

SOCIAL AND HUMANITIES SCIENCE: RESEARCH, THEORY

Social and Humanities Science Research, Theory

Editors

Asst. Prof. Dr. Şükrü ÜNAR
Dr. Senem KARAGÖZ



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Social and Humanities Science: Research, Theory

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PREFACE

Dear readers,

Human beings, who have been in a constant interaction since the first time they appeared on earth, have been partially or completely deprived of this interaction in different periods of history. Due to the pandemic in the current time period, this social interaction has partially stopped. In such times, electronic publications have played a vital role in continuing academic studies and reaching the large masses. The 17 articles included in this study, which is published electronically and will appeal to the large masses, have been written by valuable scientists from various disciplines serving social sciences. The usefulness of Social Sciences will only be beneficial with the collaborative work of different branches of science. The book includes some studies from the fields such as economics, health, international relations, humanities and administrative sciences, and fine arts.

We would like to thank the valuable scientists who have worked in this book including important studies from different disciplines, for their contributions.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Şükrü ÜNAR
Dr. Senem KARAGÖZ
December 2021

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CHAPTER 1

CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN THE CRIMINAL COURT TRANSCRIPTS

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1. Introduction

From the cognitive linguistics point of view, metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain from the perspective of another conceptual domain (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1989; Kövecss 2010). According to this approach, the conceptual metaphor consists of a source field (more concrete or physical concepts such as journey) and a target field (more abstract concepts such as love).

The cognitive linguistics approach argues that the selection of source areas depends on human factors that reflect non-real and previously non-existent similarities between a source and a target area (Kövecss 2010). Also Kövecss (2010) states that the source-to-target mappings can change according to people's world views, background knowledge, and experiences.

Moreover Lakoff (1992) stated that these metaphorical mappings occur related with each other in the inheritance hierarchical structures in which the lowest mappings inherit the structures of higher mappings. The hierarchical structure consists of three levels and provide the prominent generalization. The lexical items in the highest level, that is, level 1 can be used metaphorically in the lowest levels 2 and 3. Lakoff exemplifies this situation as follows.

Level 1: THE EVENT STRUCTURE METAPHOR

Level 2: A PURPOSEFUL LIFE IS A JOURNEY

Level 3: LOVE IS A JOURNEY; A CAREER IS A JOURNEY

As stated in Lakoff (1992), since the specific events are conceptualized as sub states of general events, the metaphor used above in the level 2 utilizes the structure of the event structure metaphor. Also the event structure metaphor in the highest level are more general and universal than the metaphors in the lowest level. The lowest level metaphors are more cultural specific.

Event structure metaphor theory characterizes the events including abstract notions like states, changes, processes, actions, causes, purposes, and means via metaphor in terms of space, motion, and force (Lakoff 1992). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1999) event structure metaphor has two important metaphorical systems:

1. The location event structure metaphor: Events are conceptualized in terms of locations

STATES ARE LOCATIONS

CAUSES ARE FORCES

CHANGES ARE MOVEMENTS

CAUSATION IS FORCED MOVEMENT

ACTIONS ARE SELF-PROPELLED MOVEMENTS

PURPOSES ARE DESTINATIONS

MEANS ARE PATHS

DIFFICULTIES ARE IMPEDIMENTS TO MOTION

PROGRESS IS FORWARD MOTION

2. The object event structure metaphor: Events are conceptualized in terms of objects

ATTRIBUTES ARE POSSESSIONS

CHANGES ARE MOVEMENTS OF POSSESSIONS

CAUSATION IS TRANSFER OF POSSESSION

PURPOSES ARE DESIRED OBJECTS

ACHIEVING A PURPOSE IS ACQUIRING A DESIRED OBJECT

Also according to Lakoff and Johnson (1999) some metaphors occur in location-object pairs called duals such as causes are forces and changes are movements;

states are possessions and attributes are possessions. In the location event structure metaphor, “changes are movements” metaphor denotes the motion of the event-changing from an old location to new location or vice versa; “causes are forces” metaphor shows causation is the forced movement of an affected entity to a new location. On the other hand in the object event structure metaphor, change is the thing changing and it is seen as acquisition or loss of the thing; causation is the transfer of an object to or from an affected entity. In other words causation is considered as taking or giving an object. Lakoff and Johnson (1999) exemplify this situation as follows:

I got a headache. [Change is acquisition -- motion to]

My headache went away. [Change is loss -- motion from]

The noise gave me a headache. [Causation is giving -- motion to]

The aspirin took away my headache. [Causation is taking -- motion from]
(p.225).

Moreover some researchers (e.g. Simon-Vandenberg 2003; Martin and White 2005) focus on the interpersonal functions of metaphor. According to them, metaphors have a role in reflecting the stance of the text producer and also affecting the attitude of the text receiver. Hence the choice of metaphor involves the context in which the text is produced.

Courtroom discourse is formal, special and to a certain extent, non-mutual. Hence the courtroom language differs from ordinary language and is so difficult for ordinary people to understand. Atkinson and Drew (1979) and Cotterill (2002) stated that courtroom discourse also differs from the legislative discourse. According to them legislative discourse is directive, impersonal and decontextualised. On the other hand courtroom discourse is spoken, interactive and consists of several stories that are taken by a strict process of question-and-answer, turn-taking sequences.

Sanderson (1995) defined that language in the courtroom is asymmetrical because of the participants' power. Participants in the discourse are seen as powerful or powerless based on their speech style (Liao, 2013). Therefore the discourse is known as power talk.

According to some scholars, legal language is a professional and objective, and so the rhetoric devices like metaphors damage to the legal language authority (Li and Xiao 2017). However recently some scholars (e.g. Ebbesson 1999;

Berger 2002; Oseid 2010) stated that metaphors as a critical way of thinking have special cognitive and constructive effect in legal discourse. Moreover they have explanatory and persuasive powers in judicial decision making (Berger 2002).

Metaphors have the power to define the reality with a coherent entailments that focus on some features of reality and conceal the others (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). Ebbesson (1999) stated that through focusing certain aspects of a concept and concealing others, metaphors may change the outcome of the court or give a new meaning to the issue. The usage of metaphors shows how participants (lawyers, defendants and witnesses) perceive the situations and contexts from their point of view and thus the validity of the arguments proposed by the participants (Ebbesson 1999).

During the literature review, it was observed that many studies (e.g. Hibbittis 1994, Ebbesson 1999; Berger 2002, Tsai 2004, Steven 2008) were carried out on the use of metaphors in the discourse of courts and laws abroad. On the other hand, no study has been found in the Turkish literature on the use of metaphors in the discourse of the court and the law. It has been observed that the need for such a study makes itself felt strongly. The study aims to describe the conceptual metaphors used by the text producers (lawyers, defendants and witnesses) in the criminal court transcripts.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research design

The study used a descriptive survey model which enable researchers to identify the characteristics of the observed phenomenon as-is (Baškarada 2014, 1). Quantitative and qualitative methods were applied using both Corpus Linguistics (CL) and Critical Discourse Analysis methodologies (CDA). CDA provided the qualitative research tools and CL provided the quantitative research tools for the study of discourse.

Today, the use of the CL methodology has become widespread in CDA (Baker, Gabrielatos, KhosraviNik, Krzyzanowski, McEnery and Wodak, 2008). According to Baker, Gabrielatos, KhosraviNik, Krzyzanowski, McEnery and Wodak (2008) “CL examine frequencies, or, at least, provide strong indicators of the frequency, of specific phenomena recognized in CDA (e.g., topoi, topics, metaphors), by examining lexical patterns, and can add a quantitative dimension to CDA” (p.296). During the literature survey, it was realized that the total number of both CL and CDA studies on conceptual metaphors is considerably limited in

proportion to the number of CL studies. This current study was therefore framed in both the CL and CDA perspectives.

2.2. Data and analysis

The corpus used for this study, comprising approximately 42,578 tokens, consists of thirty criminal court transcripts that were obtained from various law firms. In line with the aim of the study, the dataset selected for analysis includes the lawyers, defendants and witnesses' statements in the court transcripts. The sub-corpus consists of 25,697 tokens.

Data analysis was done based on Lakoff's Event Structure Metaphor Theory (1992). The metaphor identification procedure (MIP) developed by Pragglejaz Group (2007) was used to define metaphorically used words in the data. The procedure consists of five steps as follows:

- (1) Read the whole text or transcript to understand what it is about. Decide about the boundaries of words
- (2) Establish the contextual meaning of the examined word
- (3) Determine the basic meaning of the word
- (4) Decide whether the basic meaning of the word is sufficiently distinct from the contextual meaning
- (5) Decide whether the contextual meaning of the word can be related to the more basic meaning by some form of similarity. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical

3. Findings

As seen in the Table (1), the quantitative analysis revealed that different from the other previous studies conducted on courtroom discourse, negotiation metaphor was heavily used in the data. Also it was seen that negotiation metaphor was the most frequently used in the lawyers statements. The result is presented in the Table (2).

Table1. The frequency of conceptual metaphors used in the data

Conceptual Metaphors	f
Court is a negotiation	79
The time-as-an-object-that-can-be-given	22
States are possessions	36
Court is an object	5
Court is a person	8
Seeing is understanding or seeing is knowing	7
Legal documents are containers	16
Legal documents are weapons	11
Lack of control is lack of control over movement	27
Causes are forces	32
Remembering is seeing-knowing	6
Knowing is seeing-unknowing is unseeing	20
Understanding is seeing	1
Knowing is possession	7

Table 2. The frequency of negotiation metaphors used in the data

Negotiation Metaphor	f
Lawyers	45
Defendants	34
Witnesses ³	23

Courtroom is a place in which the participants win or loss depending on their negotiation abilities through language choices. The following examples demonstrate the negotiated nature of the courtroom. As seen in the examples the participants moved slightly from their defence positions to demonstrate their compliance with the court authority and the opposite parties. Thus they tried to protect their positive face.

Example 1. (Lawyer)

Meslektaşımın beyanlarına katılıyorum. İddia makamının mütalaasına katılmıyoruz.

(I agree with my colleague's statements. We do not agree with the opinion of the prosecution.

Example 2. (Defendant)

Şikayetçilerin katılma talebine bir diyeceğim yoktur. İddianamede anlatılan olayla ilgim yoktur, suçlamayı kabul etmiyorum

(I have nothing to say to the complainants' request to participate. I have nothing to do with the incident described in the indictment, I do not accept the accusation.)

Example 3. (Witnesses)

İmza bana aittir tutanak bana aittir (The signature belongs to me, the record belongs to me)

Moreover, it was observed that the “States are possessions” metaphor in the data exhibited a high frequency of use in the second place. The metaphor was heavily used in the defendants' statements as presented in Table (3).

**Table 3. The frequency of the metaphor
“States are possessions” in the data**

Metaphor		f
States are possessions	Lawyers	12
	Defendants	19
	Witnesses	5

As seen in the following examples, the courtroom participants used this metaphor to affect the court decision by defining their psychological situations in the event.

Example 4.

(Lawyers)

Mağdur durumdadır. (She is a victim)

Example 5.

(Defendants)

Ben neye uğradığımı şaşırđım. Husumetim yoktur

(I was surprised at what happened. I have no animosity)

Example 6.

(Witnesses)

Kuşkuya düşüm. Husumetim yoktur. (I doubted. I have no animosity)

The metaphor «causes are forces» was only used by the defendants in the data. The result is presented in Table (4).

Table 4. The frequency of the metaphor “Causes are forces” in the data

Metaphor		f
Causes are forces	Defendants	32
	Witnesses	-
	Lawyers	-

The logic sense of this metaphor is that A stationary object will move only when force is applied to it; without force, it will not move. As seen in the following example the metaphor was used by the defendant to imply that if there were no force from the outside they wouldn't do the action/crime.

Example 7.

(Defendant)

Biz orada otururken kendisini önceden tanımadığım M, X'e “B. bu mu?” diye sordu, o da “evet “ deyince hemen çantasını kaldırarak bana saldırdı, ben neye uğradığımı şaşırđım, yanında birisi daha vardı, bende kendimi korumak için üzerimdeki bıçağı çıkarıp rastgele salladım, sonrada kaçtım. (While we were sitting there, M, whom I didn't know before, asked X, “B. is this it?” and when she said “yes”, she immediately lifted her bag and attacked me, I was surprised at what happened, there was someone else next to her, so I took the knife on me and shook it randomly to protect myself, then I ran away.)

Moreover as presented in the Table (5), the metaphor «lack of control over change is lack of control over movement» was only seen in the defendants' statements.

Table 5. The frequency of the metaphor “lack of control over change is lack of control over movement” in the data

Metaphor		f
Lack of control over change is lack of control over movement	Defendants	27
	Lawyers	-
	Witnesses	-

The following example illustrates the usage of the metaphor. In the example (8), the defendant implied that he did not have the power on the event and therefore he could not prevent it. Thus he tried to strengthen his position in the court.

Example 8.

(Defendant)

Diğer arkadaşı ile beraber otobüs durağına kadar yürüdük, giderken arkamızdan takip edildiğimizi anladım, ben müdahale etmek istedim fakat kızlar iki kolumdan tutarak bana engel oldular (We walked to the bus stop with her other friend, I realized that we were being followed behind us. I wanted to intervene, but the girls prevented me by holding both my arms.)

It was seen that the metaphor “knowing is seeing/unknowing is unseeing” was heavily used in the witnesses’ statements. The metaphor was not seen in the lawyers’ statements. The result is presented in the Table (6).

**Table 6. The frequency of the metaphor
“Knowing is seeing-Unknowing is unseeing” in the data**

Metaphor		f
Knowing is seeing-Unknowing is unseeing	Witnesses	20
	Defendants	5
	Lawyers	-

Example 9.

(Defendants) Onun oradan geçtiğini biliyorum (I know she passed by)

Example 10.

(Witnesses) vurup vurmadığına dair bilgim yoktur (I don’t know if he hit or not).

In the example (9) the defendant used the metaphor to highlight the clarity of the event and thus strengthen their position. As for the example (10), the witnesses used the metaphor as a hedge to denote that they didn’t want to take the responsibility of the crime or event.

Moreover as seen in the following Table (7) the «seeing is knowing» and «remembering is seeing/knowing» metaphors are only seen in the witnesses’ and defendants’ statements. The use of these metaphors in the following

examples (11)-(14) shows that the defendants and the witnesses avoided taking responsibility for the event.

Example 11

(Witness) bu esnada ben sanıklardan Osman'ın elinde ve diğer sanık elinde bıçak görmedim (Meanwhile, I did not see a knife in the hand of Osman, one of the defendants, nor in the hands of the other defendant.)(seeing is knowing)

Example 12.

(Witness) Şu anda huzurda bulunan sanıkları hatırlıyorum . Dükkanımdan alışveriş yapıp yapmadığını net hatırlamıyorum. I remember the defendants who are now. I don't remember exactly whether he did shopping from my shop or not.) (remembering is seeing)

Example 13.

(Defendant) Başımın arkasına sopayla vuruldu, ben döndüğümde karşımda A. K.'ı gördüm. Bıçak bende yoktu. Diğer sanığın elinde de görmedim. Boğuşma esnasında çıkardıysa da görmedim (I was hit on the back of my head with a stick, and when I turned I saw A. K. in front of me. I didn't have the knife. I did not see it in the other defendant's hand. I didn't see it even if he took it off during the struggle...) (seeing is knowing)

Example 14.

(Defendant) Camı kırdık ama sonrasını hatırlamıyorum. (We broke the window but I don't remember what happened next) (remembering is seeing)

Table 7. The frequency of the metaphors “seeing is knowing” and “remembering is seeing/knowing” in the data

Metaphors		f
seeing is knowing	Witnesses	11
	Defendants	3
	Lawyers	-
remembering is seeing/knowing	Witnesses	13
	Defendants	3
	Lawyers	-

Also in the data the “knowing is possession” and “understanding is seeing” metaphors were seen. The results are presented in the Table (8).

Table 8. The frequency of the metaphors “knowing is possession” and “understanding is seeing” in the data

Metaphors		f
Knowing is possession	Defendants	7
	Lawyers	-
	Witnesses	-
Understanding is seeing	Lawyers	1
	Witnesses	-
	Defendants	-

The examples below illustrates the “knowing is possession” and the “understanding is seeing” metaphors. In the example (15) the lawyer used “the understanding is seeing” metaphor to emphasize clearness of the event. Thus he/she tried to strengthen his/her position in the court. In the example (16) the defendant used the “knowing is possession” metaphor to imply that he/she has learned and known his/her legal rights.

Example 15.

(Lawyer) Tutanak düzenleyicileri beyanları ile de anlaşılmıştır ki düzenlenen tutanak gerçeği yansıtmamaktadır (It has also been understood by the statements of the report editors that the prepared report does not reflect the truth.)

Example 16.

(Defendant) Yasal haklarımı anladım (I understand my legal rights)

In addition, the metaphors “ legal documents are containers” and “ legal documents are weapons” were observed in the data. As presented in the Table (9) the metaphor “legal documents are containers” were the most frequently used in the lawyers’ statements. The metaphor “legal documents are weapons” was not seen in the defendants and witnesses’ statements.

Table 9. The frequency of the metaphors “legal documents are containers” and “legal documents are weapons” in the data

Metaphors	f
Legal documents are containers	
Lawyers	7
Defendants	5
Witnesses	4
Legal documents are weapons	
Lawyers	11
Defendants	-
Witnesses	-

In the following examples, the legal documents (the article 25 of TCK, bill of indictment and minutes) were considered as a container. Imamovic (2013) stated if a legal document does not apply to the cases (consisting of the participants and actions) they will be outside the container. In the example (17) lawyer emphasized that while examining the defendants’ actions, the clauses in the legal document should be taken into consideration. Thus he/she tried to strengthen his/her client’s position in the court. As for the example (18) the defendant implied that she/he did not commit the crime stated in the indictment, therefore she/he should not be prosecuted based on the indictment. In other words the legal document did not apply to her/him since he/she is outside it. This way he/she tried to increase his/her power in the court. In the last example (19) the witnesses emphasized that the information in the report was correct and that the report was applicable to her.

Example 17

(Lawyers) müvekkil sanığın eylemi TCK’nın 25. Maddesi kapsamında kalmaktadır (The client defendant’s action falls within the scope of Article 25 of the TPC.)

Example 18

(Defendants) İddianamede anlatılan olayla ilgim yoktur (I have nothing to do with the incident described in the indictment.)

Example 19

(Witnesses) Okunan tutanak içeriği doğrudur (the content of the minutes read is correct)

Moreover, as seen in the Table (9), the “legal documents are weapons” metaphor was only used by the lawyers. As stated in the previous studies (e.g. Li and Xiao 2017) the courtroom can be considered as a battlefield and the participants especially lawyers can be seen as rivals to beat the other party and protect and gain their clients’ rights. Therefore the evidence and the legal documents are their weapons to win the war.

In the following example the metaphor was used by the lawyer to support the his/her argument. Thus he/she tried to protect his/her client’s right.

Example 20

(Lawyers)

6526 Sayılı Yasadaki hükümlerin dikkate alınmasını talep ediyoruz. (We demand that the provisions of the Law No. 6526 be taken into account.)

Also the metaphor “The time-as-an-object-that-can-be-given” was encountered in the data. As shown in the Table (10) the metaphor was only seen in the lawyers’ and defendants’ statements.

**Table 10. The frequency of the metaphor
“The time-as-an-object-that-can-be-given” in the data**

Metaphor		f
The time-as-an-object-that-can-be-given	Lawyers	22
	Defendants	10
	Witnesses	0

In the example (21) time is conceptualized as an object that can be given. In the example, the metaphor denotes the lawyer’s request having the opportunity to take further actions to beat the opposite parties and gain the court. In the example 22 the metaphor was used by the defendant to imply that she/he did not have any further actions to defend himself or herself.

Example 21

(Lawyers)

Esas hakkındaki savunmalarımızı sunmak için süre talep ederiz. (We request time to present our defenses on the merits.)

Example 22

(Defendants)

Ek süre talep etmiyorum (I do not request additional time)

In the data, the use of metaphors “the court is a person” and “the court is an object” were found. As can be seen in the table (11) below, the metaphor “court is a person” was mostly used in the statements of the defendants. As for the metaphor “the court is an object” was heavily seen in the lawyers’ statements.

**Table 11. The frequency of the metaphors
court is a person/court is an object**

Metaphors		f
Court is a person	Lawyers	2
	Defendants	5
	Witnesses	1
Court is an object	Lawyers	3
	Defendants	2
	Witnesses	2

Example 23

(Defendants)

Mahkeme kararına saygılıyım.(I respect the court decision)

Example 24

(Lawyers)

Biz tanığın beyanının şüpheye dayalı olduğunu düşünüyoruz. Bu durumun mahkemece nazara alınmasını talep ediyoruz. (We consider the witness statement to be based on suspicion. We request that this situation be taken into consideration by the court)

Example 25

(Witnesses) Mahkeme huzurunda bulunanları tanımıyorum (I do not know those who appear in the presence of the court)

The examples above illustrates the metaphor “court is a person”. In these examples as stated in the previous studies (e.g. Li and Xiao 2017) court was conceptualized as a teacher who gives instructions, provides, explanations, examines and evaluates.

In the following examples the court is conceptualized as an object that belongs to someone. Within this context this person is the judge of the court.

Example 26

(Lawyers)

Tutukluluğun devamı kararında mahkemeniz yakalama tutanağına dayanmaktadır. (the arrest report for the continuation of detention decision based on your court)

Example 27

(Defendants)

Mahkemenize güveniyorum (I trust your court)

Example 28

(Witnesses)

Mahkemenizde vermiş olduğum ifade... (The statement I gave in your court)

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results obtained in the study displays some differences with the results obtained in previous studies (e.g. Ebbeson (2008); Šeškauskienė and Stepanýuk (2014); Li and Xiao (2017))on the courtroom and legal discourse. Although the metaphors such as war, journey, building, animal, person were heavily seen in these previous studies, negotiation metaphor is the most observed one in the scope of the study. In addition, journey, plant, animal and building metaphors were not encountered in the study.

It is thought that the differences comes form Turkey’s inquisitorial court discourse. There are currently two globally accepted court systems: the

adversarial system used in the countries such as the United States of America, England, Wales and the inquisitorial system used in European countries, as well as in countries that borrowed their legal systems directly or indirectly from the European system such as Turkey. In the adversarial system, the judge acts as an impartial referee between the prosecution and the defence, and the lawyers play an active role. All evidence is presented through a process of oral questions and answers between lawyers and witnesses. Also in this system, the lawyers representing the opposing parties use language strategically in order to construct versions of the same reality on the behalf of their clients, as well as to beat each other. In other words courtroom is a place where there is a war or a competition between the opposing parties. It was stated that in the previous studies on courtroom discourse because of this feature of the system the war metaphor was heavily used.

As for the inquisitorial system, the judge is actively involved in investigating the facts of the case and only the judge examine witnesses, defendants and others involved in a case. This system enables all the participants, including the defendant, to be actively involved in pursuing the truth. Therefore, in this system, the defendant has a party role. The defendants can defend themselves and supply information to investigators. The lawyers take a passive role in this system, and are prohibited from asking the witnesses and defendants questions directly. In this system the parties and defendants cooperate and work with the judge. For this reason it is thought that the metaphor “negotiation” was the most frequently used in the data of the study.

In addition, in this study, similar to other previous studies, the metaphors “person and object” were encountered, albeit less frequently. It has been observed that these metaphors were used with an approach that reveals the superiority of the judge in accordance with Turkey’s court system.

Apart from the other studies, the study focused on the event structure metaphors. As stated in detail above the event structure metaphors were seen in the data: Causes are forces, States are possessions, Knowing is seeing, Understanding is seeing, Knowing is possession, Lack of control over change is lack of control over movement, Remembering is seeing, Seeing is knowing.

As stated before by Ebbeson (1999), metaphors are used by the participants to emphasize the validity of their arguments. Similarly within the scope of the study it was observed that the metaphors were used by the lawyers and defendants to strengthen the validity of their arguments and also protect their positive face. Thus they have power in the courtroom. Moreover the defendants and especially

the witnesses used the metaphors to avoid taking the responsibility of the crime or event. Thus they presented their self positive representation.

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CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT AND MOTIVE BEHIND *THE MAYOR OF CASTERBRIDGE*

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1. Introduction

Thomas Hardy (1840-1928) is known to have been a successful writer both in novel and poetry, and skilfully depicted the rural life of Wessex. He was born in Dorset “in a secluded thatched cottage...where he lived for most of the first 30 years of his life” (“Thomas Hardy’s Dorset Inspirations”, 2015). Therefore, he was already familiar with the country and rural life, which he skilfully reflected in his novels. His mother was an influential figure on his education and when he was sixteen “...he was apprenticed to John Kicks, a local architect, where he trained in the architecture of Gothic revival, an interest that stayed with Hardy for the rest of his life” (*MC*¹, p.I).

In writing his novels, Hardy was influenced by the literary movement Naturalism introduced by the French writer Emile Zola. In Realism, which can be considered to have prepared the foundation of naturalism that followed, life is presented realistically; that is real life is imitated. The readers come across common people as well as everyday experiences in realistic novels since life is presented as it is. Charles Dickens and George Eliott can be given as examples of leading realist novelists of the Victorian era. They did not only deal with high class people but also with common people while depicting their characters. In Dicken’s social realism novels, for example, major characters’ struggles for climbing the social ladder are displayed successfully.

Naturalism, however, can be defined as a type of realism but with bitter description of life and characters. Emile Zola, the French novelist regarded as the father of this literary movement and philosophy, emphasized the scientific observation of life and claimed that the novelist should be an observer and the

¹ Hardy, T. (1994). *The Mayor of Casterbridge*. London: Penguin Books Ltd. Hereafter, the book is referred to as *MC*.

novel be experimental, similar to the observation conducted in science. Naturalist novels base their characters and events on natural causes that determine the life of the protagonists. Determinism and environment are two important elements that encircle a character's inescapable fate. "But fate is not a wholly external force. Men and women are driven by the demands of their own nature as much as by anything outside them" (Greenblatt, 2005, p.1851). Thus, the characters cannot control the process that may lead to their happiness. They are rather driven into a gloomy world, which may lead to their destruction.

Hardy's renowned novels *Far from the Madding Crowd*, *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, *Tess of the d'Urbervilles* and *Jude the Obscure* published in 1874, 1886, 1891, and 1895 respectively, fit the philosophy of naturalism during a period when that literary movement was dominant. His major characters give in to the passion or the motives that sometimes pull them into a whirlpool of grief. "Men and women in Hardy's fiction are not masters of their fates; they are at the mercy of the indifferent forces that manipulate their behavior and their relations with others, but they can achieve dignity through endurance, heroism, or simple strength of character" (Greenblatt, 2005, p.1851). Social, cultural, and economic conditions prevalent in a specific period of time definitely affect the content or the plot of the stories composed. The writers may or may not be aware of all these effects since they themselves are surrounded by a discourse penetrated into the core of their soul.

Nineteenth century witnessed many changes regarding industry and scientific developments. With *the Origin of Species* published in 1859, Darwin's theories challenged the established religious beliefs. As the century was a century of inventions, many old ideas began to be replaced with the new ones. In Hardy's fictional world, one comes across unorthodox elements especially in his *Jude the Obscure* that presents the major characters as opposing to the institution of marriage. His pessimistic views on his characters reflect the late-Victorian mood due to the transition from the nineteenth century to the twenty-first although the earlier period was more optimistic for people thanks to the new manufacturing processes. The technological advances that seemed to bring progress and happiness to people, would now offer a desperate milieu with the start of a new century.

In 1851 there was a huge international exhibition in London, called The Great Exhibition, and it became the symbol of the industrial power of Britain, displaying mechanical and technological items. However, science and technology, which were thought to bring welfare and prosperity, disappointed many since they led to the competition of armament and more control between

nations. Thus *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, which takes place in a fictional town called Casterbridge, which stands for Dorchester, Hardy's hometown, reflects the pessimism and conditions of its period, and it does this with the powerful observation of the writer.

The Mayor of Casterbridge is one of the most popular novels written by Hardy. Its title passed through some stages from its first publication to its later publications. During a revision of the novel for the English first edition to the end of 1886, he chose the title "*The Mayor of Casterbridge: The Life and Death of a Man of Character*" (Gatrell, 2010, p.41). The title suggests that the protagonist's life is given in detail and finally dies as a man of character. It is not surprising that the major character Mr Henchard in Hardy's novel is portrayed as a character who cannot control his life as he desires and wishes. The decisions that he makes or that feels forced to make bring unhappiness to him, which is characteristic of "naturalism". He has peace and happiness neither in his internal world nor in his outside world. Life seems to him uncontrollable. However hard he tries, he feels compelled to make decisions that prepares his tragic end.

The novel also bears similarities with *Les Misérables* by the French poet and novelist Victor Hugo. It is known that some French writers were influential on British writers and Hardy was one of them. "In 1902, on the occasion of the centenary of Hugo's birth, he wrote in a French review: 'His memory must endure. His works are the cathedrals of literary architecture, his imagination adding greatness to the colossal and charm to the small'" (qtd. in Blin-Cordon and Estanove, 2018, p.5). Hardy was likely influenced by Hugo in composing his *The Mayor of Casterbridge*.

2. Analysis of *The Mayor of Casterbridge*

The Mayor of Casterbridge starts with the arrival of Michael Henchard, a twenty-one year old hay-trusser, his wife Susan and his baby daughter Elizabeth-Jane in Weydon-Priors, a village. There in a furmity² tent, after taking alcohol and becoming drunk, Henchard sells his wife in an auction for five guineas to a sailor. The next day when he wakes up, he understands that he has made a big mistake and tries to find his wife and daughter. In a hopeless situation, he finds a church in a nearby place and makes a promise for not drinking for twenty-one years, a period which is equal to the years he lived in the world. After eighteen years Susan and Elizabeth-Jane find Henchard in Casterbridge as the mayor

² (*British*) a kind of porridge made from hulled wheat boiled with milk, sweetened, and spiced ("Furmity")

and corn-factor involved in granary business. They meet him and Henchard remarries Susan but does not talk about his past to anyone except Farfrae, a Scottish man whom he takes as a corn manager to run his business. Farfrae is a young, handsome, and more skilful person compared to Henchard, who cannot follow the novelty in business. From the letter written to him by Susan, he learns that Elizabeth-Jane is not his biological daughter but the daughter of the sailor. Lucetta, the woman who comes to Casterbridge after hearing the death of Susan, falls in love with Farfrae and marries him. Henchard loses his business, position as a mayor and Lucetta, the woman he wanted to marry after the death of Susan, who was his first wife. Jopp, in order to take revenge both from Mr Henchard, who had not given him the position as a corn manager, and Lucetta, who ignored his wish to have a position from her husband Farfrae, discloses the letters he was taking to Lucetta, and causes to have a skimmity-ride³ in the town, which leads to the death of Lucetta. Elizabeth-Jane, on the other hand, takes care of Henchard, who begins to live an isolated life but when she learns that Henchard had not told the truth about her being alive to Newson, her real father, she gets angry with him. During the wedding of Elizabeth-Jane and Farfrae, Henchard pays a visit to her with a wedding present, a goldfinch in a cage. She does not forgive him and he leaves there. However, after some time when learning that the cage with the dead bird outside was left there by Henchard as a wedding gift, she decides to look for him with Farfrae. When they find him, he is already dead and has left a will in which he states that he wishes to be forgotten.

Besides personal experiences, writers are affected by social, cultural, economic, or political changes in the society they live in when penning a literary work. In the preface to the novel, Hardy expresses that there were three incidents from which he was inspired to write his novel. They were the sale of a wife by her husband, the uncertain harvests which immediately preceded the repeal of the Corn Laws⁴, and the visit of a Royal personage to the aforesaid part of England (*MC*, p.V).

The sale of a wife, which is unimaginable today, seems really to have taken place during the first decades of the 19th century. Wright (2004) states that the custom of “Wife Sale” has a long history, which was most visible between 1750 and 1850, and it flourished during this century because this was a time of turmoil in English society, caused to a large degree by the American Revolution, the French Revolution, the Napoleonic wars and their aftermath. He adds that

³ (in rural Britain, formerly) the custom of forming a mock procession to ridicule an unfaithful spouse. (“Skimmington”)

⁴ Laws in Britain in the 19th century controlling the price of foreign corn, and making it more expensive than corn produced in Britain (“Corn Law” 308)

during these years, divorce was unattainable in practice to all but those on the upper rungs of English society (p.169). Regarding the rights of the women of the nineteenth century, it can be said that they were not equal to men since they were deprived of many legal rights bestowed on men. Moreover, for some they were inferior creatures destined to do specific chores at home. Public sphere was just forbidden for many of them.

The protagonist Henchard rises to the level of a mayor after taking an oath for not drinking alcohol. Although it is not very clear in the novel, it is probably because of his keeping himself away from alcohol and his hard working that he is chosen as the mayor. However, his past misdeed never leaves him. As a person who married at the age of eighteen, he complains about his marriage and sells his wife for five guineas along with her baby daughter Elizabeth-Jane and eighteen years later he meets them again. Although selling his wife and daughter is not an approved action, this is not the same as the sale of negroes brought from Africa to America as he says: "I'll sell her for five guineas to any man that will pay me the money, and treat her well" (*MC*, p.11). Although Susan is sold like commodity, her being treated well is seen to be a condition for the sale. In addition to that, assuming an air as if to justify the sale Henchard says: "It has been done elsewhere- and why not here?" (*MC*, p.12). His action, which later will drive him into a state of anxiety and unrest when he meets his past deeds, is a reckless one although he tries to rationalize it with his impulse.

The conditions at the time when the story takes place is worth mentioning as it is the condition that forces human beings to take wrong decisions whether deliberately or not. Henchard was just a hay trusser when selling his wife. Eighteen years later, he turns out to be the mayor of a town and rich by getting involved in the corn business. Abravanel (2005) mentions that since the end of the Napoleonic wars in 1815, the Corn Laws had prevented the import of grain into Britain when the domestic price fell below eighty shillings a quarter, thus protecting corn factors, like Henchard and Farfrae, at the expense of consumers. When the Corn Laws were finally repealed in 1846, foreign imports began to flood English markets, and by the time Hardy wrote *Mayor* during the Great Depression of 1873-1896, an entire agricultural way of life seemed to have been lost (p.100). The Corn Laws thus inflicted a deep wound on the life of the British public since many towns like Casterbridge were bound to agriculture at the time.

Casterbridge, which has characteristics peculiar to itself, is portrayed as a town which is isolated from the modern world. It is an agricultural town in which almost everything is related to agriculture as a way of living for the people of the town. "The agricultural and pastoral character of the people upon whom the

town depended for its existence was shown by the class of objects displayed in the shop windows” (*MC*, p.32).

Almost the only means of livelihood of the town’s people is bread and the quality of the corn from which bread is made determines the taste of the bread. As the mayor, Henchard has a duty such as determining the quality of bread. The novel emphasizes that grain is very important in the life of the people of Casterbridge. The similar interests of both Henchard and Farfrae in the grains of corn shows how the grain is important in the life of the people of Casterbridge: “Thus they passed the King’s Arms Hotel...till they were small as two grains of corn” (*MC*, p.66).

Considering his personality and attitudes in detail throughout the novel, it can be said that Henchard deserves the title *A Story of a Man of Character*. For example, regarding the objections for the bad quality of bread, he sincerely declares that if anybody tells him how to turn grown wheat into wholesome wheat, he’ll take it back with pleasure (*MC*, p.41). On another occasion, he promises not to reveal the love letters to Farfrae as this would give an end to the marriage of Lucetta and Farfrae. However, the mistakes he made in the past follow him like a shadow of fear.

Another example of his being a man of character is his attitude during the trial of the furmity woman. When he listens to the case of the furmity woman, the truth about his past is revealed as the woman talks about his selling of his wife and daughter. The furmity woman does not think that she should be judged by him, saying: “And the man who sold his wife in that fashion is the man sitting there in the great big chair” (*MC*, p.232). Although he can deny the accusations by a poor woman who cannot persuade the court effectively, his manner of accepting the accusation shows that he is not a man who covers up his past and wrong deeds. His last words before leaving the court can be taken as an example of real justice which has the same applications even today in our modern world. As he says: “And to keep out of any temptation to treat her hard for her revenge, I’ll leave her to you”, he proves that he should be impartial in making a verdict about the woman (*MC*, p.232). Although there wasn’t a clear reason for why the furmity woman talked about Henchard’s selling his wife and child, her attitude can be explained with taking revenge from a man who is rich and powerful. Gatrell (2010) evaluates the attitude of the furmity-seller as a triumphant moment of class-revenge (p.51). It was a time when the differences between classes were more prominent compared to the modern world.

His selling his gold watch, after going bankrupt, shows that he wants to pay his debts. When the commissioners give his gold watch back to him, he

sells it to pay just a small amount of his debt (*MC*, p.253). Even when fighting against Farfrae, he makes the conditions equal by tying one of his arms as he is physically stronger than Farfrae (*MC*, p.314). The regret he feels after doing that shows that he is not a man with bad intentions but a man who cannot control his feelings.

However, it is just after his losing everything; his business as a mayor, his profession as a corn-factor, and Lucetta that he counts his days for his promise to end so that he can start drinking again. He loses control over his life. He behaves not rationally but with his impulses. He cannot endure the situation of losing his mayorship. He feels that the odds are against him and becomes harsher. When a Royal Personage passes through the town for inauguration of the railway, angry at being not included in the welcoming council, he walks towards the approaching Royal carriage with his flag but is dragged away by Farfrae. When he becomes hopeless after losing many things, he even considers committing suicide. As a result of his loses, he stands on the brink of the stream and sees his effigy. When he sees his effigy, he gives up committing suicide as the sense of supernatural was strong in him (*MC*, p.342). It is not only his free will but also external factors that determine his life.

In naturalism, it is heredity and social environment that affect one's character. Men and women characters are victimized both by their nature and the outside world. What causes the fall of the mayor is the unfortunate events he experiences. The chance factor plays an important role in his losing respect and thus becoming a hay-trusser again as he was in the past. As a part of the celebrations for a national event in all over the country, Henchard pays for the cost himself and organizes some activities such as greasy-poles for climbing and wheelbarrows for racing. The things do not go as he plans since it rains and people get soaked. On the other hand, Farfrae, who takes into consideration even the rain for his alternative celebration gathers the praises of the people as they enjoy themselves in a covered tent without being disturbed by rain (*MC*, p.119).

Henchard's unhappiness results from his wrong decisions and the events that turn out to be to his disadvantage, which can be explained through naturalism. For example; while Lucetta waits for Henchard in her house, she meets Farfrae suddenly, who is admitted by the servant, who thinks that Farfrae is the gentleman to be accepted. In a way, Henchard felt forced to make the decisions. His letting Farfrae meet Elizabeth-Jane is just an unfortunate event for him as he thought it would be better for Farfrae to see her in Lucetta's house. It is as soon as Lucetta and Farfrae see each other that they fall in love (*MC*, p.181).

He visits a weather-prophet who tells him that the last fortnight in August will be rain and tempest but in fact the weather turns out to be sunny and the prices of the corn he bought in order to make profit does not go up and he loses a lot of money (*MC*, p.215). It is really interesting that after losing a lot of money, he drives Jopp into the corner and blames him for his failure (*MC*, p.217) although the decision maker was himself. Thus, the effects of naturalism are strongly felt in many of his actions.

He is forced to make a choice but with no success. And it's his excessive reaction to Jopp which causes him to take revenge on Henchard by revealing the letters to the low-class people who later have a skimmity-ride in the town. Things get out of his control. "The movements of his mind seemed to tend to the thought that some power was working against him" (*MC*, p.219). Razaq (2011) states that by entrapping his characters Hardy suggests that man has no real free will and that the characters in this pessimistic novel seem unable to direct their fates and never have even a small chance to escape. Moreover, they appear to be acted upon by external forces which seem totally foreign to them (p.187).

When leaving the town after learning that Newson will meet Elizabeth-Jane and Farfrae, he becomes depressed and feels lonely, as he has lost all people around him. Henchard feels obliged to take the decision of leaving Casterbridge. He knows that he will lose Elizabeth-Jane as well. Although when he learnt that she was not his biological daughter, he was cold to her but later he developed a great affection for her. "I- Cain⁵- go alone as I deserve- an outcast and a vagabond. But my punishment is not greater than I can bear!" (*MC*, p.361) is an allusion to the religious figure *Cain*. Henchard knows he deserved this life as a result of his actions and he should bear that.

Elizabeth-Jane takes care of him when he is ill and without knowing the truth regards him as her father. However, she becomes upset after meeting Newson and understands the truth of Henchard's leaving the town. Henchard becomes desolate without her existence. While leaving Casterbridge, he had put "a few of Elizabeth-Jane's cast-off belongings, in the shape of gloves, shoes, a scrap of her handwriting, and the like" into his basket and "he carried a curl of her hair" in his pocket (*MC*, p.366). He feels lonely, wants to be loved, and needs someone to love.

Henchard is a generous person as well. He helps the poor mother of Abel Whittle as he sends his mother coal. It is for his generosity and good personality

⁵ In the Old Testament of the Bible, Adam and Eve's first son, who killed his younger brother Abel, and therefore became the first ever murderer ("Cain" 186)

that Abel stays with him until he dies. Farfrae, on the other hand, is completely different from Henchard. While he represents the novelty and modernity, Henchard prefers to stay as a traditional person. The clash between them comes to surface when Farfrae introduces an agricultural machine. “[T]o Henchard, it is a stupid new-fangled device; to a man of the future like Farfrae, it is an economic necessity” (Tagad, 2013, p.5). The clash between the traditional and modern way of life rose to the surface at a time when there was too much novelty in the life of the British in the Victorian era.

It is Donald Farfrae who puts forward his solution to have high quality grains and thus is appreciated by Henchard for the new technique he has brought. Finally, Farfrae accepts the business proposal by Henchard to be his corn manager. “From the outset, Farfrae shows himself sensitive to the community sociology and skilful in the creation of interpersonal relationships” (Franklin, 2007, p.436). He knows how to socialize and form a friendship. He sings a song to the people at the hotel, he is polite to the people in Casterbridge, he is admired by many young women in the town and a very suitable candidate as a husband. Even Lucetta, although she loves Henchard and comes to Casterbridge after the death of Susan, falls in love with this Scottish man. He is a man who calculates almost everything in business. He is precautious and intelligent when selling the grains at lower prices and selling them at high prices just in time, which makes him an ideal person both in romantic and economic relations.

The role of women in the novel is worth mentioning since Victorian period women were expected to belong to the domestic sphere and have specific duties: raising children and doing the household chores. However, there were some who contradicted the concept *the angel in the house*. Lucetta is a woman who wishes to do as she wants. She is secretly involved in a love affair with Henchard starting from Jersey, where Henchard had been for a business purpose. She contradicts the traditional type of Victorian woman in that she leads a life based on passion. Paying great attention in not to reveal her past, she tries to protect herself from the harsh criticism of the society, which was more conservative at the time. She changes the man she wants to marry as soon as she meets Farfrae, who is younger and more energetic than Henchard. After hearing that Henchard had sold his wife at a fair, she blames him for selling his wife “like a horse or cow” (MC, p.243) and says that she could not keep her promise after that. She is a woman who wants to love and be loved. When Henchard speaks to her about his marriage offer, she says she will love Farfrae and cries passionately. Their outlook on life is not similar. The difference between her character and that of Henchard is revealed when she says “I won’t be a slave to the past- I’ll love

where I choose!” (*MC*, p.204). She is not bound to the past while Henchard is completely bound to his past and suffers from it.

Susan, on the other hand, is a meek person, who goes away with Newson as she thinks it is her duty to go with the sailor when payment is made. It is just protection that she wants both for herself and her daughter. When Newson leaves them, she sets off towards Casterbridge in order to find her first husband for financial security, which may be a typical characteristic especially of low-class women. After learning that Henchard has become a mayor and a corn merchant “she feels over-matched and is on the verge of abandoning her efforts when she catches sight of his waggons; she perceives these as symbols of his prosperity and, changing her mind, decides to persevere in her efforts to regain him” (Uehara, 2011, p.163).

Henchard dies miserably at the end of the novel since Elizabeth-Jane and Farfrae cannot arrive on time to ask for forgiveness or to see him for the last time. His wish to be forgotten is heart rendering and sorrowful. Social Darwinism claims that human beings are subject to natural selection and the weak that cannot adapt to the environment are eliminated and the strong will survive. His confrontation and failure with the novelty of technology brought about by the industrial revolution, his impulse, and the unfortunate events in his business and private life prepare his tragic end although he deserves the better with his character. The novel, written towards the end of the Victorian Period, reflects all the conditions of the period such as transition to modernism, pessimism, and loneliness. Thus, the magnificence of the Victorian period begins to lose momentum after giving great prosperity to Britain.

Hardy successfully commits the characteristics of naturalism to his major novels, including *The Mayor of Casterbridge*. Later he would explain that he is “more than ever convinced that persons are successively various persons, according as each special strand in their characters is brought uppermost by circumstances” (Hardy, 1989, p.241). This makes Hardy a foremost British naturalist writer of his time. He believed in the power of heredity and environment as determining factors in getting people to be equipped with specific characters, which fitted the naturalism with its bitter description of life.

3. Conclusion

Hardy, like his contemporaries, had been influenced by the French origin naturalism that appeared to the end of the Victorian era. The study shows that Hardy was probably not only influenced by that literary movement, but also by the French writers, especially Victor Hugo, in forming his plot and characters for

The Mayor of Casterbridge, which is similar to Hugo's *Les Misérables* in many ways. Conditions of the Victorian period and Hardy's personal experiences are also clearly seen in his novel. The clash between modernism and traditionalism of the era has been shown through the figures of Henchard and Farfrae. The novel has a pessimistic ending, which suits the naturalist literary movement and social Darwinism since Henchard cannot control himself and his fate, and he, as a traditionalist, cannot stand against Farfrae, who is a reformist. Finally, Henchard, who cannot adapt to the changing conditions, dies miserably.

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CHAPTER 3

TRANSITION TO PARENTHOOD: THE ROLE OF MARITAL ADJUSTMENT, RELATIONSHIP QUALITY AND POSTPARTUM DEPRESSION IN PREDICTING PARENTAL SELF EFFICACY¹

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1. Introduction

Family development theory provides a perspective that highlights primary tasks and transitions within family life helping to understand couple experiences (White & Klein 2002). In family life, transitions represent periods of change when couples or families shift from one stage of family experience to another (Price, McKenry, and Murphy 2000). Transitions are considered as pauses in the family life cycle or periods of disorganisation and reorganisation as the family and its members advance from one stage to another (Falicov, 1988; Roth, 1989). Transition to parenthood, is one of the normative or developmental transitions. Classically, the time period beginning with a pregnancy and terminating a few months after the baby's arrival defines this transition (Goldberg, 1988). However, an extension has been proposed by Gottlieb and Pancer (1988) as beginning with the couple's decision to become pregnant and terminating when the child turns 2 to 3 years old.

¹ This study is derived from the doctoral thesis titled "The Investigation of Transition to Parenthood in Terms of Several Pre-Partum and Post-Partum Factors" prepared under the supervision of Esra İşmen Gazioğlu at the Department of Department of Educational Sciences of the Institute of Social Sciences.

This transition has attracted research interest for over 60 years. Initially, birth of the first child of a couple was termed as a marital and family life crisis (Dyer, 1963; LeMasters, 1957). Nowadays, the transition to parenthood is considered more as a period of imbalances due to the fact that individuals who become new parents are in new roles, conditions and requirements (Levy-Shiff, 1999). Cowan and Cowan (1988) express the transition to parenthood process as a period during which effective changes can be experienced in the relationships of the individual with his /her child, his/her own parents, colleagues and partner. These changes unavoidably affect marital balance. During the transition process from being childless to having children, individuals need to adapt to their new roles, develop new relationships, and reorganize their existing relationships. According to Antonucci and Mikus (1988), specific changes happen in areas such as affective states, self-perceptions, personal maturity, personal efficacy and values during this period. Osofsky and Culp (1989) found that men reported feeling different about themselves and their relationships with their transition to parenthood. More specifically, they found that most men experienced profound change in their sense of responsibility, their relationship with their spouse, their attitudes toward their baby, and their self-perception (Glade, Bean & Rohini, 2005).

One of the consistent findings in the literature about this period is an overall decrease and adjustment in couple's satisfaction in their marriage. (Belsky, 1985; Belsky, Lang & Rovine, 1985; Cowan & Cowan, 1983). With most couples' conflict levels do increase during the postnatal adjustment (Cowan & Cowan, 1987). These changes may be generally associated with the drastic changes in partners roles and identities that occur during this period.

Cowan and Cowan (1988) found that women reported a greater increase in their investment in the maternal role than men increased in their paternal role. Both men and women reported a decreased emphasis in their partner role, but the decrease was bigger with women compared to men.

The addition of a newborn infant to the family does not effect only marital relationships. By the birth of a child, it is probable to occur interpersonal changes in both parents. Another aspect of intrapersonal change and adjustment difficulties is in the manifestation of psychological symptoms. The first child coming to the family can initiate a period of disequilibrium and reorganization for many individuals (Goldberg & Michaels, 1988). During this abrupt change, depression and low self-esteem may be experienced by many men and women (Belsky & Kelly, 1994; Hawkings & Belsky, 1989; Osofsky & Culf, 1989). The adjustment is particularly difficult for mothers because they are subject to

significant physical and life changes. Independently from whether it is termed as a crisis or an adaptive process, pregnancy and giving birth can have substantial psychological and physiological effects on mothers (Knox & Schact, 1997). Postpartum depression is experienced by 10–15% of mothers in the months following childbirth (Beck, Record, Rice, 2006; Cox, Holden, & Sagovsky, 1987).

During the postpartum period, parents need more connections and support with extended family than other family developmental stages (Belsky & Rovine, 1984). Another concept, which is associated with parenthood, effected by social support is *parental self-efficacy* (PSE). Parental self-efficacy or persons' own perception on competency as a parent grow stonger in first months. When the relevant literature is reviewed it has seen that PSE is strongly affected by many aspects of parenthood such as age, social support, actual experiences, parental satisfaction, parental mental heath, and depression (Carless, Melvin, Tonge & Newman, 2015; Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Eaton, 2007; Kwok & Wonk, 2000; Olioff & Aboud, 1991).

Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as one's belief in their ability to perform a specific behavior in a successful manner. Parental self-efficacy (PSE) seems as an important variable that has potential roles in child's development in family system. PSE is a potentially important cognitive construct, related to child and family functioning, that can be broadly defined as the expectation caregivers hold about their ability to parent successfully.

When applied to the parenting domain, in order to feel efficacious, parents must possess the following: (a) knowledge of appropriate child care responses (e.g., how to detect and relieve infant distress or what limitations should be set for 2,5-year olds and how to enforce their toddlers), (b) confidence in their own abilities to accomplish such tasks, and (c) the beliefs that their children will respond contingently and that others in their social environment, including friends and family members, will be supporting their efforts (Coleman & Karraker, 1998).

The current study is aiming to explain the importance of marital adjustment, relationship quality, age and mothers' postpartum depression in predicting in parental self efficacy. In line with this goal, these questions are studied: (1) Are marital adjustment, relationship quality, age and postpartum depression associated with parental self efficacy? (2) What is the relative influence of marital adjustment, relationship quality and age on fathers' parental self efficacy? (3) What is the relative influence of marital adjustment, relationship quality, age and postpartum depression on mothers' parental self efficacy?

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

285 new parents participated in this study. 155 parents were selected from the parents of infants who applied to pediatricians whose offices located in low and middle-low social status neighbourhoods (e.g. Feriköy). And 130 parents were selected from the parents of infants who applied to pediatricians whose offices located high social status neighbourhoods (e.g. Nişantaşı) Incompleted 34 of the forms were eliminated. Therefore, a total of 251 parents' (140 women, 111 men) response were evaluated. The inclusion criteria included to be married individuals who had their first child aged 3-6 months and to be living in Şişli Municipality.

Table 1: Demographic Information of the Sample Group

Gender	f	%
Female	140	55,8
Male	111	44,2
Baby's Months of Age	f	%
3 months	48	19,1
4 months	23	9,2
5 months	30	12
6 months	150	59,7
Educational Level	f	%
Uneducated	2	0,8
Elementary	12	4,8
Middle	17	6,8
High School	79	31,5
University and Above	141	56,2
Employment Status	f	%
Employed	196	78,1
Unemployed	55	21,9
Income Status	f	%
Low	3	1,2
Middle-low	30	12
Middle-high	194	77,3
High	24	9,6
Total	251	100

2.2 Instruments

Demographic Information Form used in this study, is developed by the researchers to gather the respondent's demographic characteristics.

The Parental Self Efficacy Questionnaire (PSEQ; authors) is an 18-item self-report instrument developed for new parents with babies between three and six months to assess judgements about their ability to perform parenting tasks. PSEQ is a Likert-type scale (1 'strongly agree' and 5 'strongly disagree'). Decreasing scores indicate the high perceived competency levels of first-time parents. The Cronbach's alpha value was 0.85, and the test-retest reliability was provided at $p < 0.001$ (Kılıçaslan, 2007).

The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS; Cox et al., 1987) is a self-report instrument consisting of 10 items and developed to predict the depression risk in women in the postpartum period. The scale aims to obtain the findings of depressive symptoms they recently experienced. EPDS is a 4-point Likert-type scale scored between 0 to 3. Turkish adaptation study of the instrument was carried out by Engindeniz, Küey, and Kültür (1996). The cutoff point of the scale was calculated to be 12/13, and women whose total scale score was higher than the cutoff point were considered at the risk group for postpartum depression (Engindeniz et al., 1996). The Cronbach's alpha value was 0.79.

Marital Adjustment Test (MAT; Locke & Wallace 1959) is a 15-items self-report instrument. The instrument used to assess to measure the quality and overall marital adjustment, and also agreement or disagreement in various topics (the family budget, the expression of the emotions, friends, sexuality, morals, philosophy of life) and the relationship style (free-time, out-of-home activities, conflict resolution, loyalty). The adaptation study of the instrument into Turkish was carried out by Tutarel-Kışlak (1999). The scores range from 1 to 58 points, and the high score indicates decadence in marriage, and the low score indicates incompatibility. In her reliability study of the scale, Tutarel Kışlak, (1999) found that the internal consistency coefficient was 0.84 and the split-test reliability coefficient was 0.84.

Quality of Relationship Inventory (QRI; Pierce, Sarason, Sarason & Solky-Butzel, 1997) is a 25-items self-report instrument used to assess depth, social support and conflict dimensions of individuals' close relationships. The scale reliability is calculated between 0.81 and 0.93 Pierce, et al., (1997) calculated

test-re test reliability between .48 and .79. Özabacı (2007) carried out a Turkish adaptation study of the instrument which is a Likert type rating scale. All items in the scale range from level 1 corresponding to 'none' to level 4 corresponding to 'a great deal'. QRI test-retest reliability was found as 0.72. For the similar scale validity study, QRI was correlated with Interpersonal Relationship Scale, which is also used to assess the quality of relationships (Karakurt, 2001). As a result of correlation analysis, these two scales were found as correlated at average level ($r = .64, p = 000$).

Marital Problem Solving Scale (MPSS; Baugh, Avery, & Sheets-Hawort, 1982) is a 9-items self-report instrument used to assess marital problem solving ability. Turkish adaptation study of the instrument was carried out by Hünler (2002). Although the original form of MPSS was 1-9 Likert-type, it was changed into 1-5 Likert type for easy answering. The scores range between 9-45. High scores mean that the individual is considering himself successful about problem solving abilities within the marriage. Factor analysis shows that all items fall into one factor. The Cronbach's alpha value was 0.91 and item-total correlation was between .63-.73 (Hünler, 2002).

3. Results

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the relationships between fathers' parental self efficacy, marital problem solving, marital adjustment, relationship quality (social support, conflict, depth subscales) and parental age. Table 2 presents those results.

Table 2 shows that, there was a significant negative relationship between fathers' parental self efficacy and marital adjustment, ($p < 0.01$). The study revealed significant positive relationships between fathers' parental self efficacy and conflict ($p < 0.01$). Also, there was a significant negative relationship between fathers' marital problem solving and conflict ($p < 0.01$) and significant positive relationships between fathers' marital problem solving and marital adjustment, social support, and depth ($p < 0.01$). There was a significant negative relationship between fathers' marital adjustment and conflict ($p < 0.01$) and age ($p < 0.05$). A significant positive relationships also were found between fathers' marital adjustment and social support, and depth ($p < 0.01$).

Table 2. Correlations between Fathers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy and Related Variables

	Parental Self-efficacy	Marital Problem Solving	Marital Adjustment	Social Support	Conflict	Depth	Age
Parental Self-efficacy	$\bar{X}=33,378$ SS=9,110						
Marital Problem Sol.	-,146	$\bar{X}=38,153$ SS=4,838					
Marital Adjustment	-,337(**)	,594(**)	$\bar{X}=46,964$ SS=5,800				
Social Support	-,153	,549(**)	,566(**)	$\bar{X}=25,234$ SS=2,483			
Conflict	,261(**)	-,474(**)	-,487(**)	-,358(**)	$\bar{X}=29,297$ SS=5,299		
Depth	-,167	,432(**)	,582(**)	,598(**)	-,331(**)	$\bar{X}=22,577$ SS=1,984	
Age	,107	-,120	-,188(*)	-,064	-,011	-,030	$\bar{X}=30,946$ SS=3,894

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05 (N=111)

Stepwise regression analysis revealed the role of marital adjustment in explaining Fathers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy. Table 3 presents those results.

Table 3. Stepwise Regression Model for Predicting Fathers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy

Step	Predictive Variable	B	Standard Error _B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
1	Marital Adjustment	-,529	,142	-,337	,337	,113	,105

The study revealed that the total score of marital adjustment was a significant predictor for fathers' perception of parental self-efficacy (F=13,950, p<.001). For the fathers, marital adjustment predicted 11% of their perception of parental self-efficacy.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the relationships between mothers' parental self efficacy, marital problem solving, marital adjustment, relationship quality (social support, conflict, depth subscales), post partum depression and parent age. Table 4 presents those results.

Table 4 shows that, there was there was a significant negative relationship between mothers' parental self efficacy and marital adjustment, social support,

depth ($p < 0.01$) and marital problem solving ($p < 0.05$). Positive significant relationships were found between mothers' parental self efficacy and post partum depression and age ($p < 0.01$). Also, there is a significant negative relationship between mothers' marital problem solving and conflict and postpartum depression ($p < 0.01$). Positive significant relationships were found between mothers' problem solving and marital adjustment, social support, and depth ($p < 0.01$). Furthermore, there is a significant negative relationship between mothers' marital adjustment and conflict and postpartum depression ($p < 0.01$). Positive significant relationships were found between mothers' marital adjustment and social support, and depth ($p < 0.01$).

Table 4. Correlations between Mothers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy and Related Variables

	PSE	Marital Problem Solving	Marital Adjustment	Social Support	Conflict	Depth	Post part. Depression	Age
PSE	$\bar{X}=27,414$ SS=7,321							
Marital Problem Solving	-.202(*)	$\bar{X}=35,557$ SS=6,545						
Marital Adjustment	-.270(**)	,615(**)	$\bar{X}=44,686$ SS=6,852					
Social Support	-.240(**)	,553(**)	,621(**)	$\bar{X}=24,214$ SS=3,207				
Conflict	,143	-,554(**)	-,571(**)	-,471(**)	$\bar{X}=30,00$ SS=6,006			
Depth	-,302(**)	,393(**)	,512(**)	,576(**)	-,299(**)	$\bar{X}=22,136$ SS=2,311		
Post partum Depression	,318(**)	-,475(**)	-,540(**)	-,443(**)	,550(**)	-,281(**)	$\bar{X}=9,036$ SS=5,225	
Age	,260(**)	-,046	-,085	,010	-,002	-,216(*)	-,002	$\bar{X}=28,436$ SS=4,221

** $P < 0.01$ * $P < 0.05$ (N=140)

Stepwise regression analysis revealed the role of post partum depression, age and depth in explaining Mothers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy. Table 5 presents those results.

Tablo 5. Stepwise Regression Model for Predicting Mothers' Perception of Parental Self-Efficacy

Step	Predictive Variable	B	Standard Error _B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
1	Post partum Depression	,446	,113	,318	,318	,101	,095
2	Age	,451	,135	,260	,411	,169	,157
3	Depth	-,567	,260	-,179	,444	,197	,179

The study revealed that postpartum depression is a significant predictor of perceived parental self-efficacy in women ($F=15,548$, $p<.001$). It can be said that 10% of the total variance in perceived parental self-efficacy in women is explained by postpartum depression. The addition of the age variable to the results of the stepwise regression analysis explains the perceived parental self-efficacy by 17% ($F=13,925$, $p<.001$). It was observed that approximately 20% of perceived parental self-efficacy in women was explained by the inclusion of the Depth sub-dimension score of the Relationship Quality Scale, in the results of stepwise regression ($F=11,121$, $p<.001$)

4. Discussion

This study showed that fathers' parental self efficacy is associated with marital adjustment. It also showed that mothers' parental self efficacy is associated with post partum depression, her age and depth in her relationship quality. While *fathers' parental self efficacy* was predicted by marital adjustment, but marital problem solving, marital relationship quality and age were not a significant predictors of the fathers' parental self efficacy.

Previous studies showed that marital satisfaction plays an important role to define father's level of sensitivity towards his children (eg. Feldman,2000). It is also shown that mother's behavior towards their baby may be inconsistent as they spend more time while they are alone (Braungart-Rieker et al., 1999) and much less time when the father is around (Bell et al. 2007). Fathers who experience more conflict in their marriage show their affection a lot less and are less sensitive towards their children (Owen & Cox, 1997). The explanation of this close relationship between marriage and fatherhood is that fatherhood is a system with less internal arrangement and more of external buffering (Parke

& Beitel, 1988). Compared to motherhood which is biologically founded, bonding between father and his children requires a more supporting marriage and his true participation. The early relationship between parents and their baby can make parents feel more competent and behave accordingly. Husbands who have positive relationship with their wife will be more supportive in baby care after birth. Their participation would help the baby's development, which in turn will help them feel more competent to assist in their wife's and children's needs and take more satisfaction from their marital relationship as well as from their father and children relationship.

Another result of this study is that, while *mothers' parental self efficacy* was predicted by post partum depression, age and depth as a relationship quality but marital adjustment, marital problem solving, were not a significant predictors of the mothers' parental self efficacy. Previous studies revealed that there is an inconsistent relationship between mother's depression level and her parental self efficacy (Curtona & Troutman, 1986; Gondoli & Silverberg, 1997; Gross, Conrad, Fogg & Wothke, 1994; Gross, Sambrook & Fogg, 1999; Teti & Gelfand, 1991). Depressive mothers who have kids in their early childhood express themselves less confident in their parental roles compared to mothers who are not depressive.

Studies show different findings about the relationship between age and parental self efficacy (e.g. Coleman, 1998; Eaton, 2007). Current study reveals inverse relationship between mother's age and her parental self efficacy. A possible explanation is that those women may have postponed motherhood because of their perceived low competence on child care. Another explanation is that parental satisfaction for those women may not be at the same level that they get from different roles in their marriage, social life, professional career, etc.

RQI's depth dimension which explains how women perceive importance, positive aspect and safety of their marital relationship has a significant contribution to predict their parental self efficacy. The depth dimension focuses more on the effect of the marital relationship and less on the existence of the support from the marital partner.

Considered within the family system, women who feel a positive and safe relationship with their partner get more marital satisfaction and assume that their partner will be there for them when needed. This helps women's relationship with their babies, increases their positive experiences as a mother and consequently improves their parental self efficacy.

5. Limitations and Suggestions

One of the limitations of this study is related to the generalizability of the findings. Later studies should be designed as longitudinal studies in larger samples. Perceived parental self efficacy is affected by many personal, contextual and individual variables. Consequently, new researches can be conducted with different variables (e.g. parents' own attachment style during their childhood, being prepared mentally or/and financially, personal characteristics). Mothers and fathers are expected to have different skills as a parent at their children's different age stages. Consequently, scale development studies for the parents of children at different age groups can be conducted. Educational programs, focusing on the transition to parenthood, designed for individuals can make the transition to parenthood easier by providing knowledge and skills. A psycho-educational program may help couples to develop survival skills supporting their relationship as a couple, their self care abilities and improving their relationship with their babies.

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CHAPTER 4

ACADEMICIANS' OPINIONS ON DISTANCE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC*

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1. Introduction

An outbreak of the Covid-19 in Wuhan, the capital of China's Hubei region in December 2019, affected all countries in a short time. After the outbreak declared as a pandemic by the World Health Organization on March 11, 2020, countries have taken stringent precautions in many areas, especially in education. As one of the measures, all basic levels of education, including pre-school education, secondary schools, and higher education institutions were suspended for three weeks commencing from 16 March 2020. As the number of Covid-19 cases is increasing rapidly in Turkey as in many countries, the Higher Education Institution has transferred authority to universities in the maintenance of theoretical courses of associate, undergraduate, and graduate programs with distance education system with the decision taken on March 18, 2020. Following this transfer of authority, universities started to continue their theoretical courses in their formal programs with the distance education system. When it comes to March 26, 2020, it has been decided to continue the spring semester education term with only distance education, open education, and digital education opportunities¹. The best application for education is distance education during the pandemic process and this application has been accepted especially in countries where the viral infection

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¹ <https://www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Haberler/2020/YKS%20Ertelenmesi%20Bas%C4%B1n%20A%C3%A7%C4%B1klamas%C4%B1.aspx>.

is intense, and thus it has become the most preferable system for education both by managers and experts (Yamamoto Telli & Altun, 2020, p. 30). In parallel with the changes caused by the pandemic and the precautions taken, with the new methods and applications of the distance education system were included in the education process very quickly both academicians who teach for the first time using distance education methods were affected by this situation and faced some difficulties (Serçemeli & Kurnaz, 2020: 266).

While open and distance education systems are perceived as an alternative approach in normal periods, with the coronavirus pandemic, these systems have come to the fore and become the main source of learning. Also, these systems are applied comprehensively in all education levels due to the pandemic process (Can, 2020: 27). In this respect, the subject of this study is to determine the perspectives of academicians towards distance education during the Covid-19 pandemic. Within the scope of the research, interviews were conducted with 20 academicians using the semi-structured interview technique. In this study, the opinions of the academicians who continue their educational activities with the distance education system during the pandemic period were discussed under the headings of distance education perspective, readiness, effectiveness of education, workloads of academicians and recommendations on distance education.

2. Literature

When the literature is examined, it is possible to come across various studies on the distance education system. However, in this section of the study, examples of academic studies on distance education activities carried out especially during the Covid-19 pandemic period are listed.

Examples of studies investigating the perceptions and attitudes towards the distance education system on academicians by focusing on the pandemic period are as follows.

Kurnaz and Serçemeli (2020) aimed to determine the perspectives of academicians who teach in the field of accounting during the Covid-19 pandemic process towards distance education, their self-efficacy regarding the system in question, and their views on accounting courses conducted with distance education in particular. They conducted a questionnaire for this purpose and concluded that the distance education system was not adopted much by the academicians, besides that the academicians related to the use of the system did not have any problems in terms of self-efficacy. They listed some negative factors related to the distance education system

in accounting courses and, in addition, they stated the necessity of making compensation programs for accounting courses with the Covid-19 pandemic period overtook.

Koç (2020) asked open-ended questions to six university lecturers, which aimed to determine the opinions of university lecturers on the advantages and disadvantages of distance education. In the study conducted with thematic analysis, the advantages of distance education were divided into categories for students, university, and instructors. In the study, while emphasizing the most obvious advantage for students is the ease of accessing education; the disadvantages are that distance education does not allow interaction between student and instructor, not attending classes, and technical problems.

Apart from the academicians who carried out educational activities during the pandemic period, another group directly affected by this period is undoubtedly the students who were involved in the distance education process. Some studies conducted to determine students' attitudes during the pandemic period are given below.

Aktaş et. al. (2020) conducted a survey for students studying in the Faculty of Sports Sciences in the 2019-2020 spring semester. According to the findings of the study, the majority of the students stated that they thought that life ended socially temporarily. However, the students who participate in the survey asserted that the exams performed with the distance education system did not increase their competencies, but the instructors supported the students during this period.

Altuntaş et. al. (2020) used a survey method in their studies aiming to determine the perception levels of university students who continue their education with the distance education system during the Covid-19 pandemic period. As a result of the study, it has been stated that the distance education process did not contribute to the social relations between students, but the process technically helped the students to increase their skills and students were satisfied with the distance education systems provided by the institutions.

Altuntaş Yılmaz (2020) investigated the attitudes of students who continue their education in the Department of Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation of the Faculty of Health Sciences during the Covid-19 pandemic process towards the distance education system. In the study conducted using the questionnaire form, it has been stated that there was no significant difference in attitude towards the distance education system according to gender and classes, but all students displayed a disadvantage attitude. In addition, it has been indicated in the

study that 90.3% of the students preferred formal education while only 9.7% preferred the distance education system.

Duban and Şen (2020) analyzed the views of 72 students in the department of classroom teaching at the faculty of education about the covid-19 pandemic process. They found that the classroom teacher candidates participating in the study reacted positively to the closure of the schools in this process and were satisfied with the transition to the distance education system. In addition, one of the results of the study is the view asserted by the teacher candidates that teachers should follow the students and provide both academic and psychological support.

Karahan et. al. (2020) performed a case study to determine the extent to which students can adapt to this system by reason of the sudden transition from face-to-face education, which has been ongoing for years, to distance education systems. In the study conducted with undergraduate students, it has been concluded that besides synchronous lectures were more efficient, some students had inadequacies such as both internet and technology, likewise some faculty members did not have technological competence, and online education platforms with video and audio could be more useful.

Keskin and Özer Kaya (2020) conducted a study to evaluate the feedback on web-based education of university students who continue the distance education system during the Covid-19 pandemic. In this study, where the survey method has been used, it has been concluded that 84.4% of the students participating in the study did not consider the web-based distance education system as effective as the face-to-face education system, and 45.7% of them consider this system as an alternative to the face-to-face education system. In addition, other findings obtained from the study are 49.4% of the students participating in the study could not communicate easily with the instructors and 53.9% of them experienced technical problems during their training.

Kürtüncü and Kurt (2020) aimed to identify the problems of nursing students about the distance education system during the Covid-19 pandemic. It has been deduced the results that most of the students think that the theory and practical courses will be insufficient with distance education, that the students do not think suspending study, but that they guess that their education period will be longer. In the study, the problems experienced by the students were themed as “*problems in the distance education infrastructure*”, “*not face to face education*”, “*limited opportunities*”, “*mood caused by the pandemic*” and “*test anxiety*”.

Sarıtaş and Barutçu (2020) aimed to analyze the state of readiness of students studying at Pamukkale University for online education before online education starts. According to the results of the analysis of the study, it has been found that “*students have readiness for online learning*”, but they find themselves *insufficient in terms of online learning control*. The study also has been asserted that readiness for online learning differs depending on classes and whether they have previously experienced the online learning process.

Serçemeli and Kurnaz (2020) aimed to specify the viewpoints of the students that take the accounting classes via distance learning during the Covid-19 pandemic, regarding this learning system, self-sufficiency, and the lectures taught on the aforementioned system. For this purpose, they conducted a survey with the students studying in the Health Management Department. In the study, it has been concluded that the students did not have a problem in terms of self-efficacy in using the distance education system, but they did not adopt this system much. The positive aspects of the system are that the video recordings of the course can be watched again later and flexibly utilized teaching methods save time while inconveniences such as not being able to access the Internet may occur. Also, falling out of the course instructors' reach or being socially isolated can be considered as downsides to this system.

3. Methodology

When the relevant literature was examined, it was seen that most of the studies were carried out using quantitative research methods. This situation was effective in choosing the qualitative research method in the study. The collection and analysis of research data have been benefited from the theoretical basis of the phenomenological approach (interpretive approach), which is among the qualitative research designs. The data in the study were obtained by using the in-depth interview technique. In-depth interviews are generally classified as structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews. The semi-structured interview method is a frequently preferred method in qualitative research because it provides flexibility during the interview and more importantly, it has the ability to reveal important and mostly hidden aspects of both human and organizational behavior (Qu & Dumay, 2011: 246). Therefore, a semi-structured interview technique has been used in this study. A pre-prepared guide form has been used during the interviews. It was possible to address additional questions and problems in addition to the questions in the guide form, due to the nature of the semi-structured interview technique (Kümbetoğlu, 2017: 71-72).

3.1. Participants

Information about the participants of this study is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participating Academicians

Participants	Sexuality	Title	Marital Status	Working Period
Participant-1	Female	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	8 year
Participant-2	Female	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	10 year
Participant-3	Male	Res. Asst.	Married	10 year
Participant-4	Male	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Single	10 year
Participant-5	Male	Prof. Dr.	Married	49 year
Participant-6	Male	Assoc. Prof.	Married	10 year
Participant-7	Male	Assoc. Prof.	Married	12 year
Participant-8	Male	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Single	10 year
Participant-9	Female	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	11 year
Participant-10	Male	Prof. Dr.	Married	41 year
Participant-11	Male	Assoc. Prof.	Married	15 year
Participant-12	Male	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	26 year
Participant-13	Male	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	26 year
Participant-14	Female	Res. Asst	Married	7 year
Participant-15	Female	Asst. Prof. Dr.	Married	6 year
Participant-16	Female	Res. Asst.	Married	9 year
Participant-17	Male	Assoc. Prof.	Married	14 year
Participant-18	Female	Instructor	Married	15 year
Participant-19	Female	Prof. Dr.	Married	22 year
Participant-20	Female	Assoc. Prof.	Married	13 year

3.2. Data Collection Tools

In the study, a semi-structured in-depth interview form prepared by the researchers in line with the aims of the study has been used to implement the semi-structured interview method. In this form, there are a total of 25 open-ended questions, except for demographic characteristics. The questions were prepared within the framework of the aimed research topic with the support of the knowledge, observations, and literature obtained by the researchers from the application of the field. While generating the questions, the previous studies on the subject were examined in detail and the opinions of the experts were

also taken. Interviews were mostly recorded with a recorder with the permission of the participant. The interviews with the participants who did not find it appropriate to interview with the recorder were recorded in writing.

3.3. Data Collection and Analyzes

The non-random sample selection techniques of the qualitative research method were used while selecting the sample of the study. A purposeful sampling technique has been applied to ensure that the participants were selected in accordance with certain criteria in accordance with the objectives of the research among the non-random sample types (Kümbetoğlu, 2017: 99). The participants of the study were selected from among the academicians who had not previously carried out educational activities using distance education systems, had not experienced the distance education process, and had the desire and motivation to participate in the study. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 20 academicians during the data collection process. The interviews were recorded and lasted an average of 20-25 minutes.

The data obtained by the interview method were analyzed with the qualitative data analysis program MAXQDA 2018. Qualitative data analysis programs facilitate data storage, coding, and retrieval, but the analysis is made by the researcher (Patton, 2014: 442).

4. Findings

4.1. Academicians' Perspective On Distance Education

Most of the academicians think that distance education is carried out due to a compelling reason such as a pandemic, that education cannot be as distance and that an inefficient process is currently maintained.

“Education cannot be done from a distance. Especially at the undergraduate level. Distance education is a temporary situation.”
(Participant 10)

“Education cannot be done from a distance. It can only be teaching. It does not always happen.” (Participant 18)

“I think technological developments are pushing us in this direction. Actually, a necessity. The pandemic process accelerated this situation. However, I think it is not particularly positive for students. They undergo a process that is far from the university environment and has little communication.” (Participant 9)

Participants stated that distance education would not be efficient especially in applied sciences.

“I think it will not be effective in some fields of medicine and sciences (experimental fields).” (Participant 4)

“It is up to me, but of course, hands-on training is difficult during the pandemic process. Because during the pandemic process, people do not want to meet with anyone, they are right, that is, if it was already possible, it would be face-to-face training, so I do not think that hands-on training can be done in the pandemic process and even it cannot be done as an effectively.” (Participant 15)

“I do not think distance education is very effective in terms of applied courses. In our department, we have lots of applied courses and the application is very important for us. Our students become a member of the profession when they graduate, and it is very difficult without performing any application. Since it was compulsory during the pandemic process, we tried to carry out the applied courses with different methods. We used alternative options for some courses. For example, we tried to compensate for this by assigning different assignments to students who need to interview in the field. However, this cannot be done for every course. How do we graduate without going into practice? I hope this process will not take too long.” (Participant 2)

Within the process of discussing about keep using online education methods even pandemic ends, academicians were asked about even if the pandemic ends whether they want to continue using online education methods are not. According to the answers obtained, half of the participants do not want to continue distance education after the pandemic.

“No, I wouldn't think of using.” (Participant 6)

“Since we switched to this system due to compelling reason, I do not think to use it unless it is necessary after the pandemic.” (Participant 7)

“No. But maybe it can be used in exams or juries or used in meetings.” (Participant 11)

“No, I do not want.” (Participant 12)

In addition, some academicians argued that it was efficient in terms of sharing course materials and homework follow-up, while another half of academicians

asserted that distance education would be appropriate only for some theoretical courses.

“It may be for elective courses which has a couple of students.”
(Participant 4)

“If the pandemic is over, I consider doing the lectures face-to-face at school again. Apart from that, I upload the syllabus on the system, and I consider using it so that every student does not have excuses in terms of access.” (Participant 14)

“It is not a practical course, if it is theoretical, it would be better for me to teach with distance education in terms of work-life balance. This is especially true for women. Compared to the man because the woman has a higher burden at home.” (Participant 15)

“I mean, I think that distance education is an alternative, it is a great convenience, maybe it can be used for some courses, but I do not say that in the long run, completely transfer all the courses to distance education. In other words, since we are a social department, I prefer to meet and discuss with the students in the classroom, to talk about an idea and then evaluate it. So, I don't think it is a substitute for the classroom environment.” (Participant 17)

Participant 16 mentioned that distance education is an inevitable process not only because of the pandemic but also due to today's conditions.

I think that it is an academic contribution indeed as the world is evolving there. We were already talking about this. It caught us suddenly and became an enforced adaptation process. However, we had to prepare ourselves gradually. It is not possible for an academician not to support or refrain from distance education not only because of the pandemic but also for the requirements of today's world. So, it was at least a step, trying to adapt to the process willingly or unwillingly which contributed to us in terms of academics, I think..” (Participant 16)

Academicians were asked for an opinion about the advantages of distance education. According to the answers of the academicians, it has been determined that the biggest advantage of the distance education system is that education activities continue during the pandemic process.

“The biggest advantage of distance education is to provide that education continues during the pandemic process. There were two options

in front of us, either the education would stop, or the education would continue online. It continued as online.” (Participant 18).

“The biggest benefit of distance education in global epidemics is that it prevented the training to be held in a crowded environment. It is certain that it also provides savings in sourcing.” (Participant 12)

“Distance education eventually became a necessity brought about by the pandemic, and if there was no distance education, students who would not be able to continue the education that’s why they would have to make up for the same period. Thus, they continued their lectures from home.” (Participant 20)

In addition, another advantage mentioned by all participants is that distance education provides flexibility in time and place.

“The biggest advantage of distance education provides flexibility in time, students can access information as they want whenever they want, that is, instead of entering a classroom and spending a certain amount of time there, they turn on their computer and phone whenever they feel ready. I think it provides flexibility in this sense.” (Participant 1)

“Lost time on the road is eliminated. If the environment can be provided at home, distance education enables the opportunity to give lectures. I think it has a great advantage for working students because they are already attending a half-hour class at work, they will have fulfilled his course obligation by getting permission from their manager and connecting, but if the training was face-to-face, they would have to take more time off because they would spend time on the road. I think distance education is beneficial in terms of time.” (Participant 16)

“It is independent and flexible from time and place. Other important advantages: providing the opportunity for working students to continue their education more easily, being economical by reducing the expenses such as transportation and dormitory.” (Participant 4)

“I think the most important advantage of distance education is that it is accessible whenever you want regardless of time and place. I think it is very beneficial for distance education to eliminate distance, especially during the pandemic process. In addition, it is not affected by factors such as time spent on the road, especially providing time-saving.” (Participant 9)

Participant 16 asserted the advantage of distance education for students as emphasized the learning differences.

“The advantage of distance education is that I cannot pass without mentioning this. I think every student can use distance education tools according to their own learning speed. There is a student who reads the pdf once and understands it easily and becomes able to ask questions to the teacher. But there are some who need to read it 2-3 times or listen to the audio recording. Or it needs to research from extra sources. In distance education, if we use those educational tools effectively and upload them to the system, the student can also stop and listen. There is a person who wants to listen to that flow at once without interruption. The student has the chance to learn the lecture in accordance with his own learning technique.” (Participant 16)

Some academicians think that the distance education process contributes to professional development in terms of technological.

“I think it made a great contribution in terms of using technology. Because we were not ready for this process, we were caught off guard and we did what little we could.” (Participant 2)

“It contributed to using digital technologies more effectively.” (Participant 7)

“It contributed to the use of the distance education system, conducting lectures with technological support, and participating in remote meetings.” (Participant 19)

“Yes, I think because I have never used online lecture applications before, so I had experience in this respect, so leastways I learned those programs.” (Participant 14)

Academicians were asked for an opinion about the disadvantages of distance education. Some academicians stated that they used this application out of necessity and the system had no advantage.

“It has no advantage, we use it entirely because of necessity.” (Participant 3)

“The system is not useful, and the student does not provide the necessary participation. Unfortunately, it is not efficient, we use it because of necessity, experiences show this.” (Participant 18)

*“I don't see much of an advantage in terms of education.”
(Participant 7)*

Academicians asserted that the biggest disadvantage of distance education is interaction. All of the participants complained that the interaction provided in face-to-face education could not be provided in distance education.

“Of course, you cannot interact with the student, when you are lecturing, you only understand whether they understand their facial expressions, sometimes the students are afraid to say that they did not understand, but I understand from their glances. unfortunately, there is no chance like that in distance education. also, there is no possibility to add dynamism to the lecture with a joke and a mimic.” (Participant 16)

“The disadvantage is definitely the interaction. So, no matter how much we talk about distance education, we are social beings as people, and it is very different to discuss something with students face to face, especially for social departments like ours. Both I and the students loved the discussion in the classroom. The lecturing was definitely one-sided just I explained the slide.” (Participant 1)

“The biggest disadvantage of distance education is that there is no interaction as in face-to-face education, and it also has disadvantages such as a passive learning process, no student participation.” (Participant 2)

“Inadequate eye contact and human relations that it brings. Education is the process of eye contact, emotional, social, and spiritual interaction between the teacher and the student.” (Participant 10)

Another disadvantage of distance education is that some students have difficulty in accessing the internet and there are some technological problems.

“Difficulty accessing the internet for rural residents and families with poor economic conditions. Motivation problems in some students due to the slowdown in social life.” (Participant 4)

“Lack of interaction, system problems, internet connection obligation.” (Participant 7)

“I had connection problem; I had a problem reaching UIMS (University Information Management System). Other than that, I did not have any problem. These are the disadvantages of this system in my opinion.” (Participant 20)

4.2. Readiness

The education process has become compulsory to continue in the form of distance education with the pandemic. Many academicians and students who had not experienced the distance education system before were faced with this application for the first time and were caught unprepared. In this context, it would be appropriate to evaluate the readiness of the academicians, who experienced distance education for the first time, regarding distance education. The concept of readiness is defined as the mental and physical preparedness of an organization and its members for their distance education experiences and actions (Borotis & Poulymenakou, 2004). In order to evaluate the readiness of the academicians, the question was asked: “whether they used the distance education application before the pandemic process”. The answers obtained showed that academics did not use the application of distance education before the pandemic.

With the start of the pandemic process, most of the academics who used this application for the first time stated that they had difficulty using the application in the early days, but that they adapted to the system thanks to the informative videos, documents provided by the universities and their own personal efforts in the process.

“Actually, I did not have much knowledge until the pandemic process however, with the application I had knowledge about it to some extent by practicing for sure. I did not have much knowledge before.” (Participant 16).

“No, I did not receive any training, I do not think I have sufficient knowledge either. I learned by examining the documents that are provided to us by the school, by watching records, and by making an effort.” (Participant 19)

“I did not know that much before. Within this process, I have learned and had an idea about distance education mostly by using.” (Participant 1)

“No, I did not have any difficulty. It was quite easy, after the second week I discovered new features which are more detailed. I could not get used to it immediately when I used it for the first time. However, this is something personal a bit, we cannot discover immediately on first use. Later, I started to use features like video and screen sharing with students, I did not have any problem.” (Participant 17)

“Yes, I had difficulties at the first stage, that’s why I could not use it very functional.” (Participant 18)

Most of the participants asserted that they did not have an education related to the distance education application. Some of the academicians asserted that informative videos are enough to learn the system, some of them stated that this is not enough and therefore they cannot learn the system sufficiently.

“I did not get any training on this issue. We already switched in a very short time, that’s why we learned the use of UIMS immediately by just watching only a few videos. Sometimes I tried to use Zoom, but it was very difficult for the students. Basically, we generally used UIMS actually I did not get any extra training.” (Participant 20)

“Although I have not received any training before, I think I have acquired the necessary knowledge by examining the informative videos and files prepared by our university. Although it was difficult at first, I got used to it over time.” (Participant 9)

“I did not receive any training, but I learned to use the existing application with the given instructions and the explanations that are sent in the system.” (Participant 11)

“It cannot be said that I have enough knowledge but during the pandemic, we had to try learning things by trial and error method. I think that I have a very little part of the necessary knowledge and skills. I did not receive any training on this subject. I just watched an informative video about how to implement distance education that is uploaded in our university’s system, that is all. (Participant 2)

“I didn’t receive any training, I don’t think I am enough prepared either.” (Participant 15)

Academicians who denoted that they do not have enough information about distance education and could not teach lectures efficiently enough, some of them consider that the universities should provide training about this subject.

“It may be possible, but it is not enough with our current level of knowledge and with our ability to use distance education tools however, there must be a way for quantitative courses. After all, accounting is not as applied as a course that requires a laboratory environment. Accounting course necessitates a medium level of problem-solving and we need to use the blackboard. Yet, these are not the things that cannot be possible with distance education, we know that there are people who do this, some professors made video records of lectures using the blackboard. We are facing difficulties because we do not know these things. I think

that deficiency is not because of distance education, it is because we do not know these things. We should receive an education in this regard.” (Participant 16)

“I could not do synchronous lecture, I wish that we could take training on how to do distance education. I also faced many problems in the exam due to systemic errors, it could not start at the time of the exam, and this affected many teachers. Many of my colleagues also asked for my help, and we tried to overcome this with some solidarity among ourselves. Most of the students suffered, we had feedback from students like we could not enter the exam and wait for entering. I reached them one by one. I said there are systemic problems, in short, we could not even run the system very efficiently.” (Participant 15)

Another important factor of readiness is whether the infrastructure of universities is ready for distance education. Many academicians have asserted that they are faced with infrastructure problems.

“Student participation was very low; it may be because we are just getting used to the process or it may be because of the pandemic. Students faced with the problem while uploading assignments, they complained their assignments are not visible in the system.” (Participant 16)

“The problem during the lecturing stage could be that while I and students were trying to enter into the system, we faced entering small difficulties sometimes. It was not a very smooth process, yet it did not become a problem, we somehow dealt with it afterward.” (Participant 1)

“We had internet connection problems such as no connection, disconnection, and failure to enter the lecture.” (Participant 3)

“Some students aren't able to participate in the lecture with connecting audio during the class, problems due to the computers and internet connections that students have, students did not know how to use distance education module exactly or problems due to the careless using. (Participant 8).

“Systemic problems, connection problems, lack of student interest, and sometimes I had problems while I was uploading the files.” (Participant 9)

“I had some technological difficulties, I had problems with my computer. I wanted to give an online lecture, but I could not figure out the system. Since we did not receive training before, we were caught

unprepared. So, we understood that our online education knowledge is low... There were some infrastructural problems.” (Participant 15)

4.3. Effectiveness of Education

The title of the effectiveness of education explains a broad concept. In line with the interviews, this concept has been analyzed under 7 sub-headings: content and teaching of the course, quality of education, effective communication, motivation, time, assessment and evaluation, and learning outcomes.

4.3.1. Teaching of Course and Course Content

Under this title, various questions were asked to the academicians about the methods chose and the materials used in order to teach the lectures in the distance education process.

4.3.1.1. Teaching of Course

In this section, the methods which academicians prefer for distance education courses are analyzed. 20% of the academicians prefer only one method, either synchronous or asynchronous. While there is only one academician who prefers the asynchronous method, there are 3 academics who prefer the synchronous method.

“I taught asynchronous lectures mostly through documents.” (Participant 15)

“Mostly I did it simultaneously. Later, I recorded the lecture for students who could not watch it, then they can watch it.” (Participant 1)

“Synchronous.” (Participant 12)

“I only taught synchronous lectures. (Participant 2)

80% of the academicians stated that they applied the mixed method in which synchronous and asynchronous methods are used together.

“I used the mixed-method. But I do not think that synchronous is used only for lectures, I do not think it is very effective, I do not think you can give everything that is given in face-to-face lectures from distance education. The system also creates some problems in terms of technical possibilities. Already in the system, more than 30 minutes of live lecture processing is not considered very positive. If there is no question and answer with the student during the lecture, it makes more sense for me to

record the lecture previously and allow the students to watch it and then answer the questions of the students in a live lecture structure. That's why I do the lectures this way." (Participant 16)

"I used the mixed-method, did live lectures synchronously, uploaded material, or sent an e-mail in some weeks. I just made a voice call. (Participant 14)

"I used both methods. Videos and lectures were uploaded to the system, lectures were given synchronously, but there was no student participation." (Participant 11)

"The mixed method, lectures are synchronous, homework is asynchronous." (Participant 8)

In this process, academicians also benefited from various platforms such as Zoom, Skype, Microsoft Teams to teach their lectures.

"Microsoft Teams" (Participant 3)

"Zoom, Microsoft Teams etc." (Participant 5)

"I teach interview lectures for senior students. I used Skype more because I did it one-to-one. I used Skype as a platform to organize one-on-one meetings with students. Apart from that, I had a few discussion classes. I had such seminars classes, we tried using the Zoom for them a few times, but it was not very long. That's why I continued as a live lecture on 90% UIMS." (Participant 1)

Participant 16 denoted that used only university's system as the university does not allow an alternative program.

"We couldn't use any apps like zoom because the school didn't allow it. Last semester, we only taught our lectures via UIMS. We were recording the lectures overnight. By lecturing on the presentation, I uploaded, while there was no student, but we were recording it as a video and uploading it to the system, then we were doing live lectures with the students in the form of questions and answers. I was uploading pdf; I didn't use much technology other than that." (Participant 16)

4.3.1.2. Course Content

Academicians have different views on the course content. The two academics mentioned that there is no difference between the distance education system and the face-to-face education system.

“It is same for both methods.” (Participant 8)

“Same.” (Participant 13)

In addition to the academicians who consider that the course contents are the same in both education systems, some academicians think that face-to-face education is more advantageous in terms of course content.

“As I said about the course content, there are no big differences. After preparing the slide, you can give it face-to-face or remotely, but if you are doing activities and so on, it is a different situation. As I have given in the example about the teaching, I was forming groups and having discussions with the students in the classroom, I was getting some students to go to the blackboard and talking them, I could not do this in distance education, so face-to-face education is more advantageous.” (Participant 1)

“It is the same program, the contents of the course are the same on both systems, but face to face system creates a discussion environment in terms of the course. But on the other hand, there are not these opportunities in distance education system, so distance education can be seen as a unilateral process. I think face-to-face education is a two-sided learning process.” (Participant 14)

“Teaching course is better in face-to-face education.” (Participant 3)

“Although it looks the same in both methods, face-to-face education is more comprehensive.” (Participant 9)

Participant 16 has different the opinion of the majority of academicians and thinks that the distance education system will be a content-rich education system thanks to the documents uploaded to the system.

“The content of the course and teaching are different. I will comment differently, the process is more flexible in face-to-face training, I think easier. I think the content of the course can be richer in distance education. The documents uploaded to the system are more detailed and you share them with the student. You are responsible for preparing questions, we give more resources, and we prepare more careful content in distance education.” (Participant 16)

4.3.2. Quality of Education

When evaluated in terms of the quality of the education provided, all academicians believe that face-to-face education is more related to the concept of educational quality and comes to the forefront more in terms of quality.

“I believe that the quality of education is better in the face to face education. Because, as I mentioned earlier, I believe that we provide higher quality and more effective learning opportunities by making students more active with different practices and methods. The biggest disadvantage of distance education is the absence of interaction.” (Participant 2)

“I think that the quality of education can be improved more in face-to-face education rather than distance education. In distance education, you can provide this to a certain extent in terms of giving information, but I think that face-to-face education is more related to that education quality in terms of methods, transfer, and interaction with students.” (Participant 1)

“In other words, I think that the quality of education in face-to-face education is higher in terms of both students and faculty members than in distance education. First, I am saying it in terms of interaction, and second, I am saying it in terms of synchronization. Thirdly, in terms of the discussion environment, because I do not think that university education is only a one-sided teaching process, as I see it more as a two-sided process, but I do not think that distance education provides opportunities for this. Therefore, I think face-to-face education is one step ahead of distance education.” (Participant 14)

4.3.3. Effective Communication

All of the academicians stated that distance education is more effective than face-to-face education. It has been criticized by academicians that it limits the opportunity to talk to students and does not allow an in-class discussion environment provided by face-to-face education.

“I think that the most important disadvantage of distance education is that it reduces communication. Inability to establish one-on-one communication with the student due to the lack of a classroom environment. It is not possible in distance education to understand whether a student understands the subject face to face, to what extent the student is interested in the lesson, or whether he finds the subject boring. In addition, there are disadvantages of distance education in terms of exams and assignments. the need for internet, a laptop or tablet, and a phone is also a financial burden, especially for low-income students. There may also be some problems caused by the system. Entering to lecture, sound system problems, etc.” (Participant 9)

“Definitely, face to face education provides discussing issues, asking questions, etc. Unfortunately, this situation does not exist in distance education. It is not possible in distance education to understand whether the student is actually following the lesson.” (Participant 17)

“Of course, more effective communication is provided in face-to-face training. It is a situation that increases learning when the student can ask and get an answer. Communication with distance education is decreasing. It becomes difficult even to understand which student is following the lesson.” (Participant 2)

4.3.4. Motivation

When the opinions of academicians on how distance education affects motivation were examined, it was observed that all of the academicians asserted that distance education decreased the motivation of both students and academicians. Accordingly, academicians have higher motivation in face-to-face education.

“If I give 5 points to face-to-face education in motivation, I will give 3 points to distance education.” (Participant 16)

“Being at home makes you feel safe in this process, but it does not increase motivation. I think we have a lack of motivation not only related to distance education but also related to the pandemic. But coming to the class, getting ready for the lecture gives students motivation to listen to this lecture.” (Participant 2)

“The negative effects of distance education on university life and social life have been to reduce students’ motivation towards lectures. The face-to-face education is better.” (Participant 4)

“Face-to-face education has more opportunity to motivate both the academicians and the student.”. (Participant 10)

“In terms of motivation, I think that the motivation of academicians and students is slightly higher in face-to-face education. Because there is a preparation process for the lecture. Because you will be face to face with students, the academicians have a problem with embarrassed and to convey what they know in the best way. I think that the students are prepared due to their presence in the classroom environment. In this respect, the classroom environment provides motivation. But since we do not have the opportunity to control the student in distance education, we do not have a tool that you can keep motivation high. That’s why face-to-face training is still one step ahead.” (Participant 14)

In addition, some academicians think that the education that continues in an environment different from the classroom environment will reduce the interest in the lecture due to the distraction of the students.

“It especially reduced the interest. It caused a loss of motivation. I think it disrupts students’ study order with the thought of studying later anyway. It left behind the logic of learning the lecture in the class.” (Participant 9)

“... I think it reduces students’ interest in the lecture. This may lead to learning failure in the long run.” (Participant 9)

“The students are normally not very interested; I am saying that for our students. Students already have concentration problems, normally they are not interested in the lecture, we try to get their attention. I think they were uninterested in this process. I’ve also talked to many of my students, most of them are not already interested in school in this process.” (Participant 14)

“Since it is easier to cheat in distance education, the student does not try to study to pass the course, so interest decreases. They think that they will pass this course in any case. Because the students attend the lecture to pass the course, this reduces the interest. If you take the course to pass, the grades they get are more important than the learning outcomes to the student, since they are listening to the lecture to get a good point.” (Participant 15)

Participant 8 considers that unlike other academicians, distance education increased the interest of the students for lectures due to the not necessity of physical participation in the lectures.

“It increased interest in the lecture. Because being able to take lectures without physically entering the campus, then it increased participation in the lectures.” (Participant 8)

4.3.5. Time

When distance education and face-to-face education systems are compared in terms of time, it is determined that almost all academicians consider the distance education system more advantageous.

“In terms of time, distance education is definitely more advantageous. The time spent on the road eliminates in distance education. Control of education is in the hands of the lecturer.” (Participant 1)

“I can say that distance education is more advantageous in terms of time. Because the duration of the lectures is shorter. It is an easier and shorter method if you have already prepared.” (Participant 2)

“More flexible in distance education. In this sense, distance education is advantageous.” (Participant 9)

In addition, academicians who think that distance education increases the preparation time for the lecture and affects time efficiency stated that face-to-face education is more advantageous.

“I use more time for lecture preparation and evaluation.” (Participant 10)

“The allocated time for learning in distance education is less for the instructor; in fact, since you give a 3-hour lecture in half an hour, it is effective in terms of leaving more time for both the student and the instructor, but if we talk about the efficiency of time, face-to-face education is more advantageous.” (Participant 14)

4.3.6. Assessment and Evaluation

Academicians stated that they experienced the most difficulties in measuring and evaluating during distance education, and all of the academicians shared the same opinion on this subject.

“The biggest problem was the exams. I think that the most important problem is assessment and evaluation in distance education, and it is very troublesome. I think that this should be emphasized. How can this be solved? My biggest problem was that students were cheating a lot, they were helping each other, unfortunately even my communication with the student was disrupted. I had the biggest problem in assessment and evaluation.” (Participant 16)

“Of course, the exam evaluation part was the biggest problem for me because you can't control everything. I have already tried not to use the test method. I asked students to prepare their individual homework writing, but I could not really control which student submitted those assignments. I could not follow. I was not even sure if some of them. So, when the students whose level of English that I know in the classroom sent the assignment, it was very different, there was a distinct quality difference. Therefore, the evaluation part was not very clear.” (Participant 1)

“I think that we experienced the biggest problem in assessment and evaluation. Many students cheated. They shared their answers with each other. Already, we received a request from our administration that we had to force the students very hard for the last semester. I think this was an experience for us, I believe that we will be more careful in the next semester.” (Participant 2)

“Each student’s ability to use technology is not the same, and it is not possible to prevent cheating in distance education. Students who use technology well are advantageous. This doesn’t show real success either.” (Participant 9)

In addition, it was asserted that although the examination grades of the students increased, their course success decreased at the same rate since that assessment and evaluation could not be carried out effectively through distance education.

“I think that students’ academic success has increased in this period. I think that success has increased since they helped each other because assessment and evaluation could not be done equitably. I noticed those who cheated, and they confessed, so we were not very successful in assessment and evaluation.” (Participant 19)

“It will reduce the success rate not as points but in terms of learning level.” (Participant 12).

“I think the exams that I make in distance education do not accurately represent the level of training.” (Participant 20)

“The grade point averages of the students are increasing because they can easily cheat and benefit from electronic resources.” (Participant 13)

“I know that the students passed the course with higher grades, but I don’t think that this is a real success. I think the students’ interest in the lesson has decreased. They did not follow the lectures very much; they did not need to study much because I think many students passed the lesson by cheating and obtaining answers from WhatsApp groups. In other words, I believe that success decreases as the grades increase.” (Participant 2)

4.3.7. Learning Outcomes

Academicians stated that the distance education process could not be carried out very successfully due to the lack of opportunities to supervise students in terms of course outcomes.

“I think that it will affect if the education is switched to distance education completely. The students will continue in a way that they will be much more careless. There is not only learning but also the university is an ecosystem for a meeting, doing somethings together and a social environment. I do not know the capability of these things in practice yet logically that is what the university is about. It means leaguing together and doing something. I don’t think that it can be accomplished by the distance learning.” (Participant 1)

“As I said I think half and half. Okay, we did the information part by giving needed slides but how much they got and how much they did with practicing. We were challenging them a little bit with the class discussions. Sometimes, especially in my classes they need to use their language skills and I was challenging them in the class environment if necessary and they were talking a little bit anyway. Yet, this was completely lost the moment that the course switched to distance education. I did not even follow whether they were listening or not. Maybe they opened the video and left thus there is no environment that they can exactly show their skills.” (Participant 1)

“No, I do not think so. We have gained some of them because the necessary educational materials have been uploaded to the system, but I think not every student will make the same effort. Some students attend classes only to pass the class, although this is the same in face-to-face education, it has been difficult for us to follow in distance education. I could not talk to every student, I could not communicate, I could not understand whether they understood the lecture or not, and so on.” (Participant 2)

4.4. Workloads Of Academicians

When the answers to the questions asked were analyzed to assess how the distance learning process affected the workloads of the academicians, it was observed that workloads increased for half of the participants in terms of the course preparation and evaluation process.

“Actually, my workload has increased because although I was using slides while lecturing, I wasn’t preparing them with this much detail in a way that they could understand only by reading the slides. These were notes that I shared just to remind me and for the students to have some notes. However, now if there is a problem with the internet connection or any other problem, when they watch later I prepared very detailed notes for students to understand. This has obviously increased my workload.” (Participant 16)

“Yes. The time that we allocate for preparation of the course and evaluation increased. It brought more burden of evaluation and uploading documentation.” (Participant 10)

“Yes, it affected. The time that I spend in school has decreased but the process of preparation for the course started to take a long time. The need arose to upload files in different formats.” (Participant 9)

The workload of another half of academicians has decreased with distance education.

“It affected in a positive way because when you are managing the process from the distance, you have to upload certain notes and assignments every week, then you have to have a schedule. Hence as long as you schedule everything previously, you can have time for yourself. From this point of view, it is better for academic members. Yet, if you do not have a schedule at the very beginning it may affect you negatively.” (Participant 14)

“I can say that it reduced my workload. I am more flexible. I am preparing the documents at any time that I want. First of all, I feel more comfortable. Maybe, since I am at home my attention is less distracted, so it is positive for me.....” (Participant 15)

“I think it reduced my workload since I already had prepared materials. I continued to lecture by only uploading them. However, since normally, in the face to face education, I was continuing the process with the different education methods, my work became easier. I couldn't use many of the learning education methods in distance education.” (Participant 2)

“Yes, it affected. It provided that I allocated less time for lectures and then I had more free time. I am maintaining this process by increasing my academic activities.” (Participant 2)

4.4.1. Academicians' Work-Life Balance

Many academicians continued their lectures from home during the pandemic. At this point, the question was asked whether academicians had any problems in terms of work-life balance. It has been observed that especially female academicians who are married and have children faced some problems in terms of work-life balance in this process.

“Since I am a person with children, it is very difficult for them to understand this. Even I told them I have a lecture now and move another

room, it is not a special room for me it is also my child's room. I am moving the study room, but they are constantly coming to the door and told me that they are thirsty or hungry. I know I am interrupting the lecture, but I was asking for an allowance from students for five minutes to solve the problem. I was giving children something that will distract them and returning to the lecture. I have difficulties in that regard.” (Participant 16)

“The obligation of working from home caused less spending time with my children or I made them watch extra TV to keep them busy.” (Participant 2)

“Yes, I think it affected. Continuing lectures from home prevented me from having an effective time with my child. Also, staying at home all day with online lectures made me change the order of the household chores. For example, an increase in meals eaten at home added an extra workload for mothers in particular.” (Participant 9)

“Yes, it is affecting. The order of domestic life is disrupting as my children also receiving online education at home. In addition, knowing that I am at home causes my children to try to communicate with me and this situation disrupts my lecture's order and harmony.” (Participant 12)

4.5. Academicians' Suggestions on Distance Education

According to the answers given by the academicians to the question of “how to make distance education systems more effective”, generally it was determined that the internet problem and technology-based infrastructure problems should be solved.

“Infrastructure should be reorganized and made more efficient and user-friendly.” (Participant 3)

“Infrastructure problems should be solved, and distance education should only be used as a support (Participant 6)

“The quality and capacity of the program/ module used in distance education should be increased.” (Participant 8)

“In other words, for distance education to be effective, students must have equal internet and computer facilities. This is the most complaint that I get about this. Students say that they do not have a computer, they have to go to the internet cafe to connect to the internet. If these problems are solved, the participation of students in the lecture may increase.” (Participant 11)

“A more effective system should be used in distance education and the assessment and evaluation system should be made appropriate.” (Participant 12)

In addition to the aforementioned problems, also some academicians think that academics should take various responsibilities in making distance education effective. According to this view, making the distance education system interesting by the lecturers and even taking training to use these systems effectively and using various methods will positively affect the students' relevancy in the course.

“Modules related to course content and teaching should be developed, artificial intelligence systems should be used, infrastructure problems should be solved, and most importantly, training should be given to help us use them more efficiently.” (Participant 9)

“As academicians, we need to set a goal to learn distance education tools. The university should also support it, but we should not expect an effort from the university alone. Every academician should research and learn what can be done in the distance education process according to the requirements of his / her course. But the university can share some basic information with us such as short videos or pdf documents, maybe there is in the UIMS, we may know. We need to improve ourselves in this regard. I think most importantly, if we can improve ourselves as teachers and make distance education more interesting, maybe the student who looks negatively to distance education will start to look positively.” (Participant 16)

“In other words, it is definitely necessary to think a little more about this functioning part of distance education, there may be more technological things for this. Making interesting or entertaining content can be possible with different methods such as animation, but it is a difficult situation for academicians, so it is necessary to get support. If online evaluation systems are developed, the burden of evaluation of academicians decreases. In this way, it can be easier to follow up with academicians. It is important how the content can be conveyed to the student in an entertaining way rather than the content of course. (Participant 1)

“First of all, I think that training should be given to us on this subject. We were caught very unprepared. Those of us who could not use technology very actively had a lot of difficulty in the process. There are

definitely methods in which mutual communication can be increased. These must be taught to us.” (Participant 2)

“Distance education should be realized effectively by raising the awareness of both the student and the academician. Actually, I am saying that in general, like all universities, we had a lot of shortcomings because we entered this process without any experience. For example, many academicians could not use the system, many academicians could not teach a lecture, many academicians could not share their materials, etc. so, the use of the system should be learned first, both the academicians and the students should be orientated on this issue, and it can still be done. Secondly, I think it is an individual process, if the motivation of the person is high, the quality of the education will increase even if it is directly in distance education, but we do not have a distance education culture, this system is used in abroad and the students are accustomed to that logic, but we do not have that discipline yet. When you start lectures online, 20 people from the 50-person class either enter or do not enter, there is no sanction, so it is necessary to establish that discipline first.” (Participant 14)

“In other words, the teacher should not be the only active teacher in this education process, preparing the lecture in a good way, providing sufficient technological equipment, increasing the student’s interest, and mutual communication should be possible. Thus, it can be more effective.” (Participant 15)

5. Conclusion

The subject of the study is the determination of academicians ‘ perspectives on distance education during the Covid-19 pandemic period. The findings of the study will contribute to future studies.

According to the data obtained from the study, it has been determined that the most important advantage of distance education systems is to provide flexibility in time and place, and also enable educational activities to continue during the pandemic period when social life is limited as much as possible.

The most important disadvantage of distance education is the lack of interaction between students and academicians. It is an important detail that all academicians agree on interaction. Especially in the social sciences, academicians prefer to teach their lectures in an environment where there is a discussion environment. The progress of the distance education application from the instructor to the students as a one-way application and not allowing

mutual interaction causes the lectures to lose one's efficiency and to decrease the quality.

The education system was changed as a distance education system due to the pandemic and it was understood that the academicians who had not experienced this system before were not ready for such a change. It has been concluded that it is insufficient for universities to support academicians only with educational videos, and many academicians have adapted to the process with their own efforts.

One of the biggest problems of the distance education system is the assessment and evaluation. In this system, where the ability to follow students is quite limited, many academicians could not make accurate evaluations and while the course grades of the students increasing, their course success decreasing at the same rate. Academicians who state that could not follow the students about the learning outcomes of the course have the opinion that sufficient learning outcome could not be provided.

Distance education has reduced the motivation of both students and teaching staff. In this regard, it can be stated that face-to-face education is more effective in providing motivation.

In general, academicians consider that face-to-face education is more successful than distance education in providing quality education and effective communication. One-half of academicians do not want to use the distance education application after the pandemic while another half of academicians think that it can be used for some theoretical and elective courses and can be an effective method when assigning homework.

Recommendations;

It is impossible not to accept online education in today's condition. So, universities should integrate face to face education and online education. For this reason, it is very important to prepare higher education institutions sufficiently for this process and to raise awareness of this process among academicians and students.

Different educational supports should be provided to academicians in order them to use tools and methods of distance education more effectively. At the same time, academicians should try to learn new methods and set new goals to enrich their lectures and improve themselves by putting individual efforts.

Universities should attach importance to their technological infrastructure and technological platforms should be more user-friendly. Distance education support units should be established to solve the technical problems experienced by both students and academicians in universities and should be allowed to continue their activities effectively.

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CHAPTER 5

GEOGRAPHY AND SPATIAL CITIZENSHIP

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1. Introduction

Mankind has shaped his life to the extent of the opportunities provided by the environment he lives in and has tried to create a more comfortable space for himself by struggling with nature. In this process, he managed to survive by learning some basic information such as which plants can be eaten, which ones can be medicine, and suitable environments for hunting and shelter. The geography in which people live has determined their future. The impact of geographical events on human life has always been at a high level for humanity who wants to be protected from natural events and wants to meet their basic needs in safety.

The life of human being living on the surface of planet Earth is affected by the physical and natural conditions around it in many ways. Primitive societies, living on ‘natural means of subsistence’ such as edible plants and animals, developed tools and techniques over time, and switched to food production. In this process, by using natural resources such as soil and water, eating, sheltering and dressing habits were provided depending on the opportunities in the place where they lived. As a result of the vital relations of humanity with this nature, the discipline of Geography has emerged. In this respect, Prof. Salisbury stated that the discipline of geography is an interpretation of the earth’s surface, its climate, and their relationship to life, and that geography is generally best adapted to preparing for life because it deals with the everyday facts of life such as soil, water, air, plants, animals, and humans (Knight, 1917).

2. Development of Geography

It is known that geography as a word (geo-graphien) means place/environment (Özçağlar, 2006). The history of geography is closely connected with the history

and development of human society. It is part of human interests, and precedents can be found in all ancient cultures. But Geography as a science is relatively young and most of its foundations appear in the nineteenth century. However, Kish (1978) stated that geography goes back to the periods when people searched for land to plant, find a way to water, and search for a place where hard rocks can be found for arrowheads.

The principles of geographical writing were formulated in the Hellenistic days of science. Especially important scientists and thinkers such as Aristotle, Ptolemy, Eratosthenes, Hekataios, Hipparchus, Strabo and Tales, who lived between 500 BC and 21 BC, were influential in the birth and development of the science of geography. The first work of Geography, was written in Alexandria in the 3rd century BC by Eratosthenes. But the current form of Geography is quite new for humankind to address urban congestion, establish well-defined international boundaries, describe and analyze vegetation patterns in remote parts of the world.

While the first geographical references came from travelers describing the sights they saw and the people living in that place, the first scientific studies came from mathematicians and physicists who were interested in the environment. Therefore, from the need to explain the physical environment and the idea of the effect of this environment on people and society, it can be said that the foundations of geography are in the natural sciences (Sala, 2015).

In the shepherd's calendar called "Works and Days" prepared by Hesiod (IX. YY BC) among historical texts, he explained the cycle of the seasons and the changes in nature as a result. However, since detailed explanations are made about the people and places visited in Homer's (IX YY BC) Iliad and Odyssey, these works are accepted as the first geographical studies in the literature (Knight, 1917).

Geography is expressed as a branch of science that examines the interaction of people with space, the distribution of natural and human events on Earth, with its own causality principle (Ünlü, 2016). Geography has emerged in order to understand the activities of people living on earth individually or as a community, and natural and human events that occur on earth (Catling, 2004; Kızılcıoğlu and Taş, 2007). Geography is a science that examines these activities and their effects within a set of principles such as distribution, interest, dependence and causality (Şahin, 2006; Öztürk, 2010).

The science of geography is a field of study that investigates the activities of human beings on earth and the facts that emerge as a result of the effects of nature on humans, with its own principles and steps, and provides answers to questions

about where the things related to the world around us are and how and why they got there (Akdemir and Akengin, 2013; Bednarz, 1994). Classical Greek philosophers, dating back more than two thousand years, defined geography as well as different fields of science with the knowledge and experience they created and acquired. Geography has taken its place as a rising science in the New Age with the scientific studies that opened the way with the Geographical Discoveries and Renaissance movements in the West. In particular, as a result of the Ottoman Empire's conquest of Istanbul in 1453 and an end to the Eastern Roman Empire, it was necessary to find new routes for the transportation of trade goods from the east to Europe. As a matter of fact, the only way out for Europe, which lost its easternmost stronghold, Istanbul, would be to find new convenient routes for trade. Geography has become a widely used science and technique in the geographical exploration movements that started with these developments. Aiming to develop their country, European states supported cartography under the leadership of Geography. With the inventions and technical advances in the following period, the discipline of Geography in today's sense was developed towards the end of the 18th century (Klein 1990, 2005; Lattuca 2001; Repko 2008).

The primary purpose of geography is not to teach geography, but to teach students. This training consists of the ability to think and speak directly, just to say what someone means. Geographical study should develop a sympathetic understanding of the environment in which the student lives, giving him/her the power to interpret his/her environment in a basic but fundamental way (Knight, 1917).

3. A Brief History of Geography Education

Geography education is an important tool for understanding the activities of human beings on Earth and making inferences from these activities. In modern societies, almost everyone requires geographic reasoning; they are faced with personal decisions such as where they should live, how to get from one place to another, which products to buy and how to dispose of the garbage resulting from their consumption. Although these decisions may seem insignificant, considering that these decisions are made by millions or even billions of people every day, it turns out that these decisions are actually decisions that have enormous consequences for other people and the environment.

Fairgrieve (1926), discussed the purpose of geography education in schools, stated that the aim of geography is to educate students as geographic readers in schools through geography education, and in this way, students

can understand the world they live in accurately and be able to come up with solutions to the problems that arise. In a democratic society, citizens, as voters, participate in social decision-making about public health, social welfare, environmental protection and international relations. In this age when national and international problems such as ethnic and religious conflict, corruption, poverty, unbalanced income distribution, wars, violence, environmental problems and climate problems are experienced, it is very important that all members of the society are ready to take these decisions. Geography education helps prepare people to make these decisions (Bednarz, Heffron, & Huynh, 2013).

With the knowledge and experience learned from geography education, student knows the borders of his/her country, natural and human opportunities, agricultural potential, industrial production and population characteristics. In this way, it helps to contribute to the solution of problems by generating ideas on current issues on a local or global scale. In fact, the main purpose of geography teaching is expressed as raising students as individuals who will contribute to development by introducing the world and their country to the students (Lidstone & Stoltman, 2002).

Geography, with the knowledge and its tools, helps students to understand the world better and make inferences about it, and it also provide the opportunity to carry out some ideas about the future with the documents and experiences, events and facts analysis tools and methods (Sarno, 2011). In this framework, in fact, the role of geography education is the process of preparing people who make up societies, to live on Earth, to make sense of it and to adapt by understanding it (Haigh, 2005).

In a world that is in constant motion and change, the necessity for students to receive Geography education is a reality accepted by everyone today. The reason for this can be explained by what geography education covers. With geography education, students are equipped with the knowledge and skills they need/will need in daily and business life. Since these knowledge and skills are related to almost every science discipline, there are compulsory geography courses in every imaginable field. As a matter of fact, with the knowledge and acquisitions of geography, students can understand the future with the perspective of today and the past. With the help of Geography, students gain geographical awareness in many subjects such as understanding and perceiving the world, evaluating problems, taking precautions, caring, and gaining sensitivity on environmental issues by developing a perspective towards the place and environment they live in (Çifçi, 2016).

In particular, possible solutions and measures to be taken regarding the problems that are occupied by almost every country today and that international organizations are trying to find solutions to are presented to students with the Geography course (Öztürk Demirbaş, 2013). Geography is important in the formation of the work and occupations that people spend their days (Taşlı, 2016). This explains in a basic way that geography is not just about mountains and landforms, but includes much more (Lockton, 1990).

Geography education at university level started in Germany and spread from there to Europe and America. James (1972) dates the first examples of modern Geography education around 1874, when the Geography department was established in German universities. The reasons for this situation are listed as the reasons such as the economic development of Germany towards the 1860s, the development of universities along with the development of applied sciences, the existence of geography in primary education, the new situations created by the unification of Germany and the requirements of German imperialism (Wardenga, 1999; Schelhaas & Hönsch; 2002; Taylor, 1985a; cited in Johnston & Sidaway, 2015).

These developments played a fundamental role in the development of geography education in the USA, along with France and other European countries, in the late 19th century and the first decades of the 20th century (Berdoulay, 2011). However, it is also worth noting that; Geography is a field, a discipline that has been studied before without a chair or department in universities. Previously, studies in the field of Geography were carried out either by those working in different disciplines or by non-experts. In the UK, for example, Geography was a field of study for several centuries, although the few universities operating at the time did not have a separate discipline or departmental identity. Within this framework, content and courses belonging to many Geography sciences such as map making, exploration and cartography were taught in English and Scottish universities at the end of the 16th century (Cormack, 1997; Withers and Mayhew, 2002; Withers, 2001; Mayhew, 2011a).

In the past, geographic knowledge was extremely important to traders who invested in expeditions, especially in anticipation of commercially exploiting the new knowledge gained with the discoveries. In the light of this information, states gave importance to Geography to make decisions on issues such as new lands and potential resources and new and faster routes to known places. The practice of geography was central to this understanding of empire in much of 19th century Europe (Driver, 1998; Butlin 2009; Bell et al., 1995; Clayton, 2011).

The interest in geography as a valuable field of study paved the way for the establishment of geographical communities in many capitals and major trading cities. As a matter of fact, the first of these Geographical societies were in Paris (1821), Berlin (1828), London (1830) and St Petersburg (1845), then Manchester (1884), Newcastle (Upon Tyne-1887), Liverpool (1891) and Southampton (1897) (see Johnston 2003b; Heffernan, 2003; McKendrick, 1995; Butlin, 2009).

Many of these societies had royal patronage and were strongly supported by members of the commercial, diplomatic, and military classes, and by the upper and middle-class audiences who attended their conferences. The main roles of the associations were to compile and publish information, as in navigation and cartography, to sponsor expeditions and to promote relevant scientific developments. The American Geographical Society was similarly established in New York in 1851 as the “Merchants’ Information Office” (Koelsch, 2002; Wright, 1952; Morin, 2013; Crampton et al., 2012; Johnston, 2013).

Some of these Geography societies mentioned were involved in educational activities, promoting the education of geography as a subject and discipline in the schools and universities of the countries. For example, in the United Kingdom, The Royal Geographical Society began lobbying for geography to take its place in the developing school curriculum. When it was understood that without a teacher, discipline could not hold in schools, this time attention turned to universities. Thus, geography desks supported by the Royal Geographical Society were established at Cambridge and Oxford universities. As a result of these studies and lobbying activities, geography departments were opened in many universities towards the end of the 19th century. Even during the Second World War, almost every university and college in England had a Geography department (Johnston & Sidaway, 2016).

Geography studies in the Islamic world started with the translation of Latin works. The first professional studies were carried out in the field of general and descriptive geography in the Baghdad Geography School founded by the Abbasids in the 9th century and the Belh Geography Schools established in the 10th century. In the Ottoman period, the development of geography, especially with the influence of Ali Kuşçu, developed within the framework of astronomy-based mathematics geography. During this period, travelogue books written by travelers developed the understanding of Descriptive Geography (Sağdıç, 2020).

The geography lesson was included first time in the programs of the secondary schools called Rustiye, which was opened in the period of Mahmut II in the Ottoman Empire and provide education at the level of today’s secondary

schools (Nurdoğan, 2016). Giving the geography lesson at the primary school level was for the first time with the 1869 statute on general education.

Geography lesson has been given at the 3rd, 4th and 5th grade levels since the first programs of the republic, which was enacted after the law of unification of education in the Republic of Turkey. Although there were some minor changes in the duration of the courses in the programs issued in 1924, 1927, 1931, 1938 and 1949, the geography course was included as a separate course. However, with the program in 1962, the Geography course was combined with the History and Civics courses, and it was brought under the umbrella of the “Society and Country Studies” course (MEB, 1962). The name of this course was changed to social studies in 1968 and Geography was presented to students under the umbrella of this course (İbret, Karatekin, & Avcı, 2015).

After the 1980 military coup in Turkey, the program was updated and the National Geography course was given at the secondary school level. By 1990, the 1968 program was reintroduced with a few updates. In 1997, the curriculum was restructured along with teacher training. In the curriculum, which underwent changes in 2005 and 2018, the Geography lesson is given under the umbrella of the social studies lesson at the secondary school level, and it is an independent lesson at the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades at the high school level.

4. Development of Geographic Information Systems

The meaning of space, which is the place where human beings live, work and produce, differs according to people’s perception, seeing and interpretation. In general, space is in a broader sense than the environment in terms of interaction with people, covering the entire environment where people live, starting from the depths of the earth and extending from there to space (Tumertekin and Özgüç, 2004).

Equipping people with information about the environment and place they live in offers a number of opportunities that facilitate their daily life. From past to present, the relationship between space and people has been revealed for reasons such as finding the safest and shortest routes for people’s journeys due to different natural and human reasons such as drought, war, struggles between clans, protection of wetlands, and determination of migration routes. It is considered important for people to understand the possibilities of the places they live in and to keep up with the geographical conditions seen in that place (Öcal, 2007). The word space, which has been in use since the Middle Ages, comes from the Latin term “Spatium”.

In the process that started with the invention of the camera at the beginning of the 19th century, people first produced spatial information with air balloons, and it became accessible in a short time with the satellites developed in the following period. Geographic Information Systems (GIS) installed on the computer were used to collect, manage and analyze these spatial data.

GIS is a geographic information generation tool that provides the opportunity to obtain spatial data with a computer and satellite system, store, process and analyze them, and thus serve us in our decision-making processes (Longley, 2000). The emergence of GIS as a computer application began with multiple projects in the 1960s. The most famous of these projects was the Canadian Geographic Information System (CGIS), which was developed by the IBM team and led by Roger Tomlinson. The efforts of Northwestern University academic Duane Marble to support transportation research in the Chicago area and the work of the UK Experimental Cartography Unit were among other projects undertaken at that time (Coppock and Rhind, 1991; Foresman 1997).

All these developments took place in an environment that can be seen as a very limited and simple computing environment compared to today. Mainframes were the only compute computers available at the time; they were slow and had almost no mass storage, data being recorded on magnetic tapes that were accessed sequentially. There were no fiber networks to connect computers, data was transmitted and received on conveyor belts. Data instructions were provided on punch cards, and data was transmitted at only 300 bits per second using teletype technology (Goodchild, 2018).

Technology has made tremendous progress in the half-century since CGIS was designed and built. The hard drive and massively increased mass storage have almost completely replaced magnetic tape. Computing speed has increased incomparably more: indeed, today's smartphone or laptop has far more power than the IBM 360 of the mid-1960s. Geographic information technologies today are divided into four categories: positioning, data collection, data dissemination and analysis systems (Goodchild, 2009).

Positioning is the first stage for geographic information technologies. The global positioning system (GPS) has revolutionized the measurement of the position of any object on the Earth's surface. With this system, for the first time in human history, the location of an object was determined so quickly and cheaply (Kennedy 2002). Today, GPS technology is used for many purposes such as map making, wildlife management and modeling of human spatial behavior by placing it in mobile phones, wrist watches and vehicles.

With the developments in this positioning system of GPS, a new era has been started in geographical information. It has become possible to monitor real-time movements such as changes in the world, instantaneous positions of planes, progress of buses or vehicles, instant flight route of a whale or bird on websites. GPS remains an outdoor technology as its signals are lost under dense tree cover, in buildings, and even in canyons deep within cities.

In the data collection step, satellite systems and remote sensing systems are now firmly established as an important source of geographic information (Borre, Akos, Bertelsen, Rinde and Jensen 2007). Thanks to satellite systems, it is possible to collect information about the states and structures of objects positioned by GPS. Radar and microwave sources are used to detect variables such as surface height and even to differentiate underground directions under suitable conditions. However, especially after the 2000s, the most important development in obtaining geospatial data, Internet speeds and the widespread use of phones, Web 2.0, a process where users can create and upload information, paved the way for the rapid emergence of user-generated content. Web 2.0 enables those without geography or GIS knowledge to use and produce spatial data.

Data sharing has been very important in the development of geographic information technologies and the accumulation of knowledge in this field. Paper maps, globes, and atlases have been used as traditional ways of sharing compiled geographic information, which are costly to produce and difficult to convey and store. When aerial photography became widespread and started to be used as a new and rich source of geographical information from the beginning of the twentieth century, it brought problems such as combining and storing the obtained images. However, this problem was started to be recorded first on magnetic tape and then on CDs and DVDs, within the limits of technological possibilities, in the early 1990s. However, with the emergence of the Web and the spread of the Internet in the mid-1990s, there was a new interest in sharing these pictures and maps over electronic networks. Due to the development and ease of data storage conditions and the acceleration of sharing, geographical data warehouses and digital libraries were quickly established in 1995 and later, and large amounts of data were made accessible. The emergence of virtual globes (Google Earth, Microsoft Virtual Earth, etc.) in 2005 and Web mapping sites such as Google Maps added another dimension to geographic information dissemination technology. By providing a simple user interface and publishing tools (application programming interfaces, scripting languages), these services have rapidly reached a level of popular acceptance far beyond the geographic

information systems that were previously typical (Grossner, Goodchild, Clarke, 2008). Thus, users were able to access data provided by third parties and display them in simple graphical layers on the map base.

In our age, analysis studies have gained speed with the development of computer technologies. The first efforts to develop comprehensive computer applications to explain geographic information began with the first GIS studies in the mid-1960s. Today, the term GIS is widely accepted and such systems have a wide variety of forms of manipulation and analysis (Longley, Goodchild, Maguire & Rhind, 2005). Some of these analytics tools target specific application areas such as transportation; some highlight certain types of geographic information, such as remotely sensed images.

Geographical information systems support a wide variety of applications. It is used in daily life for needs such as finding the shortest way to the beach and the location of the nearest market. They are widely used in commerce to keep inventories of distributed assets in the utility industry, centralize marketing, identify optimal locations for retail businesses and services, and plan delivery and cargo services. In scientific life, it is used in many areas, such as studying patterns of phenomena on the Earth's surface, formulating and testing hypotheses about the spread of disease, the distribution of plant species, the migration routes of animals, the spatial organization of society. In public services, they are used to choose the best alternative planning options and to manage social services. In the military, they are essential for battlefield control. In short, GIS is a tool that facilitates the lives of people and societies in many ways in almost every field, and its usage area is gradually expanding (Goodchild, Yuan & Cova 2007).

Most of the innovations in GIS over the past decade have been user interface related. New forms of representation based on the object-oriented model have brought GIS closer to representations about the World in people's minds, thereby expanding our ability to represent both hierarchical relationships and dynamics. However, problems remain in representing the third spatial dimension and capturing phenomena that are fundamentally continuous on the Earth's surface, such as terrain, roads, and rivers (Goodchild, 2009).

5. Geographic Information Systems and Education

The science of geography has a great role in the development and civilization of humanity, considering the widespread use of GIS and its benefits. GIS, through its tools, enables the user to create thematic maps based on data stored in a spreadsheet or database. Data can be entered into the map in many ways. It can be displayed, for example, to a region (such as a country) or a point (such as an

address), as well as charts and graphs. GIS is dynamic, when it updates the data, the map is updated automatically.

GIS allows the user to visualize and analyze spatial information in new ways, revealing previously hidden relationships, patterns and trends. GIS is at the center of all modern spatial decision-making, from everyday life to the military, public services, transportation and surveillance of animal life. However, despite its central role in real world geography, GIS has so far only been evaluated within the framework of Geography education in schools (Wiegand, 2001).

The fact that GIS provides students with the opportunity to draw maps and graphics about the subjects and visualize the space in 3D will help students to develop their perceptions of the places they live in (Aladağ, 2014). In addition, the fact that GIS is an informatics tool, it consists of computer programs, increases the technological knowledge and practices of the students in the process. Students who have the opportunity to examine their environment in 3D will be more sensitive to environmental issues and gain geographical awareness. Geographical awareness is the necessary knowledge for students to gain awareness in nature and human interaction, and to take responsibility as conscious consumers and active individuals who produce solutions to global problems.

The interest in the use of GIS in schools in the world has become clear in developed countries after the 1990s (Gryl & Jekel, 2012). However, it can be said that an important potential for GIS in education has been revealed, especially after the program changes in Turkey in 2005, with the new programs bringing many changes such as the use of technology and adaptation to innovations. In addition, the use of GIS in education has gained more importance as a technology accessible to schools, together with the cheapening of computer and mobile phone technologies, and the aforementioned developments and advances in data technologies. There are many reasons such as the use of GIS in education and its positive effects on student achievement, putting the student in the center, embodying abstract data, involving the student in knowledge production and learning processes, and in this way being more student-centered than classical lecture methods, because it is activating the student (Audet). and Paris, 1997, Aladağ, 2014; Artvinli, 2009; Goodchild, 2009; Bednarz, 2004).

The preparation of the 2005 and 2018 updates of the curriculum in a structure that places the student in the center of the learning processes and sees the teacher as a guide in the learning processes of the student has also gained importance in terms of keeping the students active in the process while understanding the subjects and achievements of the GIS fully and correctly.

However, the use of GIS in schools and lessons is still not at the desired level due to the expensive software required, the limited computers in the classrooms, the lack of any support or obligation for teachers to use these tools, and the inability to fully grasp the potential of GIS in education (Meyer, Butterick, Olkin, & Zack, 1999; Aladag, 2014).

6. Geography and Spatial Citizenship

As stated at the beginning, Geography as a science has been seen as an important course in almost every country in order to increase the knowledge and sensitivity of the future decision makers of the students on environmental and spatial issues, and thus for the development of the country (Lidstone & Stoltman, 2002). People live in the geography where they were born, within the framework of the conditions offered by the place, and live in that direction. As the decision makers of the country in the future, students can connect with the place they live in with the Geography education they receive at schools, and they are active in transforming that place into a more livable place and protecting its natural resources (İbret, Karatekin, & Karasu Avcı, 2015). From this perspective, it can be said that while students' knowledge and skills about spatial tools at schools make their daily lives simple and help them to understand the world and make inferences such that we are not alone in the world and what we have reached us with the protection of people in the past (Bednarz, Heffron, & Huynh, 2013).

The basic logic of GIS allows collecting, storing, displaying and examining spatial data on the computer system with the help of satellite technologies. Through those systems, it is ensured that more accurate decisions are made in many issues, for example, they are effective in decision-making processes in areas such as afforestation and agriculture. (Goodchild, 2018).

Providing students with critical spatial thinking skills, abilities, and knowledge is an important aspect of any geography degree (Whyatt, Clark, & Davies, 2011). The acquisition of spatial thinking skills acquired within the framework of the geography course will guide students to understand many real-life spatial problems such as technological developments, changing trends, and tensions in the Mediterranean (Bearman Jones, André, Cachinho, & DeMers, 2016).

Citizenship is a social status that an individual acquires in a country within the framework of the rights he/she has and the duties he/she is responsible for (Hammersley, 2015). Citizenship, which Marshall defined within the framework of civil, political and social rights, came from parents in Greek city-states. Citizenship, which gained its current meaning with the 1789 French Revolution,

includes individuals to continue their personal lives freely, autonomously and actively, and to be equipped with some political rights and duties such as voting and being a candidate (Heater, 2004; Isin, 1997).

Citizenship education is considered as the education that students must receive in order to be educated as knowledgeable and active citizens of the societies in which they participate. A number of educational activities are carried out in almost every country in order to raise active participatory citizens in global and regional issues, who fully and on time fulfill the rights and responsibilities stated in the constitution of the country, who are devoted to the society they live in and who think about the welfare of the society. However, citizenship education has generally been a subject of debate about what information its content should consist of (Grly, Jekel, & Donert, 2010).

Geography subjects have been taught to students in different ways as a part of citizenship education in schools for many years. However, as in almost every scientific discipline, there have been some developments in the science of geography, such as the increase in the possibilities of GIS over time. With these advances, new opportunities have emerged for the evaluation of GIS within the framework of student education in schools. With the combination of these opportunities with citizenship education, the concept of spatial citizenship has emerged.

Spatial citizenship is all the skills and knowledge that people need to know the place where they live, work, and produce within the framework of its characteristics, potential and risks, and to make the best use of it. (Gryl, Jekel and Donert, 2010). Spatial citizens are of course also capable of producing, finding, using and storing this information. It aims to make better decisions by using the data obtained in the decision processes by including geographical tools in daily life.

Citizens have the knowledge, skills, competencies and abilities to access and make sense of (geographical) information in order to participate in democratic processes and make decisions in different situations they encounter daily (Grly, Jekel, & Donert, 2010). Spatial citizenship in general is a study conducted to associate the spatial and geographical perspectives possible with GIS and citizenship (Shin & Bernardz, 2018).

Citizens who are informed about spatial issues with GIS will prioritize social benefit in issues such as solving the problems faced by the societies they live in and making future plans. Here, the role of geography in citizen education is to provide students with the knowledge and skills needed to prepare them as responsible decision makers in their future decisions (Shin & Bernardz, 2018).

The purpose of using the space, by analyzing spatial data, includes the ability of students to produce solutions for the problems they will encounter in the future, to gain skills such as analytical thinking, making realistic predictions, and to be able to interpret and criticize the information they receive by confirming them (Turan & İbret, 2019). The tools used in spatial citizenship include programs and web tools that can be accessed by computers and phones. It is important for students to become active citizens, both for their local communities and for the global community, by learning how and what kind of knowledge they can gain by using these tools. Students can be educated as responsible decision makers of the future with formal and non-formal education activities and this way they can use spatial tools in daily life.

7. Conclusion

Managing the limited resources of our world, transferring them to future generations, and solving the existing problems undoubtedly depends on raising more conscious citizens. For this purpose, the science of geography, which is offered to students in schools, has preserved its importance from the first human to the present day, since it is a science that integrates people and societies with nature and the environment. With the development of technology, GIS has started to be used in all areas of our life. In the last period, especially global warming and melting of glaciers, increasing population and the solution and prevention of emerging problems will also be with the help of geographical tools. As a matter of fact, a person who knows the place he/she lives in and understands its importance will be able to protect it and save it for future generations with the least deterioration. In this context, it is thought that tools such as GIS offered by geography will facilitate young people, who are the decision makers of the future, to make healthier decisions.

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CHAPTER 6

PALEOCLIMATIC CHANGES AND EFFECTS IN PLIOCENE, AFRICA *

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1. Introduction

Human evolution is characterized by global and regional speciation, extinction and dispersal events associated with paleoclimate and environmental changes (Maslin et al., 2014). However, these records do not fully explain the timing or causes of human evolutionary events and are still debated (Maslin and Christensen, 2007; Trauth et al., 2009; Potts, 2013). Environmental influences have long been thought to play an important role in hominin speciation and adaptation (Maslin and Christensen, 2007). There are various theories about this. The important biological and cultural changes in human evolution, such as upright walking, diet, and the use of stone tools, have been linked to the evolution of grasslands and open areas (Strömberg, 2011; Bonnefille, 2010).

The orbital movements of the earth and tectonic activities can cause significant changes in climate and vegetation. In East Africa, long-term climate change has been controlled by tectonic movements (Maslin et al., 2014). The effects of global climate changes on the African continent (Rift Valley) in the last 10 million years have mostly been discussed within the framework of drought and changes in water resources (*Figure 1*). The distribution of particularly mammalian species in modern Africa is mostly controlled by annual precipitation and seasonal variations. The main factors which affecting the hydro-climate of Africa are the changes in topography, latitude range, monsoon dynamics, ocean temperature, and especially the position of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) winds. These climatic control mechanisms are varying regionally in Africa. Especially in the East African climate, the drought trend in the last 10

* This book is based on Sercan Acar's master thesis under supervision of Kevin Kuykendall (Thesis: Are there environmental/climatic changes relative to dietary ecology that may explain the variation in masticatory anatomy in *ardipithecus*, *australopithecus* and *paranthropus*?)

million years has caused faunal changes. This is thought to be related to the increase in species diversity in human evolution (deMenocal, 2004; Vrba, 1985). Together with this change, densely wooded areas were turned into open areas, and affecting the vegetation and causing change of the diet of early humans.

The effect of environmental changes was based on climatic changes so the early humans diet is still take place most problematic and among the interesting topics nowadays. The vegetation of Africa was heterogeneous. The fossil evidence indicates the existence of vegetation diversity, from wooded areas to wooded savanna and grassland areas. However, the most important change in the evolution of grasses in Africa has been the conversion from C_3 to C_4 grasslands (Cerling et al., 1997). One of the most important events of the global ecological changes that have occurred in the last 10 million years is the proliferation of C_4 grasses.

2. General Considerations of Pliocene in Africa

The global cooling trend that started in the Miocene continued throughout the Pliocene period. The Pliocene is regarded as a period of climatic changes, a transition period from the warm Miocene period to the ice ages of the Pleistocene. The African continent has been affected by the glacial factors in the last ten years, and so it resulted in drier and more open environment (Crowley&North 1991). Africa covered with forest and temporal woodland before this time and also higher rainfall was seen (Bonnefille, 1995). However, together with changing of climatic factors, more open areas were started to see in Africa. Miocene is a relatively temperate period between the cold Oligocene and Pliocene. The main reason for the drought experienced during the period and the cooling that started towards the end of the period is the positional changes in the continents (also tectonic activities), and mountain ranges forming a rain shadow, preventing precipitation from falling in the interior parts of the continents.

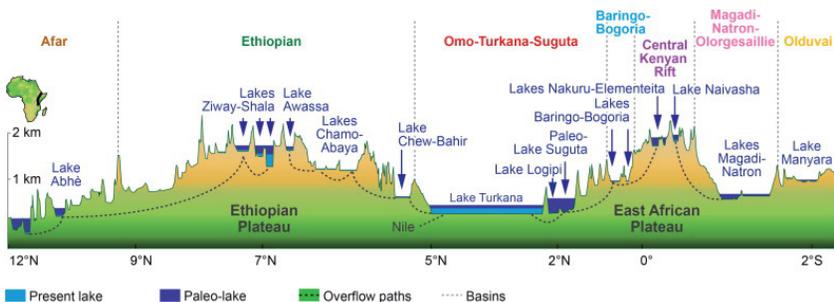


Figure 1: East Africa modern and paleo lake (Junginger and Trauth, 2013)

The tectonic activities in Africa are still argues. There are two main elements of regional tectonics in Africa that are not fully understood. The first is the exact timing and altitude. These factors control local rainfall patterns and are therefore important for understanding the evolution of African climate. So while we know that gradual uplift and rifting caused East Africa to dry out, we don't know exactly when and at what rate these changes occurred (Maslin et al., 2014). The second factor is what the effect of tectonics on vegetation is. This is important to understanding hominin evolution because all forest areas fragmented, and open areas and grassland more became crucial and dominant. Therefore, the Pliocene fauna was affected. The Pliocene fauna was not much different from the Miocene. While all the orders and families of today's mammals emerged, many extinct genera also lived during this period. One of the most important events of this period is the emergence of the early hominids beings. The spread of savannas in Africa has led hominids to descend from trees to the open areas. Hominids appeared in the Early Pliocene in the Rift valleys of North-East Africa.

3. Early human evolution

According to fossil record, there are four stages in hominid evolution. 1) Sahelanthropus, Orrorin and Ardipithecus genera's members, who lived between 4 and 7 million years ago and was defined early hominin, 2) Australopithecus (the appearance of 4 million years ago) and Paranthropus (the appearance of 2.7 million years ago) genera's members, 3) the emergence of Homo genus –between 2.5 and 1.8 million years ago- and finally the emergence of anatomically modern humans around 200 ka (Maslin et al., 2014). The early members of these four groups were all discovered in East Africa Rift Valley, except Sahelanthropus, so it shows that all the main stages in human evolution consisted in the East Africa (Wood, 2014).

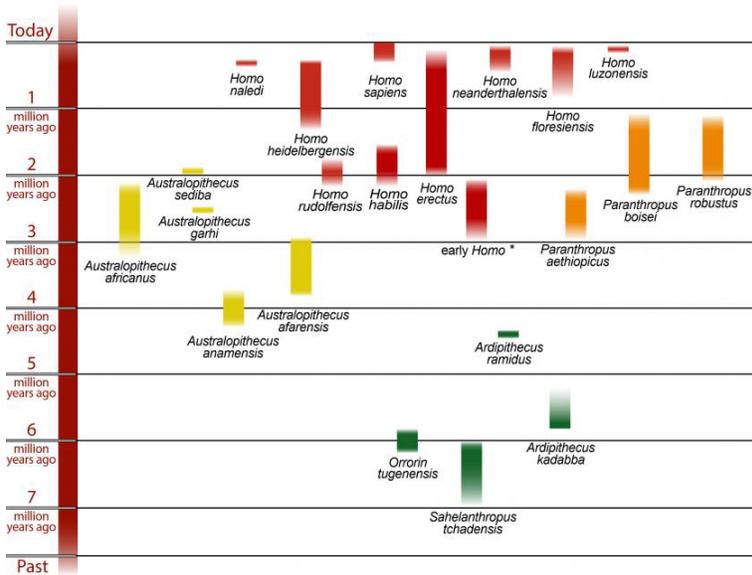


Figure 2: Early human evolution timeline

Sahelanthropus tchadensis is the oldest known hominid fossil and dated to approximately 7-6 million years ago (Brunet et al., 2002). It was found in Chad (West Central Africa). There is only skull finds of this species, its skull volume is roughly equivalent to that of a chimpanzee, and it shows mosaic features between chimpanzee and hominid. Although the position of the foramen magnum under the skull indicates that this species walked upright, the lack of evidence other than the skull makes it impossible to understand the movement pattern. *Orrorin tugenensis* is one of the other oldest hominin, found at 6 Ma in Kenya (Pickford and Senut, 2001). Due to the fragmentation of the finds, its taxonomic position, lifestyle and movement position are controversial. Another earliest hominin is *Ardipithecus kadabba* who discovered in Ethiopia, and dated 5.8 and 5.2 Ma.. The findings comprises only of fragmentary teeth and skeletal remains (Haile-Selassie et al., 2004). *Ardipithecus ramidus*, who is best known species of this genus, discovered from Middle Awash and Ethiopia, and dated 4.4 Ma (White et al., 1994). *Ardipithecus ramidus* is seen to have lived in closed woodlands, was not seen in the open savanna, as their environmental conditions were moist and colder, including habitats ranging from woodland to forest (WoldeGabriel et al., 2009). The diet of *Ardipithecus ramidus* was fresh leaves and soft fruits (omnivorous diet) in woodland locations. *Ardipithecus*' brain and body sizes were roughly equivalent to modern chimpanzees. The first

member of the *Australopithecus* genus is *Australopithecus anamensis*, which dated about 4.2 and 3.8 Ma and was discovered in the Kenya and Ethiopia. These individuals' feature is that both they have primitive cranial structure and strong evidence of upright walking (Leakey et al., 1995). *Australopithecus anamensis* is defined as occupying dry, possibly open, wooded or bush-land habitats in the riverine forest (Leakey et al., 1995). It contains open habitat foods, such as, grass, seeds, sedges, etc., as well as fruits and roots. Another *Australopithecus* genus, who is the best known, *Australopithecus afarensis*, called Lucy, were lived Ethiopia, Tanzania and Kenya, and dated 3.8 and 2.9 Ma. Almost a complete skeleton of this species has been found. The first hominid found in South Africa is *Australopithecus africanus* and similar to *A. afarensis* but has more ape-like limb proportions and less rudimentary teeth. The last members of *Australopithecus* members are *Australopithecus garhi* (2.5 Ma.) and *sediba* (1.97-1.98 Ma.), found in Ethiopia and South Africa (Berger et al., 2010; Asfaw et al., 1999). These genus' features are similar with *Homo* in terms of evolutionary proximity. Another genus is *Paranthropus* that lived in the same habitat and period as *Australopithecus*. *Paranthropus*' features have robust morphology and mostly adopted a herbivorous diet. *Paranthropus aethiopicus* (2.7 and 2.3 myo) and *Paranthropus boiesi* (2.3-1.2 myo) lived in East Africa, and *Paranthropus robustus* (1.8-1.2 myo) in South Africa (Leakey, 1959, Ungar et al., 2008). Fossil evidence of the genus *Homo* has been found in sediments in eastern and southern Africa, dated to 2.4-1.4 Ma (Leakey, 1964). *Homo habilis* is known as the first member of the genus and has an *Australopithecus*-like body but a slightly larger skull volume. Another member of the genus is *Homo erectus*. Its morphological structure (body skeleton) is similar with modern human. Demographic studies based on fossil data show that development slowed down and birth intervals decreased in *Homo erectus* populations. With the emergence of *Homo heidelbergensis* at 600 BC and the acquisition of an anatomically modern body shape at 200 BC, that is, with the evolution of *Homo sapiens*, the evolution process of human beings biologically gained its present status as we have it today.

The development of brain volume and the evolution of human in the cultural field have progressed considerably, from *Homo erectus* to the present (modern *Homo sapiens*) (figure 3). With the increase in brain size, there was an effect on the lifestyle and rhythm on the genus. The brain, which has increased in size, also forces a change in eating habits as the body's most energy-consuming organ. It especially suggests the beginning of a period in which animal proteins are added to the diet more.

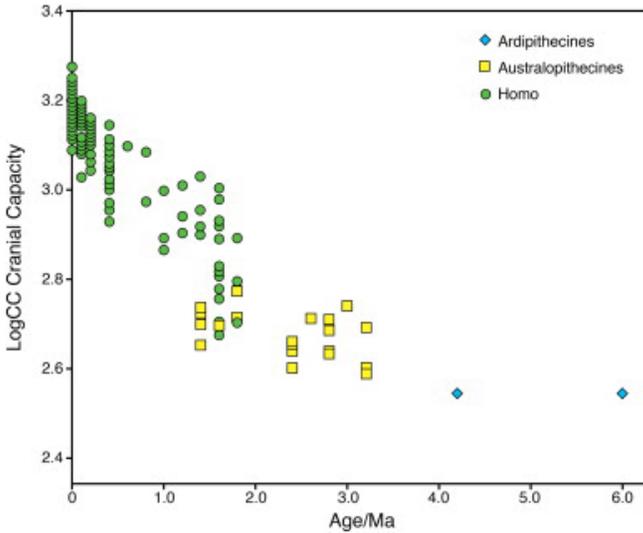


Figure 3: Hominin brain capacity (data from Shultz et al., 2012)

4. Paleoclimate effect on early human evolution in Africa

The climate changes and environmental conditions in Africa in the last 10 million years are important tools for understanding human evolution. Especially during the Late Miocene (11-5.3 Ma), Pliocene (5.3-2.5 Ma) and Pleistocene (2.5-0.01 myo) periods, the paleoclimate of Africa was controlled by tectonic and volcanic activities, global/atmospheric changes and regional climate changes. In the paleoclimate of Africa, the general cooling trend that started with the Late Miocene period was interrupted by the dry-wet phases that took place in successive different periods. Therefore, the habitat and diet of early hominids underwent changes. The effects of global climate changes on the African continent mostly discussed in the context of drought and changes in water resources. Changes in topography, latitude range, monsoon dynamics, ocean temperature, and especially the position of the ITCZ (Intertropical Convergence Zone) winds are the main factors affecting the hydro-climate of Africa.

Africa was primarily vegetated by C_3 items, most likely shrubland and forest, and no proof of open C_4 grasslands was found, and which are significant today and around 8 million years ago (Cerling, 1992). Globally, the C_3 ecosystems first reprocessed in the tropics and later at the mid-latitudes, with C_4 grasses becoming significant in local ecosystem between 8 and 3 million years ago. Open grasslands appeared later in Africa, between 3 and 2 million years ago, depending on location.

According to ecological proof from early hominin localities, the characteristics of early species' diet were suitable for living in different natural habitats; that is to say, they could feed on different food items. In general, the formation of food items is enlarged in the long rainy seasons every year. Nevertheless, there were arid natural conditions, so the generation of flowers, fruits and flush leaves was decreased. There was a dramatic decrease in primary prolificacy and sources were difficult to find in the arid natural conditions, due to the global climatic changes, dated 3.2 million years ago (Marlow et al. 2000). There was also a gradual decrease in the quantity of upon-land plant items existing for hominid exploitation. The longer periods of aridity influenced food items, like plants, but in such situations—if temporary—they fed on store energy in underground storage organs, rather than leaves or fruits. Consequently, rhizomes and bulbs would be present during most of the arid period and supply the requirement diet to the early hominids.

Biological evolution and natural conditions are parallel to each other, and they consist of small and large shifts in the earth (especially in habitat from rainy to arid due to environmental changes). These changes on climate and environment affect and influence the Plio-Pleistocene hominids, directly. It is also a part of evolutionary changes. The evolution of mammals, as well as early specimens in Africa is also related to the continental climate that is gradually becoming cold and arid. This took part in the savannah, rather than the forested areas. Together with increasing the bushland and grassland, there was a considerably decrease of the amount of forested regions. Then, early specimens were adapted to increased thermoregulatory stress and moved to the terrestrial and more open habitats (Bromage and Schrenk, 1999). Vrba (1995) also supported that climatic alteration played significant role in this theory.

5. Conclusion

There is no doubt that more open areas started in the Late Miocene period during the last 10 million years, but this situation causes different scenarios due to local heterogeneity in Africa. African rift valley tectonic movements also control habitat conditions. Changes in lake and river systems in East Africa have directly affected mammalian populations and human evolution. Also, early human species' diet was affected by these changes. The variability of the arid-wet phases created an important selection pressure in human evolution, enabling early human species to produce new adaptations, both morphological and behavioural.

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CHAPTER 7

PRELIMINARY EVALUATION ON THE KURGANS OF TURKIC PERIOD AT ELEKE SAZY VALLEY

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Introduction

Eleke Sazy Valley is in Tarbagatai district of the Eastern Kazakhstan region at Republic of Kazakhstan. Recent research and studies by a team of Kazakh archaeologists under direction of Prof. Zainolla Samashev prove that Eleke Sazy valley has more than 300 kurgans. These kurgans are dated to a wide period between Late Bronze Age and Medieval Age (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 8; Kutlu, 2020a: 245; Kutlu, 2021: 57-58). This article based on the author's observations and participation of the archaeological excavations at Eleke Sazy in summer of 2019.



Photo 1: Eleke Sazy Valley (M. Kutlu, 2019)

Besides that, a Turkic burial-memorial complex is also uncovered at Eleke Sazy during the archaeological surveys and excavations (Photo. 2). The ancient

Turkic burial-memorial complex is located on the right bank of the Kargyba Stream, in the first group of burials, on the eastern part of Eleke Sazy burial ground (Samashev et al., 2016:134-136; Samashev et al., 2020: 35). The memorial complex consists of two main parts - a stone tomb and a ceremonial passageway. The stone tomb (bark) is square in plan and 30 x 30 m in dimensions. The ceremonial passageway is rectangular in plan and 14 x 36 m in dimensions. It is adjacent to the stone tomb and connected by a through labyrinth like corridor of the tomb. Both parts of the burial complex have independent fences in the form of rectangular stone-earth embankments (Samashev et al., 2020: 36-37). A granite Turkic statue in a typical Kagan's pose when legs crossed, left hand resting on a knee, right hand holding a ritual vessel was discovered in the tomb (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 27; Kutlu, 2020b: 265). Even though the general layout of the complex is similar with the memorial complexes of Turkic Khaganate located in Mongolia, there are no row of "balbal" called stone pillars in the east of the complex identified (Samashev et al., 2020: 37).



Photo 2: The Turkic Burial-Memorial Complex at Eleke Sazy (Akhmedov et al., 2019: 26)

1. The Kurgans of Turkic Period at Eleke Sazy

There are more than 60 structures of funeral and memorial purposes placed around the Turkic burial-memorial complex (Photo. 2 & 3). Possibly, some of them are directly related to the complex (Samashev et al., 2020: 37). Some of the Turkic period kurgans are also located around the burial-memorial complex. This praxis can be indication of dynastic or family kinship between the

burials. Similar praxis is also evident at Berel Kurgans (Kutlu & Kutlu, 2020: 175). Recent years at Eleke Sazy, eight kurgans belong to Turkic period were excavated. For example, four kurgans (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 27-31) in 2019, one kurgan (Samashev et al., 2020: 38-40) in 2020 and three kurgans (Aitkali, 2021b) were excavated in 2021.



Photo 3: Turkic kurgans around the burial-memorial complex (M. Kutlu, 2019)



Photo 4: A children's burial of the Turkic period (Akhmedov et al., 2019: 28)

A plundered children's burial, placed directly to the earthen pit in dimensions of 1.80 x1.30 m, in depth of 0.70 m; it was uncovered under the north-eastern wall of the fence (Photo. 4). A clay vessel, seashells, and a silver figurine of a *senmurv* or *simurgh*, a mythologic dog headed gryphon-like creature (Photo. 5), but with broken tail was found in the burial (Akhmetov et al., 2019, 29; Aitkali, 2021: 54).



Photo 5: The figure of “Senmurv” (Akhmedov et al., 2019: 29)

It is possible to observe depictions of *senmurvs* (Harper, 1961: 95-101; Comperati, 2006: 189-204) as well as various interpretations of this image in ancient Turkic art, they indicate the relatively exact dates of the construction of one or another monument of the early medieval era. The given mixed creature was widespread in the Sassanian art, during the 6th-7th centuries AD and especially, in the Sogdian depictions (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 29).

One of the earliest depictions of mixed creatures in Sasanian art dating back to 5th-6th century is on the rock reliefs of the great iwan of the Taq-i Bustan

palace located close to Kermanshah, Western Iran (Comperati, 2016: 75-76). Those figures were defined by K. Trevor as simurghs but the figure of simurgh is always associated with a bird in when it comes to Iranian art and literature (Compareti, 2015, 36-44). The iconography of the figure was widespread image, applied on textiles, metal vessels, murals, and other means of Sasanian art.

Symbolic interpretations of the figure with a dog's head and a bird's wings are depicted on dresses of some Ambassadors on Paintings of Afrasiab' Palace dating to 7th century AD. Furthermore, the eastern walls of the northern hall of Temple 2 at Panjikent have painted of a super-natural creature defined by some authors as simurgh as well (Azarpay, 1975: 168-177). However, the damaged figurine from Eleke Sazy is a stylized interpretation of the mixed creature defined as senmurv, it has some local elements and different from Sasanian counterparts. The figure has a feline-like paw and a bird's wing, yet the head of super-natural creature can hardly be defined as dog head with swinging tongue and open jaws. The silver figurine has significance for giving some clues about dating of the kurgan to around the 7th century.

An inlet burial of the ancient Turkic time, which was made in a shallow, rectangular pit, was recorded during examination of Big Earthen Kurgan placed in the sixth group of kurgans of the Eleke Sazy monuments. Turkic kurgan was formed closer to the main edge along the west-east line of the Big Kurgan of Scythian time. The skeleton (Photo. 6) was placed on its left side, face was oriented to the southeast while the head was oriented to the northeast. The arms were bent at the elbows (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 30). Researchers unearthed a tool made of tubular bone, small iron buckles (Photo. 7) and bone bow pads (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 30).



Photo 6: A burial of the ancient Turkic time, made in the embankment of the burial-memorial complex (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 30).



Photo 7: Bone findings or artifacts (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 30).

The Kazakh research team also excavated two more objects of the ancient Turkic period with rectangular fences located at the second group of kurgans at Eleke Sazy Valley. Unfortunately, the structures didn't contain any items or human remains (Photo. 8 & 9).



Photo 8: One of the excavated Turkic Kurgans at Eleke Sazy (Akhmetov et al., 2019: 31).



Photo 9: One of the excavated Turkic Kurgans at Eleke Sazy (Akhmetov, et all, 2019, 30).



Photo 10: One of the Turkic Kurgans at Eleke Sazy (M. Kutlu, 2019)

During the excavations of 2020 researchers examined, a stone-covered kurgan of oval-like shape measured as 8.18 x 8.63 m and located 8.00 m South of the burial-memorial complex (Photo. 10 & 11). After the opening of stone cover, a fence of a rectangular shape with dimensions of 7.10 x 6.60 m made of stone

rows was unearthed. In the middle part of the fence, stone slabs placed with a slight slope in the middle were detected. The rectangular corners of the fence were oriented to the cardinal points. The walls of the fence were composed of three to six layers of flat slabs. All four corners of the fence had additional masonry and were much higher, presumably up to 1.00 m above the walls (Samashev et al., 2020: 38-39).



Photo 11: One of the Turkic Kurgans at Eleke Sazy (Samashev et al., 2020: 38)



Photo 12: An iron buckle (Samashev, et all, 2020, 39)

Unfortunately, the burial was destroyed by robbers but scattered fragments of the remains of the deceased were found in a shallow grave pit. Fragments of the tubular bones and limbs of a horse were revealed at the outer part of the kurgan. The fragments of bones are possibly remains of an animal sacrificed for the ritual of hanging the skin of a horse on a pole, which was widespread among the ancient Turks. An iron buckle (Photo 12) with a movable tongue was also found here (Samashev et al., 2020: 39).

Another excavated rectangular stone fence was attached to the mentioned kurgan and has dimensions of 2.10 x 1.20 m. Disturbed remains of an adolescent were found within the fence two or three-layers masonry of which were preserved (Photo. 13). A skeleton's head was oriented to the east with a slight deviation to the south. Adornment such as three silver rings, an iron knife, eight-shaped iron bits, beads of glass and white stone, a belt buckle with a movable tongue as well as a ring-shaped silver piece discovered during excavations clearly points at female gender of the buried (Samashev et al., 2020: 39-40).



Photo 13: The skeleton with the findings (three silver rings, an iron knife, eight-shaped iron bits, beads of glass and white stone, a belt buckle)
(Samashev et al., 2020: 40)

As part of East Kazakhstan Archaeological Expedition, a team of Kazakh archaeologists has excavated three kurgans dated to Turkic period at Eleke Sazy Valley in summer of 2021. There were no uncovered artefacts or findings at two

kurgans that were looted completely. A preserved excavated kurgan was 5 m of south of the ditch of the burial-memorial complex. It was coated with dense vegetation and had sub-rectangular stone cover. A human and a horse remains were placed in the earthen pit in the centre of the quadrangular fence of stone slabs which was under the stone cover. Burial pit was also covered with stone slabs, a damaged horse skeleton remains were placed at 0,30 m in depth while a human skeleton was placed a little deeper. Both a horse and a human placed on his/her back were oriented to the east. Some of the finds consist of a metal belt buckle, iron knife, iron arrowhead as well as many small metal objects decorating belt (Aitkali, 2021b).

Evaluation and Conclusion

Recent studies on the Kurgans of Turkic Period in Central Asia have revealed new remarkable results. On the other hand, still much more excavations and research are needed to reach outstanding findings and knowledge. In short, the kurgans of Turkic Period at Eastern Kazakhstan have examined in two groups: “Berel type” kurgans (Samashev, 2011: 103-114) and the Kurgans with beard or mustache (Aitkali, 2021a: 38-45). In comparison, the kurgans of Turkic period at Eleke Sazy can be defined as “Berel type” because of the similarities in architectural features, findings, and funeral rites.

In addition to that the kurgans of Turkic period at Eleke Sazy, reflect the main characteristics of Turkic period from the aspects of burial customs including architectural features, material culture, practice of horse burial and the orientation of bodies. For instance, the kurgans of Turkic period at Eleke Sazy have many similarities with the kurgans of Turkic period kurgans at Berel burial ground. Like as Berel Kurgans, having burials between Iron Age to Medieval Age, the kurgans of Eleke Sazy also prove that “cultural continuity” have been evident in funeral rites from Iron Age to Medieval Periods (Kutlu & Kutlu, 2021: 772-798).

In last three years, eight kurgans of Turkic period at Eleke Sazy are excavated but most of them are robbed completely and the archaeological findings are very limited to make comprehensive statements. We hope to uncover much more findings from the excavations of the coming years at Eleke Sazy Valley. I have special thanks to Prof. Zainolla Samashev, Leila Kutlu and the Team of East Kazakhstan Archaeological Expedition.

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CHAPTER 8

TILES OF THE HÜNKÂR MAHFİLİ OF THE BIG KHAN MOSQUE OF HANSARAY*

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As the settlement area of several cultures since prehistoric times, Crimea is a region where Turkish-Islamic art has been carried to the north of the Black Sea. Crimea, which had been under the dominance of the Ottoman Empire for around 300 years, comes into prominence with its different functioned structures such as palace, mosque, tomb, fountain, and bath. Evliya Celebi, who visited Crimea in the third quarter of the seventeenth century, stated that there were 24 mihrabs, 7 caravanserais, 4 baths, 9 palaces, 17 children's schools, 9 dervish mahfils, 3 soup kitchens, and 70 fountains in Bahçesaray (Bakhchysarai) (Evliya Celebi Seyahatnamesi, 1970, 213–14). The structures reflect the Ottoman impact not only in their architecture but also in their ornamental characteristics. This impact is most clearly seen in the Khan's Palace (Hansaray) in Bahçesaray, the administrative center of the Khanate. The Khan's Palace in which the Crimea khans lived, and whose construction began at the start of the sixteenth century, has grown with the addition of various structures over time. The palace has a similar architectural style with the Topkapı Palace, and it is known that architects and artists were brought from Istanbul to work in the construction of the palace (Kuyulu Ersoy, 2002, 397). Although Russian invasions at various times greatly damaged this significant structure (Barthold, 1961), the palace is a symbol of Bahçesaray.

This study aims to introduce the tiles that decorate the walls of the hünkâr mahfili at the southeastern corner of the Big Khan Mosque located in the first yard of the Khan's Palace and to determine the place of these tiles within Ottoman tile art.

The Big Khan Mosque of the Khan's Palace (Kuyulu Ersoy, 2005) is a north–south directed rectangular planned structure (photograph 1). The structure

* This paper was summarized from the master study entitled "Kırım Bahçesaray'daki Türk-İslam Eserlerinde Süsleme". See Uçar, 2009.

has a three-nave sanctuary perpendicular to the kiblah wall. There is a two-story closed narthex in the north side of the sanctuary, one minaret in each side of two corners of the sanctuary, one colonnade (revak) in each of the eastern and western fronts, one hünkâr mahfili in the southeastern corner, and one shadirvan in the eastern side. It is known that the structure was built in 1740–41 during the repair and reconstruction begun by Selamet Giray II immediately following the Russian invasion in 1736 (Barthold, 1961, 226; Yakobsan, 1964, 144).



Photo. 1. View from the northwest.

The hünkâr mahfili is on the upper story in the southwest part of the mosque (photo. 2). The hünkâr mahfili that is located behind the porched entrance and reached by wooden stairs from outside was designed as two separate places divided by a big window. Among these two places, the one in the west is the front section that provides a passageway to the masjid in the east. Rich hand-drawn ornaments are observed in both sections (Kuyulu Ersoy, 2002, 401).



Photo. 2. The view of the hünkâr mahfili.

The front side of the mahfil looks to the courtyard side with three windows and one door. Baroque-styled transom windows are included in each of the windows and on the door. There is one upside-down window in similar fashion on the north side and one transom window on the southern side. This side of the mahfil draws attention with square and rectangular formed tiles covering the front room walls (photo. 3). The lower part of the window in the eastern wall and the parts up to the height of 217 cm from the ground in the northern, western, and southern walls are covered with the underglaze technique blue and white tiles.



Photo. 3. The view of the front side of the hünkâr mahfilî (B. Ersoy Archive).

The walls of the front side of the mahfil are covered with square formed tiles that are encircled with rectangular formed border tiles (photo. 4; figure.1). In those white-pasted with underglaze technique tiles, cobalt blue, turquoise, and brownish red colors were used. Colors are broken up in some tile plates.



Photo. 4. The detail of tiles.

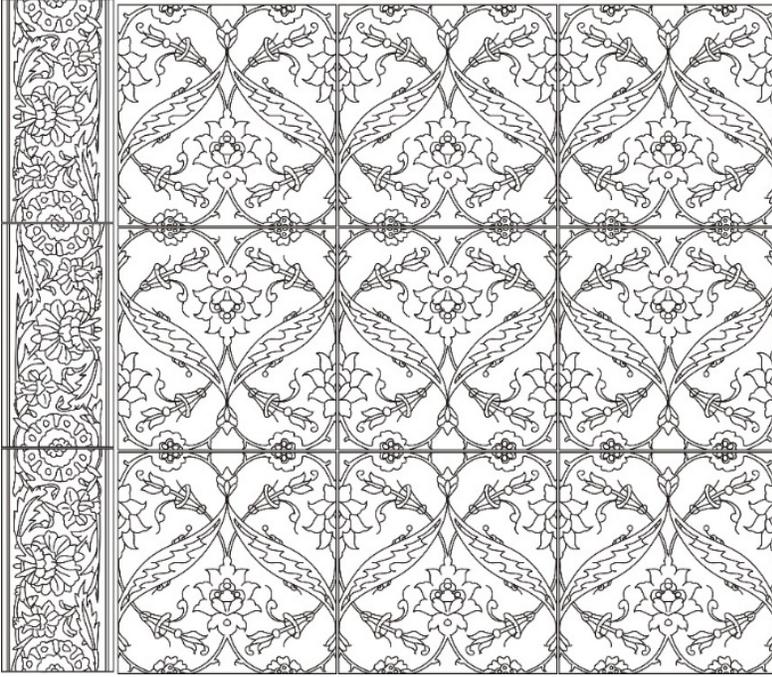


Figure. 1. The drawing of the hünkâr mahfilî tiles.

In the 24x24 cm square formed tiles, a large-sized hatayi design is observed in the middle of the tile. In the composition generated by connecting vegetal elements coming out under and on the upper side of the hatayi, two branches curving out below the hatayi merge with a half hatayi in the middle and then they are connected to a large dagger-shaped leaf. Two branches coming from the upper side by making curves end with two bell-styled patterns ending with tulips (photo. 6; figure. 2). The half hatayis are united in the side-by-side alignment of the tiles and generate a complete hatayi, and the composition is followed in infinite order. Although the side-by-side alignment of the tiles looking in the same direction is preferred for the tiles to provide the continuity of the composition in general, it is observed that the order is sometimes disarranged and from time to time the tiles in the lower line are rotated by 180 degrees. It merits attention that tiles under the window of the eastern wall were assembled by rotating them 90 degrees. The tiles were placed in the walls in different directions, which indicates that they were laid down in a careless way by a craftsman who was not an expert regarding these tiles.

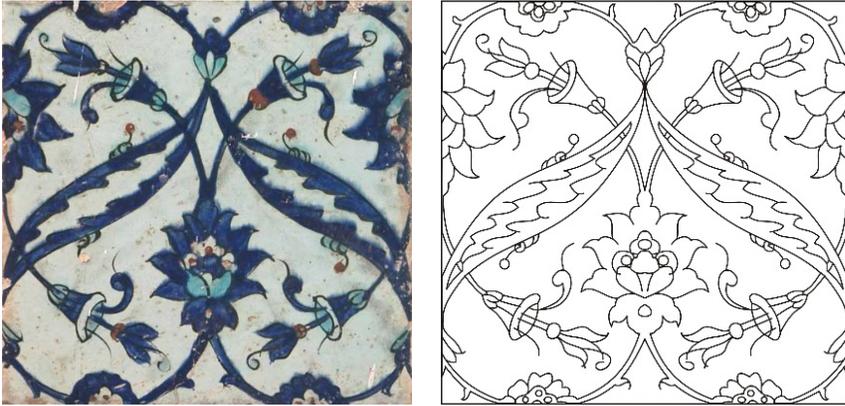


Photo. 5; Figure. 2. The detail and drawing of the squared form tile.

The vegetal motif originating from the hatayi at the center was used in the ornamentation of the 24x16,5 cm-sized rectangular-shaped border tiles (photo. 6; figure. 3). The branches curving out over the hatayi connect to a half hatayi at left and a dagger leaf at right. The hatayi that comes out with one branch at the lower part connects with another hatayi. The long edges of the tile were bordered with a thin turquoise band, and hatayis on the short edges have transformed the composition in an infinite order.



Photo. 6; Figure. 3. The detail and drawing of the rectangular formed tile.

No information is available regarding when the tiles were placed in the structure. As one of the significant elements of Turkish-Islamic art in the interior and exterior ornamentation of the structures such as mosque, tomb, bath, palace, and mansion, tiles were willingly used particularly in the ornamentation of the structures in Anatolia in various time periods. It is known that the walls of some places in the Kubadabad Palace (1236) of the Anatolian Seljukian are covered with star-cross formed tiles up to around 2 m height (Arık and Arık, 2007). Covering of the walls of structures with tiles is observed in many structures from ancient times until the late periods of the Ottoman Empire. The tiles of the sanctuary walls of the Edirne Muradiye Mosque (1426) (Yılmaz, 2015, 68–75) and tiles of the İstanbul Rüstem Pasha Mosque (1562) (Özdemir, 2016) are those that come to mind. The tiles used in the walls on the front side of the hünkâr mahfili of the Big Khan Mosque of the Khan's Palace should be considered a reflection of the Ottoman tradition in the Crimea. The tiles must have been assembled on the walls during the construction of the mosque. Although the production place of the tiles is not known with certainty, this issue can be discussed based on the samples with similar design and composition of the era. Tiles similar to the border tiles ornamenting the walls of the front side of the hünkâr mahfili of the Big Khan Mosque of the Khan's Palace are encountered in the mihrab of the İstanbul Üsküdar New Valide Mosque (1708) (Bozkurt, 2007, 350–59) and on the wall of the Sakahane (1765) located at the north of the Kütahya Ulu Mosque (Şahin, 1981–82, 156). In addition, similar tiles are observed in the Kütahya tiles (Yetkin, 1981–82, 105) added during the restorations of the Harem of the Topkapı Palace and the Golden Road in the eighteenth century. In his book on the Black Sea trade, French diplomat Claude-Charles de Peyssonnel, who represented his country in Crimea in 1753, regarded Kütahya tiles and ceramics also among Crimean imported products (Carswell, 1991, 55), which strengthens the possibility that these tiles were produced in Kütahya. However, an edict in 1718 stating that the ateliers in Iznik and Kütahya had ended their operations in 1716 (Sönmez, undated, 217) decreases this possibility. It is known that in these years, tile ateliers had been established in the Tekfur Palace to revive the Turkish art of tile-making, and the production here had continued without interruption until 1735. The Iznik tiles are imitated in these tiles in terms of some of their characteristics such as type of clays, size, motif, and technique, but the colors are diffused as the glazes are too liquid (Sönmez, undated, 219). The tiles that were produced in the Tekfur Palace were ornamented as in the structures of the era, such as the III Ahmet Fountain (Yenişehirlioğlu, 2007, 350), Sultan Ahmet Mosque (Sönmez, tarihsiz, 224–225), and Abdurrahman Kethüda Sebil-Küttabi

in Cairo (Bayhan, 2002, 111). The same example of the squared tiles in terms of pattern and color was found in the wall of the Abdurrahman Kethüda Sebil-Küttâbı in Cairo, which is covered with tiles from floor to ceiling (Bayhan, 2002, 111). Based on this information, the thesis that the tiles are from the Tekfur Palace production is stronger. Although discussion regarding the production center of the tiles cannot be finalized until a certain document is found, the important point is that these tiles should be protected and transferred to future generations. The border tiles that ornament the walls of the front side of the hünkâr mahfili of the Big Khan's Mosque of the Khan's Palace are also important as they are rare examples that reflect Turkish tile art in Crimea.

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CHAPTER 9

THE GROWTH OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP BY REFUGEES IN TURKEY

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1. Introduction

Conflicts and disasters made people to leave their homes and even country for safer places. The migration takes the route between developing countries or developing to developed countries being the busiest era since the 2nd World War.

The number of international migrants is estimated to be almost 272 million globally in 2019 (3.5% of the world's population), up from 220 million in 2010 (United Nation Migration report 2020). International Organization for Migration (IOM) states that the south-south route has been utilized more than the south-north, with approximately 37 percent of all international migrants following the former, and 35 percent following the latter. In 2019, Europe and Asia each hosted around 82 million and 84 million international migrants, respectively, followed by North America, with almost 59 million international migrants in 2019 or 22 per cent of the global migrant stock, Africa at 10 percent, Latin America and the Caribbean at 4 percent, and Oceania at 3 percent (United Nation Migration Report 2020).

According to UNHCR, in June 2018, 25.1 million of all forcibly displaced people (FDP) were refugees (37 percent of all international migrants) and Turkey is the country hosting the largest refugee population with almost 4 million refugees including 3.5 million Syrians registered under Temporary Protection (UNHCR, Figures at a Glance, June, 27, 2018). Since start of war in Syria in 2011, it became the source of the largest movement of refugees, with approximately 6.3 million people having to leave their country to seek shelter.

After continuous stay in Turkey for 5 years, “Regulation on Work Permits of Foreigners under Temporary Protection” was issued to Syrian refugees in January 2016 by the Turkish Government (Regulation on Work Permit of Refugees Under Temporary Protection, January 2016). This change in regulation constituted the first solid step to refugees’ access into formal labour market, providing SuTPs (Syrians under Temporary Protection) with a regulatory framework to obtain work permits. Although, it was quite complicated to get a work permit by refugees, Syrians in Turkey did not only integrate themselves into Turkish labour market as employees, but also as employers and business owners with their refugee start-ups. Other refugees availed the facility of International Protection (IP).

Although, a great importance is attributed to economic aspects, such as the cost of welfare benefits (Kızılay, 2019) and over-gathering effects on the labour market (Ceritoğlu, Yunculer, Torn, & Tumen, 2017), during discussions about migration policy and integration, refugee entrepreneurship remains a least studied topic. This study tries to contribute to filling this gap by integrating findings from field research and knowledge of the international literature on refugee entrepreneurship and underlining its importance for integration (Bizri, 2017; Kloosterman, 2010), including studies on Syrian entrepreneurs in Lebanon (Alexandre, Salloum, & Alalam, 2019), Jordan (Refai, Haloub, & Lever, 2018), the UK (Mawson & Kasem, 2019) and Turkey (Shneikat & Alrawadieh, 2019). This Turkish case also contributes to the literature by pointing out the effects of the informal economy to debates about refugee entrepreneurship.

2. Literature Review

Entrepreneur’ is an English derivation of the French word ‘*entreprendre*’ (to undertake), leaving wide latitude for interpretation and application. The study of entrepreneurship covers a wide range of domains, including economics (incentives, markets), management (opportunity, process), sociology (influence, norms), psychology (motivation, biases), anthropology (history, culture), geography (co-location, regionalism), and law (contracts, firm structure). Thus, the study of entrepreneurship covers both processes and states of being, firms and individuals, internal organization and external environment, market motivations and extra-rational behaviour, and temporal or lifecycle dimensions.

Entrepreneurship is the process by which individuals, or a group of individuals (entrepreneurs) exploit a commercial opportunity, either by bringing a new product or process to the market, or by substantially improving an existing good, service, or method of production (Center of American Entrepreneurship

2021). Entrepreneurship is the composite of personality factors (Obschonka & Hahn, 2018), personal motivations (Mawson & Kasem, 2019; Shneikat & Alrawadieh, 2019), and personal strategies (Bizri, 2017), also underlining legal and financial barriers. Kloosterman (2010) suggests concentrating on the interaction between the individual entrepreneur and his or her legal, social and economic environment—the opportunity structure. For a start-up requires money, know-how, relations with customers and partners, and a suitable locality to combine it all.

During international migration, the individual moves out of one area called, the original location and enters a new one. The new area brings about changes in meaning and power that is, in the possibilities of action provided by all forms of capital individually embodied in the agent. The capital offers a useful framework to uncover group- and case-specific differences in how the opportunity structure is navigated Bourdieu's (1986, 2013). Similarly, economic capital of refugees in Turkey consists of money and things directly convertible to money. Their social capital consists of connections that introduce new possibilities of access to resources, consisting of strong ties (e.g., family) and weaker ties (e.g., friends and fellow countrymen-refugees). The third form is cultural capital, which for refugees (Syrians etc) incorporates a range of dimensions, including institutionalized forms such as educational certificates and diplomas, and embodied forms like tastes, skills and characters (like entrepreneurial skills or experience). It includes occupational skills, such as cooking or hairdressing, as well as communication skills, and know-how in the manufacturing of certain goods, such as soap and detergent making, shoemaking or machine moulding.

The migrant entrepreneur in using the available opportunities and forms of capital generates not only a new business enterprise but also new goods, relations, appearances, places for coming together, and intercultural communication between host and immigrant populations. The available macro-level legal-political framework and complex labour market conditions, small business and self-employment becomes a survival strategy and plays a role in reducing unemployment among immigrants while also benefitting the host economy (Carree, Congregado, Golpe, & van Stel, 2015). As mentioned, the Turkish case is important, given its features in shedding light on the effects of informality on immigrant entrepreneurship.

In the past few decades, researchers have classified migrants as entrepreneurial agents who contribute to the economies of both their home and host countries (cf. Aldrich and Waldinger 1990; Portes and Jensen 1992; Rath 2002; Waldinger 1989). However, majority of scholars have not treated

refugees as separate from migrants despite the sizable differences between these two groups. According to Wauters and Lambrecht (2006, 2008), refugee entrepreneurship should be investigated as a separate research domain for several reasons. First, refugees are more likely than migrants to have less extensive networks in their new host countries. Secondly, refugees have limited chances to return to their home countries, which hinders their ability to mobilize resources at country of origin. Thirdly, refugees experience traumatic events which normally harm their mental and psychological well-being, thus, hampering their entrepreneurial abilities.

Notwithstanding, traumatic experiences in their home countries and hostile situations in new locations, where refugees need to reconstruct their lives while overcoming various institutional barriers, they can demonstrate resilience through entrepreneurial activities (Shepherd et al. 2020). In most cases their entrepreneurial activities contribute to their host societies by offering not only economic but also various types of socio-political values. Studies have highlighted refugee entrepreneurship as a source of innovation (Betts and Bloom, 2015) which promotes the homeland's culture (Tavakoli, 2020) and fills institutional gaps within refugee camps (de la Chaux and Haugh, 2020). Refugee entrepreneurial activities are also a mechanism which help to counter xenophobia (de Mello, 2018), improve the image of refugees (Turner 2020), contribute to political activism (Lee, 2018), and enrich practices in urban areas (Harb et al., 2019).

In recent years, the 'refugee entrepreneur' has emerged as a significant factor in humanitarian, media, and academic descriptions of refugees. Mentioning refugees as 'entrepreneurs' is both the latest repetition of a humanitarian emphasis on refugee 'self-reliance', and a reflection of the changing nature of humanitarianism, which progressively promotes 'innovation' and 'resilience' among refugee populations, with re-establishing the disengaged connection between state and citizen that refugee population represents (Mark Duffield 2010). A study shows that the experience of war, migration and hardship has a positive influence on refugee entrepreneurship through facilitating increased risk-taking propensity amongst them (Killgore et al., 2008).

Various reports from Lebanon suggests that significant informal employment among refugees, combined with weekend economic activity, caused a drop in both wage levels and the labour force participation of locals, particularly women and young people (Le Borgne and Jacobs 2016). Regarding Turkey, one key report reveals a large-scale displacement of natives in the informal sector, increases informal employment for unskilled males, and net

displacement of women and the low educated from the labour market altogether (Del Carpio and Wagner 2015; Ceritoglu et al., 2017).

3. Refugees Business in Turkey

3.1. Introduction

The majority of Syrian-owned enterprises in Turkey are micro- or small-scale enterprises with limited support services such as finance, accounting, legal, and human resources. Difficulty in accessing finance was amongst the top three responses given by Syrian SMEs when listing their challenges over the next six months. This difficulty was attributed to economic fluctuations (21 percent), refusal by banks due to refugee status (19 percent), lack of knowledge of laws and regulations (19 percent), and insufficient contacts with financiers (19 percent) (İnsan Gelişme Vakfı INGEV, 2020).

In Turkey, the informal economy appears to have become the core of economic growth for most, and founding a start-up has become attractive, although hard to achieve, option for refugees with little capital, regardless of whether they are registered or not. According to the official statistics, between 2010 and 2012, 238 new firms with Syrian capital were established, increasing to 6,311 between 2013 and 2017 (Güven, Kenanoğlu, Kadkoy, & Kurt, 2018).

According to the Building Markets report, over 7,200 companies have been formally established by Syrians in Turkey by the end of May 2018. Most of the big firms are in Istanbul. The number of firms with Syrian capital registered at the Istanbul Chamber of Commerce grew from 95 in 2012 to 3,129 in 2018, with 10% having more than 500,000 TL (\$94,470) in start-up capital. Unregistered small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are estimated to be three times of this number (Palacioğlu, 2019).

Entrepreneurship in Turkey is formal as well as informal. A host country with a wide informal sector not only channels immigrant labour to informal jobs but also expands the chances of informal start-ups (Özar, 2016). Syrians, many of whom are refugees, have established over 7,000 formally registered companies in Turkey with \$380m of capital since the war began in Syria.

According to 2016 reports, there are 539,062 Syrians in Istanbul. This makes up the 17.5% of the overall Syrian population in Turkey. Syrians live in every 39 districts of Istanbul. The district of Küçükçekmece, has the highest Syrian population by 38,278 mostly due to affordable accommodation opportunities. (5% of the total Küçükçekmece population) (Erdoğan, 2017).

Table 1: Number of Syrians by Their Status

	in Turkey	Istanbul	Ratio of Istanbul to Turkey (%)
Population (2015)	78.741.053	14.657.434	18,6%
Temporary Protection	2.783.617	478.850	17,2%
Pre-registration	300.000	60.212	20,1%
Total	3.083.617	539.062	17,5%

Source: Urban Refugees from “Detachment” to “Harmonization” Report, Dec. 2016.

According to the assessment carried out by İnsan Gelişme Vakfı (İNGEV) and Save the Children, refugees are mostly less educated as they have inadequate access to education. The assessment has summarised the following:

- 73% of young Syrians were high school or lower-level education students in Syria, while only 18% continue their education in Istanbul right now.
- 35% of the interviewed youth are at least primary school graduates. It is followed by junior high school graduates by 22%.
- Among the young Syrians, 47% are working at a certain level, and 6% are looking for a job. There is a crucial indicator showing the current state of Syrian companies; only 5% of these companies have social security.
- Another critical insight for future social development is that the most desired future for youngsters is to become entrepreneurs; 26% want to have their own business, followed by being a teacher (16%).
- Both indicators show that supporting Syrian SMEs are crucial in many aspects.

Refugees are mostly involved in the following entrepreneurship, which also employed fellow refugees in areas concentrated by refugees (İNGEV):

- Restaurants
- Shops as per the needs of Syrian society
- Grocery stores
- Hairdressers and barbers
- Small clothing stores

There is no financial support to refugees to start or strengthen their businesses. Only micro-finance opportunity discovered during the research was the financial assistance provided by the International Middle East Peace and Research Center (IMPR) to Syrians who want to establish their own businesses or legalize their existing businesses. The assistance provided, which varies between 1000 to 1200 TL for the registration fees, covers the license and registration fees of these businesses and does not support rents, production costs or other business expenditures while this process takes several months.

3.2. Legal Procedures For Starting a Small Business¹

Applying to Tax Office

Documents: Tax Number Application form, rent contract, ID copy, residence document and ID copy of landlord --Apply to tax office at the same district with enterprise.

Registering to Chamber of Tradesman and Craftsman

Documents: ID copy and original, 5 photos, tax certificate, certificate of mastery -Apply to the relevant chamber.

Applying for Work Permit

Receive e-state password from a PTT branch.

Apply to work permit on www.turkiye.gov.tr .

Registering to Municipality

- Fill in the form for starting business to be given to the municipality.
- Apply to Department of License at the relevant municipality with the above documents.

Majority of the Syrian-owned businesses in Turkey are micro or small-sized enterprises. Among those surveyed by INGEV are micro-sized (less than 10 employees) represent 83 percent; small-sized (less than 50 employees) make up 15 percent of businesses; and, medium-sized (less than 250 employees) constitute the remaining 2 percent. Seventy-five per cent of Syrian enterprises state that they employ 1 to 5 Syrian employees.

¹ Information received from IMPR brochure on How to Receive Business License

Table 2: Top Business Sectors

Business Sector	% of Syrian-owned
Wholesale/retail trade	23%
Accommodation and food service activities	14%
Manufacturing	12%
Administrative and support service activities	9%

In spite of their small size and lack of access to professional financial services, Syrian enterprises have the potential for contributing to Turkey's export market. Fifteen per cent of SMEs reported importing while 42 per cent reported exporting to other countries (INGEV). This is partially due to the fact that most Syrian manufacturers have ongoing business ties with Syria, thus, their supply chains are still interact with to suppliers in Syria, or they may still possess inventory or movable assets there. It is important to note that these manufacturers are face with difficult regulatory processes that can make it difficult to move supplies across the border into Syria and Turkey. These supplies are generally comprised of raw materials, agricultural products, or inventories to be used for processing in Turkey. The final products of these processes are generally exported to other countries, mostly Syria and neighbouring countries. Therefore, the Syrian enterprises face challenges in transporting their supplies into the country, which impact the Turkey's export potential.

Syrian, entrepreneurs mainly sell to individuals/consumers and other SMEs. Additionally, 52 percent of Syrian-owned enterprises sell to Syrian buyers, while only 27 percent sell to Turkish buyers of Syrian-owned SMEs.

Table 3: Syrian Owned SMEs

Buyers	% of Syrian entrepreneurs
Individuals	75%
SMEs	45%
Microenterprises	41%
Large Enterprises	17%
Non-profit/Nongovernmental Organizations	16%
Governmental organizations	7%

Although the refugees are contributing significantly to the Turkish economy and also in the labour markets, there is a need for the government to intervene

and facilitate bureaucratic or legal processes, such as getting work permits or operating licenses, as well as reducing taxes or penalty fees. A number of regulatory issues hamper the strengthening of links between the financial institutions and Syrian enterprises in Turkey, causing Syrian entrepreneurs to limit the amount of capital for investment in Turkish markets. If the progress is made on these issues, the integration of Syrian enterprises into the Turkish banking system is likely to accelerate.

Table 4: Enterprises require necessary support by the Government

Actions Needed from the Government	% of Enterprises
Ease Bureaucratic or Legal Processes	32%
Reduce Taxes and/or Penalties	28%
Provide Financial Services or Rent Controls	19%
Provide Better Access to Information	7%
Provide Sales & Marketing Services/ Help	6%
Relax Travel Restrictions	4%
Provide Social Services Increase Awareness	3%

3.3. Challenges

Following are some of the major challenges in entrepreneurship growth:

1. Language is a barrier in sustaining the entrepreneurship (businesses) in Turkey. Most of the refugees/Syrian entrepreneurs work on the commodities to be exported to Syria to in order to overcome this difficulty partly.
2. Language barrier as an obstacle in the recruitment of Syrian youth. That is why restaurant chains are more interested in recruiting Turkish youth. They think Syrians can be made part of this sector in 5 to 10 years' time, through a Syrian generation who has Turkish proficiency. They also indicated that they do not have Syrian restaurants among their members yet.
3. Due to negative developments in Turkish economy and regressing trends, downsizing is observed, and employers want to minimize their employee costs. In line with this, youth unemployment climbed up to 24.5% locally for 15-24 years old age group (<http://www.tuik.gov.tr/HbGetirHTML.do?id=24626>).
4. Work permit issues for refugees-Restricted jobs, cost of fees and other responsibilities to employers. Moreover, Refugees banned from performing a number of jobs, namely:

- Diving, maritime navigation, working on ships, extracting wreckage, exportation of fish, other sea creatures, sand, and pebbles mining,
- Working as executive director in travel agencies
- Professional occupations: midwife, dentist, vet, career, pharmacist, optician, executive director in hospitals, judge, lawyer, prosecutor, security guard, notary, etc.

5. Conflict at the workplace between the local and refugee staff in case of employment of refugees is another issue reported by researchers. Due to distrust in foreign workers at workplaces, there may be potential conflicts between local and refugee staff.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

Refugee entrepreneurship is considered as an effective way for enhancing economic growth and on the other hand the social integration. However, in the Turkish case, we need to underline the differentiation between formal and informal immigrant entrepreneurs. Hence, relations with the state and the market are interconnected regarding integration. Informal entrepreneurs increase the informal economy and market labour force but does not seem effective in enhancing integration in terms of relations with the state. It provides informal jobs and money for the daily survival of immigrant workers. Such businesses tend to remain small, hence having a limited effect on economic and social integration.

Export-oriented Syrian enterprises have untapped potential to boost Turkey's exports and growth rate of the economy, especially if they can transfer their assets and raw materials into Turkey easily.

- Links should be established between Syrian SMEs with export potential and public and private institutions that can provide financing for export related businesses.
- Low-cost financing for transfer of Syrian entrepreneurs' production assets into Turkey should be made available.
- Connections should be made between Syrian entrepreneurs and investors (for example, angel investors or venture capital funds) to finance enterprises for expansion and potential for export-driven growth.

Support by the government to refugee entrepreneurs is not a priority in Turkey, ignoring this important segment of the economic growth and boosting the labour market. This sector is vital for increasing business/export with Syria

and other neighbouring countries, which increase the foreign reserves of the country, create jobs for refugees and also for local youth. This can be used as a channel to create linkages with business communities in the neighbouring countries and increase the local export and also to get cheaper raw materials in exchange.

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CHAPTER 10

OTHERING AND CULTURAL IDENTITY IN HANIF KUREISHI'S *THE BLACK ALBUM*

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1. Introduction

Every person is expected to get the necessary knowledge obtained through reason to go beyond the inequality of natural differences among people. So, social development is possible if there is an intellectual civilization free of prejudices and superstitions. According to Condorcet, the increasing cohesion of world culture would cause the advancement of history in order that humans would become a truly cosmopolitan whole rather than being divided into various cultural groups (Outram, 2013, p. 65). The starting of British colonialism goes back to the early 16th century to find new markets for free trade, to seize other countries' wealth, to gain supremacy over other colonial European states. (Çelikel, 2011, p. 19). Besides, Westerners take on the so-called 'civilizing mission' as a duty because they believe in their own civilization's supremacy. For this reason, Western ideology has created arbitrary borders between itself and the 'other' and has named the 'other's land as the 'Orient' and 'the land of the barbarians' (Bernasconi, 2012, p. 152). The term 'other' refers to the category of people considered as different from the dominant social group (Murfin & Ray, 2009, p. 359). In this context, the discourse of 'othering'¹ has been created especially during the colonial period and in literature. In terms of colonial studies, the term 'othering' is used in work *Orientalism* (1979) by Edward Said. Through this discourse, the East is regarded as the opposite of the

¹ The discourse of othering' in this study is retrieved from both the book chapter by Alkan, H. (2020). *The Discourse of 'Othering' in E.M. Forster's A Passage to India*. E. İslamoğlu and E. Elif (Eds.), in *Sosyal Bilimlerde Yeni Araştırmalar-IV* (p. 219-228). Ankara: Berikan Yayınevi; and the conference paper by Alkan, H. (2020). The Discourse of 'Othering' in Hanif Kureishi's *The Buddha of Suburbia*. M. Muntazır (Ed.). In *3rd International New York Conference on Evolving Trends in Interdisciplinary Research & Practices* (p. 134-140). Adıyaman: IKSAD Publishing House.

West. The East is also otherized to state the supremacy of the West's identity. According to this discourse, South Asian, East Asian and Middle Eastern cultures are regarded as underdeveloped, irrational and static as opposed to the Western cultures which are developed, rational and dynamic. Ania Loomba states that Edward Said's thesis of Orientalism is a vision of political reality that considers the binary opposition between the strange orient as the East and the familiar Europe as the West (1998, p. 47). Likewise, John McLeod says that the East is regarded as the 'other' while the West has a superior rank in Orientalism (2000, p. 41). The hegemony of the West uses orientalism to portray the East as the inferior 'other' of the West in order to strengthen the superior civilization of the West (Moore-Gilbert, 1997, p. 39). Edward Said's basic understanding of the term orientalism is expressed as follows:

Although the West uses orientalism as the discipline to learn, discover, and practise the Orient, Edward Said expresses that he has been using that word as a collection of vocabularies, images and dreams available to everyone who tries to say what lies the east of the dividing line. (1979, p. 73)

Edward Said states that the discourse of orientalism is a way of recreating the desired reality of the non-Western world: "*Western cultural institutions are responsible for the creation of those 'others', the Orientals, whose very difference from the Occident helps establish that binary opposition by which Europe's own identity can be established*" (Ashcroft & Ahluwalia, 2001, p. 63). Similarly, Elleke Boehmer argues that the European is portrayed in relation to an 'other' (2005, p. 77). In this context, colonized people are defined as less human, savage man, headless mass or less civilized in contrast to the supremacy of Europe. To establish binary distinction between the colonizer and the colonized in terms of colonial discourse, the colonized subject is described as the 'other' by the colonizer's culture (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 1998, p. 169). Therefore, to ensure the hegemony of the colonizer over the colonized people, the description of the two sides during the colonial encounter is used through discourse. John McLeod identifies the Orient's core stereotypes by saying that the Orient is strange (abnormal), timeless (backward), corrupt (untrustworthy), and feminine (submissive) which paves the way to the conclusion that the Orient needs the West to be civilized towards the higher moral ideals well-maintained in the West (2000, p. 44-6).

During the decolonization years after the Second World War, large numbers of migrants, refugees and nomadic workers look for economic opportunities,

asylum and security in European countries (Smith & Brinker-Gabler, 1997, p. 1-2). After independence, the validity of colonialism becomes a part of the identity of the post-colonial immigrant, and therefore, immigrants, who carry their colonial identity on themselves, cannot escape being foreigners in the society and culture they migrated to and are also regarded as the ‘other’ (Çelikel, 2011, p. 64). For this reason, the discourse of ‘othering’ which is produced during the colonial period maintains in the post-colonial period as it can be seen in Hanif Kureishi’s *The Black Album* (1995).

2. Method

After the colonies gain independence, especially after the Second World War when the post-colonial migration intensifies in the 1950s, many novels about migration and immigrants begin to be published. In this sense, Hanif Kureishi’s *The Black Album* provides readers to analyse the discourse of ‘othering’ in terms of religion, race and culture to establish one’s identity. Hanif Kureishi was born in London in 1954, to an English mother and a Pakistani father. He read philosophy at King’s College. He is a British playwright and novelist of English and Pakistani descent. His aforementioned novel is analysed in the light of the opinions of important social theorists such as Edward Said, Homi K. Bhabha, Gayatri C. Spivak, and Stuart Hall in terms of the discourse of ‘othering’.

Edward Said argues the discourse of ‘othering’ on binary opposition between Western and Eastern civilizations. Eastern cultures are considered as underdeveloped, irrational and static as the opposite of the Western cultures which are developed, rational and dynamic. Homi K. Bhabha deals with the discourse of ‘othering’ through the concept of ambivalence. According to Bhabha, in the process of ‘othering’ in the post-colonial period, the colonized subject rejects the situation that has grabbed her or him so that s/he is equal to the dominant subject and produces ambivalence by imitating the colonizer. Bhabha states that in the case of ambivalence, the representations of the host culture not only cause an identity crisis in the individual by otherizing the ‘other’ person but also lead her or him, who tries to avoid being otherized, into imitation (1994, p. 38). Gayatri C. Spivak draws attention to the representational problems of third world women in terms of the discourse of ‘othering’. Spivak describes the other as subordinate. According to Spivak, the racist white British subject (imperial subject), reflecting the representations of the European-colonial discourse in post-colonial England, excludes the immigrant-other described by the on-going colonial discourse from society. Spivak expresses that people can be defined only in terms of differences (1994, p. 79). Stuart Hall argues the discourse of

‘othering’ through the concepts of identity and representation. Hall states that centralist representational attitudes in metropolitan regards excluded people as the ‘other’: “*We are not only formed differently, but also the ‘other’ according to classifications reflecting Western knowledge within such regimes. They have the power to see us and experience us as the other*” (1990, p. 225). Stuart Hall expresses that this process occurs through consent.

3. Othering and Cultural Identity in *The Black Album*

Hanif Kureishi’s *The Black Album* introduces the fanatical Islamist groups of Asian origin around Shahid Hassan who comes to London to study at college from his Muslim Pakistani family, who runs a tourism agency in Kent, England. His parents do not attach much importance to follow religious rituals and to adopt Pakistani values. In fact, they ignore racial discrimination, but white British people do not consider Shahid as part of the British nation, which leaves Shahid to remain in-between spaces. Representations of cultures from outside England are mostly individuals from families from the former colonies of the empire, who were born in England but could not escape the post-colonial immigrant identity attributed by their host, and these individuals from the former colonies are now part of London because they try to find ethnic and cultural identity in British society. After his father dies from heart attack, Shahid, as the child of a Pakistani immigrant family, starts to study at a college in London. Shahid goes out to have dinner with his Pakistani friends like himself from his dormitory, and the streets of London excite him with its multiculturalism. It is a disappointment for Shahid to realize that that post-colonial London involves a crisis beneath its promising multicultural structure and rich appearance:

All the same, the different odours of Indian, Chinese, Italian and Greek food wafting from open doorways gladdened Shahid, as they had done the first time he passed them, full of anticipation and expectation, humping his suitcases. Between the restaurants, though, many of the shops had been closed down and boarded over or they’d been converted to thrift or charity shops. Shahid had considered Londoners particularly munificent, until his Pakistani landlord explained, laughing, that the origin of such shops was bankruptcy rather than virtue. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 3-4)

For Shahid, who was born and raised in Kent where his immigrant family lives, coming to London means stepping into freedom because with its multicultural structure, London offers an environment where the individual can

easily mingle with the crowds and make the differences in her or his identity more invisible. Shahid also associates London's cultural wealth with economic wealth. When he sees that serious economic depressions may occur in such a city, Shahid is disappointed that the London he dreams of is in poverty. Therefore, the Englishness that he is trying to integrate is in a state of collapse. Observing this, his uncle Asif summarizes the inverted power relationship between the colonizer and the colonized:

Mind you uncle Asif, in whose house he and Chili used to stay every winter, lying in hammocks beneath the mango trees in the courtyard and discussing which parties to attend, liked to entertain his nephews with his satirical views. He'd say that the Pakistanis in England now had to do everything, win the sports, present the news and run the shops and businesses, as well as having to fuck the women. 'Your country's gone to the wogs!' He labelled this 'the brown man's burden'. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 6)

The change in the balance of power emphasized by uncle Asif emerges as a result of the post-colonial immigrants who have been otherized by definitions such as foreigner or immigrant, starting to show their presence in social life in the post-colonial period, starting a business, and men marrying or having relationships with British women. Frantz Fanon makes the following determinations regarding the sexual desire for white women:

Out of the blackest part of my soul, across the zebra striping of my mind, surges this desire to be suddenly *white*. I wish to be acknowledged not as *black* but as *white*. Now ... who but a white woman can do this for me? By loving me she proves that I am worthy of white love. I am loved like a white man. (2008, p. 45)

According to Fanon, the way to see that post-colonial immigrants, non-European others, are valued as much as white people and gain acceptance of their own existence is to be with white women. Asif carries out his desire to be as valuable as a white person by being worthy of the love of the white woman. The way to overcome this anxiety and the colour that causes his body to be perceived as the 'other' is to have sexual relations with white women. Thus, the post-colonial immigrants are performing in the centre of the empire the same of what the British imperialists have done during the colonial period who have seized power in the colonized lands, married local women, and sought exotic pleasures in the colonial lands.

Riaz Al-Hussain is the leader of a group of Muslims at the college. When Shahid, Chad and Riaz try to get to know each, Shahid tells about his experiences in Kent, England: *“Everywhere I went I was the only dark-skinned person... How did this make people see me?... I was convinced they were full of sneering and disgust and hatred”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 10). Although Shahid is born in Kent, England, he reveals his feelings of being otherized by the British because he is from Pakistani origin. As Shahid wants a new start in a new place with new people, he thinks London *“would feel like his; he wouldn’t be excluded; there had to be ways in which he could belong”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 16). Shahid expresses how he wants to be a racist by stating his dislike of Asian girls:

Even they came on to me, I couldn’t bear it. I thought you know, wink at an Asian girl and she’ll want to marry you up. I wouldn’t touch brown flesh, except with a branding iron. I hated all foreign bastards’ ... ‘I argued ... why can’t I be a racist like everyone else?’ (Kureishi, 1995, p. 11)

In order to reinforce his desire to be a racist, Shahid states that he wants to join the British National Party. These words show that Shahid wants to be a part of British community because he feels British. The post-colonial immigrants inevitably move away from their own authenticity:

In the early morning rush, as he shoved through the turnstiles, past the two security guards who occasionally frisked students for weapons, and into the lightless basement canteen for coffee, Shahid felt more spirited than he had since starting the course. He had breakfast with two people in his class, an Asian woman in salwar kamiz and blue jean jacket, and her friend, a young black woman in baggy white dungarees, trainers and round gold spectacles. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 24)

In the practice of everyday life, the children of post-colonial immigrants, who have managed to survive in the centre of the empire in London by deciphering the cultural codes specific to the centre, reflect the cultural hybridity they live in on their clothes. By combining traditional clothing forms they have learned from their parents with clothing and accessories specific to Western culture, they hybridize both their own culture and the culture of the colonizer. The resulting inconsistency and the humorous situation created by the incongruity constitute one of the first cultural contradictions Shahid experienced in London, where he has come to seek freedom.

Deedee Osgood is a white British instructor at the college. She is married to Brownlow who is a professor at the same college. Deedee is known as a liberal postmodernist and feminist person. Her student Shahid is known as a dark-skinned Pakistani origin and a member of an Islamic group. Deedee finds out Shahid's interest in Prince when he visits her in her office. Seeing that he is looking at Prince's poster, Deedee talks about Prince: *"He's half black and half white, half man, half woman, half size, feminine but macho too. His work contains and extends the history of black American music"* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 25). Shahid likes the well sound of Prince because he considers Prince to be a river of talent who can play soul and funk and rock and rap. Thanks to the common interest in music, namely Prince as a singer with a hybrid identity, Deedee and Shahid become closer. Simon Frith states as follows:

Music is thus the cultural form best able both to cross borders – sounds carry across fences and walls and oceans, across classes, races and nations – and to define places; in clubs, scenes, and raves, listening on headphones, radio and in the concert hall, we are only where the music takes us. (1996, p. 125)

Prince's music symbolises the trends in the contemporary world because pop is represented *"as the crossroads not only of different cultural influences but as a site in which plurality of identity – whether at the level of ethnicity, class, gender or sexuality- is celebrated"* (Moore-Gilbert, 2001, p. 118). Thanks to the power of music, a relationship is established between a white British instructor and a black Pakistani student, who has ties with an Islamic group. Music enables them to overcome race and class barriers. Music takes them to a transcendental space where they can free themselves from the restrictions of practical living. For this reason, Deedee wants Shahid to prepare his term paper on Prince. During their first meeting at Deedee's house, they watch the Prince videos and this becomes the starting point of their relationship.

Shahid's elder brother Chili thinks that people are weak and lazy, but he realizes that people resist change that would improve their lives because they lack courage. Chili believes in self-help to improve, so he despises the immigrants who do not improve their lives. He also believes that one can succeed through the opportunities offered by life. The same attitude is also observed in his relation with women because he considers them as a different form of commodity: *"Chili called himself a predator. When a woman offered herself – it was the most satisfying moment. Often, it wasn't even necessary to sleep with her. A look in her eyes, of eagerness, gladness, acquiescence, was sufficient"*

(Kureishi, 1995, p. 51). Chili gives his girlfriends too much grief and respect in order to speak to them. He does not have real friends, but 'personal' friends who are usually criminals. Chili can start both any affair and any job spontaneously. His power of starting is reflected on both personal and financial affairs. Chili uses drugs and experiments with criminality. Chili's uncle Asif thinks that the problem about Chili is that the money has come too easily to him. The words of uncle Asif about their migration to England are regarded as an indication that the immigrant's indigenization cannot be completed by learning the language of his new homeland and learning to survive:

It's easy for people, especially if they're young... to forget that we've barely arrived over in England. It takes several generations to become accustomed to a place. We think we're settled down, but we're like brides who've just crossed the threshold. We have to watch ourselves, otherwise we will wake up one day to find we have made a calamitous marriage. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 54)

It reveals the complex discourses of the post-colonial individual or immigrant, who has to define herself or himself and acquires an identity within the racism and colonialism s/he is exposed to. While trying to fill the gap created by the cultural differences between their previous lives and their new lives, immigrants who have an identity crisis find themselves in two different cultural worlds that are incompatible with each other. Thanks to his family background, Shahid can embrace religious friendship and sexuality offered by his liberal instructor Deedee Osgood at the same time (Sezer, 2010, p. 46). When Deedee invites Shahid out, he has to be careful not to call her Miss because she seems tense: *"Compared to most people, it was obvious that she led an agreeable life and was probably quite frivolous. Hadn't she admitted that, saying she longed for pleasure?"* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 57). They talk about black history and contemporary culture. However, they break with conventions, cross racial and religious boundaries by getting involved in a passionate love affair. Therefore, liberalism offered by a white postmodernist instructor Deedee Osgood provides a chance to escape the absolutism of religion in his life.

At the dormitory, Shahid thinks about his childhood. He remembers that his mother acts as if racism does not exist. When his mother learns that Shahid writes a story titled 'Paki Wog Fuck Off Home' about racism at the age of fifteen, she becomes angry, telling Shahid that *"people do not want this hate in their lives"* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 73). His mother discourages him from becoming a writer. Shahid has experienced racial abuse in his childhood, but his mother

does not take it into consideration: *“Even when Shahid vomited and defecated with fear before going to school, or when he returned with cuts, bruises and his bag slashed with knives, she [his mother] behaved as if so appalling an insult couldn’t exist”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 73). Although Shahid was born in England, he has been otherized since his childhood because of his Pakistani origin and black skin. His childhood memory explains the reason why Shahid expresses above that he wants to be a racist by stating his dislike of Asian girls because he wants to be a part of British community.

Riaz’s group is formed for defending themselves against humiliation and racist attacks. To arrange for the family a Bengali estate, Riaz finds a quick solution: *“Until the family moved, he would guard the flat and seek out the culprits, along with Hat, Chad, Shahid and other boys and girls from the college”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 90). The strong solidarity within the group shows their awareness for acting together in order to decrease the negative effects of racism. Through their comradeship, the fundamentalist Muslims not only try to withstand the colonial pressure and degradation, but also satisfy their need to belong somewhere for being left out of Asians. Shahid has never been a strict follower of Islam because his father does not have strong ideas about religion. When his father is asked about his faith, he likes to say; *“yes, I have a belief [and] it’s called working until my arse aches!”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 92). When Tipoo prays in the house, his father complains about the noise during repeats of his favourite programme, ‘The World at War’. Shahid wants to befriend Riaz and Chad, Muslim students at the college, out of loneliness because he is afraid his ignorance would place him in no man’s land, but he has to know them, their past and what they hope for. Shahid wants to be with his Muslim friends because it provides him a sense of belonging to his people.

When Tahira who is one of Shahid’s Muslim friends sees that Chad opens his legs in tight trousers while sitting, she expresses the troubles of the Muslim women because of their clothes and headscarf in compliance with their religious principles:

But we women go to lot of trouble to conceal our allures. Surely you’ve heard how hard it is to wear the hijab? We are constantly mocked and reviled, as if we were the dirty ones. Yesterday, a man on the street said; this is England, not Dubai, and tried to rip my scarf off. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 105)

Although the members of the society should be able to live in accordance with their beliefs, Tahira experiences a religious discrimination. She is otherized only

because of her clothes and religious faith. She cannot protect herself against such racist attacks. Deedee tells Shahid that “*Chad has been adopted by a white couple, but his foster mother is a racist who talks about Pakis saying they have to join British society*” (Kureishi, 1995, p. 106). Growing up orphaned in England, Chad of Pakistani origin is also in search of identity. He speaks English and Urdu, but cannot speak either language as his mother tongue and he is aware that he belongs to nowhere while becoming a teenager:

When he got to be a teenager he saw he had no roots, no connections with Pakistan, couldn't even speak the language. So he went to Urdu classes. But when he tried asking for the salt in Southall everybody fell about his accent. In England white people looked at him as if he were going to steal their car or their hand bag, particularly as he dressed like a ragamuffin. But in Pakistan they looked at him even more strangely. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 107)

Immigration has caused divisions in Chad's identity. Immigrants who are forced to leave their possessions and deny their history are always rendered defenceless (Bald, 1995, p. 70). In cases where the immigrant comes from the former colony, such as Chad, immigration means not only the loss of belonging, but also the experience of racism. Chad's lack of sense of belonging, his exposure to racism places his relationship with its British hosts on an axis of two centuries of history, memories and traces of British imperialism. Born in England as an immigrant child, Chad, who has been educated and raised in England, has value judgments specific to British culture rather than the values of his parents. However, he cannot avoid being labelled 'immigrant', namely the 'other' by white British people because of the colour of his skin and sometimes the way he dresses. Although he has no knowledge of where his ancestors came from, and all his manners and culture have been shaped by the British culture in which he was born, he cannot gain acceptance as native neither in England nor in his parents' homeland. Due to its ethnic diversity, London has ceased to appear as a British city and has started to host a cultural diversity with its multicultural population belonging to different religions and different ethnic origins. Deedee narrates Shahid's radical Islamist countryman Chad's search for identity, and his language and belonging problems in England:

Trevor Buss's soul got lost in translation, as it were. Someone said he even tried the Labour Party, to try to find a place. But it was too racist and his anger was too much... Trevor Buss dressed better

than anyone and he made me tapes of music I'd never have heard.
(Kureishi, 1995, p. 107-108)

The adoptive family names him Trevor, but as a teenager searching for his own roots, he chooses the name Chad. He does not know his true identity at all. Although he has been brought up as a British teenager with his clothing, accent and habits, and he has been able to obtain opportunities that a second generation immigrant could not obtain, his colour, which makes his ethnic origin easily recognized, is enough for him to be labelled as a post-colonial immigrant by the British. Realizing the impossibility of getting rid of this labelling, Chad searches for his Muslim roots with an anti-Western discourse, and tries to find his identity by joining a radical Islamist group. It is possible to interpret the situation of Chad who is in the process of searching for identity in two phases. In the first phase, in which he acquired a new identity as Trevor Buss, he represents the indigenous people who are redefined during the colonial period, and takes an English name by redefining their ethnic origin. His education, culture, name and way of life are determined by the colonizer. Colonialism ignores the 'other' and separates it from its cultural identity. While Chad experiences these in the first phase of the identity crisis, in the second phase, the culture that is ignored during the colonial period turns into an entity in the multicultural environment of London, and this entity leads him to find his own definition of identity radically. When Deede says that Riaz has been dismissed of his parents' house for blaming his father for drinking alcohol, Shahid defends Riaz and claims that "*Riaz is one of the kindest people [and] ... an individual who's gone against the whole society*" (Kureishi, 1995, p. 109-10). This fundamentalist group emphasizes their difference from the Western ones. In this sense, the colonized judges the colonizer. Shahid does not want to leave his friends because they have something to fight for and they are his people, so he has pledged himself to them.

Being one of the postmodernist correlatives, sexuality has an important role in assaulting the fixed notions provided by the Enlightenment project. Steven Connor states that postmodernist situation owes its ambiguity to transcending sexual boundaries:

Sex has become the form and the name of transcendence. . . Sex has been subject to economic transaction, to buying and selling as a commodity, for centuries. But what seems to have come about in the last couple of decades is a situation in which sex becomes the very medium in which other exchanges take place. You do not pay for sex with money; you pay for everything in the currency of sex. (2004, p. 11)

Deedee who is a white British and married to Brownlow has extra-marital relationship with her student Shahid who is a Muslim Pakistani. Deedee is older than Shahid and she is the dominant one in their relationship. The common practice of the relationship between elder male instructors and younger female students is reversed. By subverting gender roles, they transcend gender boundaries and prove that their identities are constructed through sexuality. In their intercourse, Deedee acts like a man and Shahid welcomes her dominance when Deedee wants Shahid to wear make-up: “*She hummed and fussed over him, reddening his lips, darkening his eyelashes, applying blusher, pushing a pencil under his eye. She backcombed his hair*” (Kureishi, 1995, p. 117). Shahid gets distressed by gender switching at first but takes pleasure in the freedom it brings later because creating a new identity saves him from the burden of responsibilities:

He liked the feel of his new female face. He could be demure, flirtatious, teasing, a star; a burden went, a certain responsibility had been removed. He didn't have to take the lead. He even wondered what it might be like to go out as a woman, and be looked at differently. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 117-8)

The postmodernist mode of thinking offers the pluralities through liberalism. When Deedee wants Shahid to walk like a model, he feels the spirit of his new appearance. When Deedee turns Shahid into the object of her desire, Bradley Buhanan expresses this situation as follows:

In adopting the mindless posture of a ‘model’ Shahid has essentially been turned into a commodity for Deedee to consume and identify with, and he has lost his autonomy in precisely the same way that feminism argues that women have lost theirs when their bodies are objectified by men. This scene also carries unpleasant overtones of Edward Said's theory of Orientalism, which describes the process whereby Asian male bodies are seen as feminine, perverse and abjectly animalistic. (2007, p. 63)

In the same way, Deedee objectifies herself as a sexual commodity for Shahid's gaze because she tears an open condom, rolls the rubber on to a finger and anoints it with KY, and masturbates to please Shahid. It reveals that the previous experience of Shahid's putting on make-up is not a kind of oppression but exchange of pleasures. They do not strict themselves within the boundaries of traditional understanding of sexuality and gender.

The leader Riaz and the group members bring forward their identity through religion. They formulate a Muslim identity to be freed from the humiliating label of being called a Paki as Chad shouts out, they want to be called “*no more Paki [but] a Muslim*” (Kureishi, 1995, p. 128). They engage with Islam that provides a unified self. The mosque is the place where various strata of society come together by destroying hierarchies of race and class:

Here race and class barriers had been suspended. There were businessmen in expensive suits, others in London Underground and Post Office uniforms; bowed old men in salwar kamiz fiddled with beads. Chic lads with ponytails, working in computers, exchanged business cards with young men in suits. Forty Ethiopians sat to the side of one room, addressed by one of their robes. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 132)

As an instructor, Deedee deliberately chooses novels from Black and Women’s writing as well as popular genres for her courses to show historical links between metropolitan ‘high’ culture and imperialism. However, Shahid criticises the way Deedee suggests novels because he thinks that she should not be the one to shape people’s tastes: “*It wasn’t pleasure telling people that culture would benefit them, particularly if they couldn’t see what it was for. As it was, they were constantly being informed of their inferiority*” (Kureishi, 1995, p. 134). Seeing that Deedee imposes contemporary literature on her black students, Shahid considers it a kind of humiliation, implying that black students cannot understand high literature. Instead of being educated through postmodernist works reminding him of his otherized situation, Shahid wants to be educated through canonical works like the white students at other colleges. Kenneth C. Kaleta states that “*Shadid is the student who must question his teacher, the younger brother who must assert his identity, the son who must go his own way*” (1998, p. 137).

Islam shows solidarity in overcoming race and class barriers. The immigrants maintain their lives in the suburbs with low standards while the British lead more privileged lives:

Surely these people [the British] had just enough to make their lives bearable? None of them was starving. They were not peasants. But in this place there was no God, political belief or spiritual sustenance. What government or party believed that these people mattered? Any available work was the meanest kind. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 136)

Shahid thinks that the dwellers need to be educated in order to make their lives bearable. As he feels responsible for his people, Shahid decides to talk about it with Riaz. When immigrants who maintain their lives in lower conditions are attacked by racist British people, Riaz and Shahid decide to protect these immigrants and take turns in living with them. During one of the monitoring, Chad, Tahira and Shahid hear a brick being hurled at the window. When they go outside, they see that it is a woman with her two children reproaching them: *“Paki! Paki! Paki! ... You stolen our jobs! Taken our housing! Paki got everything! Give it back and go home!”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 139). After the woman cries out her hatred and spiteful manner, she and her children run away. The British people fear to experience the replacement of the colonizer with the colonized.

When a novel that is considered to be blasphemous is published, it antagonizes the fundamentalist group and many Muslims worldwide. A fatwa is declared about allowing its author’s death penalty. Shahid believes in freedom of speech because he also actively involves in literature not only as a reader but also as a writer. Therefore, he cannot understand the reason why a person should be killed because of expressing one’s thoughts through a novel. Shahid tells Riaz that the idea of killing a man for writing a book *“makes [him] feel a little sick”* (Kureishi, 1995, p. 172). Shahid asks the group to oppose fatwa and respect literature as it is. At last, Riaz decide to arrange the novel burning exhibition at the college.

Chili only cares about respect and useful contacts around. In Chili’s hands are his car keys, sunglasses of Ray-Bans, and a cigarette box of Marlboro. Chili aims to attract people and gain respect through what he possesses such as various suits for each season, cashmere coats, sunglasses, electronic devices, and colognes. Chili tells Shahid the reason why he does not want to do the family business because of his hatred towards the Pakistanis:

You see them, our people, the Pakis, in their dirty shops, surly, humourless, their fat sons and ugly daughters watching you, taking the money. The prices are extortionate, because they open all hours. The new Jews, everyone hates them. In a few years the kids will kick their parents in the teeth. Sitting in some crummy shop, it won’t be enough for them. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 201)

Chili blames his people for not having decent lives. He does not want to work for the family business in order not to have contact with Pakistanis who do not

improve their lives. Chili who has married his cousin Zulma at the age of twenty moves away to a flat in Brighton.

Deedee's husband Brownlow is from upper-middle class and a Marxist type. He is a professor at the same college. Brownlow has a close relationship with the fundamentalists and supports the novel burners because he thinks that freedom of speech reinforces the power of liberals. He tells Shahid his ideas: "*If only- if only this were merely a book matter but you don't believe the liberals – who are working for themselves up into a pompous lather – are fighting for literary freedom, do you?*" (Kureishi, 1995, p. 215). Brownlow thinks that the liberals are the weakest people and they shit their pants when their power is threatened. Although Brownlow seems to support anti-racism and to hate imperialist fascism and white domination by being on the side of the oppressed immigrants, he is only after gaining political popularity. During the novel burning exhibition at the college, the white liberal postmodernist Deedee criticizes the fundamentalists because they try to burn the novel that they have not read. When they burn the novel, Deedee calls the police in order to have Riaz and Chad arrested. The group members consider Deedee's reaction as a very hypocritical act because although Deedee claims to be against authority, "*she turned the British state on [them]*" (Kureishi, 1995, p. 228). Being against any authority, Deedee seeks the help of the police to protect the freedom of speech.

It is difficult for Shahid to fully embrace his religious belief. In order to decide where he belongs, Shahid discuss it with his friend Hat who points out as follows: "*But our religion isn't something you can test out, like trying out a suit to see if it fit! You got to buy the whole outfit!*" (Kureishi, 1995, p. 235). When Shahid observes the fundamentalists burning a novel that is considered to be blasphemous and their attaching significance to an aubergine, he feels estranged from the group, so he chooses Deedee over Riaz. Furthermore, he questions his engagement with the fundamentalists:

How could anyone confine themselves to one system or creed? Why should they feel they had to? There was no fixed self; surely our several selves melted and mutated daily? There had to be innumerable ways of being in the world. (Kureishi, 1995, p. 274)

Shahid has a dilemma between liberalism offered by Deedee, and the sense of belonging provided by the fundamentalist group. Chili rescues his brother Shahid when his fundamentalist former friends attack him. Shahid runs away from London with Deedee. Shahid leaves the otherized group and chooses to

have a western style of life with Deedee because his western identity surpasses his eastern side.

4. Conclusion

Although leader Riaz and Chad, who prove how they can help each other through solidarity, are otherized by portraying binary opposition of different, savage, and fundamentalist, as Edward Said points out, because they burn a novel that is considered to be blasphemous and they attach significance to an aubergine. As Homi Bhabha points out, by acting like white Englishmen, Shahid tries to be a philosopher, and Chili tries to be a businessman in order to escape the exclusionary attitudes, inferiority complex and identity crisis they have suffered in multicultural British society. Nevertheless, all their imitative efforts do not save them from being otherized in post-colonial England because, as Bhabha emphasizes, the attitude against the 'other' identity and the discourse of the 'othering' are still alive in the post-colonial space and reproduced as a reflection of western thought. Tahira reflects both third world female identity and Eastern and the other representations, as Gayatri C. Spivak points out, she struggles to speak out against the social norms imposed on her, and gains awareness of the conditions in which she is the other in the post-colonial space because as a woman she wears the hijab to conceal her allure, but is constantly mocked and reviled as if she is the dirty one. She is otherized only because of her clothes and religious faith. Uncle Asif accepts the definition of the exotic eastern imposed on him by the English middle-class white identity. Although he desires to have sexual relations with white women in order to overcome the anxiety of the colour that causes his body to be perceived as the 'other', he takes place in the society by internalizing the 'other' and 'mysterious' qualities expected of him through consent, as Stuart Hall points out. However, uncle Asif cannot escape being otherized due to his colour, race, class, and culture.

Representations of cultures from outside England are mostly individuals from families from the former colonies of the empire, who were born in England but could not escape the post-colonial immigrant identity attributed by their host, and these individuals from the former colonies are now part of London because they try to find ethnic and cultural identity in British society. In terms of the discourse of 'othering', the second generation representations, reflecting the multicultural society, also face identity confusion due to the 'othering' and exclusionary attitudes directed at them, and they have difficulty in reconciling the two cultures, East and West, they carried. Hanif Kureishi criticizes racism,

fundamentalism, Marxism and even liberalism because everybody can become hypocritical to bring forward their thoughts and live on principles they favour. Kureishi does not prefer one side to the other side.

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CHAPTER 11

USING ANTI-SEMITIC DISCOURSE FOR SHAPING SHARED IDENTITY IN AUTOCRATIC REGIMES

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1. Introduction

The first two decades of the 21st Century have been witnessing the resurrection of domination of the electoral autocracies around the world. China's continuous economic growth has led many countries to realize that democracy is not indispensable for the development. Within this context, a period has distinguished itself by charismatic leaders who took populist nationalism as their guide to become stronger on a national and international scale. In this period, the more swiftly the number of electoral autocracies increased, the more discourses they developed became decisive. In addition, while electoral autocracies used the opportunities provided by modern democratic liberal institutions during this period, which increased their power especially after World War II, to gain an advantage for themselves, they also weakened these institutions. This shows that democratization with its increased effects all around the world since the 1970s, entered a period of stagnation and weakening. The decreased popular support makes regimes develop high-risk strategies (Rosenfeld, 2018: 382). This leads electoral autocracies to weaken democratic institutions because, when compared with both democracies and autocracies, semi-democracies are less durable by nature (Knutsen and Nygård, 2015: 668). This causes semi-democracies to turn into electoral autocracies. The transformation of Russia into an autocratic regime having made a remarkable effort to develop democratic institutions after 1991 as well as China, which accelerated its economic growth, has become so effective that it determines the political trends in the world. This impact resulted in populist nationalism becoming widespread in the entire the world.

The increased number of regimes that do not accept the essential principles of democracy and develop unlawful practices for the public living in the geographical areas they dominate has reached a dimension threatening world peace and security. These regimes, which can be identified as electoral autocracies, are based on a charismatic leader cult. These electoral autocrats who are represented most perfectly by leaders such as Vladimir Putin in Russia, Jair Bolsonaro in Brazil, and Viktor Orbán in Hungary, make their sovereignty permanent by making unlimited use of public resources by a certain ruling elite. The society's consent to the unlimited use of all of the public resources by a certain ruling elite is achieved with the production of artificial and imaginary enemies through conspiracy theories under the domination of a patrimonial state. The anti-Semitic discourse is widely used by electoral autocrats to continuously generate this consent. Similar examples of Nazis' effective use of anti-Semitic discourse to disable the 'check and balance' system that is indispensable for democratic regimes for the unlimited use of executive power can be seen in the electoral autocracies that became widespread in the first quarter of the twentieth century. Electoral autocracies bear a peril that charismatic leader figures who undertake the main task of protecting the public against artificial and imaginary enemies, weaken all of the democratic institutions for their own personal interests systematically by using the power of the state in an unlimited manner.

2. Anti-Semitic discourse as an Authoritarians' apparatus

Populist leaders try to acquire political legitimacy in electoral autocracies by defining people and emphasizing a particular ethnic and religious character. In order to achieve this, some citizens must be demonized. The notion of citizenship that has been institutionalized in modern liberal democracies is weakened in this way. Populist leaders can provide legitimacy and consent for their hostile practices against other citizens with a discourse by which a certain segment of citizens is privileged to dominate in politics. For this reason, the impartial and non-political bureaucracy is weakened and constructed again in a way to serve the interests of a certain segment of the public. In a regime in which a charismatic populist leader is related to the people directly, the entire system is made subject to only the arbitrary and unlimited choices of the ruling elite, not to institutions and rules. The independence of institutions that can balance state power -especially the rule of law- must be weakened for the ruling elite dependent on the elected charismatic leader to make arbitrary and unlimited choices. In this way, 'politics of security', which was introduced instead of 'politics of

prosperity', was made to become the main guide of political decision-making processes, and legitimacy and consent were sought for all kinds of practices and preferences of the ruling elite. To do this, all kinds of tools especially the media must be used effectively - and without any limits - to manipulate the society.

Huntington (1991: 12-34) argues that 'democracy's third wave' of Soviet Bloc that happened in the 1970s and 1980s tended to accelerate and continue. In fact, 'democracy's third wave' has been promising for the spread of inclusive institutions around the world. The 'democracy's third wave' accelerated democratization processes in the last decade of the 20th century. Although Fukuyama (1989: 3) gave the good news that humanity had the opportunity to reach the last point of history by establishing Western liberalism which is the most ideal regime of humanity, in the entire world, Krauthammer (1990/1991: 23-24) argued that the transition from a 'multipolar' world to a 'unipolar' post-cold war period would make the United States become absolutely sovereign. It might be assumed that this would make democratization processes inevitable. However, it is observed in the last period that the 'democracy's third wave' has become ineffective against the development and spread of autocracies. The fact that political movements that want to legitimize their sovereignty by using xenophobic, right-wing extremism, anti-immigrant, and anti-Semitic (or anti-Jewish) discourses in the entire world have become effective shows that the 'democracy's third wave' has lost its effects in this regard.

There are various associations between the incidence and strengthening of autocratic regimes and the emergence of anti-Semitism in political and everyday discourses. Because electoral autocrats use the conspiracy theories blended with anti-Semitism as an apparatus effectively to enable them to manipulate the people. Electoral autocrats necessitate artificial threats to justify their domination over politics and society. The sense of reality is weakened in electoral autocracies creating a designed aura. By doing so, the society is made to demand security to be protected from the threats to its existence from the ruling elite rather than to obtain welfare. Anti-Semitic discourse enables electoral autocrats maintain their sovereignty over politics and society by continuously producing artificial threats that cannot be seen and can destroy the existence of the nation. To do this, the media must be used without any limits as an ideological apparatus of the state. Also, the rule of law and independent judiciary, which may prevent the use of anti-Semitic discourse, must be disabled and the executive power must be kept under absolute control. By doing so, the charismatic leader and the ruling elite will have the opportunity to use all the means of the state for their own personal interests by using the power without any limits.

3. Using enemy for shaping “We”

In the civilized world, strong reactions were shown against anti-Semitic discourse (Lewis, 1986: 29). However, anti-Semitic discourse often tries to acquire legitimacy by presenting itself as anti-Zionist. Often, Progressive politics criticizes Zionism for being racist in this respect (Rosenfeld, 2006: 25). However, anti-Zionism can also be described as a kind of new anti-Semitism. It is also possible to consider the anti-Zionist discourse as a step ensuring the continuity of anti-Semitism in the historical process (Gakunzi²⁰¹⁷: 46). Also, political actors may present their anti-Semitic discourses to the people as anti-Jewish because they are afraid of being accused of racism. However, setting a side all differences, anti-Semitic, anti-Zionist, and anti-Jewish discourses are used as extremely useful ideological apparatuses for all electoral autocracies that are spread across the globe. Because, extractive institutions become decisive in politics and in economy as xenophobic and autocratic political actors make a ruling elite that is loyal to the cult of personality as the user of all kinds of power. As a result, the fast weakening of inclusive institutions makes economic development become impossible. Because individuals cannot show the ability to engage in creative destruction and cannot be sure that the acquisition of property by working will remain theirs in the absence of inclusive economic institutions.

For this reason, the potential of individuals and institutions in generating welfare weakens in electoral autocracies, which leads to the emergence of factors that will lead to the weakening of the middle class. Therefore, anti-Semitic discourse is used as manipulation apparatus to make the corruption and political decay caused by the ruling elite and extractive economic institutions become dominant in electoral autocracies. As a result of impoverishment by the corruption caused by the political elite, people begin to shape their identity with vulnerability, injustice, distrust, and helplessness feelings. People search for the source of the ‘victimhood’ they experience in such conditions dominated by these feelings. As an effective apparatus, ruling elite uses the media effectively to create an invisible danger as the account of victimhood. In this way, the ruling elite has the opportunity to exploit its own society through the extractive institutions it has made effective without limits.

Anti-Semitic literature in Europe shows that the danger of a foreign element controlling the financial power will determine the fate of the nations is emphasized continuously (Lewis, 1986: 172). The autocratic leader positions the himself/herself at the centre of politics as the protector of society against this danger in electoral autocracies based on authoritarian personality. When the assumption that society has superiority is developed consistently, the charismatic

leader is portrayed as a figure protecting the society against constantly attacking external enemies. After authoritarian figures increase their manipulative activities in politics, the rise of nationalist populism becomes an indicator of the crisis of democracy on a global scale. Charismatic leaders who claim that they are directly connected to the public tend to weaken democratic institutions. Charismatic leaders use dangers and threats that they think are permanent to obtain the necessary consent in the society to weaken democratic institutions. In this way, they can permanently gain consent and legitimacy as they expand the field of use of force against democratic institutions. The portrayal of the media, the courts, and the legislature as the obstacles that stand on the way of the authoritarian leader who claims that s/he aims to protect people from enemies also generates consent for the unlimited use of executive power. The emancipatory qualities of democracy are designed to limit the use of executive power. Charismatic leaders who use the power in a way to enable the state to acquire patrimonial characteristics, increase their power by weakening democratic checks and balances. The conspiracy theories they prefer to use for this and anti-Semitic discourse serve as the tools that provide consent for the arbitrary use of power. Democracy is not only the determination of executive power via general elections. Democratic constitutions ensure that the limits of executive power are determined in a way that protects the rights of minorities. In this way, the unlimited use of power by the majority over the minorities can be avoided. The weakening of all institutions which, in turn, limit the executive power in the patrimonial state in favour of the charismatic leader, weakens the libertarian qualities of democracy. The common identity is shaped around radical nationalist features under the sovereignty of the patrimonial state, and the existence of a power centre that poses a danger to the public's consent to weaken the libertarian qualities of democracy is emphasized. The most typical example to this is that the Nazis failed to take the consent of the German people consent to any excesses of the executive power by showing the Jews as the main danger.

4. Conclusion

The anti-Semitic discourse in Europe was shaped in the period between 1879 and 1939, and was then fed by religious, economic, racist and political sources (Brustein, 2003: 337). It was seen that electoral autocracies gained strength after the Cold War, and anti-Semitic discourse became widespread again (Gerstenfeld, 2017: 104). Also, there is a lot of evidence that anti-Israelism is spreading rapidly as a new mutation of anti-Semitism. This is the result of the ruling elite

in electoral autocracies that requires an artificial and imaginary enemy to gain popular consent. Because the democratic institutions ensuring the functioning of the 'check and balance system' that must exist among the legislative, executive, and judicial powers that make up the state are rapidly weakened by the ruling elite. The state which creates and uses power must be limited by legislative power and judicial power in an effectively functioning democracy. However, legislative power and judicial power are used as apparatus of the executive in electoral autocracies which have the quality of being a patrimonial state. The reason behind it is that although the modern liberal state is a mechanism that operates for the public interest, electoral autocracies are structured to serve the interests of a certain oligarchy that clusters around the charismatic leader. The ruling in electoral autocracies, which has a family-based quality, requires the inactivation of the judicial power because the activities of the elite lead to corruption. For this reason, a perception is established in which the attempts of the judicial power to limit the ruling elite pose a threat to the security of the country by showing the charismatic leader's personal interests as public's. However, judicial power minimizes corruption and ensures that the state provides the highest quality services to everyone without any discrimination among citizens in modern liberal democracies. Also, the 'rule of law' is disabled to ensure that public resources are used to increase the sovereignty of the autocrats in electoral autocracies. Electoral autocracies cannot survive in conditions where no one can be above the law. It is an effective political tool to obtain the consent of the public by producing an artificial and imaginary enemy to override the rule of law of the autocrat leader. In this respect, the continuous production and dissemination of anti-Semitic discourse by using monopoly media emerges as the easiest and most functional method.

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CHAPTER 12

RETHINKING THE LEGISLATIVE ROLE(S) OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT IN THE POST-LISBON PERIOD

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1. Introduction

The European Union (EU) currently faces a variety of crises, ranging from financial to political and social, all of which are affecting not only European economic governance, but also the integration process and the nature of inter-institutional relations. The 2007 Lisbon Treaty, which was put into practice in response to citizens' demands and to meet future challenges, brought about changes in the balance of power among EU member states and interinstitutional relations, and while it set the process of European integration along intergovernmental lines, there are increasing disparities among the member states.

Developments since 2015 have increased the difficulties facing the EU in the post-Lisbon period. Amongst others, the migration crisis, the struggle with terrorism, the rise of radical right populism, and Euro-skepticism all challenge EU solidarity and governance. The current COVID-19 crisis has also revealed a deficiency in solidarity among the member states. The European integration process has always had its ups and downs, and been full of crises in its evolution (Dinan, Nugent and Paterson, 2017), but these recent challenges have made the EU's relations with its citizens more complex, furthering never-ending discussions on the 'democratic deficit' and legitimacy of the EU.

As the only directly elected European institution, the European Parliament (EP) has always been at the very center of discussions on the 'democratic deficit' within the EU. On the one hand, the EP had its powers and competences strengthened by the Lisbon Treaty, while on the other, the above-mentioned crises have tended to reduce the institution's involvement in key policy areas (Schweiger, 2016). In this crisis context, the EU's capacity to satisfy its citizens'

needs and expectations has decreased, leading to decline in people's support for solidarity and burdensharing, a discourse which, in turn, has undoubtedly helped the rise of radical right and populist parties. Thus, with the escalation of crises, people's sceptic attitudes towards supranational institutions place EU institutions under scrutiny.

This paper aims to focus on the legislative role(s) of the EP in the post-Lisbon period. Historically, the EP was not given any legislative or budgetary powers, but throughout the European integration project as the political system has undergone a gradual process of parliamentarization, the result has been greater EP empowerment. This has attracted interest from many scholars, and major studies have been done on the powers and organization of the Parliament as well as its members and its relations with other EU institutions. However, significantly, as the EU enters a new age of governance, and citizens' demands for democratic accountability and transparency grow louder, the legislative role(s) of the EP in the post-Lisbon period are worth re-examining.

2. Empowerment of the EP from the Historical Perspective

Empowerment of the EP has taken place gradually during the European integration process, as it evolved from an advisory body to a permanent institution with extensive powers of decision-making and control. Initially, the EP contributed to what was then the EC's legislature only in a consultative capacity, that is, with 'advisory and supervisory' powers in the Community legislation. However, during the integration process, the Parliament's involvement in the legislative process underwent far-reaching changes with the Single European Act (SEA) and the Treaty of Maastricht (TEU) and further treaty revisions. The SEA, by introducing the 'co-operation procedure', increased cases in which the Council had to consult the Parliament before adopting an act, and the later TEU provided for the 'co-decision procedure'. Thus, the Parliament became a co-legislative rather than a purely consultative body, with four different legislative procedures, namely consultation, co-operation, co-decision, and assent.

2.1. The Consultation Procedure

Initially, the EP was one of four core institutions at the establishment of the Communities and was thereafter referred to as the 'European Parliamentary Assembly'. With a change in name later, it gained its current official title; 'the European Parliament'. Although referred to as such, the EP was not a parliament in the traditional sense, as it possessed no direct legislative powers (Parry and

Hardy, 1973). Nevertheless, it was consulted on certain matters—in practice, on most matters—by the Commission, as the Commission was alone responsible to this body (Article 144 EEC, Rome Treaty). The EP's 'advisory and supervisory' powers described in the founding treaties were strengthened with new powers in the budgetary and legislative sphere, indicating the increased supranationality of the European Union and its efforts to reduce its 'democratic deficit'

The evolution of the EP's legislative powers may be discussed with respect to the above-mentioned four legislative procedures. The consultation procedure was the earliest and gave the EP a guaranteed role in the enactment of legislation. Under the EEC and EURATOM Treaties, the Parliament was allowed to participate in legislative procedures. By means of the twenty-two Articles in the EEC Treaty and eleven Articles in EURATOM Treaty provisions, the Council was obliged to consult the EP on EC proposals before their adoption, without setting a deadline for its opinion (Rome (EEC) Treaty, 1957; EC, 1978).

The consultation procedure was initiated with the Commission's proposal for a piece of legislation on which the Parliament was consulted, and ended with the Council's taking the final decision. The Council reviewed the opinion of the Parliament, but was not bound by that opinion, but by a qualified majority or unanimity on the Council itself (Article 137, Rome (EEC) Treaty, 1957). If the consultation of the Parliament was mandated by Treaty provisions, it had to be strictly complied with. In practice, work on a Commission proposal began immediately within the Council bodies, without waiting for the Parliament's opinion, but the final decision could not be taken until the opinion was received and considered by the Council. It should also be mentioned that in this case, that is, when consulting with Parliament constituted an 'essential procedural requirement', failure of the Council to comply constituted a ground for annulment of the act by the Court of Justice (Mathijssen, 1995: 30).

In addition, the EP's consultation procedure was maximized over time through 'voluntary consultations', which envisaged the extension of the procedure to all areas of important problems that did not specifically necessitate the consultation of Parliament under Treaty provisions (Corbett, Jacobs and Shackleton, 1995: 191). In these cases, unlike in compulsory consultations, not consulting the Parliament would not result in annulment of the act. Moreover, the procedure was further extended without defining new limits of consultation, and the Council consulted Parliament on all-legislative proposals referred to it except those of a purely technical or temporary nature.

The quality of the consultation procedure was further improved through the Council's informing the Parliament, in writing or orally, of the reasons for

its departing from the latter's opinion when it did so in adopting Community legislation. Moreover, it was agreed by the Commission and Council that reconsultation may be required if the Commission amended its proposal, or the Council intended to exercise its power of amendment that would result in considerable changes in the substance of the text on which the Parliament had delivered its opinion (Corbett, Jacobs and Shackleton, 1995).

Another improvement in the consultation procedure was the introduction of the conciliation procedure. This was established to provide an opportunity for the Parliament and the Council to reach a compromise in certain cases where the Council intended to depart from the opinion adopted by the Parliament (OJ, C 89, 1975). Negotiations were to be normally completed within three months. However, even with conciliation if no agreement could be arrived at, the Council had the power to adopt the relevant piece of legislation. Although not promising in this sense, there were some successful conciliations, as mentioned by Corbett, Jacobs and Shackleton (1995), such as those on the Financial Regulation in 1977, the Food Aid Regulation adopted in 1986, the New Community Instrument Regulation of March 1987, etc. In sum, even though the consultation procedure was significant in that it was the first role given to the Parliament in participating in the legislative process of the Community, it was far from providing it with a direct effect on the legislative process.

2.2. The Co-operation Procedure

The SEA introduced the co-operation procedure into the Treaty in 1987, and this involved a much stronger role for the Parliament in the decision-making process. However, although this procedure covered about one third of the legislation the Parliament considered, the Treaty of Amsterdam in 1997 made a radical change to the co-operation procedure by upgrading all the legal bases utilizing it to 'co-decision' (Weatherill and Beaumont, 1999: 120). Via this Treaty, the co-operation procedure was effectively eliminated (Amsterdam Treaty, 1997). Its scope was so narrowed through shifting almost all of its provisions into the co-decision procedure that it has since become a procedure that has lost most of its practicality (Borchardt, 2000: 74).

Compared to the consultation procedure, the co-operation procedure was rather more complicated in that it involved two readings. The first was the same as the simple consultation procedure: Initiated by a Commission proposal, followed by a Parliament opinion and concluded with the final decision by the Council (Borchardt, 2000: 75). However, in this procedure, unlike in the consultation procedure, the Council decision was not regarded as

final, but as a 'common position' to be returned to the Parliament for a second reading.

In the second reading of the co-operation procedure, the Parliament having the Council's 'common position', along with all the reasons underlying it, had a three-month deadline in which to choose from among three options. The first meant the Parliament could explicitly approve the text through voting, or implicitly approve it by keeping silent during the three-month period. The second meant the Parliament could reject the text in totality. By doing so, the legislation was not discarded, but the Council was placed in a very difficult position because of difficulty in maintaining the unanimity necessary for the enactment of legislation in the event of rejection by the Parliament (Maurer, 2003: 231). The third and last option was that Parliament might propose amendments to the common position. In this case, the common position went back to the Commission, and the Commission was required to re-examine, within a month, the proposal based on the views of the amendments of the Parliament. The Commission had the legal right to accept or ignore the Parliament's amendments. The re-examined proposal was finally sent back to the Council, which could adopt it by a qualified majority (QMV) or amend it by unanimity (Maurer, 2003: 231).

The co-operation procedure, despite rare application due to its narrowed scope and failure in eliminating the Council's power of final decision, was a significant step in enhancing the influence of the EP on the Community's legislative process in the 1980s. Thus, in the 1980s, it was the Single Market project that provided for acceptance of the expansion of the QMV under the SEA which paved the way to increasing the legislative role of the EP through the co-operation procedure (Shackleton, 2017: 194)

2.3. The Co-decision Procedure

Concerning the EP's legislative role(s), one of the most significant changes occurred when the Treaty of Maastricht introduced the 'co-decision procedure' (TEU, 1992). The essence of co-decision is the interplay between the Council and the Parliament via negotiation of compromises that is comparable to that of the two chambers of certain national parliaments (Maurer, 2003: 234).

According to Mathijsen (1995: 31), the co-decision procedure can best be described and summarized based on three classical phases, namely the Commission proposal, the role of Parliament and the Council decision. The first phase is the same as the first reading of the co-operation procedure, as outlined above. Concerning the second phase, the EP has four options, one of which it must choose within three

months. It may (1) approve, after which the common position that is adopted as an act by the Council, (2) abstain, after which the Council adopts the act in accordance with the common position, (3) indicate its intention to reject the act, or (4) propose amendments. In the third phase, the Council takes its final decision based on three possibilities: approval of the amendments by a qualified majority within three months, modification of its common position and adoption of the act, or securing agreement on a joint text through the Conciliation Committee and in the presence of the Commission, following which the two institutions must adopt the joint text in six weeks (Mathijsen, 1995: 31-33). Failure of one of them to do so results in the act not being adopted. If the Conciliation Committee cannot come to agreement on a joint text, the Council may confirm the common position, possibly with amendments proposed by Parliament, as the third and last possibility (Mathijsen, 1995: 32).

The co-decision procedure has rather a lengthy and complicated procedure compared to the others, in which the Parliament had three opportunities to prevent initial adoption of an act. This signifies strengthening of the legislative role of the Parliament in the legislative process. In addition, this procedure is more significant for the Parliament's participation in the law-making process in that with this procedure the Parliament gains the opportunity to come to decision on a joint text with the Council. In fact, this is what is really meant by the 'co-decision' procedure. Thus, this procedure may also be read as a considerable step forward in the democratic legitimacy of the EU itself.

Although the co-decision procedure began to operate in relatively limited fields, the scope of application was extended significantly by the Amsterdam Treaty, which constituted an important range of legislative matters ranging from internal market to free movement of people, social security and health and safety at work (Weatherill and Beaumont, 1999: 139). In these areas, the EP was a major player in the legislative process and laws could not be passed without its approval. That is to say, while the cases in which this procedure was provided were both limited and incomplete at the end of 1992, the Amsterdam Treaty provided for the possibility of widening the scope of the co-decision procedure after 1996, and increased to a certain extent the involvement of Parliament in the legislative process. With the co-decision procedure, the Council began sharing the act of legislating with the Parliament, so it constituted an important, if limited, step on the road to increasing the influence of the Parliament on the legislative process of the Union.

2.4. *The Assent Procedure*

The assent procedure was introduced by the SEA and extended by the Treaty on European Union (TEU). Under this procedure, the Council acts on a proposal by the Commission after getting the assent of the Parliament. It is thus politically significant in that it is an example of pure co-decision in which the act in question can only be adopted if both the Parliament and the Council approve it (Wyatt and Dashwood, 1993: 47).

In the SEA, the assent procedure as the main form of parliamentary involvement in the legislative process was introduced in two areas only, namely, in the establishment and amendments of association relations with non-EU countries and for the accession of new Member States (OJ L 169, SEA, 1987). The significant outcomes of this legislative role for the Parliament were initially seen in the negotiations for the accession of EFTA countries, Austria, Sweden, Finland and Norway. It should also be pointed out that the assent procedure was used for a substantial number of association agreements with third countries or groups of countries.

The TEU extended the assent procedure to further categories of international agreements, and to the definition of tasks, objectives, methods of organization and co-ordination of structural funds etc. (Corbett, Jacobs and Shackleton, 1995). In this way, the Parliament's role in the approval of international agreements was considerably strengthened and the legislative sphere of the procedure was extended.

The last point concerning the assent procedure is that while it contains no conciliation aspect according to the EC Treaty, in practice, the Council may sometimes resort to conciliation by setting up a committee within the procedure. The assent procedure was thus an important cornerstone in integrating the EP as a more powerful institutional body into the legislative process of the European Union because it was the only procedure that allowed a proposal to be enacted with the approval of both the Council and the Parliament. However, it was still insufficient in that it had a limited scope of application.

3. The Legislative Role(s) of the EP under the Treaty of Lisbon

The historical evolution of the empowerment of the EP reveals that the body has increased its power gradually, and transformed itself from a mere consultative body into a significant co-decision institution. Various powers of the EP were increased with the Lisbon Treaty, among which are appointment roles related to giving consent to the appointment of the Commission, approval of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy and the

other members of the Commission (Article 17.7 TEU) (Lisbon Treaty, 2007). Also provided for by the Lisbon Treaty were EP authority to elect the European Ombudsman, and to give consent to the conclusion of international agreements (Article 218.6 TFEU). In addition, with respect to the members of the EP (MEPs), their representative role was stressed with a focus on the wording ‘representatives of the Union’s citizens’ (Article 14.2 TEU). The assent procedure still exists as ‘consent’, and the consultation procedure remains intact. Alongside these assent, appointment and budgetary roles, the legislative roles of the EP under the Treaty of Lisbon are indicated as the main channels that further the empowerment of the EP as a supranational institution.

Upon reiteration of the democratic principles in its Preamble, the Lisbon Treaty strengthened the legislative role(s) of the EP in line with the co-decision procedure. Thus, the co-decision procedure has become the ‘ordinary legislative procedure’ (OLP). According to Article 294 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU), the OLP takes place with a proposal from the Commission and joint adoption by the European Parliament and the Council of a regulation, directive or decision (Lisbon Treaty, 2007). The OLP applies to more than 40 new policy areas, bringing the total number to 73 (Lisbon Treaty, 2007). Not included are border management, migration and asylum and judicial cooperation in criminal issues, Europol and Eurojust, as well as social security and taxes (Lisbon Treaty, 2007).

The OLP procedure is put into practice through a complex process at various levels. The procedure is initiated by the Commission’s proposal and takes place in two readings. In the first reading, the Council and the EP can either reject the proposal or suggest amendments. If there is a similar viewpoint between the co-legislators, the Council may decide to adopt a joint position and propose a second reading to the EP (Voermans, 2011: 167). During the second reading, the proposal may be rejected or amended by the Parliament. If the Council and Parliament cannot reach agreement on a proposal after the second reading, a ‘conciliation committee procedure’ may be initiated (Voermans, 2011: 167). At this point, representatives from the co-legislators try to agree on a compromise proposal, which must then be approved or rejected (European Parliament, 2020). Afterwards, if either the EP or the Council disagree with the draft text, the proposal is not adopted. This legislative procedure reveals that there is a multi-layered procedure comprising two readings and a conciliation procedure, with the steps involved giving the parties the opportunity to carry out the process as transparently as possible (European Parliament, 2020).

In addition to the complex process of the OLP, the Parliament has democratic control over the comitology process. Revision of this process in 2006 aimed to overcome the deficiencies arising from the inefficient implementation of much EU legislation by the Committees of Member State officials. The Second Comitology Decision adopted on 17 July 2006 introduced a new regulatory procedure by which both the EP and the Council can block the adoption of proposals that emerge from committees. With this decision, to increase the role of the EP in the comitology method, it is envisaged that the EP is informed by the Commission regarding the Committee work and documents (Council Decision, 2006/512/EC). An outcome of this reform is that in response to the Commission and the Council's will to circumvent the influence of the EP on the regulation process, the EP restricts the scope of the delegation to gain more leverage in the comitology process (Jourdain, 2015).

This reformed democratic control of the EP over the comitology process was implemented with the Lisbon Treaty. The Lisbon Treaty replaces 'comitology' with 'delegated acts'. According to Article 290 TFEU, the EP plays a role in the monitoring and control of delegated powers to the Commission in the case of non-legislative acts (Lisbon Treaty, 2007). In this process, the EP, together with the Council, can either object to or revoke the delegation. However, the comitology process is still criticized due to its implicit legal status (Jourdain, 2015). Regarding 'implementing acts', the EP has been given co-decision power for the adoption of the rules and general principles (Article 291 TFEU). It was reiterated in the Treaty that the EP has been enabled to call the Commission to submit any suitable proposal regarding matters in which a Union act is required to implement the Treaties (Article 225 TFEU).

This new comitology procedure includes a method based on monitoring. According to the Treaty, this procedure is used as a 'brake' in all the areas where the Commission finds it necessary to amend or annul decisions taken by the OLP. In addition, upon the Commission's proposal, each precaution taken in the committees must be forwarded to the EP and the Council. It is envisaged that both institutions submit their opinions on the draft regulation. For the opinion to be adopted, QMV is needed on the Council and a majority in the EP. Accordingly, if the opinion of the Commission is not accepted, the Council has two months and the EP four to give their opinions. If there is no objection, the Commission adopts the resolution (European Parliament, 2020).

Trilogues appear as another important process in the OLP. The co-legislators must agree on a common text acceptable to both the EP and the Council in order to adopt an act under the OLP (European Parliament, 2020).

This requires informal tripartite discussions among Parliament, Council and Commission in which legislative proposals are discussed (European Parliament, 2020). Trilogues consist of political negotiations as well as preparatory technical meetings. The main instrument of work is a document outlining the three institutions' respective positions as well as their compromise proposals. In trilogue meetings, the co-legislators explain their opinions and discuss matters to reach a compromise. The frequency of trilogues varies from case to case, the political circumstances in hand and the agenda of the Presidency of the Council. With the Lisbon Treaty, the use of trilogues in the OLP, has become more institutionalized.

4. Rethinking the Legislative Role(s) of the EP in the Post-Lisbon Period

The EP's powers and competences have been further strengthened since 2007, as the basic aim of the Lisbon Treaty was to respond to the needs of the citizens and eradicate the EU's democratic deficit. Although the Lisbon Treaty is still criticized as deficient in terms of solving the EP's structural issues, a re-analysis of the extension of the EP's legislative powers with respect the structure, procedure and outcomes of the co- decision procedure is crucial, and would provide significant insights in furthering the discussion on the EU's democratic legitimacy.

With the OLP replacing the co-decision procedure under the Lisbon Treaty, the EP's legislative powers were considerably increased. The main idea of the OLP is to allow the people's representatives in the EP to play a greater role in the European legislative process and involve the Member States (and their parliaments) as well as the Council (Corbett, Jacobs and Shackleton, 2011). In the OLP system, both the Parliament and the Council have the right of amendment as co-legislators. As for the outcomes of the procedure in the form of OLP acts adopted, according to the EP activity report for the period 2014-2019, the co-legislators adopted 401 acts under the OLP from a total of 414 proposals (EP Activity Report, 2019). Although this figure reveals a 20 percent decrease compared to the period 2009-2014, the intensity of Parliament's legislative activity remained high (European Parliament, 2019). Thus, it may be argued that the multi-layered process and possibility of conciliation at the end make it possible to seek out compromises in the EU's complex and fragmented political landscape.

The OLP creates a parliamentary legislature that is democratically legitimized. In this respect, the co-legislator bodies take precedence over rules made by other EU institutions and bodies. However, the critical perspective

derives from how the OLP is implemented, and the organization of informal meetings or ‘trilogues’. Although these meetings are intended to reduce delays in the legislative procedure, even in circumstances where they are successful and officially approved by co- decision, their numbers are low when compared to the number of proposals, as is exemplified in the 2009-2014 parliamentary term in which only 488 of OLP acts were adopted out of 594 Commission OLP proposals (European Parliament, 2019). On the one hand, the trilogues are considered crucial in increasing the EP’s power, especially in its influencing other institutions to address citizens’ concerns (Burns, Rasmussen and Reh, 2013: 953), yet trilogues are criticized with respect to accountability and equal accessibility of trilogue mechanisms (Holzahacker, 2007: 263).

If the entire process of the EP’s role in the EU legislative process is re-analysed, it is clear that although the EP’s legislative powers have considerably increased through the OLP, the procedure is problematic in so far as the limitations on areas in which the OLP is applied, and the ineffective and deficient implementation of the whole process. Thus, the ‘democratic deficit’ has not been fully addressed.

5. Concluding Remarks

Historically, the EP has witnessed significant changes concerning its legislative role(s), with a gradual expansion of its empowerment in the legislative process of the EU. Over time, with the SEA, Maastricht, and Amsterdam Treaties the EP has been transformed from its initial advisory role with hardly any legislative power in the decision-making process of the Community, to its present enhanced legislative role that provides it with ‘legislative teeth’ (Weatherill and Beaumont, 1999: 141). Under the co-decision procedure, the EP’s contribution to shaping EU legislation was further enhanced via the combination of obligatory conciliation between the Council and the Parliament, and a fully-fledged parliamentary veto, meaning that creation of new acts jointly adopted by the Council and the Parliament emphasises their equality as partners in the legislative process (Wyatt and Dashwood, 1993: 51). However, in the initial years of the co-decision procedure, the process was very complex and limited in terms of the areas in which this procedure was applied. Recently, the EP has become ‘co-legislator’ with the Council through the OLP.

The Lisbon Treaty replaced some procedures and instruments with one legislature in which the Council and the Parliament cooperate in a uniform legislative procedure on a Commission proposal under the OLP. However, the procedure encounters problems with respect to the limited application of the

areas, and ineffective implementation of the process. The OLP was introduced primarily to make EU decision-making more inclusive, accountable, and transparent, yet it is criticized due to increased informalization (Voermans, 2011: 174). In the post-Lisbon period, although the outcomes of OLP procedure have been below expectations, the OLP and its related mechanisms have increased the EP's legislative activity. Thus, although the 'democratic deficit' remains an issue of concern for the EU, the OLP creates a favourable environment for the co-legislators to search for compromise in the fragmented world of the EU legislative process. The EP has a significant role to play in furthering democratic legitimacy in the EU, especially in times of crisis when the gap between EU citizens and institutions appears wider. Hence, efforts to expand the Parliament's legislative powers and competences, and increase its legislative activities are considered significant in the evolution of EU parliamentary democracy.

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CHAPTER 13

THE EU'S DYNAMICS IN THE INTERNATIONALIZATION PROCESS OF THE TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

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1. Introduction

Globalization, interdependence and cooperation between different actors and stakeholders at global level are increasing with the rapid developments in information and communication technologies. In relation to these developments, the exchange of ideas, information and experience have expanded to the entire global village and gained momentum faster than ever before in history. Most higher education institutions in the world are trying to adapt to this changing ecosystem by developing various internationalization strategies and policies. In general terms, the phenomenon of internationalization can be defined as integration of all kinds of actors with the global system. Internationalization means awareness, education, research, training, and services, which are used in the higher education system to increase interaction and collaboration and includes mechanisms that contribute to dialogue and foster mutual understanding and tolerance across cultural borders. The universities under the pressure of globalization must be in a line with international standards and engage in various internationalization strategies such as dual degree programs, student exchange programs, research collaborations, education, and research consortium. They should also improve their capacity to compete with the high-quality universities and academic systems in the global village.

The universities have to offer high quality education if they want to be part of the internationalized world. So, the phenomenon of internationalization has

emerged as a product of search for quality in higher education. Here, education includes both the classical way of producing and conveying knowledge and transferring it into a qualified work force. Knowledge-based economic order is one of the prominent elements of the 21st century and innovation and competitive advantage are the main driving forces of such economies.

Turkey, like many other countries around the world, began to accept the internationalization process brought about by the globalization process as a necessity and redesign its National Higher Education in accordance with this new concept in the 2000s. In the process of internationalization of Turkish higher education, the European Union (EU) plays an important role, as Turkey is a candidate state which aims EU membership. Therefore, the standards of the EU are significant external factors in this process.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the internationalization strategy and politics pursued in Turkey in the field of Higher Education in the framework of Turkey-EU relations. This chapter also aims to reveal the EU's effect on the internationalization process of Turkish higher education. It consists of three main parts to fulfill these aims. In the first part of the chapter, the theoretical connections between globalization, internationalization and quality are focused on. Then the second part analyses institutional structures and actors involved in the internationalization process, and the types of instruments that are used in the application of the quality assurance system in place. The third part reveals the general outlines of Turkey's internationalization strategy in the field of higher education. The effect of the EU in the internationalization process of the Turkish higher education is also examined.

2. Conceptualizing Internationalization

Global cooperation, exchange of ideas and knowledge transfer gain speed and prevalence in today's information age, which is driven by information technologies, communication, and interdependence. Higher education institutions are trying to adapt to this changing ecosystem with various internationalization strategies and policies that they have designed to adapt together with all their stakeholders. The phenomenon of internationalization, which can be defined as integration with the global system, increases awareness among countries, as well as mutual interaction and cooperation through education and research services, and this contributes to the establishment of dialogue across cultural borders to strengthen mutual understanding and tolerance. With the effect of globalization, universities are following many different internationalization strategies some of which are harmonizing their curriculum to international standards, establishing

dual degree programs, research collaborations, education-training, and research consortia to increase their capacity to compete with universities with high academic quality and to take place in international ranking systems.

In the globalizing world of the 21st century, an increase in international competition draws attention not only in the political, economic, and social fields, but also in the field of education. Selvitopu and Ayhan (2018, p. 804) state that the multidimensional effects of globalization emerge as internationalization in higher education.

De Wit (2010, p. 8) defines internationalization as an indicator of quality. In line with this point of view Karadağ (2016, p. 481) expresses that internationalization came to the fore because of the pursuit of quality in higher education and it has been evaluated as a means of making difference at the individual and institutional level.

In the arguments of Frolich & Vega, although internationalization has become a common phenomenon in the age of globalization, it is not easy to conceptualize it as it is a “complex, multidimensional and often fragmented process” (Teichler, 2009, p. 1). Knight defines internationalization as the process of incorporating an international or intercultural dimension into an organization’s teaching, research, and service functions (Knight, 1994). There are also other definitions for example De Wit classifies internationalization into groups and in one of them curriculum related definitions are preferred and in the other one mobility related definitions are used (Aba, 2013, pp. 99-100). In curriculum related definitions, internationalization is a process of internalizing higher education institutions and integrating the institution and its key stakeholders - students, faculties, and staff – into a globalizing world. This new process requires a significant change in existing structures, working styles and methods as well as mental sets.

It is noteworthy that the concept of globalization is included almost in all definitions of internationalization. In fact, the concepts of globalization and internationalization are often used interchangeably without distinction. Moreover, these two concepts are sometimes used synonymously with the concept of Europeanization. According to Altbach & Knight (2007), globalization forms the framework of 21st centuries general academic and economic trends. In contrast, internationalization encompasses the policies and practices that education systems, institutions and individuals develop to keep up with the global academic system (Altbach & Knight, 2007). By explaining the causal relationship between internationalization and globalization, Knight (2008) argues that internationalization changes the world of higher education and

globalization changes the world of internationalization (Aba, 2013, p. 100). In other words, globalization acts as a catalyst for internationalization. Despite the denationalizing and homogenizing effects of globalization, internationalization is a process that takes place between nation-states and is carried out according to the cultural and historical characteristics of each nation. However, it still has a complementary function to the globalization trends, it is not a completely detached and closed system from the world (Gacel-Avila, 2005: 124 cited in Geden, 2018, p. 6) Van Vught et al. (2002) argue that the basic dynamics of internationalization are cooperation and mobility, while globalization is competition (Van Vught et al., 2002, p. 117 cited in Geden, 2018, pp. 6-7).

Although they have common aspects, according to Middlehursts (2000) and Sadlak (2001), Europeanization represents an internationalization process at the regional level (cf. Race 1997 cited in Teichler, 2009, p. 95) and generally takes place on the basis of cooperation and exchange programs. Moreover “this term also covers such issues as integration, convergence of contexts, structures, and substance (European dimension, European culture, and European higher education space) or to segmentation between regions of the World (‘fortress Europe’)” (Middlehurst 2000; Sadlak 2001 cited in Teichler, 2009, p. 95). In the literature, the phenomenon of internationalization is approached in 4 different ways: mobility, competence, cultural structure, and process (Selvitopu & Ayhan, 2018, p. 804). The mobility approach includes academic mobility, field studies, international students, and curriculum studies. While the competence approach focuses on activities that support the development of the individual, the cultural structure approach focuses on the culture of internationalization developed by higher education (Selvitopu & Ayhan, 2018, p. 804). In the process approach, internationalization is used to investigate activities within the process of acquiring an international, intercultural, and global dimension of higher education institutions.

2.1. Internationalization Mechanisms and Benefits

It is predicted that internationalization will provide countries with significant benefits in political, socio-cultural, and economic fields, and especially in the academic and scientific fields. Some of these benefits are estimated to be increased academic quality, internationally oriented students and academic staff, international citizenship (Jibeen & Khan, 2015, p. 197). In the internationalization debates initiated at the EU level in the 90s, the contributions of this process to the development of peace and mutual understanding at the global level began to be mentioned (Teichler, 2009, p. 95). In addition, the phenomenon of internationalization increased the sensitivity of social

responsibility and engagement in the academic community (Jibeen & Khan, 2015, p. 197).

In this context, the Council of Higher Education notes that the internationalization process has four basic functions:

- “being an academic and scientific tool
- being a tool of cooperation in foreign policy, public diplomacy, and development
- being a tool for cooperation between countries and cultures
- and being a source of economic benefit.” (YÖK, 2017, p. 4)

Mobility is one of the most common and well-known mechanisms of the internationalization process (Aba, 2013, p. 100). The best indicator of this is OECD 2019 data. According to these data, the number of students studying abroad was close to 5 million, double that of 10 years ago, and is expected to increase to at least 8 million in the next 10 years (De Wit & Altbach, 2021, p. 38). King, Findlay and Ahrens (2010), evaluate mobility in three categories “... an element of highly skilled migration, a product of globalization and an element of youth mobility cultures and the consumption geographies.” Apart from student mobility, types of mobility such as institution and program mobility, credit transfer are also used as a means of academic and scientific interaction. (OECD, 2004:3 cited in Aba, 2013, pp. 101-102). While these types of mobility generally represent ‘internationalization abroad’, ‘internationalization at home’ is also another category of internationalization.

States tend to see education as one of the most effective soft power tools in order to realize their interests for a long time, and especially with the effect of the neo-liberal paradigm that dominated the post-Cold War period, ‘public diplomacy’ or ‘knowledge diplomacy’, as Knight (2020) prefers to use, became a part of their foreign policy (Amirbek, 2014; De Wit & Altbach, 2021, pp. 36-37).

According to Cowan and Arsenaault (2008), there is a global competition for minds and states could have competitive advantages if they developed an education system which is in line with an innovative high-tech economy and the international educational and scientific field. Then they can also attract the most talented foreign students. As it is noted “providing education opportunities to foreign students is one of the most important tools of the state’s soft power.” (Amirbek & Ydyrys, 2014, p. 515).

Apart from foreign policy, internationalization also has serious direct (expenditure items of foreign students) and indirect (knowing the production resources, the legislation and its functioning, the language and culture of the

country of study) contributions to the economic development of countries (YÖK, 2017, p. 9) The global knowledge economy that shapes today's world has made education and research important components of the economy (De Wit and Altbach, 2021, pp. 31-32). In the global information age, high technology and science-based economies make it compulsory for individuals who are equipped with a high degree of knowledge, skills, and competencies to graduate from universities and participate in the economic field. In this context, research and focal mission universities are gaining increasing importance in the global knowledge economy.

When we look at the advantages of internationalization from a socio-cultural perspective, gains such as the development of a common language of friendship between different cultures and the strengthening of tolerance towards different cultures come to the fore (Hayle, 2008). According to Yang (2002), internationalization, which has existed since ancient times, provides awareness and interaction between countries through teaching, research, and service functions. It also refers to dialogue which aims to achieve mutual understanding across cultural boundaries. Along with internationalization, the internationalization of the education program is considered as a means of providing students with international knowledge and skills (Bond, 2003). Karadağ (2016, p. 483) states that according to Jibeen & Khan (2015) internationalization is a tool of maintaining sustainability in the universities with academic dynamism. They also note that increasing academic quality is important for students and lecturers in terms of ensuring them to be internationally oriented.

Significant changes have been observed in the phenomenon of internationalization since the 1990s. Economic motives took precedence over others. Although mobility continues to be the most common means of internationalization, the importance of 'internationalization at home' rather than 'internationalization abroad' has begun to increase gradually in solving the problems faced by the international community in accordance with the UN Sustainable Development Goals (De Wit & Altbach, 2021, p. 29).

In addition to its positive effects and gains, internationalization also has many negative effects at the global and institutional level. Some of them are universities' involvement in a global academic caste system (Jons & Hoyler, 2013) (Erkilla, 2016, p. 179); the existence of neo-Anglo-American academic hegemony (Jons and Hoyler, 2013, p. 51); "burdens and costs for the individuals, commercialization of universities, low quality education more efforts for academic and administrative support on the part of the institutions, misunderstandings and new mistrust, chauvinistic attitudes and—last but not least—'brain drain'" (Teichler, 2009, p. 95; Jibeen & Khan, 2015, p. 197).

According to Patel and Lynch (2013), glocalization in higher education can be considered as a viable alternative to internationalization. Glocalization aims to provide a positive learning experience and inspires learners to strengthen the global experience of local socio-economic and political issues through a critical academic and cultural exchange. It is a blend of global and local perspectives. Glocalization is reinforced by the concept of 'third culture' construction, where culturally diverse communities use their strengths for a respectful, engaging, and inspiring third culture space (Patel, Li & Sooknanan, 2011, p. 6). Glocalization rejects the cultural relativism and ethnocentrism promoted by globalization.

3. European Levers in the Process of Internationalization

Throughout history, universities have been institutions that produce and spread universal knowledge. In this respect, the phenomenon of internationalization in higher education has a very long history. The same is true for globalization, which is claimed to have emerged in association with internationalization. However, when internationalization is defined as the reconstruction of the universality of knowledge not through individual universities, but through systematic cooperation and/or competition in the field of education at the global level, in accordance with the neoliberal world order, it is considered as a phenomenon that emerged in the last quarter of the 20th century. In the 90s, the internationalization process of higher education was used synonymously with the Europeanization process, mainly due to the internationalization mechanisms developed by the EU. However, at the European level, the Council of Europe played an important role in the process before the EU. In addition, at the global level, it is seen that the United Nations (UN) is involved in the internationalization process as an effective global actor. The internationalization process represents a much more widespread and inclusive process at the global level, since other international actors are also effective in the process apart from the EU, and the internationalization mechanisms developed by the EU include some states that do not have an EU membership perspective (Kaliber, 2014). For example, the Bologna Process cannot be defined as a Europeanization tool specifically because it is characterized as an area of 'facilitated coordination' or 'framing policy' (Radaelli 2004). Onursal-Beşgül (2016, pp. 91-92) also notes that in the implementation of the Process a soft law mechanism is used and it "is closer to an intergovernmental policy area, where states still retain responsibility".

During the Cold War period, while the USA and the USSR, the superpowers of the period, had a say with the contradictory education models they developed in the process of structuring the education field at the global level, but the EU

only started to have a voice at the global level in the internationalization process with the end of the Cold War. The first institutional initiatives in the process of internationalization of higher education institutions in the European continent were carried out by the Council of Europe and the Council has made great efforts in the field of education, especially in recognition, since its establishment (NARIC, 1987; Teichler 2003). Three European conventions were signed in the 1950s and ratified by most of the member states: the European Convention on the Equivalence of Diplomas to Admission to Universities (1953); the European Convention on the Equivalence of periods of Study (1956) and the European Convention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications (1959). They lost their practical importance over time, but they became the pioneers of the steps to be taken by the EU in the field of recognition of program equivalence in the European continent (Deloz, 1986, pp. 2–27).

In the 60s and 70s, UNESCO aimed to make some arrangements at the international level, like the equivalence studies of the Council of Europe but abandoned it because the project was too ambitious and difficult, and instead encouraged studies at the regional level (Teichler, 2009, p. 97). In this context, the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications Concerning Higher Education in the European Region was signed in 1997 under the auspices of the Council of Europe and UNESCO (Teichler, 2009, p. 98).

If the internationalization initiatives of the Council of Europe are left aside, it should be stated that the EU is the main actor of the internationalization process in higher education at the global level. The development of education-related programs in the European integration process, which started with the establishment of ECSC in the early 1950s, was only possible in the 80s. The first initiative in this area was ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) program, which was first implemented in Germany and Sweden in the 1970s, and then became a pilot program in the European Community in 1987. In the 90s, ERASMUS and similar programs were gathered under the main umbrella of SOCRATES and later became ERASMUS+. Despite the different names, all these programs are based on cooperation and include student/academic staff exchange, joint curriculum, joint research projects, etc. (De Wit et al. 2015 cited in De Wit & Altbach, 2021, pp. 30-31).

These programs do not require any structural transformation in the higher education systems of the countries in which they are implemented, on the contrary, they are carried out on the basis of international cooperation in the field of education that foster cultural pluralism in Europe (Smith, 1979 cited in Teichler, 2009, p. 98). The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) was

created at the beginning of the 90s to systematize recognition (Wuttig 2001 cited in Teichler, 2009, p. 99) and started to be used especially by the Eastern European states and other candidate countries before EU membership. ECTS has been a mechanism that provides significant convenience in terms of equivalence in the implementation of the ERASMUS exchange program. Practices such as ERASMUS and ECTS have been the main developments on the way to the Bologna process. (De Wit et al. 2015 cited in De Wit & Altbach, 2021, pp. 30-31)

The educational architecture, which had a fragmented structure throughout Europe in the 90s, did not have the capacity to raise qualified and competitive graduates required by the globalizing economic field (EHEA, 2010). Higher education institutions in Europe began to be restructured to have “comparable, transparent, common and/or similar higher education” (<http://ec.europa.eu/education>). With the dominant effects of globalization, which triggered internationalization in higher education, very important structural reforms were carried out in the field of education in Europe as well as in the whole world. Two main instruments of the European internationalization strategy are European Higher Education Area (EHEA), which is known as Bologna process (1999) and the European Research Area, which is a part of the Lisbon Strategy introduced in 2009 in the Lisbon Treaty (article, 179 TFEU). These two basic frameworks envisage the recognition of common academic structures, credit transfer systems, university qualifications and the functionalization of the design of the quality assurance system. EU member states and candidate states are expected to transform their existing national education systems in accordance with this framework (Dakowska, 2019; Muller and Ravinet, 2008 cited in Alexiadou, Nafsika and Linda Rönnberg, 2021, p. 2). The Bologna Process is also used by other states outside the European continent. Non-EU countries such as Turkey and Russia also participate in this practice, which covers 47 countries and 3 million students (Aba, 2013, p. 101).

In the Communication of European Higher Education in the World, the European Commission set their goals as having “more comprehensive internationalization strategies to promote mobility and cooperation between universities, EU member states and non-EU countries” and enhancing “the overall quality of European education”. The goal of internationalization was defined in parallel with this point of view in the Europe 2020 Growth Strategy and there “the importance of smart, sustainable and inclusive European HE” was emphasized (Robson & Wihlborg, 2019, p. 128).

4. Internationalization of Turkey's Higher Education

Turkey has been faced with globalization and international competition in the economic field at the international level, and the pressures of massification in higher education at the national level since the beginning of the 90s. In the 2000s, Turkey accepted the internationalization process brought about by globalization as a necessity and started to redesign its national higher education in accordance with this new concept. Internationalization means a paradigm shift in higher education in Turkey. After the German and American higher education models, a new learning model shaped by the Bologna Process was put into practice in Turkey. This change in Turkish education is taking place in a horizontal order, unlike previous periods, through communication and cooperation with state institutions and especially with non-governmental and industrial organizations under the leadership of the Council of Higher Education (Taşçı & Seyfi, 2019, p. 324). Another difference from the previous periods is Turkey's involvement in the process of integration with the neoliberal world with all its institutions and organizations, including higher education institutions, under the guidance of the World Bank, IMF, and WTO at the global level. In this context, to reform higher education, Turkey signed agreements with the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) in 1995 and started to receive grants from the World Bank (Geden, 2018, p. 7).

Turkey, like other states in the world, defines internationalization as a strategic priority. In the Higher Education Strategy of Turkey (2007) the concepts of information society and knowledge economy were emphasized in defining the objectives of higher education. In the Strategy, it was also stated that these goals could be achieved by cooperating with the world and especially Europe. In addition, the importance of Erasmus and Socrates exchange programs in creating a common European perspective was also mentioned (YÖK, 2007, p. 16). Onursal-Beşgül (2016, p.100) points out that the concept of internationalization was not used in the 2007 Strategy Document, the concept of globalization was preferred instead.

The Internationalization Strategy Document in Higher Education which was published in 2017 for the period of 2018-2022, states two strategic goals of the Council of Higher Education. According to this Strategy, one of them is "to ensure that Turkey becomes a center of attraction in the field of Higher Education" and the other one is "to increase the institutional capacity in internationalization" (YÖK, 2017, p. 2).

While Turkey's internationalization strategy was initially focused on Europe, the axis expanded to include other regions such as the Balkans, Central Asia, Caucasus, Africa, the Middle East, and the Far East in the 2010s. This regionalization trend in the internationalization strategy of higher education in Turkey (Knight, 2012 cited in Geden, 2018, p. 13) expresses a new strategic orientation of Turkey in using education as foreign policy tool and soft power, although the European leverage is not left aside. Robins defines Turkey's position as "a plausible yet volatile actor on the edge of the subsystems of continental Europe and the Middle East" (Robins, 2013, p. 382) and adds that "HE means one of the key instruments for policymaking with other regional powers and building intimate relationship with EU which provides majority of direct investments to Turkey and which could help it become an attractive 'center' country" (Robins, 2013). Geden also notes that because of the thorny issues in Turkey's foreign policy "HE is expected even greater role in repairing ties with previous allies and creating links with new regions such as Africa." (Geden, 2018, p. 10). The Mevlana exchange program, which was put into practice in 2013, should also be evaluated in this context. (<http://www.yok.gov.tr/web/mevlana>; Çetinsaya, 2014, p. 162)

It should be noted that the Mevlana Exchange Program is not actually an alternative mechanism that replaces the EU exchange programs. The aims of the Mevlana Exchange Program are:

- "Contributing to the internationalization process of the Turkish Higher Education field,
- Making Turkey a center of attraction in the field of higher education,
- Increasing the academic capacity and qualifications of our higher education institutions,
- Sharing Turkey's rich historical and cultural heritage at a global level,
- Supporting the enrichment of the culture of respect and understanding for differences with the increase of intercultural interaction." (YÖK, 2017, p. 23)

According to Council of Higher Education statistics, the number of students benefiting from Mevlana Exchange program between 2013/14-2016/17 is around 3,500 (2,025 incoming students and 1,548 outgoing students). When evaluated according to instructors, it is seen that the total number of incoming instructors is 966 and the number of outgoing instructors is 1,097. (YÖK, 2017, p. 25).

In terms of Turkey's strategic approach towards foreign students, Turkey aims to be a regional center in higher education. Considering the increase in the

number of foreign students at the international level, it is seen that the number of international students, which was 800,000 in the 1970s, reached 4.5 million in 2012. It is estimated that this number will reach 8 million in 2022. This upward trend observed in the world is also valid for Turkey. There has been a significant increase in the number of foreign students in Turkey over the years. According to UNESCO (2014) data, the number of students coming to Turkey from neighboring countries has increased by 50% in the last ten years. Therefore, it can be said that Turkey's potential to become a regional center in higher education is high. According to the statistics of the Turkish Higher Education Council, the number of international students in Turkey increased from 16,656 in 2000 to 108,076 in 2016/2017 (<http://istatistik.yok.gov.tr>). According to 2018 statistics, 57 Turkish universities signed cooperation protocols with 16 countries in the field of education-research (<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>; http://www.yok.gov.tr/documents/10279/43653871/Yuksekogretim_pilitikalarinda_yeni_yok_6_temmuz.pdf). According to the 2016 data of OECD, Turkey had only 1% of the total foreign students in the world. However, it aims to increase this rate to 1.5% (Ministry of Development, 2015).

In the internationalization process of the Turkish Higher Education field, another tool that has been used for foreign students is the "Turkey Scholarships". The number of students benefiting from this scholarship since 2012/13, when it was put into practice, has been 23,527 (YÖK, 2017, p. 28).

Another instrument used for internationalization is the 'Joint Education-Training Programs' application. According to the Council of Higher Education, 202 joint programs were opened in 56 universities in Turkey in 2016. Istanbul Technical University (23), METU (14), Anadolu University (13), Galatasaray University (11) were among the universities that opened the most joint programs (YÖK, 2017, p. 28).

The second objective of Turkey's internationalization strategy, the second main objective other than access, includes increasing capacity and quality in higher education institutions. While evaluating the structural reforms in Turkish higher education in the 2008 and 2011 Turkey National Reports, it was stated that the number of universities increased to 177 (<http://www.ehea.info/article-details.aspx?ArticleId=8>) and studies on quality in higher education was started (Aba, 2013, p. 106).

4.1. Bologna Process and Europeanization in Turkey

According to Turkish political decision makers, who determined to be a part of the Western world the perspective of EU membership will not only provide the opportunity for Turkey to integrate with the West through EU membership

but will also ensure its integration into the globalizing international system. Turkey, which applied for full membership to the EU in 1987, had to make its current structure and regulations compatible with the EU by making political, economic, and administrative reforms within the framework of Copenhagen criteria. Education was also one of the policy areas which needed adaptation (Sağlam, Özüdoğru & Çıray, 2011).

The Bologna Process, signed in 2001, played a key role in the harmonization of the education policies implemented by the EU with the Turkish education policies (Serbest, 2005). In general, the determining factor in Turkey's inclusion in the European Education Area was the restructuring of the education area within the scope of the Bologna Process. The motivation behind its inclusion in the European Education Area was not only the Europeanization as a requirement of EU membership, but also the internationalization of Turkey in the field of higher education in response to globalization (Yağcı 2010, p. 589; see also Westerheijden et al. 2010 cited in Onursal-Beşgül, 2016, p. 96).

Participating in the Bologna Process, Turkey has achieved 3 priorities in the field of higher education: a system of degree programs consisting of three cycles (bachelor, master and doctoral), common or comparable standards for quality assurance; European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) and the Diploma Supplement (Visakorpi et al., 2008, p. 23). The Turkish National Agency, which is responsible for the transfer of Bologna reforms to the Turkish higher education field at the institutional level, apart from the Council of Higher Education, was established in 2002, one year after the signing of the Bologna Process. The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) was implemented in 2003. The application was implemented in 45 faculties of 15 universities selected as pilots. In 2003, the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Student (Erasmus Student Mobility Program) came to the stage of implementation. According to the European Commission data, within the framework of the Erasmus exchange program, in 2004, 1,142 Turkish students went abroad, and 299 students came to Turkey. This number increased later for example the number of outgoing students in 2010-2011 was 10,095, the number of incoming foreign students increased to 4,288 (http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/statistics_en.htm).

The institutional Europeanization that Turkey realized within the framework of the Bologna Process was designed to include the concept of quality assurance, starting from the very first years of the reformation process of the Turkish higher education system. The main purpose of structural arrangements such as ECTS and diploma equivalency was to harmonize Turkish universities with internationally valid standards for their inclusion in

the European Education Area. In this framework, a Higher Education Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Committee was established within the Council of Higher Education in Turkey and the committee prepared the ‘Guide for Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement in Higher Education Institutions’ in 2006. The aim of this guide was to “render the endeavours of evaluation and quality development of higher education institutions more systematic and traceable” (Eurydice 2008 cited in Onursal-Beşgül, 2016, pp. 94-95). In accordance with the Law on Public Financial Management and Control-No. 5018, strategic plans were prepared in higher education institutions and activities related to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for higher education started after 2007. A Commission and a Working Group were established for the implementation of the National Qualifications Framework in Turkey (CoHE, 2008 cited in Aba, 2013, p. 106). Turkish Higher Education Quality Council was established within the scope of ‘Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation’ that came into force on July 23, 2015 (<https://yokak.gov.tr>). Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (YÖKAK) which has the strategic view of “raising generations with confidence in the future with quality education”, has adopted the basic mission of “establishing a quality assurance system” for higher education institutions in Turkey and its successful execution for this purpose (<https://yokak.gov.tr>). While fulfilling this mission, the areas the Council focuses on are the structure of education, research and development capabilities, corporate management system and social benefit perspective. <https://yokak.gov.tr>).

In Turkey, the Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation, which was based on the quality assurance standards and application principles of the European Quality Assurance Association (ENQA), and the Regulation on Procedures and Principles for the Application of the Turkish Qualifications Framework were published and implemented. The TURQUAS project titled ‘Implementation and Sustainability of EHEA Reforms in Turkish Higher Education System’, which is an important tool to fulfill the requirements of these regulations, was implemented by the Council of Higher Education in 2016. The main objectives of this Project, supported by EU funds, included the establishment of a quality assurance system in higher education institutions and the dissemination and internalization of a quality culture (YÖK, 2017, pp. 17-18).

5. Conclusion

The phenomenon of globalization, which directs the entire international system in many ways in the 21st century, has inevitably brought the field of education

and training, and especially higher education institutions, into a spiral of rapid change-transformation at the national and international level. Since the factors that give dynamism to this process are generally the factors belonging to the external environment, the transformation of the internal environment and its harmonization with the external environment, in other words, the abandonment of the traditional paradigm in higher education and the restructuring of institutions according to the new paradigm have brought and continue to bring some difficulties and troubles.

Internationalization has been determined as the strategic priority of many states in the field of higher education, as well as in Turkey. In the internationalization process of Turkish higher education, the perspective of EU membership was the main dynamic, especially until the mid-2000s. Since the beginning of the 90s, many important changes and developments have taken place to modernize the higher education in Turkey. However, it is not possible to state that internationalization is at the desired level and speed due to some disruptions in the process due to the influence of some factors, both internal (insufficient financial support and administrative burdens) and external (commercialization and competition) (Geden, 2018, p. 9) (ESU, 2011, <http://www.esu-online.org>).

The internationalization process in higher education, which started and continued mainly within the framework of the Bologna Process in Turkey at first, has shown a development beyond the limits of Europeanization with applications such as the Mevlana exchange program, which was put into practice in the mid-2000s. The scope of Turkey's changing public diplomacy will begin to expand to include the societies with which Turkey has cultural and historical ties and the geopolitical basins in which these societies live. Although the stagnation in Turkey's EU harmonization process is decisive in the emergence of this new strategic orientation in knowledge diplomacy, Turkey does not give up on the Bologna Process, which is the main mechanism of Europeanization in the internationalization process. However, Turkey uses other global mechanisms and tools that it has developed in accordance with its own cultural and historical uniqueness, as well as Europeanization, in the internationalization discourse and practice it has developed as a reaction to globalization.

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CHAPTER 14

EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN E-HEALTH LITERACY AND SOCIAL MEDIA ADDICTION IN HEALTH SCIENCES FACULTY STUDENTS

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1. Introduction

Internet, which affects the whole world today, has a large user base in our country as well (Dashti et al., 2017), (Richtering et al., 2017). Accessing health-related information is even getting easier day by day in the internet that is single of the outside simplistic ways of acquiring knowledge (Gilstad, 2014).

This convenience can also spearhead to the issue of reliability (Dashti et al., 2017). Therefore, e-health literacy is of great stature in terms of understanding health-connected knowledge on the internet and choosing the reliable information (Ertas and Kirac, 2019). E-health literacy refers to researching health-related information in the digital environment, obtaining various information from these researches, understanding the acquired information after putting it through personal information filter, and using or applying it to solve a specific health trouble. (Norman and Skinner, 2006).

Individuals must have a elevated grade of e-health literacy in order to distinguish the impeccable information about health from the internet. There are many agents that are reconciled with the level of e-health literacy. Some of these factors include media use, educational background, environmental area, language, and culture (Chesser et al., 2016). Another changeable that is thought to be pertinent to e-health literacy levels is social media addiction.

Individuals can compass a lot of knowledge very swiftly on the internet thanks to social media, and this information includes health information as well.

(Erdoğan, 2019), (Knapp et al., 2011). Social media, in its simplest definition, are platforms where people can fulfil their instant feelings, thoughts, emotions and ideas about a subject and any moment in their life, everything they want to share with third parties online. (Dudley et al., 2019), (Paul and Dredze, 2011).

University students are among the communities that have the most trick of accounts on social media platforms that actively use social media (Sabırlı, 2018). Thanks to the applications downloaded to mobile devices, social media accounts are monitored with instant notifications. Social media has happened one of the easiest and outside significant communication tools for teen humans in terms of discovering new information and being informed about innovations as quick as possible (Özlefele, 2019). Relevant platforms are a structure that helps young people use their health information and attitudes towards health. It is also a potential environment for teen humans to make decisions about their health. Especially in today's pandemic conditions, since individuals do not like better to go to the hospital, they are in search of finding information about their own health from social media. E-health literacy tricks a key role in the stage of accessing the information on the internet and understanding, analyzing and evaluating this information (Dashti et al., 2017), (Boonwattanopas, 2016).

The influential utilize of social media platforms to such a degree has revealed the concept of social media addiction. The notion of addiction of social media refers to the excessive use of the relevant platforms, the lack of satisfaction of people despite excessive use, the disruption of work, the emergence of problems in social relations, the failure to succeed even though the use is tried to be reduced, the tension when the access to the platforms used is restricted, and lying about the duration of use. (Savcı and Aysan, 2017). Social media addiction contains four sub-dimensions. These are the dimensions of preoccupation, mood regulation, repetition, and conflict. The dimension of preoccupation shows how busy the person is with social media. The mood regulation dimension explains the level of influence of social media on one's emotions. The repetition dimension gages the degree to which a person can control social media use and the repetition level of social media use. The dimension of conflict, otherwise, resorts to the efficacy of social media on causing negative consequences in a person's life (Sagır, 2021). Health literacy of people is increasing by various photos and videos shared via social media platforms or by transferring previous experiences and in addition, studies demonstrate that the utilize of social media has an significant place in the field of health (Norman and Skinner, 2006). In line with this information, revealing the relationship between e-health literacy and

social media addiction of health sciences' students and future health workers will contribute to the literature. This study's aim is to establish the e-health literacy levels and social media addiction levels of undergraduate health sciences' students, to dig up the intercourse between these two changeable and to show how they differ according to demographic characteristics.

2. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

2.1. E-Health and E-Health Literacy Concept

Computer and internet have become indispensable tools used in all sectors in a short time since the emergence of other technological systems. As a consequence of the widespread use of the internet and computer in the field of health, the concept of e-health has emerged and has taken an active role in the delivery of health services (Cicek and Sögüt, 2018).

Thanks to the use of e-health services in the field of health, it has been ensured that people in need of health services can meet their health needs without the need for any time zone, place, etc., minimizing the waiting time of patients in health institutions, reducing the costs arising from health services, increasing the satisfaction of patients with health services, increasing the efficiency of health services and raising the quality standard.

With the beginning of the use of e-health services, the interest and investments of countries in this field have increased at the global level, and this situation has prepared the environment for easier access to health services and the spread of health services that can be provided regardless of any place (Kılıc, 2017).

The main purpose of e-health applications is to provide people with the health services they need through computers and connected communication technologies. If we need to look at e-health applications from a broader perspective, it is the use of computers and some communication technologies to improve health services, to reduce the difficulties of accessing health services, to enable everyone to access health equally, to provide a high quality and effective service to all participants in the field of health (Güven, 2018). The search for information through electronic resources has also brought e-health literacy to the fore.

The concept of literacy of e-health is portrayed as the flair to search, find, understand, evaluate health knowledge from electronic sources and implement the obtained health information to addressing and/or solving a health problem (Capar et al., 2017).

2.2. Social Media and Social Media Addiction Concept

They are virtual environments that constantly renew and develop themselves, where people interact with other people in order to meet their communication needs, can explain themselves to other people, have information about themselves or someone else, and access without any time and duration restrictions. With the development of technology, social media spreads to a wide area of use, thereby creating an environment for cultural principles to change by enabling societies to interact with each other (Gülec, 2018). Situations such as adopting social media as a way out whenever people are bored, making people forget their duties and responsibilities by suppressing their daily life, imprisoning people in a virtual loneliness environment by showing their social media shares and virtual friendships as better than their real ones, spending too much time on social media, and emotional depression when social media platforms cannot be accessed are indicators of social media addiction (Durmuş, 2017).

Zivnuska et al. (2019) referred to social media addiction as the situation where, due to the differentiation of the physical and mental structures of individuals, a strong desire that occurs suddenly without any level of consciousness, ignoring the ordinary flow of daily life, constantly having the desire to access and follow social media channels, which results in excessive use. Social media addiction is an issue that can differ according to the consciousness and behavior of people, has a direct intervention on the emotions and situations of daily excess, and has the possibility of creating psychological disorders by causing conflict and anger by resulting in inefficient use of time (Tamer, 2017).

3. Methodology of the Research

3.1. Type of Research

In the field of social sciences, descriptive studies are conducted in order to predict the emergence of the problem and to make generalizations by revealing the relationships between the variables that compose the subject of the research (Ismailoglu ve Alniacik, 2013). In this research we have done, it is a research with descriptive features.

3.2. Place and Time of Research

This research was guided with undergraduate students from different departments studying at the Faculty of Health Sciences at Biruni University. The research was carried out between April 1, 2021 and May 1, 2021.

3.3. Research Hypotheses

This research' hypothesis determined for the research' purpose is stated below:

H₁: Social Media Addiction has a statistically remarkably effect on E-Health Literacy.

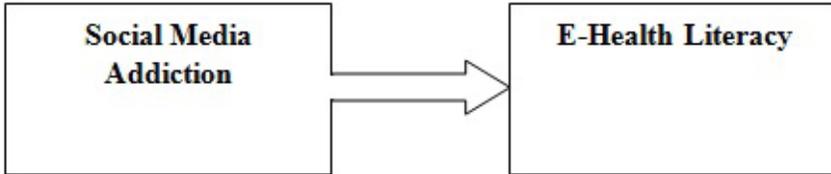
H₂: E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to gender variable.

H₃: E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to the variable of the department read.

H₄: E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to daily phone usage variable.

H₅: E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to daily internet usage variable.

Şekil 1. Model of the Research



3.4. Universe and Sample

The universe of this study is the students studying at Biruni University Faculty of Health Sciences. The number of people in the universe is 2467. In the power analysis based on the mean and standard deviation of 2.95 ± 0.91 in the e-health literacy literature, it was determined that a total of 547 people should be reached for 80% power. The sample number is 567.

3.5. Data Collection Tools and Data Collection Method

In this study, the Individual Knowledge Form that detects the demographic distinctives of the participants, the E-Health Literacy Scale that determines the E-Health Literacy levels, and the Social Media Addiction Scale that determines the Social Media Addiction levels of the participants were utilized as data collection tools. Data were agglomerated from undergraduate students studying

at Biruni University Health Sciences' between April 1, 2021 and May 1, 2021, on a voluntary basis, by google survey method.

E-Health Literacy Scale: It was advanced by Norman and Skinner in 2006 to determine traditional literacy, health-related literacy, information revocation, scientific exploratory, media literacy and computer literacy. This scale; It consists of 8 items that determine the perception of internet use in health-related issues. Scale elements; It was arranged as "1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=undecided, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree" with 5-point Likert-type scaling method. The lowest 8 points and the highest 40 points are taken from the scale. A high score from the scale demonstrates a high level of literacy of e-health. The scale is formed of one dimension. In the first development study of the scale, the cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.88. The reliability and validity study of Turkish of e-Health Literacy Scale was done by Tamer (2017) and the cronbach alpha was established to be 0.86. This value is proof that the scale is highly reliable. In this study, the reliability of the e-health literacy scale was found to be 0.90 with Cronbach's alpha value. In the evaluation phase of the responses granted to the measure questions, the range of 1.00-1.80=Strongly Disagree 1.81-2.60 range=Disagree 2.61-3.40 range=Undecided 3.41-4.20=Agree 4 The range of .21-5.00=Strongly Agree.

Social Media Addiction Scale: The Social Media Addiction Scale (SMDS) developed by Tutgun (2015) was used to gage the addiction of Social Media of students. Social Media Addiction consists of 41 items and 4 sub-dimensions. These sub-dimensions are Engagement, Mood Regulation, Repetition, and Conflict. This scale is a 5-point Likert type scale. Cronbach's alpha value, which is the domestic consistency multiple of the scale, was devised to be 0.97. According to this value, the scale is highly reliable.

3.6. Data Analysis Methods

While examining the findings acquired in the research, SPSS 24.0 Statistics package program was utilized for statistical analysis. While evaluating the study data, methods of descriptive statistical (Frequency, Percentage, Mean, Standard deviation) method were used. Normality tests were performed. It was discovered that the data were normally distributed. Correlation analysis was performed to find the relationship between the variables. Independent sample t-test and anova analyzes were performed to determine whether it differed according to demographic data. Cronbach's Alpha values were devised to establish the reliability of the scale.

3.7. Ethical Dimension of Research

Permission was gained from the Dean of Health Sciences of the University where the research was governed, and parol consent was acquired from the students. Volunteering was taken into account in participating in the research. Ethics committee ratification was received from Biruni University Non-Interventional Research Ethics Committee with the decision number 2021/48-19 on 21/02/2021.

4. RESULTS

Distribution of Participants' Demographic Characteristics

80.4% of the participants are female and 19.6% are male. 95.9% of the respondents are between the ages of 18-22 and 4.1% are between the ages of 23-26. All participants are single. When the departments of the participants are examined, it is seen that 17.8% nursing, 16.4% audiology, 14.5% nutrition and dietetics, 13.9% child development, 13.8% midwifery, 13.8% language and speech therapy, 9%, 9 is health management. 28.1% of the participants use the phone between 1-2 hours, 43.9% between 3-5 hours, 19.9% between 6-8 hours, 8.1% between 9 hours and above. When examining how many hours a day they use the internet, 23.8% is between 1-2 hours, 48% is between 3-5 hours, 24.2% is between 6-8 hours, and 4.1% is 9 hours or more.

Table 1. Cronbach Alpha Values of the Scales

Scale	Items of Scale	The Value of Cronbach Alfa
E-Health Literacy	1-8	0,90
Social Media Addiction	1-41	0,97
Engagement Sub-Dimension	1-12	0,92
Mood State Edit Sub-Dimension	13-17	0,95
Repetition Sub-Dimension	18-22	0,93
Conflict Sub-Dimension	23-41	0,91

N=567

Cronbach Alpha values of the scales are as above. The Cronbach Alpha value of the e-Health Literacy Scale was determined as ($\alpha=0.90$), and the Cronbach Alpha value of the Social Media Addiction Scale was determined as ($\alpha=0.97$). According to these values, the scales are highly reliable.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics on Scales and Sub-Dimensions

Scale	\bar{x}	Ss	Min.	Maks.
E-Health Literacy	3,78	0,62	2,38	5,00
Social Media Addiction	3,91	0,71	2,46	4,98
Engagement Sub-Dimension	3,30	0,80	1,83	4,92
Mood State Edit Sub-Dimension	3,38	1,16	1,00	5,00
Repetition Sub-Dimension	4,09	0,90	2,00	5,00
Conflict Sub-Dimension	4,39	0,64	2,89	5,00

N=567

When the descriptive statistics of the scales were examined, the mean of the E-Health Literacy scale was determined as ($\bar{x}=3.78$). This value corresponds to the Agree range on the scale. According to this result, the participants' e-Health literacy levels are high. The mean of the Social Media Addiction scale was determined as ($\bar{x}=3.91$). This value is equivalent to the 'Frequently' range on the scale. This result is an indication of the high level of Social Media Addiction of the participants.

Tablo 3. Comparison of E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction Scores of Faculty of Health Sciences Students in Terms of Gender Variable

Variables	Groups	N		Ss	t test		
					T	Sd	P
E-Health Literacy	Female	456	3,73	0,64	-3,933	565	0.001
	Male	111	3,98	0,47			
Social Media Addiction	Female	456	3,85	0,74	-4,014	565	0.001
	Male	111	4,15	0,55			

When Table 3 is examined, it was determined that the levels of e-health literacy and social media addiction differed significantly according to gender. E-Health Literacy ($\bar{x}=3.98$) and Social Media Addiction levels ($\bar{x}=4.15$) are higher for men than women.

Table 4. Normality Test Results for Scales

	Skewness	Kurtosis
E-Health Literacy General Score	-0,324	0,651
Social Media Addiction General Score	-0,707	-0,416

As can be seen, the skewness and kurtosis values of the scales are between -1.5 and +1.5. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). This range of values indicates that the data are normally distributed. Because of the normal distribution, Independent Sample t-test was applied for 2 groups and Anova test was applied for 3 and more groups.

Table 5. Comparison of the E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction Scores of the Faculty of Health Sciences Students in terms of the Department they studied

Groups		N	X	SS	X ²	P
Health Management	E-Health Literacy	56	3,89	0,53	0,507	0,431
Nutrition Dietetics		82	3,84	0,63		
Audiology		93	3,84	0,50		
Nursing		101	3,73	0,66		
Speech Language Therapy		78	3,74	0,66		
Child Development		79	3,69	0,65		
Midwifery		78	3,76	0,62		
Health Management	Social Media Addiction	56	3,95	0,56	0,990	0,803
Nutrition Dietetics		82	3,94	0,71		
Audiology		93	4,00	0,68		
Nursing		101	3,87	0,77		
Speech Language Therapy		78	3,91	0,71		
Child Development		79	3,87	0,77		
Midwifery		78	3,83	0,75		

When the Anova analysis is examined in Table 5, it is seen that the scores of E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction levels do not differ significantly according to the section read ($p>0.05$). According to this result, the department studied in the faculty of health sciences has no effect on e-health literacy and social media addiction scores.

Table 6. Comparison of E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction Scores of Faculty of Health Sciences Students

Groups		N	X	SS	X ²	P
1-2 hours	E-Health Literacy	159	3,22	0,78	25,247	0,001
3-5 hours		249	3,86	0,66		
6-8 hours		113	3,91	0,73		
9 hours and above		46	4,02	0,55		
1-2 hours	Social Media Addiction	159	3,16	0,65	21,931	0,001
3-5 hours		249	3,43	0,68		
6-8 hours		113	3,98	0,91		
9 hours and above		46	3,99	0,78		

When Anova analysis is examined in Table 6, it is seen that E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction scores differ significantly according to daily phone usage hours ($p < 0.05$). As the daily phone usage time increases, social media addiction and e-health literacy scores increase. As can be seen in the table, the group with the highest e-health literacy and social media addiction is 9 hours and above.

Table 7. Comparison of E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction Scores of Faculty of Health Sciences Students with Daily Internet Use

Groups		N	X	SS	X ²	P
1-2 hours	E-Health Literacy	135	3,35	0,69	21,736	0,001
3-5 hours		272	3,87	0,75		
6-8 hours		137	3,91	0,76		
9 hours and above		23	3,94	0,82		
1-2 hours	Social Media Addiction	135	3,37	0,68	11,105	0,001
3-5 hours		272	3,95	0,96		
6-8 hours		137	4,31	0,85		
9 hours and above		23	4,34	0,76		

When Anova analysis is examined in Table 7, it is seen that E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction scores differ significantly according to daily internet usage time ($p < 0.05$). As the daily internet usage time increases, social media addiction and e-health literacy scores increase. As can be seen in the table, the group with the highest e-health literacy and social media addiction is 9 hours and above.

Table 8. The Relationship Between E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction

	1	2	3	4	5	6
E-Health Literacy¹	1	-	-	-	-	-
Social Media Addiction²	0,685**	2	-	-	-	-
Engagement Sub-Dimension³	0,634**	0,910**	3	-	-	-
Mood State Edit Sub-Dimension⁴	0,623**	0,846**	0,722**	4	-	-
Repetition Sub-Dimension⁵	0,642**	0,901**	0,787**	0,662**	5	-
Conflict Sub-Dimension⁶	0,609**	0,945**	0,759**	0,739**	0,855**	6

N=567 **p<0.01 *p<0.05

As a result of the correlation analysis performed to examine the relationship between E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction, a positive, same and moderate relationship ($r=0.685^{**}$, $p<0.01$) was found between E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction. According to this result, E-health literacy increases as social media addiction increases.

Table 9. Simple Linear Regression Analysis Results

Variables	Beta	T value	P value
Dependent Variable: E-health Literacy			
Independent Variable: Social Media Addiction	0,685	22,337	0.00

As a result of the simple linear regression analysis, it was determined that social media addiction had an effect on e-health literacy. According to this result, social media addiction significantly explains the level of e-health literacy ($R=0.685$ $R^2=0.469$ $F=498.938$ $P=0.000$). It is statistically significant to use the model obtained to explain e-health literacy levels, since no multicollinearity and covariance problems were encountered as a result of the analysis of the regression assumptions and the error terms were normally distributed. According to the results of the analysis, the H1 hypothesis was accepted.

Table 10. Hypothesis Table

H	Hypothesis	Result
R	Social Media Addiction has a statistically significant effect on E-Health Literacy.	ACCEPTANCE
H ₂	E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to gender variable.	ACCEPTANCE
H ₃	E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to the variable of the department read.	REJECTION
H ₄	E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to daily phone usage variable.	ACCEPTANCE
H ₅	E-Health Literacy and Social Media Addiction mark alter remarkably according to daily internet usage variable.	ACCEPTANCE

5. Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

As a consequence of the correlation and regression analysis performed to test the H₁ hypothesis within the extend of this research, a statistically remarkable relation was found as expected between e-health literacy and social media addiction. This relationship is statistically significant and positive. At the same time, as a consequence of the analysis of regression, the impact of addiction of social media on e-health literacy was determined. According to this result, as the social media addiction levels of undergraduate students actively studying in the faculty of health sciences increases, their e-health literacy levels increase as well. Therefore, the H₁ hypothesis was adopted.

As a consequence of the sovereign sample t-test, which was handled to determine whether the e-health literacy and social media scores differed significantly according to the gender variable, it was determined that the e-health literacy and addiction of social media scores altered remarkably according to the gender variable. Surprisingly, men have higher scores for literacy of e-health and addiction of social media than women. As a consequence, the hypothesis of H₂ was adopted.

As a result of the Anova analysis performed to measure the H₃, H₄, H₅ hypothesis, it was unexpectedly found that e-health literacy and social media addiction scores did not differ significantly according to the university department attended. As a result, the fact that the university department of a student whether it is nursing, audiology, health management or nutrition and dietetics etc. has no effect on e-health literacy and social media addiction scores. Thus, the H₃ hypothesis was rejected.

As a result of the analysis conducted to find out whether the scores of e-health literacy and social media addiction differ in terms of daily phone usage hours, it was determined that they differed significantly. According to this result, the increase in the daily phone usage time increases the e-health literacy and social media addiction scores. Thus, the H_4 hypothesis was accepted.

It was determined that the e-health literacy and addiction of social media scores differed significantly in terms of daily internet usage time. According to this result, the increase in the daily phone usage time increases the e-health literacy and social media addiction scores. Thus, the H_5 hypothesis was accepted.

The research examined the nature of the relationship between e-health literacy and social media addiction, focusing on the e-health literacy levels of undergraduate students studying at the faculty of health sciences.

The first purpose of the this study is to disclose the relationship between e-health literacy and social media addiction levels of health sciences students. We found support for the hypothesized relationship (H_1) in our research.

The second aim of the study is to determine whether there is a remarkable difference between demographic variables such as gender, department attended, daily phone use, daily internet use, and e-health literacy and social media addiction scores of health sciences students. Here, we also found support for the relationship we assumed (H_2). However, we could not find support for H_3 , H_4 and H_5 .

As assumed in H_1 , a statistically significant relationship was found between e-health literacy and social media addiction. In a study conducted by Xiaojing and Qinliang, (2020) to determine whether university students' social media use and addiction is related to e-health literacy, it is stated that social media use and addiction of university students affect their e-health literacy. In light of these results, it was supported that there is a statistically significant relationship between e-health literacy and social media addiction levels of health sciences students.

When other studies on the subject are examined, in the study of Nakas (2017) to find e-health literacy levels in university students and the factors affecting these levels, the e-health literacy level was found to be high in line with the results in our study.

In the research conducted by Sagır (2021) and Ciftci (2018) to determine the social media addiction levels of university students, the social media addiction levels of university students were found to be high in line with results in our study.

As assumed in H₂, e-health literacy and social media addiction scores were discovered to alter remarkably according to the variable gender. In the studies conducted, Kamila et al., (2020) and Wenliang, et al., (2020) state that the e-health literacy and social media addiction levels of the participants differ significantly according to their gender. In their studies, women's e-health literacy and addiction of social media levels were higher than men's. The results of our study confirmed our expectation that the e-health literacy and social media addiction levels of health sciences students differ according to the variable gender. However, in our study, men have higher e-health literacy and social media addiction scores than women. This may be due to different samples and cultural differences.

This study offers inferences about the intercourse between E-Health literacy and Social media addiction. Especially in today's pandemic conditions, it has been realized how important e-health literacy is as a result of individuals not preferring to go to the hospital and searching for information about their own health on the internet. It is important for future healthcare professionals to have high e-health literacy, both for themselves and for the patients to whom they will serve. At the same time, this research was carried out in the metropolitan city of Istanbul, where we can only access various demographic data. For this reason, it is recommended for researchers to expand the sample group, expand it to other cities, and research other factors related to e-health literacy and social media addiction.

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CHAPTER 15

THE WAYS OF ENHANCING EMPLOYEE EXPERIENCE AT ORGANIZATIONS

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1. Introduction

One of the success factors for companies is to keep talented employees while they create competitive advantage and bring success to the organizations (Beheshtifar, 2011). Business world shifted from service to knowledge based industry and innovation gained strategic importance. Therefore companies struggle for talented employees. It is hard to find talented employees in the labor market (Rasca, 2018). Some employees lack the required skills to perform the work. Additionally some employees have no engagement to their work. The disengagement of employees have negative effects at the bottom line and productivity of the company. While today companies gain competitive advantage within their employees, companies have to create positive employee experience (Margo, 2017).

Y generation requests their work life to be more enjoyable and productive and they want to be engaged to their works (Deloitte, Global Human Capital Trends, 2017). Organizations started to consider their employees as internal customers (Erkmen, 2018).

Employee experience is about employees' interactions at an organization. It begins from recruitment to the end of employees' career. Employees live continuous experience (Margo, 2017). Employee experience can be defined as "employee's holistic perceptions of the relationship with his/her employing organization derived from all the encounters at touchpoints along the employee's journey" (Plaskoff, 2017).

Creating positive employee experience is one of human resource management functions. HRM department apply new strategies and design new programmes to create positive employee experience. Positive employee experience is an important tool to retain talented employees and to gain productivity from them.

Leaders also have to know which factors lead to positive employee experience to make employees more satisfied and engaged.

2. Positive Employee Experience

Employee experience can be defined as ‘‘perceptions of employees about their organizations that is derived from all the activities, behaviors, and procedures they run across while working in the organization’’(Plaskoff,2017). It is about appreciation, connection and meaning in interaction with work management, organizational values, customers and colleagues(Plaskoff,2017). Positive employee experience reduces employees’ anxiety and provides safety requirements of employees(Debouk,2020). While positive employee experience is determinative in the engagement and attachment of employees, it is important to understand and improve employee experience for organizations(Erkmen,2018). Positive employee experience affects employees’ behaviors and attitudes toward their organization. Organizational commitment is also impacted from positive employee experience(Farndale, Kelliher, 2013).Satisfied employees work with higher motivation and they are willing to make extra efforts for their organizations (Plaskoff,2017).

HRM departments can make different applications to increase employee experience(Shenoy and Uchil,2018). Organizations have to focus on wellness and satisfaction of employees with a holistic approach (Dawson,2015) .Organizational structure, leadership, teams, diversity, learning are some of factors that affect employee experience(Deloitte,2017).

2.1. The Critical Role of Human Resource Department in Employee Experience Design

Human resource departments firstly need to understand employee needs through interwies and observations. It is also important to determine the issues and needs that are cirritical for employees. Touch points are employees’ interactions with their employer. When determining critical touch points, the demographics of different employees have to be considered.

Human resource department have to make brainstorming with employees to improve their needs and cirritical issues After improvements, employees have to be monitored. At this stage surveys can be useful to evaluate their current situation(Tucker,2020).

Explooyee experience design is a ‘‘mind changer’’ in human resource management (Shivathanu, 2019).It aims to transform human resource

management from “process developer” to “experience architect” (Bersin et al., 2016).

The critical reach point is legitimization of human resource management (Legge, 2005). Human resource became a separate department in the 1910's (Ulrich and Dulebohn, 2015). At the beginning human resource department was responsible of transactional tasks (Wright, 2008). From 1980's human resource department placed as a strategic department which aligns organizational goals with human resource practices (Ulrich, 1997).

In today's large organizations human resource business partner model is dominant (McCracken et al., 2017). Business partner has the professional dominant role in this model (Caldwell, 2008). Human resource business partner have in contact with top management and have access for strategic support (Fear and Pritchard, 2005). The main idea of this model is to shift daily activities of human resource professionals to line manager. Thus they can deal with more strategic issues (McCracken et al., 2017).

Transactional tasks about employees are assigned to employees themselves through self service human resource portals (Francis and Keegan, 2010).

These HR IT systems can lead employees to think that human resource department do not care of their individual needs (Wright, 2008). Employees can think that human resource business partners are managers' representatives not employees (Fox and Heizmann, 2017).

The underlying idea of employee experience design is actively managing total memorable experiences and increase loyalty and employee satisfaction (Verhoef et al., 2009). There are “customer experience managers” at some organizations (Palmer, 2010). Employee experience can be seen as an extension of customer experience (Yohn, 2016). Knowledge about employee experience legitimizes human resource departments' power. Employee experience design can be managed within human resource business partners by categorising them experienced and unexperienced ones. Experienced HR business partners can be allocated to strategic issues and less experienced ones can be allocated to HR service center. HR business partners offer solutions to the line managers and develop internal and external relationships (Plaskoff, 2017).

Legitimized human resource management leads to positive employee experience and increases employee performance and creativity (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2011). This can be gained only where there is no conflict between organizational goals, HR's care for employees and HR's strategic involvement (Morgan, 2017). HR legitimization can only be achieved with knowledge and knowledgeable experts.

Employee experience design is based on creating norms which leads to employee behavior (Sabestian and Dery,2007) and controlling employee experience (Bersin et al.2016). Good employee experience design has to be structured as ‘‘data driven’’ and has to lead to results such as reduced turnover of employees, innovation, productivity (Morgan,2017).

2.2. Implementing Humanistic Care

Employees are the key administration objects for human resources. The activities of human resource department has a critical factor at determining employee experience. It is important to understand employees’ needs from their point of views to increase employee experience. The weak employee experience highly impacts retention and attraction of talented employees. The effective ways of human resource activities are based on improving agility through organizational design and strategic consistency (Tang, Xie, Zhang,2020).

Early stages of human resource activities begins with employment approval, salary determination, contract signing, trial period. Training and performance appraisals, salary adjustments, insurance policies, reward and punishment procedures, career assesments and developments are among some of the basic human resouce activities. At the retirement stage, approval for retirement is given(Tang, Xie, Zhang,2020).

There are many ways of increasing humanistic care of employees for human resouce departments. Increasing humanistic care impacts positively employee experience. Supporting employees with health services, promotion and recognition of employees, giving training and development opportunities, providing referral and consultation are some ways of humanistic care which results with positive employee experience. Providing employees occupational pyshcological counseling, helping employees to reduce stress levels and helping them about occupational and psychological problems also increases work life quality. Developing employees’ skills, structuring fair reward systems, supporting employees for problem solving affects positive employee experience (Harley, Allen, Sargent, 2007).

Implementing humanistic care at human resource departments is very critical to impact employee experience positively (Tang, Xie, Zhang,2020).

2.3. Learning

Learning is a critical factor that increases positive employee experience. When employees access learning, their engagement increases. Employees want to feel their contributions to the organization and they want to feel being valued. Being

challenged and inspired increases their positive feelings toward organization. Additionally employees strive to develop and grow. Learning satisfies all these needs. Learning programs at an organization determines the strength of employee experience. Learning programs may include orientation of new employees, leadership transformations, development of skills.

New employees want to know organizational culture and expectations of organization. Employees also want to gain leadership skills through learning. If employees helped to gain required skills, they can direct their career (Margo, 2017).

In today's business busy environment, employees are forced to allocate a restricted few time to learning. Employees want to access to learning at any place they want because of their tight work programmes. They want flexibility to access learning tools. Microlearning is way to provide employees quick, practical, focused information to achieve their objectives. Microlearning includes microlibraries. It is a kind of learning portal that includes short units. While traditional learning is made outside of work, it is hard for employees to implement what they learned at their work. Microlearning is a kind of just-in-time training. Employees can access it whenever they want. Microlibraries are modular, flexible and accessible. Microlearning includes bite size information and it is easy to access.

It is easy to find specific topics which employees want to access. It is fast to access and employees save from time. Microlearning is accessible at any time at any place (Margo, 2017).

Microlearning through microlibraries increase positive employee experience. Employees feel free to schedule their learning time. While the learning time fits their schedule, they can easily focus on learning. Employees can easily use their learning assets to solve a problem. Additionally they are more motivated at this kind of learning (Margo, 2017).

2.4. Digital transformation

According to some researchers digital transformation is about human transformation (Satell, 2018; Tabrizi et al., 2019; Wigston, 2019). Customer experience is related with digital transformation (Clark, 2017). Employees have to be included to the digital transformation process because they have to be educated and developed for their commitment and productivity to create a positive customer experience (Zink, 2017). A positive employee experience leads employees to be more productive, highly respected and committed to the organization (Morgan, 2017). Digital transformation at organizations increase positive employee experience (Gheidari, Zanjani, 2020).

2.5. Communication

Communication has an important role to increase positive employee experience at organizations. Employees connect each other, collaboratively work together and connect to their organization through communication (Rothe,2015). Today's employees want personalized communication at the right time based on their individual preferences.

Transparent and open communication, knowledge sharing giving continuous feedback, working with collaboration increases trust environment and increases positive employee experience (Harley, Allen, Sargent,2007). Collaboration among employees positively affects their perceptions about their organizations. Giving continuous and constructive feedback is another form of communication.

Employees who receive feedback know what to do to become more effective. Feedback makes internal communication more stronger. Employees become more inspired, enthusiastic and more passionate toward their work within feedback (Menguc,2013).

2.6. Leadership

Leadership styles are influential on positive employee experience. Leaders have a critical role on how employees experience their organization (Tuckey, Bakker, Dollard, 2012). Transformational leaders empower employees. They change and transform employees (Northouse,2018). Based on the social exchange theory, supported employees are willing to give extra effort at their work and try to exceed their performance (Saks, 2006). Positive employee experience increases while transformational leaders establish trust relations with their employees and behave toward them fairly (Macey and Schneider,2008). Participative management enables employees to give decisions about their own tasks. This leads to employee satisfaction. (Rothe,2015). Participative management helps to create openness and trust at the organization (Dawson,2015).

Employees understand their emotions and strengths through coaching (Crabb,2011). Employees add more skills for their job and think that their leaders care for them when they receive coaching. This increases their positive employee experience (Rasca,2018).

Employees perceive inspiring leaders more knowledgeable and responsive to their needs (Bass,1988). Inspiring leaders connect employees with organizational goals (Xu and Thomas,2011).

2.7. Positive Organizational Culture

There is also an important impact of positive organizational culture on employee experience at organizations. Trust and fairness, work-life balance, reward and recognition procedures, commitment and common vision are subfactors of positive organizational culture. Supporting employees about work and private life balance and having people oriented culture impacts employee experience positively (Mack, 2018). Passion and engagement of employees are increased within positive organizational culture (Shenoy and Uchil, 2018). Employees are connected to each other under an inspirational vision and an identity which increases positive organizational culture. Creating a positive organizational culture have an impact on how employees feel about their organizations (Farndale and Kelliher, 2013). Aligning employees' goals within organizational goals, fostering their belongingness have a significant impact on employees' positive experience (Rasca, 2018).

Employees' feelings are affected from trust and fairness at organizations. Employees feel burnout when they perceive unfairness (Murphy and Patrick, 2007). When employees feel justice and fairness about their organizations, they have positive employee experience (Saks, 2006).

In today's business world, employees feel pressure and encounter with some difficulties to balance work and private life (Adeniji, Falola, Adeyeye). Positive organizational cultures which support work and private life balance decreases stress level of employees and increases job performance and job satisfaction (Webber, Sarris and Bessell). Positive organizational cultures support flexible work arrangements (Murphy and Patrick, 2007).

If employees feel the respect of their organization to their work and private life balance, they become more creative for their organizations (Bajer, 2016).

Fair performance appraisals enhances positive employee experience. If employees' efforts are recognized and rewarded, their positive experiences are enhanced (Harley, Allen and Sargent; 2007). Recognition programmes help to support positive employee experience (Shenoy and Uchil, 2018).

2.8. Employees' Development Opportunity

Clear expectations and goals, training opportunities, empowerment, open to experimentation are subfactors of employees' development opportunity. Employees prefer to stay at their organizations if they are given development opportunities and thus their positive experience increases. Ambiguous work roles lead employees to leave their organizations (Rasca, 2018). Organizations can

keep their employees within development activities (Dessler,2016). Employees gain knowledge and skills within experimentation and training opportunities (Armstrong and Taylor,2014). Training opportunities give employees more flexibility and autonomy and it is related with positive employee experience (Harley, Allen and Sargent,2007).

Independence feelings of employees about their jobs lead them to be more proud about their organizations and their job (Mengüç et al.,2016). Additionally if employees experiment new things, they become more engaged (Saks,2006). Empowered employees give more importance to their self development. Thus their positive feelings about their work environment is increased (Tuckey, Bakker and Dollard;2012). Empowerment feelings of employees increase their positive employee experience (Macey and Schneider,2008). Empowering employees by providing them flexible and autonomous work environment lead to positive employee experience. Expectations and goals have to be clear for employees' positive experience (Roald and Edgren,2001).

2.9. Trust and Transperancy

Organizations have to build trust and transperancy about employee personal data policy for positive employee experience. If employees' trust towards organization is damaged or lost, their long term relationship with the organization will be harmed or ended. Organizations have to be transperant and respect the employees ' knowing right. Employees have the access to personal data about them transperantly and rightly. Employee personal data policy have to structured for mutual benefit of organizations and employees.

It has to be based on trust and transperancy. How and for what purpose was data collected, who can reach this data has to be outlined at employee data policy. This has to be an ongoing process where employees engaged and informed. If there will be any change at employees ' personal data policy, employees' consent has to be taken. Employee personal data has to be treated as confidential and has to remain as private. Companies should protect employees' personal private data from unauthorized access. If there is a breach, employees immediately have to be notified within the organization. Organizations also have to protect the personal rights of employees who left the organization (Debouk,2020).

2.10. Implementing Agile Principles

While organizations with high hierarchy and bureacracy have many layers, it is hard to achieve collaboration and efficient data flow. Agile teams are comprised

of multi disciplines, more empowered and more informed. Team members can easily give daily operation decisions.

Decentralization gives employee more autonomy and flexibility and at the end their positive experience increases (Debouk,2020). Traditional working models have to be replaced with agile principles to have a positive employee experience.

2.11. Flexible Work Arrangements

There is a positive relationship between flexible work arrangements and positive employee experience (Chen and Fulmer, 2018). Flexible work arrangements can be defined as the flexibility of how much, where and when one works. Flexible work arrangements include flexible scheduling, flexible hours and location. Compressed work weeks and flex time composes flexible scheduling. Flexible hours means that employees determine the work hours which they start and stop. A compressed work weeks means that employees increases working hours to reduce one working day at a week. Flexible location allows employees to choose the working place instead of a fixed place. Working home office is an example of flexible location. While workforce demographics have been changed over time, employes began to offer workplace flexibility. While women became active in the work and many adults perform outside activities and receive training outside the work, older workers prefer to work instead of retiring (Quinn, Cahill and Giandrea,2014), employers began to implement flexible work arrangements. Flexible work arrangements enhances employees' productivity, satisfaction and commitment (Eaton,2003). Employees evaluate flexible work arrangements as signals that organizations value them.

Employees reciprocate this value feeling within their commitment to the organization and their positive employee experience increases (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Employees' positive reactions are increased when they feel being valued. Employees can balance their work and private life within flexible work arrangements.

While employees choose how much, when and where to work within flexible work arrangements, this impacts employees' perceptions of organizational support (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).The reciprocation of employees depend on the level of how much employees perceive the support from the organization.

2.12. Calibrating Expectations

Expectations of employees are influenced by personal events, peers, jobs and other factors. According to researchers only a small percent of employees are

sincere about their wishes. Some wishes may be inappropriate or impossible for organizations to implement. Therefore an organization has to be clear considering its resources about what it can deliver or not as a reply to employees' expectations. If expectations of employees are in conformity with organizations' goals and strategy, human resource leaders can create "experience vision" which finds out what creates excitement at employees when coming to work. Managers have to make personal dialogues with each employee to align their expectations with organizational vision.

2.13. Personalizing Daily Experience

There are pitfalls at using only one approach to understand employee expectations. Managers usually make the customization of employee expectations. Managers may not know or have lack information from the overall perspective about what employees expect. Managers get better results when they make partnerships with employees. The first step is sharing information with employees so they can see where they can make improvements. Engagement surveys, webinars, townhall meetings can be useful to learn the expectations of employees. Managers are responsible of creating safety environments for employees for expressing their expectations without fear. Managers can offer personalized trainings to employees not to make them confused with lots of choices.

Managers can offer default options to employees to support them in acting easier. Additionally managers can connect employees with others who have ideas and insights to share.

2.14. Shaping Memories

Organizations generally react to negative experiences quickly. It does not work while it usually includes not important issues to employees and organizations. Organizations have to focus on prominent events rather than incidents. Organizations can reframe negative experiences with accepting the problem and emphasizing based on employees' feedback and persuade employees things will be better in the future.

3. Conclusions

Organizations began to give importance to employee experience while it directly impacts employee engagement. Employee experience also affects productivity and loyalty of employees. Positive organizational culture, leadership style, communication, employees' development opportunity have impact on employee experience.

HR business processes have to be optimized by HR departments. Additionally HR departments have to implement employee humanistics care to enhance positive employee experience.

HR strategic transformation can be achieved by enhancing positive employee experience. In this process it is critical to meet development requirements, giving salary incentives, supporting innovative thinking, attaining and keeping talented employees.

Digital technology has changed the way we want to learn. Microlearning meets the needs of modern learners and enhances positive employee experience.

Microlearning as a continuous learning helps employees to reach their full potential and encourages them. Additionally trust and transparency, implementing agile principles, flexible work arrangements, calibrating expectations, personalizing daily experience and shaping memories are critical factors to shape employee experience.

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CHAPTER 16

EVALUATING URBAN TOURISM MOVEMENTS AND TOURISTS' SATISFACTION OF URBAN HISTORIC LANDSCAPES

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1. Introduction

Tourism, as a set of economic activities, trades on the physical, social, environmental and cultural character of special places (Williams, 2002). Cities are the biggest touristic resources and are themselves among the important destinations. An increasing number of cities have selected tourism as a strategic sector for local development in the world (Russo and van der Borg, 2002).

Cultural and heritage elements are part of tourism cultural capital that attracts tourists to satisfy their cultural expectancies (Laws, 1998). As cultural heritage sites possess a relevant economic value and can be commoditized to become the most consumed tourism product, it is therefore possible to conceptualize tourism cultural capital, a new phenomenon in cultural tourism. Cultural capital represents the cultural endowment that can be managed for the profitable development of a specific place and indicates both tangible and less tangible characteristics (Macbeth, Carson and Northcote, 2004; Trono, Palmi and Prete, 2021). The tangible cultural attributes include heritage and places, arts and crafts such as historical buildings, ruins, castles, museums and handicrafts and those with less tangible characteristics incorporate cultural norms and behavior, traditions and values, history and social diversity such as festivals, food and culinary practices (Palmi and Prete, 2021).

According to modern marketing theories, one of the most effective marketing methods is to achieve advanced customer satisfaction and thus to create a loyal customer base (Yoon ve Uysal 2004). At the focal point of today's

marketing approach, there is the goal of meeting customer requests and needs and thus achieving development and profitability (Kotler 1994).

There can be many reasons that affect tourists leaving a destination satisfied or unsatisfied. Many reasons such as transportation to the destination, quality of accommodation and food and beverage services, entertainment opportunities, behavior and attitudes of local people and tradesmen, and prices can play an important role in the holiday evaluations of tourists (Kozak 2003).

In order to achieve success in destination marketing, it is necessary to ensure that tourists leave the destination satisfied in every aspect. This situation emerges as an important factor in creating a positive and strong destination image (Laws, Scott and Parfitt 2002).

The degree of consumer satisfaction with a given tourist destination is a function of: 1. the consumer's expectations regarding the attributes of the destination; and 2. the extent to which those expectations are fulfilled (Clemons & Woodruff, 1992). Tourist feedback on their experiences of a destination tended to focus on outdoor activities, although the experience of transport and accommodation did have an effect on tourist satisfaction. It is therefore essential that tourist managers recognise that the consumer's experiences of activities that are performed during the stay at a holiday destination are likely to be an important determinant of satisfaction (Danaher and Arweiler, 1996).

This study aims to evaluate urban tourism movements and tourists' satisfaction and give suggestions for sustainable usage of urban historic landscapes. With touristic activities the paper describes an empirical study of 200 visitors to the archeological site of Istanbul- Historical Peninsula.

2. Material and Method

Historical Peninsula, having a 8500 year historical background, serving a capital city of three empires, having a strategic position up to present, offering unique natural beauties, architectural and archeological values and silhouette, was declared as a protected area in 1995.

Historical Peninsula is a densely populated region in working life while at the same time containing the most important historical opuses in Istanbul. Hagia Sophia Mosque, Blue Mosque, Topkapı Palace, Süleymaniye Mosque, Hippodrome, Sultanahmet Square, the world famous Covered Bazaar, Beyazıt Complex, Cemberlitas, Museum of Basilica Cistern, Mosaics Museum, Kariye (Chora) Museum, Archaeological Museum and many others are located in this peninsula. Also Historical Peninsula is the centre of the government since Governorship of Istanbul and lots of offices of tax administration are in this peninsula. Many faculties of Istanbul University, important libraries, hospitals

are located in this area. Also this region has the most important archaeological values of Istanbul.

Historical Peninsula with a total area of 1562 ha, has a geographical location limited in the northern Haliç, in the south Marmara Sea, in the west city walls, spread out to the east (Figure 1).



Figure 1: Location of Historical Peninsula

The Historical Peninsula, which is nearly 8500 years old, has a rich and unique cultural heritage in the world. The whole Historical Peninsula has been declared as a historic site. Besides, the most of the region has been registered in the World Cultural Heritage List by UNESCO. The agreement called “The Protection and Conservation of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” was signed and took effect in the year 1972. In other words, the antiques, historic sites, monuments, etc. from prehistoric times to the 20th century, and the whole cultural and natural values of the world have been added in the list. In 1985 Istanbul was included in the list, for being a city of settlement for different cultures for a period of over 5000 years, both architecturally and archeologically.

The Sultanahmet Archeological Park, the Süleymaniye Mosque and, in addition to this, the mosque in Zeyrek, which was converted from the church to the mosque, and their surrounding area and the Walls of Istanbul have been declared as the historical areas under protection by the government and UNESCO and, they are all in the World Cultural Heritage List.

The Historical Peninsula was built on the seven hills. Nearly, on each hill, some monumental buildings were built. The monumental and historical buildings on each hill create a different ambience. This gives the city an impressive and unique silhouette. The Topkapi Palace, the Blue Mosque and the other historical mosques on the hills of the Historical Peninsula could be stated among the ones, which create the silhouette of the city mentioned before (Figure 2).



Figure 2. A view of Historical Peninsula

In this study, it is statically analyzed the satisfaction experienced by tourists who visited Historical Peninsula, major tourist destination of Istanbul. The socio-economic structure of visitors, ways of transportation and land-use types were designated by questionnaires. Questionnaires were carried out in summer, in the period with highest user density and were carried out with tourists face to face in study area before pandemic. All questions evaluated according to frequencies and percertages. Open ended questions were grouped according to answers and were coded before evaluating. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used by the evaluation of data.

After all these investigations, tourists' needs and demands were determined, planning and design suggestions devoted to visitors' needs and demands with regarding the balance of usage and protection have gotten.

3. Findings

In this section, the questionnaires which were carried out with tourists in various touristic areas in Historical Peninsula (Beyazıt Square, Sultanahmet Square, Eminönü Square and Gülhane Park and around) were evaluated. Questionnaires were carried out in order to assess tourists satisfaction and demands and in which amount Historical Peninsula meet tourists needs

Socio-economic structure and usage characteristics of the users were also tried to be determined within the questionnaire. Nationality, gender, age, education, monthly income groups of tourists were determined under the socio-economic structure. On the other hand, reasons why Historical Peninsula is preferred, frequency of visits, tourists's impressions of the area, areas are visited with, disturbing factors in the area and degree of satisfaction from the hotels, cafes and restaurant are determined in aspect of land-use characteristics (Table 1,2).

As the socio-economic structure of the visitors is examined, there is a homogenous distribution in the gender groups, while female users are in majority (57 %). In age groups it is seen that, mostly 26-40 and 41-60 groups (79 %) visit Historical Peninsula. Mainly university graduates and master/PhD level (84 %) generate the majority of the visitors. As the visitors are assessed according to

the monthly-income levels, it is determined that middle-income visitor groups (78 %) play a major role. Also visitors are assessed according to the nationality it is seen that German (28 %), American (23,5 %) and English (19 %) visitors generate the majority (Table 1).

Table 1: Socio-Economic Structure of the Users.

Socio-economic Structure		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Nationality	German	56	28
	American	47	23,5
	English	38	19
	Iran	16	8
	Russian	14	7
	Holland	10	5
	Japanese	6	3
	China	5	2,5
	Spanish	4	2
	Swedish	4	2
Gender	Female	114	57
	Male	86	43
Age	0-18	-	-
	19-25	34	17
	26-40	94	47
	41-60	64	32
	61 ≤	8	4
Education level	Primary Education Graduate	-	-
	High school Graduate	30	15
	University Graduate	138	69
	Master/PhD	32	16
Monthly Income	Very Low-Income	4	2
	Low-Income	6	3
	Middle-Income	156	78
	High-Income	34	17

As usages of the tourists (Table 2) are examined, it is seen that majority of tourists (52 %) have been previously in Turkey, 44 % have been in Historical Peninsula before. Tourists stay in Istanbul mostly a week (32 %) and 3-5 days (29 %). They visit this area mostly with their friends and alone.

It is determined that Historical Peninsula are mostly visited for touristic with an average of 80 % which was followed for shopping (38 %) and recreational (26 %) (Figure 3).

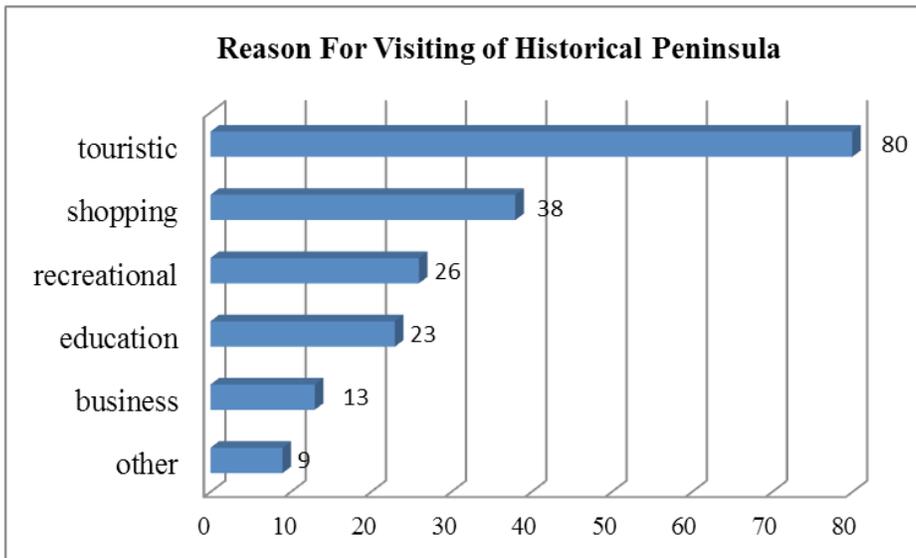


Figure 3. Reason for visiting of Historical Peninsula

Historical Peninsula is preferred for its historic and touristic value (82%) and natural beauty (31 %). Except these choices, some of tourists said that they come to Historical Peninsula to recognise islamic works, to understand islamic thought, to see Turkish baths and to examine the architecture of the region (Figure 4).

Tourists' first impression of Historical Peninsula is beautiful (68 %), mystic (42 %) and original (29 %) Figure 5).

As the disturbing factors are investigated; intensity of the users (60 %) and noise (26 %) are the disturbing factors. Also street sellers are disturbed the visitors too.

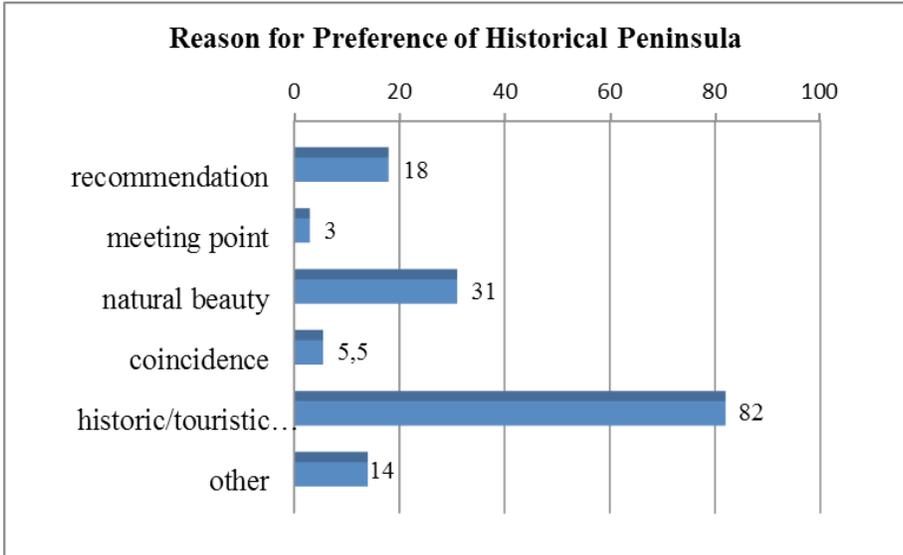


Figure 4. Reason for preference of Historical Peninsula

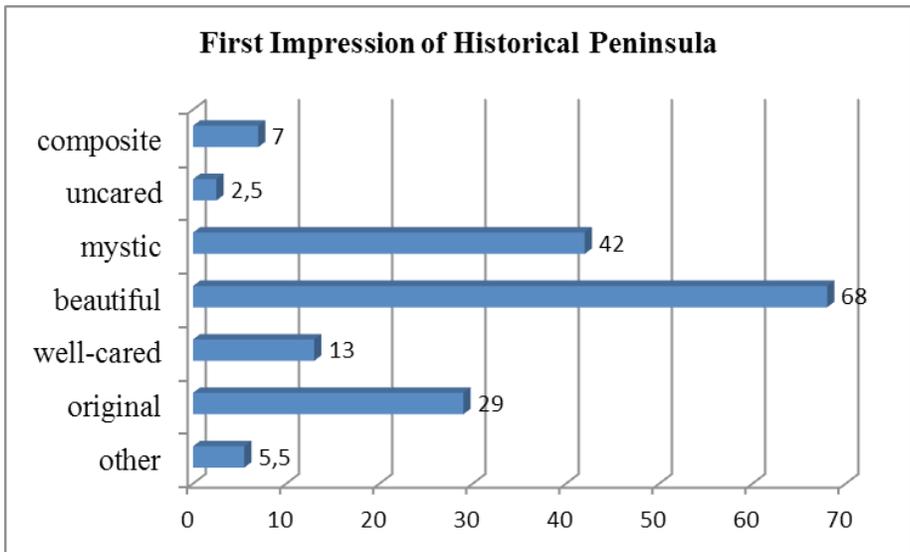


Figure 5. First impression of Historical Peninsula

The favorite place for tourists is Topkapı Palace with an average of 62 % and Sultanahmet Square with an average of 51 %

It is determined that historical abundance is mostly choose as the most impressive thing in the landscape of Historical Peninsula with an average of 67 %. The others are silhouette (54 %) and natural beauty (35 %) for visitors (Figure 6).

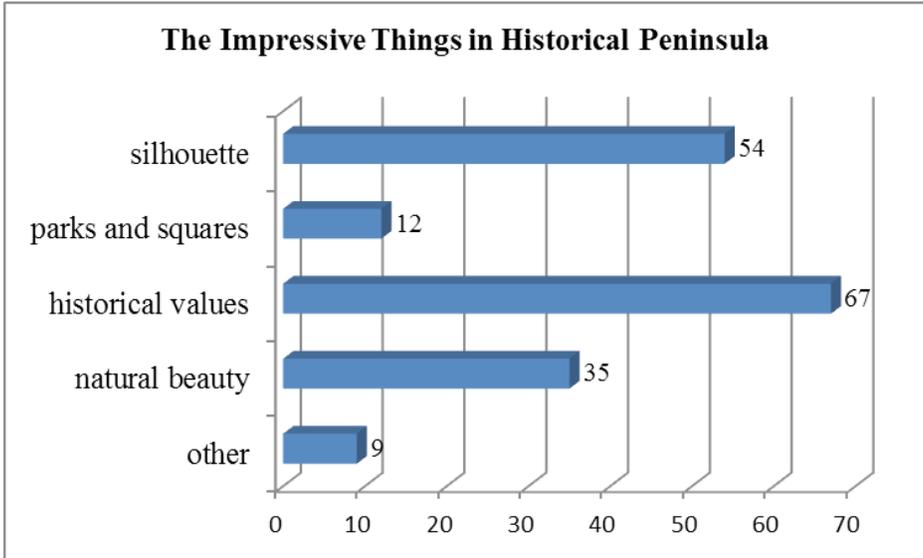


Figure 5. First impressive things of Historical Peninsula

Litter bins (56 %), information office (44 %) and touilets (33 %), are the facilities that have been found insufficient.

As transportation of the tourists are examined, it is seen that majority of tourists (62 %) have been preferred rail system, which was followed by pedestrian (51 %) and tour bus (25 %).

Table 2: Land Use Characteristics of Visitors

Usage Types		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Have you ever been in Turkey?	Yes	104	52
	No	96	48
Is this your first visit to Historical Peninsula	Yes	88	44
	No	112	56
How long are you going to stay in Istanbul?	1-3 days	16	8
	3-5 days	44	22
	1 week	64	32
	10 days	46	23
	15 days	22	11
	20 days	6	3
	1 month	2	1

Person visited with	Alone	25	12,5
	Family	66	33
	Friends	83	41,5
	Tour	26	13
	Other	-	-
Reason for visiting Historical Peninsula	Touristic	160	80
	Shopping	76	38
	Recreation	52	26
	Business	46	23
	Education	26	13
	Other	18	9
Reason for preference of Historical Peninsula	Recommendation	36	18
	Meeting point	6	3
	Natural beauty	62	31
	Without a reason/ coincidence	11	5,5
	Historical/ turistic value	164	82
	Other	7	14
First impression of Historical Peninsula	Original	48	29
	Monotonous	-	-
	Well cared	26	13
	Beautiful	126	68
	Mystic	84	42
	Uncared	5	2,5
	Composite	14	7
	Other	11	5,5
Disturbing Factors	Intensityof the users	120	60
	Noise	52	26
	Way of Usege	40	20
	Insufficient security	12	6
	Insufficiency of equipment	82	41
		22	11
	Other		

Your favourite place in Historical Peninsula	Sultanahmet Square	102	51
	Beyazıt Square	26	13
	Eminönü Square	48	24
	Gülhane Park	34	17
	Topkapı Palace	124	62
	Other	44	22
The impressive thing(s) in Historical Peninsula	Silhouette	108	54
	Parks and squares	24	12
	Historical abundance	136	67
	Natural beauty	70	35
Insufficient facilities	Other	18	9
	Plastic objects	14	7
	Sitting groups	86	43
	Lighting equipment	30	15
	Litter bins	112	56
	Administration and security	52	26
	Pergola	14	7
	WC	66	33
	Road signs, direction plates	64	32
	Fountain	24	12
	Selling units	4	2
Preference for transportation in Historical Peninsula	Information Office	88	44
	Other	4	2
	Tour bus	50	25
	Rail system	124	62
	Sea transport	9	4,5
	Bus	15	7,5
Taxi	42	21	
Pedestrian	102	51	
Other	6	3	

5. Conclusion

The competitive process experienced throughout the world is also experienced among tourism destinations. In this process, destinations that make improvements in the quality and quantity of the products they offer by making studies that highlight the expectations and needs of tourists provide success.

In today's technology, tourists that are participated to tourism activities, act more conscious and selective. Therefore, to identify the expectations and needs of tourists and to give priority to these needs are the important issues for sustainable tourism planning.

When the survey results are evaluated, it can be said that the tourists are generally satisfied with the Historical Peninsula as a destination. This proves that about half of the tourists (56%), come to the region more than once, and 54% of the visitors stay between 3-7 days.

Historical Peninsula is preferred for its historical values in priority. Islamic artifacts (such as Turkish bath) have been wondering by tourists. The tourism potential of Historical Peninsula depends on these artifacts' sustainability. These architectural values need to be regularly maintained and renewed while preserving their originality.

The unique silhouette of Historical Peninsula have been found attractive by tourists. In this context, the buildings that ruin the silhouette should be prohibited and to find solutions to the existing buildings is needed.

It is determined that insufficiency of the equipment, intensity of users and noise are the major disturbing factors. Toilets, litter bins and information offices are the most disqualified equipments. Number of toilets should be increased and also they must be clean and hygienic.

Information office is an important need for the tourists. The number of the offices should be increased and established in the various districts of the peninsula, where the multilingual staff are required.

Tourists also want some information boards about historical environment, restaurants and cafes.

The problems identified in the result of this study, should be imagined and interpreted truly by the politicians. It's very important for the sustainable tourism movement of Historical Peninsula

Consequently, the sustainability of positive functions of Historical Peninsula, which is the major destination of Istanbul should be maintained by the protection of their natural, historical and cultural features, while their actual characteristics are highlighted in order to ensure the persistence of cultural and touristic functions.

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CHAPTER 17

DEFINITION, IMPORTANCE AND HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOGISTICS FROM THE BEGINNING TO THE PRESENT

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1. Introduction

Human is a social being and needs other people to survive. This neediness, which started with the human history, has increased even more with the improvement of knowledge and technology. The reason for this situation is that the improvement of knowledge and technology has pushed people to specialize. Thus, increasing specialization has led to new developments and new developments have led to new needs. In other words, the needs of the people, who initially met the compulsory consumption products necessary for their lives by bartering among each other, have also diversified with the increasing information and technology over time. This supply-demand relationship, which initially took place in a very narrow environment, has become increasingly global until today. As the demands of people reach a global point, the concept of transportation has increased its importance in terms of meeting these demands. At this point, the concept of logistics, which can be defined as the delivery of the right product to the right place at the right time, becomes apparent (Elgün, 2011: 204). This concept, which initially appeared as a military term, but gradually gained a place in the field of business management, has increased its importance in our lives every passing day. Increasing knowledge and technological developments have been the main factors in the historical development of logistics (Kobu, 2003: 237; Yayla, 2018: 621).

Along with its increasing importance in the historical process, the concept of logistics has become a part of today's life. To exemplify, most of the time, we don't even think about what kind of transportation phase the products in our kitchen for breakfast such as coffee, eggs, bread and olives go through between

the production and distribution stages. However, even if we do not think about this process, the place and importance of this concept in our lives is indisputably great. Because we know that all products such as foodstuffs, clothes, television, dishwasher and oven reach us by means of the logistics process. At this point, logistics is one of the operations that surround almost all of our lives and is necessary for us to continue our lives. With this awareness, we have tried to examine the definition, importance, and development of logistics in the historical process from the beginning to the present day.

2. Definition and Importance of Logistics

The word logistics “logistikos” means ability to calculate and “logistique” means produce, present, barracks or accommodation. Etymologically, logistics is a combination of the Latin words *lojik* (logic) and *static* (statistics), and it means logical statistics. Thus logistics was obtained by combining the concepts of accommodation, logic and calculation. Depending on the purpose and scope of use, logistics, which was previously used only in the military field, was later used in business administration with the understanding of its importance. Rather than being a new concept, logistics is an old concept that has evolved over time and its content is changed. Therefore, in this context, logistics is a new variant of an old concept. As an old concept, logistics was used in meanings such as transportation, shipment, storage, geographical transportation, supply (Tekin, 2013: 12). In another source, it is stated that the word Logistics comes from the French word “logistique” and this word entered English as “logistics” in the 19th century. Similarly, it was emphasized that initially it was used in terms of meeting the needs of the materials and personnel of the armies, such as transportation, supply and maintenance, in peace or war conditions (Bayraktutan & Tüylüoğlu, et. al., 2012: 62).

In the dictionary prepared by the Turkish Language Association (TDK), the word logistics is defined as; “Effective and efficient planning and implementation of the transportation of all kinds of products, services and information flows from the origin to the destination in order to meet the needs of the people.” In the Oxford University dictionary, the word logistics is defined as “the branch of military science related to the shipment, maintenance and provision of personnel, equipment, supplies”. The most cited definition in the literature is the definition made by the CLM/Council of Logistics Management. According to this definition: “Logistics is the process of planning, implementing and controlling the efficient, effective flow and storage of goods, services and related

information from point of origin to the point of consumption for conforming to customer requirements.” (Karatop, 2010: 7).

That is to say, it can be said that the use of the word logistics is related to the flow planning and control of the finished products in a way that includes both the private sector and the public sector together. Logistics includes the delivery of the right product to the right place at the right time. In other words, the right product-right place-right time understanding forms the basis of the logistics industry. With the increasing competition, the existence of the right product, the right time and the right place has become insufficient to explain the concept of logistics. The changing expectations of consumers have been the main factor at this point. Considering these matters, a broader definition of logistics can be made as follows: “The concept of logistics is the activity of keeping a good in the right place, at the right time, in the right quantity, at the highest quality, in the safest way and at affordable costs” (Yayla, 2018: 620).

The concept of logistics in the modern sense also requires a management framework that aims to realise all these activities in a planned and integrated manner. Logistics services help companies focus on their main fields of activity by gathering all logistics activities within the supply chain in a single responsible company. Instead of creating a high-cost logistics infrastructure that requires fixed investment, they also reduce the burden of the company in terms of storage, traffic and security by helping them allocate resources into production. As a matter of fact, the logistics sector was born from the idea of manufacturing companies outsourcing activities within the supply chain by focusing on their own subject of production (Babacan, 2003: 9).

The concept of logistics includes many elements such as product, cost, quality, storage. However, in order to carry out logistics in the aforementioned sense, the most fundamental element is undoubtedly human. In other words, logistics activities cannot be carried out without a customer. At this point, it can be stated that the logistics is the flow of materials and services required in line with the needs of customers (Uslu & Akçadağ, 2012: 149-158). In this flow process, transportation is one of the most basic elements for logistics. Since it is often impossible to produce and consume a product in the same place, the concept of transportation is an integral part of production and consumption. Without a fast and effective transportation process, experiencing disruptions in production and consumption is inevitable. When considered from this point of view, the fact that the economically developed regions are located on trade routes and in port areas throughout history is not a coincidence. Transportation expenses correspond to one-third or even two-thirds of the cost in the logistics

activity (Kherbach & Mocan 2016: 406). High quality and speed are essential as well as low cost in the logistics sector. At this point, improvements in transportation and shipment will directly increase the efficiency of logistics activities. Undoubtedly, this situation will contribute to the national economy (Tekin, 2013: 15).

One of the most important elements that demonstrate the level of development and improvement of countries is the economic indicators of that country. The fact that these indicators are positive has positive effects on the economic, social, psychological and cultural texture of the country. These effects increase the quality of individuals in society by raising their culture, life and welfare levels. One of the tools that plays the most crucial role in the change and increase of the aforementioned economic indicators is logistics. Especially in recent years, with the economic development, the increase in the foreign trade tendencies of the countries and the more complex foreign trade transactions have raised the importance of logistics. In this context, countries must have a sustainable domestic and foreign trade system, and this trade must be supported by logistics strategies necessarily in terms of the continuation of economic activities. In addition to adding value to the country in economic, social, psychological, cultural, strategic, military and political fields; logistics contributes to numerous areas such as increase in national income, increase in purchasing power, decrease in unemployment as a result of increase in employment, increase in morale and motivation, increase in education level, increase in geo-political and geo-strategic importance, bilateral and multilateral agreements, logistics bases, political power and leadership, strategic partnership, role model and model partnership, fair distribution of income, increase in tax revenues, increase in competitiveness, economic growth and development, increase in foreign trade volume, increase in foreign capital (Duran & Türkoğlu, 2019: 89).

3. Historical Development

In the beginning, people tried to reach their food, which they live on, by collecting wild plants and fruits, hunting and fishing for a very long time. By 12,000 BC, there had been hunter-gatherers in all habitable parts of the world, albeit with a low population density. The most densely populated areas are tropical and semitropical regions in which environmental and climatic conditions are most favorable for human life. In other words, hunter-gatherer people, who migrate great distances in search of prey and food sources and more favorable climatic

conditions, are also healthier than the first farmers who came after them because they were ate better, especially when prey was plentiful (Güran, 2015: 9; Küçükcalay, 2014: s.38).

An important consequence of the emergence of agriculture, which has caused great changes in human history, is the increase in the potential to feed the population that a given region can feed. The population increased rapidly, especially in the regions where the Neolithic revolution spread. People began to live in settlements permanently. The food supply became more regular and reliable. At least, fluctuations began to be annually, not daily. Thanks to the facility of food storage, the negative effects of annual fluctuations were tried to be partially eliminated. With the revolution in agriculture, trade developed and expanded as well. The importance of interregional trade increased in particular. As a result, the Market mechanism was emerged and began to play an increasing role in the distribution of economic resources (Güran, 2015: 13-15).

The development of economic life in the early ages did not occur in the same speed and manner in all countries of the world. It should be remembered that there are many regions, nations or tribes living at a primitive cultural and economic level even today. It is known that Egyptians living on the banks of the Nile river and the societies settled in Mesopotamia, where the Euphrates and Tigris flow towards the Persian Gulf and irrigate, have attained a high standard of living. Ancient Egypt, which existed between 4000 BC and 525 BC, arouses the interest of historians and economic historians even today with its political administration, structures, pyramids and economic methods. Besides, when the historical development process of logistics is examined, it is observed that it dates back to the construction of the Egyptian pyramids. In this context, the construction of the Egyptian pyramids is considered as the oldest and greatest project in terms of logistics in the civil field (Köhnen, 1965: 14; Küçükcalay, 2014: 45. Tekin, 2013: 15).

It is thought that in ancient Egypt around 2700 BC, advanced technology was used in construction and transportation systems for material processing technologies and to build the pyramids. The idea that the ancient Egyptians had the technology to move enormous blocks of stone, in order to build the Great Pyramid of Giza (Cheops Pyramid), which is calculated to be 146 meters high and weighing 6 million tons, is still puzzling. In addition to the invention of transportation vehicles in Ancient Egypt, the techniques created for the transportation of structures and materials are still research topics today. In this sense, the transition from one civilization stage to another, in other words, from one historical process to another, is achieved through brilliant logistics solutions.

Archaeologists studying the habitat affected by logistics in ancient Egypt have stated that the Nile River is the main transportation line. Archaeological evidence shows that logistics was effective in importing necessary raw materials from other countries, building an impressive army and providing the living necessities of all Egyptian people (Koçak, 2020: 249).

It is clear that the Nile River was used for the transportation of goods and people. For this reason, the Nile had been an economical way to transport all kinds of goods, crops and construction materials by boats in all seasons of the year. In fact, since the camel was introduced later to the country, which was flooded with constant floods, especially donkeys were used in transportation initially. However the main transport was carried out over the Nile River. By contacting the Africans via the Nile, the main commercial route, materials such as wood, gum, gold dust, etc. were obtained from them. Boats and sturdy ships made from cedar timber brought from Lebanon and timber imported from Cyprus were used for transportation. Indeed, some of these ships, which are 22 meters long, brought spices from the Red Sea. However, since the Egyptians generally held back from maritime, maritime operations were usually carried out by foreigners. For this reason, first the Phoenicians and then the Elenes settled in the ports at the mouth of the Nile, established their own neighborhoods and engaged in maritime trade (Trak, 1973: 34; Kaya, 2016: s.9).

Apart from the ancient Mesopotamian civilization, one of the civilizations that marked the ancient times was born in Greece. In later periods, with the establishment of cities, trade and maritime transportation also developed. The revolutionary invention of rowing ships laid the foundation for fast transportation on the high seas. This invention laid the foundation for the creation of enormous logistics supply systems needed by mobile army camps. Using these logistical capacities, Alexander the Great embarked on expeditions to his soldiers, their families, with weapons of war extended over India. The aforementioned military expedition lasted for eleven years between 334-323 BC. Alexander the Great and his army sailing towards unknown places with difficult natural and climatic conditions, reached from eastern Macedonia to India. (Köhnen, 1965: 21; Koçak, 2020: 247).

Rome is an important civilization that emerged in the Mediterranean region in the 1st millennium BC. Rome had an extensive road network connected by bridges and tunnels. The roads, almost all of which were built by soldiers and using public resources, were mostly built for military purposes. The transportation of goods on these roads was quite slow and costly. This situation increased the importance of marine shipping. Marine traffic was carried out by sailing ships

depending on the possibilities provided by the wind power. However, ships had waited in ports for favorable winds for a third of the year. The ships were small and very few of them exceeded 200 tons in capacity. It was not a very profitable business. The most important item of Mediterranean trade was grain. It was followed by olive oil and wine (Güran, 2015: 22-24; Attalı, 2018: 67-68).

After the Roman Empire was divided into an eastern half and a western half (395), Istanbul, which was the capital of the Eastern Roman (Byzantine), gradually became the capital of world trade in some way. Due to its magnificent natural harbor and its strategic location on the trade routes leading to the Black Sea, the city was very suitable for trade thanks to its geographical location. The natural bay, which is one of the biggest commercial opportunities of Byzantium and called the Golden Horn, with the demand of traders of all nationalities, gradually turned into the richest port in the world and deserved the “gold” characterization in its name in real terms. Istanbul had four ports in the 5th century. However, the ports of Proosphorion in the Golden Horn and Kaisarios (Theodosius) in the Marmara were started to be used and another port in the Golden Horn, Neorion, was reserved for the war fleet. Thus, the port of Julianus in Marmara remained the only port used for commercial shipping (Bamyacı, 2017: 261-262; Trak, 1973: 131; Bayrak, 2003: 12; Müller-Wiener, 2003: 8-9).

Mezquita (Kurtuba) mosque built in Cordoba, Spain during the Caliphate of Cordoba was built thanks to a large logistics transportation system. The history of the mosque dates back to 700 AD. The materials of this mosque, which was transported from the Islamic Empire to Spain and consisted of 856 columns, undoubtedly requires the existence of a large logistics supply system (Koçak, 2020: 249).

By the 10th century Byzantium was still at a very special location in the world in terms of trade. This special location is thanks to its capital, Istanbul undoubtedly. The city, which was located at the intersection of trade routes where international trade is carried out, dominated the Mediterranean and the Adriatic as long as it could prevent the Arab pirates. The Balkans provided access to the Central Europe; the Black Sea was very important for the control of Russian roads. Istanbul, located at the mouth of the caravan crossings, where African, Ceylon, Indian, Iranian and Chinese products were transferred to the western world, thus becomes the warehouse and market of all world trade. Trabzon, one of the most important trade cities of the Black Sea coast, was a warehouse where textiles and spices came from Central Asia and northern Syria. Besides, Abydos, Nicomedia (Izmit) and Thessalonika (Thessaloniki) were the locations where

merchants enter and exit the most. (Bailly, 1974: 278-279, 292; Cheynet, 2008: 68; Laiou-Morrisson, 2007: 83-84; Haldon, 2002: 13).

By the 10th century, Byzantium began to lose its dominance in the seas. Cities such as Venice, Pisa, and Genoa began to rapidly conquer the Mediterranean world and remained almost unrivaled in the 12th century (Benevolo, 1995: 44).

It can be observed that maritime transportation, which is the most important element of trade in every period and whose history dates back to 3200 BC, developed in an effective, safe and logistical way to support globalization by the 1200's. It is known that the most important step of this development was provided by the Hanseatic League, centering the city of Hamburg in German. This commercial step formed an important stage of the development of marine logistics. This is how maritime trade developed in the ports of the North Sea, North Africa, the Mediterranean and the Black Sea (Cuturela & Manole, 2013: 194; Attali, 2018: 79; Köhnen, 1965: 78-79).

Since the armies were numerically small during the Middle Ages, there was no major problem in their supply. However, there was a great change in logistics strategy during this period. This change occurred with the use of the storage system in the supply of armies. In this context, "the organization of warehouses for the supply of armies was conducted by the King of France, Philippe Le Bel for the first time in 1311" (Koçak, 2020: 348).

In the 15th century, colonies of Italian merchants were located in every important trading center: Geneva, Lyon, Barcelona, Seville, London, Bruges and especially Antwerp, which became the world's largest warehouse in the first half of the sixteenth century (Neal-Cameron, 2019: 183).

Another contributing factor in terms of the logistics system and globalization was the expansion of the postal system in Europe to cover the entire continent in the 16th century. The expansion of the British and Spanish Empires in the same century also led to the development of the sea shipping system. "Franz von Taxis" took his place in the pages of history as the person who organized the first postal service where transit conditions were defined (Koçak, 2020: 249-250).

Land and maritime transportation systems, which directly affect trade, have a great place in the trade of Anatolia, which is an important geography in world trade. In this unique geography, which is surrounded by sea on three sides and located at the intersection of three continents, trade has always maintained its vitality thanks to ancient road networks. The Turks, who developed the road systems they inherited from Rome, served not only the trade of Anatolia but also the world trade at this point. With the use of steam power in land and

sea transportation vehicles, the development of transportation activities has accelerated (Bakırcı, 2010: 11; Memiş, 2008: 42-43; Sevin, 2019: 6).

The most fundamental technological innovation of the Industrial Revolution, which emerged from the 1800s, was steam engines used in many areas of industry as well as railways and ocean liners. In addition, It has pioneered the revolutionary transformation of the logistics system with the role of railway, highway and sea routes becoming the necessity of the industrial revolution, the transportation of raw materials to the main production centers and the delivery of the produced goods to the market locations (Parasız, 2014: 132-133; Bakırcı, 2010: 11).

With the emergence of the need to transport agricultural products to distant places, logistics started to make a name for itself as a science at the beginning of the 20th century. Logistics' real value was found only after the Second World War. During the war, logistics was used as support work in the military field and its importance had gradually increased and it also led to the formation of the discipline of mathematics called operations research. Logistics models that were successfully carried out in the war were developed and these models were integrated with civilian life in the post-war period to serve the purposes of commercial organizations (Uçgunoğlu, 2015: 4).

Logistics as a sector has been showing great developments for more than 40 years. In fact, the logistics sector, which preserves the factors that form the basis for the development of global financial companies, such as transportation and distribution, was not even considered as a discipline or industry before the 1960s. References related to logistics in scientific activities appeared in the 1960s. (Uçgunoğlu, 2015: 4-5).

Technological developments that accelerated after the 1960s have been very effective in the field of logistics. Developments in the field of transportation have facilitated the execution of logistics activities. Cattles such as horses and oxen, which were used in freight and human transportation half a century ago, were replaced by steam powered trains and ships. In the 1980s, trains that can speed up to 300 kilometers per hour and passenger planes that can fly at several times the speed of sound were used. In the 1980s, giant cargo planes, ships capable of carrying incredible amounts of cargo, huge cranes of large tonnage, containers and ships designed to transport them, specially designed and multi-purpose trucks equipped with GPS formed the main elements of the new logistics structure (Keskin, 2018: 15-16).

In the 1990s, the national and international competitive environment, in which manufacturing enterprises were in, changed. Customers in new

emerging and already established global markets in geographically dispersed regions, aimed to obtain the best quality products cheaper and faster. Increasing competition in business life and changing customer-centered marketing idea, increased the importance of working with the logistics supply chain at the firm level. As a result of this, at the end of the 90s, logistics management took its place in universities as a brand new field of scientific activity. At the point reached today, businesses have begun to see logistics activities as a process that completes the work and makes it valuable (Uçgunoğlu, 2015: 5-6).

Thanks to the logistics opportunities that have developed with the increasing technology, the possibilities of reaching the goods produced in long distances have also increased. This situation has shifted many multinational enterprises and production centers to Asian countries, especially China, in order to benefit from the advantages of low labor force. In this way, China left Germany behind and took the second place after the USA. As a natural consequence of this situation, the delivery of goods produced in overseas distances in a very short time has become a new logistics problem that needs to be solved. Asian ports that need to improve their transportation opportunities put an end to this situation of European ports, which were the global leaders before 2004 (Keskin, 2018: 18).

After all, the logistics structure of the millennium, has come to a state in which McDonalds, the symbol of capitalism, opened branches in Russia, *Jeans* made of denim fabric, which has become the symbol of the USA, are worn on the streets of Beijing, the tracksuits produced by the German brand Adidas in China with yarn made of Turkish cotton are used by the Russian national team. In the same way, it is a state in which the overseas journey of a book ordered from the internet and published in the USA is completed in five to ten days and delivered to the reader in Turkey. The world, which becomes a global village faster with each passing day, also have been gaining a developing and strong logistics structure thanks to increasing technological opportunities (Keskin, 2018: 18).

4. Conclusion

The concept of logistics, which initially emerged as a military term, actually goes back as far as human history as an activity. With the increasing information and technology, the development in the field of logistics has increased.

It is quite surprising to see examples of large logistics activities even in the ancient times. As a branch of science, logistics started to make a distinguished name for itself only after the beginning of the 20th century. As a sector, it has

made great improvements for more than 40 years. Especially after the Second World War, many businesses in the world realized the importance of logistics and have benefited from logistics services in the development process until today. Logistics activities are vital in today's world and it is in a rapid development depending on the increasing information and technology in the globalizing world.

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