 2021). In addition to promotion of the state, TV series and movies increases sympathy towards Türkiye in public opinion of the state they are screened and the number of tourists, ensures Türkiye remains on agenda, and directly affect broadening markets for Turkish products (Güler Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2010: 314).

Another civil society organizations that must be mentioned in Türkiye's public diplomacy activities is the non-governmental organizations (NGO). Active in especially humanitarian and education areas, NGOs positively contribute to the image of Türkiye in many countries. There are various NGO active abroad and among these the Red Crescent that lent a helping hand to 147 countries since its establishment (Red Crescent History, 2022), İHH that is active in 120 counties (Şahinoğlu, 2020) and Doctors Worldwide that conduct activities in over 50 counties especially in the area of health (Doctors Worldwide 2020 Activity Report, 2020) are the first NGOs to come to mind.

Artistic and sports activities occupy an important place in public diplomacy. Turkish artists that take place in concerts, exhibitions, and festivals abroad contribute to Türkiye's promotion. Participation in international competitions individually or as a club create the same effect.

There are more Türkiye-centered civil organizations active abroad than can be mentioned here. Among these there are commercial organizations as well as volunteer-based organizations. Although the main purpose of their activities is not public diplomacy, consequently they undertake public diplomacy activities by contributing to Türkiye's promotion and image.

3. Result and Assessment

Increasing number and spread of global communication opportunities lead the masses to be more interested in political developments and to influence them. As a result, opinions of the international public becomes more important. On the other hand, the high costs of hard power policies make soft power policies attractive. All these issues explain the reason why various states have recently begun to emphasize public diplomacy activities.

Similar to many states that have to have a say in the international area, Türkiye also started to prioritize public diplomacy policies. Especially in the last five years the few number of institutions that contribute to public diplomacy were reorganized and made more functional, while new institutions were established. Türkiye progressed considerably in this race despite having being a late starter.

Public institutions had more weight in Türkiye's public diplomacy activities that were conducted in two separate channels as public institutions and civil organizations. Civil organizations remained limited in the few areas mentioned and could not contribute at the desired level.

Türkiye has a recent history of determining public diplomacy policies and establish corporate institutions and this process is progressing in all speed. Thus, Türkiye is expected to continue its relevant activities and take new steps in an increased speed.

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CHAPTER XXXIX

PERSONNEL AND PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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1. Introduction

The globalization and the winds of change and transformation in ICT have also affected public administration and management approaches. The transition from the traditional approach to the New Public Administration approach necessitated reviewing the concept of personnel and personnel management. With the New Public Administration, the personnel started to express value for the institution. The most critical factor in corporate continuity and performance became the personnel and their skills. Human resource is the most valuable asset that organizations can have; managing talents is also very important. Managers play a critical role in this process because corporate performance can be achieved with managers and leaders who adopt successful management strategies.

Public obligations, duties, and responsibilities also determine corporate functioning. Qualified personnel is as indispensable as financial power for the survival of the corporate structure. With the New Public Administration approach, human resource has been accepted as the institution's most valuable asset in the public personnel administration, and the investment in human has started to be taken as a boost of corporate assets. The new approach eliminated the existing problems and deficiencies of the public administration and provided a modern atmosphere for the management approach. As a comprehensive concept, public administration consists of the services offered to society and the corporate structure and personnel that perform all the operations. Public services are carried out by public personnel. The effectiveness and efficiency of these services are directly proportional to the quality of the staff.

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the recruitment and personnel management process, which is the mirror of the corporate structure. For this purpose, the concepts of public administration and personnel were analyzed, the relationship between them was reviewed, and the change in the personnel management approach emerging with the change and transformation in public administration was discussed. The study addressed the subject with its theoretical aspects, discussing the changes in public administration and personnel concepts in the historical process and their effects in detail. First, the theoretical framework of public administration and personnel was discussed within this framework. Then the history of personnel management in public administration, the basic principles dominating personnel management, the classification of personnel and personnel systems in public administration, and the effect of the changes that occurred in public administration on personnel management were discussed, followed by the conclusion.

2. Theoretical Framework of the Concepts of Public Administration and Personnel

Public administration is an administrative mechanism that deals with the intertwined and often conflicting problems of the whole society, ensuring the correct and effective execution of public services. As communities grow and develop, the structure and functionality of the states also enlarge, and institutions get specialized, increasing their authenticity and differences. The word “public” in Turkish means “all-whole-the people in a country-the people as a whole-community”. The concept of public expresses not only formality and generality but also openness and belonging to the public, transparency, the opposite of privacy and confidentiality (Eryılmaz, 2021: 8-9). The public is a concept with a comprehensive perspective covering the entire society, and public administration is defined as the administration of the whole (Parlak and Doğan, 2016: 23). Public administration addresses the political, social, cultural, and legal framework and environment that affects the functioning of public institutions and covers interdisciplinary topics such as political science, sociology, business, and law. It should be kept in mind that it is the intersection point via interdisciplinary collaboration and interaction (Shafritz et al., 2009: 30-31). Being affected by different fields and also affecting them, public administration allows seeing the problems from a holistic perspective. It thus shortens the solution process, which is the most distinctive feature of public administration that distinguishes it from other branches of science.

Regarding its functional and operational definitions, public administration covers all activities related to creating and executing policies involving producing goods and services to meet people's basic needs. It also covers implementing the management, policies, legal theories, and procedures to fulfill the works and administrative decisions stipulated by the legislation regarding the delivery of public services. It includes the processes created for implementing laws and administrative regulations, organizations, actions, and transactions of the public personnel (Stillman II, 2005: 2-4). Public administration also refers to a profession. It is a job or occupation built on systematical knowledge or theory (Gargan, 1998: 1090). The essential function of public administration, which is a comprehensive concept with different theoretical meanings, is to increase the interaction between disciplines and promote interdisciplinary transition.

Public administration as a science operates within the framework of different objectives. The primary purpose is to describe and explain the status, organization, function, and behavior as they are. Public administration draws a picture of all legal, technical, social, human, and political aspects of national state administration, local governments, government business enterprises, and many other similar administrative bodies. This is the *defining and descriptive* aspect of public administration, which also develops and improves these policies by validating administrative organizations' *raison d'être*. It analyzes public policies, reviews the principles that dominate the administration, determines the common points in employee behavior in the institutions, investigates the reasons behind these behaviors, and turns concrete events into systematic views and schemes. All these are related to its *theoretical* function. Public administration is also a *profession*. It emerges as a system for producing and presenting goods and services to the public to ensure the continuity of the state and social order, implementing the laws, and meeting the public's everyday needs. People, organizations, public policy, norms, financial resources, state employees, and information technologies are the essential components of the public administration system (Özer, 2005: 30-32). The effectiveness and performance of public administration depend on a solid corporate structure and the skills and quality of its personnel. The productivity obtained from the staff acting in line with the corporate objectives and integrated with the organization reaches the highest level. The concept of personnel changed with the change in the administration approach; now, it is seen as the most valuable asset of an organization.

Public personnel is primarily responsible for fulfilling state duties/public services and providing them to society. Material components are important in the fulfillment of public services, but the personnel, which can be called the human factor, constitute the key element of this function (Gözübüyük, 2004: 187). Every institution has a foundational purpose and a foreseen goal. The public personnel supports the administrative organization and ensures its efficient functioning to reach the determined mission and vision. Employees of the public institutions are called public personnel or civil servants in the most general sense; they fulfill public duties and constitute the human dimension of public institutions. Broadly, personnel management is defined as the science and art of employing people and letting them do their job to reach corporate objectives. In the narrow sense, it covers employees' recruitment and preparation, classification, salary and financial rights, registry, promotion and replacement, rights and obligations, discipline, retirement, and dismissal (Nohutçu, 2022: 377).

3. History of Personnel Management in Public Administration

With the transition from the classical to the new public administration approach, various changes and transformations occurred in all areas of public administration; some concepts were revised and defined according to the new management approach. One of these concepts is the human factor, which has been expressed as personnel in the past but later turned into the concept of human resources and accepted as the organization's most valuable asset. Apart from the material assets that organizations have in public institutions and the private sector, people constitute the intellectual assets that can be defined as human capital. Globalization and changes in ICT have also affected organizations and obliged them to adapt to these changes. The first step to success in this process is to have skilled, efficient, and adequate personnel and managers with a strategic management approach.

The Industrial Revolution, which started in England in the second half of the 18th century, spread to Europe and America in the 19th and 20th centuries. The emergence of the factories and mass production with the revolution affected the production systems and relations. Mass production caused an increase in the production of many products, and they have started to be exported to the Far East and European countries. Liberalism was dominant in this period; workers had to work in horrible conditions while employers made huge profits. Long working hours, low wages, adverse conditions, and social policy problems are the essential factors that left their mark on this period (Bingöl, 2019: 7).

The rapid change in technology in the late 18th century and the specialization in the workforce that the industrial revolution caused led to the emergence of human resources management. The increase in specialization along with the division of labor has also changed the perspective of the workforce. The lack of labor protection before the state and public institutions and buying and selling it as a worthless item rather than treating it as a corporate asset was a problem. Employees started to get organized to protect themselves against employers and improve their working and living conditions, which led to collective bargaining (Özgen and Yalçın, 2018: 3).

Shortly before 1900, human resource management was first organized in institutions as a specialization. Until this time, supervisors had made decisions about personnel selection, training, and remuneration; as the organizations grew, specialists started to make decisions regarding many managerial functions such as marketing, finance, and personnel. At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, companies with a paternalistic perspective established welfare offices and appointed welfare officers. Primarily women were assigned to these offices, and efforts mainly addressed the welfare of female employees. These developments revealed that increasing employees' commitment is necessary to increase productivity. Debates have begun, suggesting that increasing the welfare and well-being of the employees by creating a larger pool of candidates has softened industrial relations (Torrington et al., 2008: 12).

With the strengthening of the trade union movement, the Welfare Secretariat was established to ensure the welfare of the workers, with the desire to increase workplace productivity. These secretariats only addressed women first; however, they later started to include men as well. After the First World War, the number of welfare secretariats increased, especially in ammunition and war factories (Tyson, 2006: 68). Scientific management studies started in 1885 by Frederick W. Taylor, one of the significant founders of management science. The research focused on corporate performance and increasing the efficiency and productivity of corporate functioning (Bingöl, 2019: 8). In the early 1900s, the human factor and work were combined by Elton Mayo et al. in a study carried out at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne facilities. Human resources management gained new dimensions, and the "Scientific Management Approach, Human Relations Approach, and Human Resources Approach" emerged. These approaches evolved human resources management of today through four stages. The first stage was administrative affairs management, the

second was personnel management, the third was human resources management, and the last was strategic human resources management (Dessler et al., 2002: 2).

The concept of “industrial psychology”, introduced by Hugo Munsterberg in 1913, focused on individual differences. Industrial psychology, a part of Taylor et al.’s research on work and productivity, gave a new impetus to personnel management. These developments in the world and the incredible progress of technology, labor unions, and the change in governments’ perspective on workers necessitated the opening of personnel-related departments in the private sector. The human resources department has become a bridge between managers and blue-collar employees (Özgen and Yalçın, 2018: 3-4). Human resources management has gone through various change and transformation processes. The pioneers of the development of human resources management are: Drucker and McGregor in the 1950s, Maslow-Likert and Herzberg, who contributed to the Behavioral Science Approach in the 1960s, Bennis’s Organizational Development Movement between 1960 and 1970, Pascale-Athos and Peters-Waterman, Pettigrew’s Organizational Culture Analysis and finally the new approaches developed by Walton (Armstrong, 2014: 38).

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth discussed job design and effectiveness. Hawthorne’s studies in the mid-1920s revealed that workgroups have an individual impact on workers, leading to the use of worker counseling and tests in the industry. The power of the unions that labor law had enhanced in the 1930s continued to rise in the 1940s and 1950s. Collective bargaining and worker-employer relations gained importance. Consequently, the responsibilities of the personnel department were expanded in many organizations. Personnel departments were established; these departments’ primary roles were keeping wage and pension records, arranging shareholder visits, managing school relations, and organizing corporate picnics. Personnel specialists managed new collective bodies, such as joint advisory and production committees, and developed recommendation programs to uncover new realities. In the 1940s, a legal position was established in nationalized industries to negotiate with unions representing workers. The government encouraged staff appointments, and the Ministry of Labor created a personnel management advisory service. From the early 1950s, Personnel Management became more professional and was recognized as a profession. Personnel Directors were appointed to large enterprises in most Western countries, and with the expansion of the field of duty, specialists began to be employed in these departments (Bingöl, 2019: 9).

After their establishment in the organization, Personnel Management Department started to undertake operational roles. It has become a unit that coordinates all activities related to human resources within the organization, such as keeping employee records and opening files, selection, training, and development of the staff for the organization, salaries and awards to be given, and regulation of relations between union and management (Martin, 2010: 129). Although Personnel Management Units' functions were increasing every day, they lacked a structure allowing them to adapt to environmental conditions and new developments. From the 1960s to the 1980s, some changes and transformations took place in these units. The legal requirements and limitations in the 1960s and 1970s social laws forced these units to change. In addition, the studies in administrative sciences raised interest in the effect of automation and job design on worker productivity, resulting in a new perspective on employee involvement and the nature of the job (Malthis and Jackson, 2008: 35). The Civil Rights Convention, adopted in the USA in 1968, provided an overview of organizations' recruitment and placement processes and increased the quality of business life; associating productivity in the service delivery and the satisfaction of the personnel emphasized the concepts such as job enrichment and career development (Schuler and Jackson, 2001: 181). As of the 1970s, organizations have adopted and implemented a strategic management approach and considered human resources as an asset and strategic resource, which is one of the most critical developments in the personnel management approach (Bayat, 2008: 69).

In addition to the developments in the international arena, changes such as the increase in the education level, higher living standards, attitudes towards work, legal regulations, and the entry of new and powerful competitors from different countries into the competition have put organizations in a more challenging position regarding the use of people. As a result of all these developments, personnel management was transformed into Human Resources Management, a new approach to meet modern organizations' needs more effectively. This approach emerging in the early 1980s was also used as a concept, and organizations began implementing Human Resources Management policies and practices. However, globalization and the incredible development of technology have caused this concept to revise itself. In the 1980s, the strategic role of Human Resources Management began to gain importance. As a result of this continuing increase, it evolved into Strategic Human Resources Management in the 1990s. The issues such as staffing, training and development, performance evaluation, wage and rewarding, integration of employees with the organization and

increasing their corporate commitment, motivation, participation in decisions, personnel empowerment, teamwork, and information management have gained importance in this process. In the case of a comparison between Personnel Management and Human Resources Management: Personnel Management is short-term, business-oriented, traditionalist, and passive; it is based on external control and has a managerial focus; it is separated and isolated from the corporate mission, sees people as costs, and has a bureaucratic/mechanical structure. On the other hand, the Human Resources Management approach is long-term and people-oriented; it is based on self-control and strategic focus; it is an innovative, proactive management approach with an organic structure; it focuses on the corporate mission and considers people as a resource and investment (Bingöl, 2019: 11).

With the use of the system approach in human resources management, the whole of private relations has started to gain importance. Legal arrangements were made in human resources management, trying to give a particular norm to the personnel policies in public and private sectors at the international level. The first concrete step of ILO was keeping personnel records, which was the lowest level of personnel management in the 1940s. It was followed by creating personnel departments at the supervisor level in the 1950s. In the 1960s, lower-level managers started to make efforts to solve the daily problems of the organization's personnel. In the 1970s, the management level related to personnel was middle-management and advanced up to work relations. The concept of human resources emerged after 1980, and senior management became responsible for human resources. Today, organization and human resources are closely related to each other. Regulations regarding workforce policies, planning, recruitment, personnel selection and evaluation, wages, collective bargaining, and human resources control are still in force (Tortop et al., 2017: 17).

Today, human resources management undertakes a managerial function. It is an integral part of the management, and the human factor plays a significant role in the organization's strategic planning. It gained strategic importance in the profit and efficiency of the organization and in determining its mission, vision, and goals. Human resource is a holistic concept that covers the entire organization and includes employees and managers. The whole process, including job applications, selection, training, development, career planning, performance evaluation, wage management, and motivation of the staff to be included in the human resources of the organization, communication established with them, and the awards given must be carried out by the corporate managers and functional

units (Ivancevich, 1998: 7-8). The human resources owned by public institutions and private companies have become the organization's intellectual capital and play a key role in ensuring corporate efficiency and continuity. For this reason, it has now been accepted that the human factor is an asset as the tangible assets owned by the organization. The return on investments of this asset is vital for the organization because corporate efficiency and continuity are only possible by using the skills, power, performance, and knowledge of human resources in line with the organization's objectives.

4. Basic Principles Dominating Personnel Management

Public personnel management covers the policies, conditions and rules and official and informal practices to which the people who fulfill the duties undertaken by the state will be subject. The rules and procedures that dominate the management process are critical in implementing issues such as classification, commissioning, and assignment of public services and personnel, determining their wages, training, evaluation, promotion, rights, duties, and responsibilities (Eryilmaz, 2021: 300). Effectiveness and efficiency in public administration are possible with workforce diversity. Considering the differences rather than similarities within the framework of equal employment opportunities by prioritizing individual traits instead of groups or labels significantly affects the productivity obtained from the personnel (Neault and Mondair, 2011: 79).

Regarding personnel management, supporting and retaining the global workforce by a mission definition based on differences and implementing changes so that employees establish a balance between their career responsibilities and their families or other existing responsibilities allows reaching the corporate vision in a much shorter time (DeCenzo et al., 2016: 11).). The organization's perception emerging during the personnel recruitment process will also determine the corporate image over time. Although personnel recruitment conditions of the private sector and public institutions are different, the basic principles and rules to be followed are similar. In the private sector, the motive is making a profit, whereas ensuring citizen satisfaction and meeting citizens' needs through the provided services is underlined in public. Nevertheless, profitability, efficiency, and citizen satisfaction have become necessary in both sectors. Merit (competence), career, classification, performance, and impartiality principles should not be ignored to increase corporate performance and effectiveness in public personnel management.

4.1. *Merit (Competence) Principle*

The word *merit* is also expressed with the word *worth*, which we often use daily. However, the conceptual analysis of the words “merit” and “worth” shows that both concepts have different meanings. Merit is the power and ability to perform a task successfully. In contrast, the word *worth* is defined as the right to achieve something through owned qualities and exhibited behaviors and actions. The concept of merit in personnel management has two different definitions, narrow and broad. In the narrow sense, it is the selection of the most talented employees for public duties based on skills, knowledge, manners, culture, and physical ability. For this principle to achieve its purpose, open exams are held to select the most suitable people for public duties. Another objective of this principle is to prevent political favoritism. In the broad sense, it is the whole of rules and practices that establish an effective, efficient, and sound human resources system (Eryilmaz, 2021: 300-301). Merit covers not only the recruitment of personnel but also other stages of the personnel management process. Basing personnel recruitment, advancement, and promotion on the merit principle will increase corporate efficiency and performance and ensure corporate continuity. In this process, the most important task falls to the organization’s managers. Integrating the principles of the personnel system into existing strategic management policies will allow the implementation of a more successful management strategy.

The merit principle is implemented to prevent favoritism in the recruitment of civil servants in public administration (Güran, 1980: 123). States are obliged to fulfill public services by undertaking certain duties and responsibilities. Their main assistants in this process are public personnel. When the merit approach is adopted in the personnel management process, the skills and performance will be prioritized in entering public service and getting promoted. The rights granted to the personnel and the level and continuity of the provided service are set within the framework of this principle (Stahl, 1956: 12-14). In the recruitment process, which forms the first stage of public personnel management, the representation of the entire society in the public administration should be ensured. The qualifications should be measured through objective competitions or exams that everyone can participate in under equal conditions and opportunities. During this measurement, everyone should be evaluated under identical conditions without discrimination due to religion, language, race, color, gender, marital status, or age (Adal, 1968: 123-132).

4.2. Career Principle

The career principle allows civil servants to progress regularly to the higher ranks of their category, regarding the required knowledge and education for the public services (Article 3/B of Civil Servants Law No. 657). It refers to the gradual advancement or the degree of achievement of the staff in their position. In other words, the career principle symbolizes the course of professional life. The personnel typically enter at a young age with the hope of advancement and continue their job until retirement. A career in public administration means that civil service becomes a profession. The career principle aims to train the personnel within the provisions that regulate the rights, obligations, promotion, job security, and service conditions, promoting them in the administrative hierarchy and carrying out public services. It is the most crucial part of the public personnel system. It refers to acquiring and maintaining an expert status related to the position gained. In summary, a career symbolizes the stability of one's professional life (Eryılmaz, 2021: 301).

Countries and systems implement career principles differently by placing either the job or the person in the center. The job-centered career system, also called the position or staff system, aims to adapt the individual to a specific job. In this system, the person must acquire all the qualifications required by the job to which they will be assigned before entering service. In the person-centered career system, on the other hand, the person who will undertake the task is more important than the task. The person is recruited for a particular profession or occupation, not a specific job (Can et al., 2020: 30). Regarding the career principle, people will continue to work until they retire from the civil service profession they enter at a young age, provided that the conditions are met. The job chosen according to individual differences and preferences will last a lifetime. This definition of the career principle represents its broadest sense. In contrast, in the narrow sense, it includes a specialized job and service classes with specific characteristics in the state organization and is determined by objective and general rules. The specialist is not only a civil servant but also owns a career or expertise (Akgüner, 2016: 35).

4.3. Impartiality (Neutrality) Principle

Impartiality means that public personnel do not discriminate against anyone due to language, religion, philosophical belief, political thought, race, gender differences, and many other similar reasons, do not give any privileges to

anyone, and act impartially towards everyone. Public personnel undertake some responsibilities and obligations after their assignment to the position they will work. They are expected to perform their job according to the public interest and service requirements set in the law and avoid all kinds of arbitrariness (Eryılmaz, 2021: 304). The principle of impartiality is used together with the administration's neutrality. It prevents political appointments and restricts public officials' political behavior and actions (Can et al., 2020: 31-32).

Public personnel cannot engage in political activities and express their political views at their job. They are free to express their political opinion through the votes they will give during the election process. At the same time, while performing public services, public personnel cannot discriminate between the citizens they serve under the hierarchical rules. Since the thought and lifestyles of the people served may differ, this should not be ignored, and political discrimination should be avoided (Akgüner, 2016: 34). Article 7 of the Civil Servants Law No. 657 sets forth that the public personnel behave impartially. This law clearly states that (Article 7 of the Civil Servants Law No. 657): "State officials cannot be members of a political party, they cannot act in a way that targets the benefit or harm of any political party, person or group; they cannot discriminate people regarding language, race, gender, political thought, philosophical belief, religion, and sect while performing their jobs; they cannot make statements and actions for political and ideological purposes in any way, and they cannot participate in these actions". Being aware of their role and responsibility, public personnel should not forget that they must act according to the principle of impartiality while performing their job.

4.4. Classification Principle

Classification divides public services provided by the state and the public personnel who will provide these services into groups according to the qualifications and occupations required by the service and task. Civil Servants Law No. 657 grouped civil servants under twelve classes (Article 3/A of Civil Servants Law No. 657): General administrative services, technical services, health and auxiliary health services, education and training services, advocacy services, religious services, security services, auxiliary services, local authority services, national intelligence services, gendarmerie services, and coast guard services. The duties and responsibilities of each class and the qualifications sought in the staff who will provide this service are different.

The classification principle applied in public personnel management covers the groups that must be subject to the same conditions in terms of public personnel transactions such as recruitment, wages, training, promotion, and discharge and consist of services of the same quality. The classification principle's primary objective is combining public personnel transactions with rational principles. The classification principle differs among countries and according to the management approach. Public personnel can be classified according to position or rank depending on their countries' socio-economic structures and management styles. The position-based classification prioritizes the task or job. Civil servants must be suitable for the job, and specialization is the basis of each job. Regarding rank-based classification, the individual characteristics of the people who will fulfill the job or responsibilities are essential. This system is also called personnel classification because it is based on the education and professional formation of the personnel. The employees are classified vertically and horizontally. The vertical axis distinguishes people according to specialization, skills, and disciplines. The horizontal axis, on the other hand, represents education and professional experience (Eryılmaz, 2021: 301-303).

5. Personnel Management Process in Public Administration and the Classification of Personnel Systems

The recruitment process in public administration should consider both the employees within the organization and the talented employees of the bodies in contact with them. Reaching in-house employees is effortless, fast, and free of cost but can create a status quo effect. Therefore, the choices made among the employees of other bodies provide a great advantage to the institution. Thus, the recruitment process should consider talented, successful, and intelligent employees from internal and external sources (Werther and Davis, 1996: 205). Corporate managers and leaders bear tremendous duties and responsibilities in public personnel management. Effective and successful management strategies carry the corporate performance and efficiency to the maximum level. Corporate loyalty and efficiency will increase by setting public administration policies in line with the corporate mission and vision, internalizing them by the managers, and adapting them to the employees. In this part of the study, the public personnel management process and the classification of personnel systems are discussed in detail under two separate sub-titles.

5.1. Personnel Management Process in Public Administration

Successful managers and leaders are the most important means of achieving effective and successful results in public administration. Managers can succeed by determining effective management strategies and focusing on the results in the organizations they are responsible for. The managers should exhibit motivating attitudes and behaviors committing employees to the organization, determine the mission and vision of the organization, and make the employees adopt it by creating a corporate culture in line with this mission. To get the maximum employee performance, the managers should be reassuring, close, democratic, immersive, and guiding with the employees without being imposing (Goleman, 2021: 8-9). The personnel management process in public administration is carried out in several steps: recruitment, wage determination, promotion/advancement, performance evaluation, and training and development.

Regarding the public personnel management process, successfully managing the personnel selected by the administrators and bringing them to the institution is essential to obtain maximum efficiency from the recruited personnel. Corporate commitment and motivation directly affect corporate performance and productivity by enhancing the sense of corporate belonging. Since corporate performance is dependent on the effectiveness and performance of the services offered at the corporate level, the commitment of the personnel who will provide these services is of great importance. Opportunities and motivating factors of the working environment will ensure that employees work contently in their jobs. The organization's contact with the target audiences occurs through its personnel. Successful communication channels established with the target audiences will also shape the corporate perception and image. We can think of the corporate management process as a link in a chain. The rings of this chain should be connected firmly. Corporate performance and continuity are achieved with the effectiveness of corporate services. As the corporate services will be performed by the organization's officials, the managers' successful management of this process from the first to the last stage is crucial. First, the corporate objectives and priorities that are shaped based on the mission and vision set by the managers should be adopted by both managers and employees. It is impossible to transfer the feelings and objectives that are not internalized and adopted to the others. For this reason, a corporate belonging should be established in public personnel who will communicate with target audiences. The continuity of their corporal commitment should be ensured starting from the recruitment, during their management, until leaving the job.

A fair and impartial recruitment process in public personnel management is vital for corporate image. The staff selected within the framework of the merit principle is the most talented and equipped person for the institution, and favoritism should be avoided. The vital thing is to bring the staff who will be valuable to that institution. The personnel selection performed according to the corporate mission, strategy, and values also determines the corporate image. The real and perceived differences in the workforce should be combined, and continuous development should be promoted to obtain maximum productivity from the employees at the corporate level (Mondy, 2017: 42). Rational and realistic personnel planning should be used in the recruitment of public personnel as they cannot be dismissed easily due to the career and security system. Specialization and general culture systems are used in personnel recruitment. In the USA and Canada, a specialization system that emphasizes professional knowledge and expertise gained by practice is used instead of a diploma. In England, France, and Turkey, the general culture system, which gives importance to certificates (diplomas) and education, is implemented (closed personnel system). Central and decentralized management and mixed-method are used in the recruitment process. At the same time, there are two types of relations between the personnel and the institution, a contractual relationship and a status relationship (Nohutçu, 2022: 380). Nevertheless, it should not be ignored that all these systems and methods should be carried out following the principle of equality and merit.

After the recruitment process, a satisfying salary should be offered to increase the motivation of the personnel and enhance their corporate belonging. This is also vital for corporate performance and efficiency. In a sound wage system, the wages should be sufficient in quantity, and an internal balance should be established between the wages paid in the public sector and a balance with the wages paid in the private sector. At the same time, periodic changes should be reflected in the salaries. There should be a reasonable ratio between the lowest and highest wages, and regional differences should be reflected in them. Educational and seniority differences should be considered when determining wages; working conditions and family situation should also be considered (Nohutçu, 2022: 381-382). Corporate performance and efficiency can be achieved by providing the personnel with a sense of security, achievement, belonging, and satisfaction and promoting them to the deserved status by being appreciated, along with a fair salary. Being appreciated and recognized by the managers is very important for the corporate commitment of the personnel. The

sense of belonging, the appreciation of their efforts, and the position obtained in return affect the motivation significantly (Eryılmaz, 2021: 341).

Promotion or advance in the public personnel management process does not only occur in salary but also by considering the employees' knowledge, skills and abilities, the time spent in service, or the discretion of the higher authorities. First, civil servants' performance in their duties and contribution to corporate efficiency should be assessed. Regarding performance evaluation, modern methods consider the staff's corporate performance rather than their personality, and the created performance assessment is presented to the staff so they can improve themselves. Performance evaluation should include corporate performance, merit, mental abilities, managerial ability, communication skills, orientation, personality-related qualities, development, and advancement opportunities (Nohutçu, 2022: 384).

Training and development can be defined as continuous efforts to improve employee competencies and corporate performance. Training serves to eliminate employees' deficiencies in knowledge and skill for their current jobs. The development, on the other hand, carries learning beyond today's conditions and focuses on the long-term. Development prepares employees to keep up with changes and progress in the organization. Its primary objective is to guide the employees according to the corporate strategies of the organization they work for. Employee satisfaction, improved workforce, higher retention, low employee turnover, improved recruiting, better results, and customer satisfaction created by satisfied employees can be listed among the strategic benefits of training and development (Mondy, 2017: 166). Training and development are among the most important means of keeping talented and successful staff in public institutions (Gan and Yusof, 2019: 16). Training and development reveal and enhance the personnel's strengths and eliminate their weaknesses. The successful management of this process is crucial to reveal and use the talents of the existing public personnel in the organization and contribute to the organization.

5.2. Personnel in Public Administration and Classification of Personnel Systems

Public personnel are those employed in a public institution, selected by election or appointment. Public personnel have the same meaning as bureaucrats, but a bureaucrat connotes senior managers, while public personnel includes lower-level employees (Güler, 2020: 63). The concept of public personnel consists of all personnel working in the upper and lower levels. This process necessitates

coordination and harmony among the employees, accompanied by a hierarchical status. Corporate performance and effectiveness are possible with a balance in the corporate structure. The most effective way to achieve this is to establish harmony between managers and employees and keep it.

Corporate performance covers personnel's qualifications, knowledge, experiences, skills, and behaviors. It appears as an inclusive concept that defines the human resource desired to be brought, adapted to the organization, and developed to achieve corporate goals and objectives (Cheese et al., 2008: 46). The most important step of corporate success is transforming the organization's managers and leaders' unique talents into a performance that integrates corporate goals, adapts them to the mission, vision, and strategic objectives of the organization, and ensures continuity in line with these goals (Buckingham and Vosburgh, 2001: 17-18). Regarding the personnel and personnel systems in public administration, worldwide practices can be grouped under the open system (cadre system) and closed system (career system).

The open system is implemented in the USA and Canada. This system analyzes the cadres according to their tasks, authorities, responsibilities, and duties. This system emphasizes the job and cadres classified according to functions and responsibilities rather than people. In case of a vacancy, everyone from inside and outside the organization can freely participate in the exams. Thus, it is also called an open system. The fundamental rule is recruiting based on the job or service contract. Equal pay for equal work, convenience in recruitment and job transfer, regularity in promotions, the openness of the budget, the dynamic structure, and open competition exams are the advantages of this system. On the other hand, the system's disadvantages are its complexity, rigidity, high cost, and too much paperwork. The closed system classifies staff according to education, knowledge, and status. In this system, the recruited personnel perform the job throughout their life. This system is implemented in many countries, such as France, Germany, and India. In this system, emphasis is placed on the employee rather than the task and the job. It can be defined as a closed-rank-personnel and career system; it is almost impossible to recruit external personnel for vacant positions because the job continues lifetime; thus, it is defined as a closed system. Unlike the cadre classification, entry into service is not made according to predetermined laws or administrative procedures; therefore, it is subject to a status regime (Nohutçu, 2022: 377-378). Each system has its own unique features. The personnel system to be implemented also depends on the management system. Each country has its special personnel

recruitment and classification process. However, the vital part of this process is to act in line with the principle of transparency, eliminate the favor system and act according to the merit system.

6. The Effect of Change in Public Administration on Personnel and Personnel Management

The change and transformation in public administration accelerated in the 20th century. There has been a change where the traditional management approach was left, and the new public administration approach was adopted. With this change, the human factor, one of the essential components of public administration, has been placed at the center. All changes and transformations have started to take shape around the human factor. Human capital has been accepted as the most critical factor in continuing corporate existence. It is the essential component that shapes the perception and perspective of the citizens who use and benefit from public services and determines corporate continuity. The globalization and innovations in ICT have necessitated the review and revision of the public administration. Innovations were implemented to eliminate the existing problems and rigidities of the traditional public administration and adopt a more democratic and participatory management approach that is more flexible, effective, efficient in providing service, and sensitive to citizens' demands (Genç, 2012: 1).

During the switch from the public personnel management approach to the new public administration, the human factor has become one of the most critical factors that are emphasized and addressed. In the rapidly changing conditions of the 21st century, organizations must gain a competitive advantage in the public areas in which they operate and maintain this in the long term. The most important way to achieve and maintain a competitive advantage is to adapt the new management models that have emerged with the changing management approach. Organizations need a unique and not easily imitated management approach (Özer, 2011: 1). The administration includes people gathered around a particular purpose. The administration, which focuses on a goal and the people who will fulfill this goal, has a social dimension and jurisdiction (Drucker and Maciariello, 2012: 46). As a comprehensive concept, management includes the corporate structure and the personnel working to maintain this structure.

Since each staff included in the management process has a value to add to the institution, all personnel of the institution are valuable. Managers should

be able to follow the changes in management approach and adopt them to the corporate culture. It is impossible to remain neutral to the changes in the international arena. Because the way of ensuring the corporate continuity of the institutions, which are faced with a world that is globalizing and increased competition, is to follow these changes, embrace them and adopt the corporate policies and adapt them to the institution's personnel. The inevitability of corporate change should be accepted by managers and added to corporate goals and objectives. Although competition is perceived as a factor affecting the private sector, at the point reached today, it is an essential tool for corporate continuity in the new public administration. Public administration deals with the public, and its survival depends on the public's satisfaction. Therefore, adopting new management principles has become necessary for public institutions. As long as corporate responsibilities and duties are fulfilled, the perception and image of the institution will be positive. For this reason, public awareness should be a part of the management approach, and managers and employees should internalize public administration's *raison d'être*.

Public administration tries to produce systematic and consistent information by focusing on the principles and policies inside and outside of the organization. The primary objective here is to create an organization that can immediately respond to existing needs and raises the personnel who will ensure the functioning of this organization. The primary purpose of public administration is to provide service to society and offer this service via successful personnel (Parlak and Doğan, 2020: 27). Achieving the objectives determined in line with the corporate mission and vision requires a long process, including the organization of corporate resources, identifying material and human assets needed for the future of the organization, setting activities in line with the organization's management policy, and the evaluation of their results by managers (Hodgetts, 1999: 3). In this process, the significance of public personnel for the institution should be realized, and regulations and practices that motivate the employees and increase their corporate commitment should be implemented at the corporate level.

The primary objective of the change and transformation in public personnel management is to renew the management approach in line with the changes and improve it by eliminating the existing deficiencies. The basis of public administration is the effective and efficient use of available scarce resources. Institutional efficiency and achievement are validated with the successful management of material and human capital at hand. Human resource is at the center of corporate resources. Here, the essential way to improve management is

to find better and more effective ways to increase productivity with the personnel at hand. Each investment in public personnel is a determinant of institutional continuity (Özgen and Yalçın, 2018: 3).

Organizations consist of people who come together in a coordinated and orderly manner to achieve specific goals (Griffin, 2015: 3). The effectiveness and success of public personnel management are possible with the establishment of communication channels and coordination between the managers and managed people (İnankul and Doğan, 2013: 113-114). The success of in-house and external communication directly affects corporate performance. Strengthening the commitment among the organization's employees also enables them to unite around the same goals and objectives. The positive effect of gathering around common objectives in ensuring the continuity of corporate goals should not be ignored (Doğani and Aysal, 2009: 49).

In line with the global changes, people's education level has started to increase, changing their expectations for living and working conditions. Although competition is seen as a part of the private sector, institutional continuity and performance have also become important in public institutions. The most crucial determinant of institutional continuity is the satisfaction created in the target audience benefiting from the provided services and the institution's perception, where the public personnel is the essential provider (Bingöl, 2019: 10). Issues such as employee involvement and job qualifications, which entered the management approach between the 1960s and 1980s, brought a new perspective to personnel management. The personnel management approach, in which employees are perceived as a cost, has evolved into human resources management. The concept of competition and globalization, which revealed the role and importance of the human factor in the competition, and the developing ICT have strengthened the approach suggesting that the corporate structure should be reviewed and have brought a strategic resource perspective to the public personnel (Rose and Kumar, 2006: 19).

Public administrators must follow a management strategy that plans, organizes, leads, monitors, and controls corporate activities to achieve strategic goals in public personnel management and respond to the demands and expectations of target audiences. The most important responsibility of public administrators is to produce and implement strategies to increase corporate performance. Public personnel management strategies are possible by assigning skilled, motivated, and passionate personnel to implement plans to improve corporate performance. For this, personal performance management, workforce

planning, talent management, learning and development, and a positive manager-managed relationship must be developed (Alpkan, 2017: 133-146).

Managers and managed people are called civil servants. Public personnel management can also be defined as the managerial coordination of all efforts, knowledge, competence, and behavior accompanied by the execution of the duties that ensure the existence of institutions (Watson, 2010: 919). The efficiency obtained from the personnel in the public administration is based on the training and support offered to them. Various training and development processes are undertaken to improve the individual skills of the personnel, solve institutional problems, accelerate their decision-making skills, enable them to adapt to new institutional developments and understand and comprehend corporate policies (Aldemir et al., 2004: 167). This process also strengthens the commitment among the employees.

Getting to know each other more closely helps employees and managers strengthen communication, thus increasing their commitment to the organization's goals (Lambert et al., 2015: 1). Corporate commitment accelerates the process of achieving corporate goals. The outer face of the institution is its personnel. The impact and success to be created outside depend on the motivation of the personnel working inside. They need to be satisfied both materially and spiritually. High wages alone do not increase employees' corporate commitment. Involving the personnel valued by the managers in the corporate decisions will make them feel their value. Since the personnel involved in the corporate operation and decision-making process will see themselves as a part of the institution, their corporate belonging will be enhanced. They will inevitably reflect this to the target audiences they communicate with.

Today, due to the change experienced in personnel management, the human factor has been placed at the institution's core in increasing corporate efficiency and performance. All kinds of investments in people, which are perceived as a strategic factor by managers and leaders, have begun to be perceived as a contribution that increases corporate value, not as a cost. The realizability of the organizational goals, the increase of employees' motivation, the fulfillment of the tasks, the efficiency and effectiveness of the results addressed at the corporate level, the corporate integrity, the success, the continuity, and the high corporate performance have made human resources management to be perceived as a strategy, process, and technique (Çukurçayır and Eroğlu, 2005: 132).

The primary purpose of public administration is to reach corporate goals by developing strategies and methods that will provide the best service and

product delivery most efficiently and effectively. For this, strategic management policies should be implemented by creating a long-term vision and by adapting to the rapidly changing world in a short time. An organization lacking strategy will not be able to see ahead, and it will not have a direction (Güçlü, 2003: 62). Strategic steps of the management process guide managers like a roadmap and help them advance. For the public administration to progress in line with its objectives and achieve success, the goals should be in line with the corporate mission and vision; the managers should interiorize these objectives and ensure that the public personnel, who are the most crucial resource of the institution and the provider of the corporate functionality, adopted these objectives, and establish integrity. The available human resource takes the organizations one step ahead of their competitors, ensures that the corporate perception and image are positive, and contributes to its further strengthening.

7. Conclusion

Public administration refers to the management approach that covers and provides services to the entire society. The primary objective of public administration is to meet the public needs at the maximum level, increase satisfaction, and respond to existing needs immediately. The effectiveness and success of service delivery in public administration are possible with the integrity of the corporate structure, the management strategies, and high-quality human resources. Public administration has gone through a process of change and transformation and increased its effectiveness and performance as some of the existing deficiencies of the classical management approach necessitated revisions in the management approach. The changes that have taken place to improve quality, success, effectiveness, and, most importantly, compliance with the day's conditions in management have affected the whole structure of public administration. One of the most affected areas in public administration is the human component. Along with the shift from public personnel management to the new public administration, a shift from personnel management to human resources management occurred. With this shift, the most critical role in increasing corporate performance has been assigned to the personnel. The human factor has begun to be seen as the human capital and accepted as the most indispensable asset of the institutions.

The most important asset that provides and maintains corporate activities is the workforce. The provision of public services is carried out through the personnel owned. The performance and effectiveness of the services depend on the personnel's behavior and effort in providing these services. In the public

sphere, the effectiveness is measured by the quality of the services and the audience's satisfaction. The positive perception created in the target audiences will also determine the corporate image. In this process, the communication between the managers and the managed people and employees' corporate commitment will also affect the communication with the target audiences. The strength of communication established with the target audiences also increases corporate performance and satisfaction. Managers should manage this process through successful management policies in selecting the personnel they want to bring to the institution and ensuring their corporate loyalty. The efficiency obtained from employees with high corporate belonging will also be high.

Managers must undertake the public personnel management process in line with the principle of transparency from the first to the last stage. Raising the personnel recruited fairly to the position they deserve within the framework of the merit principle, supporting the personnel with a reasonable wage policy, and motivating them by rewarding their success increases corporate commitment. The motivation gained in the working environment helps shape the personnel's behavior while performing their duties. The success and effectiveness of the personnel in the public administration process depend on the power of management. Institutions are a whole with their managers and employees. The strength of the commitment between managers and employees will ensure solid corporate functioning. Managers must manage this process by appreciating, rewarding, encouraging, and motivating behaviors. In creating corporate effectiveness, managers should be aware of their responsibilities and follow a management strategy that turns an ordinary situation into an opportunity, take strategic steps, and make strategic decisions. It should not be forgotten that corporate performance can be realized through successful personnel that successful managers bring to the institutions.

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CHAPTER XL

TRANSITION TO HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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Introduction

Organizations are mechanisms that come to life with people. Organizations that give importance to the human factor and strengthen it could achieve their goals more easily. Human resources, whose feelings and development were kept in the background in the past, are now considered “human capital”, and its development is considered more important as it provides a competitive advantage to the organization. In line with the change in the human perspective, the management of this resource has also changed. The management of human resources has become an important tool in the successful management of organizations. Human resources management practices, which adopt a more humane management approach than personnel management, have been applied primarily in private sector organizations as in many other management practices. Especially after the transfer of the “New Management Approach” to public administration, it is observed that human resource management (HRM) practices have also begun to be used in public organizations.

The change experienced with the effect of the scientific management understanding in the field of management has also brought about the establishment of separate units for personnel management activities. With the globalization and marketization trend experienced in the 80s, HRM has become an increasingly important issue in public administration. HRM has been seen as a tool to overcome important personnel problems such as staff redundancy, inefficiency and the marketing of public services in public institutions (Uğur and

Köseoğlu, 2018:148). These practices, which show that personnel management is considered important and is gradually increasing, have also been seen in the public field, and the public administration has begun to position its human resources in a different place, like the private sector.

Social change is not just a spatial mobility (Gemici and Çatal, 2019: 51). Therefore, with the effect of social change, the needs and expectations of human beings have changed accordingly. This change has been reflected in the fields of work, so the position of human resources in organizations has become different. The increase in the level of education of employees, changes in the demographic structure, and generational differences have now transformed into individuals who question more, know their rights and obligations better, are more open to development, keep up with change quickly and follow technology. This change has forced organizations to transition from personnel management to HRM.

Personnel Management and Human Resources Management

Personnel management is a phenomenon that has emerged especially with the influence of the trends such as worker welfare trends, industrial psychology and Taylorism. The recording of the work of the personnel, which started in the 1930s, is considered the first activity for human resources in organizations. Over time, the decrease in human resources has forced organizations to take more care of this resource. Thus, personnel management activities began to be detailed in the form of finding the employees needed by the organization rather than routine methods, preserving the existing resource and expanding the content of records (Palmer & Winters, 1993: 24). Although its field of activity has expanded, personnel management activities had not gained a strategic mission for organizations in the past as they do today. Personnel management has not been able to keep up with the changing global rules in this sense and has replaced HRM (Sadullah, 1998: 35).

With the technological developments experienced after the industrial revolution, both the use of computers and the development of communication technologies have created the information society. There has been a transition to the people who produce and use information. In other words, it has transformed into intellectual capital. Accordingly, the human factor has become the focus of organizations, the importance of human resources in achieving organizational goals has been understood, and the belief in the impact of the development of this resource on the development of the organization has increased (Çiçek, 2011: 99). Employees, who were the symbol of labor and power in the past and

were called “workforce” for this reason, have begun to be called “personnel” (Çetin et al., 2017: 4). The increase in the value given to human resources and its impact on organizational success has now revealed the need for activities related to human resources to go beyond just keeping routine records. This has brought about the transition from personnel management to human resources management in organizations.

Managing human resources is related to determining the policies, practices and systems that will affect the attitudes, and behaviors of employees in an organization, especially their performance. With the use of these policies to be determined, the motivation and sense of belonging of human resources increases, providing significant advantages in rewarding and keeping employees in the organization or gaining new employees to the organization (Noe, 2009: 3). It is possible to create a competitive advantage with HRM, which is a strategic tool for the organization. Because HRM is an important sub-dimension of management activities that focus on how to attract the attention of employees, which employees to hire, hiring methods to be used, and identifying and eliminating deficiencies in staff training (DeCenzo et al., 2017: 2). Therefore, HRM is considered a special management area that produces policies to realize the needs, wishes and goals of both the organization and employees (Bayraktaroglu and Ozdemir, 2007: 273). While personnel management focuses on the issues such as recruitment, social rights, and labor transfer, which are considered routines related to personnel, HRM focuses on solving employment relationship problems and the continuity of these solutions by accepting behavioral sciences as a guide (Aytaç, 1997: 250).

HRM has a broader perspective than personnel management. Therefore, it puts humans in the center. Thus, it aims to obtain a correct and complete benefit from the human resource (Akyüz, 2001: 55). To benefit human resources at the maximum level, it is necessary to know their skills, knowledge, physical characteristics, emotions, abilities and characters. What HRM does is to decide by evaluating the employees (Boxall, 2007:13) because human capital is closely related to its abilities, experiences, knowledge, participation rate and motivation (Mathis and John, 2010:5). All this has expanded the area of responsibility of HRM. HRM determine the capabilities needed for the organization, develop strategies, create employment opportunities, determine the rights and obligations of employees, perform job analyses, supply personnel, create personnel selection methods, organize employee orientation activities, provide training and development, provide career planning, follow performance management

process, establish reward and punishment systems, determine the rights and responsibilities of employees and manage occupational health and safety risks.

It is possible to summarize the differences between HRM and personnel management as follows (adapted from Aswathappa by Çiçek, 2011: 100-101; Decai, 2010: 12);

Dimensions	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
Considerations about human	Cost factor	A resource needed
Contract	Carefully prepared and written contracts	Contracts that have important purposes beyond the contract
Rules	Unambiguous	Interpretable and flexible
Managerial activities	Carried out according to the procedures	Carried out according to organizational needs
Source of behaviours	traditions, norms and rules	based on organizational values and mission
Fulfilment of managerial duties	Fulfilled by close monitoring of employees	Fulfilled by supporting employees with training
Important relationships	Focus on management of employees	Focus on customer expectations
Decision-making	Slow and long-lasting	Fast and short-termed
Role of Management	Transactional leadership	Transformative leadership
Communication	Indirect, formal relationships	Direct, informal relationships
Important Management skills	Negotiable management	Convenience Management
Employee selection	Selected for independent and marginal positions	Selected for Combined and key tasks
Fee	Fixed payment according to the nature of the work performed	Changing fee is paid depending on the performance
Job diversity	More	Less
Business design	Aims at workforce division	Encourages teamwork
Conflict management	Delayed by temporary solutions	Terminated with solutions appropriate to the organizational culture

Training and development	Goal-oriented	Focused on organization recognition
Attitudes towards employee	Considered an unnecessary and easily replaceable tool	Considered as a value that serves organizational purposes
Shared values	Organizational interests are considered a priority	Both individual and organizational interests are important
Focused intervention	The individual procedure is considered a priority	The method is determined according to the requirements of cultural, structural and individual strategies

Reasons for the Transition to HRM in Public Administration

One of the most important indicators of competition among public institutions is the number of personnel employed. Contrary to this point of view, which is also contrary to the new paradigm, the strength of human capital is not directly related to the number of employees. What is important is the contribution of employees to their organizations. Considering the cost of human resources, the effective and efficient use of this resource is a necessity for public administrations as well as for all administrations. The diversity of personnel, the change in citizen expectations, global conditions, the diversity of public services and the need for rapid provision of these services are considered indicators that HRM has become a necessity for public administration (İzci and Yıldız, 2007: 407).

Today, public organizations, such as private sector organizations, have begun to treat the people they provide public services to as customers. Therefore, to increase the satisfaction levels of citizens, public organizations should select public employees from people suitable for this purpose and achieve this goal by increasing their productivity. Although the literature on HRM is mostly related to the private sector, it is possible to see that HRM activities have also started in the public sector, especially with the new understanding of Public Administration in the public field. The hierarchical, rigid and bureaucratic management understanding, as the dominant paradigm in public administration in the past, has been extended over time and has opened doors to a management understanding based on a market economy. This change represents a reform-like change in the social role of the state and therefore in the state's relationship

with the citizen (Ekinçi, 2008: 179). With the new public administration approach, studies have accelerated the transfer of authority, ensuring flexibility in organizations, ensuring service responsibility, improving competition, maintaining performance, improving HRM, using information technologies, and improving quality (Öztürk and Coskun, 2000: 150). With the change experienced, the responsibilities of public administrators have ceased to be just applying written rules, and they have become responsible for outputs and results (Bilgiç, 2003:25).

The transition from traditional management understanding to modern management understanding with the new public administration has brought about the transition from personnel management to HRM. The transition to HRM is defined as the acquisition of contemporary content and understanding of personnel management. Therefore, this change should not be considered just a name change. Instead of a traditional and autocratic management understanding, a new management understanding has emerged, which is more participatory, encourages teamwork, establishes the balance of reward and punishment, considers performance appraisal criteria, puts humans at the centre, tries to keep pace with the changing environment (Tortop et al., 2013: 498). At the end of the process, it has become compulsory to redefine concepts such as the role and size of the state, changing public services and the nature of these services, organizational structure and public preferences. Discussions have begun on how the public sector can work more effectively and efficiently with fewer resources in a similar way to private sector organizations. Thus, studies have been carried out to increase the abilities and skills of public personnel (Şaylan, 2000: 11). The fact that economic changes are becoming more service-focused due to economic crises and the productivity pressure that these crises put on organizations affects the fact that HRM has become important for public organizations. Pension-related regulations that arise as a result of the old employee profile puts pressure on the efficient use of human resources, the demographic structure has changed and especially in the areas of occupational health and safety, and thus the state has gained a changing regulatory role. The fact that all these pressure factors related to human resources make management activities more difficult, especially in large-scale organizations, has made HRM a mandatory practice (Devanna et al., 1981: 51-52).

In general, it is seen that the rapid change brought about by globalization plays an important role among the reasons speeding up the transition to HRM. Increasing competition, changes in customer expectations, crises and the importance of human resources in dealing with these crises, as well as some

economic issues, have been the factors that triggered the transition to HRM. However, the rapid development of technology, production and intensive use of technology in human resources management activities and the increase in the need for human resources who can use this technology necessitated increased the development of this human resource. In addition to economic and technological reasons, social and societal changes in the world are also among the reasons that make HRM necessary. Among the social reasons making HRM necessary for organizations is the differentiation in demographic characteristics, which is the source of the change in customer expectations, developments in the field of communication, easy access of people to information all over the world and its reflection on living standards, employee rights, job security, increase in the number of female employees.

All these changes and developments have caused managers to no longer be successful with the old methods and to develop new management concepts. This change in the sense of management has brought a new understanding of strategic public administration to public administration. Public managers have moved away from the typical bureaucrat position and have become more proactive, solution-oriented, efficiency-oriented managers who care about employee participation. With this change in the field of management, attitudes towards public personnel have changed, and personnel management, which is the mechanism for monitoring the routine work of personnel, has been replaced by HRM, which gives importance to human relations, strategies, communication and values.

Conclusion

The public administration is currently attempting to adapt the successful management techniques in the private sector to the public field by partially imitating the private sector management. One of the important contributions of this effort to public administration is “Human Resources Management”. This understanding, which stops considering the human resource as a cost element and considers it as a human resource for the organization, has contributed to the development of human resources in public administration. HRM has eliminated the motivational losses caused by the understanding that prioritizes organizational goals, by combining organizational goals with individual goals. By strengthening the personnel and discovering their abilities, public organizations have become stronger, and the concept of responsibility has gained value in the organizational culture.

The most important resource that enables an organization to achieve its goals is undoubtedly the human being. Therefore, the selection of the human resource to be employed in the organization has strategic importance to achieve the determined goals effectively, efficiently and at the right time. HRM, which plays the main role in providing the human resources needed for organizations, operates to make the most appropriate choices using various recruitment methods and to select and hire the most suitable personnel for the organization. Today's HRM units have developed various applications to complete these processes most accurately, using the developing technology. The main issue on which private sector management and public administration differ from each other in the field of HRM is personnel selection and recruitment processes. Private sector organizations aim to find and hire people who are suitable for organizational culture, can achieve their goals, are open to development, and have potential abilities, using different techniques and tests. In the public sector, on the other hand, political authority influences recruitment. This effect can sometimes lead to failure in the recruitment of the needed personnel, the ignoring of talents, and the selection of individuals who are far from the organizational culture. When the recruitment processes in public administration are examined, it is seen that each country recruits personnel with different methods. However, it could be claimed that politics assign personnel in some areas, and this sometimes ignores the concept of merit.

It is important to guide and monitor the activities that will be performed in the organization as well as the selection of human resources, which has become an indispensable strategic resource for all organizations today. As in every organization, the issues such as human resources development, career planning, right determination of rights and salary, clarifying the scope of responsibility, performance management, promotion, and termination issues need to be followed correctly by HRM departments. Such activities are carried out by units formed within the executive in some countries, while they are carried out at the ministerial level in some countries.

Thanks to HRM, it becomes possible for public administration to achieve organizational goals, as well as for employees to achieve their individual goals and effectively use other resources in the organization. To meet the changing expectations of citizens, it is ensured that the personnel needed are employed in public institutions and the skills that this person will need are developed. Issues such as physical conditions, wages, education, specialization, and social rights affecting the productivity of employees are closely monitored and needs are

easily determined. Thanks to all these activities, costs are reduced. The sense of belonging of the personnel in the organization is increased, the anxiety about the future is eliminated and thus it becomes easier to attract the new human resources needed to the organization.

With global and technological developments and change, the public services offered are gradually expanding and diversifying. Being able to respond to changing citizen expectations is directly dependent on the human resource of the public administration. The need for a new generation of employees and technocrats who are suitable for a flexible organizational structure that replaces the rigid structure of the bureaucracy, who can keep up with change, use technological tools and operate the decision-making mechanism accordingly, is gradually increasing. To meet this need, it has become a necessity for HRM units to keep themselves constantly updated and for political decision-makers to organize public institutions by acting like entrepreneurs.

The increasing value given to human beings and the provision of this value by organizations with human resources has now turned HRM into an indispensable instrument for every organization. Therefore, the public administration has accepted the human resource, which is accepted as a strategic resource, as human capital and adopted the understanding of HRM, leaving the personnel management practices to one side.

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CHAPTER XLI

PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS FOR PUBLIC PERSONNEL IN TÜRKİYE

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1. Introduction

How we understand public administration has profoundly affected personnel management systems since the emergence of the modern state in the sixteenth century. Migration and urbanization caused by the Industrial Revolution and liberal economic policies in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries have diversified and increased public services, paving the way for a bureaucratic structure in public service delivery and personnel management (Pierson, 1998). There have been significant advances in technology and mass media since the mid-twentieth century, resulting in a transition from an industrial society to an information society, from modernism to post-modernism, and from liberalism to neo-liberalism. The New Public Management (NPM) and New Public Administration (NPA) approaches have led to a paradigm shift in the public personnel system and paved the way for many fundamental structural and functional changes (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Tutum, 1994; Denhardt and Denhardt, 2003; Hughes, 2013; Osborne and Brown, 2005). However, the public personnel system in many countries, including Türkiye, is not free from the influence of bureaucratic mentality, and public personnel act in subordination to the state apparatus. They perpetuate unethical and illegal behaviors (corruption, nepotism, discrimination, political appointments, favoritism, self-interest, protectionism, non-enforcement of laws, regionalism, symbolism, etc.), which is a major problem in public administration.

The debates on public personnel in Türkiye emerged in the Tanzimat Period when administrative regulations concerning the political structure were addressed in a concrete and broad framework (Tutum, 1994:59). A new state

structure emerged with the proclamation of the Republic. In this process, public personnel management was an extension of the improvements made to public administration and bureaucracy (Yılmazöz, 2009:294). These improvements continued as a legacy of the last period of the Ottoman Empire but failed for economic, social, and political reasons. Similarly, the Public Personnel Law (PPL) No. 657 was enacted to systematically put the personnel management process at the beginning of the Planned Period. However, the personnel management process could not free itself from the traditional bureaucratic and Weberian approach. The state remained the largest employer. After the 2000s, a reform process was initiated regarding personnel management under the influence of NPM and NPA, as in all areas of the Turkish administrative structure. However, human resources have not been managed as they should be for various reasons. First, centralized management is still functionally very much in place. Second, personnel appointment, promotion, and relocation procedures are at the center's discretion. Third, appointments and interviews are still conducted by the state. Fourth, the merit system is ignored due to politicization. Fifth, subjective evaluations based on favoritism, regardless of knowledge and experience, are still in place. Sixth, the public bureaucracy is constantly growing and expanding (Akar, 2018:493). The Presidential Government System has made this situation much more complex and centralized.

Public services have diversified and increased worldwide in the face of global and national problems, such as industrialization, migration, conflict, political and economic crises, and unplanned urbanization. In this context, this study focused on the problems of public servants in Türkiye and offered solutions to them. This study sought answers to the question, "How has the paradigm shift in the public personnel system affected the Turkish public personnel system, and what kind of problems has it caused?" In this context, the study was structured in four sections. First, the study explained the conceptual framework of the management problem and then described the historical background of the civil service regime in Türkiye. Second, it explained the paradigm shift in public personnel management in relation to the changes in public administration. Based on these changes, it explained the problems of public servants and offered suggestions to address those problems in the concluding remarks

2. Public Personnel Management and Some Basic Concepts

We need to explain some basic concepts before defining public personnel management. At the top of these is the concept of "management." Like

many concepts used in social sciences, management does not have an agreed definition. Therefore, it is used to describe activity, organization, administrative system, or personnel who direct and manage public affairs. It is also often used to mean “administration,” although those definitions differ in scope and content (Hood, 2005). However, “management” is defined as getting things done, while “administration” means managing and controlling things on one’s own initiative (Oxford English Dictionary, 2022). In other words, management involves following orders and services, while administration involves attaining results and taking personal responsibility for doing so (Hughes, 2013:27).

The administration can be defined as the activities of a group cooperating to accomplish common goals (Simon, Smithburg and Thompson, 1985:1). Those activities are conducted through planning, organizing, providing, and arranging resources, coordination, motivation, and control (Öztekin, 2008: 14). Administrative work and operations vary according to the public and private sphere. The administration is defined as “public administration” concerning the public sphere and “private administration” concerning sectors outside the public sphere. Public administration involves the activities prescribed by law, the processes and activities related to implementing public policy decisions, and the actions and operations of public servants (Eryılmaz, 2015:16). Public administration is used in a narrow and broad sense. In its narrowest sense, public administration is the Government’s executive, central administration, provincial extensions, and local administrations. It also includes some limited activities of the legislature and judiciary, such as personnel administration (Simon et al.,1985:5). In its broadest sense, public administration is the activities of all people within the state and of organizations in public and private sectors (Öztekin, 2008: 16).

The concept of “personnel” is derived from French and is defined as the employees of a service system or organization. Since the concept of personnel has not yet entered Turkish, it is used as “personnel administration” in management science. Personnel administration is the process of carrying out all activities and operations concerning the personnel of a new or established organization from the time they are hired until they leave the organization or retire. This process includes the following personal affairs: advertising to recruit personnel, holding recruitment exams, helping the personnel adapt to work, performing wage and social security operations, and evaluating performance (Ergün, 1988:281). Personnel administration is divided into two: public and private sector personnel administration. Public personnel administration is the execution of personnel

operations of public personnel per legislation. Private sector practices govern those working outside the public sector.

3. A Paradigm Shift: From Personnel Administration to Human resources management

Throughout history, personnel management processes have constantly changed depending on modes of production. The relations between the factors of production have been influential in this process, which is explained by the new management approaches that emerged during the transition from an agricultural society to an industrial society and then to an information society. Therefore, politicians and experts have focused on streamlining both administration and personnel systems for decades. For example, in the Western world, “The Prince” by Machiavelli and “Leviathan” by Hobbes addressed this problem. In the eastern world, Nizamulmulk’s “Politic,” Beydeba’s “Kalile and Dimne,” Yusuf Has Hacib’s “*Kutadgu Bilig*,” Firdevsi’s “Shahnameh” and Keykavus’ “*Kabusname*” underlined different approaches to public administration (Ekiz, 2010:4).

When we look at the historical development of regulations on personnel administration, we observe two critical developments; (1) developments in the mode of production due to the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and (2) recognition of the importance of intellectual knowledge and the people who produce it as a result of globalization and developments in information communication technologies towards the end of the twentieth century (Eryılmaz, 2015:312). The New Public Management and New Public Administration that emerged in the wake of these two significant developments have led to a paradigm shift in both public and personnel administrations.

Human life and social structure have changed throughout history. However, this change’s significant effects on human life occurred mainly after the Industrial Revolution in the nineteenth century. Before the Industrial Revolution, production was based on agriculture and small handicraft workshops. No personnel administration was needed because peasants and traders were generally selected from family members or the immediate community. However, after the Industrial Revolution (Hebert, 1985: 91), which was the result of extensive and long-lasting interactions, people started to use steam engines, which brought about many changes in economic and social life (Çürük, 2011: 5). This change led to a shift from handicraft and small business-style production

to personnel-intensive mass production (factories). The new mode of production is characterized by mass migration and mass production. Personnel offices were set up to keep a record of people engaged in mass production, such as starting date of employment, positions, and health and basic information (Şimşek and Öge, 2012: 2-3).

The Industrial Revolution led to significant changes in the structure of the family, the rate of urbanization, employee-employer relations, the formation of nation-states, and modern structures and relations. It also paved the way for public administration's organizational growth and bureaucracy's expansion for more effective and productive labor conditions. The theories on administration developed by thinkers in the early nineteenth century (Max Weber, Karl Marx, Fredrick Taylor, Henri Fayol, Woodrow Wilson, etc.) changed how public personnel perceived management. As a result of organizational growth driven by mass production, specialization and technical issues have become essential. In contrast, the emotions, motivation, and social and psychological condition of workers, i.e., the human factor, have been relegated to the background (Simon et al., 1985:56). The so-called "classical management theories" developed by Max Weber (Bureaucracy Approach), Henri Fayol (Management Process Approach), and Frederick W. Taylor (Scientific Management Approach), have been criticized since the 1920s for not taking into account the human dimension of administration. However, Taylorism introduced scientific techniques into human resource administration, which led to today's modern management techniques. In other words, Taylor believed that the selection and motivation of employees could be based on objective, rational, and measurable criteria, which has been the basis of today's human resources management. These principles helped create the wealth of the welfare state. Elton Mayo also approached personnel administration from a psychological perspective, albeit from a single dimension. His approach is an important stage in personnel administration (Eryılmaz, 2015: 310-311).

Personnel administration addressed teamwork, flexible working, planning, standards, and rules only after the 1980s, which has been characterized by a new approach to production and work, called the information society. The socio-economic, political, and cultural policies shaped by the transformation caused by globalization and neo-liberal policies have resulted in new world order (Uzun, 2011: 36). Neo-liberal policies have led to a fundamental change in the duties and responsibilities of the state. In this period, classical control mechanisms have been replaced by analyses to increase organizational effectiveness.

Consequently, private sector practices have been implemented in the public sector to address corruption in public administration and personnel systems (Rainey, 1990:166). This understanding has necessitated a redefinition of both public administration and traditional Weberian bureaucracy (Hood, 2005:14; Rainey, 1990:157). This has been realized by “the end of public administration” Hughes (2013:29) and “one best way” (Coombs, Knights, and Willmott, 1992). In this process, knowledge production, transmission, and operation have accelerated. Knowledge has become the basic dynamic of development that has enabled the transition from physical capital to intellectual capital (Dedeoğlu, 2007). Online platforms (YouTube, Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, Blogs, etc.) have allowed us to make significant progress in public-citizen relations and move into the era of digitalization (Handley and Chapman, 2013:17).

The enabling features of digitalization (convergence, integration, and digitization) have also affected the relationship between public and civil society and the ways and processes by which public and private sector employees work (Dunleavy et al., 2006:478-480). This, on the one hand, has increased competition and, on the other hand, has created the need for an educated workforce. This new type of employee, which Drucker (1994:185) calls “knowledge worker,” started in the private sector and has become the most important human resource in public administration. Therefore, the new human resources management carries out the functions of classical personnel administration but destroys traditional lines and fields of work and changes the nature of labor. In this change process, stakeholders (local administrators, the private sector, voluntary institutions, organizations, etc.) have started to have an increasing say in public affairs. Public values (public good, the rule of law, equality, solidarity, etc.) have been replaced by NPA and NPM values (economy, efficiency, profit, performance, the user pays, contractualism, competition, etc.). Inspired by the NPA and NPM, this period witnessed the downsizing of the state, giving more voice to citizens, and making the state more transparent and accountable (Özer and Önen, 2016:226). In this context, classical public administration has been replaced by a new management system with business logic (Arslan, 2010:23). Traditional personnel administration has been replaced by human resources management (Eryılmaz, 2015:312). This new approach has paved the way for Total Quality Management (TQM), which involves placing the right person in the right job, directing the work, making strategic plans, and taking mission and vision values as the basis of a dynamic structure. Thus, human resources management is based on career planning, selection and placement, training and development,

performance appraisal, rewarding, customer-oriented strategic and performance management, performance-related pay, and flexible working.

There has been a constant need for regulations to solve problems related to public personnel all over the world. Research shows that there is a need for reforms in public administration and civil service over salaries, wages, and partisan appointments (Heber and Berkman, 1979:16). The reform proposals show us that the conditions involving public administration have changed and that public personnel should think in a “post-bureaucratic” way in relation to “post-modern” conditions in the new era (Özcan and Ağca, 2010:1). The post-modern movement that criticizes the post-modern paradigm (Rosenau, 1992) or modernity (King, 2005) has also initiated the reform process in public administration.

Public administration reforms in Türkiye started after the 1980s and accelerated after the 2000s. They have moved from public personnel administration to human resources management. It is possible to see traces of the NPM and NPA everywhere in the field of public administration. After 2002, significant legislative reforms were introduced to implement critical elements of the NPA in public financial administration, public personnel administration and supervision, and central and local administrations. During this period, the Turkish public administration accelerated its performance practices and introduced TQM. In this new process, citizens were perceived as internal stakeholders. Strategic plans, performance and in-service training programs, flexible working styles, new names and functions for departments, and the hiring of contracted personnel are the most important practices of this process. Despite the apparent implementation of human resources management (HRM), the old methods and practices have persisted because impartiality, equality, merit, fair wages, and social security have not been ensured in personnel selection (Akar, 2018: 492). Significant developments have emerged, indicating the continuation of old practices in public personnel administration in the new process brought about by the presidential government system. Some organizations were abolished [Directorate General of State Personnel (DGSP) and Directorate General of Budget and Financial Control (DGBFC)]. Some underwent partial changes [Directorate General of Local Administrations (DGLA)/ Directorate General of Local Governments (DGLG), Directorate General of Personnel (DGP), and Directorate General of Labor (DGL)]. Some new organizations were established [Presidency of Strategy and Budget (PSB), Human Resources Office (HRO), General Directorate on the Status of Women (GDSW), General Directorate

of Public Financial Management and Transformation (GDPFMT)]. However, the new system has numerous uncertainties and complexities. The ongoing fragmented personnel management has caused new problems (Sayan and Urhan, 2020; Acar, 2019). Unfortunately, there has been no progress in solving nepotism, caderization, and wage inequalities in public personnel administration due to regulations imposed only from the top down.

4. Background of the Public Personnel Regime in Türkiye

We can divide the background of the public personnel regime in Türkiye into two periods. The first period extends from the Ottoman Empire to the Republican era. The Ottoman Empire, the heir of the Great Seljuk Empire, had an absolute monarchical and theocratic state structure. It also had a strong state organization and an advanced personnel administration, with a decentralization different from the federal structure in the West until the nineteenth century. State affairs were conducted by the *ilmiye*, *mülkiye*, *kalemiye*, and *seyfiye* classes. The Ottoman Empire was careful in selecting civil servants and ensured that the civil service was composed of knowledgeable and experienced civil servants with a certain level of education and training. The administration was centralist, prescriptive, legislative, and traditionalist. Therefore, it aimed to preserve the status quo, resist innovation, and stick to administrative traditions. The bureaucratic administration inspired by the French administration in line with the unitary state structure preserved its structural and functional features and prevailed until the Republic. This structure has survived to this day as a fundamental paradigm shaping the understanding and practice of public personnel administration (Yılmazöz, 2009:295).

The second period covers the period starting in the Republic's early years and continuing to the present day. This period witnessed organizational growth due to the expansion of service areas instead of a systematic and comprehensive method of personnel administration. Therefore, the state could not realize long-term and comprehensive implementations to solve the existing problems (Şaylan, 2000: 105). The Law on Civil Servants dated 1926 and numbered 788, which aimed to organize the public personnel system following the conditions of the day, was a significant development in terms of personnel administration (Akgüner, 2001:14). During this period, Law No. 1108 on Salaries (1927) and Law No. 1452 on the Uniformity of Salaries of Civil Servants (1929) were enacted to standardize wages (Akin, 1969:6). However, the world economic depression of 1929 rendered these regulations invalid, leading to many problems,

such as wage injustice. Some constantly voiced the need for reform in personnel administration. At the same time, many foreign experts were commissioned to prepare reports (Sürgit, 1972:73). One of the most important of these reports was the report titled “A General Economic Survey of Türkiye,” dated 1934, prepared by a group of US experts and presented to the Government of the time with the suggestion that “economic success could be realized through good personnel administration” (Tortop, İspir and Aykaç, 1999:205). The Goldthwaite H. Dorr Report (1933), the Thornburg Report and the Neumark Report (1949), the Barker Report and the Martin and Cush Report (1951), and the Leimgruber and Gıyas Akdeniz Report (1952) made the following recommendations: (1) the state should carry out the development; (2) meritorious managers should be trained, (3) the private sector should be supported; (4) the personnel system should be maintained in parallel with economic development (Işıkcı, 2017:172-173; Şaylan, 2000: 109-112). However, the personnel management system remained inadequate because those recommendations were foreign and ignored the Turkish social structure.

After 1960, Turkish experts provided more comprehensive and holistic recommendations. The Central Government Organization Research Project (CGORP), Public Administration Research Project (PARP), and Principles and Recommendations for the Reorganization of the Administration (PRRA) were adopted as a result of the efforts of the Türkiye and Middle East Institute of Public Administration (TMEIPA, 1952) and the State Planning Organization (SPO, 1960). Moreover, a three-volume report titled “A Research on State Personnel in Türkiye” prepared by TMEIPA in 1958 addressed personnel problems and suggested reforms (Sürgit, 1972: 73). Again in this period, it was proposed to establish an “Administrative Reform Committee” reporting to the Deputy Prime Minister to guide reform efforts at the central level. Similarly, a “Commission for Reorganizing the Administration and Administrative Methods” was established within the SPO. The Administrative Reform Advisory Board Report was prepared in 1971 (Işıkcı, 2017: 174).

After the 1980s, globalization, developments in information-communication technologies, neo-liberal policies, NPA, and NPM have led to fundamental changes in the duties and responsibilities of the state. Administrative reforms after 1980 and the harmonization process initiated after Türkiye’s candidacy for membership of the European Union (EU) was officially confirmed at the Helsinki Summit in 1999 have become a key objective of Türkiye’s public administration transformation process. After 2002, necessary

legislative arrangements were introduced in areas such as public personnel administration, public financial administration, and auditing to implement the NPA's key elements. In this context, the Public Financial Administration and Control Law No. 5018 dated 2003 paved the way for the classification of the analytical budget and the expansion of the scope of the budget in line with the NPA. Similarly, strategic management and performance administration practices were introduced in public institutions and organizations. The public expenditure and audit system was restructured. Performance-based contracted personnel employment was made widespread in public institutions. Personnel recruitment was made subject to a central examination. Some criteria for merit were introduced (Lamba, 2014a:138-146). The e-Transformation Türkiye Project and e-government applications were implemented. The MERNIS project merged citizenship information. Electronic Signature Law No. 5070 was enacted to provide various services in an electronic environment (Bilgin, 2005: 40).

In 2003, Law No. 4982 on Access to Information was enacted to provide access to all public information and documents. Law No. 5176 of 2004 on the Ethics Law Board for Public Officials and Amendments to Certain Laws was enacted to establish ethical standards in public administration. In the same year, Law No. 5227 on the Basic Principles and Restructuring of Public Administration, which emphasized localization, was drafted but could not be enacted due to executive obstruction. The duties, powers, and responsibilities of local public personnel have been reorganized by Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5216 (2004), Municipality Law No. 5393 (2005), Special Provincial Administration Law No. 5302 (2005), Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5747 (2008) and Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 6360 (2012). Regional development agencies were established by Law No. 5449 on the Establishment, Coordination, and Duties of Development Agencies. The Ombudsman's Office was established by Law No. 6328 on the Ombudsman's Office (2012). Executive and deputy ministries replaced state ministries with Law No. 6223 on Authorization on the Organization, Duties, and Authorities of Public Institutions and Organizations and Matters Related to Public Officials (2011) to ensure the orderly, effective, and efficient execution of public services. In this way, the same type of services was gathered under one roof, and the organizational structures of the ministries were made more functional (Lamba, 2014a:146).

The Presidential Government System (PGS), adopted on April 16, 2017, referendum and put into effect on July 9, 2018, marked the beginning of a new process in public administration in Türkiye. In this process, the general

contours of the organization of the personnel administration were outlined in Presidential Decrees Nos. 1, 2, and 3, as well as in Decree-Law No. 703, regulating transition issues. Following the transition to the CHS, all but two of the leading organizations responsible for the system's administration were abolished, and most were placed under the Presidency. The General Directorate of Labor under the Ministry of Labor and Social Security was transferred to the Ministry of Family, Labor, and Social Policies under the same name. The Directorate of State Personnel (DBP) was attached to the Presidency under the Human Resources Office (HRO) for both public and private human resources administration. The General Directorate of Budget and Financial Control (DBFC) under the Ministry of Finance (MoF) was transferred to the Presidency as the Presidency of Strategy and Budget (PSB). The General Directorate of Local Administrations (MIGM) under the Ministry of Interior was transferred to the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization (MoEU) as the General Directorate of Local Administrations (GDLA). The newly established General Directorate of Public Capital Enterprises and Enterprises (GDPCEE) and the General Directorate of Public Financial Management and Transformation (GDPFMT) under the Ministry of Treasury and Finance were reorganized to regulate the financial affairs of public employees. Presidential Decree No. 1/6 assigned the Presidency of Administrative Affairs, which replaced the undersecretary of the prime ministry, the highest civil servant before the CHS, with the task of "carrying out the necessary work to ensure coordination among public institutions and organizations." In addition, the General Directorate of Personnel and Principles (PPGM), formerly under the Prime Minister's Office, now reports to the Presidential Directorate of Administrative Affairs. Thus, while the PSB, one of the prominent institutions regarding civil service administration, carries out a regulatory and oversight role, the HRO is more prominent with its implementation role. The others carry out their activities with the functions of implementation and giving opinions (Demirelli and Aydın, 2020:79).

5. Public Personnel Problems and Solutions in Türkiye

Our public management system has been in the process of restructuring and change for two centuries. In this process, public personnel administration and its problems are important issues. Researchers address different problems of the public personnel system. However, personnel problems in Turkish public administration are also perceived as "public service problems" or "state problems." Therefore, it is difficult to take steps toward a solution (Tutum, 1990:31). Public

personnel problems, which have become complex and intractable since the Ottoman Empire, have not yet been solved (Canman, 1992:3). These problems include ever-growing organizational structure, prescriptivism and avoidance of responsibility, centralization, bureaucracy, inability to keep pace with change, organizational growth, subordinate-superior relations, bureaucratic inefficiency, secrecy and closedness, nepotism (Gökçe and Şahin, 2002), politicization, bribery, corruption, mediation, etc. (Yılmaz and Kılavuz, 2002:18). This chapter discussed the main problems of Turkish Public Administration in a general framework. It offered solutions in the “conclusion” section.

5.1. *Bureaucratic Structure*

Every society has different bureaucratic traditions depending on its socio-economic, political, historical background, and cultural structure. The bureaucratic administrative tradition of the Turkish public bureaucracy is a continuation of the Ottoman Patrimonial tradition. The characteristics of this traditional structure are as follows: The bureaucratic elite opposes the socio-economic differentiation of society. There are legal barriers that prevent bureaucrats from acting and making decisions independently. The stipend system is rigid. The elite adopts a Pareto approach in the cultural sphere. The administrative system is a centrist, prescriptive, legislative, and traditionalist structure that opposes innovation and preserves the status quo. Personnel selection is elitist as it belongs to the educated (Canman, 1995: 248). Bureaucrats apply laws and regulations by letter. Administrators are not very eager to make a new interpretation and learn something new on their own initiative. Unfortunately, public personnel administration is rather cumbersome as bureaucrats perform their duties without using their skills and taking the initiative (Eroğlu, 1993:238). Therefore, merit is of little importance as it is believed that the state will function one way or another regardless of who comes in next. Public personnel is authoritarian and avoidant people who ceremoniously follow the rules in all situations and conditions, always guarantee themselves, and therefore avoid action, risk-taking, and innovation, and even resist change (Sezer, 2015:18). This reveals four crucial problems in the Turkish Public Bureaucracy that remain unresolved: Organizational growth, decision-making, and subordinate-superior relations.

The Turkish public bureaucracy has been continuously growing and expanding since the proclamation of the Republic. There were 104,115 public servants in 1931. However, today there are 4,877,270 (PSB, 2022). Public servants have increased approximately 50-fold in the last ten decades. This

increase is a result of the changes in Government in Türkiye in line with political developments. While during the coalition governments, coalition partners made great efforts to appoint their supporters as public employees (Ergun and Polatoğlu, 1988: 83-84), it is possible to see this situation in single-party governments today. Public institutions have a cumbersome structure due to their organizational growth into gigantic structures. This growth prevents public institutions from delivering services effectively, efficiently, and quickly. Ineffective use of resources leads to inefficiency over time.

Change in decision-making processes is inevitable due to advances in information and communication technologies, increasing expectations of citizens, changing potential of employees, increasing competition in service delivery, and implementation of all institutional activities in public administration according to the demands and expectations of citizens (Eren, 2003: 63). However, the Turkish public administration has rigidly centralized decision-making mechanisms with the characteristics of Weberian bureaucracy. Therefore, decision-making processes are far from democratic. Decisions are implemented according to predetermined rules. Moreover, subordinates participate in decisions in a limited way (Kaypak and Bimay, 2017:169). Therefore, we encounter such problems as lack of participation in decision-making, evasion and diffusion of responsibility, accumulation of authority and influence on decisions, lack of use of information, pressure from interest groups and political power centers, bureaucratic sabotage and bottlenecks, and bureaucracy operating on the principle of secrecy (Eren and Bimay, 2017: 5). In addition, the status of decision-makers, formalization, communication networks, hierarchical structures, authority relations, division of labor and specialization, professionalization, delegation and gradation of authority (Lamba, 2014b:9) and the transformation of the bureaucracy into main actors affect decision-making in personnel administration (Eren and Bimay, 2017: 3).

The bureaucratic structure also affects subordinate-superior relations. The Turkish public personnel administration is characterized by the systematic and rational conduct of subordinate-superior relations and the absence of arbitrariness (Weber's bureaucracy). Public servants use their authority when they are asked to do something but otherwise remain inactive. Therefore, subordinates do not obey their superiors' orders because of their personality but instead because they are obliged to do so by virtue of the position occupied by superiors. Decisions are also kept and filed since how, where, and by whom authorities are to be exercised are already written in the legislation.

5.2. *Centralization in Administration*

Centralization in administration has been one of the most critical problems of Turkish public administration since the Tanzimat. Public resources and powers are concentrated in capital city organizations. In most cases, public personnel cannot make decisions on their own. Senior executives are too stingy in delegating authority to lower-level employees. The solution to local problems is left entirely to the executive power in the capital because local organizations in the provinces are given partial or no authority. Due to rigid centralization, local administrators always turn to the central administration before making decisions. Public personnel must adjust to their superiors' demands because the central administration does not allow them to make free decisions (Ergun and Polatoğlu, 1988: 83-84). This results in confusion, anarchy, paperwork, unauthorization, and uncertainty (Yazıcıoğlu, 1995: 115). This delays decision-making processes, increases bureaucracy, prescriptivism, and evasion of responsibility, prolongs procedures, introduces secrecy and closedness in personnel administration, and leads to administrative inefficiency.

Centralization also causes significant problems in the use of public resources. Cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses are not fully realized because public resources are allocated from a center. In other words, cost calculations cannot be determined realistically (Sakal, 1997:453). Although the principles of subsidiarity and autonomy are recognized by law, the central administration exercises administrative tutelage over local administrations. Therefore, the power that should belong to local administrations is centralized (Yılmaz, A., 1997:402). This, unfortunately, turns bureaucracy into an inaccessible and expensive institution (Çitçi, 1983:23).

Recent decades have witnessed an increasing population, urbanization, and new political and social processes. Therefore, the central administrations realized that they could not provide increasingly differentiated and localized public services on their own and made efforts to provide local public goods and services through public legal entities other than state legal entities (Nadaroğlu, 1986:3-20). This effort started in the 1980s and accelerated in the 2000s under the influence of internal and external dynamics but has faltered since 2010. Centralization has further increased with the Presidential Government system adopted by referendum in 2017 and implemented in 2018. The subordination of the administrative functioning of all institutions and organizations to the Presidency demonstrates this (Kaypak and Bimay, 2020). Therefore, the monopoly of centralized administration persists, despite periodic efforts to

reduce it. This leads to the continuation of problems in the public personnel system.

5.3. Personnel System and Merit

There are various systems in place for public personnel's administrative activities and operations. These systems are directly related to the state's political regime and structure. For example, federal states implement systems for federated states, while unitary states implement systems for the whole country. On the other hand, governance systems have an impact on personnel systems. For example, the public personnel system in non-democratic one-party political systems is based on ideological loyalty to the party. The public personnel feels unprotected against the administration's decisions, lacks judicial security, and feels responsible to the party organs. The public personnel system in democratic and modern societies is affected by the advantages of multi-party life and merit as the principle of "impartiality of the administration" prevails (Güler, 2001:6).

The personnel system emphasizes the legal and human dimensions of the public personnel regime as well as the historical and social characteristics of the system. Historically, two different understandings have emerged regarding establishing and classifying public personnel systems. The career (rank) approach, a closed personnel system applied in the UK and European countries, is based on a person or personnel-oriented classification. According to this approach, a person is assigned a rank according to his/her degree of competence and time spent in service. The authority and responsibilities of the person's job at a particular moment are of little importance (Kalkandelen, 1972:63). The second understanding is the open personnel system, which is most prominently practiced in the United States of America (USA) and Canada. This system is generally applied in the private sector and some public institutions. In this system, assurances are given depending on the performance of the personnel (Güler, 2005:203).

The public personnel system in Türkiye was based on a career system from its foundation until the PPL was enacted in 1965 and then continued as a hybrid system. After this period, the cadre system was applied at certain intervals, reinforced with General Cadre Law No. 1327, enacted in 1970. Nevertheless, the aspects of recruitment, merit, promotion, and remuneration remained within the boundaries of the career system (Demirci, 2009:204). From 1970 onwards, all the regulations that came to the agenda were aimed at realizing the goal of moving from career classification to cadre classification. In the 1990s, "norm staffing"

was introduced, and in 2000, organizational analysis and staff standardization studies were made compulsory in all public institutions and organizations (Güler, 2005:191). However, despite all these efforts, the personnel system, lacking a basic understanding and conceptual evaluation, has made the system even more complex and inextricable (Aykaç and Yayman, 2003:298).

The personnel system in Türkiye is built on the principles of classification, career, and merit. The principle of classification stipulates that civil servants should be classified according to the qualifications and professions required by their duties. According to Law No. 657, the civil service is divided into twelve service classes. These are General Administrative Services Class, Technical Services Class, Auxiliary Services Class, Education and Training Services Class, Health Services and Auxiliary Health Services Class, Lawyer Services Class, Religious Services Class, Civil Administration Services Class, National Intelligence Services Class, Security Services Class, Gendarmerie Services Class and Coast Guard Services Class. All these classes are based on the principle of flexible specialization, one of the principles of TQM, based on citizen satisfaction, instead of functional specialization based on Fordist administration. However, the current classification and status system is far from meeting current needs. In particular, the status system has become a problem-producing structure as it has become a tool for political favoritism. In addition, status differentiation, which is not based on qualified service and is usually realized through nepotism, disrupts the balance of the public personnel system and leads to great injustices (İzci and Yıldız, 2017:404).

The career principle provides civil servants with the opportunity to advance to the highest grades within their classes in accordance with the knowledge and training required for their services. The career principle is systematized on service classes, degrees, grades, and cadre institutions. Degrees mean an increase in the importance and responsibility of the position in the civil service system. Grades, however, are a progression in terms of one year of service within each grade. In order for a civil servant to advance through the ranks, he/she must have worked for at least one year in his/her current rank, must have a positive record within that year, and there must be a rank that can be advanced in his/her current rank.

Many public institutions and organizations in Türkiye apply a hybrid system based on the career-rank classification system. Most organizations in the private sector apply a system close to the cadre-position classification system (İçmen, 2015: 60-61). However, stretching the status regime through Decree-Laws and

collective bargaining provisions cause significant political problems in public personnel administration. Article 128 of the Constitution stipulates that “The qualifications, appointment, duties and powers, rights and obligations, salaries and allowances and other personal affairs of civil servants and other public officials shall be regulated by law.” Despite this provision, since 2016, these regulations have been made by decrees, and the legislature has been bypassed in this process. Although the regulations are not contrary to the Constitution, the fact that the Turkish Grand National Assembly does not approve them casts a shadow on the principle that regulations regarding civil servants should be made “by law” (Sayan, 2016:672-673).

On the other hand, the principle of merit is the realization of equal opportunities in the personnel affairs of civil servants from recruitment to dismissal while the state fulfills public services. In developed democratic countries, merit is based on equality, competition, career, and security principles. The sustainability of countries without merit is impossible. Therefore, the development of a country depends on how millions of civil servants and bureaucrats are selected. In Türkiye, merit is generally evaluated regarding recruitment and subsequent personal rights, knowledge, manners, and diploma. However, merit in the sense of “worthy” is one of the most critical problems of Turkish public personnel administration. While merit is supposed to be based on objective factors and “man for the job” rather than “job for the man,” the opposite is true. Two critical reasons underlie the failure to apply merit. Firstly, qualified professionals are not willing to work in public administration because civil service is not very attractive in terms of economic and social aspects. The second reason is that political favoritism is effective in terms of the personal rights to be obtained both during recruitment and during employment (Öztürk, 2008:319).

5.4. Unethical Behaviors: Favoritism, Corruption, and Bribery

The OECD’s “Convention on the Prevention of Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Commercial Transactions” criminalizes active and passive forms of corruption committed by public officials in violation of the law and ethical norms. Again, many countries have sought to penalize violations of the fundamental values and principles of public service by public officials for personal gain (OECD, 2000). Therefore, it is an understanding accepted by many countries today that ethical behavior should be evaluated within the framework of rules that public officials must comply with.

Corruption is a leading unethical behavior in public administration. Corruption is the deviation of public officials from normal duty behaviors in order to attain private purposes or gain material benefits (Ergun, 1978: 24). Corruption is the abuse of public power by public officials to have a personal gain or benefit from their subordinates (Stapenhurst, 2000: 9). Today, corruption among public officials can be seen in two forms: political and administrative. Political corruption is the waste of economic resources, misallocation, and misuse of public resources. Partisanship, vote trading, lobbying, and patronage relations are the primary forms of political corruption. On the other hand, administrative corruption is when a public official gives preferential treatment to the beneficiary in exchange for a benefit (Berkman, 1983: 117). In administrative corruption, public officials sometimes provide material benefits through embezzlement, bribery, extortion, and rent-seeking, and sometimes provide privileges by abusing their duties and powers.

Population growth, the wide range of duties of public personnel, and the unfair distribution of income growth in Türkiye have complicated corruption (Akar, 2018:487). Similarly, centralization, excessive rule-making, and cumbersomeness have been among the most important factors that lead to bribery (Eryılmaz, 2015: 306). Corruption and bribery have become a habit in the Turkish public bureaucracy and have caused inefficiency in the bureaucracy. Generally, public personnel causes the corruption of public bureaucracy by looking for excuses to take bribes, indirectly supporting bribery, and not conducting the necessary inspections (Yılmaz and Kılavuz, 2002: 21-24). Therefore, it is seen that corruption cannot be minimized despite the recent laws (Eryılmaz, 2015: 306).

Corruption in Türkiye is in the form of nepotism, political favoritism, cronyism, and favoritism, especially when the principle of merit is disregarded in appointments and promotions. This is mainly because politicians want to use their power to the fullest and choose more straightforward methods to perform their duties per the rules of the complex bureaucratic structure. Moreover, politicians are seen as the unchangeable owners of authority under the influence of the patrimonial political tradition (Demirel, 2015:114-115).

The vast majority of institutions within the public bureaucracy in Türkiye face the problem of politicization. Politicians create new positions and cadres to facilitate politicization during changes in power and appoint people they feel close to their own parties instead of people with appropriate knowledge and skills. Thus, the civil service becomes an institution almost dependent on

the Government and the political parties that form the Government (Eryılmaz, 2015:305). This always causes a public reaction. In recent years, despite the implementation of positive practices, such as a centralized examination system for entry into the public service and basing promotion on certain conditions and exams (İzci and Yıllıdız, 2017:402-403), the continuation of unethical practices (favoritism and cheating) shows that the system is not settled. Consequently, citizens trust the state less and less, resulting in social disintegration.

5.5. Deviating from the Principle of Competition and New Employment Policies

The Eleventh Development Plan states the following: It is a constitutional obligation to appoint public officials based on objective conditions. All segments of society should be ensured to participate in public administration by considering the principles of competence and merit in appointments. Priority should be given to disadvantaged groups (Eleventh Development Plan, 2019-2023). However, these advisory statements have not been acted upon. Today, equal opportunity has not been granted to all candidates for civil service entry. Nepotism, caderisation, and partisan practices have persisted. The Public Personnel Selection Examination (KPSS) for Group A and Group B positions was applied in the centralized examination system implemented in 1999 (Şahin, 2016: 237). However, the KPSS was a pre-qualification for Group A professions. In other words, the relevant institutions re-conducted written and oral exams in accordance with their laws and regulations, leading to favoritism. Negative perceptions about the objectivity, clarity, and appropriateness of interview exams have persisted from the moment the exam system was put into practice. Although the exams are centrally administered, complaints never end because some incidents have been made in the press and the courts. The exams were canceled and repeated when the public found out about those practices (Aktan, 2021). For example, in the 2010 KPSS, the questions were leaked, and candidates with low scores could not be appointed due to the standard deviation caused by the high scores of hundreds of people. The Ankara First Administrative Court unanimously canceled the exam on the grounds that the “general ability” and “general culture” questions were leaked. The State Supervisory Board launched an investigation into the alleged leakage of questions in the KPSS held on July 31, 2022, and the President of the Measurement, Selection, and Placement Center (ÖSYM), Prof. Dr. Halis Aygün, was dismissed by presidential decree, and the exam was canceled (NTV, 2022).

The deviation from centralized placement in civil servant recruitment, which has become more pronounced since 2013, is a choice that may have negative consequences in terms of public interest and objectivity. The Court of Accounts reports discloses that some exceptional civil servant positions in public administration do not require an examination and that those positions are filled based on political favoritism. Making short-term appointments to prime positions without exams and then transferring from these positions to other civil servant positions has reached a level that hurts the public conscience (Aktan, 2021:40). Again, universities' aptitude tests, appointments to academic positions, and oral exams applied in teacher appointments are frequently criticized in this context. According to Şahin (2016:237), the widespread application of oral interviews eliminates the principle of merit and the most important condition of merit, "impartiality." The administration does this, especially with its "discretionary power." Although this situation is subject to certain limitations by laws and regulations, it has become a common practice (Aykaç, 1990: 108).

Although the 1982 Constitution and the PPL No. 657 determine Türkiye's employment policies and regulate the public service as the primary form of employment, the civil servant status has been made flexible under the influence of the NPM approach, and new forms of employment have been introduced that do almost the same job as the civil servant but do not have the same status. Politicization, corruption, nepotism, and bribery in the public sector played a significant role in the emergence of new forms of employment. After 1980, civil servants decreased quantitatively, and the duties performed by the Auxiliary Services Class were considered secondary and temporary. The primary and permanent public services have been carried out by employees and contracted personnel who do not fall under the definition of civil servants (Aslan: 2012).

Most of the contracted personnel employed in the public bureaucracy in Türkiye are concentrated in State Economic Enterprises (SOEs) (Güler, 2005:118) and municipalities (Çöpoğlu, 2015:166). Temporary staff employment in municipalities has surpassed other forms of employment (Aslan, 2012:574-582). However, while this practice is accepted and widespread at the scale of municipalities, it reduces the quality of service and leads the state to losses instead of making a profit. Therefore, it has recently been realized that the most critical problem indicating the misapplication of the NPA concept is the employment of subcontracted workers. Although subcontracted workers have been doing the same work and working under the same conditions as civil servants and contracted personnel for years, they have not been able to

benefit from the rights of permanent employees, thus creating injustices among employees. Therefore, the government has recently taken necessary steps toward recruiting subcontracted workers as permanent employees. For example, with the presidential government system, it was introduced that special provincial administrations and municipalities cannot employ unstaffed civil servants (Akar, 2018:493). However, the lack of workload-oriented workforce planning in the public sector in Türkiye and a policy focused on electoral periods have led to a continued increase in the number of personnel. Although granting staff positions to contractors is a positive practice regarding employee rights, these unplanned arrangements may lead to economic fluctuations and create negative consequences in the long run. As seen in Table 1, while the number of permanent personnel was 1,955,901 and the number of contracted personnel was 73,007 in 2008, this number increased to 3,003,603 civil servants and 529,194 contracted personnel as of May 2022. Therefore, the forms of employment put into practice to reduce the number of civil servants burdening the public and to increase efficiency and effectiveness in public bureaucracy cannot show sufficient effect in solving the problems (Akar, 2018:492).

Table 1: Staff and Contracted Personnel Situation in Turkey

Years	Public Personnel	Contracted Personnel	Total
2007	1.955.901	73.007	2.330.641
2022	73.007	529.194	4.877.270

Source: <https://www.PSB.gov.tr/kamu-istihdami/> (06.05.2022).

5.6. Reactivity Status and Burnout Syndrome of Public Personnel

Ensuring that the elements that require public personnel to be efficient and effective in their working life are together is one of the most critical problems discussed by scientists in the early twentieth century. Frederick Winslow Taylor, who aimed to base the productivity of employees on objective criteria within a scientific and systematic discipline and in line with the purpose of the work, actually put forward the Principles of Scientific Management on the passive and inefficient work life of employees (Aydın, 1977: 2). With these principles, Taylor put forward an understanding that rejected laziness and shirking (Taylor, 1911). However, since Taylor's principles ignored employees' socio-psychological needs and inner world, they also affected today's public personnel. Although it has been tried to be shaped around certain rationality and modernity, this understanding has unfortunately led the employee to be seen as a machine like a robot.

Today, the dissatisfaction of qualified and talented personnel with their working conditions is among the most critical problems of the Turkish public bureaucracy. This dissatisfaction can lead to brain drain both between sectors (from public to private) and between countries. Work satisfaction is the motivation derived from working conditions. Favorable working conditions enable employees to adapt to the workplace, adopt their jobs and be successful (Özcan, 1997:345). However, motivation is related to the desire of employees to meet their needs or to achieve their goals. Motivation and work satisfaction are tried to be explained by Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Dual Agent Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory (Existence - Relatedness - Development), and McClelland's Need to Achieve Theory. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory is divided into five hierarchical groups: physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. Two fundamental assumptions shape the relationships between these groups. The first is that every behavior of individuals is aimed at satisfying a specific need. The other is that a person's needs are ranked according to their level of importance. In this ranking, the needs in the upper rungs cannot lead to the desired behavior unless the needs in the lower rungs are satisfied (Eren, 2004: 30-31).

The main reasons for dissatisfaction are the continuous erosion of the purchasing power of public sector employees, the fact that wages are lower than in the private sector, and the failure of civil servants and political powers to show sufficient sensitivity to this issue. Public sector employees struggle against this demotivation by transferring to other sectors or migrating abroad. On the other hand, political instability and the practices of coalition governments have caused qualified personnel to move from the public sector to the private sector (Ergun and Polatoğlu, 1988: 83- 84). Especially in the flexible working environment created by the NPA approach, the fact that contracted personnel do not have the same rights despite doing the same job as the civil servants decreases their motivation and efficiency. This situation is contrary to the understanding of NPM and NPA (Akar, 2018:492).

On the other hand, the fact that the employment contracts and job security of civil servants, employees, and contracted personnel are subject to different legislation creates an unequal and precarious environment. It reduces motivation (Tortop et al., 2007: 26). In order to achieve productivity, which is the most important output of motivation, it is accepted that it is necessary to increase the individual capacity and desire to work of employees in public institutions and organizations (Ekinçi, 2008: 175). However, the lack of remuneration and

rewards according to performance, not valuing talent and creativity, lack of sustainable training, and employment opportunities not based on knowledge, work, and talent reduce the productivity of the personnel. Especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, the motivation of public personnel has decreased. Many ministries have made rehabilitation efforts to solve this problem (Yılmaz, B., 2020). Despite these efforts, the problem of excessive workload and health conditions has become more chronic due to the increased need for healthcare services in healthcare workers. Healthcare workers dissatisfied with their working conditions have resorted to many practices, including work stoppage. In addition, it has been revealed that inequalities in working and wage conditions among healthcare workers and incidents of violence against them also reduce their motivation and efficiency.

One critical problem public employees face is psychological harassment (mobbing). Psychological harassment is a common problem not only in the private sector but also in public administration. It generally causes physical, emotional, psychological, and occupational discomfort, conflicts and separations among groups and families, and disagreements in organizations (Gedikkaya, 2019:53). Today, advances in human rights lead to measures against psychological harassment in public institutions. However, the fact that psychological harassment is a crime is not directly included in any legal system, including the Turkish legal system, which makes these problems all the more complicated (Coleman, 2006:91-98).

As in all areas of social life, it is stated that the concept of “justice” has a significant impact on employees’ commitment to the organization. Especially in public administration, employees’ sense of belonging to the organization is directly related to the concept of justice. Many employee behaviors (organizational commitment, belonging, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and trust in the administration) are affected by their perceptions of justice in their institutions. A study conducted in 2019 revealed a positive relationship between participants’ perceptions of justice and their organizational commitment levels (Öz and Sağlam, 2019). Therefore, organizational identity and a sense of belonging can be possible with the realization of fair work life.

5.7. Other Problems

Although other problems that dominate the Turkish public bureaucracy have been minimized in the historical process, their effects persist. The most important of these problems is the understanding of “dominating the society” or “the state

is mine” caused by centralization in administration, inadequate communication between public personnel and citizens, lack of coordination, alienation, lack of empathy, wage injustice, and insufficiency, supervision problems, the inefficiency of personnel training, inability to keep up with technological and cultural changes, insufficient personnel, unfair practices regarding personnel recruitment, and geographical injustices in personnel transfers.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study addressed the problems of public personnel from a historical perspective. It is stated that the increasing personnel problems are related to historical developments and that new approaches and practices have been implemented in this process. Personnel systems are constantly changing depending on the production style of human beings. Especially with the Industrial Revolution and the transition processes toward the information society, new styles and approaches have been introduced. However, despite all these approaches, personnel systems worldwide lag behind developments, and personnel problems are increasing. The problems of public personnel worldwide vary from country to country, depending on the political and economic structure.

Although the regulations on public personnel in Türkiye, which started with Tanzimat, have continued until today, the problems of public personnel have not been minimized. This is mainly due to the public bureaucracy that puts itself in the place of the state. The increase in centralization with the Presidential Government System and its implementation in the administration causes the problem of supervision, fragmented and problematic personnel systems, the problem of merit in recruitment, the increase in unethical behaviors, the inability to implement practices, such as competitions, etc., resulting in the low motivation of public personnel, increase in mobbing and harassment cases in the workplace, miscommunication, inability to keep up with change, wage injustice, and inadequacy, unfair practices regarding personnel recruitment. In addition, although digitalization is mandatory for effective and efficient services due to technological advances, the insufficient number of personnel using such smart applications leads to inefficiency in service delivery. Similarly, our public personnel system is dominated by the Pareto approach. Therefore, the ratio of active working personnel to existing personnel does not exceed 20 percent. This leads to a more cumbersome and inefficient public bureaucracy. Therefore, there is a need for rapid and effective measures in Turkish public personnel administration. Both academia and supranational organizations (The EU, OECD,

IMF, and the World Bank) have essential findings and recommendations on this issue. However, although the legal regulations regarding these essential findings have been partially enacted, there are significant problems in practice. As a result, solutions should be formulated by considering the practices in modern and democratic societies and Türkiye's geographical, political, economic, and cultural structure. In this context, we made the following recommendations:

- The ever-growing and expanding structure of the Turkish public bureaucracy needs to be downsized. To that end, all personnel should be recruited based on contractual status. In this way, the accumulation in the same workplace will be prevented, and a fair remuneration system will be ensured. As a result, the structure of the cumbersome institutions will be transformed into institutions that provide efficient, high-quality, and fast service.
- The Turkish public bureaucracy needs to adopt a citizen-oriented structure based on transparent job descriptions and teamwork to do away with its Weberian and traditionalist centralist structure. Otherwise, corrupt, irresponsible, and arbitrary administrative practices will persist. In particular, the administrative functioning of the institutions and organizations affiliated with the Presidency under the Presidential Government system should be reviewed.
- The advancement and promotion of civil servants should be based on objective evaluations. In other words, the principle of career must be established and the principle of merit must be applied to the principle of career. To achieve this, evaluation boards, committees, or commissions should include representatives of civil organizations, academics, and experts. Methods developed by management science (personnel, organizational, job, and staff analyses) for the private sector should also be applied to public institutions. These practices should be based on equality, competition, career, and security principles.
- A serious inspection and sanction system should be introduced to eliminate favoritism, patronage, and nepotism. Public services should be carried out within the framework of constitutional equality and impartiality, free from all political and ideological influences and pressures. Postgraduate education in the field should be a reason for preference in appointing those in managerial positions in all classes, including deputy ministers. They should be subjected to at least three-stage examinations by independent

commissions within the framework of predetermined rules. In this way, these conditions will also apply to appointments to subsequent positions.

- The Turkish administrative structure should embrace the core values of contemporary personnel management approaches of NPA and NPM (efficiency, cost-effectiveness, accountability, transparency, flexibility, customer orientation, process orientation, competitiveness, and performance orientation). The flexible specialization that these approaches suggest should not be given as a trump card to politicians who lack a political ethic that has already internalized democratic principles. Therefore, all higher careers, including exceptional civil servant positions, should be subject to independent examinations in career practices. In order to prevent possible favoritism in oral exams, measures should be taken to ensure judicial review.
- The view of public personnel administration as a “potential vote-getter” should be quickly abandoned. Instead, needs-based workforce planning should be carried out in public personnel recruitment. Personnel recruitment should be conducted not by institutions or commissions formed with the guidance of political powers but by institutions and commissions with equal votes, including bar association representatives, university professors, trade union representatives, and impartial experts. They should be selected in a manner that can be accurately measured by scientific and professional experience and skills. The conditions for these recruitments should be ensured for top management positions and those working in the lowest service unit. In addition, the staff of the recruiting organization should be equipped with knowledge and skills. Moreover, their training and technical quality should be continuously improved. This will ensure that the right personnel is selected at the right time, from the right sources, and with the right methods. In this way, they will become sustainable through training and development processes.
- The promotion of civil servants in degrees and grades should be made permanent. They should have the opportunity to rise as long as they work within their class (until they retire). Unfortunately, civil servants in some classes reach the first degree and fourth grade in 20 years and remain at the same degree and grade in the following years.
- The current classification system in Turkish public personnel administration should be completely restructured. There are some complexities among civil servants within the 12 classes applied today. Patronage relations override

scientific evaluation criteria, especially in academic staff appointments. Therefore, we must reconsider and evaluate all classification systems, including universities, technical, education, health, and security.

- Reforms based on scientific research are needed to train personnel who can adapt to the ever-changing smart practices in the world.
- The state should introduce reforms to increase the motivation of the staff. It should also provide the public personnel with high-quality training within the framework of democratic principles based on human rights.
- Civil servants should no longer be state agents. Their *raison d'être* should be to provide citizen-oriented public service.
- There should be a clear-cut distinction between those who work and those who do not work because eight in ten public servants are demotivated due to the Pareto approach. Therefore, personnel evaluation should be performance-based, fair, and equitable.
- The state should introduce legal regulations to increase the purchasing power of public employees. It should also grant them other financial rights, so they are not affected by inflation. Such regulations can help the public personnel experience less burnout and become more productive.
- One of the biggest obstacles to socio-economic development is unethical behaviors, such as corruption and bribery. The state should set deterrent penalties for such behaviors and inform all citizens about them. Ethical rules should apply to all personnel in public institutions, including the Parliament, universities, and the military bureaucracy.

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CHAPTER XLII

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND ETHICS

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1. Introduction

As stated in many chapters of this book titled “Handbook of Public Administration”, public administration is an organizational and functional bureaucratic structure that is conducted by public personnel. It is the aspect of the government that citizens are most familiar with. That is to say, public personnel is the visible face of the state. The way public employees behave has an important impact on how much trust citizens have in the government. In addition to decreasing citizen trust, the discretion power of public employees and their relationship with politicians are fields of study of public ethics. Ethics deals with the concept of right and wrong decisions. When the decision is by the government it affects society at large (Mukhopadhyay, 2022).

The decreasing trust between the state and the citizens is an urgent problem for all administrations. The most important reason for mistrust is unethical practices. For a long time, corruption and unethical behavior were thought to be diseases unique to developing nations, but major scandals and corruption in developed nations, particularly in the 1970s, demonstrated that the problem had a global aspect (Eryılmaz, 2008). Corruption, nepotism, discrimination, absenteeism, impoliteness... The list is extensive and diverse. Corruption and scandal news emerging at different levels of the state, regardless of the center or local, cause the public to believe that the public administration profession has lost its moral values (Okçu, 2008). The citizens expect the politicians and officials to be ethical. But what is ethics for public administration? What are the

ethical practices? Which values make the practices right? What are the ethical values that must determine the behaviors of public personnel to constitute a trustworthy administration? What determines the right or wrong behaviors of public personnel? The answers lie in the studies of administrative ethics and this chapter tries to present them by summarizing.

2. The Definition of Administration, Ethics, and Administrative Ethics

The term “Ethics in Public Administration or Management Ethics” means “Administrative Ethics” in English (Önen & Yıldırım, 2014). Before defining administrative ethics, administration and ethics have to be defined separately.

Among human-created organizations, there is a group of institutions with a special purpose: fulfilling the state’s interests (Vacarelu, 2021). They are called public organizations. “Administration” is the act of directing people towards accomplishing a goal in these public organizations. It means planning, organizing, and running a public organization. Its inputs are tangible and intangible assets, outputs are public service, public goods, and public thoughts.

According to the Turkish Language Society (2022), the word “ethics” have four means. “Science of custom”, “the whole of the behaviors that the parties must comply with or avoid among various professions”, “ethic science”, and “moral, about morality”. “Ethics” comes from the Greek word “ethos” which means tradition, personality, and behavior. As a science, it is an aspect of philosophy that is moral philosophy. “Morality” is derived from the Latin word “moralis” and means manners and tradition (Thompson, 1985). The science of ethics, which philosophically investigates the essence and foundations of moral values, can also be defined as a branch of philosophy that examines the problems related to the moral behavior of people in their individual and social life (Usta, 2011). Both morality and ethics are about right and wrong. But when we refer to a profession “ethics” is more suitable, in a personal situation “morality” is more suitable. Ethics is the thought of morality (right and wrong) in a professional area (Thompson, 1985). It is a concept that strengthens morality in the sense of individual, society, and public administration, as it is a thought action/process to evaluate the compliance of attitudes, actions and behaviors exhibited or to be exhibited with moral values (Uzun, 2021).

It is more practical to divide ethics into theoretical and applied ethics. While normative and descriptive ethics are a part of theoretical ethics, professional ethics, or the field of ethics that is concentrated on topics like law, science, art, and public administration, is a part of applied ethics (Koçyiğit & Karadağ, 2016).

Ethics is often used in connection with organizations' activities and professional codes of conduct (Vacarelu, 2021). Today's fashionable ethics is not a field of philosophy, but professional ethics. The main area of professional ethics is to produce the norms that those who practice that profession must comply with. With the emergence of the concept of "professional ethics", ethics has been normed, started to be perceived as a concept read through codes of conduct, and taken on another form (Özkal Sayan, 2020).

Ethics is a world of philosophy, values, and morals. The administration is a world of decisions and actions. The administration must get the job done while ethics search for what is right and wrong (Frederickson & Walling, 2019). However, at the same time, the study or practice of public administration is not only a technical or managerial issue. There are also values. If one study or practice public administration, he/she also study or practice values. These may be political values, policy values, regime values, honesty, personal morality, etc. A theory of public administration in the political process is also a theory of ethics (Svara, 2022).

Performing public administration depends on both the legal and organizational structure as well as public personnel's qualifications (Kayacı, 2021), Administrative ethics involves the application of moral principles to the conduct of officials in organizations (Thompson, 1985). They are the principles that individuals should respect when they affect the well-being of society. Administrative ethics denotes the professional moral code for public administrators. It is important for the functioning of the state and ensuring public trust.

There are public ethical norms as well as individual moral understandings of people. However, it may be claimed that recently, legal norms have taken prominence. In the public sector, it is preferred to control ethical behavior by legal and administrative means rather than leaving it to the conscience of the individual. This understanding moves public ethics away from philosophy and brings it closer to professional ethics. One could argue that it no longer has any connection to the philosophy and is handled by behavioral codes. When the subject is public ethics as professional ethics, it is possible to say that this field has become popular, especially after the 1980s. Today, it is reasonable to state that public ethics is based on neoliberalism "corruption" discourse and determines the fight against corruption as a field of study (Özkal Sayan, 2020). Today's administrative ethics consists of universal ethic values, principles, and codes. However, taking into account the "cultural" aspect of ethical

administration, bringing to light the ancient knowledge contained in each nation's cultural resources would also serve as a guide in showcasing the coherence of international approaches aimed at developing good practice models and finding solutions to ethical issues in local public administration (Uzun, 2021).

3. The Theories of Ethics and Reflections on Administrative Ethics

There are three main schools of ethics in Western philosophy (Mukhopadhyay, 2022). First is led by Aristotle and about values such as justice, charity, and generosity. He considered ethics to include the good life, which meant a life worth living or a life that is satisfying (Lynch & Lynch, 2009).

Second is Immanuel Kant's theory about duties. The deontological approach to ethics was influenced by Kantian philosophy. What matters to deontologists is whether the fulfillment of that action is a necessary duty. Public interest, social equity, regime values, and citizenship are prominent values of deontologists' "democratic ethos" (Okçu, 2008; Aydın, 2017).

The third one is Jeremy Bentham's theory of the happiness of the majority. Here, the person decides by looking at the consequences of the action (Mukhopadhyay, 2022; Aydın, 2017). Teleological ethics affected by this school is associated with hedonism-utilitarianism. While the predecessors of hedonism were Machiavelli and Weber, utilitarianism found its original form in Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill. This approach is also called "bureaucratic ethos". According to those who hold this view, efficiency, efficacy, expertise, loyalty, and accountability are prominent values for public administration. The teleological way of thinking led to the introduction of many "scientific" approaches to public administration like Taylor's Scientific Management and the Wilsonian Approach. It could be said that this structure continues to live strongly today (Okçu, 2008).

These modern approaches to administrative ethics are foundational, while postmodern philosophy is looking for an anti-foundational approach. According to Bauman morality is vague, irrational, non-rational, and could not be universalized and without foundation (Okçu, 2008). At present, there are studies argue that public ethics is impossible. However, these discussions are beyond the scope of this study, so it is necessary to share some of these views here.

The teleological way of thinking supports rationalization. A pool of literature in line with the notion of rationality projects states that rational people

in bureaucratic organizations perform well. The other line of literature on rationality cites different stories with limitations on rationality. Bojindra Prasad Tulachan's (2022) research in Nepal concludes that bureaucrats and bureaucratic organizations are not acting rationally when it comes to delivering goods and services to the public. The weak point is in the recruitment process, as the right person is rarely selected for the right job because of political favoritism.

Thompson (1985) argues that conventional theory and practice support the ethic of neutrality. Public officials are ethically neutral, they are independent of moral judgment, and they only serve the organization, obey the law, and implement the policies. At least their aim should be like that. The system is "obey or resign". But what about dissent? Ethics of neutrality impedes the accountability of administrators. Alienates officials from their work. Furthermore, it is very hard to resign from an office. As a matter of fact, ethics of neutrality confronts individual, social, and organizational principles. On the other hand, viewing the organization or the government as the object of moral judgment is an obstacle again. This ethic of structure makes officials morally irresponsible. It becomes very difficult to find the person who is responsible for a decision. The gap between individual intention and collective outcomes is apparent. For example, it may be said that there is discrimination against women, but it is difficult to blame one person. In some unethical cases, the officials are right one by one, but the organization's practice is wrong in total.

Moreover, in their paper, O'Kelly and Dubnick (2005) claim that administrative ethics, defined as "the application of moral principles to the conduct of officials in organizations," is in fact not possible or at least inappropriate. According to the authors, normative ethics is not possible in public administration. External control mechanisms are not sufficient for civil servants to solve the dilemmas they face in their daily work. Most of the time to carry out one moral obligation, an official may have to violate the other. When disciplining a coworker for subpar performance necessitates both upholding organizational commitments and jeopardizing peer relationships, a manager is faced with a difficult moral decision.

Mastracci (2022), looking at the subject from another window and argues that the economics of government, that is, the processes by which public services are allocated in a community, (i.e., who gets what and how much) necessitate an ethic of care for the government worker because the nature of their jobs increases their likelihood of being in an antagonistic relationship with citizens. Especially, some dirty works (from securing the safety of a child in foster care to securing

the nuclear arsenal) require emotional labor. The workers try to manage the stigma of their job. They try to sustain a positive image. She argues that public organizations ought to adopt an ethic of care, given the manifold implications of emotional labor in public service.

The other moot point about administrative ethics is the dilemma between private ethics and public ethics. In private life religion, family, schools, and clubs may determine the private ethical principles of a person. But the public service is a different area (Thompson D., 1992). For example, if the ministry of health is addicted to cigarettes it is an ethical problem. In his/her private life maybe it is normal but as a minister it is unacceptable. The rules of public life are different.

4. Development in Studies and Practices of Modern Administrative Ethics

Ethics changes with the changing society and values. In the era of kings and divine rights, there have been guidelines written by thinkers, philosophers, and senior statesmen (Mukhopadhyay, 2022). The book *Kutadgu Bilig* written by Yusuf Has Hacıp in honor of the Karakhanid ruler (11th century) is an important example. It is about being a righteous society and a righteous government. Nowadays the subject of administrative ethics is civil servants. The relationship between ethics and public administration remains constant but the concept of right and wrong changes with time and society. Social, economic, political, legal, judicial, historical, and cultural aspects of society affect and develop ethics studies and practices.

In 1880, Dorman B. Eaton's work about public service was just a step toward administrative ethics in the USA. It was focused on morality, merit, justice, and liberty. Since the foundation of the Public Administration Review (PAR) in 1940, the subject of administrative ethics has been a topic of interest. Public administration was seen as value-neutral since the political/administrative dichotomy dominated the subject from the 1880s through World War II. According to one view, the reason why the understanding of ethics in public administration is so prominent is that classical administration ignores personal values by emphasizing norms. The neglect of personnel values has drawn attention to this issue. As this classical viewpoint lost ground, people began to realize how much influence public administrators have thanks to their discretionary power (Cooper, 2019; Ekins, 1988).

However, the study of administrative ethics as a subfield of academic inquiry dates to the 70s. It is stated that it would be more appropriate to mention the studies on ethics in public administration in the 1970s in terms of an academic discipline. According to this view, the studies carried out in the 1970s were decisive in the process of becoming a discipline of public ethics (Cooper, 2019). Furthermore, other factors, such as the normative emphasis embodied in the New Public Administration in the late 1960s and early 1970s, as well as the startling frequency of political scandals beginning with Watergate, have rekindled interest in administrative ethics (Ekins, 1988). The first national ethics conference was held by the American Society of Public Administration (ASPA) in Washington in 1989 under the name “Ethics in Administration” (Cooper, 2019).

In general, the 1940s focused on administrative responsibility, while the 1950s and 1960s concentrated on codes of ethics and other external controls. The following two decades were dominated by a concern with moral character and a need to improve citizens’ trust in public administrators (Nigro & Richardson, 1990).

In the first years when public ethics was discussed in the USA, why the issue was more important than other problems came to the fore. Thompson (1992) clarifies this situation by this sentence “Because other issues are more important than ethics, ethics is more important than any issue.” Ethics is an instrument for the government to do all the other goals (national defense, economic success, social services, etc.) rightly. During the first years of the study of ethics and administration, the dominant thought was that “Public administration had become too big and too important to treat in simply instrumental terms. It was, therefore, important to set forth guiding values and purposes for the administrative enterprise.” Nowadays citizens prefer a moral government to a successful government. As a matter of fact, a moral government will be a successful government in the long run (Nigro & Richardson, 1990).

On the other coast of the Atlantic, the Europeans are more comfortable using the concept of integrity rather than ethics.” For some “American” academics, ethics has both political and organizational overtones. For the Europeans, integrity is primarily an organizational precept. Americans both study and teach norms and aspirations. The Europeans are much more interested in the present behaviors of public servants (Cox, 2009).

It is possible to argue that ethics studies within the discipline of Turkish public administration received attention in the 1990s. Öztürk (1998), one of the

leading authors, benefited greatly from the articles published in PAR in his study titled “Ethical Values in the Decisions of Public Administrators”. In his work, he stated that in an increasingly bureaucratic world, public administrators have to reduce corruption in government and develop democratic citizenship. After these years, studies about public ethics have increased.

As seen, ethical debates in the modern sense of public administration emerged in the 1970s. The Watergate Scandal, which led to the resignation of US President Richard Nixon, and what happened after it drew attention to the concept of corruption. Ethics is presented as a prescription for corruption. Citizens expect higher ethical practices with the effect of immoral practices seen in the 80s which are called the period of the new right policies and in previous periods (Bowman, 1990). With the neo-liberal understanding, the role and function of the state were questioned again; it has been claimed that the public administration is “a gigantic organization that is inefficient, expensive, cumbersome, constantly exhibiting management and organizational errors, and difficult to reach”, and after these determinations, policies such as downsizing the state and privatizing public services have come to the fore. In this process, with the emphasis on “public administration”, attention was drawn to degeneration, corruption, administrative pollution, bribery, and administrative scandals. Thus, the desire to find a solution to corruption, which has become widespread all over the world, has become one of the important reasons for the emergence of public ethics (Özkal Sayan, 2020).

Larbi (2001) argues that the development in studies and practices in ethics occurred firstly by ethical reform can be perceived as an effort by governments to close the governance and trust gap by controlling corruption. Secondly, citizens have become more critical of public service over time. Especially globalization and the internet make the citizens more knowledgeable and critical. Governments’ desire to gain trust, pressure from supranational organizations such as OECD, and new public administration reforms have also brought public ethics to the fore. In parallel with the change in information and communication technologies, the sensitivity of the public administration to the demands of citizens has increased with the increase in the opportunities to receive and disseminate information.

Due to that, in the 2000s, an international trend started all over the world and institutional structures were established to determine ethical behavior standards and monitor compliance with them to find solutions to problems in public administrations. The Office of Government Ethics in the USA, The Committee

on Standards in Public Life in the UK, The Office of The Ethics Counselor in Canada, the National Public Service Ethics Board in Japan, The Public Service and Merit Protection Commission in Australia, The Public Offices Commission in Ireland and the Public Servants Ethics Committee in Turkey are some of them (Demirci & Genç, 2008).

According to another point of view, the need for ethics has increased to make sense of the developments in the political and social fields in our age and to solve the complex relations established in the public sphere. Ethics is becoming more subject to legal regulations, and new public institutions are being created in this regard. Public administrations determine the ethical codes and codes of conduct that the personnel must comply with while serving the citizens in the regulatory procedures they have prepared with the authorities they have received from the laws (Doğan, 2015). The prevailing opinion in the current literature is about immoral behaviors in public administration and how to prevent them. However, this is not enough for public administration to be moral (Okçu, 2008).

In many ways, the principles and ideas of morality that are used in the field of public administration also come from the actual practice of running a business. Consequently, the discussion of public administration ethics cannot be conducted in a vacuum; it must constantly take into consideration the discussion of its implementation, and how administrative personnel ought or should operate in accordance with prevailing moral standards (Vacarelu, 2021). Today, public ethics proceeds as follows. A written description of the values and behavior standards required of managers and public officials (ethical codes); gaining a common understanding of these through training; managers encourage public officials to adhere to these standards of values and conduct; assigning the persons/authorities to consult in situations where employees are in dilemma (Uzun, 2021).

While discussions on the ethical issues of public administration still continue through public personnel, there are studies discussing how robot public officials are perceived by citizens in terms of ethics (Willems, Schmidhuber, Vogel, Ebinger, & Vanderelst, 2022). Gifts of the 21st century for new debates.

5. Declining Trust and Unethical Behaviors in Public Administration

There is no way to escape the calculus of personal and private interest in public decision-making and humans are rationalizers as well as occasionally sensible

creatures. No public choice has ever resulted in a complete victory for the good and a complete loss for the bad. Public administrators are both parts of the problem and part of the solution to declining trust in government (Vacarelu, 2021).

In his book “The Responsible Administrator: An Approach to Ethics for the Administrative Role”, Cooper (1990) describes public administration as political and discretionary. So for public officials, it is hard to be ethical. Public responsibility, both objective and subjective, is a keyword. Conflict of responsibility is an important dilemma for officials. Cooper’s public officials are techno-rational bureaucrats of classical administration. But Thompson (1992) argues that such officials need to do more than oversee the paperwork associated with ethics legislation and the enforcement of specific standards and rules. He argues that the officials have a responsibility for their state’s democracy. But the conflict between public and private behavior and appearances makes the work a mess.

Especially, during the transformation of economic and political structures, it has been observed that global, economic, bureaucratic, and political actors who are on the lookout for potential gaps in the system are more likely to engage in corruption and unethical behavior to advance their interests by exploiting these gaps. For example, a connection can be drawn between the late 1970s restructuring of the economic and political systems and the rising trend of corruption. In many countries, the fast login of neoliberal policies caused a breakdown of the legal order (Eryilmaz, 2008).

New political, technological, environmental, and medical issues made public administration a more complex area in the 21st century (Vacarelu, 2021). The failure to implement ethical and legal regulations promptly in parallel with changes in the economic and political systems caused significant problems with corruption and degeneration in the 1980s and later (Eryilmaz, 2008). Unethical behaviors seen in public have been the subject of many novels, movies, TV series, video games, and news (Exmeyer & Boden, 2020). For example, in Sabahattin Ali’s novel “The Evil Inside Us”, the main character and his chief, who are public servants, commit embezzlement. Public administration scholars should consider them as an important medium to understand how government and public administration are depicted in popular culture.

The public is not concerned with “big politics,” but they do want a welcoming government that follows clear rules, protects everyone legally and refrains from acting abusively. To put it simply, they want morality just

as much as they want moral people around them. It is important to emphasize that without the morality of its employees, institutions cannot exist ethically. However, there are times when the morality of the workforce does not match that of the organization (Vacarelu, 2021).

All unethical behaviors can be gathered under the title of degeneration. The list is extensive and diverse. However, corruption starts with public authority, power, and resources. It emerges in the relations between political parties, elected officials, civil servants, interest and pressure groups, and voters. Corruption encompasses all types of behaviors and methods proposed by public officials, either on their own initiative or with the encouragement of those who benefit from the service, by using public power for private gain, preference, prestige, or the benefit of a specific group, in violation of ethical and legal principles (Eryilmaz, 2008). The misuse of public values and misbehavior by public employees for their benefit by pushing the society or public interest into the background renders state resources dysfunctional and causes many economic and political crises (Doğan, 2015).

In the project “Whistling While They Work”, Brown (2008) divided the subject of disclosure (unethical; illegal, immoral, and illegitimate behaviors) into 7 different titles, and stated that the first six of them were related to the public interest:

1. Misconduct of Material Gain
2. Conflict of Interest
3. Improper or Unprofessional Behavior
4. Defective Administration
5. Waste or Mismanagement of Resources
6. Perverting justice or accountability
7. Personnel or workplace grievances

De Graaf (2010), on the other hand, listed the inappropriate behaviors in both private and public organizations as follows:

1. *Corruption*; Bribing: Misuse of public power for private gain; asking, offering, or accepting bribes
2. *Corruption*; Nepotism, cronyism, and patronage: Misuse of public authority to favor friends, family, or party

3. *Fraud and theft*: Improper private gain acquired from the organization (with no involvement of external actors)
4. *Conflict of (private and public) interest*: Personal interests (through assets, jobs, gifts, etc.) that interfere with public interests
5. *Improper use of authority (for noble causes)*: Use of illegal or improper methods to achieve organizational goals (e.g., illegal methods of investigation or disproportionate violence by police)
6. *Misuse and manipulation of information*: Lying, cheating, manipulating information, or breaching confidentiality
7. *Discrimination and sexual harassment*: Misbehavior toward colleagues or citizens and customers
8. *Waste and abuse of resources*: Failure to comply with organizational standards, improper performance, incorrect or dysfunctional internal behavior
9. *Private time misconduct*: Conduct in an employee's private time that harms the public's trust in administration or government

In her book “Administrative, Professional and Organizational Ethics” Aydın (2017) extended the list. She sorted out unethical behaviors such as discrimination, favoritism, bribing, intimidation, negligence, exploitation, egoism, corruption, torture, flattery, violence, oppression, aggression, to be politicized, insult, physical and sexual harassment, bad habits, abuse of power, gossip, embezzlement, dogmatism, bigotry.

6. Ethical Values, Principles, and Codes for Public Administration

The ethical values are in terms of maintaining individual and social life in an orderly manner and maintaining the relations between the government and the governed on the axis of “public interest”, “public reputation”, “living and keeping the rights and freedoms”, could be described as “must have” management qualities of a state with an ethical management approach. When the ethical values of today such as “justice”, “merit”, “impartiality”, “confidentiality”, “transparency”, accountability”, and “public interest”, are considered in terms of public service and public administration, these are the essential direction signs that should be followed and considered in public service production and delivery and are expected to guide individuals and government officials (Uzun, 2021).

It is possible to summarize the rights of citizens against public administration as follows:

- To be treated in accordance with the law, fair, impartial, equal, and social justice in all administrative affairs.
- To be able to file a lawsuit against the public administration.
- Ability to participate in government at the national and local level
- Being able to hold accountability from management and managers.
- To be informed about the operations, activities, policies, and rules of the administration (transparency).
- The necessary conditions for the development of their material and spiritual existence.
- Effective, efficient, qualified, and economical execution of services.

When public officials encounter some dilemmas in ethical issues, the constitution, laws, the idea of public interest, family, profession, and human values, as well as codes of civil society organizations, could lead the way. Non-governmental organizations like chambers, bar associations, women's organizations, professional organizations, and student and human rights organizations also produce codes of public ethics along with codes that develop themselves. Codes of ethics are methodical attempts to define appropriate behavior. The codes of ethics are insufficient because there are numerous other issues with their application. There are numerous instances where the greatest standards were unequivocally upheld in writing only to be blatantly broken later on (Vacarelu, 2021). Many "ethical reports" are published for the continuation of public life. While these documents are valuable if they are created and evaluated with philosophical knowledge, they are generally far from being philosophical and scientific as they are prepared with the aim of "reforming" the public administrations of states all over the world (especially the underdeveloped ones) (Özkal Sayan, 2020). This makes ethics an instrument.

Determining ethical codes is not just a present-day endeavor. Ethical management was also considered in previous periods when management was seen as an art rather than a science. For example, in Nizamülmülk's (grand vizier of the Great Seljuk Empire) "Siyasetname" the ethic codes were "justice", "good morals", "mild-mannered", "forgiveness", "grace", "humility", "generosity", "truth", "patience", "thankfulness", "mercy", "reason" and knowledge for the sultan.

Nowadays, the Code of Ethics for the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA, 2021) is:

1. *Advance the Public Interest.* Promote the interests of the public and put service to the public above service to oneself.
2. *Uphold the Constitution and the Law.* Respect and support government constitutions and laws, while seeking to improve laws and policies to promote the public good.
3. *Promote Democratic Participation.* Inform the public and encourage active engagement in governance. Be open, transparent, and responsive, and respect and assist all persons in their dealings with public organizations.
4. *Strengthen Social Equity.* Treat all persons with fairness, justice, and equality, and respect individual differences, rights, and freedoms. Promote affirmative action and other initiatives to reduce unfairness, injustice, and inequality in society.
5. *Fully Inform and Advise.* Provide accurate, honest, comprehensive, and timely information and advice to elected and appointed officials and governing board members, and staff members in your organization.
6. *Demonstrate Personal Integrity.* Adhere to the highest standards of conduct to inspire public confidence and trust in public service.
7. *Promote Ethical Organizations.* Strive to attain the highest standards of ethics, stewardship, and public service in organizations that serve the public.
8. *Advance Professional Excellence.* Strengthen personal capabilities to act competently and ethically and encourage the professional development of others.

Ethical codes supported by OECD (2022) are accuracy, integrity, responsibility, accountability, transparency, and impartiality.

The ethical code provisions in Turkish law had demonstrated a dispersed view. However, with the establishment of the Public Servants Ethics Committee, this diffuse was removed. According to the regulation by the Turkish Board of Ethics for Public Officials named “Regulation on the Principles of Ethical Behavior for Public Officials and Application Procedures and Principles” principles of Ethical Behavior are:

1. Consciousness of public ser. in the performance of a duty
2. Consciousness of serving the community

3. Compliance with the service standards
4. Commitment to the Objective and Mission
5. Integrity and Impartiality
6. Respectability and confidence
7. Decency and respect
8. Notification to the competent authorities
9. Avoiding conflict of interest
10. Not using the duty and authorities to derive benefits
11. Prohibition of receiving gifts and deriving benefits
12. Making use of the public domain and sources
13. Avoiding extravagance
14. Avoiding binding explanations and factitious statements
15. Notification, transparency, and participation
16. Managers' liability to render account
17. Treating former public officials without privilege
18. Declaring property

Actually, for any legislator or politician, there are now millions of papers and books available online that are ready to be studied and used as their best options for better administration.

7. Conclusion

This chapter of the book, titled “Handbook of Public Administration”, is under section seven “Problems and Solutions in Public Administration”, This means administrative ethics is a problematic area.

So, in this chapter, the author looked at the subject from this window and answered the questions “What is ethics for public administration?” What are the ethical theories and practices with pros and cons? Which values make the practices right? What are the ethical values that must determine the behaviors of public personnel to constitute a trustworthy administration? What determines the right or wrong behaviors of public personnel? What are the unethical behaviors in public administration?

Problems of administrative ethics start with its connection with philosophy. The philosophy is abstract, conversely, the administration is concrete. So, in time administrative ethics have been turned into professional ethics by breaking away from philosophy. This transformation made some people see ethics as an instrument.

In applied ethics, values of democratic and bureaucratic ethos sometimes conflict with each other. So, the values of public administration ethics are not fully agreed upon.

The discipline starts with classical thoughts and continues with solutions for corruption scandals. There is a lot of pressure from the neoliberal point of view.

Ethical principles and institutions are a country's own performance and achievements. The codes are practical but never solve all sorts of dilemmas faced by an employee during the day. Although difficult to apply, nowadays ethical behavioral codes are the only instruments that serve as guidance for public employees as they go about their daily operations, boost citizen trust in the government, and improve the standard of public service.

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