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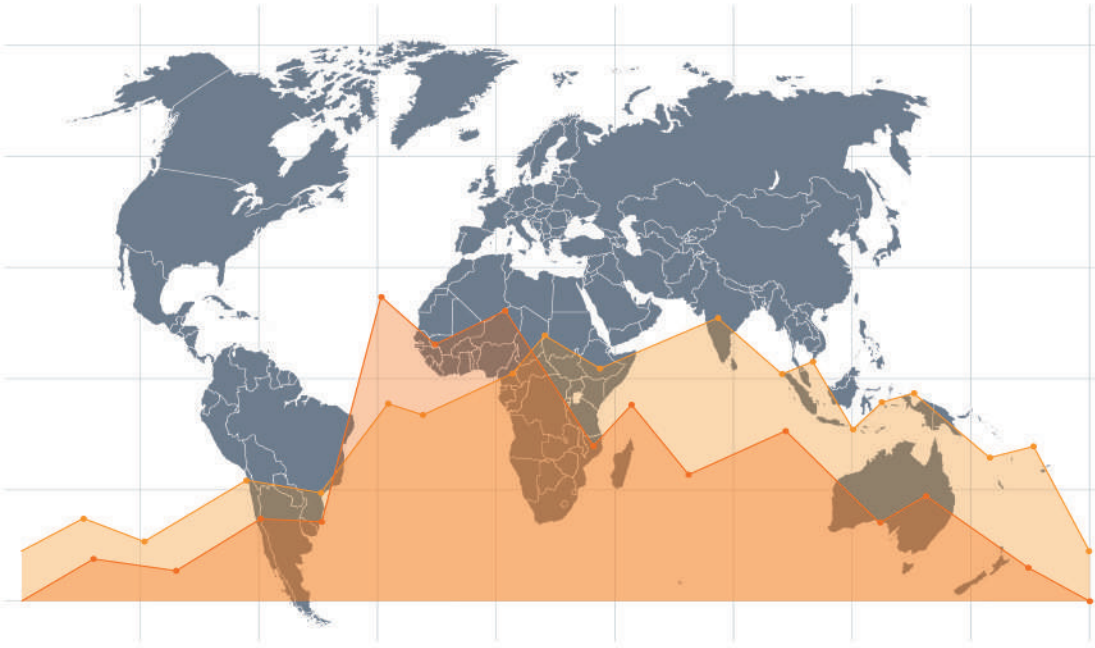
Strategic Researches II:
From Local to Global

"Working Life And Social Policy"



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Strategic Researches II:

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Editors

Mete Kaan NAMAL

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Strategic Researches II: From Local to Global
"Working Life And Social Policy"
(Edited by: Mete Kaan Namal, Mustafa Koçancı, Muhammed Karataş)

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Foreword

When we look at the world geography, it is seen that most of the geography except Western Europe, North America, Oceania and Japan, as a country, is composed of underdeveloped and developing countries. In other words, the world is a geographical area where grey areas between black and white also exist. However, human life exists in all groups and regions. While people in developed countries are happy and feel pleasure with life, people in undeveloped or underdeveloped countries go through life with their dreams about it. On the other hand, there cannot be such a natural thing more than people desire to have a comfortable life in peace and to struggle for this. So, why do some societies achieve to reach high levels of prosperity while others fail?

The fact that people cannot isolate themselves from their surroundings and the geography they live in, the different underground and aboveground resources they have in this area, the population, religion, language, culture, social structure and economic differences of nearly 200 countries sharing the world geography and their power to use these elements and the processes between the actors and the structures opposite to it, confront the main causes of the success and the failure mentioned above.

The technological change that the industry is in and the phenomenon of globalization that has spread almost all over the world cause a changing production and partition system in all societies. The position of labour and capital in changing production and partition relations significantly increases the state's changing attitude towards these two factors of production and the gap between the central and periphery countries; in this context industrialized countries rapidly increase their social welfare while other countries cannot reach the same point. This situation gives new tasks especially for the intellectuals, academicians, scientists and artists of developing and underdeveloped countries. The thing must be done is to chart out a development path based on scientific knowledge of the societies mentioned and to develop social policies that can be used to make a fair and equal sharing of social welfare in this development path, which is beyond a linear modeling work received from developed countries.

The book you holding, discusses the details of working life and some of the social policy practices of Turkey. In this context, both the current situation of the relevant areas is analyzed and new strategies that can be developed on these topics are discussed.

We hope that this work will make a meaningful contribution to academic life and we would like to express our sincere thanks to the authors and everyone who has been involved in the process of publishing.

Antalya 2018

The board of editors

Mete Kaan NAMAL
Mustafa KOÇANCI
Muhammed KARATAŞ

List of Contributers

St. Simon defines the society as a produced actuality by saying "La société, c'est le travail" and every production comes out due to a work or activity. So the organization or organism that we call society, consists of people who have come together to perform a work entirely, not by chance or not spontaneously, and people share the outcomes of their work; they provide various benefits from the revealed work. In this context, the most comprehensive and at the same time the simplest answer that can be given to the question "Why does man work?" will certainly be "to survive". Survival is a situation that needs to be overcome two basic factors. These two factors are nature and the other people. Human being is shaping the nature due to its needs, dominating other people out of itself by transforming nature in the struggle.

This function that does not appear at first sight of the work, has gone far beyond the simple meaning of survival over time, and has gained a totally different appearance today with the increasing division of labour and changing lifestyles in history.

Changes in labour life affect societies in terms of sharing up relations as well as production relations. Depending on the polarity of inequalities and injustices in production and distribution relations the concept of social policy is out of being a device of religious and cultural solidarity and has appeared as policies that defined on rights-based, national and international levels and reorganize the distribution of welfare, including disadvantaged segments in production and distribution relations. The concept of social policy has also undergone a variety of content changes, particularly through the adoption of neo-liberal state models. Politics of the welfare state, either reduced or partially suspended and for disadvantaged groups, a new social policy model was tried to develop that especially the most underprivileged benefited from.

When viewed from this perspective the book you holding tries to analyse and examine the current status of the ongoing strategy on work and social policy at present by a scientific eye.

In the section written by Ayşe DERİCİOĞULLARI ERGUN and Songül SALLAN GÜL, depending on how the new right-wing policies of social policy returned, changes in social policy relating to reveal the religious solidarity of class struggle and the transformation of today's are established a relationship with capitalism in Turkey today.

In the chapter prepared by Mete Kaan NAMAL, Muhammed KARATAŞ and Mustafa KOÇANCI, by taking a significant problem has become mobbing issue in recent years in working life, to overcome this problem and a new model proposal to be applied in Turkey of a mediation system for the resolution of the problem has been trying to develop.

Bülent ARPAT's research has dealt with municipalities that could pose a threat to the safety of both the employees and the citizens who use their products/ services in respect of the works they are engaged in. Factors effective in establishing or developing security culture in municipalities have been identified.

In the chapter prepared by Bora YENİHAN and Gökçe CEREV, trade union regulations created in the framework of the 1961 Constitution and the 1982 Constitution were examined in comparison with the historical process and the effects on the development of trade union rights were discussed.

In the chapter written by Şerife DURMAZ and Hamza KANDEMİR through work satisfaction and perceived organizational support concepts, through the subcontracted workers at Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, how the perceived organizational support effects the satisfaction of work was examined.

In the chapter prepared by Rabia ÇİZEL, Ebru Tarcan İÇİGEN and Beykan ÇİZEL, it is emphasised the importance of emotional intelligence and cognitive styles in working life. The thinking style is defined as the outward reflection of what is happening in mind of the individual and the processes of thinking in different ways. It can be said that the performance of individuals with similar abilities is influenced by cognitive styles. Emotional intelligence contains the ability to express empathy, ability to perceive correctly, evaluate, express emotions, and ability to regulate emotions. In this study, the necessity of transition from cognitive intelligence to emotional intelligence in the new working organization, and the relationship between cognitive styles and emotional intelligence in working life was examined.

In the chapter written by Mustafa Berkay AYDIN and Emrah AYAŞLIOĞLU, " the relationship between unemployment and social and political positioning is discussed in the context of regional factors and personal experiences. The poverty perceptions of unemployed young people, their future expectations and economical-political

engagements are discussed on the basis of their own lived experiences in the light of the findings of field research carried out in Çiflikköy district in Yalova. In this respect, the study tries to evaluate the outcomes of the unemployment status specific to the area by considering both the geographical, political and economic features of the region and the personal experiences of unemployed young people" is being discussed.

In the chapter prepared by Mevsim Çağla CENGİZ, "right strikes" performed in Turkey were examined. There was legal validity for "right strikes" only between the years 1963 and 1980 in Turkey. In this respect, the rights strikes that have been realized and detected in this period have been examined and it has been researched today whether this strike requires the establishment of a legal basis again or not.

In the chapter prepared by Beyhan AKSOY, the effects of the state and professional associations on shaping the working life are dealed. In this article how institutional theory reflects the priorities of state and professional associations in their discourse and actions in shaping their working life is discussed.

In the chapter prepared by Cem ERGUN, the informal sectors that are organized in a widespread manner due to the employment problems of the poor are examined through the urban poverty debates, in the research, especially "make a living on garbage" is focused, and recycle working and social welfare debates are mentioned.

Yeliz YEŞİL, in the chapter she prepared, the historical development of the women's cooperatives development s in Turkey, the place of women cooperatives in work and social life and developed recommendations on how to be more effective and efficient use of these cooperatives are discussed.

In the chapter prepared by Mustafa KOÇANCI, Mete Kaan NAMAL and Muhammed KARATAŞ, the historical development of the concept of entrepreneurship and the differentiation of the social policy instruments in the struggle with the welfare state and the poverty in the neoliberal period is mentioned. In this context, it is argued that whether the type of human being desired to be revealed by the microcredit system used as a social policy argument in the struggle against poverty is compatible with the type of entrepreneurship in entrepreneurship theories and whether entrepreneurship for the poor can be used as a social policy argument or not.

1 | New Rightist Transformation of Social Policy: From Class Struggle To Civil-Religious Mutualisation

Ayşe DERİCİOĞULLARI ERGUN
Songül SALLAN GÜL

Introduction

The social security system which was introduced to be the world's first modern social policy organisation was put into practice by Bismarck's Germany in 1880s, so, the term"social security" took place in the literature. The working class which was in the subject position of the Industrial Revolution and capitalism, constituted both the subject and the dynamism of social politics (Talas, 1992, p. 15). Talas describes social policy in the strict sense as: "It is a discipline, which aims to protect the state and the legal system against class contradictions, mobilities, fights and relations in the social structure and provide its continuance" (Talas, 1992, p.15). Social policy, when considered in a broader perspective, while social policy aimed at protecting the working class and reducing the relations of the proletarian class again, it began, at the same time, to take care of all those in need of protection within the social structure. In this context, it has been aimed that the relations of all sections of the society, both with each other and with the state, shall be regularised and this is the most important part in policies towards the society (Güven, 1995, p.12). In this context, social policy concentrated on the planning and implementation of social welfare in an effort to meet the needs of all the individuals of the society in terms of housing, nutrition, education,

health, social security and so on. This perspective provides for the assessment of all the practices and social services of governments in the context of social policy regarding the delivery of social welfare to all citizens. In a modern sense, social policy is regarded as a break from the society and ethical base with an understanding of solidarity which passed on the state in voluntariness to the base of rights. Social policy, therefore, can be defined as a policy that develops in parallel with the development of democratic understanding and human rights, overlaps the state's efforts for unifying the whole society and is devoted to all the sections in the social structure and the fields thought to be problematic.

With the development of Keynesian understanding after World War II, important developments have been made in terms of welfare state and social policy implementations in the West. With the systematicization of the welfare state understanding, an important part of the society, especially the working class, has acquired social rights as citizens. Therefore, social policy is positioned as a social right outside of forms of philanthropy and informal solidarity. In other words, the welfare state is a system of formal solidarity that stipulates regular, predetermined and compulsory participation and is the whole of the means by which income is redistributed to protect the life level of citizens who face social risks such as old age, disability, illness, birth, death and unemployment (Euzeby, 2004, p. 109).

Social policy in this context had an understanding which matters how to make all the individuals be accepted in the society in free and equal way by abolishing the social inequalities the capitalism have created. After the 1980s, with the new rightist understanding, however, the welfare state and social policy implementations have been seriously criticized, resulting in a transformation process. While the capitalist system has been oriented towards the creation of a market society during the restructuring process made up by the neo-liberal mentality, at the same time, it headed for efforts to liquidate social security systems and social policies inherited from the Keynesian period. These efforts were for ensuring the harmonization of the social policy regime with the expectations and interests of the capital class. While the economic systems are globalizing in one hand, on the other hand the process of suppressing the social dimension has emerged; the ways of transferring the social policy implementations deemed to be obstacles to the goal of maximizing profits and developed against social risks have been sought (Özsuca, 2003, p. 134). In this process, the state which has lost power from political and ideological from this point has begun to withdraw itself from social areas

and therefore such services as housing, education, health, social security and so on have become marketable with the withdrawal of the state from providing them (Koray, 2007, p. 24). From this point of view, it can be said that neo-liberalism has made the "social problem" an individual problem and that the responsibility of the government to produce policy in this area has also begun to be eroded. Social risks have been left to the semi-formal or informal solidarity types under the concepts of family, philanthropy, governance and social capital (Zengin, 2004, p. 4-5). In other words, the gap created by withdrawal of the state from social policy implementations has not been filled primarily with the market, but it has done through reciprocity relations of a series of communities, especially of the family. In this case, it is expected that the needs of the individual which cannot be met within the market relations will be met through the community belonging and the citizenship which is the formal solidarity of the nation state will be substituted by those different forms of belongings. Therefore, the protection that the state cannot provide individual today is supplied by family, local communities, religious or ethnic communities (Buğra, 2000, p.23). Although the reasons for the emergence of our country's social policy practices and their implementation process differ from the Western countries, today, there is a transformation process compatible with the new rightist ideology as in the whole world. In this study, the theoretical background of social policy in Turkey and transformation process experienced will be discussed by examining the transformation parameters experienced in the social policy implementation realised by the new rightist consideration.

Turning to Individual Welfare from the Nationalization of Social Risks

Social policy which has emerged in search of solutions to social problems such as poverty and unemployment which started to increase rapidly in the 19th century became institutionalized in most of the European countries in the early 20th century and began to gain a feature of system and became widespread in the period following World War II. The social policy that emerged during the late 19th century in search of a resolution for rapidly increasing conflict between labour and capital, pursued a goal to protect the working people against the problems such as unemployment, poverty, illness, work accidents, etc. which arouse parallel to rapid urbanization and industrialization and to implement the measures to eliminate these problems. In other words, it can be said that the social policy emerged as a peculiar understanding of industrialized country societies where inequality and contradictions among labour and capital sectors were seen at a high

level in the framework of its intention to reduce labour-capital conflicts in the first place (Koray, 2008, p. 27, 33). The social policy that emerged as a search for a solution for the protection of workers against destruction created by the 19th century capitalism and the prevention of social conflicts expanded with the concepts of welfare state or social state after World War II. With the concept of social welfare state, a state that provides minimum standards for citizens in areas such as income, education, health, and housing and does not allow them to go below these standards is defined (Baldock, 2003; Sallan Gül, 2004).

The basic aim of the welfare state is to reduce social problems to a minimum level, to redistribute social risks and to rewrite the social contract between the state and citizens. The welfare state is influencing society in three ways. First of all, it offers income guarantees to all its members of the society and their families at a minimum level. In addition, it supports all sections in coping with such risks as old age, unemployment, illness and so on them and secures them against these risks. Finally, it tries to allow all social sections to maintain their best possible standard of living using social welfare services regardless of status or class distinction, (Briggs, 1961, p. 226-227; Esping-Andersen, 2006, p. 35). In short, welfare state aimed to protect individuals and groups in disadvantaged positions in terms of economic and social aspects with various practices and arrangements (Özdemir, 2007, p. 27-28). The welfare state basically advocates the idea that free market economics alone cannot be sufficient for ensuring economic development and that the state should be involved as well. For this reason, in order to protect its citizens against social risks, while protecting the working people by developing social insurance systems; the state has taken other parts of the society within the scope of social security with social aid applications and has undertaken the task of providing a basic life standard while providing protection. In other words, the welfare state has passed through different social policy implementations towards social problems and has produced solutions for problem areas such as social services, social aids, employment, accommodation, education, social security, health and poverty. Welfare state was shaped by principles of justice, equality, peace, balance and democracy in the name of society. The most fundamental principle was the citizenship (Şaylan, 2003; Özuğurlu, 2005; Alcock, 2008). Access to social welfare programs was seen as one of the most basic rights of citizenship in the Welfare State understanding. The fact that the welfare programs have universal characteristics and that the service provision is centered on the concept of citizenship is the most prominent feature of the welfare state. Welfare state developed

and evolved from the state that had not interfered with the markets and their practices on the basis of individual rights and freedoms to the form of a state that aimed to meet the basic needs of all citizens, even at the minimum level, by taking responsibility. In this context, the fair distribution of the wealth and the creation of equal opportunity by taking public responsibility for those who were not in a position to provide good living standards has been the main objective of the welfare state. In this framework, the state, even if it cannot remove, has the feature of being a state that alleviates all injustices and inequalities stemming from the operation of the free market, but also houses all the social protection institutions in its own body (Koray & Topçuoğlu, 1995; Sezen, 1999; Sallan Gül, 2004, Kleinman, 2006, Gökçeoğlu Balcı, 2007). The needy sections were prevented to be left to their own destiny, to the conscience of wealthy individuals, or to their traditional solidarity relations through welfare state policies (Korpi, 1989, p. 310). Social rights which are indispensable parts of the welfare state ensured individuals to become equal to all the other individuals within the social structure in terms of economic and social status of citizenship (Gül, 2008, p. 115).

The social welfare state which emerged on the basis of social and economic rights and achieved the peak in ideology and practice from mid-1945 to the mid-1970s began to be questioned as a result of crisis and events experienced firstly in the economic field in 1970s and in the social field in the following processes. Social welfare state has been seen as a cause of many problems according to different thinkers with its social policies it implemented, especially social spending and has entered into a structuring process in the direction of new rightist welfare regime. In this context, the problems created by the global economy, the constraints arising from the redistribution of income and the fissures that arise in the political consensus behind the welfare state have become a major influence on the crisis of the social welfare state (Esping-Andersen, 2006, p. 35). According to Buğra and Keyder (2006, p.13-14), the developments experienced in the 1970s have made it hard for the welfare regimes all over the world. The shift from the Fordist production type to the flexible production type has played an important role in services sector's gaining importance and accordingly in changing the level and quality of employment as well as in changing demographic factors and ethnic and gender based beneficiary sections of the prosperity programs. Especially in Europe, the rapidly aging population has played an important role in the transformation of the welfare state with the changing family structure and the participation of women in more labour markets or their being the main beneficiary categories of welfare programs.

The new right-wing approach which advocated the idea that the intense intervention of the state was the cause of the economic crises in the late 1970s began to spread its sovereignty all over the world in the 1980s. New rightist understanding has put forward that individuals must develop their own safety mechanisms against their social or economic risks as well as their physiological risks. It has been stated that the security mechanisms created by the state against the risks that arise in the social or economic sense in this framework must be removed or restrictions must be imposed on both the periods of benefiting from these mechanisms as well as the conditions of entitlement. New rightist mentality emphasized that collectivism is a platform created by means of tools rather than common goals by which individuals create common consensus as in the welfare state. While neoliberalism, one of the components of the new right, bases solidarity on the market the other component, neo-conservatism emphasized the importance of community and traditional solidarity mechanisms (Gamble, 1988; King, 1987; von Maydell, 1994).

While Neoliberalism was talking about such concepts as privatization, globalization of the capital and articulation to global processes and so on, at the same time, it became the dominant ideology both local and global sense with the expressions of making dominant the free market, narrowing the state in its fields of activity and strengthening locality with civil society. New liberalism which emerged as an approach that criticized the Welfare State mentality and aimed at lifting the practices that restrict the field of mobility of the capital used activating market actors, minimising the state, disseminating privatization in order to use resources efficiently, taking nongovernmental organisations and the private sector to the forefront, and flexing work and labour as base. New liberals in intensive criticism of welfare state practices has stated that such implementations as retirement, social security, health, education, social aids etc. has increased spending of the state rather than solving social problems and caused injustice by affecting the employment processes and investments negatively (Savran, 1988, p.52; Sallan Gül, 2004,p.1-2; Yıldız, 2008,p. 31). The new liberal welfare model that is shaped by these criticisms sees, in one hand, family, traditional and voluntary organizations as to be the basis of social security institutions and in this context, claims that individuals must work in the market system and take responsibility for their own future and so, advocates a competitive social insurance system on the basis of individual and volunteerism and the belief in the supremacy of the free market is being tried to be reestablished. On the other hand, it is desired that social aids be reduced to the minimum and they must be abandoned as being a universal, all-inclusive right (Sallan Gül, 2004, p.198-199).

In the last quarter of the 20th century a transformation from the "welfare state" to the welfare of labour and towards the global competition markets began with the influence of globalization and post-industrialism and the states were obliged to move towards a new constitution in the context of social policy with the imposition of global actors in this process (Pierson, 1998, p. 785-787; Gül and Sallan Gül, 2008,p.67). Restructuring of social policy has been realised over the concepts of recommoditisation, cost constraints and recalibration. Recommoditisation is the transfer of basic services to the private sector such as education, health and social security independently provided by the welfare state from the market. While cost restraint is particularly restricted to public social spending, recalibration involves updating existing programs according to new risks (Pierson, 2001,p. 422-426). The calibrations of the welfare state take place in four different phases: functional, normative, distributive and institutional recalibration. Functional recalibration is that the welfare state provides protection against old risks as well as new risks. Distributor recalibration includes restructuring of the social protection provided in return for employment according to the types of atypical employment. Normative recalibration includes norms and values that constitute effective and fair distribution policy proposals; and institutional recalibration includes restructuring of institutions (Hemerijck, 2008, p.27). For this purpose, we can talk about three changes in the presentation of social policy. The first is that local governments stand out in the presentation of social policy; the second is the increasing involvement of non-governmental organizations in social policy implementations and finally, the privatization of social welfare institutions (Özdemir, 2007, p. 324). Therefore, although the state maintains its existence as the main actor in the provision of social welfare, the quality of the state's role has changed, instead of producing social welfare services, it became responsible for providing financial support to local government and civil society etc. and regulating these services. The social welfare services were projected to be provided in cooperation of family, neighbourhood etc. civil sector, private sector and voluntary sector such as associations and foundations as well as central and local authorities.

This idea of providing combined prosperity by various sectors together for maintaining the individual's own well-being means to increase social welfare by reducing the role of the state and activating the potential that the society possesses (Çevik, 1998, p. 109-111; 2012, p. 205-206). The main theme of the welfare combination is not the citizens who are equipped with social rights, but active citizens who can exist independently in market conditions and their freedom is ensured by the culture they are in or by the welfare state and economically guaranteed beyond the social rights (Harris, 1999). Active citizenship

is formed by the process by which all the social sections are participating in and implementing by the citizens the activities that the state has previously fulfilled in order to meet their needs and social services. In this context, it can be said that active citizenship involves the establishment of solid solidarity and mutualisation relations among the citizens (Sarıipek, 2006, p. 95). To summarize briefly, there are two elements in the process of restructuring the welfare state or social policy. The first element is that the prosperity of individuals depends on working and taking part in the labour market within the framework of active citizenship. The second factor is that the presentation of welfare services in parallel with the transformation of the public administration is provided by the involvement of non-public actors in the context of the understanding of wealth prosperity (Taylor-Gooby, 2002; Bahle, 2008; Pavolini and Ranci, 2008). Thus, the real welfare will be formed according to the position of the individual in the market; if this level of welfare is inadequate, the aid from family support or community-civil society organizations will be sought. For that reason, this process which has risen with the rising rightist politics today is called liberal philanthropy (Koray, 2008, p. 40). This emphasis basically reflects the efforts taking back the state's responsibility for the obligations emerged by the social policy applications and leaving on the mentality of philanthropy. In this context, social security has been tied to the responsibility of individual and his economic power or begun to be dealt with as philanthropy activity in the form of state's helping the needy citizens (Durmaz, 2016, p.152). In the process that neo-liberal policy mentality and conservatism completes each other individual / informal solidarity in both political and economic sense has come to the forefront; on the one hand, while the state's intervention in market processes has been reduced to a minimum, on the other hand it has become easier for the state to open its social security systems to the market (Bosanquet, 1983, p. 84). Instead of the social security system under the responsibility of the public, the understanding of family-centered solidarity in which conservative values have gained importance has been strengthened. Social policy practices are increasingly abandoned to philanthropy and volunteerism relations (Kurtz, 2002, Sallan Gül, 2005, Baccoro and Howell, 2011).

The welfare state has also been criticized as a male-dominated understanding due to the fact that there is a condition of working in a paid job at the center of welfare state mentality and social security practices and therefore, making the paid job to be prerequisite of benefiting from the citizenship rights. That the welfare state takes into account the social gender-based division of labour because of the centralization of paid work; it is also stated that in addition to giving men an identity that is accepted in the

public area as their being a worker-employee in this frame, they are also given the authority to intervene women and children in the private arena as well. A network of relations like this has led ignorance of women due to the fact that the intensive labour of women in the private arenas is free of charge, their inability to participate in paid labour markets in the public arena, therefore, they cannot benefit from the privileges given the men as they are labourers. Thereby, although citizenship rights have been formally equalized, women have not been able to use these citizenship rights because of the division of labour since the labour spent in the household, namely, in the private arena is evaluated an arena of free reproduction while the paid workplace is categorized as the field of productive labour. In other words, women have not benefited from citizenship rights equally as men since they could not be involved in formal employment processes due to their motherhood and care responsibilities and their care roles that they have to fulfil even if they work in a paid job. Therefore, it is expressed that the welfare state created a sex-based citizenship through its social policies (Meer and Sever, 2004; Sallan Gül, 2009; Pelizzon, 2009; Pascall, 2012). Generally speaking, the relation established by women and state in social policy applications of the welfare state has become a solidarity set up through free reproduction and care support and this relationship has become institutionalized at the family center. Such a relationship has revealed the understanding that the responsibility for care and reproduction is the natural function of the family and many responsibilities have been left to the family, unpaid women labour, for providing welfare (Atasü Topçuoğlu, 2016).

Practices that the new right-wing conceptualized as returning to the family after the 1980s when neo-liberal economic policies were passed on to life came to life in Reagan and Thatcher's policies. The new conservative ideology suggests that welfare state practices lead to a weakening of family ties, that living together outside marriage and having children at a young age is encouraged and thus causes a moral collapse. For this reason, apart from those disabled inborn, it has been emphasized that policies and programs that provide income transfer should be abolished by developing policies towards the categories defined as disadvantaged groups of women, ethnic communities, immigrants, etc.. The new conservative approach defines family as an institution that transfers traditional and moral values, supports its members in becoming sociable by providing qualifications to them that will enable them to take their parts in market environments by acting in a rational way and succeed. Therefore, the duty of providing welfare is taken from the state and transferred to the family and the individual so that the family is placed in the center

of the welfare regime (Pascall, 1997, p. 7; Kandiyoti, 1997, p. 145; Sallan Gül, 2009, p. 56, Brenner, 2012, p. 236).

New right defends the opinion that a welfare regime that grounds the workfare must take the place of state-based welfare. In this kind of welfare understanding that focuses on the work and brings the individual into the forefront, the real poor take the place of the poor who deserve it and those who are unable to enter the market due to their physical qualities or other deficiencies making them unable to work are regarded as parasitic. Even more, the poor have been described as dangerous class in the social structure because they are benefiting from the aid provided by the public (Zarakolu, 1987; Gül and Sallan Gül, 2008). The social welfare policies of the new rightist mentality having patriarchal features brought women into the position of housekeepers, that's to say, they laid the responsibility of elderly, disabled and children who need care within the household on women. In this context, the new right which emphasizes the importance of family ties, strong communitarianism and community relations and that the feelings of philanthropy and compassion are essential in keeping the unity of the society thus, makes it easier to minimize the responsibilities that are supposed to belong to the state in the area of social aids.

As a result, that the market logic reflects on all areas of social life and commoditises these areas has caused the mentality of laying the responsibility on the individual and bringing philanthropy and voluntariness into the forefront replacing the mentality of laying the responsibility on the state, rights-based protection and collective solidarity (Gül and Sallan Gül, 2007; Buğra, 2007). In this context, philanthropy is one of the fundamental philosophies of the social policy of the new right-wing. Philanthropy grounds on the mentality that support working and mutualising and those who are in a position of helping the needy people are superior to those people in need (Bugra, 2008, pp. 12-13). Therefore, individuals who accept the inequalities and victimizations that arise in the social structure are entrusted to the benevolence of wealthy groups (Buğra, 2008, p. 59). The gap which arises in the sense of social security as the social state reduces its efficiency and public services go down to a minimum level is tried to be closed down by the institutionalization of philanthropic activities. As a result, understanding of philanthropy take the place of the citizenship and rights-based social state practices, thereby allowing the poor and disadvantaged sections of the society to accept the their situations. In other words, while the public arena is getting smaller nowadays, the state transfers social policy

implementations both to the family and to the civil society as philanthropy volunteers (Yazıcı, 2008; Çelik, 2010; Akyıldız, 2010).

Social Protection Dynamics of the Classes and the Poor in Turkey

Social policy has been formed in a process in which the state is the major actor in Turkey rather than it became from a direct class conflicts as in the West. On the other hand, the fact that a similar process to the Industrial Revolution experienced in the West has not been experienced in Turkey and that the industrialization has come relatively late has prevented the development of the social policy by a pressure from bottom to up in Turkey. In addition to these features, again, the fact that a bourgeois class does not take shape in Turkey as it is in the West and efforts of the state to form such a class has caused labour relations and understanding of social policies in Turkey has borne different characteristics. While rights-based social policies have been put into practice with the social state mentality in developed countries, this process has emerged as the improvement of working conditions and raising the living standards within the framework of economic development sense in developing countries as Turkey. Therefore, in our country which has become industrialized late, different social policy implementations from the West in terms of both working conditions and state-society relations have been put into practice.

In the Ottoman Empire which was based on the war economy and whose primary production activity was agriculture, family and traditional kinship relations were at the core of the relations of social aids and solidarity. Traditional solidarity mechanisms have been the most influential factors in terms of social security by means of large family oriented organic ties, interparental crop production activities, support provided individuals in situations where they were victims or in the processes they were in need of. In addition to family and traditional kinship relationships, practices such as phythre, zakat, and charity have helped those in need and the poor to be seen as a religious and moral responsibility. Even if the understanding that the wealthy segments were to help the poor and needy was supported through religious values and festivals, the scope of these aids was limited. The foundations also played a very effective role in supporting the needy and the poor in the same way. Foundations at that time; did many actions as to provide financial support for widows and orphans, to meet the needs of the elderly and abandoned people for their housing and other needs, to distribute food to the poor, to provide accommodation and subsidies to those who suffered financial hardship during pilgrimage or other travels. In addition to the foundations, the Red Crescent, hospitals

and the hostel for orphanages in the big cities also provided support to the needy, the sick, the children, the elderly and the poor. In addition, vocational associations helped the working people in areas they needed and worked to ensure that they were protected from the risks they had been experiencing. The Ahilik Organization which has been carrying out activities in Anatolia since the 13th century emerges as the most common among vocational organizations (Sallan Gül, 2006, p.261). In this respect, it can be argued that social policy implementations that have been realised in the Ottoman period were generally taken over by non-state institutions and that the state did not assume responsibility for providing welfare by intervening in the social arena (Sallan Gül, 2006, p. 261, Özaydın, 2007, p. 206). However, again in this process, it seems that the specific structure of the Turkish state, giving divineness to the state and the governors by the religion and the tradition of the state in which the people and the individuals meet all their needs spontaneously shaped the social policy implementations. This tradition, as long as there are no socio-economic and political crises, revealed a state of equilibrium as opposed to the conflict between individuals and states observed in European societies, and hindered the acquisition of rights through conflict or struggle.

The modernization and westernization of approaches to reconstruct the structure of state and society which have been broken up since the beginning of the 19th century has had a character that conflicts with the traditional structure and significant social reactions have been developed against the top down modernization practices. While the traditional institutions have been seen and criticized as a major obstacle to the modern society life, the problem of solving the problems in the structure where traditional and modern institutions, which are not abandoned from the benefits produced in this area, also existed as a controversial issue in front of welfare policies (Metin and Özaydin, 2014, p.231). Social policy implementations have also been delivered to individuals and the public in this framework as a self-imposed task and in a way not based on needs analysis. From the second quarter of the nineteenth century, the intervention of the state in the social arena gradually increased to the middle of the 20th century and this period was also called the formation phase of the modern social state (Özbek, 2002, p. 19). While there was a system in which the priority was only production-based, such as family ties, congregations, guilds, and religious hardships in difficult situations, in crisis and protection of individuals, social arena emerged as a separate ground during the period of Abdulhamid II aiming to create a paternal image of a sultan who was interested in the sensitivity of a father with the problems of the society, Abdülhamid II developed an effective charitable corporation and gift system for this purpose. In addition, Poorhouse

and Ottoman Hospital for Children were established in this period and public health services, social welfare services and child welfare levels which the central government had not served were taken over by the government. In the Constitutional Period II, an important pavement stone in the formation process of the modern state, social policy started to carry a modern and secular meaning and in this direction, the protection of the poor was among the duties of the state, leaving the grace of the Sultan. In the welfare regime imposed during the Constitutional period, the state undertook the task of complementing community-based initiatives rather than the primary role (Özbek, 1999; 2002; 2004; Sallan Gül, 2004).

Republic of Turkey which was established by inheriting a vast agricultural society and a social structure shaped by that society turned towards monitoring economic and social development of modern world and realize them since its establishment. Efforts to achieve national development in all area come front as the main objective of this period. In this direction, firstly, policies were developed in economic areas and some decisions were made by organizing the Izmir Economy Congress in 1923 regarding paving the way for economic liberalization, establishing and to strengthening domestic and national capital, supporting the development of national industry and developing protective implementations in custom's policies to support private entrepreneurship . In this process, the state headed towards expanding the Republican values and making them to be adopted, accelerating the construction of the nation-state and strengthening the national industry rather than doing actions in social policy areas (Sallan Gül, 2004, p. 264-265). The changes that have been experienced since the first years of the Republic have not been enough to lift the destruction brought by the war and has not been prevented the increase of poverty more. The addition of the 1929 World Economic Crisis on these adversities also made it necessary to take radical measures. The concept of statism that emerged in this framework has a wide range of features including such items as establishing facilities in industrial, commercial and economic sectors, investing, intervening in the market and supervising. This understanding of statism includes activities of fulfilling the services determined by a paternalist approach without being based on requests. Although it is expressed that a working class is emerging in our country in this process, the employment of almost half of the workers in the manufacturing sector in places employing less than four people has caused the traditional practices to be overpowered in social policy. Moreover, adoption of Ziya Gökalp's solidarist corporatism has led to the ignorance and oppression of the working class (Talas, 1992, p.363; Boratav, 2005, p. 318). In this context, efforts made to promulgate the understanding of populism

based on the idea in which there is no conflict between the classes and between diverse interest groups during the one-party period of Turkey's. 1923 and 1927 statutes of the Party in this direction introduced an authoritarian party-state nature and organisation of workers under the control of the party in providing reconciliation between classes and regulating social harmony (Gülmez, 1991, p. 387).

The authority and the power of the state increased parallel with the statism politics that dominated the 1930s and then the formation of new social classes took place under state control. While the impact of the statism politics on the industrialization of the policy disconnected the capital from labour force, the regulation of production has become necessary and labour preventive social policy measures to protect labour force have been taken (Koray, 2005; Makal, 2007). Labour Law no 3008 was put into force in 1937, it loaded the duty of creating employment and finding employees for the state and included basic principles of social securities that would be introduced gradually. Despite the broad scope of the law, the regulations did not cover farm workers, domestic workers and intellectual workers. Between 1938 and 1945, most provisions of the Labour Law were suspended and social insurance branches were able to be established only after 1945 (Koç, 1986, Sallan Gül, 2004, Özbek, 2006). The basic principle adopted in the industrialization process was not the job security and the development of social policies but the continuity of work. In one-party rule, some very important legal arrangements have been passed which have given some rights to the working people and allowed regulations in working life. The first law passed in this sense came out as the law about the weekend no 394 in 1924. Within the scope of the law, it was stated that the workers who were working in the workplaces in the cities with a population of 10 thousand and more had the right to use one day a week vacation and that the people working in public institutions could be employed for a maximum of six days per week. The most common and the covering law was the Law of Obligations no 818 and dated 1926. Compared to Mecelle, in the scope of the law, an understanding was developed that had wider social content and protected employees for working life (Demir, 2000, p. 802). Following the Law of Obligations, the Law on Public Hygiene no. 1593 was issued in 1930. The employment of children younger than twelve years was completely forbidden, children aged between twelve and sixteen were allowed to work no more than eight hours a day, and no more than eight hours a day in night work or underground working areas under the law. Again with this law, it was forbidden to employ the pregnant for three weeks before and after childbirth and also it was compulsory to allow them twice a day for half an hour to breastfeed their children in first 6 months after the expiration of that term. At

the same time; it was resolved that the workplaces whose number of employees was 50 and over had to employ a doctor permanently, the workplaces whose number of employees was between one hundred and five hundred had to open an infirmary and the workplaces whose number of employees was five hundred and over had to open a hospital with a capacity to allocate a bed for every one hundred people. The Law of Associations no. 3512 passed in 1936 took the establishment of a political party or association into the scope of authorisation. With this law, the establishment of association grounding on the class distinction was forbidden; as a result, it hindered the organization and syndication of workers. Such inhibitions continued to exist until amended in 1946 (Demir, 2000, p. 803). In this respect, the regulations concerning the working life carried out in the period of 1923-1936 carried the features of "regulatory and protective on the one hand, and prohibiting and repressive" on the other (Gülmez, 1991, p. 389).

The fight against poverty was not among the basic responsibilities of the state during the One- Party period in Turkey. In spite of that, the emphasis on voluntary philanthropy in the sense of the struggle against poverty of the one-party period was contrastively quite visible. Most of the organizations that were engaged in voluntary activities at that time continued their existence with the support and leadership of the Republican People's Party (RPP) activists, using the economic resources of the state and being intertwined with the state. In this period, the understanding that social assistance should be provided by using public resources in the country has not been fully put in place and the social assistance system has been adopted with individual donations (Buğra, 2010, p. 98-99). In the first years of the Republic, especially due to the effects of the wars that have taken place and the political events that have ensued, the peasant sections have been negatively affected by the process and faced the problem of poverty. The Republican elites came to ignore the urban poor during the One-Party period and did not include them in the redistribution process. The most concrete example of this ignorance can seen as the abolition of the Tithe in 1925. With the abolishment of the Tithe, the income of the state decreased by 20%, and the effect of this decrease in the state incomes was tried to be compensated with the indirect taxes applied to the consumption items. In this context, the urban poor who have not already got a share in social aids and expenses were also put under tax burden (Buğra, 2010, p. 109). Efforts have been made to strengthen the industrial sector during the One-Party period. However, no efforts have been made for the peasants and the workers who were in the most disadvantaged part of the process and in troubles and no steps have been taken to improve or protect their living conditions. Traditional cooperation and solidarity institutions have been seen as a mechanism of

solution to the problems of all disadvantaged / victimized people, especially the peasants and the poor. Sections who have been living in the village have been evaluated as poor and abandoned to fate and they have been defined as a group that shapes production and consumption on their own and tries to cope with poverty on their own initiative (Sallan Gül, 2004, Buğra, 2008; Yolcuoğlu, 2012).

After the Second World War, the process of integration with international capital by adopting imported substitutable industrialization is at the same time, the period of institutionalization of the social politics applications. The most characteristic feature of this process which lasted until the 1980s was the birth of the modern working class parallel to the development of the industry and consequently the formal relations in the working life began to gain weight. Modern social policy institutions have emerged in this period to provide social protection for the citizens although the existence of traditional solidarity relations based on family, townsmenship and communities continued. In this period, in Turkey which was in efforts to be able to get integrated into the world system in terms of both political and economic aspects, transition to a multi-party system was passed and syndicates and associations were allowed to open. In this context, depending on all the social sectors became effective in the decision-making process as well as the bureaucracy or the elite groups in the military circles, major economic, political, cultural and social changes have been experienced. Apart from these changes, one of the areas in which significant transformation has taken place was working relations and the applications afterwards in the field of social policy have been passed quickly (Özbek, 2002: p.21; Makal, 2007b, p.217; Gökbayrak, 2010, p.144-145; Bayri, 2013, p. 22-23). It can be said in this context that social security system in Turkey was built largely in the period covering the years 1945-1973 (Sallan Gül and Gül, 2008, p. 366). In this process, the practices which were run in a way to cover labour relations and labour life can be listed as follows in general: In 1945, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security was established and then the social security of the working people within the framework of the Labour Law was guaranteed in 1946 by establishing the Workers' Insurance Agency. In addition, regarding social insurances, all laws under social insurance were united by introducing "Occupational Accidents, Occupational Diseases and Maternity Insurance" Law no. 4772 dated 1946 and "Elderly Insurance" law no. 5417 dated 1950, "Disease and Maternity Insurance" law no.5502 dated 1951, "Disability, Occupational Disease and Death Insurance" law no.6900 dated 1957, "Social Insurances" law no.506 dated 1965. In this period, Labour Insurance Institution has changed its name as Social Insurance Institution. At the same time, agricultural workers, housewives, artists,

household employees and self-employed workers who were not included in the Labour Law were also included in the body of SSI (Koray and Topçuoğlu, 1995; Sallan Gül, 2004; Buğra, 2008; Yüksel, 2014). Within the context of Marshall Aid received from the US from the beginning of 1950 until 1957, $ 89.166.000 funds were transferred to Ministry of Agriculture in Turkey to. The main purpose of this transfer was to accelerate mechanization in agriculture, increasing the use of artificial fertilizers and modern farming techniques in a widespread manner and providing loans to farmers in an easy and cheap way. The rapid increase in mechanization in agricultural activities and at the same time supportive purchases by the state to contribute the financing of producers led to the empowerment of independent peasants and the rapid marketization of agricultural activities. The unfavourable development of rapid mechanization in agriculture has been the weakening of the sharecropping which was a widespread activity in terms of agricultural production. In the previous periods, small producers who had been given a portion of the agricultural land to cultivate quitted this practice with the increase of mechanization in agriculture and parental crop production took the place of sharecropping. In this context; it is stated that in the period between 1948 and 1952, every ten tractors which were started to be used in agricultural production led about 34 people working in sharecropping to migrate (Tütengil, 1977, p 134; Yavuz, Keleş and Geray, 1978, p 4; Keyder, 2006 , p. 312; Tören, 2007,p.130; Oktar and Varlı, 2010, p. 10-11). Excessive labour force resulting from changes in agricultural production process, more precisely unemployed sections began to migrate to rural or urban areas where they thought they could find work. Kıray expressed and emphasized the importance of such an immigration movement changing the production processes and relations to a significant extent (Kıray, 1972, p. 566-567).

At the same time, that the agricultural system in the rural areas have lost its traditional characteristics and the land properties of the land have changed, the family lands have become lessened due to factors such as inheritance and so on has led the deterioration of patriarchal family structures and the immigrant sectors have faced an insecure situation, as well. Likewise, a large majority of the families whose lands have lessened got impoverished under insecure working conditions by heading towards seasonal workmanship. In migration movements that emerged after 1950s, the most important support for immigrant groups was from informal solidarity relations as the family, the townsmenship , the kinship and so on. Informal solidarity relations have become an important solution for all the problems faced both during and after immigration process, especially housing and employment problems. Therefore, while the immigration

movements from rural to the urban that took place during this period put the family and kinship relations at the center of the relations of solidarity, they brought about a new informal solidarity relation in the dimensions of townsmenship (Tekeli and Erder, 1978, p.301). Poverty in this process, as Buğra underlined, could not be included in the social policy field by the allegations "Poor country, poor society, inadequacy of resources" and only an application for children in need was initiated together with Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SSCPA). In addition, although the subject of the philanthropy tended to decrease in the Democratic Party (DP) government until the 1960 coup d'état in this process, it seems that it has not completely disappeared (2008, p.158). In other words, in order to handle the sufferings of the market economy and ensure the sustainability of capitalism, the protective and equitable structure attributed to the state has found wide application area through social policies in Western countries together with the Keynesian transformation experienced after World War II. This can be said that Democratic Party ruling which tried to integrate with the market economy and dreamed of becoming a small America has brought social policy implementations into the forefront thanks to the imposition of the West and for consolidating its power although its social policy applications were far from those in Western countries. With the 1960 coup d'état, a planned development strategy was adopted and an industrialization process based on import substitution was introduced. Although the growing urban poverty continued to be ignored, the planned development process has led to a growth in the industrial sector and an increase in job opportunities. An unplanned urbanization process has been introduced to meet the housing needs of the increasing number of workers. That those who were mainly engaged in agricultural production activities became labour force surplus in rural areas has forced the immigration process towards cities whose economic structures were based on different economic ativities. In this process, while the urban areas have become places where rural poverty has been transferred as a result of intensive immigrations, on the other hand, they have become places where cheap labour and the consumption needed by the dominant capitalist mode of production have increased. However, since the cities could not supply adequate opportunities for the immigrant sections in the areas of industry and services, those new city-dwellers have preferred to build slums in order to solve their housing problems. In the process, those slum areas have turned to be living spaces. In this context, it can be stated that the slums which played an important role in integrating the individuals into the city and their complying with the city functioned as a buffering institution (Kongar, 1982, p.31; Tümtaş and Ergun, 2016, p.1354). It can be said that the slum phenomenon was quite effective as a

an informal tool in solving housing problem in this process. The slum areas which were mostly built near urban areas where factories and employment sectors were concentrated have brought together informal production and employment dynamics within themselves. Generally speaking, it can be said that in this period, slums have been an effective solution mechanism in the absence of social housing applications (Buğra, 2008; Keleş, 2008; Tekeli, 2009; Yolcuoğlu, 2012). In the process of urbanization, the newcomers to the city, especially the poor who were economically weak have used solidarity and mutualisation networks based on family, kinship and townsmenship to solve their housing, employment and other problems in the period during and after migration, thus, slum phenomenon is considered to be one of the important elements of Turkey's welfare regime (Gökçe et al., 1993, p. 257-266). This has played an important role in coping with the poverty of the city's new immigrants while also allowing for cheap housing production and at the same time, strengthening solidarity relations.

One of the most important turning points regarding specifically Turkey in terms of social policies was seen as May 27, 1960. After this date, in the Constitution passed in 1961, human rights and freedoms were included different from the formers. The state was defined as national, democratic, secular and social state of law in article 2 of the 1961 Constitution. On the basis of these expressions, contemporary rights have taken its place in the section on constitutional rights of the constitution and the state has undertaken considerable responsibilities. For the first time with the 1961 Constitution, syndication, strike and collective bargaining rights were legally protected and syndication was allowed for not only workers but also for all employees. Also, there have been some regulations regarding the rights of labour, leave, housing, social security, education, health and so on. and issues concerning the employment of children and women, the provision of fair wages, the prohibition of forced employment and the protection of sections engaging in agriculture were included (Tokol, 2011, p.32).

In addition to the Retirement Fund established in 1950, with the triple insurance system that emerged with the Social Insurance Institution (SSI) which was institutionalized in 1961 and Social Security Organization for Artisans and the Self-Employed, it was paved the way for providing social services and aids for those people who were needy, old, poor, orphan, child, alone and sick. In the mid-1970s, especially the number of beneficiaries of social security services within the context of Social Security Organization for Artisans and the Self-Employed and SSI increased significantly but intense disputes also started to occur between these institutions. The Ministry of Social Security was established in 1974

in order to coordinate these social security practices by removing these disputes and problems and SSI, Social Security Organization for Artisans and the Self-Employed and Labour Unions were gathered under the roof of this ministry with the enactment of Law no. 4951. Financial aid was provided for old and disabled individuals with the enactment of "Law Regarding Salarying Persons aged 65 and Needy and Weak Persons and Alone Persons of Turkish Citizens" no 2022 in 1976. This law, at the same time, was the first step in formalizing social assistance in the national legal system. Under Law No. 2022, 65 years of age and over, alone, poor and disabled citizens were paid salaries and given rights to get services from all state hospitals free of charge. This law was grounded on individuals' being needy and citizen in order to be able to obtain the rights to receive benefits (Sallan Gül, 2004; 2005; Gül et al., 2007; Kesgin, 2012; 2013).

While the economic crisis experienced in the 1970s made the understanding of Western world 'let them do' into fashion again, Turkey faced with the crisis of import substitution accumulation strategies it applied until the 1980s. Contradictions of import-substitution model came to the surface together with the world crisis and abandoning these policies has become mandatory for Turkey as well, parallel with the liquidation of Keynesianism (Keyder, 1984, p.53). ANAP which emerged as a product of the 1982 Constitution defended the rightist perspective in that free market, free enterprise, abandonment of statism, strengthening of local administrations, minimization of bureaucracy and so on and came to power by blending them in the Islamist-conservative framework. With the rightist politics implemented by the Özal ruling, Turkey has entered into a new process of creating a new national unity and identity based on the understanding of economic liberalization, political authority and cultural conservatism (Özkazanç 1996,p. 1223). Özal's efforts to create a synthesis between Islam and the West and the tendency to reinterpret Islam have brought Islamism and conservatism closer to each other. In the process, after the separation of Islamic wing of voters from ANAP, the party has shifted a line between universal values and national values by preserving its conservative understanding. Women's rights, environmental rights, ethnic or cultural rights have begun to be debated and visible in the public context at this time. Again, the approaches of bringing the individual to the foreground in the face of the state and the downsizing the state were also output of this period. During the Özal period, initiatives such as the downsizing of the state and the beginning of privatizations, strengthening of local governments with fund transfers and efforts to strengthen market economy have also opened the way for civil society. In order to demolish the paternalist tradition which considers the government to intervene in the market for a democratic society and a stable

economy, some arrangements have been applied that reflect the new liberal understanding of the administration, both financially and socially (Sallan Gül, 2004; Sallan Gül and Alican, 2014). Thus, conservative liberalism, that is, different from a social rights-based process in the context of a new right understanding, was intended to help the most real needy by denying state intervention and emphasizing the importance of moral norms and modern forms of philanthropy to traditional institutions such as family and religion and very limited aid mechanisms were proposed . Efforts to restructure the social security system depending upon the understanding of downsizing the state, some implementations to reduce budgets for education and health and to reduce agricultural subsidies have led to significant changes in social policy implementations and modern social policy practices have begun to lose their dominant character. In this context, applications for social security and social justice during Özal period came into existence in a form of supporting entrepreneurship and individual savings within the framework of the free market system (Sallan Gül, 2006, p.284; Uluç, 2014, p.123; Bıdık, 2007,p.156).

During the period of Özal, it was headed on implementations in the areas of social assistance and social services within the framework of neoliberalism. In this context, parallel to the efforts of narrowing the state's fields of activity and developing the competition, some efforts have been made to restructure public sector, to increase privatizations in areas of health, education, social services, etc. where public responsibility was required and to allow state quit to give services in these areas (Sallan Gül, 2004, p.290; Topak, 2012, p. 211). In this period, parallel to the support of the private sector in the field of education, there has been a rapid increase in private schools in every level of educational institutions. while the lowest share of the public social security expenditure has been in health services and the investments of public sector in this area have been rapidly reduced, the private sector's investment in this field has increased significantly in the opposite direction. Public investments have increased in transportation, energy and infrastructure activities in this period (Koray, 2008; Gül and Sallan Gül, 2007; Gökbayrak, 2010).

It is stated that the transformation created by the new liberalism in the social welfare field in the period after 1980 in Turkey has extended social assistance policies in one hand but has caused a serious impoverishment by leading the removal of agricultural support and subsidies (Şenses, 2008, p. 65). The law no 2022 relating to monthly incomes for persons who have no income and are needy was amended in 1983. Within the framework of the neo-liberal understanding, the practice of proving the needy situation was put into force

in order to reduce the beneficiaries of this law. By deciding on the determination of the neediness situation by the local administrations, the method of giving the neediness document by the local authority or municipalities and the period of supervision of this practice by the provincial organization of the relevant institutions has been adopted. Application of getting the neediness document which used to aim to support the elderly who did not have income turned to be poverty document over time. For that reason, mechanisms of social state has formed according to the definition of "deserving" and such sections, outside the category, as the working poor and the unemployed have not been provided with income support (Sallan Gül, 2004, p.297; Gül and Sallan Gül, 2007, p.19; Topak, 2012, p. 222-223). In this process, the facilities provided by the municipalities in a form of zoning forgiveness, tax return, Green Card, etc. have moved the search for solutions to the problems of the urban poor out of labour-capital relations and labour markets. While a strict attitude was applied against organized struggle and unionization with demands of the class base, at the same time, ways of satisfying these demands were sought as considering that the people who expressed these demands were urban, poor and from slum areas (Boratav, 2005, p. 152-153). Thus, the process of introducing a conservative philanthropy approach has been initiated instead of the social state. Conservative philanthropy approach emphasized traditionalism with Islamic values in helping the poor and has put responsibility on citizens for social assistance. Green Card, local governments, private sector, communities, foundations, associations, voluntary organizations and the Fund for Promoting Social Assistance and Solidarity have come to the forefront as the basic tools of such a policy. The model based on conservative philanthropy won the most important momentum in 1994 with the success of the Welfare Party in local elections. The understanding of mutualisation and philanthropy that started in the practice of local government has started to be seen in central politics with the Justice and Development Party (JDP) governments that have been in power since 2002 (Çelik, 2010,p. 70).

Localization Dynamics of Informal Solidarity/Protection Formalized by Formal

While the political and ideological conflicts taking place in the global sense were directed towards classical identity to cultural identity, The Welfare Party turned to the discourse of multiculturalism in order to ensure that Muslims would be treated as disadvantaged groups, as well (Buğra and Savaşkan, 2015, p. 94). In the same period, Islam was taken as an argument to allow strengthening social structure without ignoring economic development and hindering the process of integration with the global economy. In this

context, the Fair Order discourse was shown as the most basic element to provide social integration. The Fair Order statement basically aims to place Islamic ethics understanding into the capitalist economic system and to reveal an Islamic-conservative solidarity that embraces these ideals. The way to provide social justice was not the state's social policy applications; but to expand community networks that value Islamic moral values. In this context, it can be said that the Welfare Party acted not only as a political party but also as an institution distributing social aids. The very large base of the party was organized to meet all kinds of needs (hospital appointments, distribution of relief supplies, etc.) (Eligür, 2010, p.172). The same-cash benefits distributed by the party members acting as part of the Islamic-conservative networks of solidarity also revealed the understanding of social policy to be followed in the process.

Especially since 2003, the role of the municipalities in the field of social policy has increased significantly. The legislation enacted in this process stated the roles and responsibilities of local governments in reducing poverty. For example, the aids for the poor, needy, disabled and homeless people were listed in article 43 of the Metropolitan Municipality Law No. 5216. Nearly all JDP's municipalities have units that would provide similar aids to the Foundations of Social Help and Solidarity (FSHS). Through these, such helps as food, fuel, etc. were supplied to people provided that they were in need. These benefits were financed by a public-private partnership or by tendering completely a private sector rather than a municipal budget. At the same time, these aids also functioned as philanthropy (e.g. zakat) regarding the circles of Islamic capital and so, for these groups, they have been instrumentals in legitimating labour and exploitation relations with their capital accumulation. In this process, the social policy approach has become a moral of philanthropy and mutualisation (Koray, 2007, p. 48) and social policy implementations have also been limited to the distribution of the same / cash aids (Özbek, 2007, p. 43-46). As included in the AKP manifesto, the discourse of "while the need that the state maintains social policies especially on the victimized and the needy sections is believed the private sector, voluntary organizations and non-governmental organizations are brought on the forefront" (Akdoğan, 2004, p. 13) was seen as an indication of the adoption of the new right. The JDP considers the concepts of religion, state, tradition, custom, morality and authority together in the context of conservatism. The sense of conservatism clears that the family is the most important social institution because of its meaning which conveys the social values as well as the traditions and attributes importance on the protection of the family (Bora, 1998; Köker, 2004). Conservative understanding mentioned that if the family is able to maintain its strong continuity, this

will both compensate the capitalist system's damages against the individuals and preserve the private property. The common good emphasis expressed in the triangle of tradition, morality and religion also reveals an organic social conception (Doğanay, 2007, p.67-68). This situation also reveals the philanthropy understanding of JDP in the social policy context. JDP emphasizes the importance of social solidarity and family in the direction of neo-liberal conservatism perception (Buğra and Keyder, 2006, p. 213) and reveals its attitude that the means to combat emerging social risks should be established through non-governmental institutions or non-governmental organizations. Campaigns with civilian assistance organizations which emerge in the context of a sense of solidarity that outweighs religious aspects provide the economic source of community development and change in the social structure by acquiring a commercial dimension of communal-based social capital (Demir, 2005, p 877). At the same time, with argument of philanthropy, the understanding to solve the contradictions between labour and capital through legally determined social security mechanisms and union rights are replaced by work ethics and relations with strong religious aspects. (Buğra, 2004; Gökçeoğlu Balcı, 2004; MUSIAD, 2004).

Thus, while it supports the continuity of moral transformation through the understanding of individual solidarity originating from the community, on the other hand, it makes it easy to dominate the working groups by the sovereign powers with populist practices that serve neo-liberal understanding (Yıldırım, 2009, p. 69). Hence, in the present day when poverty and unemployment have risen rapidly, the government has fulfilled its goal of establishing a highly developed and comprehensive system of charity (Sümer and Yaşlı, 2010, p. 17). JDP ruling develops mechanisms that will force those in need to obey and be dependent. While the formal responsibilities and obligations of the social state are rejected, the government is extending assistance to citizens, but not because it is required to do, but because it graces. The state grants 'goodness' by donating aid to the poor just in a similar vein as the rich Muslims give zakat to the poor (Yıldızcan and Yaka, 2010, p. 245). From that point of view, JDP shows a clientalist behaviour with the politics it has established with the citizens as giving support and help in return for the votes (Metin, 2011, p. 180-181; Gürkan, 2011, p. 11-12), and it shows paternalistic behaviour due to the limitation of social and collective rights and its obvious expectation of obedience (Çelik, 2010, p. 68).

In the globalisation process, employment politics which were developed for the new rightist wing's initiatives to weaken and eliminate the welfare state and removing socio-

economic rights of labour class from legal citizenship rights have caused various problems which led social problems as well as large scaled poverty (Karakuş, 2006; Zengin, 2004). Both the politics of neo-liberal understanding as well as the reflections of economic crises have caused a rise in poverty in Turkey by destabilizing wealth distribution and deepening income gap between the social sectors (Arpacıoğlu and Yıldırım, 2011, p. 68; Gürses, 2007, p.60). The understanding that traditional values and networks of solidarity can protect individuals against poverty and other risks in order to eliminate problems are replaced social policy implementations as a dominant understanding (Gündoğan, 2008,p. 52). In this respect, traditional culture of social solidarity based on philanthropic ethics stemming from Islamic faith was put into practice through community-based approach of conservative understanding and the discourse of religious fraternity. The main tendency in today's social policies is to sacrifice labour class in favour of capital and develop new practices that will relieve the poor, those victimized by the market and the groups at the bottom of the social structure while ignoring the rights of the working class which is still a public obligation.

Restructured Turkey's Welfare Regime in Triangle of State-Market-Community (Family / Religion / Patriarchy)

Esping-Andersen defines welfare regime in which the welfare is coproduced in an interdependent way and shared in a triangle of the state, family, and market (Esping-Andersen, 2006,p. 37). Turkey is not included in Esping-Andersen (1990)'s the triple prosperity classification developed for the classification of welfare regimes. This classification has been made from researches to find out the difference between social rights and the layers of the welfare state in international sense and handling the roles of the family, the market, and the state in the process of creating prosperity. Three ideal welfare regimes were formed by liberal, corporatist and social democratic welfare regimes. Welfare regimes of Southern European countries that were not included in the classification of Esping Andersen were developed by Luis Moreno and Maurizio Ferrera. Southern European welfare regime covers Spain, Portugal, Greece and Italy. In the literature on welfare regimes, Turkey is generally classified within Southern European welfare regimes. Moreno says that "the composition of legal, material and organizational resources between the state-market-family, the main producers of wealth," constitutes the concept of welfare regime (2006, p. 375). So, the family is one of the main elements in all welfare regimes. The family which is the source of prosperity and social security in these countries has the ability to compensate for market failures instead of the state and

to fulfil the duties in the responsibility of the state or the market (Esping- Andersen, 2002, p. 11-12). In other words, particularly women play an important role in this welfare regime with free care and domestic work. The family which is the most important prosperity provider of this welfare regime alleviates the burden of the state by meeting the formal solidarity in an informal level that must be applied in areas such as unemployment benefit, old care, social security which are the products of the welfare state. In this context, the state unsystematically intervenes in preventing the risks that may arise (Günal, 2009,p. 49-50; Taşçı, 2010, p. 12). The large family and especially women which have the primary position to provide the welfare are not only the sources of care and support but also have an important place in redistribution among generations. The family also emerges as an informal social assistance institution where family members are left out of the labour market or lacking the necessary conditions to protect their living standards (Papadopoulos and Roumpakis, 2009, p.4). After the patriarchal formation in countries with this kind of welfare regime, while men have the power and authority in all issues and earn their keep, women have responsibilities that are central to reproduction and care which are shaped around the sexist division of labour. Consequently, while the employment rate of males in the formal labour market is higher than that of females in this welfare regime, the rate of atypical employment is especially higher in females (Naldini and Jurado, 2009). The increasingly important role of the service sector and flexible employment patterns cause uncertainty in labour life for men and it means decreasing job opportunities for women. Women who are included in the paid labour market are under the pressure of bringing together domestic responsibilities as well as working life responsibilities. Working women, also referred to as "super women", both play assume the role of the social state including free care services, as well as contributing significantly to maintaining the welfare of the family by working in a paid job (Moreno, 2006, p. 391-392). The women employed in paid jobs transfer care duty to close relatives and especially to their mothers. As a result, the redistribution of care duty among women emerges (Acar-Savran, 2009, p. 24). In the case that close relatives engage in the matter, the care work is also shared among women.

In the southern European welfare regime, a dual structure is emerging in terms of income security and pension. Formally, those who take part in employment are supported generously while those working in informal sectors are provided with inadequate and irregular support. There are also significant differences in the premiums between those working in the private sector and those working in the public sector or running their own business. Therefore, bilateral income support also causes a serious polarization in social

policy implementations. On the other hand, a large number of citizens employed in the informal sector receive rare and inadequate income support while public employees and white-collar workers are included in the scope of social security and provided comprehensive protection against social risks (illness, disability and unemployment) (Günal, 2009, p.49-50; Ferrera, 2006, p.198-202). In the southern European welfare regime countries, while those can find the chance to be employed formally, also referred to as ""insiders" are seeking to increase the gains and acquired social rights, on the other hand, those working informally or unemployed persons, also referred to as "outsiders" are aiming to find a job where they can earn income at a level that will save them from social assistance or neediness (Özdemir, 2006, p.291). Furthermore, Clientalism is often seen in this model in planning and distributing certain welfare services (Gough, 2006, p. 232). Clientalism refers to the structure in which political and personal interests in the public sector are in question and informal ground is dominant in social policy implementations. In these countries, patronage strategies do not only benefit the core of the power, but also provide a prerequisite to maintain the continuing relationship with which mutual benefits prevail (Roniger, 2004, p.356). Because the Clientalism is common, there is a considerable development of the patronage mechanism in cash benefits for some political interest groups (Rhodes, 2009, p.6). Ferrera (2006) defined this model as grounding cash support systems on the labour status, institutional fragmentation, the polarized nature of social protection between the formal / informal sector, the universal national health systems created by the private sectors which have been continuously expanded and monopolistic- clientalist welfare state.

The family bears a great importance within the welfare mix in Turkey as in welfare regime of South Europe. Even if some of the care services that the state does not involve are covered by the market, they are usually provided with the solidarity relationships and care services among women and in-house. Likewise, the lack of social assistance services which results from weak and inadequate practices of the state is also filled in interfamily relations and solidarity. However, the new poverty that emerges today weakens the solidarity relations of the urban poor with their relatives in the countryside in one hand; on the other hand it causes the informal solidarity networks in the cities to dissolve (Buğra and Keyder, 2006).

According to another welfare regime classification developed by Abu Shark and Gough (2009) towards developing countries, Turkey's security regime is expressed as an informal regime which is supported extensively by the family and social networks together with

the social security applications developed within public responsibility in order to provide social security.

Turkey has experienced a break in agriculture in production area like other southern European countries. Accordingly, Turkey bears some socio-economic features due to the fact that industrialization and urbanization took place quite late, women and children share free labour burden in family businesses as in the countries with weak proletarianization in the same group, women participate in employment at very low rates and informal economic activities are common. In southern Europe which is characterized by the labour market characteristics of all industrialized countries which experienced industrialization period late, the weight of agriculture was felt in economy, the proportion of self-employed people was considerably higher than that of Europe, the level of participation of women in the employment process remained too low and the informal working styles continued widely in the period up to 1980s. At the same time, the most basic features of this welfare regime can be shown as the polarization of the social protection structure, the distorted and fragmented nature of the income protection systems, the existing large gap between those having protection and those outside the protection mechanisms, the lack of security networks and relationship networks based on clientelism (Ferrera, 2006, p. 198).

In these countries which entered in the capitalist process late, the state plays a role in protecting the families and small businesses in the field of production. The state has supported small and medium-sized family businesses along with small entrepreneurs through taxation or through applications to protect the internal market. This process of support has also prevented the formation of a powerful proletariat with the recent break-up from agriculture. On top of that, free family workers of small or medium-sized enterprises are largely composed of women and children (Buğra and Keyder, 2003,p. 13). The obligation of collecting the tax burden of family businesses and small entrepreneurs producing on their own behalf in the economic structure from salaried employees are displayed the reasons of high tax evasion in late industrialized countries and the existence of a very large informal sector. It is seen that women have a very high ratio in the informal sector (Karamessini, 2008, p. 46). The delay caused by the welfare state's problems in the production process related to the field of reproduction led to the formation of the level of welfare established in buffer agencies and family contexts. This is one of the clearest features of the Southern European welfare regime which has shown itself in a welfare regime with classically family-oriented in a sense to support the strong role of religion

and the family, as well as viewing the men who earn a living for the family (Karamessini, 2008). Southern European welfare regimes support family relations patterns in which the man in the position of earning the living is at the same time the rector of the family, hence, he is in a decision-making position in the socio-economic contexts and the roles given to women are restricted to such matters as in-house reproduction and care. Such a family-centered approach is connected to the low rate of women's employment in such countries as Spain, Italy, Greece and Turkey. In other words, it is suggested that the rate of women's employment is low in the Southern welfare regimes because the family is seen at the center of the welfare regime and ideologies embracing a family model based on the sex-based division of labour.

Turkey's welfare regime also grounds on the family model in which one who earns the living of the family is man as in all Southern European welfare regimes. In this context, both welfare regime and social politics have been shaped in line with the principles of protecting women and continuing the family-centered regime. While women are treated as citizens who need protection, on the other hand, social policy implementations that support the traditional gender-based division of labour are maintained. In small and medium-sized enterprises, together with family businesses referred as small trades, production is generally carried out through household labour and lacking regulatory-supervisory mechanisms. Women's labour is used extensively in such enterprises, in this context, women are regarded as free care labour on the one hand, but on the other hand they are brought in a position of the essential element of low wage labour power. At this point, it can be pointed out that the understanding of the family-centered welfare regime in Turkey imprisons women in the informal production processes and private areas as in all semi-environment Southern countries. The high rate of informality seen in the Mediterranean welfare regimes arises because family-oriented understanding dictates it rather than women prefer to work in the informal sector or home-based jobs (Gonas and Karlsson, 2006, Karamessini, 2008).

Conclusion

Social politics in Turkey is re-configured in a process that the state is always the major player, rather than the class struggle. As in examples of countries which became modernized in non-Western manner and industrialized late and in which services developed more than industry, the process of the formation of social policy in Turkey has developed in an effort to catch up with the West, with the repression from top to bottom in its unique position. Approximately 40% weight of the agricultural population of

Turkey makes it an important example in terms of the development of wage earning relations. Likewise, welfare institutions (foundations, etc.) seen in the pre-capitalist periods typical of Eastern countries keep its existence in Turkey and state's making arrangements specific to them make a different pattern in terms of prosperity in Turkey's example. The distinctive effects of Turkey's characteristics as a capitalist social formation reveal some specificity in the state structure

The first of these is aid campaigns which has increased a great deal recently and are regarded as a social event and increase in the number of and non-governmental organizations organizing these campaigns. This situation which is referred to the narrowing of public social and economic policies in the neo-liberal globalization process, civil society organizations comes out to be as a government or state policy that replaces the welfare state and its practices rather than being own initiatives of non-governmental organisations. In this process, it is aimed to strengthen the informal solidarity mechanisms has become a way of organizing the meaning of Gramscian in terms of presenting them as applications in a way not being the alternatives of inequalities between the social classes and the interests of the sovereigns. Thus, the concept of social policy focusing on religious objects serves as political consensus in the internalization of contradictions stemming from the sovereignty of the capitalist mode of production in the provinces by the civil society that has conservative characteristics (Çelik, 2011, p.2).

In recent years, instead of developing permanent implementations around the world to address poverty and its problems, such practices are becoming widespread for making people to get used the phenomenon of poverty through aids and making them dependent on other people and institutions. As Çelik (2010) points out, aids done at the national level in the fight against poverty are executed through states, international organizations or corporations during extraordinary periods like earthquakes, wars or natural disasters. Institutional philanthropy activities fill the void that arises in parallel with the narrowing of service areas under the responsibility of the public and the downsizing of the social welfare state. Philanthropy activities are being replaced by social state practices grounding on rights-based citizenship and allowing the poor to accept their poverty status (Akyıldız, 2010, p.1265).

The abandonment of the view that the basic right and guarantees of the labour sections is a legal right in parallel with the attempts to liquidate the social welfare state of the new rightist understanding which has gained a global dimension introduced many social problems especially poverty. While the new global right-wing political understanding

strengthens the welfare role of the already limited state in favour of the market, it also imposes the state's formal social security protection function on the family and traditional solidarity networks through state social aids. However, the solution of social problems attached to the changing dynamics of urbanization is also based on traditional solidarity including family and religion. The culture of social solidarity and mutualisation which is based on philanthropy grounding on Islamic belief is introduced into society through community-focused social patterns of conservative understanding and the emphasis of religious fraternity. To put it briefly, it can be said that religious elements took the place of social politics in neo-liberal restructuring process. The reconstruction of labour and capital is via cultural discourses using religious items by ignoring the class contradiction and the dimension of inequality, hence, bringing the socio-economic rights of working people out of the public assurance mechanisms by eliminating the unionism in the context of a social policy concept that gives priority to civil society can be attributed directly to gaining global dimensions of neo-liberalism (Akkaya, 2004).

In this process, the nation state which has lost its power in an ideological and political sense has to abandon its social gains, services called public service as education, health, housing etc. are being marketed rapidly, social security is tried to be transformed into an individual security approach (Koray, 2007, p.24). Implementations have been passed on to the foreground of the new global economic policies in the direction of disposing publicly owned enterprises rapidly by privatization of social enterprises and cutting social security expenditures in search for ways of individual solutions (Ener and Demircan, 2006, p.208). The neo-liberal understanding that quickly became dominant from the end of the 1970s dictate the need for weakening the state's dominance on public services and production processes (Erdut, 2004, p. 25). In parallel with the change in the social state understanding and the welfare regime, handling socio-economic rights which are the most important items of the social welfare state and handling poverty and the poor which are among the most fundamental social groups of the beneficiaries of these rights have changed (Sallan Gül, 2002, p.111-112). Social differentiation which is excessively faced in the places where the conclusions of developments growing on the unequal base are met by the solidarity culture involving religious elements in the face of unequal development of the capitalist systems' functions that disintegrate the society. In this respect, the concept of socio-economic protection and collective social solidarity-responsibility in the dimension of rights-based citizenship gives its place to individual responsibility and voluntary philanthropy (Gül and Sallan Gül, 2007, p. 2). As a result, religious items are put into effect in order to legitimate the consumption demands of the

capitalist system which emerged as power, superiority and profit. In other words, religious items are made into an instrument used to legitimize the illegitimacy of the capitalist system (Manisalı, 2006, p.61). The emphasis on this kind of philanthropic belief is rejecting the concept of social rights and believing that wealth and poverty inevitably exist together. In the acceptance of the current inequalities, the poor are entrusted to the philanthropic sense of the rich who do not accept any imposition (Buğra, 2008, p. 59). Within the framework of philanthropy, a religious work ethic and relationship take the place of social security and union rights based on legal rules developed for the resolution of conflicts between labour and capital (Buğra, 2004; Gökçeoğlu Balcı, 2004). Thus, collectivist-intercommunal solidarity and morality behaviour continue to expand the scope of new rightist's hegemony spaces which are established on the identity politics in an out-of-class area by replacing trade union rights as a public right.

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21 A New Strategy In Fighting Against Mobbing: Mediation

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Introduction

Today, many problems like rising population, economic crises and global competition have brought unemployment on the top of the most important problems of the countries. The problem of intense unemployment increases the risk for those in business life to lose their jobs, reduces the reservation fees, and makes the competition in the business environment even more ruthless. As a result of this competition, pressure, violence and harassment is increasing in the workplace and they turn into the mobbing when these cases gain continuity.

Heinz Leymann is the eponym of today's use of mobbing phenomenon. Leymann's views and ideas on this issue forms the main source of people searching for mobbing behaviours in the workplaces around the world. In addition to mobbing behaviours, Leymann examined in detail the features of people affected from mobbing, its causes and consequences and defined mobbing as "a psychological terror" committed by one or more people to one another person as a type of hostile and immoral communication that continues systematically (Tınaz, 2013: 146-147).

The resulting psychological terror or violence has many negative consequences for those exposed to this behaviour. Complex and different situations from the starting moment of mobbing to its end necessitate the public authority to set a rule for the solution.

As a result of attention that Leymann has drawn about mobbing, many researches and arrangements have been made in such countries as England, Ireland, Switzerland, Austria, Hungary, Italy, France, Australia, New Zealand, Japan and South Africa, especially Norway and Finland and mobbing has started to be considered a crime by articles added to the occupational health and safety laws and / or other laws in such countries as Sweden, Finland, Ireland, Germany, Switzerland, France and Denmark (Tınaz, 2006: 15-16, Çobanoglu, 2005: 27). In Turkey, the mobbing still not developed enough to fight the legislation in which it appears that a systematic and policy solutions yet. It is seen that the legislation for fighting against mobbing is still not developed enough and there is no a systematic solution policy in Turkey yet.

The Concept of Mobbing, Its Types, Causes and Effects

In today's working life, when the root of the mobbing concept used to express psychological harassment and terror occurring in the workplace is examined, it is seen that the word mob which was derived from the words "mobile vulgus" in Latin means undecided crowd or gang in English, and it means applying psychological violence, siege, harassment, giving disturbance or distress together with suffix ing. (Tınaz, 2013: 145). Although the concept of mobbing has been defined by many authors as given in Table 1, the most widely used definition belongs to Heinz Leymann (İlhan, 2010: 1179).

Although there is not yet a consensus on the Turkish provision of the word mobbing, which is called "*bezdiri*" (intimidation) by the Turkish Language Association (TDK), the concepts of intimidation, psychological harassment, and psychological violence are used. The word "*bezdiri*" can be used in the legislative amendments proposed even if it is difficult to use a single definition in terms of the whole literature association. In this study, the mobbing term accepted by many countries is used.

Table 1. In describing "mobbing" in the workplace

Reference	Terms	Definition
Brodsky (1976)	Harassment	Repeated and persistent attempts by a person to torment, wear down, frustrate or get a reaction from another person; it is a treatment which persistently provokes, pressurizes, frightens, intimidates or otherwise causes discomfort in another person
Thylefors (1987)	Scapegoating	One or more persons who are exposed to repeated, negative actions from one or more other individuals during a period of time
Matthiesen, Raknes &	Mobbing	One or more person's repeated and enduring negative reactions and actions targeted at one or more person of their work group

Rrokkum (1989)		
Kile (1990)	Health endangering leadership	Continuous humiliating and harassing acts of long duration conducted by a superior and expressed overtly or covertly
Leymann (1990)	Mobbing / Psychological terror	Hostile and unethical communication that is directed in a systematic way by one or more persons, mainly towards one targeted individual
Wilson (1991)	Workplace	The actual disintegration of an employee's fundamental self, resulting from an employer's supervisor's perceived or real continual and deliberate malicious treatment
Astforth (1994)	Petty Tyranny	A leader who lords his power over others through arbitrariness and self-aggrandizement, the belittling of subordinates, showing lack of consideration, using a forcing style of conflict resolution, discoursing initiative and the use of non-contingent punishment
Vartia (1993)	Harassment	Situations where a person is exposed repeatedly and over time to negative action on the part of one or more persons
Bjorkqvist, Osterman (1994)	Harassment	Repeated activities, with the aim of bringing mental (but sometimes also physical) pain, and directed towards one or more individual who, for one reason or another, are not able to defend themselves
Adams (1992)	Bulling	Persistent criticism and personal abuse in public or private, which humiliates and demeans a person

Source: (Shelton, 2011: 6)

According to the definition of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, it has been emphasized that; "*mobbing is a whole of malicious, intentional, negative attitudes and behaviours that are conducted by one or more persons against other one and ones at the workplaces and continue systematically for certain period of time for the aim of intimidation, passivation of the sufferers and keeping them away from their jobs and harm their self- esteem, occupational status, social relations or health and that in order for a negative attitude to be to considered mobbing, it must include the following elements*"(ÇSGB, 2015:9-10). Accordingly, mobbing:

- must be conducted at the workplace,
- can be conducted by superiors against subordinates, and by subordinates against superiors, as well, or between ones of equal status
- must be done systematically,
- must be repeated with a continuing frequency,
- must be intentional,

- must carry the aim of intimidation, passivation and keeping away from the workplace,
- must harm the personality, occupational status or health of the sufferer,
- negative attitudes and behaviours towards the person may be hidden or open.

When these definitions and elements are taken into consideration, the most important topics that are highlighted in order for a negative behaviour to be regarded as mobbing are that it must be conducted most especially in the workplace, it must be done in a continuous way (at least six months in the literature), it must have a result-oriented aim and it must be intentional.

Mobbing can take place in different platforms. Although mobbing has often been identified to be negative behaviours conducted mainly by the superiors against the subordinates (vertical psychological harassment) or negative behaviours done by people of equal status against each other, it was seen during different researches that mobbing can be conducted by the persons of different status from bottom to top (vertical psychological harassment). Mobbing is known to be experienced especially in the service sector and widely in the health sector and at universities although there is no detailed classification done as to where it is made, when it is made, its time, in which sectors it is extensively experienced (Naktiyok, Yanık and Timuroğlu, 2017: 122, TBMM, 2011: 4).

When we examine the causes of mobbing; personal reasons come first. Beside personal reasons, institutional, organizational and managerial reasons, social and communal reasons are also considered as reasons for mobbing (SGK, 2016: 14-17).

It has been suggested by different researchers that the stages of mobbing take place in 4 to 6 phases. When we examine these in general, the process of mobbing begins with a disagreement phase. After the subject of disagreement is personalized by the parties, the actions seen in the aggression phase start. The administration involves usually in the first stage. However, if mobbing is committed horizontally, the administration involves negatively in the process in the second stage. The sufferer is called/labelled as being "complex, rebellious, opponent, or other", or it is brought forward that he has psychological problems. This phase is the defining phase. The final phase is the phase of dismission. At this stage, the mobbing sufferer may suffer from stress disorder, emotional tension; he may even commit suicide (Davenport, Schwartz and Elliott, 2003: 20, Leymann, 1996: 170, SGK, 2016: 22-23).

We can examine mobbing in two respects in terms of its effects. The first is the physical, psychological and economic problems and consequences that one experiences during and after mobbing. The second one is the economic losses of the workplace and / or employer where the mobbing is experienced (TBMM, 2011: 18-20).

Mobbing in Turkish Law

Psychological harassment at work has started to be regarded as a crime in recent years in many countries such as Sweden in 1994, Japan in 1996, Finland in 2000, Germany, France and USA in recent years (Özkul and Çarıkçı, 2010: 489). In Turkey, outside the decision of the first court and Supreme Court, the presence of mobbing has been recognized legally with "The Circular of Psychological Harassment at Workplaces" published in the Official Gazette with issue no 27879 and date 19 March 2011.

When the legal literature is scanned outside the Circular, there are provisions in the Constitution in terms of fundamental rights and freedoms; in the Penal Code in terms of torture, persecution, sexual assault; in the Labor Law in terms of taking occupational health and safety precautions and the employer's liability for worker's protection.

The suit, dated 20/12/2006 and no E. 2006/19 K. 2006/625, tried and concluded by Ankara 8th Labour Court in 2006 is the first case related to mobbing in Turkey, 2006/19 E. and K. 2006/625 dated 20/12/2006 which is the case with a decision no. The first judicial decision to determine the existence of mobbing passed the Turkish legal history in the decision dated 30.05.2008 and no E. 2007/9154, K. 2008/13307 taken by unanimous vote by the 9th Civil Law Office of the Supreme Court with regard to the appeal of that decision (Tınaz, 2011, P. 236).

The first mobbing case in Turkish public life was opened by a man. The person named Ş.T. claimed compensation against his institution by claiming that he and his family had entered depression due to the psychological pressure experienced while working at the Turkish Grain Board. Ş.T. formed the content of the suit by the cases he experienced as pressure, being forced to resign, lowering of rank, etc. (TBMM, 2011: 3-4).

After the Circular of Prime Ministry, the first amendment to mobbing within the limits of the law took place in the new Turkish Code of Obligations No. 6098, which entered into force in 2012. In Article 417 of the Law under the title of the Protection of the Worker's Personality; There is a provision saying; *"The employer has the obligation to protect and respect the personality of the worker in relation to the service and to provide a*

mechanism in accordance with the principles of honesty in the workplace and in particular to take measures to ensure that the workers are not suffered psychological and sexual abuse and those who have suffered such harassment are not harmed more" With this article, the employer is made obliged to take the necessary precautions in order to prevent psychological abuse of the workers in the workplace.

Action Plan of the Board for Competing against Psychological Harassment

According to Article 5 of the Circular of the Prime Ministry on the Prevention of Psychological Intimidation in the Workplace no 2011/2; " Board for Combatting Psychological Harassment " was established in the body of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security with the participation of State Personnel Administration, non-governmental organizations and related parties to monitor, evaluate and create preventive policies against employees' psychological harassment incidents. The board hold a meeting twice a year, or, extraordinarily when necessary, under the presidency of the General Director of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and with the participations of general secretaries of Turkey's Human Rights Association, the State Personnel Presidency, TISK, TURK-IS, HAK-IS, DISK, MEMUR-SEN, KAMU-SEN and KESK (ÇSGB, 2015: 7). This board prepared an action plan for 2012 - 2014. This Action Plan was compiled in Table 2 as follows in the light of the information from the General Directorate of Labour according to the activities, objectives, liable institutions, organizations to be cooperated and their realization status of the 4 main policies.

Table 2. Action Plan of the Board for Combatting Psychological Harassment

Priority Area	Name of Activity	Objective	Liable Institution	Organizations To Be Cooperated	Realization
1. Institutional Capacity Studies on the Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Workplaces	1.1. Creating the Working Procedures and Principles of the Board for Combatting Psychological Harassment	Establishing the foreseen frame according to the circular regarding the application	Board for Combatting Psychological Harassment	MLSS SPP Public institutions and organizations Syndicates and Confederations Occupational Organizations NGOs	YES
	1.2. Determination of the Actions for the Prevention of				PARTLY

	Psychological Harassment in Workplaces by The Board				
	1.3. Determination of the Liable Units in Institutions and Organizations for the Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Workplaces				PARTLY
2. Activities of Training and Raising Awareness on the Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Workplaces	2.1. Informing State Institutions and Organizations, Syndicates and Confederations, Occupational Organizations and Related Non-Governmental Organizations and Written, Visual, Electronic and Audio Media Organizations on Prevention of the Psychological Harassment	Raising Social Sensitivity and Awareness about Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Institutions, Organizations and Workplaces	Board for Combatting Psychological Harassment ÇASGEM		PARTLY
	2.2. Preparing Brochures and Banners and such Visual Materials for Introducing Psychological Harassment in				PARTLY

	Workplaces and to Employees				
	2.3. Carrying out Activities within the scope of "Occupational Health and Safety Week" to Increase Sensitivity				PARTLY
	2.4. Developing Training Activities for the Members of the Syndicates and Confederations of Employers and the Occupational Organizations				PARTLY
	2.5.Developing Training Activities for Workers and Officers in Cooperation with the Syndicates and Confederations				PARTLY
	2.6. Developing Training Activities for Audit Staff				YES
3. Activities of data collecting, monitoring and evaluating on the Prevention of Psychological Harassment	3.1. Doing Scientific Studies for Collecting Information and Reporting Related to the Cases of Psychological Harassment (Creation of Data Bank)	Keeping Statistics for the Development of Policies and Collecting and Reporting Related Documents Regarding the Prevention of	MLSS	SPP Public Institutions and Organizations Syndicates and Confederations Occupational Organizations Universities	NO

in Workplaces	3.2. Monitoring the work of Public Institutions and Organizations, Syndicates and Confederations, Occupational Organizations, Requesting Data and Information about the Incidents happen in Six Months Periods	Psychological Harassment in Workplaces			**NO**
	3.3. Collection of Applications Made to Call Center 170				**YES**
	3.4. Analysing by Reporting the Collected Data Regarding Psychological Harassment in the Workplace and Developing Policies for Preventing Psychological Harassment in the Workplace				**NO**
4. Legislation development works on the Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Workplaces	4.1. Examining the International Applications and Institutional Structures Regarding the Prevention of Psychological Harassment in Workplaces	Making legal arrangements to prevent psychological harassment in the framework of ILO-EU norms and encouraging the inclusion of related	MLSS	Public Institutions and Organizations Syndicates and Confederations Occupational Organizations International Organizations SPP	**PARTLY**
	4.2. Providing Information			Ministry of Justice	**NO**

	Exchange and Holding Seminars / Conferences with International Organizations Related to Practices	provisions in collective labour agreements			
	4.3. Determination of the Current Status of Legislation and Developing it in Consideration of International Applications				**NO**
	4.4. Conducting Workshop on Determination of Provisions for Including in the Collective Labour Agreements				**NO**

When the action plan is examined, it has been found that no common legislation has been determined regarding mobbing and even if some of the targets have been fulfilled, most of the targets have not been fulfilled yet. Data collection, monitoring and evaluation activities to prevent mobbing in the workplace cover only the information of the initial application from the call made to the ALO 170 line, there is no data on the complaints from other channels, more importantly, none of the targets in the action plan has been reached regarding monitoring these complaints, obtaining information about the results and preparing a 6 month report. There has not been sufficient progress in raising awareness about mobbing and providing adequate training for employees.

Examination of Applications Related to Combatting Psychological Harassment

After the Circular on Prevention of Psychological Intimidation in the Workplace with no 2011/2, some requests of complaints, applications, assistance and support started to be received through 170 CALL CENTRE of the Communication Center of Labour and

Social Security Centre. According to the statistics from calls made on 170 CALL Centre from 19.03.2011 to 31.10.2016 about psychological harassment in the workplace, a total of 35,970 calls were received. When we have look at the year 2011 with 2.001 applications and 2012 with 2.850 applications, an increase of 42% over the previous year is evident. In 2013, there were 4,870 applications, 71% more than the previous year. In 2014, there were 6.659 applications, 37% more than the previous year. In 2015, there were 9,005 applications that is 35% more compared to the previous year and 10,585 applications were made by 31 October 2016 (ÇSGB, 2016: 3).

"Public-Private" Sector Distinction According to the Applications

When we have a look at the complaints made to 170 CALL CENTRE; out of total 35.970 complaints, 29.238 of them were made by the employees of the private sector and 6,832 of them were made by the employees of the public sector. When examined from the sectoral point of view, we can say that the private sector employees are exposed to mobbing 4 times more than public employees. The fact that private sector employees do not have job security in comparison to the public sector, their low level of unionisation and high unemployment rates, leading employers or managers to put pressure on the employees which causes increasing tensions in the workplace and turning into harassment of continuous mobbing.

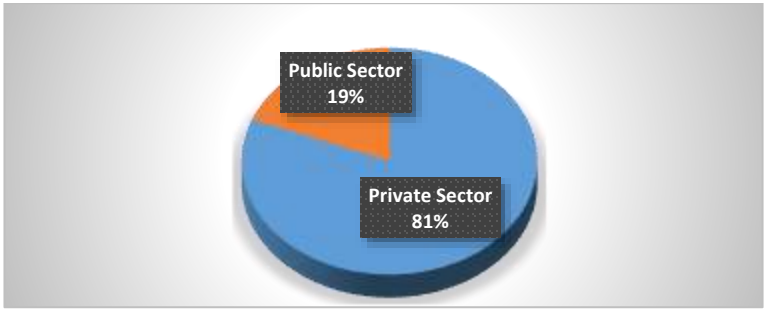

Chart 1. Mobbing Applications by Sectors (ÇSGB, 2016, p.4)

Applications by Gender

When have a look at the applications made to 170 CALL Centre in terms of gender, it is seen that men made 20,567 calls and women made 15,403 calls. When analysed in terms

of gender, it is seen that men complained more about mobbing than women, 57% of the calls received were made by men and 43% by women.

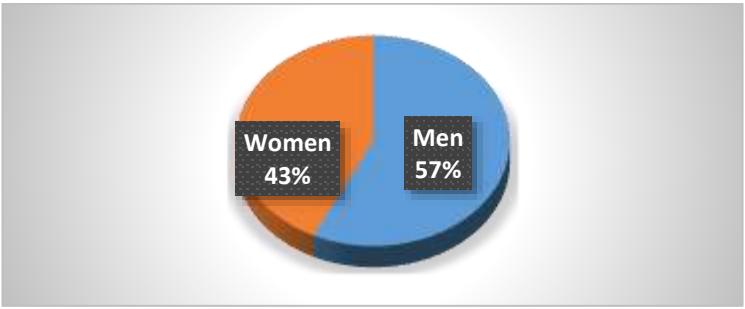

Chart 2. Mobbing Applications by Gender (ÇSGB, 2016, p.4)

Mobbing Applications by Sectors

Table 3 shows calls made to 170 Call Centre by sectors. It is seen that 62% of the received calls did not specify their sectors. From this point of view, it seems that the psychologist or the call centre officer who took the calls did not insist on the sectoral knowledge or the applicant did not specify his sector that we don't know the reason.

Table 3. Mobbing Applications by Sector

Private Sector					
Sector Name	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Sector Name**	**Number**	**Percentage**
Informing Without Specifying Sector And Psychological Support	18.044	61,93%	Janitor	125	0,43%
Industry Sector	2.808	9,64%	Media Institutions	112	0,38%
Store, Restaurant And Market Sectors	2.155	7,40%	Data Processing Sector	110	0,38%
Service Sector	888	3,05%	Cleaning Services	101	0,35%
Private Health Care Institutions	779	2,67%	Civil Aviation And Ground Services	62	0,21%
Tourism Sector	693	2,38%	Mining	51	0,18%
Workers Of A Sub-Contractor Firm And Municipality	558	1,92%	Advertisement	46	0,16%
Banking	516	1,77%	General Directorate Of Foundations	41	0,14%

Communication Services	492	1,69%	Publication House And Printing	37	0,13%
Private Security Services	336	1,15%	Law Office	32	0,11%
Private Educational Institutions	302	1,04%	Associations And Civil Society Institutions	29	0,10%
Construction Sector	292	1,00%	Marine Businesses	27	0,09%
Shipping Sector	177	0,61%	Agriculture Sector	16	0,05%
Medical Equipments And Medical Services	173	0,59%	Syn Dicate	3	0,01%
University	133	0,46%	Total	29.138	100%
Source: (ÇSGB, 2016:5)					

Mediation in the Resolution of Disputes

The growing population, the emergence of new employment areas, the inexorable competition in business relations, the development of new and different professions, causes disputes as a natural consequence of human relations in working life as well as in every field. Resolving these disputes in a lawful manner with legal methods is very important for ensuring peace of labour. However, that the number of such cases submitted to the court is increasing day by day in the judicial system and the prolongation of the length of these cases reduces the possibility of satisfactorily resolving the disputes. For this reason, alternative solutions are needed. Mediation is an alternative way which is used the most for resolving disputes in a short time, a cost-effective and constructive manner that the parties are satisfied with (Polat, 2010: 147).

Mediation Concept

Mediation, a special method of dispute, is a voluntary, non-binding process that helps two or more people negotiate their problems through a person and arrive at an agreement. Although there are a wide range of definitions of mediation, it is at the top of the most frequently used methods for resolving disputes arising from the conflict of interests of persons and / or institutions, especially in business life (Tuğsavul, 2012: 21). The mediation process is a system that is designed to bring the two sides to an agreement. If an agreement is reached between the parties, this is registered with the report and given to the parties (Goodman, 2016: 5).

The United Nations (UN, 2017: 4) defines mediation as a process that is assisted by a third party to assist two or more parties in developing their mutually acceptable

agreements to prevent, manage or solve a conflict at their own consent. The main bearing of the mediation is that the conflicting parties can develop their relations and cooperate in the right context. The outcome of the mediation can be kept within a limited scope by addressing a specific issue to control or manage a conflict, or it can involve multiple domains with a comprehensive reconciliation text.

In the Mediation Law, mediation is defined as: *"It is a method of resolving disputes with the participation of a neutral and independent third person who has received specialist training to bring the parties together and set up a communication process between them to make them negotiate, understand each other and to create their own solutions by implementing systematic techniques."*

Mediation can be shortly defined as allowing the parties to find a middle ground through the evidence and documents provided by the parties with specific methods and techniques used by the mediator.

Mediation Practices in Turkish Law

The Law on Mediation in Legal Disputes No. 6325 published in the Official Gazette No. 28331 dated 22 June 2012 was accepted on 07 June 2012.

To enter into the register as a mediator under the law numbered 6323;

- being a Turkish citizen,
- being a law faculty graduate with at least five years of seniority in his profession,
- to be fully licensed,
- not being convicted of a deliberately committed offense,
- to complete the mediation training and to be successful in the written and practical examination conducted by the Ministry

are required.

The parties are free to apply to the mediation, to continue the process, to conclude it, or to give up the process. The Parties shall have equal rights both applying to the mediator and throughout the whole process,.

In order to be a mediator, at first step, it is necessary to be a graduate from the law faculty, and to have five years of seniority after graduation. These persons, as stated in Article 26 of the mediation law, are required to get a total of forty eight hours of mediation training, minimum of thirty-six hours of which are theoretical and twelve hours of which are

practical training to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to fulfil the mediation, including basic information about the conduct of the mediation activity, communication skills, negotiation and conflict resolution methods, psychology and other theoretical and practical information.

Mediation Statistics

According to the statistics of the Ministry of Justice Head of Mediation Department dated October 2017; there are 42 mediation associations and 107 mediation offices in Turkey. There are 6.493 mediators who entered into the register and 6.957 mediators who did not enter into the register. The total number of minutes was 15,045, in 13,854 of which agreement was reached. When we look at legal disputes according to their content, we see that 90% of mediation applicants constitute employee-employer disputes with 13,508 cases.

Table 3. Legal Disputes by Subject

	Subject of Legal Dispute	Number	Percentage
1	Disputes Between Employees and Employers	11.734	89,48
2	Compensation and Receivables from Copyrights	264	2,01
3	Pecuniary and Non-Pecuniary Damages	237	0,68
4	Debt/Credit Relationship	195	0,02
5	Disputes From Contractual Obligation	77	0,01
6	Rental Receivables	76	0,00
7	Insurance Law	69	0,00
8	Alimony Payment	63	0,00
9	Disputes From Consumer Law	57	0,00
10	Property Regime	55	0,00
11	Compensation for Damage	45	0,00
12	Disputes From the Contract of the Construction Right in Return for Flat	39	0,00
13	Partition of Inheritance	37	0,00
14	Transfer of Share	21	0,00
15	Cancellation of Partnership	18	0,00
16	Disputes From Element of Foreignness	14	0,00
17	Disputes From Property Ownership	14	0,00
18	Cancellation of Deeds and Land Registry	14	0,00
19	Partition of the Real Property	13	0,00
20	Transfer of the Real Property	13	0,00
21	Evacuation	9	0,00
22	Using the Pre-Purchase Rights	9	0,00

23	Service Detection	7	0,00
24	Disassociation From Commercial Partnership	6	0,00
25	Adequate Pay Preventive Injunction	5	0,00
26	Health Legislation	4	0,00
27	Returning Movables	4	0,00
28	Implementation	3	0,00
29	Preventing Unjust Take over - Reinstating	3	0,00
30	Participation Receivables	2	0,00
31	Vicinity Rights	2	0,00
32	Transfer of Movables	2	0,00
33	Avoidance Contract	1	0,00
34	Sports Law	1	0,00
Total		13.113	100

Source: (Arabuluculuk Daire Başkanlığı, 2017a)

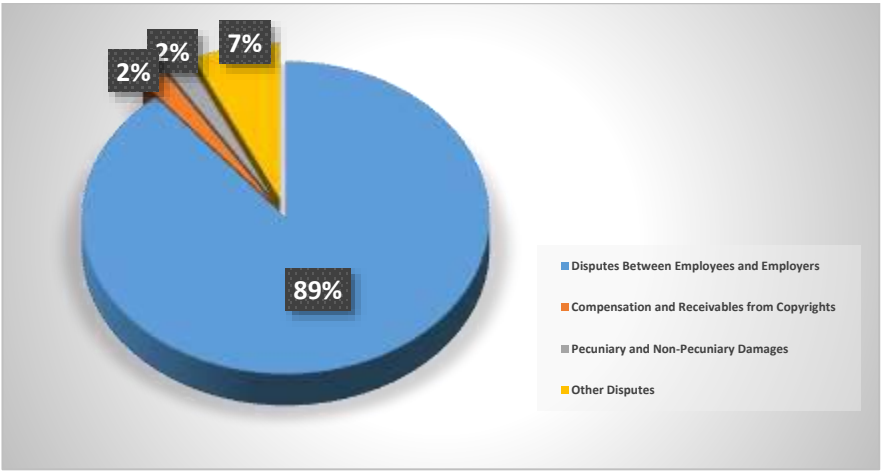

Chart 3. Mediation Practices by Subjects
Source: (Arabuluculuk Daire Başkanlığı, 2017b)

This system has shown successful results when the results of the dispute applications have been examined since June 2012, when the mediation law came into force. It is evident that there are 98% of successes from the applications made to the mediator to compromise instead of lengthy litigation periods. This is an indication of how important the expansion of the system is.

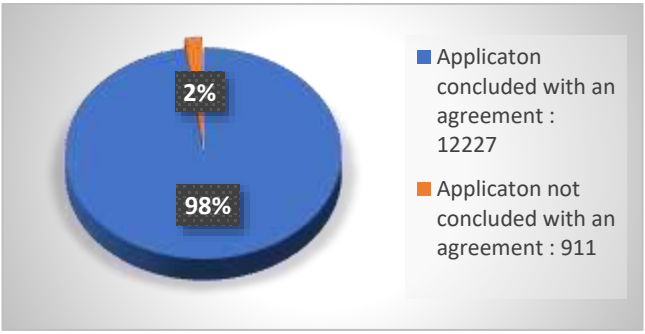

Chart 4. Statistics of Mediation Practices by Results
Source: (Arabuluculuk Daire Başkanlığı, 2017c)

The duration is very important in terms of both parties in the solution of the dispute. Delaying lawsuits become abrasive and costly for the parties, especially in terms of business relations, not only the workers themselves but also the family and the environment are adversely affected. When the mediation statistics are analysed, as it is seen in chart 5, 56% of the parties come to an agreement within 1 day and 36% of them come to an agreement in duration less than a day. Reaching an agreement quite a short time and meeting the optimal expectations of two parties, shortening the length of the long litigation period in the Turkish legal system suggest the success of the mediation system in terms of duration, as well.

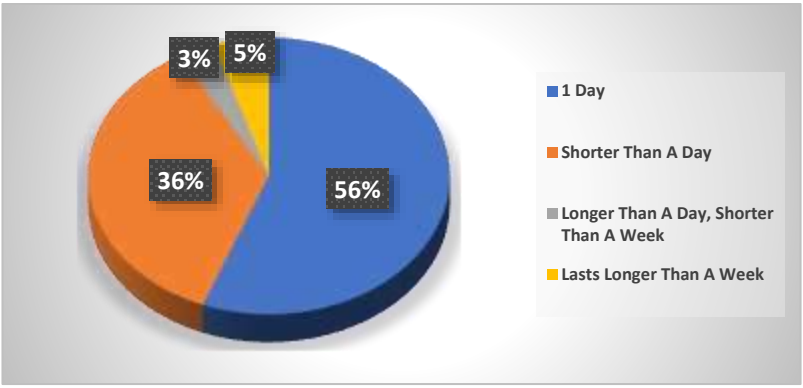

Chart 5. Durations of Mediation Negotiations
Source: (Arabuluculuk Daire Başkanlığı, 2017d)

Discussion

Mobbing negatively affects both the employee and the employer in terms of many aspects, especially working peace. Mobbing is a complicated and time-consuming process in terms of solution, as well as being an abrasive and costly process for people and institutions. There is no institutionalized mechanism in our country yet to be followed by a person who is exposed to mobbing. Mobbing complaints encountered in the workplace are taken to the judiciary and that takes longer to conclude in Turkey as shown in the table below.

Table 4. Number of Court Cases and Their Durations, Turkey (2005-2015)

	INCOMING					CONCLUDED				
Years	Carried Over From the Previous Year	Filed within the Year	Coming As Dismissed	Total	D[1]	Concluded within the Year	D	Carried Over to the Next Year	Percentage of Litigation Concluded to Litigation Coming	Average Duration of Trying
2005	26965	62941	2583	92489	100	58511	100	33978	63,3	177
2006	33978	74327	3803	112108	121	71674	122	40434	63,9	179
[1]D: While the change is calculated, it has been based on the year 2005 (2005=100)										
2007	40434	82623	5477	128534	139	79174	135	49360	61,6	193
2008	49360	97802	5500	152662	165	98292	168	54370	64,4	185

2009	72177	110733	5528	188438	204	111904	191	76534	59,4	235
2010	76533	130134	5795	212462	230	123791	212	88671	58,3	229
2011	88673	83375	3701	175749	190	124303	121	51446	70,7	239
2012	33661	97180	5542	136383	147	100919	172	35464	74	122
2013	53251	109141	6291	168683	182	103509	177	65174	61,4	195
2014	47382	96036	5240	148658	161	102128	175	46530	68,8	166
2015	46531	98667	5476	150674	163	108242	185	42432	71,8	151
Average Duration of Trying a Litigation										188

Source: (Adli Sicil ve İstatistik Genel Müdürlüğü: 2017)

According to the Criminal Records Statistics, the average duration of trying a case is calculated as 183 days.

The following table shows the number of lawsuits that have included mobbing and have been concluded by having submitted to the superior / appeal court.

Table 5. Mobbing Lawsuits outgoing to Appeal (2008-15.10.2017)

Years	The Constitutional Court	The Supreme Court	Council of State	Intermediate Courts of Appeal
2008	0	2	0	0
2009	0	2	0	0
2010	0	2	0	0
2011	0	2	0	0
2012	0	1	1	0
2013	0	6	3	0
2014	3	54	2	0
2015	0	64	3	0
2016	2	83	0	1
2017	1	4	0	2
Total	**6**	**220**	**9**	**3**

Source: (Kazancı Hukuk, 2017)

When the system which entered into force in Turkey by the mediation law No. 6325 adopted in 2012 examined, 90% of applications made were that of the disputes that occur in labour relationships. Likewise, psychological harassment at the workplace should be considered as a dispute in terms of labour relations and the solution should be arrived rapidly.

In the literature, one of the conditions required for the decision of harassment at work to be given is that this harassment must continue for at least 6 months. In order to make a complaint in this matter, the person who is psychologically abused in the workplace will be able to reach the solution after at least 18 months along with his at least 6 months of suffering and also the duration of trial and conclusion and proving it. This period should

be regarded as a very long period in terms of human health, and the mobbing cases should be solved in terms of both the employer and the worker at a lower cost and faster. For this reason, it can be said that the mediation system which is applied in civil cases and also in labour disputes in our country dating from 1 January 2018 would be a suitable way to resolve disputes arising from psychological harassment at work.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In order to combat effectively against mobbing in Turkey, it is recommended that the issues in the below items should be implemented urgently:

• In the current situation, applications for mobbing complaints are made through more than one unit. This forces the coordination mechanism and hinders institutionalization of its processes. Also mobbing complaints and results can not be followed for this reason. The conclusions of mobbing complaints should be followed. As it is also included in this study, the only aggregate data on mobbing complaints are the statistics regarding the calls made to 170 Call Center. However, complaints or applicants are made out of 170 Call Center on different channels through BIMER, CIMER and using the right of petition. These complaints must be gathered under one centre for both convenience and follow-up. Every year, reports about the applications and conclusions of mobbing complaints should be prepared and shared with the public.

- Norm consensus between laws must be established by making mobbing related regulations in business law urgently.
- Mobbing and methods for combatting mobbing should be added and made compulsory in the scope of occupational health and safety trainings which are made obligatory in the workplace.
- Workplacess with more than a certain number of employees (e.g. 50 and over) should employ a supervisor and / or set up a unit responsible for combatting psychological harassment. This unit should continuously inform and train employees and evaluate complaints.

The mediation process for mobbing complaints can be implemented with the model we recommend as follows, taking into consideration both the formal mediation process in collective bargaining agreements and the mediation process as case condition in labour disputes;

In the first stage; the person claiming to be exposed to mobbing must make an application using application channels of 170 CALL Centre, BIMER and CIMER. Complaints regarding mobbing in these application channels should be separated as to be one application form and all applications received should be forwarded to the unit set up in MLSS.

In the second stage; the professional persons in the field of mobbing unit established in MLSS should decide whether the complaint is mobbing and additional information should be obtained by contacting with the applicant if necessary. If the application does not conform to the definition of mobbing, the complaint should be referred to the relevant institution or inspection departments by the unit. If the application complies with the definition of mobbing, it is required to pass the third stage.

In the third stage; the mediation process should be initiated by forwarding the application to the Provincial Directorate of Turkish Employment Organization in the same city where the relevant application is made.

In the fourth stage; the Provincial Directorate of Turkish Employment Organization should invite the complainant party and the complainer party in order to initiate mediation process. At this stage, the parties can either choose a mediator on which they agree, or request an alternate mediator to be appointed.

In the fifth stage; the mediator should submit his proposal to the parties on their agreement and give a certain period of time for the parties to agree after bringing the parties together the Provincial Directorate of Turkish Employment Organization or in an impartial place, listening to the parties and reviewing the situation.

In the sixth stage; if the parties agree, the mediator should give the memorandum of understanding to both parties after they sign and he should forward a copy to the Provincial Directorate of Turkish Employment Organization to get it registered in the mobbing monitor system established in the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. If the parties do not agree, a report of discrepancy must be signed by both parties and the mediator must forward it to the MLSS in terms for their right of opening a court case. The mediation fee may be collected by the Provincial Directorate of Turkish Employment Organization before the mediation activity as divided equally between the parties. In addition, the period for which the worker has participated in the mediation negotiations must be regarded as the cases deemed to have been worked in terms of annual leave according to paragraph h of Article 55 of the Labour Law no. 4857.

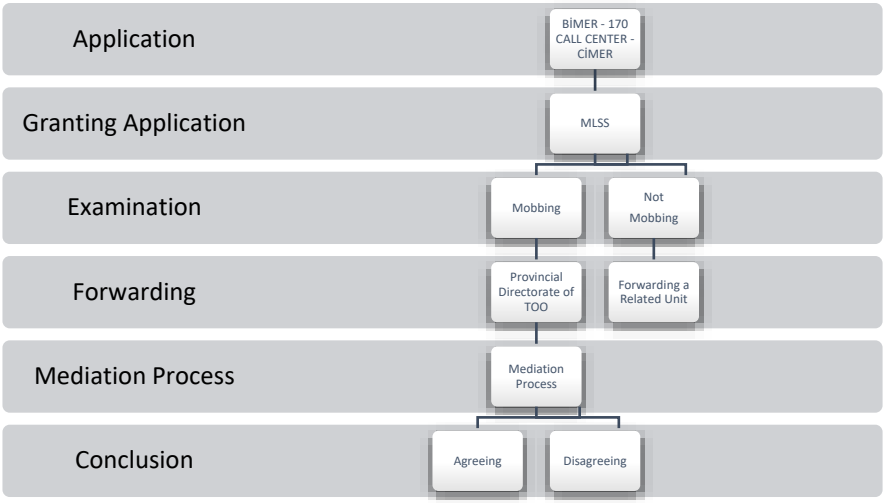

Figure 1. Work Flowchart of Mobbing Mediation Process

With this model to be applied, mobbing complaints can be solved quickly without being submitted to the judiciary. In such a case, there will be no other solution other than the judicial remedy for the person claiming to be exposure mobbing. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security implements the similar process of mediation above by running the Official Mediation mechanism during the disputes in collective bargaining agreements. Experience, knowledge and experience here should also be used in resolving mobbing complaints, and the system should be implemented by establishing a mobbing mediation office within the General Directorate of Labour and Social Security or the General Directorate of Occupational Health and Safety. This department must conclude the complaints by following them from beginning to end. The results of the work done should be continuously shared with the public. The objectives and strategies identified in the action plan should be monitored by this department.

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3 Safety Culture Research on a Metropolitan Municipality in Turkey[2]

Bülent ARPAT

Introduction

Individuals' lives, as a whole in both material and mental dimensions, and wellbeing are above any commercial interest. In the professional work life, provision of mental and physical health, avoiding all risks or dangers against healt, developing and maintaining safe workplace, and determining all types of factors threatening safety are fundamental subjects of Occupational Health and Safety (OHS).

In 2012, with the proactive approach of the OHS Law with 6331 serial number enacted in Turkey, the objective is to prevent work accidents and occupational diseases before they occur. The law includes not only blue-colalr workers but also all employees under its protection so that right to live, the most fundamental human right, preservation and development of human health and safety could be ensured.

Nevertheless, the legal regulations enacted to prevent work accidents and occupational diseases (WAOD) in Turkey have failed in making expected impact. According to the WAOD statistics, numbers of work accidents and associated death and injury cases are still at remarkably high levels. In order to fight against WAOD effectively, it is necessary not only to take "technical" aspect of the OHS but also "humankind" factor. Yet, "unsafe behavior" comes first among the factors causing WAOD; and physical characteristic of

[2] The present study was presented during the 8th International OHS Conference in Istanbul in 2016; and amended based on the feedback received during the conference.

work environment and personal characteristics of employees are considered other prominent factors. Therefore, the concept of "culture" is commonly addressed today as a behavior pattern determinant in efforts to prevent WAOD (Dursun, 2012).

The present study was conducted within the OHS scope of municipalities, one of the local governance organizations. The specific reason for preferring studying OHS at the municipality level is that municipalities employ workers in mostly "hazardous" and "highly hazardous" activities in fulfilling their duties assigned by the relevant laws as well as that they are obliged to preserve health and safety of other workers employed and habitants living in their jurisdiction area.

This study is expected to be useful in three basic objectives as follows:

1. Determining perceptions of municipality employees regarding dimensions constituting safety culture and current level of this culture,
2. Determining factors effective on developing safety culture in municipalities, and
3. Within the scope of the law with 6331 serial number, providing a framework that could contribute in creating a positive safety culture in a public organization at the final phase of transition.

The concept of culture is included in numbers of studies today. The reason for covereage of this concept by great deal of social studies is that it is a background setter which has been formed in a long time frame under influence of various factors motivating human behaviors. This characteristic of culture provides a holistic framework in prevention of WAOD that could occur due to "unsafe behavior" in terms of OHS.

It is suggested that safety culture develops in organizations as an element of organization culture. Thus, the present study on safety culture utilizes from both "culture" and "organization culture" concepts to address the subject.

Literature

The concept of culture is deemed to be originated from the Latin word of "colere" or "culture" which refers rise and look after (Şişman, 2011, p. 1; Güvenç, 2011, p. 122; Erdoğan, 2007, p. 223; Eroğlu, 2011, p. 141). There are numbers of definitions related with the concept of culture. In the anthology published by two American anthropologists of Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), 164 different definitions were drawn. On the basis of one these definitions, "culture" refers opinions, affection and behaviors exposing unique

structures of human groups and expressed and transferred by tens of symbols (reported by Güvenç, 2011, p. 121). The difficulty that arises due to abundance of definitions is not result of insufficient information or material; instead it depends on distinctive concentrations of researchers who are striving to describe culture and their need for taking culture in their respective dimension (Erdoğan, 2007, p. 223; Eroğlu, 2011, p. 142). Significant differences could be observed among social structures because of differences in local conditions even though they embrace the same behavior styles (Çağlar, 2001, p. 126).

When it is considered that each society has its own unique culture which distinguishes them from others, it could be revealed that social organizations have their identical cultures (Demirbilek, 2008; Şerifoğlu and Sungur, 2007, p. 4). This study considers this sub-culture which belongs to organizations or in other words work environment.

Organization Culture

According to Akın (2012, p. 104), organization culture is mutual value and belief interacting with structure and control systems in an organization itself so as to construct behavioral norms. Individuals gathering under roof of a workplace constitute the first members of a social culture; then, they expand through sub-groups within this culture. These individuals naturally bring characteristics of their society and culture together with them since the first day at the job. Organizations, as micro-social units, are comprised of an extensive interaction among certain beneficiaries such as employees, suppliers, partners and other stake holders with codes-norms regulating their unique certain life styles, customs, activities and behavior styles regulating their like other societies (Eğinli and Çakır, 2011, p. 37; Demirbilek, 2005, p. 75). The reality in organizations provides advantages like cultural diversity, creativity, innovation and flexibility but has potential to have negative impacts such as risks, conflicts, erroneous communication and stress both in the organizational and OHS dimensions (EU-OSHA, 2013, p. 7).

One of these potential impacts could be presented by the relationship between culture and individual as explained by Şişman (2011, p. 2), which proposes rather complicated relationship between culture and an individual. Whereas this concept encircle individual and form them under the influence of their society, individuals contribute into formation/evolution of their culture. Based on this closed-cycle interaction, it is possible dominant individual(s) at the workplace who counteract(s) against the OHS procedures

to have influence on behaviors of employees and to steer them towards risky behaviors which might be persisted over the time.

Taylor (2010, p. 3) explains constituent elements of organizational culture as beliefs, adopted values, attitudes, artifacts and behaviors. Figure 1 exhibits the model suggested by Taylor originated from the Shein's (2004, p. 47) model.

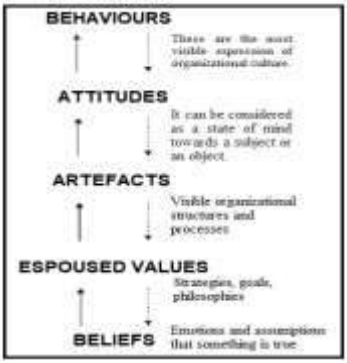

Figure 1: Components of the Organization Culture and Their Relationship

Resource: Taylor, J.B. (2010), Safety Culture, Gower Publishing, p.4; Schein, E.H. (2004), Organizational Culture and Leadersip, John Wiley & Sons, 3rd Edition, p. 26.

According to Figure 1, culture, as composition of elements of beliefs, values, attitudes and artifacts, manifest itself through behaviors and performance individuals. Despite the fact that behaviors have strong ties with aforesaid components of culture, the model asserts that shared beliefs of an organization especially form employee behaviors. Furthermore, if shared beliefs and associated behaviors lead organizational success, this situation will result in persistent and stable culture and strengthen their validity (Taylor, 2010, p. 3).

For businesses, safety culture is related with the organization culture as explained above and constitutes one of its elements (Akın, 2012, p. 104). This concept will be taken into consideration under the section below.

Safety Culture at Workplace

The current literature on culture of safety at work offers numbers of definition. In one which suggested by the International Atom Energy Association (IAEA), it is defined as

"whole patterns of perception, attitude, thinking habits, behavior and competence of individuals and groups with authorization to make decision on health and safety programs of organizations regarding their adequacy, appropriateness, style and implementation (Mearns et al., 2003, p. 642). It is argued that safety culture develops and maintains safety attitude of members of an organization; and additionally it is important trigger of safe behavior across an organization (Zohar, 1980). Furthermore, even its characteristic which eliminates adverse interactions of aforesaid closed-loop above puts this concept into prominence within an organization. Besides, the British Industrial Confederation defines the concept as opinion and beliefs regarding risk, work accident and sickness (Cooper, 2000:113). Ostrom et al. (1993), Berends (1995) and Fang et al. (2006) conceptualized safety culture as set of dominant indicators in an organization and intellectual programming and organizational beliefs, values and attitudes influencing organizational safety performance such as actions, policies and processes (Arpat, 2015, p. 30). The concept strives to adapt personal intellectual practices with the organizational objectives related with safety and hence it exhibits abstractive nature.

Safety culture existing in an organization is an evidence and proof of the OHS practices and policies executed in a workplace (Demirbilek, 2005). There are examples of organizations which accomplished gaining the OHS consciousness among both employees and managers as a result of their organizational efforts on the OHS besides the ones failed in digesting the complete OHS understanding (İşler, 2013, p. 40). Such difference among organizations distinguishes them in terms of their position on safety scale in either positive or negative directions (Arpat, 2015, p. 57). Yet, Louvar (2013, p. 57) describes positive safety culture as an organization in which all employees adopt safety programs as a life style and make contribution into them. Hence, workplace safety subject must have been transformed into a value together with its all dimensions rather than being considered as a "priority" for persisting positive safety culture (Akın, 2012, p. 104). In order to establish positive safety culture in organizations based on values, Patankar and Sabin (2010, p. 100) propond safety culture pyramid depicted in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Safety Culture Pyramid

Resource: Patankar, M.S., E.J. Sabin (2010), "The Safety Culture Perspective", In: Salas, E., D. Maurino (eds), "Human Factors In Aviation", Second Edition, Chennai: Elsevier, p. 115.

As components of organization culture given by Figure 1 are applied to safety culture, values, artifacts and positive safety beliefs institutionalized through organizational practices constitute desired safety attitudes and behaviors (Figure 2) (Taylor, 2010, p. 4). The safety culture pyramid helps to define how to set up safety performance, environment, strategies and values so as to illustrate and develop current status of safety culture in organizations. The components of the pyramid are defined as below:

- **Safety Values:** In the industries with extra hazardous nature, personal safety of employees is required to be permanent value of an organization as well as system safety. This means that safety issues require integrating organizational practices obligated by the mission and daily practices completely (Patankar and Sabin, 2010, p. 101). This component refers safety could not be evolved to organizational value as long as it is isolated from other organizational practices or it is only associated with certain actions.
- **Safety Strategies:** This includes organizational mission, policy, procedures, employee evaluation tools, punitive or prize system, and leadership practices. Personal values of organization founders are required to be transformed into strategies and ensured to be persisted (Rundmo and Hale, 2003). Values contributing in safety are consistently emphasized and supported through these practices so as to ensure make them permanent.

- **Safety Climate:** Employees' attitude towards safety with regard to policy, procedure, practice and leadership illustrate an immediate picture or their opinions and reactions. Evaluation of their attitudes is required to be considered across all organization at both group and personal levels for maintaining their safety (Patankar et al., 2012, p. 3). This phase aims to assess the practical efficiency of the phases mentioned above and to determine the degree of their inclusion in current intellectual practices of employees.
- **Safety Performance:** Safety performance is whole consequence of successfully eliminated mistakes, systematic safety developments against error or risk reporting, and tangible safety behaviors (Patankar and Sabin, 2010:101). This component characterizes tangible safety behaviors which emerge combined impact of whole organization atmosphere and reflections of practices in the first two phases.

According to Patankar and Sabin (2010:102), values and leadership strategies in an organization correspond to one of the four observable statuses of safety culture. Figure 3 exhibits aforesaid states of safety culture.

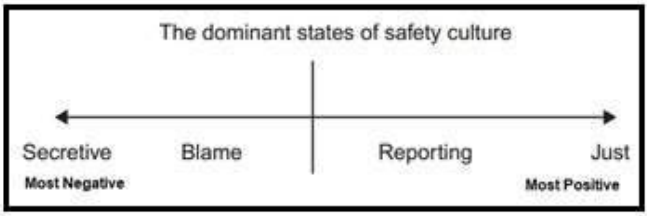

Figure 3: Safety Culture States

Resource: Patankar, M.S., E.J. Sabin (2010), "The Safety Culture Perspective", In: Salas, E., D. Maurino (eds), "Human Factors In Aviation", Second Edition, Chennai: Elsevier, p. 102.

According to Dursun (2012, p. 36), a formal reporting system is required in order to have positive safety culture[3], which could be conveniently operated by the employees. A

[3] Positive safety culture requires employees to avoid unsafe actions (Dursun, 2012, p. 54; Muniz, Peon and Ordas, 2007, p. 627-628), negative safety culture is controversial workplace climate. According to Uçkun et al. (2013, p. 61-62), openness of an organization to change and

reporting culture in which human mistakes, failures and breaches are logged is one of the qualities of an effective safety culture (Parker et al., 2006, p. 552). Safety reporting is the most evident and determining dimension for safety performance, the 4th phase of the Safety Culture Pyramid, and safety behaviors which objectify safety performance in terms of establishing or enhancing positive safety culture. Figure 3 suggests that "complete safety culture" is accessible provided that safety reporting is allowed for each employee and each case.

One of the significant factors of the positive safety culture is commitment of organization administration to safety. Yet, it is emphasized that personal values of founders/senior managers of organization are required to be transformed into organizational values through viable strategies in the 2nd phase of the safety pyramid. Hence, with this phase of the safety culture, numbers of safety culture dimensions such as reporting culture, safety systems, promotion of safety, communication for safety, safety leadership are associated with management's commitment to safety.

Hence, six fundamental criterions cited by the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission with respect to establishing a worldwide safety culture support our claim. These are apparent commitment of senior management, persistent interest of middle management, focus of supervisors (foremen / immediate chiefs) on OHS performance, active participation of employees, a flexible system allowing institutionalization of practices in the field, and positive employee perception of safety (Şerifoğlu and Sungur, 2007, p. 3). All of these criterions, either directly or indirectly, are relevant with Management's Commitment to Safety Performance and reflection of this performance on employee perceptions. In another study supporting our theory, Pidgeon (1991, p. 135) emphasizes management's commitment to safety as the first one of the four fundamental characteristics foreseen for establishing an intact organizational safety culture profile.

Municipalities

The 127th article of the Turkish Constitution regulates establishment, authority and obligations of local administrations. Duties and obligations of a municipality as one of

development, its disposal to develop experience from incidents, mistakes and accidents are characteristics of positive safety culture. According to IAEA (2002, p. 14), good / positive safety culture at nuclear institutions is reflection of beliefs and shared values about the importance attached to the safety throughout the facility; and this is responsibility of all employees.

the forms of local administration are drawn by the Metropolitan Municipality Law with 5216 serial number and Municipality Law with 5393 serial number. Accordingly, municipalities provide public service in urban infrastructure such as urban development, water and sewage network, transportation; geographical and urban information systems; environment and environmental sanitation, waste management; city police, fire department, emergency, rescue and ambulance; urban traffic, burial and graveyard; forestation, park and recreational areas, housing, culture and art, tourism and promotion, youth and sport; social service and aid, marriage, occupational and skill training; development of economy and commerce; pre-school education; and finally environmental preservation.

Within the scope of the local and district needs and requirements, a municipality is financially independent legal public entity whose decision body is formed through local election attended by local residents within the relevant jurisdiction (Tortop et al., 2008, p. 333-334). Infrastructure and utility services provided by municipalities such as energy, transportation, water and sewerage (sewer system, waste water network), construction, road-asphalt-pavement, park-landscaping, solid waste management and sanitation, (Özdemir, 2016, p. 49) include numbers of health and safety risks in terms of OHS. Furthermore, fast-paced and complicated urban expansion due to rapid population growth and immigration has caused municipalities to turn into metropolitans progressively (Alıcı, 2017, p. 259; Koçancı and Namal, 2017). This situation puts municipal employees into greater risk and dangers.

Owing to contractor-based service understanding, which has become popular since midst of 1980s, municipalities have transformed into bodies authorizing and auditing service contractors instead of departments directly providing services. When the relevant mentioned laws are taken into consideration together with the 1593rd Public Sanitation Law, municipalities come to prominence as institutions protecting, enhancing and auditing not only their employees but also local residents and employees of other organizations within their jurisdiction (Gökbayrak, 2003, p. 35). In this context, the OHS understanding of municipality employees does not only have significant impact on employer identity of municipality but as well health and safety of all citizens using these services because of such public nature of these services.

Method

In evaluation of employee attitude and opinions towards safety, a survey method is utilized commonly. Confirmative or exploratory factor analyses are preferred in analysis of these surveys. Whereas confirmative factor analysis classifies survey variables based on pre-tested survey tools or theoretical structures, exploratory factor analysis allows clustering of statistical analysis software; and using a combining tag for describing these clusters (Patankar et al., 2012, p. 34).

While a quantitative research pattern was employed in this study, the "survey" method was used in the data collection process. Since this study was conducted based on a single data collection round over sampling groups representing sub-groups of a population (municipality employees), the structure of this study remains in the cross-sectional nature. In preparation of the survey employed in this study, various survey examples covering 10 dimensions of workplace safety culture from different international resources were utilized. At the first instance, translation and adaptation of statements from gathered survey samples were completed. Afterwards of the pilot implementation, the final form of the statements was prepared. In the survey comprised of 48 statements structured with 5-point Likert scale. The survey also includes questions to collect demographical data and work relations of municipality employees.

Study Universe and Sampling

The universe of this study is comprised of employees of the Denizli Metropolitan Municipality (DMM). Total employee population is 727. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p. 135), sampling size is required to be 433 persons for a universe of 727 subjects at 95% confidence level and 3% interval. Accordingly, totally 500 survey forms were distributed within the scope of the study; and 455 of the 476 returned survey forms were deemed "valid" to be included in further analysis.

Safety Culture Dimensions Included in the Study

Table 1 exhibits the safety culture dimensions and relevant numbers of statements in each dimension.

Table 1: Safety Culture Dimensions

Dimension	Abbreviation	Serial
Safety Rules	SR	5
Safety Priority (of Management)	SPM	3
Management's Commitment to Safety	MCS	10
Training on Safety	TS	4
Safety Leadership	SL	4
Promotion of Safety	PoS	5
Communication for Safety	CS	6
Awareness for Safety	AS	2
Participation to Safety	PS	5
Safety Behavior	SB	4
SAFETY CULTURE	SC	48

In the relevant literature, there is no current consensus among researchers on the dimensions that need to be included by the safety culture (Dursun, 2012, p. 113). According to Demirbilek (2005, p. 94), reported from T.R. Lee (1996), the number of dimensions investigated in the research could expand up to 24. The dimensions from the international literature were included in the study based on their frequency in the literature.

Analysis Methods

The SPSS 24 package software was utilized in analysis of collected data. In data evaluation, Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis, Skewness and Kurtosis methods, frequency distribution, mean, mode, median, standard deviation and exploratory factor analysis methods were employed.

Reliability Test

The reliability test of the study was conducted based on the 48 variables structures based on 5-point Likert scale. Cronbach's Alpha method was taken into consideration for the reliability test. Table 2 exhibits reliability test results.

Table 2: Reliability Test Results

Participants	n	%	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Variables
Valid	410	90.1		

Excluded	45	9.9	0.942	48
Total	455	100		

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was estimated at .902 as equal of the reliability values of the other survey studies in the literature, which suggests obtained data has high reliability. The coefficients of statements with "deductive" basis ranged between .939 and .946.

Normality Test

Fundamental point in determination of statistical methods to be employed in the study was to deciding on whether parametric or non-parametric tests to be conducted in the analysis. It is necessary to test various assumptions before applying parametric tests. One of these assumptions is normal distribution of the dataset. It is necessary to accept H_0 hypothesis which asserts that "*Collected data is normally distributed*" so as to apply parametric tests. In case the hypothesis is not accepted, non-parametric test is applied to data instead of parametric test. In testing normality assumption, Skewness and Kurtosis methods were employed. If Skewness and Kurtosis coefficient is ranged between -2 and +2, it is possible to state that collected data is normally distributed (Kalaycı, 2014, p. 6). Table 3 exhibits Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients for the safety culture dimension used in the research.

Table 3: Normality Test Results

Dimension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	General
Dim. Name	PoS	CS	SL	PS	TS	SPM	AS	SR	SB	MCS	SC
Skewness	-0.570	-0.502	-0.868	-0.721	-0.756	0.105	-1.006	-0.182	0.369	-0.341	-0.185
Kurtosis	0.272	0.296	0.652	1.352	0.696	0.807	1.143	-0.418	-0.214	-0.070	-0.257

According to the results summarized in Table 3, the data was normally distributed since Skewness and Kurtosis values were in the range of -2 and +2; and accordingly, they were appropriate for parametric tests.

Results and Discussion

In this section, fundamental characteristics of participants such as their age, education, marital status and gender distribution were presented as in summarized Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of Participants According to Their Demographical Characteristics

Age	n	%	Education	n	%
18-29	43	9.5	Primary	88	19.3
30-39	153	33.6	Secondary	29	6.4
40-49	148	32.5	High School	104	22.9
50 and over	50	11	University	196	43.1
Non-Response	61	13.4	Other	7	1.5
Total	**455**	**100**	Non-Response	31	6.8
Marital Status	**n**	**%**	Total	455	100
Married	378	83.1	**Gender**	**n**	**%**
Single	49	10.8	Female	85	18.7
Widowed	7	1.5	Male	348	76.5
Non-response	21	4.6	Non-response	22	4.8
Total	**455**	**100**	Total	**455**	**100**

Whereas 9.5% of participants were aged 18-29, 33.6% were 30-39, 32.5% were 40-49; 11% were aged 50 and over. In terms of their marital status, 83.1% of participants were married, 10.8% were single, and 1.5% was widowed. In terms of distribution of students' education level, 19.3% was graduated from the primary school, 6.4% from secondary school, 22.9% from high school, and 43.1% from university. In terms of gender distribution, male constitutes majority of population. Accordingly, 18.7% were female and 76.5% were male participants.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical method aiming to determine fewer but significant new variables (factors, dimensions and etc.) by assessing numbers of variables together (Büyüköztürk, 2002, p. 472). As it was reported from Rennie (1997) by Büyüköztürk (2002, p. 472), factor analysis is described as an analytical technique aiming to reach minimum number of exploratory factors (concepts and dimensions) which could explain variance at maximum level based on the observed relationships among variable.

In terms of sampling size, another method for appropriateness of the data set for factor analysis is Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics (Çokluk et al., 2010, p. 207). Field (2009, p. 647) suggest that proximity of estimated KMO statistics to 1 indicates that distribution of correlations are adequate for obtaining accurate and reliable factors. In case the KMO value is equal to or greater than 0.50, then it could be said that number

of observation is adequate. According to Durmuş et al. (2006, p. 79), higher the KMO value, the more suitable the data set is for the factor analysis.

Barlett Sphericity Test investigates whether there is adequate correlation among variables. If the significance value of the test (p) is less than 0.05, this indicates adequate level of correlation among variables for factor analysis (Durmuş et al., 2006, p. 79). The Table 5 below exhibits the KMO and Barlett Sphericity Test results of the data set.

Table 5: The KMO and Barlett Sphericity Test Results

KMO and Barlett Sphericity Tests		
KMO		0.898
Bartlett Test	Chi-square	3321
	df	190
	p	0,000

Since the KMO sampling adequacy value was estimated at .898 for safety culture practice, this was considered as that the data set is appropriate for the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). As a result of the Barlett's Sphericity Test, Chi-square was estimated at 3321 and p=0.000, which indicates high correlation among variables.

In order to reveal factor pattern of the scale comprised of 48 variables, "Principle Component Analysis" was conducted as factorization method whereas vertical rotating method was utilized as Varimax rotating method, one of the maximum variability methods, were selected.

As a result of aforesaid analyses, total variance explanation rate was found to be at 57.36%. Table 6 exhibits components representing explained variance percentage.

Table 6: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6,721	33,603	33,603	6,721	33,603	33,603	4,275	21,376	21,376
2	1,966	9,832	43,435	1,966	9,832	43,435	2,969	14,844	36,220
3	1,429	7,143	50,578	1,429	7,143	50,578	2,365	11,825	48,045
4	1,356	6,781	57,359	1,356	6,781	57,359	1,863	9,314	**57,359**

According to Table 6, four total principle factors capable of explaining 57.36% of total variance were determined. Accordingly, it is possible conclude that there are four

principle factors which could steer current safety culture of the DMM to further positive direction. These four factors are required to remain safety values in the safety culture pyramid and to constitute core of the safety strategies serving to make values wholly persist across the organization. Table 7 exhibits components obtained after the rotation and relevant loading values.

Table 7: Rotated Component Matrix

Variables	COMPONENTS			
	1	2	3	4
Promotion of Safety by Management, Communication and Leadership (PSMCL)-1	0.803			
PSMCL -2	0.743			
PSMCL -3	0.721			
PSMCL -4	0.711			
PSMCL -5	0.668			
PSMCL -6	0.638			
PSMCL -7	0.607			
PSMCL -8	0.499			
Training on Safety - 1		0.827		
Training on Safety - 2		0.810		
Training on Safety - 3		0.676		
Training on Safety - 4		0.666		
Participation to Safety-1			0.792	
Participation to Safety-2			0.752	
Participation to Safety-3			0.618	
Participation to Safety-4			0.592	
Safety Rules-1				0.835
Safety Rules-2				0.773
Safety Rules- 3				0.668

In the factor analysis of the safety culture scale, it was ensured that the factors with initial Eigenvalues greater than one to be included; factor loadings indicating significance of factor variables in a specific factor; and to avoid having variables with similar factor loadings. Based on the factor analysis results, three of the dimensions used in the study were obtained with the relevant variables; another factor was obtained by variables with different factor loading values from other three dimensions. These four factors obtained at the end of the analysis and relevant statements were summarized in the following tables under associated titles used in the analysis process.

Promotion of Safety by Management, Communication and Leadership

Eight statements were included by the first factor. These statements and relevant loading values were summarized in Table 8 as well as other statistical values.

Table 8: Statements and Relevant Statistical Parameters in the First Factor

1. FACTOR: Management's Promotion of Safety, Communication and Leadership				
Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
0.867	3.5076	3.625	0.791	
Suggestions or resolutions from our employee are welcomed by supervisors.				0.803
The persons who could directly be influenced by the changes on the production process will be consulted.				0.743
Our supervisors visit us to observe our work conditions and to have meeting with employees.				0.721
The management request participation of employees into the meetings held for execution of tasks.				0.711
Problems related with work conditions are resolved by a team consisted of employees from various departments.				0.668
There is well-established communication at the workplace concerning safety at work which could influence me.				0.638
I am appreciated by the management because I follow safety regulations.				0.607
My supervisor guides employees in work safety issues.				0.499

Management's Promotion of Safety is also known as "encouragement of employees" or "awarding systems". The current organizational system for assessment of safe and unsafe behaviors and associated awarding or penalty regulations are key constituents of this aspect. In order to maintain this aspect, organization is required to have a system supporting safe behaviors (monetary incentives or appreciation of management or co-workers etc.). In the meantime, organizations need to establish a punitive system against unsafe behaviors or redundant risk taking. Existence of aforesaid systems is not enough, rather they are required to be formally documented, persisted and objectively implemented in fully after explained to all relevant employees and it is necessary to be comprehended by all employees (Wiegmann et al., 2002; Arpat, 2015, p. 68).

Promotion of Safety is one of the six (factor) management practices obtained as a result of factor analysis and emphasized by Vredenburgh (2002, p. 263) as the most effective practice in reduction of work accidents in organizations. Individuals are motivated to develop behaviors for acquisition of desired results. Accordingly if it is recognized that following the OHS procedures / directions / codes at the workplace would lead to desired

consequences by employees, they would change their behaviors with the ones conforming to the cultural norm. Culture is gained by establishing connection between personal behaviors and their consequences. According to Thompson and Luthans (1990), since organization culture is developed in environments with numbers of initiator and reinforcer factors, determining the effects of these reinforcers on the organizational change requires definition of these factors. Whereas successfully designed safety incentive programs foresee prizes for work accidents causing time loss, it encourages reporting unsafe behaviors and dangers which could cause injuries. A safety incentive program needs to be implemented in parallel along safety training activities. These efforts must not seek for penalty after work accident occurs, instead, they must be oriented on prevention of accidents. These incentives could be both monetary privileges like discount coupon or material benefits similar to cash and/or social tools such as recognition by the community and reputation across the organization (Vredenburgh, 2002, p. 263).

If it is failed to embed desired behaviors into the organization (or if behaviors like improving work efficiency are awarded), it would not possible to institutionalize a positive and strong safety culture by means of any policy tool. A well-designed safety incentive program would make a solid contribution into behavior change process of employees. The key to such successful program is that it is noticeable and visible for every member of the organization. In the meantime, it must be ensured that employees could comprehend what is appreciated or undesirable and how their individual performance is measured by the incentive program (Halloran, 1996).

Communication for Safety: Openness, communication, cooperation and team work are elemental characteristics of safety culture. Existence of widespread and intimate relationship between managers and employees from each level of organization make notable contribution to develop positive safety culture at the workplace (Demirbilek, 2008). This communication aspect includes both horizontal and vertical communication across the hierarchal layers.

Louvar (2013, p. 57-58) addresses that especially orientation of leader senior managers in an organization on following communication targets makes positive contribution in organizational safety culture:

- Since positive relationships based on collaboration improve employee performance at work, strong relationship is required to be developed and employees need to be motivated for participation,

- Since the best way knowledge spread across the organization (requirements and codes relevant with the safety) is the communication among employees, communication skills need to developed within the organization,
- Putting desired values and beliefs into practice, developing and changing them require coordination of communication messages across the organization. In order to ensure its effectiveness, individuals providing communication service at every level need to send the same messages, and interruptions in communication need to be prevented,
- Employees are required to be included in decision making systems in order to create positive identity in organization. Team leaders need to prevent polarization in the meantime because team members tend to conform to majority's decisions instead of exposing their concerns,
- Especially employees are encouraged for sincerity, accurate communication from top to bottom; employees' retreat because of cultural or authority issues are required to be prevented,
- In order to enhance and consolidate the process outputs and relationship in the organization, team work, training and technical competencies need to be developed,
- Leaders need to use communication so that employees could comprehend the concept of working. Yet in some cases, employees could encounter difficult safety issues when they are alone, which require them to focus on the problem so that they could overcome these difficulties and to perform the right tasks alone,
- Relationships must be established among organizational vision, mission, and targets because employees prefer to work at well-managed organizations. Effective communication needs to be established so that these relationships persist in employees' minds because they should not percept them as insignificant job details that they see and hear in their regular task,
- Measurement of communication performance is necessary for analysis of results and development of actions for enhancement; and focal point of these actions needs to be continuous development.

Hoffman and Stetzer (1998) address that safety climate and organizational communication established for safety issues allow employees to interpret accidents accurately and gain experience from them. Türen et al. (2014, p. 175) emphasize that organization managers need to provide trainings to their employees on safety; they must

participate personally in safety activities; they must underlie subjects related with safety frequently; they need to contribute in problem solving and provide support after any work incident instead of looking for someone to blame. According to Huang et al. (2006), these sorts of management attitudes will motivate employees for reporting through organizational communication channels instead of concealing safety risks; thus, intra-organization safety performance will be influenced positively from this.

Utilization from suggestion systems supplying feedback to organization is indicated as one of the factors of safety communication. Besides, there are numbers of communication opportunities such as training activities, reporting procedures, task descriptions, organizational publications, notice board, intranet, printed procedures, awarding systems and ceremonies, celebrations, minutes, memorandums and meetings (Şerifoğlu and Sungur, 2007, p. 15).

Safety Leadership: Yang et al. (2010, p. 962) describe the impact of "Safety Leadership" on the safety culture in a model presented in Figure 4.

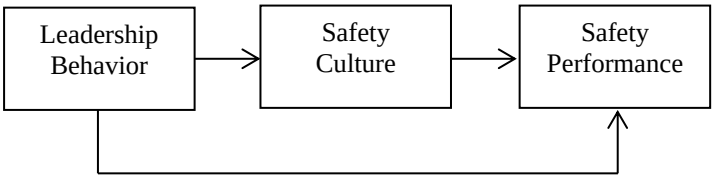

Figure 4: The Relationship between Safety Leadership, Culture and Safety Performance

Resource: YANG, C.-C., WANG Y.-S., CHANG S.-T., GUO S.-E., HUANG M.-F. (2010). "A Study on the Leadership Behavior, Safety Culture and Safety Performance of the Healthcare Industry", World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology, Vol:3, p. 962.

By this model and associated theories fundamental to the study of Yang et al., it is reported that safety leadership has impact on safety culture, communication for safety, management's commitment to safety, and safety system dimensions positively; and this consequently enhance safety performance; but on the other hand, it influences safety performance through safety auditing activities and work accident investigation management. Based on another finding of the research, leadership behavior has direct influence on safety culture whereas indirect influence on safety performance (2010, p.

960-964). The IAEA associates leadership with apparent nature of behaviors exerted by senior management in supporting safety as example for other managers and employees. Hence, senior management casts a role model to support safety practices to promote their expansion across the organization (2002, p. 10).

Training on Safety

Four statements were included under the second factor. These were presented in Table 9 together with their loading values and other statistics.

Table 9: Statements Under the Second Factor and Relevant Statistical Parameters

2. FACTOR: Training on Safety				
Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
0.817	3.9	4	0.77557	
Employees are given comprehensive training on health and safety subjects.				0.827
Safety trainings are repeated and updated on regular base.				0.810
Adequate training is given in our work place for developing safe behavior.				0.676
Training on safety at workplace includes subject encountered by employee while they implement their job.				0.666

Training is a practice with protection function in the OHS concept providing institutional and practical knowledge so that employees implement their job in their profession in healthy and safety manner. Majority of work accidents are reported as results of human behaviors; and one of the prominent causes of work accidents is lack of necessary training and consciousness (Güler, 2011, p. 79). "Insufficient training" is the most common deficiency revealed by the job auditors during the regular investigations (İşler, 2013, p. 14). There is negative correlation between employees' skill in their job and probability of having work accident. Individuals who are not trained about their job are lack of awareness about the dangers/risks, which cause incautious behaviors subject to employee ignorance (Gemalmaz, 2009, p. 24). According to Akgün (1999, p. 109), work accident frequencies of employees who received pre-job training is less than the ones who are not trained.

In order to ensure active participation of employees in safety programs, appropriate safety training programs are required to be given to employees. Well-designed and managed safety training program need to address safe work practices as well as to be derived from a successful assessment of training needs of employees. A training program is expected to follow pre-determined targets and to provide feedback regarding performance

(Vredenburgh, 2002, p. 262). Empirical researchers suggest that safety climate perception of employees with higher education level and low injury rates is more consistent and positive with respect to the one with limited education background and high injury history (Cheng, 2017, p. 13). One of the important roles of training activities in the OHS programs is to support safe behavior. Therefore, implemented training activities are required to develop awareness among employees and to help trainers to adapt their roles besides providing information. In this sense, it is necessary provide appropriate training to managers, auditors, union represents, support crew, and employees in line with their roles (Alli, 2008, p. 53; Yılmaz, 2007, p. 20). Arpat (2014, p. 314-315) reports in a study conducted in the textile industry that there is significant correlation between the duration of the OHS training provided to employees and having OHS knowledge, skill and competency; and awareness of risk assessment. In the same study, it is also reported that OHS training is related with having protective competencies relevant with employees' task. Based on these findings, safety training could yield effective results for all phases of the OHS and its dimensions.

Participation to Safety

Four statements were included under the third factor, exhibited in Table 10 together with their loading values and relevant statistical parameters.

Table 10: Statements and Statistical Parameters under the 3rd Factor

3. FACTOR: Participation to Safety				
Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
0.74	3.91	4	0.651	
I perform tasks and activities which contribute into development of workplace safety voluntarily.				0.792
I inform the management about the safety issues which I consider important.				0.752
Employees obey the regulations drawn on safety issues.				0.618
Employees make suggestions to each other about how to improve safety during practice of a job.				0.592

This factor refers the employees' intention and willingness to participate in safety-related activities. According to Vredenburgh (2002, p. 261), Participation to safety is method driven by employees' behavior either in group or as an individual to participate in organizational communication flow and decision making processes. The participation level could range between zero level in which the decisions are only made by supervisors

(other employees are excluded) and the maximum level in which decisions are made by inclusions of all relevant persons who could eventually be influenced by these decisions.

While employees are in the core of a task, they are also the ones who could provide the most efficient suggestions for development of these tasks. Managers encouraging active participation of employees request opinions of employees especially the one who potentially could be influenced from the consequences before they make final decisions. Whereas motivation of employees for such participation guarantees employees and managers to embrace determined organizational targets and objective, it provides authority, liability and accountability qualities to employees for the relevant decisions. This situation helps employees to be conditioned to do best either in a group or a team (Cohen and Cleveland, 1983). In a system allowing employees to have their voice in decision making process, participative decision expands influence of employees at the bottom operational level while it allows management to have more effective and appropriate decisions and resolve business problems more efficiently (Deniz, 2005, p. 166).

Above contributions of safety participation were presented in terms of establishing safety culture. However, according to the study conducted by Bayram (2018, p. 221) on 159 companies with OHSAS 18001 Certificate in Turkey, it is seen that receiving opinions of employees and ensuring active participation of OHS activities are not attached much importance by companies or not emphasized. Based on these findings, establishment of safety culture could not be possible unless participation of employees into safety activities could not be ensured by municipality administrations. Municipality administrations need to provide institutional interactions in this regard through corrective actions.

Safety Rules

Three statements were included under the fourth factor. Table 11 exhibits these factors together with their loading values and relevant statistical parameters.

Table 11: Statements and Statistical Parameters Included in the Fourth Factor

4. FACTOR: Safety Rules				
Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Factor Loading
0.674	3.6984	3.6667	0.91	
Sometimes safety conditions need to be avoided in order to implement production on time.				0.835

Safety rules are rather strict; I would rather work without them.	0.773
Some of OHS Rules are not practical indeed.	0.668

Safety Rule is a dimension which indicates opinions of employees concerning safety rules and steering their attitude and behaviors relevant with executing their tasks. Negative personal perceptions are prevented to be transformed into distrustful behaviors by the positive safety climate at the workplace. In case there is poor safety climate at the workplace, it is not possible employees whose personal perceptions views organizational safety rules "unnecessary or though" to turn to execute safe behavior. With this aspect, safety rules are considered as one of the significant indicators of organizational safety culture (Arpat: 2015, p. 46-47).

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4 | A Comparison Regarding The Effects of 1961 and 1982 Constitutions of the Republic of Turkey on Trade Union Movement

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Introduction

In comparison with western countries, Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism made a rather late progress and they are still in progress today. It is possible to mention numerous social, cultural, economic, communal and political issues that affect this situation. Being one the prominent characteristic features of Turkish Industrial Relations System the working class came into existence very late and therefore there was no struggle to gain the workers' rights. Thus the role of political will in the emergence and obtainment of trade union rights came into prominence.

When two periods (periods of 1961 and 1982 Constitutions) that deeply affected the Turkish Industrial Relations are taken into consideration, the roles of the state and the political will are understood more clearly. Insufficient workers' movements, economic policies pursued and military interventions and dictatorial regimes that suspend Turkish democracy from time to time caused the creation of comprehensive regulations that restrict the trade union movement.

In consideration of the conditions of the period, 1961 Constitution was a libertarian one and paved the way for the establishment of trade union relations and of industrial relations system in real terms and likewise, ensured exercise a broad range of trade union

rights. One of the characteristic features of this period was constitutionally paving the way for unionization of civil servants aside from the workers. This period when unionization and organization of parent trade union associations showed an increase lasted short and the trade union rights and exercising these rights were limited to the amendments made in laws.

The military intervention of 12 September 1980 became the beginning of a new period for both Turkish democracy and Turkish Industrial Relations System and new laws were enacted to regulate the trade union movement to re-design Turkish Industrial Relations System with a new liberal viewpoint in conformity with the dominant economic approach of the period. Trade union rights were restructured with comprehensive laws and exercising these rights were limited and almost implicit prohibitions were implemented. This period during which exercising the right to strike became almost impossible without committing crime also became a transition period from protective trade union practices to regulatory trade union practices.

When these two Constitutions prepared with different perspectives in terms of the periods they were constituted and the changes they caused on Turkish Industrial Relations System are taken into consideration, the most remarkable thing is both Constitutions were prepared by military, bureaucrats and civilian intelligentsia following military interventions in democracy. When they are addressed in terms of trade union rights, it is also seen that they were not conferred with working class and trade union rights were exercised after they were prepared by military, bureaucrats and civilian intelligentsia just the same.

In this study the developments and changes in Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Unionism will be comparatively examined in historic process with regard to 1961 and 1982 Constitutions and laws enacted within the framework of these constitutions and it will be tried to come to conclusions through the instrument of literature.

The Period Before 1961 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey

When Turkish Industrial Relations System and trade union movements in Turkey are compared with those in western countries, it is seen that they took shape in later periods. The reason might be that the Industrial Revolution in Ottoman Empire era was not seen simultaneously with European countries. Tokol (1994: 1-7, 2012: 1-3) explains this situation with two reasons. First of all, the country was an agricultural one till the time

the Ottoman Empire collapsed and replaced by the Republic of Turkey and in conjunction with this, the manorial system[4] did not allow land ownership. And secondly, the small scale industrial enterprises were generally owned by foreigners and foreign business owners were primarily favoring foreign national workers and then non-Muslim ones. Thus the ethnical and religious diversity prevented the creation of class consciousness among workers.

The first trade union movements in Ottoman Empire era were seen after the "Second Constitutionalist Period" declared in 1908. However some organizations established by workers before this date are regarded as the first examples of unionization movement. One of these organizations was "Ameleperver Cemiyeti (Pro-Workers Society) established in 1871 but it was established not as a trade union but rather as an association aiming at cooperation among workers. The first worker's organization regarded as a trade union in Ottoman Empire was "Ottoman Labor Association (Amele-i Osman'i)" which was established secretly in 1894 and disposed of a year later (Serçe, 1996: 41-42, Koç, 1998: 4).

After the declaration of Second Constitutionalist Period in 1908, it is seen that a relative environment of freedom had emerged in Ottoman Empire and correspondingly, unionization efforts and union movements were escalated. First of all "Osmanlı Terakk-i Sanayi Cemiyeti (Ottoman Industrial Development Society) was established in 1908. This society was regarded as the continuation of the "Ottoman Labor Association which was established secretly earlier and disposed of a year later and subsequently, new trade union organizations began to emerge (Makal, 1997: 24-245, Mahiroğulları, 2011, 142). The first higher organization in the Empire was a federation. Members of "Thessaloniki Socialist Workers' Federation" established in 1909 were mostly Jewish workers and it was shut down in 1910 and it is regarded as the first higher organization of trade unions established in the Empire (Tokol, 1994: 10). With this structure, it is possible to say that the first parent trade union association in the Empire aimed at bringing all workers

[4]It means that the government officials were granted the authority to collect the taxes in a specific region in exchange for their services. Meaning "livelihood", the term "dirlik" is used as the synonym of the term "tımar" (feoff). Even though revenues are allocated to civil servants such as clerks, religious officials, Muslim judges (kadi) etc. In return of their salaries, the main purpose of feoff system in general meaning is maintaining soldiers for campaigns (See. ACUN, Fatma, http://yunus.hacettepe.edu.tr/~facun/klasik_donemde_timar_sistemi.pdf, Access Date 09.02.2018)

together with class consciousness under a single organization without nation and race discrimination (Akkaya, 1998: 6-7).

Worker organizations and trade union movements that scaled up in a relative freedom environment together with declaration of Second Constitutionalist Period in 1908 were restricted as a result of "Tatil-i Eşgal Cemiyetleri Hakkında Kanun-u Muvakkatı" (Temporary Law Regarding Strike Societies) that was enacted in 1908, especially due to the pressure of foreign investors, German capital owners being in the first place. The law became definite under the title of "Strike Law" in 1909 and the freedom to establish an association or a trade union and freedom of strike was banned. (Tokol, 2012: 13, Pıçak and Kadah, 2017: 203). The phrase of "Tatil-i Eşgal" conceptually means "aborting and leaving the work" but today it is used in the meaning of "strike" (Makal, 1997: 271). Even though legal restrictions restrained the development of industrial relations by preventing trade union movements, another factor that affected the development of trade union movements was the continuous war environment that the Ottoman Empire was in as of the period and the anti-democratic environment this situation had brought along (Pıçak and Kadah, 2017: 203-204).

With the proclamation of the Republic in 1923, country's ideology had a change and works aiming at liberalism in the economy had begun. In conjunction with this change, right of assembly and right to form an association were accorded by 1924 Constitution and the principle of "free establishment" was adopted for forming an association with the Civil Law No. 743 enacted in 1926 (Tokol, 2012: 40-41). "İzmir Economic Congress" held in 1923 is important in terms of workers' movements as well as because of the resolution regarding the transition to liberal policies. Because it is seen that the existence of workers was accepted and they were invited to the Congress. In addition workers demanded right to establish trade unions and be members of them among others (Aydın and Keskin, 2015: 2, Özerkmen, 2003: 244). However proclamation of the Republic and adoption of liberal policies created the need for the infrastructural studies for these two new systems to progress without any problem. This in turn necessitated prevention of possible chaotic environments and the aim of period's political will to create a "classless society" necessitated cutting in all attempts which would hinder private enterprise and accumulation of capital (Çelik Şahin, 2010: 24, Makal, 1999: 50).Takrir-i Sükûn Law No. 578 (Law on the Maintenance of Order) enacted in 1925 against Sheikh Said rebellion abolished the right to form an association and right of organization till 1929 so long as it was in effect. Although the law is not directly related to trade unions, it provided

the legal basis of shutting down the trade unions as long as it remained in force (Pıçak and Kadah, 2017: 204, Makal, 1999: 335-336).

Adoption of the Law of Associations in 1938 banned organizations based on class and stipulated imprisonment of the founders of such organizations. Thus, it is possible to say that the potentiality to establish a trade union was totally removed after this date (Koç, 1998:7, Tokol, 2012: 45).

When the period between the years of 1923 and 1946 is considered, it is seen that unionization and consequently, workers' movements were considerably limited in Turkey. The important reasons of this situation was firstly; the cities where the trade union activities have shown progress in Ottoman Empire era were mostly located in the Balkans and upon the foundation of the Turkish Republic, they fell outside of country's boundaries. Moreover the minorities who played a significant role in unionization activities in the empire era have left the country after the proclamation of the Republic and this development had a negative effect on trade union activities and workers' movements. With regard to the laws, political practices systematized due to the Law on the Maintenance of Order dated 1925 and other laws enacted in subsequent years adversely affected trade union activities (Makal, 1999: 450-452).

Pıçak and Kadah (2017: 206) describe this period as follows; *"Legislative amendments and the regulations made in the period of 1923-1946 in favor of workers have been a very long way off to be the products of the organized and conscious struggle of the working class. The legislative regulations made in this period were mostly the outcomes of the efforts of the government to find a solution to the insufficiency of qualified workforce, prevent possible social problems by creating a labor aristocracy and harmonize with international legislation"*.

The period of 1945-1960 was a new one in favor of Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish unionization. One the key characteristics of this period was the efforts to bring democracy into force and remove the barriers in front of the trade unions in this direction (Işıklı, 1995: 250). With the amendments made in the Law of Associations No. 3512 in 1946 the ban to establish a class-based association was lifted and the "Law on Labor and Employers Unions and Trade Union Federations No 5018" was enacted in 1947. Together with this law, trade union movements were not banned or restricted for the first time, on the contrary they were regulated. Law No. 5018 included positive provisions towards regulating the trade union life but also negative provisions that make the trade unions come under the rule of the state. In addition, Law No. 5018 included

the principle of[5]"plurality of trade unions" and enabled establishment of more than one trade unions within the same branch of activity. In a short span of time in 1946 numerous trade unions were established under the guidance of two left parties and this period was referred to as "1946 Unionization" due to its unique characteristics. During this period the first Labor Confederation TÜRK-İŞ (Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions) was established and came into activity in 1952. When the period is considered in terms of employers, it is seen that organization was limited. Employers unions did not make a progress in this period and they were mainly established in some certain and limited lines of work and located mostly in İstanbul (Tokol, 1994: 29-30, Tokol, 2012: 52-71).

Effects and Pluses of 1961 Constitution on Turkish Trade Union Life

Regarded as the constitution of freedoms, 1961 Constitution brought novelties to trade union rights. One of these novelties was regarding the "right to establish trade unions" as a social and economic right and securing it by basing it upon the constitutional foundation and this is one of the most important developments of the time in terms of Turkish Industrial Relations (Aydın and Keskin, 2015: 2). 1961 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey was prepared by adopting the approaches and methods of the constitutions of western countries and international texts. It broadly included social rights and had a libertarian nature. 1961 Constitution regulated the trade union rights basing on worker-employer relations as a principle and within the framework of "dialogue among equals" for the first time. Besides this 1961 Constitution attributed the social rights to constitutional assurance as a human right to protect the workers who are economically weak and started a new period where the weak can protect and develop their rights and interests against the powerful within the framework of "dialogue among equals" (Gülmez, 1971, 100-102).

Article 42 of the Constitution is titled "the Right and Duty to Engage in an Occupation, Trade or Business". According to this article, engaging in an occupation is regarded as a

[5] The principle of union freedom, which basically includes the principles of "freedom" and "arbitrariness" refers to establishment of more than one active trade unions within the same branch of activity. This principle, which constitutes an important aspect of the right to establish trade unions is called "union pluralism principle" (See. DEMİR, Fevzi (2013), "Establishment and Functioning of Trade Unions", Çalışma ve Toplum Ekonomi ve Hukuk Magazine, Volume 4, Issue 39, TOKOL, Aysen (2017), "Industrial Relations and New Developments", Dora Publishing House, 7th Edition, Bursa).

right and duty of everybody and the State should protect workers by adopting social, economic and financial measures of such nature that workers will be provided with a decent human existence so that stable employment may be developed. It is also stated that the State shall adopt measures to support employment and prevent unemployment. Article 43 of the Constitution has reformulated the employment of women and children in line with the principles of social law state. In the said article, it was banned to employ individuals at a job that does not suit their age, capacity and sex. Moreover the Article states that children, young people and women shall be accorded special protection in terms of conditions of employment (Tokol, 2012: 82, 1961 TR Constitution, Articles 42-43).

Another important feature of 1961 Constitution regarding Turkish Industrial Relations is constitutionally securing the rights of organization (trade unions[6]), collective bargaining[7] and strike. Another important development in this respect is granting this right not only to workers but to all work force (such as those engaged in public services). When the 1961 Constitution is examined in terms of industrial relations, it is seen that it did not include "lock-out"[8] (Tokol, 2012: 82, 1961 TR Constitution, Articles 46-47).

Article 46 of 1961 Constitution entitled the workers and employers to establish trade unions and federations of trade unions without having to obtain prior permission, to enroll them as members and resign from such membership freely. It is also judged that right of the organization of those engaged in public services other than physical labor shall be regulated by law. On that sense the Constitution secured the right of positive

[6] Institutions having legal personality and established by at least seven workers or employers to engage in activities in a branch of activity, to protect and develop their common economic and social rights and interests in the labor relations of workers or employers. Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356, http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.6356.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

[7] The agreement made between a trade union and employers' union or an employer who is not a member of the union to regulate execution, content and termination of a labor agreement (See. Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356, http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.6356.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

[8] Collective dismissal of workers by the employer or by the representative of employer with their own decision or by abiding the decision of an institution in a manner to completely terminate the activity at the workplace. Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356, http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.6356.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

trade union freedom/right[9]and negative trade union freedom/right[10] included in the right of individual trade union." Article 47 of the Constitution included the right to collective bargaining and to strike, stated that in their relations with their employers, workers are entitled to bargain collectively and to strike with a view to protect and improve their economic and social status and the exercise of right to strike and the exceptions thereto shall be regulated by law. Strike is defined as a right in the Constitution but there was no mention was made of lock-out. It is only stated that "the rights of employers shall be regulated by law". The subject of whether strike is a right or not led to various debates in the forthcoming years (Tokol, 2012: 82-83, 1961 TR Constitution, Articles 46-47, Talas, 1992: 67-73).

It is possible to mention three important laws that affected Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism in the freedom environment brought by 1961 Constitution. Law on Trade Unions No. 274, Act on Collective Agreement, Strike and lock-out No. 275 and Law on Civil Servant Unions No. 624 attract attention as laws prepared within the framework of 1961 Constitution that include important provisions regarding trade union rights and exercising trade union rights. However it is important to state that the laws no. 274 and 275 in particular were prepared as a result of the efforts of military, bureaucrats and civil intelligentsia but not due to the pressure of working class (Tokol, 2012: 84).

Law on Trade Unions No. 274

There was no discrimination between trade unions and employers' unions in the regulations of Law No. 274, dated 1963. Differently from Law on Trade Unions No. 5018, right to establish trade unions and right to become a member were granted to a broader class of workers (Talas, 1992: 160, Tokol, 2012: 84-85). Moreover free activities of trade unions pursuant to law No. 274 are as follows (Ersinadım, 2012: 66-67, Law on Trade Unions No.274, 1963: Art. 2-14-16):

- Filing a lawsuit on behalf of its members and their heirs (Article2/1)

[9] The right to freely establish trade unions and affiliate with an established trade union (See. OKUR, Zeki (2013), "Acquisition and Termination of Union Membership in terms of the Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356", Çalışma ve Toplum Ekonomi ve Hukuk Magazine, Volume 4, Issue 39).

[10] The right to freely resign and keeping away from a trade union (Bkz. OKUR, Zeki (2013), "Acquisition and Termination of Union Membership in terms of the Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356", Çalışma ve Toplum Ekonomi ve Hukuk Magazine, Volume 4, Issue 39).

- Cooperative activities (Article14/1-j)
- Investing activities (Article14/1-j)
- Charity funds (Article14/1-g)
- Right of suit in matters arising from joint interests of profession (Article14/1-e)
- Judicial assistance (Article14-1-d)
- Training activities (Article14/1-i)
- Research and examination activities (Article14/1-ı)
- Political activities (Article16)
- Participation in economic and social boards (Article14/1-f)
- Participation in international institutions (Article14/1-f)

Accepting the trade union membership is free and voluntary, the law found it sufficient signing member registration card or record book for membership and stipulated that one should be older than 16 to be a member of trade union. Trade union membership of individuals younger than 16 was left to the written approval of their guardians and it was stated that these persons cannot vote at the general assembly of the trade union. Resigning and withdrawing from membership is explicitly defined as a right and freedom. Moreover the law imposed an absolute ban[11] practices of[12] closed business and unionized business and secured individual trade union freedom (Law on Trade Unions No.274, 1963: Art. 2-23).

[11] At a workplace where the condition of closed workplace is accepted, workers are obliged to affiliate with the trade union which is a party to the collective labor agreement in effect at that workplace and maintain their membership. In other words, employment of workers is conditional upon affiliating with the trade union party (See. UCKAN, Banu (2001), "Theoretical Framework of Union Security and Impact on Industrial Relations System", Ankara University SBF Magazine, 56/3, Ankara).

[12] At a workplace where the condition of unionized workplace, which is accepted by the collective labor agreement, is implemented, workers are obliged to affiliate with the trade union party within a certain period and maintain their membership as long as they are employed. For this reason, instead of the term unionized workplace, the term closed workplace is used following the employment (See. UCKAN, Banu (2001), "Theoretical Framework of Union Security and Impact on Industrial Relations System", Ankara University SBF Magazine, 56/3, Ankara).

The Law also accepted that the trade unions can freely be organized within higher organizations and explained the qualities of[13]unions, federations[14] and[15] confederations. Again differently from the Law No. 5018, the Law No. 274 stipulated free membership of trade unions to international institutions. While the Law forbids trade unions to trade, it regulated the security of trade union membership with a special provision stated in another article. It brought special regulations to protect trade union executives and representatives (Tokol, 2012: 85-87).

Act on Collective Agreement, Strike and lock-out No. 275

The Act on Collective Agreement, Strike and lock-out No. 275 dated 1963 is very important as it is the first law regarding the collective agreement, strike and lock-out in Turkey. Composed of nine sections in total, the Law regulated the procedures collective agreements and included detailed regulations with regard to the settlement of collective labor disputes (Arslan, 1998: 22-23). Furthermore the nine sections of Law No. 275 are as follows (Law on Trade Unions No 275, 1963: Art. 2-14-16):

- Collective Labor Agreement (Article 1-6)
- Authority to make collective bargaining and collective labor agreement; manner of collective bargaining (Article 7-13)
- Dispute and settlement (Article 14-16)
- Strike and lock-out (Article 17-34)
- Referring to arbitration (Article 35-44)
- Miscellaneous provisions (Article 45-51)
- Penal provisions (Article 52-63)
- Temporary provisions (Temporary article 1–3)
- Final provisions (Article 64-66)

[13] Higher trade union organization formed by trade unions operating in different branches of activity in the same region (See. KOÇ, Yıldırım (1998), "History of Unionism", Türk-İş Training Publications, No: 1, Ankara).

[14] Higher trade union organization formed by different trade unions operating in the same branch of activity (See. AYDOĞANOĞLU, Erkan (2010), "Trade Unions and Workplace Organization", Expanded 2nd Edition, Kültür Sanat-Sen Publications).

[15] The institution with a legal personality formed by at least five trade unions operating in different branches of activity (See. The Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356 (2012), Article 2/f).

The Law defined collective bargaining[16] and stipulated that they should be done in writing and labor agreements should not be against collective labor agreement. In addition the Law stipulated that collective labor agreements may be of definite or indefinite duration and collective labor agreement of definite duration should not be shorter than one year and longer than three years. The Law granted trade unions and employers with employers' unions the capacity to conduct collective bargaining. The Law also included the mechanism of[17]"extension of provisions" and stated that in case a collective labor agreement includes the majority of workers working in the same line of work, the said collective labor agreement could be extended to include other workers in the same line of work and their employers by the Cabinet[18]with an enactment after seeking the opinion of High Board of Arbitration. The Law stipulated that non-member workers of trade union which is a party to collective labor agreement can also benefit from the collective agreement, provided that they pay solidarity fee and limited the amount of due (The Law on Trade Unions No. 275, 1963, Tokol, 2012: 87-89).

Law No. 275 explicitly[19] recognized the right to strike and stipulated that it could be decided to go a strike or apply lock-out after the report is drawn up by the arbitration board or reaching an agreement to apply to a private arbitrator. The Law authorized the Cabinet to ban strike and lock-out with an enactment in case of fire, flood and acts of God. (Arslan, 1998: 23, Law on Trade Unions No. 275, 1963, Tokol, 2012: 90-93, Tokol, 1994: 41-44).

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[16] The agreement made between a trade union and employers' union or an employer who is not a member of the union to regulate execution, content and termination of a labor agreement (See. Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356 (2012), Article 2/h http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.6356.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

[17] Expansion of the implementation area of a branch of activity or of a Collective Labor Agreement by the decision of the body authorized by the laws in the manner to include other workers and employers who are employed within the said branch of activity or at certain establishments or workplaces but not being parties to the said agreement on the purpose of synchronizing the working order in the branch or activity or at the workplaces (See. SUBAŞI, İbrahim (2013), "Extension of Collective Labor Agreement Under the Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreements No. 6356, Çalışma ve Toplum Ekonomi ve Hukuk Magazine, Volume 4, Issue 39).

[18]A semi-judicial and independent legal arbitration institution which reviews and concludes the cases assigned by law (See. ERSİL, Mehmet, http://www.ankarabarosu.org.tr/siteler/ankarabarosu/tekmakale/1974-4/8.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

[19] The strike aiming at protecting or improving economic and social states of workers in their relations with employers and went on pursuant to the provisions of this law (See. Act on Collective Agreement, Strike and lock-out No. 275 (1963), Art. 17, http://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/arsiv/11462.pdf, Access Date 15.02.2018).

Law on Civil Servants' Unions No. 624

Another important aspect of the Turkish Constitution of 1961 in terms of Turkish trade unionism is allowing civil servants to be organized in accordance with the necessities of the time. Article 46 of the Constitution titled the Right to Establish Trade Unions states that*"Employees and employers are entitled to establish trade unions and federations of trade unions without having to obtain prior permission, to enroll in them as members and to resign from such membership freely. For those engaged in public services other than physical labor, similar rights shall be regulated by laws. The by-laws, the management and the operation of trade unions and federations thereof shall not conflict with democratic principles"* (TR 1961 Constitution, 1961: Art. 46). Thus it stipulated that public servants who are not workers can also establish unions. Pursuant to the relevant article, public servants were also allowed to be unionized with the Law on Civil Servants' Unions No. 624 enacted in 1965.

The Law formed a very limited and cautious frame for public servants' unionization with regard to scope and activities by looking at the traditional understanding of state and public servants (Gülmez, 2002: 41-43). The Law defined the public servants' unions as "professional organizations to be established by public service personnel other than workers on the purpose of protecting their common occupational, cultural, social and economic rights and interests and providing cooperation among them". With this definition, the public servants' unions are not recognized as a struggling body (Tokol, 2012: 94). From this point of view, it is possible to say that the law enacted by an effort that is appropriate to the necessities of time is behind the times and does not meet the needs of Turkish trade unionism.

The law states that public servants' unions can be established in each institution, among institutions, in the central organization and in the provincial organization. In addition, the law secures the freedom of individual trade union with its positive and negative aspects and finds it sufficient to apply in writing to be a member and resign from membership. The Law does not secure the union executives and includes provisions parallel with the Law on Trade Unions No. 274 in respect of the revenues of unions (Tokol, 2012: 96, Gülmez, 2002: Mahiroğulları, 2011: 205).

The right of unionization of public servants is also regulated by Article 22 of the Public Servants Law No. 657, dated 1965. However the right granted to public servants to unionize and establish unions was revoked by replacing the term "employees" with the

term "workers" in Article 46 of TR 1961 Constitution by the Law No. 1488, dated 1971. In addition, Article 22 in Public Servants Law No. 657 was repealed by the Decree Having Force of Law No. 2 of 1974 (Tokol, 2012: 96-97). Following these developments, public servants in Turkey have been deprived of the right to establish trade unions for a long time and had to be organized under various associations.

Years of 1980-1982: An Oppressive Period

The military coup of 1980 passed into history as a black mark for Turkish democracy, democracy and all of its mechanisms were interrupted and Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Unionization were deeply influenced. Illegal actions taken by some trade union directors prior to 1980 by benefiting from the loopholes in the laws on trade unions and collective bargaining and the breakdowns in the operations of judicial and legislative bodies were among the justifications of the military intervention of September 12, 1980 (Mahiroğulları, 2001: 171).

After the military coup of September 12, 1980, activities of many trade unions and higher organizations of trade unions were ceased and hundreds of union executives and members were detained and legal actions were taken on them. Especially serious interference in higher organizations of trade unions in this period is attention-grabbing. Activities of DISK (Confederation of Revolutionary Trade Unions)[20] and its affiliated trade unions were terminated and 1955 executives and representatives have been taken into custody. At the end of the lawsuits brought against them, 1477 persons have been put on trials as defendants and İstanbul Martial Law Command's Court Martial No. 2 announced its decision on December 24, 1986 and sentenced the defendants to imprisonment for a total of 2053 years and DİSK and 28 affiliated trade unions were closed. Remaining closed till 1992, DİSK became operational again in 1992, at the end of the lawsuit process (Koç, 1998: 16, Koç, 2000: 14). In this period[21] activities of Hak-İş (Confederation of Turkish Real Trade Unions) and its affiliated trade unions have been terminated. As a result of the attempts of the executives of Hak-İş, activities of which were terminated with the resolution no. 8 of National Security Council, the confederation was allowed to be operational again in February 1981 (http://www.hakis.org.tr/icerik.php?sayfa=3, Access Date 16.02.2018). Another parent trade union association, activities of which was

[20] Confederation of Revolutionary Trade Unions (See https://disk.org.tr/, Access Date 16.02.2018).
[21] Confederation of Turkish Real Trade Unions (See http://www.hakis.org.tr/, Access Date 16.02.2018).

terminated as a result of the military coup of September 12 was[22]MİSK (Confederation of Nationalist Trade Unions). Despite the termination of the activities of MİSK and affiliated trade unions, no lawsuits have been filed against it and permission was granted in 1984 to become operational again. Later on MİSK changed its name to Yurt-İş but it could not continue its existence and was closed down. Activities of TÜRK-İŞ (Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions), the biggest higher organization of trade unions of the period [23] and its affiliated trade unions came under a strict control and supervision and activities of some affiliated trade unions have been suspended for some given periods by martial law commands (Koç, 1998: 16).

This period, when democracy and all its institutions were made nonoperational brought along the preparation process of 1982 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey and the new Constitution became the beginning of a new period regarding Turkish Industrial Relations and Turkish unionization. The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821 and the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and Lock-Out Act No. 2822 enacted in 1983 directed Turkish Industrial Relations System till 2012, when the Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labor Agreement No. 6356 came into force.

Effects and Pluses (Minuses) of 1982 Constitution on Turkish Trade Union Life

Being adopted on November 7, 1982, the Constitution regulated the union rights with a total of 443 words including the number and titles of articles as a result of a reactionary and elaborative approach with respect to union rights (Gülmez, 2013: 77).

When 1982 Constitution is compared with 1961 Constitution it is seen that the principle of regulation was brought into the forefront instead of the principle of protection in respect of the relations between workers and employers. While 1961 Constitution included the protection of workers as a constitutional principle to balance the inequality between workers and employers, it is seen that this principle was completely abandoned in 1982 Constitution (Tokol, 2012: 160).It is possible to say that January 24, 1980 decisions taken shortly before the military coup of September 12, 1980 which initiated the transition process from planned economy of import substitution to free market system (Pıçak and Kadah, 2017: 225-226), pursuance of Neoliberal economy policies and prolongation of these policies by the civilian and military administrators in the period

[22] Confederation of Nationalist Trade Unions (See KOÇ, Yıldırım (1997), "Confederation of Nationalist Trade Unions-MİSK", Kebikeç İnsan Bilimleri İçin Kaynak Araştırmaları Magazine, Year 2, Issue 5, Ankara).
[23] The Confederation of Turkish Trade Unions (See http://www.turkis.org.tr/, Access Date 16.02.2018).

of 1980-1983 when the democracy was interrupted and by the civil political will after 1983 played an important role in this change.

Article 48 of the Constitution is related to The article is about "Freedom of Work and Contract". According to this article, *"Everyone has the freedom to work and conclude contracts in the field of his/her choice. Establishment of private enterprises is free".* This statement secures the freedom of work and conclude individual contracts. Article 49 is about "Right and Duty to Work" and by stating that everyone has the right and duty to work, it constitutionally secures it. With Article 50, the Constitution aims to protect the women, children and weak and states that *"No one shall be required to perform work unsuited to his/her age, sex and capacity. Minors, women and physically and mentally disabled persons shall enjoy special protection with regard to working conditions. All workers have the right to rest and leisure. Rights and conditions relating to paid weekends and holidays, together with paid annual leave shall be regulated by law"* (1982 TR Constitution, 1982: Art. 48-50).

When the union rights are considered, it is possible to say that 1961 Constitution included more detailed provisions. Article 51 of the Constitution addresses the purpose of workers and employers to establish trade unions within the scope of protection and development of economic and social interests in their labor relations. The related article secures the positive and negative trade union rights by stating that *"Employees and employers have the right to form trade unions and higher organizations without prior permission and they also possess the right to become a member of a trade union and to freely withdraw from membership, in order to safeguard and develop their economic and social rights and interests"* (TR 1982 Constitution, 1982: Art. 51). Article 51 also includes conditions such as workers and employers cannot be members of more than one trade unions at the same time, employment at a workplace shall not be based on being a member of a trade union or not and at least 10 years of active employment shall be necessary to become an executive of a trade union of a higher organization (Tokol, 2012: 161).

Article 52 of the Constitution regulates union activities and in addition to general restrictions imposed on trade unions, it bans pursuing a political goal, engaging in political activities, obtaining support from and providing support to political parties and taking common actions with associations, professional organisations with public institution status and foundations for this purpose (1982 TR Constitution, 1982: Art. 52, Tokol, 2012: 161-162). Collective bargaining right is mentioned in Article 53 of the Constitution: *"Workers and employers have the right to conclude collective labor agreements*

in order to regulate reciprocally their economic and social position and conditions of work. The procedure to be followed in concluding collective labor agreements shall be regulated by law." Thus the procedures of concluding collective labor agreements became subject to laws (1982 TR Constitution, 1982: Art. 53).

Right to strike and lock-out is regulated in Article 54 of the Constitution. This article states that *"Workers have the right to strike during the collective bargaining process if a disagreement arises. The procedures and conditions governing the exercise of this right and the employer's recourse to a lock-out, scope of and the exceptions to them shall be regulated by law. The right to strike and lock-out shall not be exercised in a manner contrary to the rules of goodwill, to the detriment of society and in a manner damaging national wealth".* Thus the procedures and conditions of strike and lock-out became subject to laws (1982 TR Constitution, 1982: Art. 54). When it is compared with the 1961 Constitution, it can be said that the concept of "lock-out" was included in Constitution for the first time and accepted as a constitutional right. It is possible to say that this is a consequence of the prominence of the principle of regulation instead of the principle of protection regarding union rights by the law-maker.

In cases where strike and lock-out are postponed and banned, High Board of Arbitration (YHK) is granted authorization to settle the disputes and it is stated that the decisions of High Board of Arbitration have the force of collective labor agreement. Illegal strikes and lock-outs are restricted, actions such as political purpose, solidarity oriented, general strike and lock-out and actions like slowdown, occupation of workplace and decrease of performance are banned and freedom of nonstrikers are secured (Tokol, 2012: 162). In contrast to 1961 Constitution, 1982 Constitution doesn't include any provision regarding unionization of public servants and it is lacking from this aspect.

Following the adoption of 1982 Constitution the laws enacted to regulate Turkish Industrial Relations System such as the Law on Trade Unions No. 2821 dated 1983, Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822 dated 1983 and Laws No. 274 and 275 are repealed. Laws No. 2821 and 2822 have been prepared in a comprehensive manner and it is aimed to eliminate the potential concerns over the course of implementing the provisions of the Constitution (Tokol, 2012: 163).

The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821

The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, dated 1983 is composed of six parts in total and repeals the Law on Trade Unions No. 274 after coming into force. Parts of the Law are as follows (Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983):

- ***Part One- Purpose and Definitions (Articles 1-2)***
- Division One- Principles Governing Constitution (Articles 3-8)
- Division Two- Organs (Articles 9-19)
- ***Part Two- Membership***
- Division One- Trade Union Membership (Articles 20-25)
- Division Two- Affiliation to Confederations and International Institutions (Articles 26-28)
- Division Three- Protection (Articles 29-31)
- ***Part Three- Activities***
- Division One- Activities of Trade Unions and Confederations (Articles 32-36)
- Division Two- Prohibited Activities (Articles 37-39)
- ***Part Four- Revenues and Expenditures of Trade Unions and Confederations***
- Division One- Revenues (Articles 40-43)
- Division Two- Expenditures (Articles 44-46)
- ***Part Five- Audit and Penal Provisions***
- Division One- Audit (Articles 47-51)
- Division Two- Penal Provisions (Articles 52-59)
- ***Part Six- Miscellaneous, Transitional and Concluding Provisions***
- Division One- Miscellaneous Provisions (Articles 60-66)
- Division Two- Transitional Provisions (Articles 1-6)
- Division Three- Concluding Provisions (Articles 67-68)

When the Law is examined and compared with the Law On Trade Unions No. 274, it is seen that it includes more restrictive provisions. The Law states that trade unions can be established based on branch of activity and aim to be engaged in activity throughout Turkey. Moreover, to the contrary of Law No. 274 it only allows confederations regarded as higher organizations (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983 Articles 1-8) The Law allows the establishment of more than one trade unions within the same branch of

activity and secures the principle of[24]plurality of trade unions. However it also allows trade unions to open branches by stating it in their by-laws and upon resolution of the general assembly (Tokol, 2012:163).

Again, when compared with Law No. 274, it is seen that the required criteria to be a founding member of a trade union are increased with the Law on Trade Unions No. 2821. Apart from the conditions specified to be a founding member of a trade union the conditions of being actively employed at least for one year within the branch of activity in which the trade union is to be established and not have been found guilty pursuant to Articles 68, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77 and 79 of the Collective Labor Agreement No. 2822, Strike and lock-out Act are required (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983 Article 5).The Law also required the condition of being actively employed at least for ten years for the founding members to be selected as members of the mandatory organs apart from the general assembly of trade unions and confederations specified as higher organizations in addition to other qualifications (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983 Article 9-19)

When persons who cannot be members of a trade union are specified with the Law, the scope is broaden and the concept of representative of the employer[25] is broadened and the persons managing the whole establishment along with the establishment are also regarded as representatives of the employer (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Article 21, 40/b).

The Law adopted free affiliation of trade unions and confederations regarded as higher organizations with international organizations and stipulated that organization's by-law should be submitted to the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Labor three months prior to application of affiliation. In case contrariety to principles stated in the law is not determined in the by-law of organization by the Cabinet within three months, the Law allows affiliation with the international organization (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Articles 26-28)

[24] Free establishment and operation of more than one trade unions at a workplace or within a branch of activity (See http://isciveisverenuyumu.com/uploads/p/97/Sendikal%20orgutlenme%20Stratejiler%20ve%20Liderlik.pdf, Access Date 17.02.2018).

[25] The persons who acts on behalf of the employer and take office in the management of business, workplace or establishment are called representatives of employer (See Turkish Labor Law No. 4857 (2003), Article 2, http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.4857.pdf, Access Date 17.02.2018).

The Law secures individual trade union right with the provision of *"no worker or employer shall be forced to maintain or resign his/her membership in a trade union"* . However when it is compared with the Law on Trade Unions No. 274, it is seen that the Law on Trade Unions No. 2821 makes it difficult to be a member of a trade union or resign from membership. The condition of notarization is required for trade union membership or when resigning from membership and it was accepted that resignation from trade union membership shall be valid three months after the application to a notary public (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Article 25). The Law brought various securities to trade union executives and representative of trade unions under certain conditions. Right of choosing the representative of a trade union is granted to trade union that is a party to collective labor agreement (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Articles 29-31)

When it is examined in terms of political activities, it is seen that the Law imposes significant restrictions to trade unions. It is banned for trade unions and confederations regarded as higher organizations to have political goals, engage in political activities, enter into relations or cooperate with political parties, act in unison, support political parties, obtain support, provide or receive aid or donation, use the logos, names or symbols of political parties (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Article 37). From this perspective, it can be said that the Law on Trade Unions No. 2821 intends to prevent trade unions and confederations regarded as higher organizations from entering into trade union-politics relations which is regarded as a dependent model[26] and interdependent model[27] in the literature of industrial relations. It is possible to say that these efforts push Turkish Industrial Relations and Turkish Unionism, even indirectly, to independent model[28] and pragmatic unionism.

[26]Relation of trade unions with political parties refers to a single party in power which is identified with the state. The dimension of this relation is unilaterally determined by the government (See. AKGEYİK, Tekin (1994), "Trade Union-Politics Relation", Kamu-İş Magazine, Volume 3, Issue 3).

[27] There is no organic relation between trade unions and political parties in the model. Unlike an official relation, this relation is based on two organizations supporting each other and serving a common purpose by maintaining their independence (See AKGEYİK, Tekin (1994), "Trade Union-Politics Relation", Kamu-İş Magazine, Volume 3, Issue 3).

[28] Relations established with political parties by treating equally to all of these parties in the country (See MAHİROĞULLARI, Adnan (2012), "Theoretical Framework of Trade Labor-Politics Relation and Its Degree Today", HAK-İŞ Uluslararası Emek ve Toplum Magazine, Volume 1, Year 1, Issue 2).

The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821 legally secures the principle of union purity[29] and states in Article 38 that *"workers and their trade unions and confederations shall not be members of employers' organizations founded under this Law or any other enactment; employers and their organizations shall not be members of workers' trade unions and confederations. The above-mentioned organizations shall not intervene, either directly or by means of representatives of members or through any other intermediate person, in the constitution, administration or activity of one another"* (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Article 38). The Law also bans trade unions and confederations regarded as higher organizations to engage in commercial activities and distribute any of their revenues among their members (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Article 39).

The Law addressed the audit of trade unions and confederations regarded as higher organizations financially and administratively and stipulated that these organizations shall be audited once a year by the Ministry of Labor and the Ministry of Finance on-site and together or separately and they shall be audited more than once in a year if required (The Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, 1983: Articles 47-51)

Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822

When Law No. 2822 is examined and compared with the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 275, it is seen that it includes more restrictive provisions. Tokol (2012:169) explains this situation by stating that, *"the Law No. 2822 made it difficult to exercise the right to strike and trade unions are faced with formidable provisions that would increase the possibility of committing a crime when exercising their right to strike"*. The parts of the law are as follows (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983):

- ***Part One – Collective Agreements***
- Division One – General Provisions (Articles 1-11)
- Division Two- Conclusion of Collective Labor Agreement (Articles 12-20)
- Division Three- Disputes and Mediation (Articles 21-24)
- ***Part Two – Strike and Lock-Out***
- Division One- Definition and Procedure (Articles 25-28)

[29] Trade unions' being organizations closed to membership of the other party and workers can only affiliate with trade unions while employers can only affiliate with employers' unions (See ŞAHLANAN, Fevzi (1995), "Trade Union Law", Banksis Publications, İstanbul).

- Division Two- Prohibition and Suspension of Strikes and Lock-Outs (Articles 29-41)
- Division Three- Results of Strike and Lock-Out (Articles 42-51)
- ***Part Three- Peaceful Settlement of Collective Labor Disputes***
- Division One – Application to the High Board of Arbitration (Articles 52-57)
- Division Two- Application to Special Arbitrator and Official Mediator (Articles 58-61)
- ***Part Four- Miscellaneous Provisions (Articles 62-67)***
- ***Part Five- Penalties and Concluding Provisions***
- Division One- Penal Provisions (Articles 68-81)
- Division Two- Concluding Provisions (Articles 82- 84)

The Law No. 2822 removed discrimination of branch of activity agreement and business agreement and included "business collective labor agreement"[30]in case of appearance of workplace and various conditions. Moreover the Law bans execution of more than one collective agreements in a workplace within the same period of collective agreement and an executed collective agreement may include more than one workplaces simultaneously. Different from the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 275, the Law does not include collective labor agreements of definite and indefinite duration and determined the duration of collective labor agreements at least one and at most three years. The Law stipulates that for establishments where the activity lasts less than a year, duration of collective agreement might be less than a year. In addition it bans the extension, reduction of the duration or termination before the expiry of a collective labor agreement already executed and stipulated that solidarity fees should be paid to benefit from collective agreement. Again unlike the Law No. 275, the Law No. 2822 stipulated the solidarity fee to be two thirds of trade union membership fee. The Law also does not necessitate approval of trade union to benefit from collective agreement by paying solidarity fee (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 1-9).

[30] Collective Labor Agreement concluded at an establishment having more than one workplaces within the same branch of activity and owned by a real or legal person or a state institution or organization (See the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and Lock-Out Act No. 2822 (1983), Article 3, http://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/MevzuatMetin/1.5.2822.pdf, Access Date 18.02.2018).

The Law stipulates that a trade union should have the authority to execute a collective agreement and at least 10% of the workers within the same branch of activity should be its members. It also stipulates that it is required for trade union to have at least more than half of the workers employed at each of the establishments and workplaces where it wants to execute a collective agreement as its members in order to be a party to collective agreement. The Law leaves determination of 10% of workers employed within the same branch of activity to Ministry of Labor and accepts to take the statistics of branch of activity issued by the Ministry in January and July every year as the base (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Article 12).

The Law stipulates that a trade union wanting to execute a collective labor agreement under this law should apply to the Ministry of Labor in order its authority to be determined and this application should be in writing. As of the date of obtainment of certificate of authority or letter of determination, trade union, employers' union or employer shall call the other party for negotiation or notify the office commissioned for call in 15 days (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 13-17).

In cases of collective interest disputes[31] it is stipulated that the parties shall apply to a mediator before going on strike or lock-out if one of the parties doesn't attend or cease to attend to collective bargaining or if the parties don't come to an agreement after a certain period of time from the commencement date of bargaining. The Law introduces the mediator system[32] instead of conciliation system[33] (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 21-22).

The Law grants the right to strike and lock-out only when there is an interest dispute. The Law stipulates that the trade union should decide to go on strike in order for the

[31] Disputes between trade union and employer or employers' union.

[32]Adopting the decision making of the board composed of two arbitrators selected by the parties separately and a third arbitrator in collective labor disputes (See GÜLER, Şerefettin (2016), "Functions of Mediator, Commissioned Office and Authorized Trade Union in Peaceful Settlement of Collective Labor Disputes", HAK-İŞ Uluslararası Emek ve Toplum Magazine, Volume 5, Year 5, Issue 13).

[33] A peaceful solution aiming at settlement of collective labor disputes between the parties through mediation of a third party and making them approach each other by eliminating the differences of opinion among the parties (See KILKIŞ, İlknur, YILDIZ BAĞDOĞAN, Selver and BAŞTÜRK, Şenol (2014), "Evolution of Mediation and Reconciliation System for the Settlement of Collective Labor Disputes in Turkey and Recommendations to Increase the Efficiency of the System", Dokuz Eylül University, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Magazine, Volume 16, Issue 1, İzmir).

employer party to exercise its right to lock-out (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 25-26). Law No. 2822, brought many prohibitions and limitations with respect to exercising the right to strike. Tokol (2012:172) comments on this situation by saying *"strike and lock-out prohibitions are unnecessarily increased"* . The Law determines that the disputes at workplaces within the scope of prohibition shall be merely settled by the decision of High Board of Arbitration (YHK). The Law acknowledges that general strike, political strike and solidarity strike are illegal and stipulates various sanctions to be applied for actions like slowdown, occupation of workplace, performance (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 25-32).

The Law decrees that 6 workdays should pass after the date of notification of the report stating that the dispute cannot be settled in order to decide to go on strike. It states that decision to lock-out can be taken within 6 workdays following the date that decision of strike is notified to employer. It is adjudged that the certificate of authority shall be void if a decision to strike is not taken within 6 workdays or if an application is not made to High Board of Arbitration (YHK) in case of a strike ban. It is also stipulated that within 6 workdays following the date of decision to go on strike and lock-out copies of this decision shall be submitted to notary public and commissioned office and in case of a strike or lock-out without notification of the decision within this period, going on strike or lock-out shall be regarded as illegal (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 27-28).

The Law stipulates that the decision to go on strike or lock-out notified to notary public shall be carried into effect within 60 days following the date of notification to other party and on the date to be notified to other party by notary public 6 workdays before the strike or lock-out and strike and lock-out that did not begin on the stated dates shall be cancelled. The Law bans the locked out workers or workers on strike to close the entries and exits at their workplaces to prevent entry and exit and gather in front of and around their workplaces. In addition the Law bans and stipulates hanging announcement means such as banners, posters etc. in and around the workplaces during the strike. Moreover the Law decreed that the periods of strike and lock-out[34] shall not be taken into

[34] The money paid to workers or their heirs by the employer in case the contract of a worker is terminated due to a specific reason after the expiration of worker's term of employment specified in Labor Law (See AKBIYIK, Nihat and KOÇ, Muzaffer (2011), "Severance Pay and Economic and Social Consequences of Severance Pay

consideration when calculating severance pay and there shall be no provision to the contrary in collective labor agreements and individual labor agreements (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 37-42).

The Law authorizes the Cabinet to postpone a decided or commenced legal strike for 60 days on the grounds that it disturbs general health and national security. In case of postponement the Law stipulates that the official mediation system shall be tried to settle the disputes first and if no result is obtained with mediation system, then the High Board of Arbitration (YHK) shall settle the dispute (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 33-34). From this point of view, it is possible to say that the Law No. 2822 binds the strike ban to a legal provision under the name of postponing a strike and stringently stipulates to use peaceful solutions. The main reason for this situation is *that the phrase of "disturbing general health and national security"* is a de facto statement.

In cases where the decisions of strike and lock-out are not applicable and where it would be possible to suspend or postpone strikes and lock-outs by ceasing the activities of trade unions, the Law authorizes the High Board of Arbitration (YHK) to make the amendments deemed appropriate in expired collective labor agreements upon request of the parties and bring them into effect again. Settlement of collective labor disputes is left to courts and serious provisions are adjudicated for illegal strikes and lock-outs. Trade unions are held responsible for compensation of the losses incurred by employers due to illegal decisions to go on strike by trade unions (Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 2822, 1983: Articles 45-52).

Conclusion

Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism had a rather late developmental period due to reasons such as the Ottoman Empire's being an agricultural society, late development of land ownership and plurality of different ethnical, religious and cultural communities and this was reflected on the Republic period. The changed political regime during the early years of the Republic and efforts to adapt to liberal economic conjuncture that dominated the world particularly prevented creation of the necessary environment for the development of Turkish Trade Unionism and the

Fund", Süleyman Demirel University, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Magazine, Volume 16, Issue 3, Isparta).

insufficient and limited number of developments were actualized via laws and by favor of the state: working class had no effect on these developments.

It is possible to say that the 1960's were the period of important developments regarding Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism. The 1961 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey being in the first place, various laws (The Law on Trade Unions No. 274, Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 275, the Law on Public Servants' Unions No. 624) commenced a new period for Turkish trade union life and ensured industrial relations and working relations to come into existence in real meaning. What's interesting at this point is that these developments are actualized not due to the pressure of working class but because of the efforts of military, civil intelligentsia and bureaucrats. Yet another interesting point is that the 1961 Constitution referred to as the "Constitution of freedoms" was prepared under a dictatorial military regime.

First the trade union rights were constitutionally secured and subsequently their framework was set and they were put into effect. When considered in terms of trade union rights, it is possible to say that the 1961 Constitution had a "protective" character. The constitution based on the protection of working class against employers and capital granted a very broad range of union rights as of the period but did not include the right to "lock-out". The right to lock-out was included in the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and lock-out Act No. 275 dated 1963 enacted with reference to Constitution. Another notable development for this period is the statement of Article 46 in the Constitution. It states that*"Employees and employers are entitled to establish trade unions and federations of trade unions without having to obtain prior permission, to enroll in them as members and to resign from such membership freely. For those engaged in public services other than physical labor, similar rights shall be regulated by laws."*The term "employees" in this provision granted the right to be organized to public servants other than workers and this shall be regulated by a separate law. As for Article 46 of the Constitution, the period became a period where the public servants engaged in public services other than physical labor would be freely organized and establish trade unions and higher organizations pursuant to the Law on Public Servants' Unions No. 624, dated 1965.

Even though it is seen that the laws enacted under the 1961 Constitution have been amended significantly and trade union rights were deteriorated, particularly as a result of the developments during early 1970's and the phrase of "employees" in Article 46 of the Constitution is changed with the phrase of "workers" and thus trade union rights of

public servants other than workers are revoked, it is possible to say that there were significant developments in Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism in 1960's due to the rights granted by the 1961 Constitution and it was the brightest period of all.

The effects of the interruption of Turkish democracy due to the military intervention of 1980 were also reflected on Turkish Industrial relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism entered into a downturn period. Activities of many trade unions and higher union organizations were terminated and many trade union executives and members were put on trial and received imprisonment. The Laws No. 2821 and 2822 enacted under the 1982 Constitution became the beginning of a new period for Turkish Industrial Relations System and Turkish Trade Unionism. The most noteworthy feature of the 1982 Constitution was moving away from protective character and having a regulatory structure. Decisions taken on January 24, shortly before the military coup which initiated the transition process from economic policies of import substitution to pursuance of liberal economy policies and prolongation of these policies by military administrators and subsequent political wills, played an important role in this situation. Compared with the Constitution of 1961, it is seen that the 1982 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey included in the concept of "lock-out" and constitutionally secured this right. Another noteworthy difference between two Constitutions is that, unlike the 1961 Constitution, the 1982 Constitution does not contain any provisions regarding trade union rights of public servants other than workers and their regulation. This has led to a lengthy and challenging period of struggle for public servants other than workers to obtain their trade union rights.

It is seen that the Law on Trade Unions No. 2821, dated 1983 and the Collective Labor Agreement, Strike and Lock-Out Act No. 2822, dated 1983 includes rather comprehensive and detailed provisions but restrictive in respect of exercising trade union rights as well. Even though freely becoming a trade union member and resigning from this membership are secured by laws, it is seen that the conditions became difficult to exercise positive and negative trade union right. In contrast to Law No. 274, requirement of notarization to be a member of a trade union and greged conditions to become a member and a founding member of a trade union stated in Law No. 2821 are some of the negative aspects of Law No. 2821.

When compared with Law No. 275, it can be seen that Law No. 2822 is more restrictive in terms of duration of collective labor agreements and stipulates that the duration of a

collective labor agreement shall be at least one year and at most three years. However it seems that the most important restriction in the Law No. 2822 is related to exercising the right to strike. The law, which makes it almost impossible to exercise the right to strike without committing an offense, imposes a strike ban under the name of strike postponement from a different perspective.

When two Constitutions are comparatively examined in terms of trade union rights, it is possible to say that 1961 Constitution was more in accord with the requirements of civil society and democracy but 1982 Constitution had a more liberal perspective and pro-capital structure. The most attention-grabbing point is that both constitutions have been prepared under the shadow of military pressure and dictatorial regimes but while one of them (1961 Constitution) is more libertarian in terms of trade union rights and exercising these rights, the other (1982 Constitution) was more oppressive. At this point, it is possible to say that what was gained by dictatorial regime was lost by dictatorial regime again.

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5 The Effect of the Perceived Organizational Support to the Job Satisfaction: A Research on the Subcontracted Workers by Mehmet Akif Ersoy University

Şerife DURMAZ
Hamza KANDEMİR

Introduction

Although the phenomenon of individual has become more important in society recently, individuals are being in an organization even if they are only to meet their individual needs; the work place is where the individual is most in contact with the other person. Therefore, understanding the behaviours, emotions and attitudes of individuals is very important for understanding the behaviours of the organizations. The job satisfaction which emerges as a result of these emotions and the attitudes that is directly related to these emotions, the perceived organizational support that has a great influence on the formation of these emotions which has great importance on behaviours and attitudes that will emerge. A positive perception of perceived organizational support and a high level of job satisfaction have a great influence on not only individual but also on the outcome of the organization in which the individual takes part. The increase in the productivity of an individual who has a positive perception of perceived organizational support and high job satisfaction, to have the sense of ownership to organisation and search and contribute solutions to organization's

problems and also just contrary situations lead to significant results in terms of organization. In this section, the relationship between these factors will be tried to be examined with a sample.

Job Satisfaction

While attitudes and value judgments are similar concepts, attitudes can change more easily than value judgments. People have a positive attitude towards a situation or product at any time, but they can take a negative attitude toward them in another time period. Value judgments about a work or workplace appear when one gain more and more experience about the work or workplace and they become more permanent over time. Since the attitudes of the worker also affect the work behaviour in the workplace, the attitude of the worker towards the work and the variables in the work environment has great significance (Erdoğan, 2007: 556). In the widest sense, the attitude is the state of an individual's mental preparedness against a certain object or person or his/her taking an attitude in a certain way (Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 119).

As far as the attitude is composed of three components of emotional, cognitive and behavioural (Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 120), there are many variables that affect the attitude of the person in his/her daily life, but the attitude of the worker towards the working environment is shaped by the environmental and economic factors of the work. In this context, three types of worker's attitudes in businesses are mentioned as job satisfaction, job commitment and job responsibility (organizational responsibility) (Erdoğan, 2007: 557)

The attitude of job commitment is a new concept in business organizations in comparison to job satisfaction and it is the degree of acceptance of the job by the worker beside their likes and dislikes regarding the job. The fact that when the worker has more likes then dislikes in his/her work his/her commitment to work will increase and make him/her gain the job satisfaction, ultimately, lead him/her to establish a more positive connection with his/her work environment. As for the organizational responsibility, it is an attitude that emerges over time as a result of the worker abides business rules and operations and organizes his / her own behaviours in line with the organizational rules. A worker who has that kind of attitude will feel at ease in the work environment and will be constantly committed to the business (Erdoğan, 2007: 557- 558).

Job satisfaction refers to one's general and positive attitude towards his/her work, and it can be said that a person who has a high positive attitude towards his/her work has a high

job satisfaction. In other words, the attitude towards one's work appears as a reflection of the feeling of satisfaction (Erdoğan, 2007: 557). Job satisfaction varies according to the extent to which the needs of an individual in a business environment can be satisfied (Kaynak, 1995: 118). In other words, the job satisfaction level will be as high as the degree of importance of the value that is satisfied (Karademir, 2016: 109).

The common point of definitions which are made regarding job satisfaction is that job satisfaction is subjective and internal feelings of the worker towards the work which are not generally observed in work but reflected in his/her behaviours, but experienced in situations where they reach their purpose or beyond the intended purpose (Eğinli, 2009: 36-37).

The priority situation which makes the concept of job satisfaction important is that job satisfaction is related to life satisfaction and directly affects the physical and mental health of the person. In addition, even if it cannot be said that there is a direct relationship between job satisfaction and productivity, it may be said that problems such as stress and group adjustment that will occur in case of dissatisfaction will affect the productivity, consequently, have an indirect effect on job satisfaction. Although the existence and effect side of the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is not supported by indications, there are indications regarding that there is a negative side relationship between job satisfaction and negative outputs as absenteeism and labour turnover (Yüksel, 2002: 69, Sevimli and İşcan, 2005: 55; Akpınar and Kuru, 2011: 3). In addition to this, in order to utilize the resources in the most effective way in the business environment where business competition is intense, ensuring job satisfaction of the worker and constantly keeping it on the high level have become one of the main objectives of the business. For this reason, it can be said that the job satisfaction is realized when the demands of the worker comply with the characteristics of the job (Köroğlu, 2012: 276). As it is seen, ensuring job satisfaction of the worker is important not only from the standpoint of the individual and the organization but also for the manager. This is because the ability of the manager to succeed depends on the efficient functioning of the worker in parallel with organizational goals (Yılmaz and Karahan, 2009: 201).

Although job satisfaction was first introduced in the 1920s, it has gained importance in the years 1930s-1940s and has been studied by many researchers and much work has been done in the literature up to that time. While Locke (1976) said that more than three hundred scientific studies were conducted up to that date related to job satisfaction, in 1989, Landy reported that more than six thousand researches were conducted (Yelboğa,

2007: 2). The first studies on job satisfaction, however, were initiated in the 1930s by Elton Mayo's Hawthorn researches. Although these studies were not all by itself theory of job satisfaction, later, it was associated by Maslow, Herzberg and Alderfer to meet the needs of employees (Keser and Güler, 2016: 231).

According to Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs, the worker's physiological, security, sense of belonging, prestige and self-fulfilment needs must be satisfied. Unless the subordinate requirements of the worker are satisfied, they become reluctant to meet their upper level needs. According to Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivational Theory, the needs of the worker to be satisfied in the organization are divided into two as maintaining and motivating factors. Maintaining factors are external factors such as fee, interpersonal relations, technical supervision, working conditions and organizational structure that enable the worker to work well within the organization.

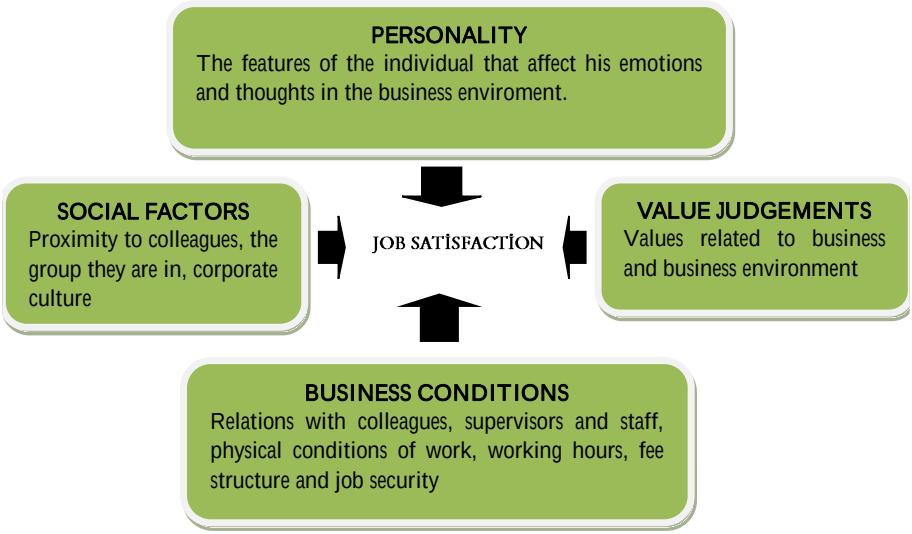
Internal factors that provide satisfaction such as success, recognition, assuming responsibility, having chances to get promotion and develop are classified as motivating factors (Başaran, 2000: 216-217). While theories of content reveal the result of which variable(s) the job satisfaction is (Maslow, Herzberg, ..) process theories explain the functioning of motivation by cognitive activities such as equity theory, coherence theory or the theory of expectancy (Özkaya et al., 2008: 165). Locke conceptualized job satisfaction by basing it on the theory of expectancy as a function of the worker's expectation of work and the objective conditions of work and the manner of worker's perception type in a way to include both external and internal elements (Dikmen, 2005: 117; Ertürk and Keçecioğlu, 2012: 41). Besides, according to the theory of equality developed by J.A. Adams, the person will be dissatisfied when the moments he/she feels his or her own effort has been rewarded more or less by doing input output analysis and will be motivated to reach a suitable level of reward suitable to his/her efforts. In the conformity approach, the workers are more satisfied with the jobs that they regard suitable to their images (Dikmen, 2005: 117).

Despite the fact that there are many classifications, Smith, Kendall and Hulin talked about five basic business elements which are related to job satisfaction: job itself, fee, promotion system, counselling and colleagues (Özkalp ve Kırel, 2001: 130). Garcia-Bernal, Gargallo-Castel, Marzo-Navarro and Riverra-Tores (2005) classify variables that affect job satisfaction into four different groups: working conditions, interpersonal relations, personal development opportunities provided by the job, and economic characteristics of the job being worked (Efeoğlu and Özgen , 2007: 240). However, if we

look at the factors that affect job satisfaction in terms, we can group them as factors related to organization (fees, promotion possibilities, management, general structure of work environment, policies, perception of work place), factors related to work group (features of colleagues, friendship relations, superior-subordinate relationship) and individual factors (personal needs, desires, individual interests, level of business adoption, environmental expectations). The relationship between them leads to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction, while low labour turnover, acceptable absenteeism, high efficiency, work commitment and innovation increase emerge from job satisfaction; high job turnover, absenteeism, illness and low organizational yield emerge from job dissatisfaction (Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 129; Erdoğan, 2007: 562).

There are two approaches in conceptualizing job satisfaction, global approach and feature approach. While the global approach uses a single assessment scale to determine whether or not employees are satisfied with their overall work, i.e., general job satisfaction, the feature approach measures one's satisfaction in depth by examining multiple factors (Keser and Güler, 2016: 232). Because of the differences in the extent of satisfaction factors affecting the attitudes of the people, the factors that create job satisfaction vary from person to person. However, when the factors that create job satisfaction are generalized, the following table can be reached by outline.

Figure 1: Factors that Crate Job Satisfaction



Resource: Erdoğan, 2007:559

It is possible to classify the factors that constitute job satisfaction as personality, value judgments, social factors and business conditions in general terms. Because personality is the source of the individual's feelings, thoughts and emotions, these aspects of the employee's attitude toward work are also under the influence of the employee's personality. In addition, people with different personality will come together in the business environment and work satisfaction will be formed as a result of their interaction. Besides, it is known that the age, gender, education and general tendencies of the individual that shape the personality structure of him/her play an active role in determining job satisfaction as well (Erdoğan, 2007: 559). There are variables such as closeness to colleagues, group and corporate culture are under the title of social factors. Moreover, such factors as relations with colleagues, supervisors and staff, physical conditions of work, working hours, fee structure and job security are gathered under the title of business conditions. As mentioned before, value judgments include values related to work and business environment.

Perceived Organizational Support

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986: 500; Eisenberger et al., 2001: 42) suggested that the worker in an organization constitute general beliefs about how much value is given to their contributions to the organization and how much attention is given to their welfare. The concept of the organization support gains important at that point. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986: 500), organizational support is a phenomenon that arises from the situation that organizational values take care of worker's well-being and happiness and enhance them. Apparently, the theory of organizational support supposes that the employees develop global beliefs to the extent that their socio-emotional needs are met and whether the organization is ready to reward an increased work effort is determined and their contributions are valued (Eisenberger et al., 2002: 565).

Perceived organizational support is explained as "the organization attaches great importance to employee involvement and creates perceptions regarding concerning of their welfare and emotions that the organization voluntarily carries out activities that affect employees" (Turunç and Çelik, 2010: 185). Perceived organizational support is also regarded as assurance regarding that a person meets his needs through the organization to do his job effectively and cope with the stressful situation (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 698).

Perceived organizational support reduces the absenteeism, and the strength of the relationship is much more for those who have a strong ideology of change and weaker for those who have a low ideology of change. This situation supports the idea of social change in which employees' commitment to the business in which they work is strongly influenced by their perceptions of the commitment of business for them (Eisenberger et al., 1986: 500)

Social change theorists claim that the resources from others are given more value if it is a choice that is arbitrary, out of the control of the giver. Such voluntary assistance is considered to be a sign that the giver truly values and respects the receiver. The belief of the employee that the organizational awards and favourable working conditions (job enrichment, promotion, fee, etc.) are realized because of the voluntary practices of the organization makes more contribution to the perceived organizational support than the outer restrictions (trade union negotiations or governmental health and safety regulations) (Eisenberger et al., 1997: 813; Armeli et al., 1998: 288; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 698). In sum, the theory of social change is a mutual obligation related

to the expectations that exists between the worker and the organization even if it is not explicitly stated and poses negative consequences when violated. According to the theory, worker respond to organizational activities with their presence and performance as much as they see organizational practices are useful for them (Turunç and Çelik, 2010: 185, 189).

Being valued by the organization not only provides benefits such as approval and respect, fees and promotions, but also provides access to information and other forms of help that are needed to help someone do his/her job better. The norm of reciprocity allows for reconciliation of these different orientations of employees and employers. The reciprocity norm which is one another foundations of the perceived organizational support theory necessitates the return of this positive behaviour when a person behaves well to another person. Both worker and employer have beneficial consequences for both parties to the extent that they apply the reciprocity norm in their relations (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 698).

While the theory of social change developed to explain the initiation, strengthening and maintenance of interpersonal relations provides a conceptual basis for understanding the relationship between individuals and work organization, it constitutes the center of social change theory and the reciprocity norm that necessitates responding positively to the positive behaviours, people receive from others. Reciprocity norm requires employees to respond positively to the appropriate treatment from the employer (Eisenberger et al., 1997: 812).

Gouldner who sets forth the norm of reciprocity stipulates two minimum requirements that are related to each other. These conditions are that people should help people who help them and people should not hurt those who help them. In general, the norm of reciprocity is considered as a dimension to be found in all value systems and is claimed to be universal. The value of benefit depends on the equivalence value of the benefit provided, on the need density at the time the receiver needs, on the motive and resources of the helpers (his giving without looking for any profit) and on the nature of the perceived or absent boundaries (giving with his own free will). For that reason, the obligations created by the norm of reciprocity can vary according to the position of the participants in the society (Gouldner, 1960: 173). According to Scholl (1981), reciprocity is the belief that an employee should pay back benefits or opportunities provided by the organization with his future performance (Shore and Tetrick, 1991: 641).

The organizational support perceived on the basis of reciprocity norm will strengthen the affective commitment to the organization and will increase the work done on behalf of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1997: 812). Employers receiving more resources are expected to respond with higher performance levels to their employers (Armeli et al., 1998: 288). Again, according to the norm of reciprocity, employees need to make more use of their business organization, so that they can respond to their employers with higher business performance (Lynch et al., 1999: 567). Organizational support which is perceived in accordance with norms of reciprocity should first produce a sense of obligation in order to care for the organization's prosperity and help the organization achieve, its goals and then guide to combine the organizational membership and role status with social identities by meeting socio-emotional needs of the worker such as approval and respect. The organization should also strengthen the belief of the worker in which the organization is aware of and rewarding the increased performance of them (i.e. performance-reward expectations). These processes have positive consequences for both employees (such as increased job satisfaction and increased positive mood) as well as for the organization (such as increased emotional commitment and performance) (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 699). Perceived organizational support has an important socio-emotional function as well as creating a sense of obligation to help the organization. The workers with highly perceived organizational support often find their work more enjoyable, are in a better mood at work, have higher job satisfaction, and show fewer symptoms of strains as fatigue, burnout, anxiety and headaches (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 699, 710).

Administrative support and organizational support are intertwined concepts. While administrative support relates to the manager, the perceived organizational support relates to the organization. Furthermore, the worker can distinguish similar applications coming from different sources such as managers and institutions. Perceptions about the support of employees in the organization are beginning to form perceptions which are supported by the manager. In many studies that have been done, it is shown that administrative support is the precedent of organizational support (Giray, 2013: 73). In this case, the worker tend to see the actions done by the representative of the organization as an act of the organization. The worker consider the work relations between themselves and their leaders while evaluating the support given by the organization and if they have a high quality exchange relations, they think the institution values its welfare by feeling that the organization is contributing them to realize their relations (Liu, 2004: 23).

We can generalize the organizational support perceived in outline as organizational justice, administrative support and human resources practices (instructional support). While the worker who contribute to the organization with organizational justice receive more rewards, those making less contribution receive less reward. For this reason, they have a strong and positive relationship between perceived organizational justice and themselves. The positive attitude that the manager shows, ensures that the worker is firmly committed to his job and becomes more engaged in it. Human resource practices (instructional support) include organizational awards (fee, promotion ...) and business conditions (autonomy, training and organizational dimension, role-based stress ...) (Deribay, 2011: 19-22).

Results of General Work Relevant to Job Satisfaction and Perceived Organizational Support

Notwithstanding that there are many studies on job satisfaction; it has been shown that employees' job satisfaction is shaped according to their work-related expectations. Long (2005) revealed in his literature review that those with higher levels of education have lower job satisfaction than those with lower levels of education, that the level of job satisfaction differ according to the dimension of the company worked in and the working position, and that women employees have lower job satisfaction than male employees. Moreover, as a result of researches, it has been found out that the worker with high level of job satisfaction are healthier and experience less stress than other workers (Efeoğlu and Özgen, 2007: 240).

Perceived organizational support is assumed to affect overall emotional reactions of the worker regarding their work including job satisfaction and positive moods. As noted earlier, job satisfaction refers to the general mood and attitudes of employees towards their work. Perceived organizational support contributes to overall job satisfaction by fulfilling socio-emotional needs, increasing performance-reward expectations and indicating the usability of assistance when necessary (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 701).

Notwithstanding that there are many studies; it has been found that in the general outcome that the perceived organizational support has a relationship with emotional organizational commitment, effort-reward expectations, continuity commitment, leader-member exchange, supervisor support, perceived organizational policy, procedural justice and job satisfaction (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002: 699). Besides, it has positive

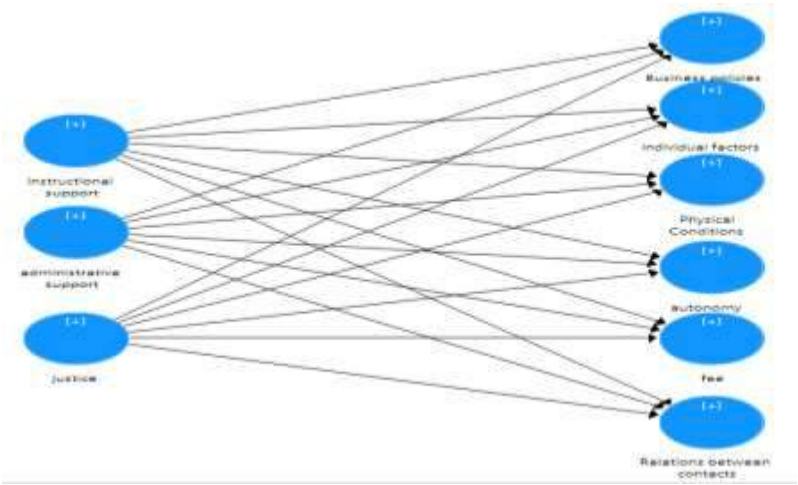
associations with work-related outcomes including emotional organizational commitment, effort-reward anticipations and objective measures of evaluation and role. Job performance, helping colleagues, constructive suggestions for improving organizational functioning and influencing tactics designed by employees to make auditors be aware of their self-sacrifice and achievements as well are another variables it has relations with. There are also studies that show perceived organizational support is negatively related to absenteeism and intent to leave work. Furthermore, Shore and Tetrick (1991) pointed out additional conceptual differences between perceived organizational support and overall job satisfaction and designed perceived organizational support as an explanatory belief about the organization; they assessed job satisfaction as an affective attitude. Eisenberger et al. also presented strong evidences in their studies regarding that the perceived organizational support and general job satisfaction are strongly related but they are different factors (Eisenberger et al., 1997: 813-814, 817).

SAMPLE RESEARCH

Research Model

The research model is prepared by taking into consideration the assumption that there is a relationship between organizational justice sub-dimensions and job satisfaction sub-dimensions.

Figure 2. Research Model



Research Methodology

In this section, the methodology process will be followed in the form of the research method, the scales used in the research, the information about the sample to which the research is applied, the analysis of the research, findings and the evaluation of the hypothesis of the research.

The Method of the Research

This research was conducted to determine how the organizational support received by the employees working as paid employment from the institution in which they work influence their job satisfaction. The data subject of the research was collected from contracted (subcontracted) workers of the Mehmet Akif Ersoy University.

While the questionnaire form regarding the research was being prepared, the studies in the body of literature related to the variables which make up the research model were scanned. Depending on this scanning, the scales that determine the relationship

between the variables are presented. The questions of the questionnaire are in the type of 5 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

Research Scales

The "job satisfaction" scale used in this research was taken from the study "Two Scales for Work Stress and Health Psychology Research: A-Type Personality and Job Satisfaction" by Batıgün and Şahin (2006). Another scale used in the research is "the perceived organizational support" scale which is adapted from the study "Organizational Support Levels Perceived by the Teachers Working in Primary Schools" by Derinbay (2011).

Job Satisfaction Scale

Satisfaction to work (job satisfaction) scale is a scale consisting of 32 items which has been prepared by the author as a results of scanning the literature and lists. The individual is asked to evaluate on a scale ranging from 0% to 100% by asking how much each item satisfies him/her. It is a Likert-type measure that scored 0% = 1, 25% = 2, 50% = 3, 75% = 4, and 100% = 5. The score range is 1-160 in the scale in which the received high score indicates high job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction scale consists of six sub-dimensions according to factor analysis. The variance which is made up of 15 items and explains sub-dimension of the operating policy (the approach of the administration towards solving problems at my work place, the level of clarity in roles at my work place, etc.) is 38.1% and its eigenvalue is 12.21. The variance which is made up of four items (the conformity of the job I do to my education ...) and explains the sub-dimension of individual factors is 7.2% and its eigenvalue is 2.31. The variance which is made up of four items (work order and cleanliness in my work place ...) and explains the sub-dimension of individual factors is 6.1% and its eigenvalue is 1.94. The variance which is made up of three items (the amount of responsibility given to me when I work) and explains the sub-dimension of control/autonomy is 4.2% and its eigenvalue is 1.34. The variance which is made up of two items (the fee paid to me for the job I do) and explains the sub-dimension of fee, is 4.1% and its eigenvalue is 1.31. The variance, which is made up of three items (my relationships with my workplace friends ...) and explains the sub-dimension of interpersonal relations is 3.4% and its eigenvalue is 1.08.

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the sub-dimension of "Operational Policies" for sample 1 is 0.94; For the sub-dimension of the "individual factors", it is 0.87; for the sub-dimension of the "Physical Conditions", it is 0,74; for the sub-dimension of the "Control / Autonomy", it is 0.76; for the sub-dimension of the "fee", it is 0,64; for the sub-dimension of the "Interpersonal Relationships", it is 0.60. For the sample II, it is respectively 0.93, 0.85, 0.63, 0.74, 0.71 and 0.53. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient calculated for the whole scale is 0.94 for the sample I and 0.96 for the sample II. The reliability coefficient of the split half method formed from the single and double items of the scale was r = .94 (p <.001) for the sample I and r = .90 (p <.001) for the sample II.

Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Based on the literature findings in the developed scale, a 5-point Likert-scale item pool covering the perceived organizational support variables was prepared by the researcher. Some questions were asked to those who were outside the sample and a general pool was created from their answers and then, these items were presented to expert opinions and a 36-item draft form was created by eliminating the inappropriate items. At the end of the analysis, some items were eliminated and it took its final form of 29 items. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated to be 0.95. The sub-factor consisting of nine items called instructional support (I can find the opportunity to practice my knowledge and skills that I have gained in vocational training ...) has an eigenvalue of 1.45 and an explained variance of 5.02%. The sub-dimension of nine factors (workplace management, it is tolerant to personnel's' faults ...) has an eigenvalue of 1.52 and an explained variance of 5.25%. The sub-dimension of fairness (workplace management, it gives its employees the authority equal to their responsibilities ...) is made up of 11 items, it has an eigenvalue of 12.93 and an explained variance of 44.5% (Derinbay, 2011: 42-47).

A list of the scales used in the research we have done is shown in Table 2. The Cronbach Alpha values which express the reliability of the measuring tool are shown in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the Cronbach Alpha values of the scales are above the threshold value of 0.70.

Hypotheses of the Research

The basic question of the research is to examine how organizational support affects job satisfaction (positive / negative) and at what level (regression weight coefficients of scale

expressions). In this context, to obtain the answer to the basic problem, regression paths will be formed between 3 sub dimensions of perceived organizational support and 6 sub dimensions of job satisfaction scale and a statistical analysis of the relationship will be made with the structural equation model.

H0: Perceived organizational support doesn't affects on job satisfaction.

H1.1: Instructional support affects the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly.

H1.2: Instructional support affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly.

H1.3: Instructional support affects the dimension of autonomy (control) positively and significantly.

H1.4: Instructional support affects the dimension of the fee positively and significantly.

H1.5: Instructional support affects the dimension of interpersonal relations positively and significantly

H1.6: Instructional support affects the dimension of business policies positively and significantly.

H1.7: Administrative support affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly.

H1.8: Administrative support affects the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly

H1.9: Administrative support affects the dimension of autonomy (control) positively and significantly.

H1.10: Administrative support affects the dimension of fee positively and significantly.

H1.11: Administrative support affects the dimension of interpersonal relations positively and significantly.

H1.12: Administrative support affects the dimension of business policies positively and significantly.

H1.13: Justice affects the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly.

H1.14: Justice affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly.

H1.15: Justice affects the dimension of autonomy (control) negatively and significantly.

H1.16: Justice affects the dimension of fee negatively and significantly.

H1.17: Justice affects the dimension of interpersonal relations negatively and significantly.

H1.18: Justice affects the dimension of business policies positively and significantly.

Research Sample

The universe of the research includes subcontracted workers who work in Mehmet Akif Ersoy University and the dimension of the universe is 320. A random sampling method was used in the research. A questionnaire was distributed to 100 workers and 71 of them were involved in the analysis as they were usable.

The age of the participants of the research were identified as 14.3% of them was made up of age group ranged from 20 to 25 years old, 21.4% of them was made up of age group ranged from 26-30 years old, 30% of them was made up of age group ranged from 31-35 years old, 14.3% of them was made up of age group ranged from 36-40 years old and 20% of them was made up of age group ranged from the age 41 and over. 50% of the participants are male, 50% of them are female. As for the marital status of the participants, 64% of them are married and 36% of them are single. About the education level of the participants, 18% of them are primary school graduates, 38% of them are high school graduates, 20% of them are associate degree graduates, 21% of them have bachelor's degrees and 2.8% of them have post-graduate degrees. When the seniority level of the participants is examined, it is seen that 31.4% of the employees are in the category of those who have worked for 1-5 years, 38.6% of them are in the category of those who have worked for 6-10 years, 11.3% of them are in the category of those who have worked for 11-15 years, 14.3% of them are in the category of those who have worked for 16-20 years and 4.3% of them are in the category of those who have worked for 20 years and more.

Analysis and Findings

The analysis was performed by using Smart-PLS 3 software for structural equation modelling (Ringle et al., 2015). There are different approaches for the Structural Equation Model (SEM). The first approaches used are covariance based structural models done with software packages such as AMOS, EQS, LISREL and MPlus. The second approach is structural modelling with Partial Least Squares (CALC) using PLS-Graph, VisualPLS, SmartPLS and WarpPLS software focusing on variance analysis. This analysis can also be done with "r" software. The third approach is the component-

based structural equation model known as Generalized Structured Component Analysis (GSCE) (Bakırtaş and Kandemir, 2017, 310; Wong, 2013: 2).

There are methods based on covariance and variance in the approach of structural equality model. SmartPLS software is a structural equation modelling based on variance. This model is based on theory and hypothesis. Hypotheses created between dimensions create paths of modelling. These paths and hypotheses provide the basis for theory and explain the causal mechanism. The superiority of the model is that visually presents the structure of the research. In this regard, the research can be understood more simply, the hypotheses can be clearly seen and the measurements of the relations between the variables are easier to evaluate (Sender and Phoey, 2014: 347).

Validity and Reliability of the Measurement and Correlations between Dimensions

Figure 3. Validity and Reliability Coefficients of the Research

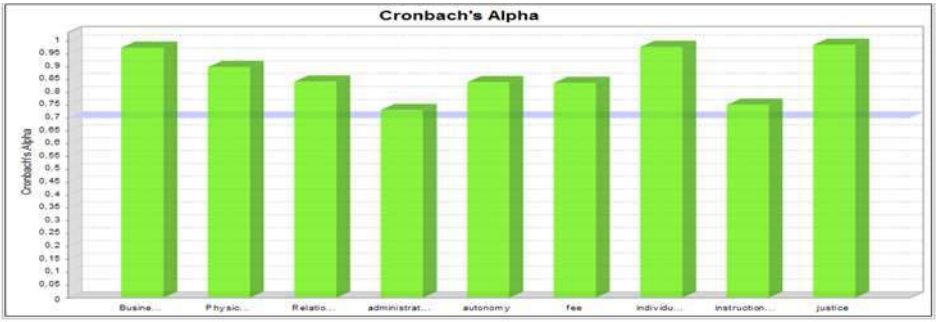


Table 1. Correlation of the Research Between Dimensions

	Cronbach's Al...
Business policies	0.973
Physical Condi...	0.897
Relations betw...	0.841
administrative ...	0.730
autonomy	0.819
fee	0.836
individual fast...	0.976
instructional su...	0.750
justice	0.984

Table 2. Factor Loads, Composite Reliability, Average Variance Evaluated (AVE)

Scale/ Variable	Weight Values	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Evaluated (AVE)
Instructional Support		.861	.678
I can make the decisions that affect my work.	.866		
Workplace management does not take my ideas and suggestions into account.	.662		
The physical needs of the working environment in my workplace (computers, instruments/tools, machines, tables, stationery materials, etc.) are improved up-to-date.	.919		
Administrative Support		.827	.515
Workplace management is tolerant of personnel mistakes.	.445		
Workplace management does whatever it can to make me feel as peaceful and happy as I am at home.	.606		
Workplace management makes effort to develop the relations between the worker.	.462		
Workplace management is open to all kinds of criticism.	.948		
My proposals for the development of the workplace are supported by the workplace management.	.948		
Justice		.986	.870
Workplace management empowers employees equal to their responsibilities.	.901		
Workplace management is aware of successful employee behaviour.	.995		
Workplace management share information and knowledge with employees related to the workplace process.	.825		
Workplace management trusts employees.	.901		
While making decisions that affect me, workplace management gets my views too.	.995		
In my workplace, job distribution is done in accordance with personal and professional qualifications.	.995		
Everyone benefits from the resources of the workplace on an equal basis.	.901		

Workplace management stays equal distance to all employees.	.995		
Workplace management behaves fairly when doing job distribution.	.995		
Only those who deserve are rewarded in this workplace.	.715		
All employees freely express their opinions in the workplace meetings.	.995		
Individual Factors		.976	.913
The suitability of the work I do to my talents.	.819		
The suitability of the work I do to my training.	.927		
The suitability of the work I do to my personality.	.923		
The scope of my work.	.806		
The amount of diversity at my work.	.901		
Physical Conditions		.897	.783
The layout and cleanliness at my workplace.	.983		
Physical conditions of my workplace.	.930		
Technological opportunities at my workplace.	.983		
Noise level at my workplace.	.578		
Autonomy		.839	.762
The amount of responsibility given to me when I work.	.928		
The degree of freedom that is given to me when I work.	.955		
My own level of control over the job I do.	.716		
Fee		.836	.762
The fee paid to me for the job I do.	.926		
Bonus or premium opportunities at my workplace.	.927		
Relations Between Persons		.841	.759
My Relations with my friends at the workplace.	.938		
Communication style between people at my workplace.	.869		
My working hours at my workplace.	.801		
Business Policies		.973	.736
My supervisors' management style.	.860		
The way of assessing performance at my workplace.	.859		
Administrative structure at my workplace.	.648		
The way of making decisions in the situations that are directly concerning the personnel at my workplace.	.886		
The approach of the management to solve problems at my workplace.	.886		

Administrative politics at work and the ways they are put into practice.	.756		
The clarity of the information regarding what I am required to do to be able get a promotion at my workplace.	.756		
The degree of clarity in roles at my workplace.	.859		
Attitude of the management towards the staff.	.982		
Promotion opportunities provided to me at my work.	.888		
The specification format of what are expected from me at my workplace.	.799		
In-service training programs at my workplace.	.789		
Information given to me regarding my business performance.	.982		
My participation share in decisions at my workplace.	.982		
The dimension of the group I work together with.	.859		

In the study, composite reliability reflecting scales were used and the calculation of the reliability (CR) and coefficients of average variance evaluation (AVE) were used as the criteria of goodness of fit. Table 3 shows that the PLS-based composite reliability (CR; Composite Reliability) value is above the goodness of fit threshold of 0.70 and that the AVE values exceed the goodness of fit threshold of 0.50 for all measurement analyses done.

In addition, the convergent validity was analysed by calculating the standardized load of the measurements on the relevant concepts, and the measurements were found to have a standardized load that exceeded the value 0.40.

Validity evaluation of the reflective measurement model focuses on convergent and discriminant validity. For convergent validity, researchers must examine the average variance (AVE) obtained. According to Fornell and Larcker, an AVE value of 0.50 or higher indicates sufficient convergence validity, that explains more than half of variables in the indicators of hidden variances (structures). They also assume that a hidden structure shares more variance with the determined indicators when compared to other hidden variances in the structural model. For discriminatory validity, two measures have been taken that are the square root of AVE and the correlation of latent structures. Our analysis that provides the condition that the correlation values for each structure should be lower than the square root of the AVE to obtain the validity of the

measurement model provides the validity and reliability compliance criteria (Bakırtaş and Kandemir, 2017: 311; Afthanorhan, 2013: 200)

Figure 4. Path Coefficients Between Dimensions

	Business policies	Physical Condi...	Relations betw...	administrative ...	autonomy	fee	individual fact...	instructional s...
administrative ...	0.620	1.131	1.055		0.965	1.016	0.610	
justice	0.273	-0.337	-0.232		-0.197	-0.403	0.254	
instructional su...	0.043	-0.026	-0.005		-0.007	-0.057	0.067	
Business policies								
Physical Condi...								
Relations betw...								
autonomy								
fee								
individual fact...								

The relations between the dimension of instructional support and the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction are as follows; Instructional support influenced the dimension of the individual job satisfaction factors positively and ambiguously (⍰ = .067, p <0.90), Instructional support influenced the dimension of physical conditions positively and ambiguously (⍰ = .026, p <0.111), Instructional support influenced the dimension of autonomy negatively and ambiguously (⍰ = -.007, p <0.77), Instructional support influenced the dimension of fee negatively and ambiguously (⍰ =-057, p <0.173), Instructional support influenced the dimension of interpersonal relations negatively and ambiguously (⍰ = -. 005, p <0.98) Instructional support influenced the dimension of the business policies positively and ambiguously (⍰ = .043, p <0.84).

The relations between the administrative support and the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction are as follows; Administrative support influenced the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly (⍰ = 1.131, p <0.01), Administrative support influenced the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and

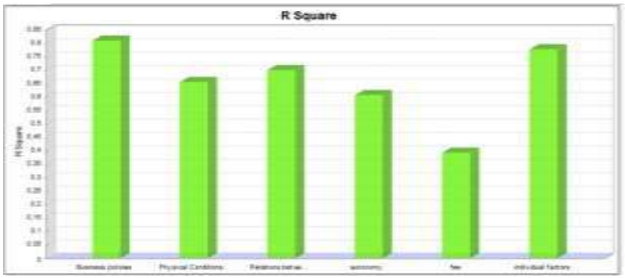
significantly (β = .610, p <0.01), Administrative support influenced the dimension of autonomy (control) positively and significantly (β = .965, p <0.01), Administrative support influenced the dimension of the fee positively and significantly (β = 1.016, p <0.01), Administrative support influenced the dimension of interpersonal relations positively and significantly (β=1.055, p<0.01) Administrative support influenced the dimension of the business policies positively and significantly (β = .610, p <0.01).

The relations between the justice dimension of organizational support and the dimensions of job satisfaction are as follows; Justice influenced the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly (β = .610, p <0.01), Justice influenced the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly (β = 1.131, p <0.01), Justice influenced the dimension of autonomy (control) negatively and significantly (β =-.197, p <0.01), Justice influenced the dimension of the fee negatively and significantly (β = -.403, p <0.03), Justice influenced the dimension of interpersonal relations negatively and significantly (β=-.232, p<0.01) Justice influenced the dimension of the business policies positively and significantly (β = .273, p <0.01).

The internal detection coefficient R^2 is a measure which expresses the predictive accuracy of the model. R^2 represents the total effect of exogenous variate on the intrinsic value. This effect gives an estimated accuracy between 0 and 1. R^2 value represents 0.75 meaningful level, 0.50 moderate level and 0.25 weak level (Bakırtaş and Kandemir, 2017: 314; Hair et al., 2014: 113). The path coefficients indicate the size of the effect, but it does not provide much benefit in comparing the effect sizes between the models. This is because the number of explanatory variables and the correlations between them are affected. As a solution, the Cohen effect size is considered to be strong, moderate and weak, respectively, above 0.35, 0.15 and 0.02 (Henseler, 2017: 186). Taking these considerations into consideration, when the model in Table 3 and Figure 3 is examined in general, R^2 which is the internal variable determining coefficient in the model has taken significant (high) values and since these values are not so close shows estimated moderate level performance of the research's path model. According to the results in Figures 5 and 6, perceived organizational support has a significant (high) level of influence except the fee dimension by explaining 81% (R^2 = .811) of business policies dimension of job satisfaction, 78% (R^2 = .778) of the individual factors dimension, 66% (R^2 = .606) of the physical conditions dimension, 61% (R^2 = .608) of the control dimension, 39% (R^2= .393) of the fee dimension and 70% (R^2 = .701) of the

interpersonal relationship dimension. According to these explanations, R^2 values are generally at the meaningful level.

Figure 5. R^2 Values



	R Square
Business policies	0.811
Physical Condi...	0.656
Relations betw...	0.701
autonomy	0.608
fee	0.393
individual fact...	0.778

Structural Equation Model Analysis Findings of the Research

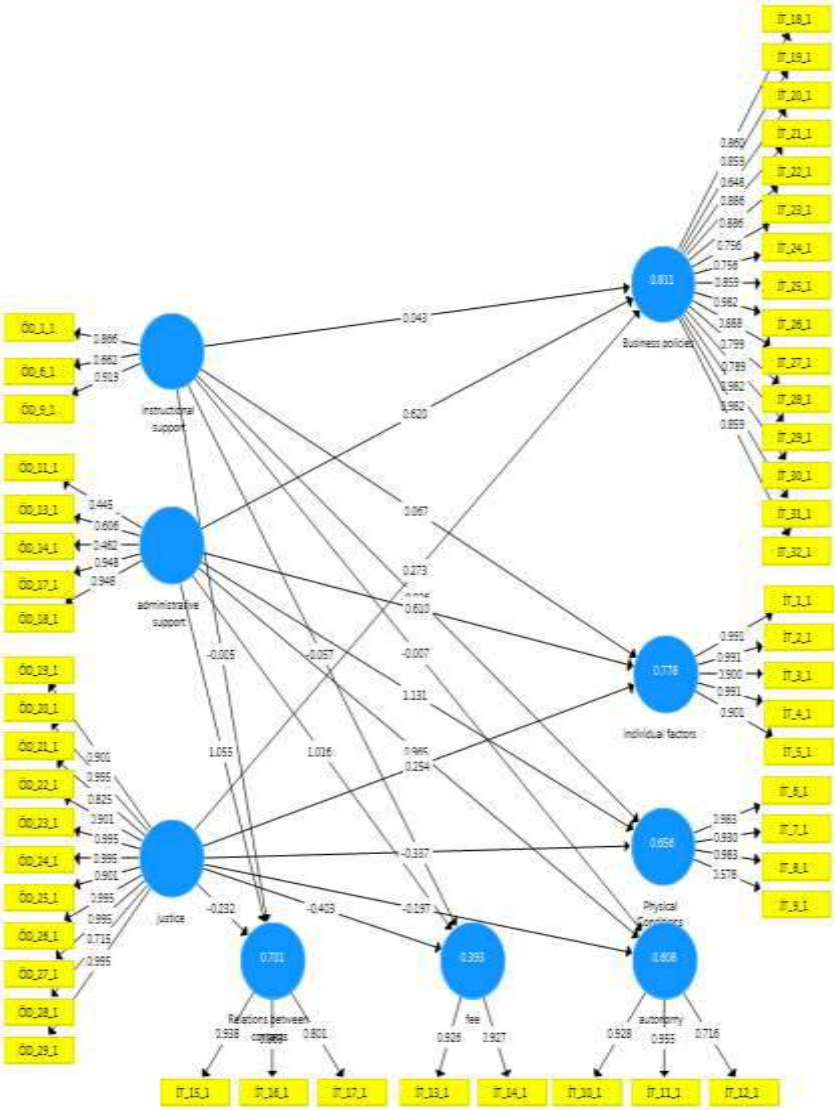
Hypothesis Results

Table 3. Hypothesis Results

Hypothesis	Results
H0: Perceived organizational support doesn't affects on job satisfaction	Not supported
H1.1: Instructional support affects individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly.	Not supported
H1.2: Instructional support affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly	Not supported
H1.3: Instructional support affects the autonomy (control) dimension positively and significantly.	Not supported
H1.4: Instructional support affects the fee dimension positively and significantly.	Not supported
H1.5: Instructional support affects interpersonal relations dimension positively and significantly.	Not supported
H1.6: Instructional support affects the dimension of the business policies positively and significantly	Not supported

H1.7: Administrative support affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.8: Administrative support affects dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.9: Administrative support affects the autonomy (control) dimension positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.10: Administrative support affects fee dimension positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.11: Administrative support affects interpersonal relations dimension positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.12: Administrative support affects the dimension of business policies positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.13: Justice affects the dimension of individual job satisfaction factors positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.14: Justice affects the dimension of physical conditions positively and significantly	Accepted
H1.15: Justice affects the autonomy (control) dimension negatively and significantly	Accepted
H1.16: Justice affects the fee dimension negatively and significantly	Accepted
H1.17: Justice affects the interpersonal dimension negatively and significantly	Accepted
H1.18: Justice affects the dimension of business policies positively and significantly	Accepted

Figure 6. Research Model Results



Conclusion

Increasing competition in the globalizing world is leading individuals and institutions / organizations to be in a struggle for enhancing efficiency and protecting integrity. However, perceived organizational support and job satisfaction form two of the variables that are seen with priority and pose handicap against remaining on target or reaching the target when these variables are not placed on the right bases in the background. That the job satisfaction refers to the general and positive attitude of anyone towards his/her work and it's becoming the subjective and internal feelings that are not generally observed but reflect on the behaviour of the worker pose a hindrance to say that it has a direct relationship with the efficiency and cannot be supported with the researches done. However, situations such as loss of productivity due to problems such as labour overrun or stress and group adjustment in the case of job dissatisfaction. For this reason, it is important to provide maintenance with which the worker get satisfied in the organization (fee, interpersonal relations, ..) and motivating factors (responsibility, undertaking, promotion ..).

In addition to these, creating general perception by the worker regarding how much the institution gives value to the contributions they make for the organization and how much their welfare is valued by the institution make the perceived organizational support important. This is because the perceived organizational support backs up their organizational commitment as well as it reduces absenteeism. The fact that the worker believes that organizational rewards and favourable working conditions arise from voluntary actions of the organization produces much more influence from external constraints (legal protections, union movements, ..). This is because being valued, approved and respected by the organization which makes it easier for the person to reach the information and other help needed to do his/her job better. In addition, the worker who reach many sources in return for this case as will respond with higher business performance to employers in terms of the reciprocity norm. This higher job performance requires the worker to make more use of business organizations. As behavioural consequences of perceived organizational support, emergence of organizational commitment, job commitment, withdrawal or job satisfaction can be expected. An important element of perceived organizational commitment is the perceived organizational support that is associated with the manager. It is known that the worker who has a high-quality exchange relation with the leader thinks that the

institution cares about its own well-being. In this way, it seems that he/she contributes more to the fulfilment of the objectives of the organization.

The conclusion that is reached through findings obtained in the context of this study, is the perceived organizational support has a significant effect on job satisfaction. This relationship has been demonstrated through the SmartPLS package program.

Perceived organizational support has a significant (high) level of influence except the fee dimension by explaining 81% of business policies dimension of job satisfaction, 78% of the individual factors dimension, 66% of the physical conditions dimension, 61% of the control dimension, 39% of the fee dimension and 70% of the interpersonal relationship dimension.

As two of the sub-dimensions of perceived organizational dimension except instructional support, the sub-dimensions of administrative support and justice affect significantly all the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction as individual job satisfaction, physical conditions, control, fee, interpersonal relationships, and business policies, namely, there is a significant relationship between them.

The administrative support sub-dimension of perceived organizational support has a positive and significant effect on the physical conditions sub-dimension with a maximum of 1.131 regression coefficient than job satisfaction sub-dimensions. In this case, it seems that the job satisfaction will be high as a result of the worker are provided by their employers with working in a regular, clean and well-equipped workplace with good physical conditions. It is seen that many factors such as getting wages and premiums, administrative restructuring, promotion opportunities, participation in decisions and attitudes towards the worker as well as having a coefficient of 1.016 between administrative support and wage, having a regression coefficient of 1.055 between administrative support and business policy have great effects on job satisfaction. That the administrative support sub-dimension has the highest positive and significant regression coefficients supports the view that the worker perceive the attitudes of their supervisors as being the general attitudes of the organization in the perceived organizational support. That the perceived organizational support affects insignificantly all sub-dimensions of job satisfaction in the sub-dimension of instructional support showed that there was no statistical relationship in our sample.

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6 The Importance of Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles in Working Life

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Introduction

Thinking and learning have been emphasized along with developments in the field of psychology and thinking and learning processes in individuals have begun to be tested on the basis of theories (Ericsson and Charness, 1994). In this approach, human being is perceived not as a passive creature, but as an active system that perceives processes and interprets stimulants. The ability of the individual to process and interpret stimulants perceived is regarded as distinctive traits of the individual at this point. The branch investigating perception, memory, and information processing processes is called cognitive psychology. Individual differences in these processes are explicated with the concept of the structure called style within the framework of certain dimensions (Arbak et al., 2004). Every individual develops certain methods and approaches in his/her relationship with, and in perceiving, the world, in achieving his/her objectives and in solving problems as a result of hereditary tendencies and the first experiences in particular. In this process, individuals pay attention to different aspects of reality, collect different types of data, organize them in different ways, draw different conclusions and reach different decisions from them and implement these decisions in different ways. Thus, every individual develops different types of information processing

styles whether or not he/she is aware (Buluş 2001, Buluş 2005). Individual-specific method differences used in information processing are called cognitive styles. Every individual reacts differently to similar situations and stimulants because he/she has different cognitive styles.

Another source of differences between individuals is the concept of intelligence. The subject ''intelligence'' is one of the controversial subjects of the discipline psychology due to its structure. The discipline psychology includes many theories of intelligence. While the theory that individuals have a general capacity to adapt to the environment, to learn and solve problems is defined a single approach within these theories, this approaches is opposed by the multiple approach that argues that intelligence cannot be explained only by rational thinking, problem solving and learning (Gardner, 1993). In this context, the relationship between emotion and intelligence has become a field of investigation. Emotional intelligence is important in terms of individuals' adaptation to the environment and their relationship with other individuals. With these aspects, intelligence and emotional intelligence are the concepts that strengthen and complement each other (Çakar and Arbak, 2004; Salovey et al., 2003). Many models have been developed as emotional intelligence has become the subject of study. These models are conceptualized as ability models and mixed models.

Emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence also have an important role in working life. Organizations can survive and make a difference with the skills and competencies of their employees whether they work in a lower or middle tier or a top tier. Scientific studies suggest that high cognitive intelligence is not sufficient to be successful. It is emphasized that the true criterion of human intelligence is not only cognitive intelligence and that the true determinant of success is emotional intelligence individuals possess.

Emotional intelligence covers the ability to empathize, to correctly perceive and evaluate, to express emotions and to organize emotions. Emotional intelligence is also a sub-dimension of social intelligence which includes the ability to follow one's own and others' feelings and thoughts, to differentiate between these feelings and thoughts and to reflect the information obtained on behaviours. When assessed with these traits, it is clear how important it is in many ways, such as organizing relations, preventing conflicts, increasing motivation, effective leadership management, organizational justice, organizational citizenship behaviours in working life. The concept of emotional intelligence has recently been regarded as the main key to success in basic areas, such as career, health, and life, by academics as well as business life environments.

Emotions have not been so welcomed in organizations until recently, on the contrary it has been argued that emotions hinder productivity and rationality. Emotions have been considered as situations that need to be avoided, and success in organizations have been measured by the high level of cognitive intelligence. However, it has been understood with changing working conditions that the high level of cognitive intelligence remaining constant does not bring success and happiness. The importance of emotional intelligence that continues to develop for life has begun to be understood, and emotional intelligence has taken its place in organizations. Today, in addition to cognitive intelligence, the success of employees to manage themselves and each other has become important.

The purpose of this study is to examine, through review of the literature, how the relationship between cognitive styles and emotional intelligence is defined, measured and the level of this relationship and to reveal the importance of the concept of intelligence in working life.

The Concept of Cognitive Style

Expressed as a sub-branch of psychology that examines mental processes such as thinking, understanding, imagining, problem solving, decision making, information acquisition and language use, cognitive psychology addresses the role of mental processes in understanding behaviours (Atkinson et al., 1996). In order to explain the differences of personality, cognition, communication, motivation, perception, and learning, the science of psychology attempts to explain these individual differences using the concept called ''style'' within the framework of certain dimensions (Arbak et al., 2004). The concept ''style'' is considered as the preferences of individuals in using their abilities, the ways they prefer to use when applying their knowledge and abilities; in other words, as the ways, individuals prefer when thinking to perform or performing a study, project or work. In this context, the concept ''style'' is categorized as cognition-centric styles, personality-centric styles and activity-centric styles. While cognition-centric styles focus on individuals' perceptual abilities, mental abilities, and information processing processes, personality-centric styles focus on individuals' personality traits and style differences due to personality development, and activity-centric styles focus on how individuals prefer to learn a subject (Sternberg, 1997).

The concept ''style'' has been the subject of study in terms of individual differences due to perception and cognitive structure and conceptualized as cognitive style and is being studied widely (Riding and Cheema, 1991). Cognitive style is defined differently and

explained in different ways by various authors. Sternberg and Grigorenko (1997) defined cognitive style as a subset of the overall style structure. According to another definition, cognitive style is individual-specific method differences in perception, thinking, problem-solving, learning and associating with other things which are constantly preferred in organizing and processing of knowledge and experiences and developed in accordance with personality traits (Ülgen, 1997; Witkin et al., 1977). Cognitive style is also considered as the ways individuals prefer in collecting, processing and valuing information (Witkin et al., 1977; Messick, 1984).

As a result of these different definitions, different models have been developed to address cognitive style. The theory "Mental Self-Government", developed by Sternberg and Wagner in 1992, is the latest theory of cognitive style (Liu et al., 2007). This theory is based on how individuals organize and manage their daily cognitive activities. The starting-point of this theory is based on the idea that individuals can manage themselves in their daily lives same as the society or government governs itself (Sternberg, 1997). The basic idea in this theory is that individuals should create their own styles and manage themselves in the same way as the world-wide branches and types of management (Sünbül, 2004). Sternberg (1997) examines this theory with five (5) dimensions consisting of function, form, level, tendency, and activity area and discusses 13 thinking styles35 with these five dimensions.

Tablo 1. Mental Self-Government Theory

Dimension	Style
Function	* Legislative Creating, planning, imagining, formulating
	* Executive Fulfilling and performing
	* Judicial Judging, valuing and comparing
Form	* Monarchic Those who prefer to focus on a single objective
	* Hierarchic Those who prefer to rank according to priority order when there are multiple objectives
	* Oligarchic Those who have many equally important objectives

[35]Cognitive style is referred to as the style of thinking in the Mental Self-Government Theory (Liu et al., 2007).

	* Anarchic Those who prefer the flexibility
Level	* Local Those who prefer details and concrete
	* Universal Those who prefer general and abstract
Tendency	* Liberal Reformist and original
	* Conservative Those who prefer accord
Activity Area	* Intrinsic Those who prefer to work alone
	* Social Those who prefer to work in a group

Reference: Compiled from Stenberg (1997).

As seen in Table 1, the mind has the ability to perform the same functions as the legislative, executive and judicial functions that exist in the government of societies in the dimension of function. The dimension of the form includes approaching the world and problems in different ways. The dimension of level includes the functioning of people at two levels, being local and universal, based on the functioning of governments at various levels such as state, province, and city. With the dimension of tendency, it is stated that the mental autonomy of individuals involves two basic thinking styles, being liberal and conservative, but that these styles do not have a political meaning and that the political view and the style of the individual may not be directly associated. The mental autonomy involves two basic thinking styles, being intrinsic and social, as the dimension addressing individuals in terms of activity area includes units dealing with internal and external affairs in community managements.

The Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Today, it is seen that the concept of emotional intelligence is emphasized in explaining human behaviours. The terms ''emotion'' and ''intelligence'' included in the concept have been the subject of investigation in studies performed on individuals. The terms ''emotion'' and ''intelligence'' should first be addressed separately in order to fully understand the concept of emotional intelligence.

Dökmen (2000) defines emotion as the adaptation of individuals to nature and society, while it is defined as the demonstration of feelings, that is, as the form of feelings demonstrated according to the psychology glossary. According to Mayer et al. (2000a:

267), emotions are intrinsic phenomena that coordinate psychological reactions and psychological sub-systems such as intuitions and conscious awareness. Goleman (2006) considered emotions as features that direct individuals towards different behaviours and enhance their learning and capacity. Accordingly, Izard (2007) stated that defining emotions with precise boundaries was not possible, but only a specific emotion could be defined. Passons (1975) stated that emotions served two essential purposes; to provide individuals with energy to take action in their lives being the first purpose, and to show appropriate behaviours for individuals to meet their needs being the second purpose. Positive emotions emerge if this energy sets individuals in motion to meet their needs, and otherwise, negative emotions emerge (Tuğrul, 1999). Plutchik (2001) lists basic emotions as love, anger, sadness, fear, pleasure, confusion, disgust, shame. These emotions have certain functions in individuals' lives. These functions are addressed as protecting life by creating a danger signal, directing towards action, evaluating the importance of events, attributing value, determining priorities, making life worth living, organizing social interaction, facilitating non-verbal communication and providing self-development. When individuals make decisions in their lives, they can make more effective decisions not only by using their logic but also by incorporating their emotions, as opposed to popular belief (Çeçen, 2002).

The concept of intelligence has been the subject of many studies. The concept is defined in the dictionary of Turkish Language Association as the whole of individuals' abilities to think, reason, perceive objective facts, judge and draw conclusions. According to the psychology glossary of Budak (2000), the concept of intelligence is defined as the sum of mental capabilities, including abstract thinking, comprehension, problem solving, applying knowledge to new situations, reasoning, memory, using knowledge gained from past experiences. Welcher stated that intelligence was the ability to understand the world, think and use resources efficiently when faced with difficulties (Cakar and Arbak, 2004). In general, intelligence can be defined as the ability to learn, understand and cope with extraordinary situations (Gürbüz and Yüksel, 2008). Although intelligence is composed of many concepts, it is mostly scored by IQ (Intelligence Quotient) (Sarı, 2017: 9). This scoring includes measuring of language and mathematical intelligence. IQ can be measured by intelligence tests; it classifies individuals by their levels and is genetically inherited (Kavcar, 2011). With the increase of scientific studies on the human brain, intelligence has begun to be studied not only with IQ but also with various theories. Among these theories, Gardner's (1993) Theory of Multiple Intelligence and Sternberg's (1985) Triarchic Theory of Intelligence stand out. Gardner (1993) argues that

intelligence cannot be unidimensional, consists of many components and as a result, mentions nine kinds of intelligences such as verbal/linguistic intelligence, logic/mathematical intelligence, visual/spatial intelligence, bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence, music/rhythm intelligence, social intelligence, intra-personal intelligence (Başaran, 2004). In his theory, Sternberg (1985) categorized intelligence as analytical intelligence, creative intelligence and practical intelligence.

Goleman (1995) suggested the existence of an intelligence that he called emotional intelligence and that can be regarded as the composition of Gardner's interpersonal and intra-personal intelligence (Altan, 2012). Theoretically, emotional intelligence is based on the social intelligence expressed by Thorndike in the 1920s. Social intelligence is defined as the ability to understand and manage people and to be rational in human relations. This model suggests that the ability to understand and perceive the feelings of other individuals is a different trait from general intelligence (Gürbüz and Yüksel, 2008). When the literature on the concept of emotional intelligence is reviewed, it is seen that there are many models developed in this area. The common point in the models is the identification of the main-dimensions and sub-dimensions that make up emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is addressed from two different perspectives, being talent model and a mixed model. The talent model and mixed model are quite different from each other although their starting points are basically the same (Doğan and Şahin, 2007).In the talent model, emotional intelligence is regarded as the center of mental capabilities, i.e. intelligence, and consists of four parts: perceiving emotions, adapting to emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions (Mayer and Salovey 1997; Mayer et al., 2004). In the mixed models, emotional intelligence is addressed together with talent factors and personal traits and includes cognition, motivation and social relations (Cobb and Mayer, 2000, Akbolat and Işık, 2012). As seen in Table 2, four basic models have emerged with the studies performed by Salovey and Mayer, Bar-On, Goleman and Cooper and Sawaf on emotional intelligence models.

Table 2. Emotional Intelligence Models

Model Type	Model Developed by	Dimensions
Ability Model	Salovey and Mayer (1997)	Perception of emotions Use of emotions Understanding and reasoning emotions Managing and organizing emotions
Mixed Model	Goleman (1995)	Personal Competence Social Competence

	Bar-On (1997)	Personal Skills Interpersonal Skills Adaptability Dimension to Cope with Stress General Mood
	Cooper and Sawaf (1997)	Learning Emotions Emotional Fitness Emotional Depth Emotional Alchemy

Reference: Doğan and Şahin (2007)

A Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles

The basic point on which emotional intelligence models build a consensus is that individuals have the ability to recognize, understand, organize, control and appropriately and effectively use the emotions of themselves and others (Akbolat and Işık, 2012). It is seen that recent researches focus on the importance that emotions have gained against cognitive abilities especially with the evaluation of individuals in the context of their emotions rather than their knowledge (Brackett et al., 2006: 780).

The literature review conducted on emotional intelligence and cognitive styles has shown that there are many studies carried out on both the subject matters. It is seen that these subject matters are studied mainly in the field of education, business, and psychology and that their applications are also carried out in this direction. Studies on emotional intelligence in the literature have gained weight on academic success (Mammadov and Keser, 2016), problem solving (İşmen, 2001; Tetik and Açıkgöz, 2013), burnout (Herece and Şener, 2017), career development (Langley, 2000), conflict management (Yaşlıoğlu et al., 2013), intention to leave work (Ünsar and Dinçer, 2014) and organizational citizenship behaviour (Acar, 2002). The following stand out in the literature on cognitive styles: thinking styles and teaching and assessment methods (Sternberg and Grigorenko, 1993), cognitive styles and intelligence, social class and success (Oliver, 1972), cognitive styles and self-esteem (Jaber and Quatami, 1998; Zhang; 2001), cognitive styles and conceptual thinking (Epstein et al., 1996), cognitive styles and academic success (Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1997; Buluş, 2005), cognitive styles and job satisfaction (King and Holtfretter, 1993). A small number of studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles was found in the literature review conducted within the framework of the study (Table 3).

Table 3. Literature Review on Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles

	Author	Field	Purpose of Study	Theory/ Model	Method/Scope
1	Brady et al., 2014	Psychology	Investigation of cognitive and emotional intelligence of young people with ASD.	Cognitive and Emotional Intelligence	Quantitative: Descriptive statistics 68 young people were included in the study in collaboration with three universities in Canada.
2	Dimitriu and Negrescu, 2015.	Psychology	Investigation of the link between emotional intelligence and the tendency to use certain non-functional cognitive schemes.	Behaviour	Quantitative: Pearson Correlation A survey was conducted on 120 people. The survey included the Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Wood and Tolley, 2003) and Cognitive Schema Questionnaire (Young, 2003).
3	Fallon et al., 2014.	Psychology	Investigation of the role of emotional intelligence in supporting effective decision making under stress.	Individual differences	Quantitative: Correlation and Regression A survey was conducted on 167 people.
4	Vahedi and Nikdel, 2011.	Educational Sciences	Examination of emotional intelligence, parental involvement and academic success.	Behaviour	Literature Review
5	Shataleb et al., 2012.	Educational Sciences	Investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning styles.	Behaviour and Individual Differences	Quantitative: Correlation A survey was conducted on 320 students. The Bar-On emotional intelligence scale and Colb learning styles scale were used.
6	Hui-Hua and Schutte, 2015.	Psychology	Examination of the relationship between personality, emotional intelligence, and task performance.	The Big Five Personality Theory	Quantitative: Correlation Path Analysis A survey was conducted on 180 students.

7	Thomas et al., 2017.	Education	Investigation of the factors which have facilitating and inhibiting effects on the academic performance of undergraduate students.	Emotional intelligence	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression 534 students participated in the study. The emotional intelligence scale and cognitive anxiety scale were used.
8	Song et al., 2010.	Psychology, education	Investigation of the validity of emotional intelligence against general mental abilities in terms of academic performance and social interaction.	The Big Five Personality Theory	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression A survey was conducted on 506 university students in China.
9	Başaran (2004),	Education	Investigation of the relationship between the Theory of Multiple Intelligence and intelligence, effective learning and thinking style	Theory of Multiple Intelligence	Literature Review
10	Karabulut (2014),	Education	Examination of the relationship between the thinking styles and socio-demographic characteristics of psychological counselor candidates and the emotional intelligence sub-dimensions.	Mental Self-Government Bar-on emotional intelligence model	Quantitative: Correlation/Regression 300 psychological counselor candidates participated in the study.
11	Murphy and Janeke (2009)	Psychology	Examination of the relationship between thinking styles and emotional intelligence.	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative: Correlation A survey was conducted on 309 people.
12	Hovencamp (2013),	Business	Examination of the relationship between thinking styles and	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative:Correlation/Regression A survey was conducted on 307 store managers.

			emotional intelligence.		
13	Herbst and Maree (2008)	Psychology, Education	Investigation of the relationship between thinking style preference, emotional intelligence, and leadership effectiveness.	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative: Correlation/Regression A survey was conducted on 138 managers a higher education institution.
14	Kouhdasht et al. (2013),	Education	Investigation of the differences in terms of emotional intelligence and thinking styles between male and female students.	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative: Correlation/T-tests A survey was conducted on a total of 200 students in two different universities in Iran.
15	Zhang and Sternberg (1998)	Education	Examination of the relationship between thinking styles, abilities and academic success.	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression A survey was conducted on 622 university students in Hong Kong.
16	KeshavarziArshadi (2006)	Psychology Education	Investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and thinking styles of students.	Mental Self-Government	Quantitative: Correlation A survey was conducted on university students.
17	Parker et al., (2004)	Psychology	Investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic success.	Bar-on emotional intelligence model	Quantitative: Descriptive Statistics ANOVA 372 students from Ontario University participated in the study.
18	Moore et al., (2012),	Behavioural Sciences	Investigation of the relationship between cognitive thinking styles and emotional intelligence.	Myers-Briggs type indicator	Quantitative: Regression 127 people participated in the study.

Studies on emotional intelligence and cognitive style have focused on individual differences. Accordingly, an emphasis is placed on the fact that thinking styles of individuals are not the same and therefore, it is necessary to focus on differences (Başaran, 2004). In studies focusing on the relationship between these two concepts, it is observed

that demographic characteristics are also considered as a variable in examining the relationship between thinking styles and emotional intelligence dimensions (Karabulut 2014). It is concluded that thinking styles vary especially depending on the gender variable, that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and thinking styles and that emotional intelligence can affect the thinking style to a large extent (Kouhdasht et al., 2013; Zang and Sternberg, 1998). It was found out that the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive thinking styles was examined also in terms of academic success and that the level of educational success largely depended on the emotional intelligence of individuals, the determining factor in achieving higher levels of education (Parker et al., 2004).When the relationships between cognitive thinking styles, emotional intelligence and leadership skills are investigated, it has been concluded that cognitive thinking styles and emotional intelligence dimensions are predictors of transformational leadership skills (Herbst and Maree, 2008). When the relationship between the two concepts is addressed in terms of work performance, it has been emphasized that the relationship is very strong and affects the work performance (Hovencamp, 2013). In their study, Murphy and Janeke (2009) concluded that thinking styles between emotional intelligence and cognitive style were the determining predictors of emotional intelligence and that participants with high emotional intelligence preferred more complex and creative thinking styles.

In their study conducted on university students in Canada, Brady et al. (2014) emphasized cognition was necessary not only to improve the intellectual aspects of individuals with autism spectrum disorder but also the emotional components to enhance and improve their understanding. Individuals with autism spectrum disorders are significantly weaker in fulfilling their functions in socio-emotional situations, which are part of everyday life in professional, educational and personal contexts, despite their intellectual skills. It can be said that those with underdeveloped emotional intelligence are at risk for undesirable consequences such as the development of mental health concerns (especially mood disorders) and substance use problems. For this reason, the authors emphasize that it is important not only to address the intellectual aspects of cognition but also the emotional components in order to understand the individuals in the spectrum and how best to support them. Thus, it is anticipated that the ability of people to consider and support young adults with autism spectrum disorder will develop, and as a result, the transition of these individuals to adulthood will be facilitated.

Dimitriu and Negrescu (2015) tested the hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between emotional intelligence or some of its components and the tendency to use some types or non-functional categories of cognitive schemes. As a result of the analyses, their hypotheses were confirmed and it was found out that the developmental stage of emotional intelligence influenced the tendency non-functional thinking. People's beliefs and deep-rooted cognitive schemes strongly influence their emotional functions and emotional intelligence. In particular, some non-functional cognitive schemes make people feel depressed, anxious or angry. Researchers emphasize that programs for the development of emotional intelligence include special sections on identifying and modifying automatic negative thoughts and non-functional cognitive schemes.

Emotional intelligence can encourage more effective decision-making under stress (Fallon et al., 2014). In a study carried out by Fallon et al. (2014), it was revealed that emotional intelligence did not alleviate the effects of negative feedbacks, but high emotional intelligence was associated with more information seeking activity, whatever the feedback condition. It was concluded that emotional intelligence could be a motivational component that can support a more comprehensive analysis of both social and non-social stimulants. The results thereof confirm the importance of information-seeking in a decision-making process. Findings of the study indicate the importance of social attention and social motivation in emotional intelligence.

Initially, psychologists focused on cognitive structures, such as memory and problem solving, when they began writing about intelligence. However, they noticed over time that there were other non-cognitive aspects of intelligence (Vahedi and Nikdel, 2011). According to the results of the study by Vahedi and Nikdel (2011), children are more likely to take the floor in the school and work better when parents follow their homework, encourage participation in extracurricular activities, collaborate with teachers and help children to develop plans for their future.

Learning is a very complex variable influenced by many factors such as intelligence, incentive, adequate environment, family and social parameters, quality of school and education, educator and so on (Shatalebi et al., 2012). Emotional intelligence is one of the variables associated with individual learning style. Emotional intelligence is defined as the skill, knowledge, and understanding that can guide our incentives to make us successful in our lives. Learning style, on the other hand, includes individual methods for information processing in learning new concepts. Shatalebi et al. (2012) attempted to explain the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning style. Findings

showed that only three components, out of the 15 components of emotional intelligence, including interpersonal relationships, impulse control, and happiness, were consistent with learning style. No relationship was found between the other components of emotional intelligence and distinctive, convergent, adaptive and attractive learning styles. It can be said that emotional intelligence shows individual abilities as a learning style pointed out by individual preferences.

Emotional intelligence was found to be associated with greater stability consisting of qualities associated with emotional stability, contentment, and conscience, as well as greater flexibility, higher emotional intelligence and better other task performance associated with extroversion and openness (Hui-Hua and Schutte, 2015). Higher emotional intelligence was found associated with better task performance. Also, the study showed a significant mediation between emotional intelligence, stability, and performance and between flexibility and performance.

Thomas et al. (2017) investigated factors with the potential to create facilitating and preventive effects on the academic performance of undergraduate students. According to the results of the study, the use of cognitive testing anxiety and emotion-focused coping strategies was identified as an important indicator in the long-term academic performance of students. The increased use of increased cognitive testing anxiety and emotion-focused coping strategies was found associated with a decline in four-year academic performance. The results of the study emphasized the importance of developing a multi-faceted model to improve emotional regulation and self-regulation skills to prevent the adverse effect of cognitive testing anxiety.

Song et al. (2010) tested the hypothesis that there are differences between emotional intelligence and general mental abilities in predicting the quality of academic performance and social interactions among university students. Using two separate student samplings, they examined emotional intelligence and general mental abilities to predict academic performance and found out that both were important determinants. While general mental abilities emerge as a stronger predictor of academic performance, emotional intelligence is found associated with the quality of social interaction with peers.

The findings of the study by Hovencamp (2013) reveal a strong relationship between thinking styles and emotional intelligence and provide evidence for the use of these structures in working life. Human resource managers can use thinking styles and emotional intelligence to choose from among applicants that are consistent with the

thinking styles required to do the job. Thinking styles and emotional intelligence training can help retail managers learn new approaches to problem solving and develop close working abilities with others.

Herbst and Maree (2008) investigated the relationship between thinking style preference, emotional intelligence, and leadership effectiveness. They revealed some findings that support this relationship. The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence is an important predictor of transformational leadership behaviors. Researchers argue that managers can acquire transformational leadership behaviors by improving their cognitive qualities and emotional intelligence skills through training and development programs. Researchers emphasize that choosing managers based on their thinking style preferences and emotional intelligence can be more effective than endeavoring to add these qualities to them later. The findings of another study (Moore et al., 2012) investigating the relationship between thinking styles and emotional intelligence showed that both left-brain and right-brain thinking styles were associated with emotional intelligence variables as conceptually expected. The results showed that left-brain thinking was negatively associated with both total consciousness and total emotional intelligence, but not with total management. Right-brain thinking styles were found to be positively and significantly associated with total consciousness, total management, and total emotional intelligence. The findings of this study are important in terms of working life because they suggest that the general management climate in groups where leaders have right-brain thinking style will be more participative than groups where leaders have left-brain thinking style. Leaders with emotional intelligence can better manage emotional interactions because they are aware of their own feelings and the feelings of others.

The Importance of Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive Styles in Working Life

Emotions are one of the fundamental factors of organizational life that supports feelings of sadness, joy, passion, boredom, satisfaction or commitment. Emotions are conceptualized as motivating factors that stimulate motivation, leadership, and group commitment in particular (Schulze and D. Roberts, 2005: 256).

Emotional intelligence has recently been a subject of study in a variety of areas such as management, psychology, social psychology, behaviour, health, communication, and education. The emotional intelligence that an individual has in controlling his/her emotions affects his/her individual performance as well as his/her individual work performance (Onay, 2011).

Emotional intelligence is defined as a feature or skill that helps individuals to successfully understand, interpret and manage their own feelings and the feelings of others to solve problems effectively (Murphy and Janeke, 2009). It is recognized that emotional intelligence is a structure that facilitates success in various living areas, including job, work and personal relationships. Some researchers perceive emotional intelligence as a spiritual tendency similar to personality, while others view it as a talent that covers the cognitive processing of emotional information. Mayer et al. (2000b) discriminate between ability models that define emotional intelligence only on a cognitive basis and mixed models that contain a range of personality variables. Mixed emotional intelligence models present an appearance as a complex interaction of cognition, meta-cognition, mood, emotions and personality applied both in one's own and in interpersonal contexts. It is the models developed by Reuven Bar-On (1997) and Daniel Goleman (1995) that define emotional intelligence as an ability. However, these definitions also include personality traits such as warmth, empathy and pertinaciousness.

In his study, Onay (2011) revealed significantly positive relationships between emotional intelligence dimensions and job performance. Goleman (2006) suggested in his study that people with emotional intelligence may be more successful in their working lives. Goleman grouped emotional intelligence in five dimensions; self-awareness of own feelings, self-management of own feelings, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills.

The ability of individuals to be effective in their works in a changing world depends on their emotional intelligence (Gürsoy, 2014). Individuals can create more energetic, more productive and more diligent teams when they use the power of their emotions effectively. David McClelland emphasizes that academic achievements or high grade-point averages of individuals are not a determinant of their performance in working life. He emphasizes that success requires empathy, self-discipline, and initiative. High-level executives of corporate companies have become aware of these facts and have made encouraging emotional intelligence skills an important factor in their management philosophies. In his study performed to determine the effect of emotional intelligence ability on the process of innovation management, Gürsoy (2014) found significantly positive relationships between innovation management and emotional intelligence. However, he suggested that managers had interpersonal skills the most and that this provided significant benefits to companies in releasing new products and services. The results of the study indicated that managers needed to improve their personal features in order to manage strategic success and process more effectively and that managers with advanced

emotional self-awareness played a more active role in channelizing the organization to success.

Another study found significantly positive relationships between work performance and emotional intelligence of teachers (Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017). Furthermore, there is a significantly positive relationship between the quality of working life and emotional intelligence (Farahbakhsh, 2012). Modassir (2008) argued that managers' emotional intelligence would improve organizational behaviours of employees.

Conclusion

This study was primarily focused on studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles based on their increasing importance in contemporary organizations and then, examined the importance of both the concepts in working life and the necessity of transition from cognitive intelligence to emotional intelligence in the new working order. The study determined that the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles with many different concepts was examined and that studies were carried out in the fields of psychology, education and business. However, although the concepts of emotional intelligence and cognitive styles have a theoretical sub-structure, it has been discovered that the number of studies investigating the relationship between them is less and that they are investigated less in the national literature compared to the international literature.

It was found out that studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles addressed cognitive thinking styles according to the theory of mental self-government, developed by Sternberg (1997), in demonstrating cognitive styles. It was determined that emotional intelligence was primarily addressed according to the mixed emotional intelligence model, developed by Bar-On (1997). When studies on the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles are examined, it stands out that samplings of most of these studies are students. The quantitative method has been used in studies carried out in this direction and statistical analyses have been performed to uncover the relationship between them.

When the results of studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive styles are examined in general, it can be said that cognitive thinking styles are the predictors of emotional intelligence, in other works, cognitive thinking styles of individuals are among the determinants of their emotional intelligence.

It is possible to see the reflections of emotional intelligence in many areas of working life. Emotional intelligence manifests itself as a crucial factor that must be taken into account by organizations as an important feature (Yelkikalan, 2006) in increasing work performance, improving job satisfaction, decreasing absenteeism, developing innovative approaches, creating effective leadership styles, improving interpersonal relationships, upskilling effective communication skills, reducing conflicts, improving organizational citizenship behaviour and entrepreneurship (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Gates, 1995; Goleman, 1995; Megerian and Sosik, 1996).

Emotional intelligence is used in many functions of human resources such as selection and recruitment, career development, training and development (Edizler, 2010). Selection by human resources of people with emotional intelligence that can fulfill job specifications in their recruitment activities is important since it positively affects both work peace and productivity from the beginning. Managers in today's organizations should understand the critical importance of emotional intelligence, make use of their employees, the most valuable resources of their organizations, and help them to improve themselves.

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7 | Youth Unemployment, Poverty Perception, Work Expectancies and Reality: A Case Study from Turkey (Yalova/Çiflikköy)

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Introduction

There are some remarkable new discussions in recent studies on unemployment. In our day, discussions on unemployment involves numerous features of the new era of capitalism. The concept of unemployment is evaluated in relation with several other concepts which promote each other such as general precarity, 'precaria' and concern for the future. It is also remarkable that discussions on 'employment' and 'unemployment' of the 'welfare state' period in the west and recent discussions are different in terms of content. In recent years, Standing's (see 2009; 2014) discussions and conclusions, which were based on 'precaria' as a new class and were among the most speculative approaches within the scope of class and labour relations, are nothing to be denied easily. On the other hand, Munck's criticism that Standing's suggestion of 'precaria' as a 'new' concept is an Northern centered approach that ignores the South is also crucial. According to Munck, 'work' has always been, from past to this day, precarius when considered from a 'Southern' perspective. Munck's states in his article in which he criticizes Standing's approach that (2013: 752):

> "From a Southern perspective work has always-already been precarious, a basic fact which unsettles the notion that something new has been discovered. The genealogy

> of the concept precarity/precariat already shows its Southern origins, but this is never really acknowledged. While the precariat discourse exudes a nostalgia for something which has passed (the Keynesian/Fordist/welfare state), it does not speak to a South which never experienced welfare state capitalism. The Southern experience of precarity is marked by the nature of the postcolonial state and, later, by the developmental state where this has emerged".

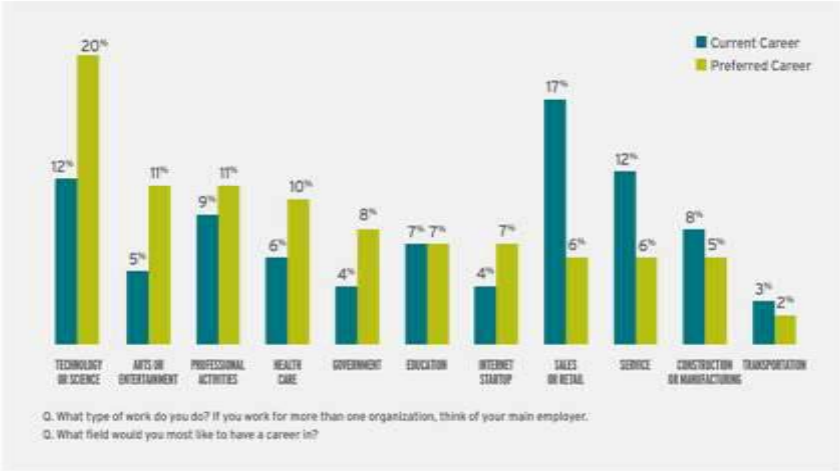
Doogan, in his striking study New Capitalism, doesn't prefer to link the reason behind the factors that make the concept 'precaria' so powerful with the existence of a bulk of people who grew in number and whose relationship with the 'work' has become more insecure or with any other group with different interests. Instead, he argues that defeats in the last thirty years, the rise of neoliberation and the demise of the welfare state caused the consequences of unemployment for the workers to be violent than ever when compared with the post war period. Doogan implies that discussions on precarious employment and unemployment makes sense on the condition that they are put forward by keeping 'neoliberalism' in mind in the light of the ontological relationship between the contemporary capitalism of today and technology and the spirit of this relationship that rises to the surface (Doogan, 2009: 211).

> "What is new in contemporary capitalism can be inscribed under the banner of neoliberalism. There are important changes within the ruling class that express a reconfiguration between financial and non-financial capital and a new division of functions between the ownership and control of capital".

In terms of contemporary capitalism, when reviewed from a wider perspective that ranges from the Bauman's (see 1998) concepts of consumarism and new poor to Standing's 'precaria', it seems possible to conceptualize the 'unemployment'. The consideration of work and labour by large masses, even from a Western centered perspective, seems significantly different today. Besides the changing nature of the work, the expectancies of youth from their lives should be taken into account. One of the most important tensions of today might be the inconsistency between what is offered by the work/employment and what is expected by the new generations. As Rothkpf states (2009) and Standing approves, there's a world ruled by six thousand global elites. Nevertheless, the tension between the current opportunities and future expectations of billions of people both in the North and the South crack the door open for the rise of another dimension. A study by IPSOS, titled Pathways to Progress and performed in 2017 in 32 countries on 7000 young people between the ages of 16 and 24 revealed that one of the most problematic

topics for the young is the great difference between their 'current' field of employment and 'preferred' field of employment (see Figure 1). The rate of young people interviewed within the survey 'working' in 'sales and retail' sector is %17 whereas the rate of those who stated that they would prefer to work in the same sector is only %6 (2017: 6). The biggest dream of the youth appears to be their own bosses and this dream has a higher rate in developing market countries (2017: 13).

Figure 1: Current Career vs Preferred Career



Method

This study is based on the interviews made with unemployed young people living in Yalova(Turkey) Çiftlikköy district. Interviews were focused on working life and future expectations of young population. All of the 18 young people interviewed were registered attandees in 'unemployment and employment' project carried out by the EU in the region between November 2016 and November 2017 and were in NEET (not in employment, education or training) category. The concept NEET, which is widely used for evaluating data in the field of unemployment and for developing policies, is accepted as a functional tool for specifying the main target group. With being different from the classically used 'unemployed' concept, NEET category has become more important concept in recent years especially for studies on youth unemployment. As Robertson puts

it, "the NEET category can be understood in a wider context of social change that has extensively restructured the relationship between young people, work and education" (2018: 2).

Interviews made with 9 female and 9 male participants signed up for vocational courses and carried out between April and July 2017. As a part of the study, participation in the courses that interviewees were registered to made it possible to witness the daily lives of these young people. The main topics of the interviews were the working lives, living strategies, expectations of young people and their thoughts and concerns on unemployment and employment.

Characteristics of the Research Area: Junction of Marmara Region

Çiftlikköy, the second biggest district of Yalova after the central district, is distinguishable for its industrial zones. A considerable part of these zones are currently active and the remaining parts are thought to start operating soon afterwards. In addition to these industrial production, there are active agricultural production fields in the district and there are advanced production facilities for ornamental plantation in some settlements neighbouring the district. Çiftlikköy is also distinguished with its high population growth rate. Only three kilometers far from the central district of Yalova, Çiftlikköy is positioned very close to large industrial centres such as İzmit (55 km.) and Bursa (61 km.). Another distinctive feature of the district is the distance to İstanbul (45 km.), which decreased significantly after the opening of the Osmangazi Bridge. However, there's a remarkable rate of unemployment both in the district and in Yalova cit center when compared to the average unemployment rate in Turkey. The region, which was expected to answer to the labour needed by the industry, draws attention with its high rate of unemployment. According to the 2013 TÜİK (Turkish Statistical Institute, TSI) data, average unemployment rate in Turkey was %9.7 whereas the same rate in Yalova goes as high to %11(TÜİK, 2013: 54). Çiftlikköy, which is an important district of 220.000 populated Yalova with its population reaching nearly 40.000, is also a remarkable area with the biggest population growth rate among all districts of the city.

In general, a significant part of the official industrial and production data of Yalova province is directly related with the Çiftlikköy district. Çiftlikköy district is administratively connected to Yalova province, which, is located in Eastern Marmara Region. This region has TR 4 code according to the Turkey Statistical Region Units Classification (TSUC). Bursa and Kocaeli subregions are two of the most outstanding

areas of this primary level region. Yalova province, like Sakarya, Düzce and Bolu provinces, is located in TR 42 coded Kocaeli subregion mostly because of its features of transportation opportunities and economic relations. TSUC code for Yalova is TR 425 (see http://www.tuik.gov.tr)

The population structure of Çiftlikköy reflects different regions of Turkey. The district stands out with agricultural activities to a considerable extent along with industrial and service sectors. Developing transportation opportunities plays an important role in this status. The district hosts different alternatives that accompany These distinguishing features renders the district an attention grabbing area. According to the 2013 TSI data, Yalova province is ranked as the second in terms of 'yearly population growth rate' with its rapidly growing population of more than 200.000, which accounts for the %0.3 of the country population (TÜİK, 2013: 38). Furthermore, previous and following studies on population growth rates also show that population growth rate in Yalova province is considerably higher than the country average. The province is ranked at the fourth place in 'net migration speed' according to TSI statistics and a significant part of this speed belongs to Çiftlikköy district, which recorded highes population growth rate due to migration than the central district.

For instance, population of the central district rose from 102.871 in 2007 to 132.322 in 2015, which accounts for a growth more than %30 in 8 years. The population of Çiftlikköy in 2007, according to the TSI data, is 24.046 and reaches to 35.628 in 2016. This indicates a %50 rise in 8-9 years (see www.tuik.gov.tr). Çiftlikköy is by far the leading district among all other districts in Yalova province in terms of population growth rate. The presence of 'the largest industrial' enterprises of the city in Çiftlikköy plays an important role in this situation. When the new enterprieses awaiting to start operations are taken into account, it wouldn't be wrong to say that this trend will continue. Çiftlikköy and Altınova districts are the two remarkable ones emphasized by the Provincial Environment Status Report published by Yalova Governorship in 2011 as the areas with the biggest factories in terms of employment in different divisions ranging from textile to metal working (Yalova Governorship, 2011: 185-188). It seems that this trend in the province will become more influential in favor of Çiftlikköy district with industrial areas that will become operational in the near future.

In addition, according to the 2013 TSI data, Yalova is ranked 15th with the rate of %11 in the 'cities with the most unemployment rate list'. This rate is 1 point higher than the country average (TÜİK, 2013: 54). Çiftlikköy should be considered as the most

migration-receiving district in this regard. It is also possible to note that both the province and the Çiftlikköy district have the greatest need for employment in terms of 'official vacant jobs' in recent years in the light of the Turkish Institution of Providing Jobs and Employees data. The number of vacant jobs reported to the institution rose approximately 8.5 times from 2010 to 2016 (İŞKUR, 2017: 6).

Future Expectations of Young NEETs Who Prefer to Work in Service Sector

The study is based on the data from a EU 'employment' focused project carried out in the region. Main consideration points were application to the vocational course application and participations to these courses. In addition, interest levels of unemployed young people to local projects conducted by Provincial Agriculture Directorate is also taken into consideration. The most important statistical breaking point specific to Yalova province and especially Çiftlikköy district, where data on rapid industrialization and economic growth is apparent, seems to be between years 2012 and 2013. For instance, when import and export based data within the scope of 'economic activity' areas are examined, 4 or 5 times growth rates between 2012 and 2013 are noticeable (see TÜİK, 2013: 111-113). From this perspective, the effect of manufacturing sector is increasing in every aspect. One of the important centers of this growth is the Ship Specialization Organized Industrial Zone (SSOIZ). This fostering effect of the zone is estimated to grow in time.

The project, which was constructed on a 400 decare field resides within the boundaries of Çiftlikköy district. Currently, %90 of total export of Yalova province is made by 'ship building industry'. This potential accounts for nearly %35 of total ship and yacht export of Turkey (Yalova Governorship – Gesad, 2017). These numbers are excluded from the 'big' investment planned for the area. The first stage of SSOIZ is planned to start operations in 2020 and estimated to host around 200 industrial enterprises (see http://www.giosb.org.tr). The project, together with all the contribution to the economy in the region, is thought to transform the area but it also has some serious risks too. From this point of view, it is very important to take the steps that will prepare the region socially, economically and culturally for this incoming great transformation process.

Several EU projects have been carried out in the district, with different scopes and aims. A few projects were in socio-economical regional adaptation training category. Other projects, targeting not only unemployed young people but also middle class and all categories of the population, were personal development courses. Except from these

categories, there were vocational course in 4 different categories. There are Ship Building Industry Educations, Courses for Rural Population, Trainings for Employment for Women's Labour and Service Sector Employment Courses. The courses and the relevant categories are shown in Table 1 :

Table 1: Courses Carried Out in Çiftlikköy in the Scope of EU Projects.

Ship Building Industry Educations	Courses for Rural Population	Trainings for Employment for Women's Labour	Service Sector Employment Courses
- Ship Welding Technician – Ship Pipe Installment, - Boat and Yacht Maintenance and Repair	- Medical Aromatic Plant Growing -Bee Keeping	- Hank Dyeing, - Warper	- Patient Admission Operations, - Call Center Personnel Trainings

There are significant differences between the categories in terms of the intensity of the applications. Applications for Patient Admission Operations and Call Center Personnel Trainings were closed in one week following the anouncements. Applications to other categories, however, were limited in number. Particularly, the applicant quotas of courses in the Ship Building Indıstry Educationes category was not full for a long time. Moreover, it was noteworthy that the continuity to the courses was not high. Despite many officials' thoughts that the courses in the category of Ship Building Industry Educations would attract great attention because of their importance for the regional development, the reality was just the opposite. Courses in service sector employment received a lot of applications from both male and female applicants whereas production oriented courses received little interest. Perhaps, the high rates of work accidents in this sector played an important role in this situation. Also, the bad fame of the sector as being well known for the tough conditions of the jobs seems to be effective in this low level interest to these courses. Because there is a heavy industry sector involving electric, machine and welding in ship building category, there is a considerable amount of dangers and risk factors(Taylan, 2009: 273).

The courses, applied by 18 participants interviewed are shown in Table 2. The term 'applied' is preferred intentionally because some of the participants discontinued the courses after some time.

Table 2: Unemployed Young People and the Trainings They Applied to.

	Female	Male	Total
Ship Building Industry Educations		4	4
Courses for Rural Population	1	2	3
Trainings for Employment for Women's Labour	3		3
Service Sector Employment Courses	5	3	8
Total	9	9	18

There has been an opportunity to make interviews with unemployed young people who didn't apply to Ship Building Industry Educations. In general, applicants stated that they find the jobs hard enough to stay away and also they expressed that they wanted a job guarantee after the completion of the courses. 2 of the 4 people interviewed left the course after first 3 weeks. Participants stated that it is a vital requirement that at least a modest amount of income should be ensured for themselves during the courses and they also drew attention to the tough conditions of the jobs in this sector. One of the 2 participants who regularly attend to the courses which seem to have a low motivation of job acquisition stated that he was able to find, in his own words, 'a job with not so satisfactory conditions' in a short time after the course ended. Kemal (21), a young unemployed person who left the courses expresses his reasons for not continueing the course as below:

> "...I mean the others (courses in other categories) were full. When you ask 'what woud you like to be?' I say I want to be a security guard but I applied for this course nonetheless. I mean I just didn't like the job... What I want most is to find a job in municipality or in state institutions..."

Kemal's expressions reflects the conditions and thoughts of many young unemployed people. First of all, 'service' sector jobs are the most wanted ones. However, more importantly, a job that is related with the state and with a relative 'secure' income is preferred in the first place. From this perspective, the most important common characteristics of the participants interviewed as to work in a job secured by the 'state' itself rather than obtaining a profession or a skill. Parallel to this view, many of the interviewed people pointed out to the opportunities that can be established utilizing political patronage relationships.

Çiftlikköy attracts attention as a rapidly growing settlement where all of the industrial, service and agricultural sectors are available. The relatively fruitful lands of the region, being close to the metropol cities and its nature that enable the production of some animal and agricultural goods renders the district an attractive center for unemployed young people. In addition to the educations and training programs carried out as a part of an EU project, the incentives of the Provincial Directorate of Agriculture are also examined within the framework of the study. Generally speaking, interest levels of unemployed young people is quite low in this area. Working in agriculture and animal husbandry sectors, building a career and earning money in this fields of operation don't seem to be appealing for young people. This situation is an indication that young people preferred 'urban practices' when they have to make a choice between rural and urban practices. However, there are interesting findings on the matter. For instance, officials from Provincial Directorate of Agriculture who were interviewed in the study stated that it was possible to earn much more money by working in rural areas than urban sectors especially with the contribution of incentives for rural sectors. Nevertheless, this key factor is ignored. Mustafa, who applied for the course on Patient Admission Services, expressed his thoughts on the issue as follows:

> "Well we also have a land.. I don't think it's that easy (to process the land) and I have no interest in it. You should have to be interested.. I was grown up in this district. It's a hard work to deal with all the mess and dirt of these jobs. I'd like to work in, say, a hospital or shopping mall. I mean I go to job and come home, get some stuff for myself.. They say you can earn much more (in rural jobs) but it only looks good on paper. If everything was great in farming why everyone comes to towns? I don't know..."

Mustafa's thougths are just an example indicating that the service sector is more preferred and these thoughts should be noted as the outputs of some features rooted in the geographical conditions and rapid growth of the region. The region, with its geographical position and its structure that attracts invetments from different areas, has helped land rents and values in neighbouring settlements and in rural parts of the district. The land ownership in the region is scattered in small ratios among people because of the general characteristics of land structure and population (Interview with local authority of Sultaniye neighbourhood, May 2017). This situation generates economical source for the members of the families belonging to the generation at least one level below. The region

is also exposed to an intense sale of lands that leads to the transformation of agricultural fields to residential zones. This transformation generates another source of income for not only specific families but also all people who own at least a small part of land. It is possible to get a couple of flats with high market value by giving a small land to a contractor. This became apparent with the questions related to the daily lives of workers interviewed with. From this perspective, it is possible to define this scenario as a time-saving process for some of the unemployed youngs.

Sennett, in his remarkable work Culture of the New Capitalism, implies that 'specter of uselessness' is one of the most dangerous threats of our time. Philosopher of ordinary people and the workers, Sennett, emphasizes that there are three main powers that shape this 'specter of uselessness'. These are global labor supply, automation and the management of ageing (2006: 86). Sennet includes the concepts of Global South and the Global North in his concept of global labor supply and lays emphasis on 'automation. Accordingly, the automation, which is an 'exaggerated situation' in the past and its deep rooted structural effects are more evident in our day. Automation provides saving on labor today, total labor in many sectors face cutbacks while the production increases (Sennett, 2006: 92). Actually, this condition is not specific to 'industry' only. It is possible to find examples in different service sectors too. However, this situation itself causes the workers of today to face 'the specter of automated uselessness', which, according to Sennett, is a vital output for understanding the current conditions.

The low level of participation in Trainings for Employment for Women's Labour and also the hesitation of the course attandees in completing the course program are some of the other visible findings of the study. These tendencies, which are thought to be 'textile' sector based, seem to be the victims of the partially shrinking production as a result of global fluctuations in the sector. The circumstances Sennett exemplifies in terms of the influence of 'automation' are quite valid for textile sector. The authority of the largest textile establishment operating in the region underlined that they made %15 more production with %10 fewer workers when compared to the performance of five years ago. This creates another problem not only for the workers in production but also for the employees working at various stages in the process from production to the market level. The biggest expectation of female unemployed women interviewed within the study was, just like their counterparts, to be employed in service sector. It's widely accepted that women face more difficult working conditions in labor market compared to men.

Moreover, there are similar reflections of this situation even in countries with better regulations and structures in terms of gender equality. For instance, meaningful differences disadvantageous for women were found in terms of 'call backs' for job applications in Sweden. In addition, call backs to 'men without child' were %5.5 higher than call backs to 'women/mothers with child' (Brygen et al, 2017: 341). These statistical data belongs to Sweden, who ranks 4th in UNDP's 'Gender Inequality Index' according to 2016 results. Considering this, it wouldn't be difficult to esmiate that the problems regarding women and their practices at workplaces in Turkey, which ranks in 69th place in the same index, would be more severe than Sweden (see, http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII).

Trainings for call centers and patient admission operations, which can be defined as Service Sector Employment Courses, not only reach the applicant quota quickly but also keep receiving admissions even after the trainings started. It's apparent that unemployed young people define service sector jobs as 'clean jobs' regardless of gender. 8 workers who applied to and completed these courses were interviewed within the study. Dilek (27), who completed the course, draws attention to following points about work life and her general expectations:

> "Actually, I've been working since I was 18. I worked in general stores, shops, stationery stores.. In one job, I managed to come to a good position, other things intervened, in my life.. I mean I failed to be consistent. But now I believe I'd do good if I work in patient admission operations at a hospital. But it should be state owned one, I mean how many private hospitals are there?.. And the existing private hospitals push one employee to work for what otherwise three people would do. What can you do if they put you out of the building tomorrow? Considering my age, I want to work for a regular job.. No, I mean I never thought of working in a factory. It was never among my plans for future, it's just not good for me... My dreams? I mean of course, regular job, family, etc.. I would like to find a job in state owned institutions or municipalities…"

The most important implication in Dilek's (27) answers was perhaps her expression that private businesses make one person do the job for three people. This seems like just the reversed version of general statement echoed often by 'neoliberal discourse' and shared by the general public that 'three people do the one person's job in state owned institutions'. It can be clearly seen that there is a reversed version of the 'inefficiency of the public sector' discourse, which had become in the late 1980s and in 1990s period when the

privatization trend gained momentum in Turkey. Dilek doesn't voice this idea with a political agenda in her mind. In her own words, politics is 'one of the things she hates most' in her life.

Working and Life Strategies of Young NEETs

%60 of the youngs interviewed within the study was 'high school' graduate. Two of participants who stated that they graduated from college were 'two year open university' graduates, the remaining college graduate participant was a graduate of two year voational school. The high rate of high school graduates among the participants was remarkable. The total time spent in school rate of the interviewees was above the average of Turkey and Yalova. This is normal because this rate shows the total years of education of the population above the age of 25 by looking into the mean years of schooling (Yeşilyurt et al, 2014). The average rate in Turkey was 6.51 according to 2014 data, whereas it goes above the national average in Yalova with 7.03 (Yeşilyurt et al, 2014: 5-6).). It is quite natural for young people to appear above average because these figures take only the part of the population who are above the age of 25.

Table 3: Educational Status of Young NEETs Interviewed.

	Primary School	High School	University	Total
Female	1	6	2	9
Male	2	6	1	9
Total	3	12	3	18

However, the main disturbances of the interviewed young people include but not limited to the constant changes in the education system and the adaptation difficulties or lack of opportunities given to them. The youngs state that they were graduated without getting equipped with a special 'skill'. This situation is far more apparent in the graduates of the 'straight high school' in Turkey. Two youngs who were graduates of vocational two year school complained that the school hadn't contribute to them in any ways. Of course economic inequalities and inequalities of opportunity are also emphasized by many young people. This point is, in a way, an important point that young people use to legitimize their own positions. A high school graduate Kenan's expressions can be seen as the common prominent conditions of many unemployed youngs:

> "Of course I made mistakes too.. I mean I wasn't good enough, you know it's youth.. But I would be able to go to the best college if my dad had the money. This is how that works.. I regretted later on, and was able to complete open high school. It was the best I could do.. Like I said, if your dad has the money he pays and you can get your education abroad or here and there. Were those who managed to go to college all very successful? But the college graduates are also unemployed, believe me, that doesn't really matter. It depends on the money after all".

While this outline, often put forth by young people, open up an area of justification for them, it is not possible to trace the political demands and widescale regulations towards developing social policies related with this situation and preventing social inequalities. The level of social and economic inequalities affecting their own lives don't go beyond 'explaining the situation' individually. Only one of the participants made an assessment on general political processes on the basis of his own experiences.

It should be noted that the unemployed youngs were disturbed by being constantly identified as 'unemployed'. It is difficult to say that the reason for this is the norms of 'working society' and that they are disturbed because they feel left out of this norms. In their own words, they are worried to be identified as 'poor' and 'deprived'. The people interviewed within the study are uncomfortable with being identified by the terms 'poor' or 'poverty', which are used to define masses in terms of growing cities today (Koçancı, Ergun, 2018). The term 'unemployed' has the similar meaning for them. In this regard, it is an interesting example that a young who was invited to a workshop carried out within a EU project in 'unemployed' category was disturbed by being put into this category. It should be noted that the category 'unemployed' itself creates, as any other categorization would do, an alienation. On the other hand, criticisms on the basis of the field-based data in some recent studies on the expression of 'NEET', which is also used in this study, are quite meaningful. Holte, reviewing the term from the aspects of its practices and usage in Norway, indicates that the use of the concept creates a risk of 'marginalizing'(2017: 12). Sergio et al point out that the use of the concept NEET misses different dimensions, precarius work and the current working system in the Italy example and draw attention to the following points in their article where they use Italian national labor data(Sergio et al., 2018: 51):

> "Those labelled as NEETs vary according to multiple dimensions such as gender, age, territorial variation and education. Moreover, youth disadvantage does not cover only the lack of employment and cannot be fully grasped with a measure of stock (like the

NEET rate), as it implies frequent turnovers among spells of unemployment, precarious and atypical work".

A significant part of the interviewed workers prefer to use expressions such as bad luck and injustice frequently about their past experiences in working lives. However, There is only one participant who would like to continue to work in one of his past job experience constantly. The number of interviewees under the age of 25 in the study is 9. There are no participants who never had a job experience before, including the youngest two participants aged 18 and 19. The general evaluation by the participants, who had worked in very different positions such as market workers, construction workers, petrol workers, café / grilled waitresses, ticket workers, factory workers that the importance of 'skills' in professions is diminishing is remarkable. Young people, who tend to adopt a 'quiet' and 'gentle' attitude in job interviews, seem to reach a consensus about the importance of creating 'powerful' connections. This refers to the importance of political patronage in actual working environment in Turkey. . In this sense, a significant number of young people (11 people) 'has somehow' engaged in relations with political channels. Except the two different examples, all of these engagements aimed the political party holding local and general power. Again, some say that, even if this is not what they 'believe with all their hearts', this is the only valid method. Although this relationship can not provide a direct solution to their current conditions, the 'possibility' seems to be valid for young people.

According to data from NEET comparison between countries, Turkey's position is hardly encouraging., apart from global NEET rates having downward trend in terms of general curves in recent years, Turkey is among the 5 countries with the most negative position in different categories according to 2017 data on countries whose data is provided by OECD. Turkey, despite having 'better data' than Mediterranean countries whose economic crisis is deepening, has a very negative status in terms of especially female NEET rates. While NEET average in this category for women aged between 15-29 is %16, same rate is higher than %40 in Turkey. On the other hand, it's also worth mentioning that this rate, which was around %60 in 2005, has a downward trend. Nevertheless, with the rate being almost 2.5 times higher than OECD average, Turkey stands in the bottom (see, OECD: 2018 Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) (indicator). doi: 10.1787/72d1033a-en (Accessed on 07 March 2018)).

The experiences of women interviewed within the study is also parallel to international data. One of the most serious problems of women is the social general perceptions

together with the limited public support by the family or the public. Female participants, who emphasize the difficulties of the working life for the women, express with examples from their own experiences that working as a young women in Turkey contains some troubles beyond the apparent and measurable problems. First of all, they state that they were not comfortable as men at workplaces and that there was a risk of being labeled with different types. They also underline that employers had some prejudices against women and that working as mothers with child brings additional burdens especially for unemployed women. Only three of the nine total interviewed female participants had children. It should be noted that only %25 of the total participants who registered and continued to the courses were females. However, the total number of male and female participants within the study is kept equal. One of the most important reasons for this is to present a better understanding towards the negative data related with the employment of women in Turkey in the light of universal comperative data on unemployment and youth unemployment. Even if specific educations for only women are opened, the application rates are very meaningful and considerable data.

According to Işık, youth unemployment is not a social problem that can be solved only by economic growth (Işık, 2016: 144). Many of the interviewed youngs preferred to use interesting expressions about 'growth' and their own experiences even though they were engaged in network of relationships with the ruling political party with previously mentioned purposes. An unemployed young, who cites the macro economic growth of Turkey, can end up in a very different position at the end of the same speech. Assessments of Osman, aged 26, are inclusive examples in this perspective:

> "Well everyone should accept that the country keeps developing. I mean take a look at the bridges, factories, not so many people had cell phones when I was a child. I mean the economy is alive, you can read it everywhere. Currently, the world turned its eyes on Turkey, is this a lie? Economic growth is trues but not for everyone. They say there are open jobs, yes there are but what kind of jobs are these? The guy tries to find a way to squeeze more. Of course for some there is a crisis all the time. Now it comes to a point of getting tired of this kind of job (restaurent), long working hours.. Work all the time, and the money you get is this…"

Evaluations similar to those made by Osman were made by many other unemployed youngs. In this sense, it is possible to mention both that the political power succeeded in building hegemony and that youngs kept their real experiences in their agenda. From this perspective, ruling party is a target for unemployed youngs with its 'strong appearance'.

Even all policies and the outcomes of these policies of the ruling party are not approved, even the youngs don't really 'believe' in radical changes in their lives, it seems that aligning themselves with the structures in power is a very important for youngs to 'hold on' in terms of work and life strategies. At the same time, the youngs are very aware of the injustices and patronages in local based recruitments and commerce. Even if they don't put it forward clearly, it appears that 'getting inside the circle' is regarded as the best chance for unemployed youngs. It is possible to say that this is the case for a large segment, whose socio-economical and educational opportunities are limited.

Conclusion

In this study, interviews were made with unemployed youngs who applied for trainings in a project on unemployment and increasing employment. The study aimed to lay emphasis on issues such as the meanings of unemployment and employment for youngs, the definition of professions, and working labour relations. In cities of today, which has become the clusters for a machinery-subordination and hegemony (Ceyhan et al, 2017: 110), and this machinery-subordination and hegemony strengthen the effects of market relations in a way they are felt much more deeply. From the point of view of unemployed youngs, their reflexes against the processes of exclusion from 'consumption' and being ignored are more explicit rather than inability to getting a job or being left out of the working-centered narrative. The biggest disturbance of youngs is far beyond of getting a job and working in a 'regular' job for living. In this sense, youngs keep their distance with the idea that 'getting a job' required distinct and special skills. As Standing put forward, "today, it is rare for people to use more than a fraction of their skills or qualifications in a job. 'Credentialism' rules" (2014: 25).

Of course it is possible to argue that to what extent this reflects in reality or that if there are fundemental differences from the past but it is clear, from the interviews with unemployed youngs, that they approve this view today. This partly explains the limited applications to vocational courses. Çiftlikköy, which is a rapid growing area and where it is possible to observe both industrial, agricultural and service sectors at the same time, stands out as an important junction in order to understand the unemployment of youth in our day. The limited desire in employment in industrial and agricultural sectors is not a case that can only be measures in terms of qualitative data. It is, however, a remarkable data. In a crossroads settlement like Çiftlikköy, where the urban features become influential, it is very interesting that youngs stay away from agricultural jobs and especially ship building sector even though they have the opportunity to earn much more money

in these sectors. The outcome here is often reflected in the thoughts and expressions of employers and upper classes that can be best summarized with their own words as 'the youngs do not like (turn their nose to) the jobs'. At this point, it should be noted that youngs assess the issue by considering the negative and positive sides. The issue can not simply be reduced into the tendency to 'liking or disliking a job'. There's need for much more studies in this area. Finally, it may be stated that there's an urgent need for more comprehensive projects aiming at increasing women employment. In fact, wider policies are needed in order to put these projects into practice. Figures for women's employment are not comparable to developed countries. It is also clear that women should be supported more in the light of the data from the context of the research. Because women face a lot more than just widely known difficulties in labour market when they try to take part in the processes of employment.

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8 | The Right Strikes That Occurred in Turkey Between the Years of 1963-1980

Mevsim Çağla CENGİZ

Introduction

With the collective labour agreement (CLA), the working conditions are determined by the joint decision of the employer and the employee, so this agreement has a very important role in regulating the relations of the two sides. But sometimes, in the process of the creation or implementation of the collective agreement, disputes between the sides occur. In disputes arising between the employer and the employee, the sides refer to the solutions specified in the relevant law.

The strike is a very effective way of resolving disputes, which is given to the workers in the Law and used by the workers. However, the Laws enacted at different times limit the right of workers to strike in different ways. For example, between 1963 and 1980, workers could strike because of violations of the their rights or disagreement with the employer during the collective labour agreement, but after 1980, workers can only go on strike if they can not reach an agreement with the employer during the collective labour agreement.

The main purpose of this work is to examine the strikes that occurred between 1963 and 1980, as a result of the employer's breach of rights. In this respect, Firstly collective labour agreement has been discussed, then collective labour disputes have been mentioned. There are 2 methods to resolve the disputes of the CLA, namely ''peaceful'' and ''

combative ''. First of all, in the study, it has been mentioned briefly about the ways of peaceful solution, then the combative solution ways have examined in more detail. In case of a dispute between the employee and the employer in the process of forming a collective labour agreement, the employee may strike in accordance with the present law. After the strike decision is taken, the employer may apply for a lockout. The purpose of the work is to reveal the right strikes that took place between 1963 and 1980, so in this study, only strike cases have been included in the combative solution ways. Therefore, the lockout case is excluded from the scope of the study.

Then, our study was evaluated under 4 titles. In the first titles, examples of the right strike that took place in the period before 1963 are included. But in this titles, the strikes only between 1947 and 1963 were examined. In this period, Because it is difficult to reach full knowledge of the strikes that took place before 1963, and the Law on Trade Unions entered into force in 1947. It is even forbidden for workers to benefit strike. Then, Kavel Grevi, as a right strike, has examined. The reason why Kavel Grevi has examined separately from other strikes is that this strike took place not only in the period when the strike had no legal basis but also in the literature that this strike had a significant effect on the workers to obtain strike. After the examination of Kavel Strike, 10 different the right strike cases between 1963 and 1980, which constitute the main theme of the study, have examined. As mentioned, there is legal validity for the right strike in Turkish Law only during the specified years. Since it is not easy to reach the information about the right strikes that were carried out in this period, only the strikes that can be detected have been examined in this section. Moreover, actions similar to the right strike, which took place between 1963 and 1980, but which are mentioned in the literature as occupation and action, have been excluded from the scope of this study. In the post-1980 period, when the right strike is prohibited under the relevant law, the right strikes are expressed in the form of "right actions" in the literature. In this respect, according to the subject matter of the study, the right actions that can be detected have been examined and the study has been concluded.

Collective Labour Disputes and Solutions to These Disputes in Turkish Law

At the basis of labour law, employee-employer relations are determined individually by service contract. But with the emergence of trade unions and the strengthening of these unions against the employer over time, there have been some developments. The most important of these developments is that business conditions can now be created collectively in the workplace (enterprises). In this direction, the collective labour

agreement is a "contract" that determines the worker-employer relations and the working conditions at the collective level (collectively) (Akyiğit, 2015: 489-490).

Collective labour agreement (CLA), is given as the rights of employees and employers in general. The boundaries of benefiting from the collective labour agreement may be determined by different measures from country to country. State systems, state ideologies, and attitudes of political power determine what this limit will be. (Aktay ve etc., 2007: 390-391).

According to the Law No. 6356 on Trade Unions and Collective Labour Agreements in our country, the collective labour agreement is made between the labour union and the employer union or the employer who is not a member of the union (Art. 2 of 6356).[36]

The Law of Obligations No. 818, adopted in 1926 and implemented until 01.07.2012, contained an arrangement called "general contract". Although this contract has some differences with present CLA, it is considered as a CLA if the original of the Swiss Law is examined. However, due to these differences, in the period of the Collective Labour Agremeent, Strikes and Lockout Laws of 275 and 2822, the provisions of the general contract have been abolished (Akyiğit, 2015: 492).

The first Trade Union Law entered into force on 1947. This law numbered 5018 gives the right to make a general contract on behalf of union members (Art. 4 of 5018). CLA was initially recognized as a right for workers and employers in the 61 Constitution (Art. 47). The Collective Labour Agreement, Strike and Lock-out Law No. 275, which entered into force in 63, gave a legal basis to this right by including to CLA. The 1982 Constitution, which was later adopted, also included CLA. Then, in the Law no. 2822 published in 1983, provisions related to CLA are included. Finally, with the date of 07/11/2012, Law no. 2822 was abolished and the Law No. 6356 on Unions and Collective Labour Agreements was accepted.[37]

If collective labour agreement negotiations between labour organizations and employers organizations or employers acting alone do not result in a contract, collective labour dispute will occur (Savaş and Tuncay, 2013: 287).

36 The said law entered into force on 18/10/2012.
37 This law is still in force.

In collective labour disputes, there is always a workers' community on the workers' side and only employers' or employers' groups on the employers' side (Kabakcı, 2004: 15).

Collective labour disputes can be resolved through peaceful ways as well as combative ways. Reconciliation, mediation, voluntary or compulsory arbitration are the peaceful ways that have been or are still used in Turkish law. According to the related law, after each of the peaceful methods is concluded, if the sides can not reach an agreement between themselves, they are resorted to combative solutions to resolve the dispute.

Peaceful Solution Ways

In order to be able to reach an agreement during the making of the collective labour agreement when there is no consensus between the sides, it is necessary to first try peaceful solutions in Turkish Law. For example, the '' reconciliation '' method, which was included in the Collective Labour Agreement Strike and Lockout Law No. 275 and later abolished, is one of the ways of peaceful solution. After the adoption of the 82 Constitution, the mediation system was introduced instead of the reconciliation method. According to the Law No. 6356, it is necessary to pass through the stage of mediator before applying for the combative solution ways.

Another way to resolve collective labour disputes peacefully is to arbitrate. In order to be able to go to a special arbitrate, the sides must have decided in advance between themselves that they will fit in the decision to be made by the arbitrator in case of disagreement. If it is necessary to go to arbitrator for the reasons stated in the law, this is a legal arbitration (Çelik, 1973:599).

Combative Solution Ways

Strikes and lockouts are the most basic of the combative solution ways. The strike is to stop collective work in the workplace, or to cut off the work in the workplace, in accordance with the workers' own initiatives, or with the union's decision. Lockout is a remove workers collectively from work by employers or employers' unions (Savaş and Tuncay, 2013: 287). As it can be understood from the definition, the lockout right is given to the employers and the strike right is given to the workers.

The strike word actually came to Turkish from the word "La Grevé". Grevé is the name of a plaza in the French city of Paris, and it means 'field, square, desert'. In order to counter the severe labour conditions that arise as a consequence of the capitalist system that occured in the 1800s, workers left the workplace collectively and went to the Grevé

plaza where the unemployed were gathered and followed what was happening in their workplaces. This action was a threat to employers. Later, these events were legalized and the strike became a right. (Andaç, 2008: 318).

The way workers struggle through trade unions representing themselves is called strike. In this way, workers create economic pressure on the employer and try to conclude the collective labour dispute in their favor (Gülver and Fevzi, 2013).

The aim of the workers to strike is to create economic pressure on the employer. This pressure can usually be done not by an individual but by the joint action of multiple workers (Narmanlıoğlu, 2013: 556).

In Turkish Law, the right to strike first came to constitutional protection with the 1961 Constitution (Reisoğlu, 1986: 239). The use and conditions of this right were arranged together with the Law No. 275 issued in 1963. According to Article 17 of this Law;

> ''The expression "strike" means any concerted cessation by workers of their work or line of business with the object of halting the activities of a given establishment or of paralysing such activities to a considerable extent, or any abandonment by workers of their work in accordance with a decision taken to that effect by an organisation.In the relations of workers with employers, lawful strike means any strike called by workers in accordance with this law with the object of safeguarding or improving their economic and social position, A strike done outside of this purpose or in violation of the provisions of this law is called an illegal strike''.

With the 1982 Constitution, the strike continued to be held under constitutional guarantees. With the Law No. 2822 issued in 1983, the limits of the right to strike was regulated. The Law on Trade Unions and Collective Labour Agreements numbered 6356 issued in 2012 is the most recent law that regulates the right to strike and is still in force. However, despite the fact that Laws No. 2822 and 6356 have similar provisions with Law No. 275, the lawful strike in these Acts is defined differently. These Laws, unlike Law No. 275, define the lawful strike as follows:

> ''Lawful strike means any strike called by workers in accordance with this law with the object of safeguarding or improving their economic and social position and working conditions, in the event of a dispute during negotiations to conclude a collective labour agreement.''.

As it can be understood from the definitions, all of the reasons in Laws 2822 and 6356 that allow the strike have not been included in the 275 number.

Law No. 275 of 1963 provides the possibility of strike for collective rights disputes based on the present collective labour agreement or the alleged violation of the rights arising from the legislation. (Güzel, 2016: 28). 2822 and 6356, the strike to be done is only valid in cases where there are conflicts of benefit during the collective labour agreement. There are different opinions on this subject, but before conveying the views, it would be more appropriate to define the concepts of the benefit and right disputes.

if workers' communities are willing to reorganize their working conditions and the amount of wages, the employer does not accept them, and there is benefit dispute. (Esener, 1978: 543). If the employer fails to comply with the rules in the present law or collective agreement or if rules or laws can not be applied or interpreted as required, the collective rights dispute will arise (Tunçomağ, 1980: 180).

Disputes arising for the purpose of changing an existing right, or of bringing a new right into action, are called disputes of benefit. For example, disputes arising for the purpose of raising workers' wages are conflicts of benefit(Başbuğ, 2012: 210).

A right dispute occurs when one of the sides in the business relations violate the rights granted to the other side by means of different means such as legislation, collective labour agreement or employment contract. This violation can be in the form of misinterpretation, incomplete or no application. An example of the disputes can be cited; employer pays less than the amount specified in the Act to worker who has terminated the employment contract, does not comply with the weekly working hours stated in the collective agreement and harms the worker's machine. (Kabakcı, 2004: 10).

As can be seen, the disagreements between the employee and the employer can be classified as benefit and right. As already mentioned, according to the existing law, the strike can only be made in cases where there is a benefit dispute between the employee and the employer. But according to some writers, there are no obstacles to strike in cases where there is a conflict of benefit:

> " As it is known, the Constitution, as a rule, shows the basic rights and duties of the individuals against the state; it secures them. The goal is not to create a ban on constitutional rights. In the 1982 Constitution, which gives the impression that such a misunderstanding prevails in its preparation but there is no article that the

right strike can not be made. The 1982 Constitution did not guarantee the right strike; the fact that such a strike is not mentioned in the law does not mean that this strike is contrary to the Constitution " (Taşkent, 1987: 214).

Different opinions were expressed by the authors on the lack of a right strike in the Constitution, According to some authors, right strike should not be done already, whereas according to other authors, it is advantageous for workers to right strike and this strike should be made a right in the Constitution.

The legislation has completely closed the strike way in the solution of the disput. In the resolution of such disputes, the competent authority is the labour courts. Recognizing that labour courts may be sufficient in these matters brings to mind the question of whether a collective labour agreement is necessary. Almost all countries where trade union freedom has shown particular progress have been seen in the historical process in which the judiciary's path can not provide a socially satisfying outcome. For this reason, the principle of adopting the right of strike to solve the problems of the parties in the countries by using the sanctioning power among them has been adopted (Işıklı, 2013: 290).

Strikes and lockouts, which are seen as a means of oppression, are not a valid way to be considered in the right disputes that can be resolved by the judiciary. Resolving the rights dispute with economic pressure does not prove that the winner is right. For example, the fact that workers lose their struggle despite being right, shows their lack of economic strength, not their unfairness. Maybe later the court will say that the party is right, so the party should not be infringed unfairly. The absence of anything to compensate for the damage that may occur at the end of the strike is not legal idea (Günay, 1995: 21).

If the rights disputes are revealed even when a right is not violated, the application area becomes inseparable from the confusion. This situation, which will provoke the malevolent, causes the public order to deteriorate. (Gümüş, 1972: 192). We think that lawmakers also thought that the right strike would be disadvantageous, so that in the case of disputes between workers and employers, labour only use the judicial way.

In our law, the right strike can not be done because the collective bargaining agreement can not be implemented properly. In such cases, the only way to apply is to go to trial if there is an arbitration clause and an arbitration agreement, otherwise action for performance at labour court. (Sur, 2011: 353).

Right Strikes in Turkey

Right Strikes in Turkey before 1963

Workers' movements always continued from the Ottoman Empire to the establishment of the Republic of Turkey and from the Republic to the present day. For over a century, workers have came together with trade unions and associations to seek solutions to their current troubles through modern strikes, demonstrations and walks to correct their working and living conditions. But as in other countries, workers' movements were first prevented and prohibited in Turkey. However, despite the obstacles and prohibitions, the workers did not refrain from carrying out the actions. Actions, however, do not conform to the definition of today's strike. The prior actions have been expressed in terms of "leaving work" and "leaving service". After the actions in 1908 were expressed with the words "strike" in the beginning, the strike word first appeared in a legal document with the 1936 Labour Act (Güzel, 2016: 24-25).

After 1932, changes in economic policies did not bring much to the workers, nor to organization, nor to rights. Workers who cut their hopes on the other rights were more resistant to the enactment of the Labour Code. As a result of the increasing reaction of the workers, the government finally started to work for the removal of the Labour Act. After these developments, the Labour Act came out in 1936. But the Labour Code, above all, did not recognize workers' rights to organize, collective action, and strike and lockout (Çeçen, 1973: 16-17).

The Labour Code, which was issued in 1936, entered into force in 1937. This law adopts the mandatory arbitration institution in the labour union disputes, which has never mentioned the union, prohibited the strike (Güzel, 2016: 135).

The Labour Code did not make any arrangements regarding trade unions. The Law of the Societies, issued in 1938, has a law prohibiting the establishment of society based on the class or the name. With this feature, the law has given a legal character to the actual union ban in the single party period. The provision on the prohibition was abolished in 1946. Thus, the establishment of trade unions became possible. With the law numbered 5018 issued in 1947, a new turn was introduced. (Makal, 2011: 270-271).

The strike ban is being pursued by the Law on Trade Unions. But the prohibition of the strike does not mean that it has never been done. Despite the ban, there have been some strike and similar events in the years following 1946 (Güzel, 2016: 555b). Between 1946

and 1960, as mentioned, it is not a legal act to strike. Therefore, for this reason it is very difficult to reach the full knowledge of the strikes in this period. However, according to the information obtained, a great majority of the strikes in the period when it is forbidden to do this action are a right strike. According to the information obtained from the sources, the information of the rights strikes in this period was passed through in order.[38]

Workers and employees of Bakirkoy Adil Kıraç Plant ceased to work on 6 October 1952 due to the fact that the factory owner did not comply with the decision of the Supreme Arbitration Board and did not pay the wages. Following this incident, the Regional Directorate intervened. (Makal, 2011: 298).

In 1952, a strike took place in the 5th Regional Directorate of Highways in Mersin. 360 workers working in partnership with the contractor firm Güney Construction Limited have ceased to work collectively because of the non-payment of 45 thousand liras since 27 September. The Regional Directorate has made arrangements for paying part of the worker's receivables by seizing the contractor's headquarters and paying the remaining part of the contractor's equipment and materials for sale (Makal, 2011: 304).

Authorities of Santral Textile Plant in Yedikule, Istanbul on 26 April 1954, applied to the gendarmerie and police for the workers' strike in the workplace. In response to this action, the workers' representatives also claimed that the employer made a lockout. The workers declared that they did not strike and they were at work and expressing that the employer did not comply with the committed things (Makal, 2011: 298).

A group of 38 workers who worked in the Adana Sümerbank Gin Factory and went to work at noon 4, went on strike on 16 September 1955. The reasons for striking were that the wages were not given. The factory administration could not stop the strike. For this reason, the police were informed about the situation and the police who came to the scene threw 3 workers they saw as ringleaders (Makal, 2011: 298).

On March 2, 1956, about 300 workers who claimed that 3 months' wages were not paid in the Söke Cement Factory have ceased to work collectively. No one but a few drivers

[38] The full information about the right strikes that took place between 1946 and 1960 was obtained from Makal's book "Amele'den İşçiye Erken Cumhuriyet Dönemi Emek Tarihi Çalışmaları". Makal's sources of information are the various newspapers published during the period.

and engineers stayed in the factory. Aydin Governor and Aydin and Söke prosecutors have said that there is no notice reported to them (Makal, 2011: 300).

The workers' movements that lived in the early 1960s did not show a mature character. In the 1960s, the working class rapidly became a massive force and took place in the social struggle, especially thanks to the relatively liberty environment created by the 1961 Constitution. The working class began to move in 1961. 61 of the Constitution, gave unions the right to strike and collective bargaining. The working class expressed their wishes in this direction through various meetings, rallies and silent walks (Yaraşır, 2006: 53-54). In this period, the strike is already a constitutional right known to the workers. There is no doubt that kavel strike is at the forefront of the actions that allow the law to be regulated.

Workers came together while the laws of 1963 were discussed in Parliament. Organization of workers was effective in the preparation of laws. For all these reasons Kavel Strike is an important strike. (Güzel, 2016: 196a). The Kavel Strike happened in the period when it was forbidden to strike in the Law, and this strike is a right strike by nature. For these reasons, it would be appropriate to assess this strike under a separate heading.

Kavel Strike as a Right Strike

The strike, for a part of the unions established in 1947 which do not have the right to strike, is a right that must have absolute importance. Unions seeking to have the right to strike began to demand this right since 1950, with the meetings they organized and the campaign. After the right to strike was laid in the Constitution in 1961, the unions continued to find other demands. '' As soon as gain a legal right to strike '' and '' uninterrupted strike '' were the wishes of the unions. During this period, workers performed various actions. There were also Kavel workers who voiced that the right to strike should be recognized as soon as possible (Aydın, 2010: 14).

Resistance of the Kavel cable workers for 5 weeks is an opportunity to add a significant circle to labour movements and strike campaigns that are rapidly developing in Turkey (Güzel, 2016: 197a). 220 workers from Maden- İş (Turkey Mine Workers Union) strike in KAVEL Cable and Electric Material Company Limited in the first month of 1963 (Aydın, 2010: 5). The strike was born because the employer had delayed paying the annual bonus (Güzel, 2016:197a). On the first day of the action, the employer took out 10 workers. Workers who have gone out of business continue to carry on their actions

(Yaraşır, 2006: 55). Despite the declaration of strike, the employer did not want to discuss the strikeers and declared Lockout on 9 February 1963 (Güzel, 2016:197a). In the course of the strike, there were also cases of working class solidarity (Yaraşır, 2006:55). Maden-İş and Lastik-İş (Turkey Petroleum, Chemical And Rubber Workers Union) have formed a "Solidarity Association" with the help of strikers. In this direction, aid of 100 thousand TL was collected to strikers (Güzel, 2016: 198a).

All the workers quit in that period attracted the attention of everyone (Çeçen, 1973: 64). Conflicts between the strikers and the police continued. However, on February 2, 1963, a compromise was reached through the Prime Minister's Assistant and the Minister of Labour, and a protocol was signed on 4 March. On this result, workers began to work on March 5 (Güzel, 2016: 198a). As a result the strike lasted 36 days (Aydın, 2010: 5).

This strike has a very special place in the working class history of Turkey. These elements make greetings important; the strike took place when there was no regulation on how to use the right to strike recognized by the 1961 Constitution to workers and the strike is also an unlawful strike, as it happened when the Labour Act prohibits strikes (Aydın, 2010: 5).

The success of Kavel Strike, the first strike after May 27th, set an example for other workers. As a result of a long wait, finally the imperative provisions of the Constitution were followed and in June 1963 the law on the strike, trade unions and collective labour agreements came out of parliament (Çeçen, 1973: 65).

Kavel Strike lasted for 36 days, is right strike. This strike as a narrow-minded is a right strike because workers are strikes that have been launched upon the non-payment of the prizes. This strike has not been done directly for strike law, but it is a right strike in broad sense, because right is claimed by action. This strike has gained a different meaning beyond just being a strike, and its influence has passed through its dimensions. As an application, it is a "unlawful" strike. Through the strike, both the right to the Constitutional strike was recognized and the social support was received, so the strike is lawful (Aydın, 2010: 151).

Right Strikes Between 1963 and 1980 in Turkey

As a result of the insistent demands and challenges of workers from 1961 to 1963 and in addition to this, in accordance with provisional Article 7 of the 1961 Constitution, the Law on Trade Unions and the Collective Labour Agreement, Strike and Lockout Law,

which were ordered to be issued "within two years at the latest" has been accepted. This Act was published on July 24, 1963 and entered into force on the same day (Güzel, 2016: 198a).

After July 1963, trade union movements seem to have increased. These movements are happening mostly in private sector enterprises and large workplaces where workers are concentrated. After the enactment of Law No. 275, nearly 10 strikes were made in the same year. Turkish trade unionism entered in 1964 with increasing number of strike incidents (Çeçen, 1973: 78).

The 10 years period between May 27, 1960 and March 12, 1971 represents a new period full of experience and achievement in terms of workers' organization (Güzel,2016: 225a). According to information from existing sources reached there is an increase in the number of right strikes between these dates. Named Kozlu, Adana Municipality Bus Operator, Grand Efes Hotel, Tarsus Textile Painting Factory, Adana Apartment Concierge, Fishermen on the Iskenderun Harbor, THY, Manisa Municipality, Bolu Municipality, USAŞ are the 10 strikes that can be detected after 1964, and the information of these strikes in our work was passed in the order of history. Right actions such as occupation and resistance in literature like Iron Casting, Alpagut, Gamak, Surgurlar and Günterm Kazan Factory are excluded from our work.

Kozlu Strike 1965[39]

After the 1908 strikes of the history of Turkish trade unionism, the most violent and bloody incidents occurred in the morning of 10 March 1965. The events started with resistance to descend into the wells of the 1500 mine worker in the Gelik coal mine connected to the Ereğli Coal Enterprise. In the early days of the resistance, workers were killed as a result of the clashes between the workers and the security forces. As a result, Turkish union movement gave its first dead after 60 years. (Çeçen, 1973: 90).

There are many reasons to push the underground workers of Zonguldak district quarries. Lastly, the accumulation of tension of years has reached the highest level during the distribution of the 6.5 million merit hike. On the first day of the events, approximately 1,500 workers did not go coal mines on the grounds that worker merit raises were not properly distributed in Gelik. At the same time, these workers did not let put in those

[39] Kozlu Strike is also referred to as "Zonguldak Strike", "Kozlu Events".

who wanted to work, and they fired to trade union leaders who wanted to calm the upheaval (Çeçen, 1973: 90-91).

The events also spread to the Karadon, Kilimli and Çaydamarı quarries, and the strike movement expanded. The workers in the Kozlu region have thrown stones at the police and the gendarmes, in return, the police opened fire and 2 workers died. After the hearings of deaths in Ankara, the Council of Ministers was invited to an extraordinary meeting (Çeçen, 1973: 91-92).

Workers who opposed the ministers at the scene demanded the release of detained unionists and the inclusion of all workers in the merit review. After the explanations of business executives and ministers, the tension that the events had created ceased. On the day of March 14, the workers began to descend into the well. Workers started to work on saying that the members of the government were saying that the opinions of the workers would be taken in the distribution of the merit premiums (Çeçen, 1973: 92).

Adana Municipality Bus Operator Strike 1966

August 4, 1966, Adana municipality bus workers began to strike. The reason for the strike was that the incentive premiums arising from collective bargaining were not paid for 70 workers working in the Adana Municipality Bus Company where the TÜMTİS Union (All Transport Workers Union) affiliated to Türk-İş is organized. The city manager expressed that the premiums will be paid when the bus operator makes a profit. This strike was also supported by other unions. As the strike continued, the union issued a declaration explaining the reasons for the action and distributed this statement to citizens waiting in the downturn. At the same time while continuing to strike the municipality has made a statement that bus operation is in detriment and that it will be abandoned. The union reacted to these explanations and demanded that the municipal businesses operate themselves. After a 35 day strike, on 10 September 1966 the municipality accepted all the demands of the union and the strike ended (Türkiye Sendikacılık Ansiklopedisi[40] (AUT) 1, 1998: 6).

Grand Efes Hotel Strike 1969

436 workers working in İzmir's Great Efes Hotel had a strike on 19 July 1969 due to the non-payment of holiday ticket and overtime pay. TOLEYİS (Turkey's Hotel Restaurant and Entertainment Workers Trade Union) Union Chairman stated that the decision of

[40]Ansikpoledi Of Unionism Turkey.

the Izmir Labour Court against the strike had been broken by the Court of Cassation and that the strike had begun for this reason. On the first day of the strike, the workers visited the general manager and gave a bouquet of flowers with the book of the Constitutional booklet. On the third day of the strike, the union officials stated that the Pension Fund had suffered because of the tourism season. A protocol was signed between the parties on July 20th (AUT 1, 1998: 203). The strike ended on July 29, 1969.[41]

The period that started with the May 27, 1960 coup and lasted until the March 12, 1971, was filled with many gains and experiences in terms of workers' organization (Güzel, 2016:225a). After March 12, 1971, on the martial law announced on April 24, 1971, the strike and workers' actions were suspended until the end of 1973. However, after this date, it has gained vitality again (Güzel, 2016: 240a).

Tarsus Textile Painting Factory Strike 1975

On September 23, 1975, the workers started to strike in the Tarsus Textile Paintings Factory. The reason for the strike of 248 workers working in the workplace where the Petrol-İş Union affiliated to Türk-İş (Confederation of Labour Unions of Turkey) is organized is that the employer does not pay the wages and premiums and does not comply with the provisions of the collective bargaining agreement. On December 11, 1975, the workers started a march from Tarsus to Mersin to protest the employer's irreconcilable stance. This march was supported by Sumerbank factory workers. Meanwhile, İçel Governorate prevented workers from entering Mersin. Workers protest the employer by organizing a rally at Mersin entrance. On February 18, 1976, the strike ended with the parties' agreement (AUT 3, 1998: 159).

Adana Apartment Concierge Strike 1975

The strikes began on 5 and 22 November 1975 in some apartments in Adana. The Akasya Apartment Administrators refused to make collective agreements with the independent Kapı-İş Trade Union42. Upon this, 2 concierge working in the apartment started to strike on 5th of November. On November 22, the janitors began to strike in some apartments where the Kapı-İş Union was organized. Not to have a collective contract,

[41]See the news of Milliyet Newspaper dated: 30.07.1969 http://gazetearsivi.milliyet.com.tr/Ara.aspx?&ilkTar=30.07.1969&sonTar=30.07.1969&ekYayin=&drpSayfaNo=&araKelime=efes%20oteli%20grevi&gelismisKelimeAynen=&gelismisKelimeHerhangi=&gelismisKelimeYakin=&gelismisKelimeHaric=&Siralama=RANK%20DESC&SayfaAdet=20&isAdv=true.

[42]Union, representing apartment workers.

and not to pay too much for the reasons why the janitors are striking. After the start of the strike, Çınar Apartment managers of 36 apartments claimed that the strike was illegal and applied to the Labour Court. The court also took a decision to stop the strike on the grounds that the union did not fulfill certain legal provisions and ended the strike (AUT 1, 1998: 4).

Fishermen on the Iskenderun Harbor strike 1976

On July 6, 1976 workers working in 30 heavy-duty fishing engines connected to Iskenderun Port were on strike. The reason for the strike by the 200 members of the Devrimci Toprak-İş Union[43] affiliated to DİSK (Confederation of Progressive Trade Unions of Turkey) working on the boats was that they could not benefit from the social rights recognized to them. Striking workers have expressed that their employer's company is monopolized in the environment. In addition, the workers stated that they did not have social security, they worked on holidays and other special days. On September 13, 1976, the 2nd Civil Court of İskenderun ended the strike on the grounds that the settlement notification made by the Adana Regional Labour Directorate did not reach the employers on time (AUT 2,1998: 50).

THY Strike 1977

On February 3, 1977[44], the strike, which was regarded as Turkey's first right strike, was conducted in the establishments connected to Turkish Airlines. The reason why the air business union affiliated to Türk-İş, which is organized in THY (Turkish Airlines) establishments, made a striking decision on 4 January was that the employer did not apply 57 items of the current 6th period collective bargaining agreement. After this decision, the Cabinet of Ministers decided to postpone the strike.

Afterwards, the union applied to the Council of State and as a result of application, it was also decided to stop the execution. Negotiations between Hava-İş (Turkey Civil Aviation Union) and the employer did not give a positive result and the strike started. Bakırköy Labour Court took a decision to stop the strike for 15 days on the 5th day of the strike. But the union did not accept the decision and continued to strike. The Cabinet then

[43] Some trade unions do not continue their actions today. For this reason it is difficult to find out what some shortened union names are. Those who have not been able to access their knowledge have been quoted in abbreviated form at the source. Some names have also been transmitted with their today's names.

[44] See the news of Milliyet Newspaper dated 03.02.1977 http://gazetearsivi.milliyet.com.tr/GununYayinlari/KTTc9TKS0UE55LnWzPhSnQ_x3D__x3D_

decided to postpone the second time (AUT 3, 1998: 223). The strike ended on 9 February 1977[45].

Manisa Municipality Strike 1979

340 workers working in the Cleaning, Science and Bus Business establishments of the Manisa Municipality, which is organized by Genel-İş Trade Union (Turkey General Services Workers Union) affiliated to DISK, made a right strike on 5 January 1979. The reason for the strike was that the rights arising from the collective bargaining agreement were not paid. This strike was seen illegally by municipal authorities. The mayor of Manisa voiced a statement that on January 28, 150 workers were removed from the workplace through lock-outs and the work they were doing now would be given to the contractors by auction. The dispute was resolved with the contract signed on February 2, 1979 and the strike and lockout practices were discontinued (AUT 2, 1998: 343).

Bolu Municipality Strike 1979

In March 1, 1979, 210 workers from the General Business Union affiliated to DİSK held a strike in Bolu Municipality. The reason for workers to strike was that they could not get their rights arising from the collective bargaining agreement. General Trade Union Sakarya Branch President and the union representative of the striking workplace stated that they had reached an agreement with the municipal authorities on April 4th. A new contract will be signed for the ending collective bargaining agreement. In addition, it is stated that the wages of the workers will be raised in certain amounts during the first and second years (AUT 1, 1998: 187). The strike ended in 16.07.1979[46].

USAŞ Strike 1979

On May 18, 1979, a strike was launched at Aircraft Service AŞ[47] (USAŞ), located in Istanbul Yeşilköy Airport. The reason for the 450 employees who work in the establishments where the Hava-İş Union affiliated to Türk-İş is organized is that the provisions of the collective bargaining did not apply. USAŞ, where 6,700 workers were

[45]See the news of Milliyet Newspaper dated: 10.02.1977: http://gazetearsivi.milliyet.com.tr/GununYayinlari/YNru6qNp_x2B_MrN6t4QD_x2F_O7Gw_x3D__x3D_

[46]The information that the strike was completed on the date indicated was reached from the book "SAFRANBOLUDA BİR ZAMAN BİR BAŞKAN 1974-1980" of Kızıltan Ulukavak (page 369). The parts of the book are on the author's personal website. Look at the web address of the section where the quotation was made: http://www.ulukavak.net/PDF_1/31.pdf

[47] Incorpareted company

working, provided catering, welcome and ground services to 73 foreign aircraft companies in Istanbul, Ankara and İzmir. The statement made by the union stated that the provisions of the collective labour agreement signed on 6 August 1978 were not implemented by the employer. It was also stated that problems related to service, child welfare, worker health, work safety and working conditions were not solved by the employer. The strike ended on May 25th with an agreement between the union and the employer (AUT 3, 1998: 447).

Right Actions That Occurred After 1980 In Turkey

The Constitution of 1982, in the 54th article entitled "Strike and Lockout", stated the principles on strike. The right to strike has been included in the Constitution but there are many limitations on this right. The workers have the right to strike according to this Constitution, but they have this right in case of disagreement during the making of the collective labour contract. Therefore, it is forbidden for workers to strike when employers are not complied with the contract, namely according to in the doctrine, workers are banned from right strike (Güzel, 2016: 278a). After 1982, because of the prohibition of right strike, workers performed various actions similar to the right strike in the name of rights actions. The right actions that have taken place after this period and which can be determined and are important are as follows.[48]

General Job Release Action

The Democracy Platform, in which Türk-İş, DİSK, Hak-İş (Hak Workers 'Unıon Confederatıon) Public Employees Trade Union Platform and a number of mass organizations took place, carrying out a one-day general job release action on 20 July 1994. The heavy burden of the April 5 Resolutions and the fact that differences arising from the contract of 1993, the government did not want to overpayment for public sector workers caused the trade unions and workers to react to this situation (AUT 1, 1998: 451).

At the meeting between Türk-İş and the Council of Ministers held on 28 June, the issue of inflation differences in accordance with the collective bargaining agreement that had to be paid, unpaid prizes and job cuts were agenda. On June 7, the government found a proposal to 600,000 public workers aiming to extend the working hours of temporary

[48] At the source of the examples of right actions, these actions are not expressed as " rights actions ". When the processes are examined, we realize that the actual actions are " right action ".

works instead of paying the price hikes, thereby preventing workers from leaving (AUT 1, 1998: 451).

While some developments were taking place, the Platform for Democracy was convened on July 19, and it was decided that on July 20, one day, a general job cut-off would be held to protest the government's stance. This act was attended by thousands of workers and officers working in various kinds of Turkey. Due to the action, production stopped in many factories and could not be serviced in many business lines. Due to the action, the speaker of the Turkish Grand National Assembly (TBMM) said in a statement that "Do not oppose the right seeking activities of employees within democratic boundaries". On September 12, an agreement was reached between Türk-İş and the government. According to this agreement, the workers' 4th and 5th wage differentials will be paid as monthly bills after 6 months from the date of payment, and to employees signing a commitment that interest will not be paid (AUT 1, 1998: 452).

The Act Of Burning Clothes Of Workers Working in Meat And Fish Institution

In İstanbul Zeytinburnu Meat and Fish Institute, on 28 September 1992, the action of burning clothes was performed. The reason for the actions of workers in Meat And Fish Institution that been organized Öz Gıda-İş, which is affiliated to Hak-İş, that the employer did not comply with some provisions of the collective bargaining agreement. Workers expressed that the General Directorate had an arbitrary attitude. Workers have stated that the employer have one-sided violated the clause "the purchase of clothes is determined by consensus reached by the employer and the union" of the collective labour agreement signed last year. Öz Gıda-İş General Education Secretary stated that this behavior of the employer should be sought for other purposes (AUT 1, 1998: 414).

The Actions Of Gaziosmanpaşa Municipality Workers

Workers of İstanbul Gaziosmanpaşa Municipality were involved in a number of protest actions on 21 January 1993. In the Gaziosmanpaşa Municipality where the Municipality Business Union affiliated to Türk-İş is organized, the reasons for leaving work for 350 workers were 3 months wages, social rights and wage differences arising from collective bargaining. Other municipal workers participated in the workers who acted. Approximately 3,000 people walked up to Gaziosmanpaşa Municipality (AUT 1, 1998:436).

On February 1, 162 workers were thrown out of work. On April 8, union branch managers and representatives protesting that 950 municipal workers can not receive salaries for 3 months began a hunger strike in front of the municipal building. The workers continued the hunger strikes alternately and gathered in the morning of April 28 to go to the public prosecutor's office for criminal charges (AUT 1, 1998: 436).

Workers were on leave on 1 September because they could not get their 3-month salaries, bonuses and collective bargaining differences. As a result, the receivables of Gaziosmanpaşa municipal workers have been paid in small quantities at certain times (AUT 1, 1998: 437).

Conclusion

The collective labour agreement is a very important right recognized to workers and employers, which ensures that the employee has a significant advantage over the employer. But at any given time, the process of setting up or implementing collective labour agreements is not in favor of workers. Employers generally do not accept workers' requests during negotiations, or do not comply with items created by compromise of 2 sides at the time frame after the agreement. In such cases, the relevant law has recognised the right of workers to go on strike. But the acquisition of this right is not easy for the workers, and the acquisition requires a long time and effort.

Even in the absence of constitutional assurances of strikes, workers have made various strikes and similar actions to seek their rights against the employer. The strikes in this period are usually due to the fact that the employer does not pay the workers' wages. Kavel Strike, which is a serious impact on the legalization of the right to strike, and a right strike for the employer's failure to give Christmas bonuses to workers, is the most important act of the time. Finally, under the influence of the workers' work and the Kavel strike, in the 1961 Constitution strike was given, and in the year 63 the relevant law was enacted. In this Law, 2 strikes were allowed to be made by workers without discrimination on the benefit and right strike. As mentioned earlier, in short, the benefit right is made when the employer and the employer can not agree on the collective bargaining agreement during the negotiations, the right strike is only made when the employer acts against the collective labour agreement or the items in the legislation. The intention of the worker to benefit strike is to obtain a right against the employer, and in the right strike, the worker takes action to recover the right already provided to him. But, in more detail as we have already mentioned in the previous section, the right strike has not been

included in the 81 Constitution. In other words, there is legal validity between 63 and 80 years for making a right strike. For this reason, although there were various right strikes before 63 and after 80, the number of right strikes were between 63 and 80 years at most.

In this period, workers made right strike especially for the reasons that the employer does not obey the provisions of the collective bargaining agreement, the overtime pay is not paid, the social benefits granted to them are not given to them and the wages they are entitled to are not given by the employer. In some workplaces there is only one reason for the strike, while in others there are many reasons. It was also found that some of the strikes made between the years 63-80 were also supported by other workplaces. The Kozlu events have taken place in this period and perhaps the most significant right strike. This strike distinguishes it from other strikes; the number of participants is high, the strike begins in one place and then bounces to other regions, the deaths occur and the state is involved in this process, and the shortest time as compared to other strikes. The longest is THY Strike with 149 days. The trade unions that are authorized in the workplaces where the strike was held in this period depend on the Confederations of Türk-İş and DİSK. However, in the trade union affiliated to Türk-İş, relatively more right strike decisions were taken than those who were affiliated to DİSK. When all the strikes between the years of 63 and 80 were analyzed, the number of workers participating in the strikes and the cities where the strike was held are different. As mentioned, the 1982 Constitution does not include right strike, which means that the right strikes made after this period have no legal basis. However after the year 82, according to the definition of the strike in the law issued in 1983, there are actually acts that can be regarded as a right strike. The reason for the conduct of these actions is usually due to the fact that the employer can not pay the wages to workers.

As a result, the strike is an important tool used to impose workers' demands on the employer. As explained in detail in the previous chapters, nowadays, the strike is only done when the employe and the employer can not reach agreement during the collective bargaining negotiations. However, it is observed that even if the two sides come to an agreement and the contract is signed, the employer does not comply with the items mentioned in the contract later. In this case, workers can only seek their rights through the court, according to the existing law, namely they can not use the strike route. If the conclusion of the labour courts in Turkey is thought to have taken place after a long time, it will take many years for the worker to have the right that already has. In this case, new arrangements should be made to reduce the intensity of the labour courts, or, if the

employer contravenes the terms of the collective bargaining agreement, new practices should be passed to deter him from doing so.

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9 The Effects of State and Professional Associations on Working Life: An Evaluation in the Frame of Institutional Theory*

Beyhan AKSOY

Introduction

Society composes of separate and sometimes conflicting value fields. These value areas regulate time and space by shaping actions and structures. Thus, the actors who create their own realities continue their existence in certain areas (Friedland and Alford, 1991)

According to the institutional theory, the structures and processes of organizations are equally shaped in the same manner within institutional field and the frame of certain logics. These institutions that shape associations have three separate bases (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991; Scott, 1995). The first one of these bases is the coercive one, and the state, with its regulative role, is the most important actor who represents this basis. The second basis is normative one and professional associations shape institutional lives by setting norms on how actors behave. Finally, cognitive basis draws attention to the importance of uncertainty in the formation of institutions.

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It will be seen that the bases of these institutions should be considered in an analysis which is to understand better the organizational fields when it is thought that institutions are shaping their associations and the fields these organisations are in.

In that case, the compulsory role of the state and normative roles of the professional associations gain importance in an institutional environment. Professional associations have a different position than other organizations in the field with their qualities of deciding who the members of a particular institutional field are and providing normative guides on how the operation will be in this area.

On the other hand, the state has the power to use authority over the institutions through rules, laws and sanctions, this feature makes it the most important actor in the organizational fields. The state distributes important resources, imposes taxes and plays a regulatory role in similar ways. While the state forms its own organizational model, it also creates areas of decision-maker, hierarchical, rival, and collective genre. According to institutional theory, professional associations can sometimes take sides with the state as part of this organization.

Effective Actors in the Formation of the Institutional Field

Recent institutional theory studies address the influences of the actor on the process of institutional formation or change (e.g. DiMaggio, 1988, Oliver, 1991, Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Lounsbury, 2002). In this study, the actors that create institutional change are taken predominantly from the frame of the state and professional associations. In addition, examples studies peculiar to health areas are also benefited as they are relevant to the subject.

According to Beckert (1999), actors are settled in rules which shape the notion of rationality for themselves. From this perspective, institutional theory studies that emphasizing the role of the agency, show that institution and strategic action are related to each other. Hence, in such studies, institutional rules are dealt with their aspects through which actors can see ahead of them and accordingly, form the basis for strategic choices. In other words, institutional rules and strategic agency act together like coordinating mechanisms. Beckert has said that institutions have been changed by actors who direct resources to influence institutional designs for their own interests. This opens up the tacit "taken for granted scenarios" of the actors.

Oliver (1991) points out that in the early period of institutional theory studies, the subjects of agency and resistance was missed in organization-environment relations. The author has defended that actors will respond with different strategies to institutional pressures. Strategies which occur as emerging as acquiescence, compromise, avoidance, defiance and manipulation are different responses that given to institutional pressures and they will lead diversities in organizational practices.

Oliver (1991) has explained how actors will adapt or not adapt their own organizational processes and practices to the pressures from the institutional environment. Lawrence (1999) has handled how actors responded to institutional pressures by constructing new institutions, distorting existing ones or transforming them. While Oliver talked about the action capacities of the actors in the institutional field, Lawrence has developed a definition that envisages an actor capable of changing the entire institutional environment in a bolder step. The author defines the concept of institutional strategy as "action patterns associated with the management of institutional structures within firms competing for resources, both in terms of regeneration and transformation" (Lawrence, 1999: 162). The phenomenon of strategy, competition, resource, purposefulness and consciousness that are implicitly or explicitly included in this definition elevate the institutional impact of actors in institutional theory in the institutional theory literature. Lawrence notes that institutional strategies can be addressed in terms of membership standards (where can I go?) and application standards (what can I do?). Membership is important to understand institutions and organizational areas. Membership strategies include the definition of membership rules and what they mean to an enterprise community. Standardization strategies are related to the establishment of technical, legal or market standards that define "normal" processes in the production of goods or services. Starting from the formation stages of organizational area, Lawrence (1999), argued that the rules of membership would define the profession in terms of interactions, power structures and shared information, and application standards will lead to the guides, structures, norms and legal procedures related to how the practices would be maintained in an institutional field.

Zucker (1987) notes that power and authority have been transformed into control to provide resource flow within the organisation. It is an important process in the center of institutionalization to create meaning for new cultural elements at organization level. Power and authority come into play in this process. It is not so easy to achieve

institutional reconciliation because the elements of the organization are connected to each other due to the relationships within the organizations.

Institutional actors are individuals or organizations that create, maintain and carry the institutional logics described above (Scott et al., 2000). Actors go after their own interests, select organizational forms, rules and procedures that guide and promote them. Organizational actors are struggling for change or stationarity in order to protect or increase their own interests. This struggle takes place within the opportunity areas that offers the chance to provide resources and legitimacy by pursuing certain strategies. While actors display their roles at the same time, try to reproduce existing structural elements. Therefore, this process can be characterized as its roots in everyday routines and practices which are not easily discernible. However, the presuppositions that are conflicting with each other in a dynamic multi-organizational arena may be maintained by various actors. In such cases, actors may struggle for the things that they get used to in an effort to reproduce (Borum and Westenholz, 1995).

Meyer and Rowan (1977) note that organizations adapt to institutional environments for taking advantage and avoiding sanctions. Besides, DiMaggio (1988), has drawn attention to the institutional entrepreneurs and state that these actors bring innovations to the organizational area in order to create institutional change. Institutionalization is an incomplete political process and is triggered by certain contradictions that exist within institutions. In this process, the interests compete with each other. At this point, the institutions reflect relative strengths of the organized interests and the actors. DiMaggio (1988: 13) notes that the success of an institutionalization project depends on the relative powers of the actors who defend it, oppose to it, or try to influence it.

By starting from institutional entrepreneurs and theory of elite, DiMaggio (1988) has made an important contribution to the institutionalized theory at the actor level. Institutional entrepreneurs are actors who have interests in certain institutional structure and guide applicable resources to affect institutionalized rules. There are numerous studies on how actors have changed institutional fields to increase their own interests. It is explained by these roles that a competing arena is created for those who have different interests and who want to provide more advantageous positions.

Baron et al. (1986) pointed out the role of trade unionists, staff specialists and the state in the spread of bureaucratic control after World War II, and explained how these actors created and implemented contemporary personnel management practices. Brint and

Karabel (1989) have described organizational spaces as "arenas of power relations" in their studies telling how public schools in America transformed. The authors concluded in this study that the professionals within an organization are the bearers and supporters of organizational interests. In terms of organizations, these power associations emerge not only through the power structures and opportunity areas surrounding the organization, but also in the struggles realized by those in the organizations both for themselves and their organizations. DiMaggio (1991) has come to the conclusion that professionalization may be source of the solution, at the same time a source of disintegration by challenging existing institutions in his study on how American art museums have shaped the formation of professional norms over time. Professionalization in organizational area has been achieved with the increase of significance given to specialists graduated from university, the creation of knowledge, professional organizations, professional elites and professional expertise. Özen (2002) talks about how the total quality management, as a management practice, is re-interpreted by the professional managers and how they make effort to spread out it. Actors who do not have enough resources uncover some organizational forms or try to promote them when they see an opportunity inside them to increase their value.

More emphasis is given to the state and professional organizations in institutional theory since they shape institutional field. Scott (1995: 35) states that institutions have three bases as regulative, normative and cognitive in accordance with DiMaggio and Powell's (1991) classification. According to this, on the regulatory basis as in the state, the advantage is the basis of the obedience to the institutions and the institutional logic is the instrumentality. Compelling mechanisms run while the rules, laws and sanctions are manifestations of these institutions, and legitimacy is legally ensured. On the other hand, on the normative base as in professional, social responsibility is the basis of the obedience to the institutions and the institutional logics is the conformity. While documentation and accreditation are indicative of these institutions, normative mechanisms run and legitimacy is provided morally. The state produce an effect with a compelling force, and the professional organizations produce effects by defining the principles and rules of the profession in the organizational field.

With the acceptance that one of the three bases is assumed to dominate others in an institutional environment, three also have the same affecting capacities at different levels (Scott, 1995, Scott et al., 2000). The state, market or professional organizations are the

main actors that determine the governance mechanism in the area and these actors can be more dominant than others (Streeck and Schmitter, 1985).

DiMaggio and Powell (1991: 64) point out that the state and professions are the greatest rationalisers of the second half of the twentieth century. Scott (1995: 93-97) stated that taking the state as an actor in organizational field studies in a simple sense is limiting and misleading. It is because special powers and privileges have been allocated to the state in the modern age. The state can withstand a legitimate press / enforcement, has the power to use authority over the other organizations which makes it a different actor than the others. As an important actor in the organizational field, the state distributes key resources through its regional and national institutions, imposes taxes and carries out its regulative role in a similar way. The state can influence its organizational systems as an institutional structure at various levels because it creates areas of decision-making, hierarchical, competitive, and collective kind within its own structure. These differences result in different output combinations, such as where the expertise will be, which decision rules will be introduced and what kind of participation will be allowed. Most importantly, it has the capacity to identify and impose property rights, that is, to define ownership situations and control how production shall be carried out.

Various groups at different times and places have the control of formal information. In these times these persons are professionals (Scott, 1995). Professionals maintain the power of knowledge they possess through cognitive and normative processes. While doing so, they define the reality by establishing ontological frameworks, revealing differences, defining characteristics and creating principles and guides for action, thus they keep the control. It is not only knowledge that provides sovereignty in terms of professional organizations. It is also necessary to create social and political structures and to maintain the right to judge what is right and what is wrong on an area.

State and Civil Society Cooperation in the Formation of Working Life

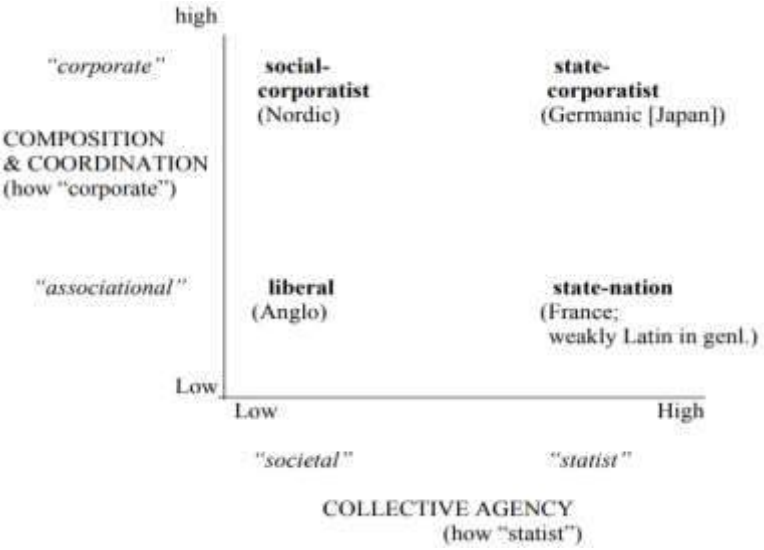
It is stressed from the first period of institutional theory studies that the state shapes organizational fields as a regulatory actor. In an organizational field where the state dominantly supplies production, the state influences both how these processes will take place and how actors outside except itself will act and contribute to this production. The idea that the changes created by the state will easily be achieved accordingly as the politics directly affect the organisations is accepted in the literature of the institutional theory. However, even if this change is realized by the state, it may not always be adopted easily

(Vermeulen et al., 2007). This is because sometimes powerful organizations can handicap this change by coming into play and creating an effect on the state. From this perspective, the creation of institutional change by the state can become limited.

The state may come into play to allow the production in the organizational field is carried out under the market conditions. Market forces play an important role in the political agenda with regard to the access to health services, quality and costs as another factor in the emergence of institutional conflict. According to this; traditional institutional structures and practices such as regulations, professional norms and control weaken in the direction of technical demands of the market or serve them. However, traditional institutional powers do not disappear. These forces cooperate with the new market ethos and force and shape the practices and structures of organizations (Alexander and Comfort, 2001).

The extent to which the state incorporates social mechanisms into its policy-making processes is an important issue in terms of institutional theory. Since different institutionalization of political systems differentiates roles have given to actors, it explains how different understandings come out as well. Such models offer a basic repertoire for creating new policies for states and societies. Since the state and professional organization have represented the regulative and normative foundations of the organizations in the organizational field, the relationship between these two actors also describes how the elements of the institutions are organized in the organizational field. Jepperson (2000), illustrates the structuring dimensions of political systems in nation states with the model shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Four Predominant Modern Polity Models (Along Two Fundamental Dimensions of Structuration)



Source: Jepperson, R. L. 2000. Institutional Logics: On the constitutive dimensions of the modern Nation-State Polities, Working Paper 2000/36, Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies, European Unversity Institute, Florence

According to Jepperson (2000), a political system exhibits corporate or associational characteristics in the composition and coordination dimensions. At the associational dimension, there is a structure in which co-movement is dominant and society is seen as an action system created by actors. Actors are concreted and sacred. The social structure arises from communication and exchanges between these actors. Thus, ideologies are related to the loyalty and capacities of public actors rather than their functions and roles. When common requirements and tasks are emphasized in corporate systems, rights and freedoms are emphasized in associational systems. The social organization is designed as to be rational and planned in a corporate system,.

In the collective agency dimension, the political system is defined by how statist it is. According to this, while the common purpose and authority are collected in a separate

and isolated way in a statist system in one centre, purpose and authority are spread widely in the societal system. Management is an agent and expression of the society. In the statist model, the state forms the basis of social rationality (Jepperson, 2000).

In the social corporatist cell, there are northern European countries such as Sweden-Norway. The state is the regulator of the organized interests of society. In this system, rather than a hierarchical order, there is a rationalized and functional society. German and Japanese political systems are examples to state corporatist governance in the 2nd cell. In this system, civil society is neither linguistically nor culturally grounded. Modernity is based on common rationalization and institutionalization. Individuals are defined as persons who perform functions, not actors with independent interests. Anglo societies can be shown as examples for the liberal societies in the 3rd cell. They have the characteristics of strong community and weak state. This political system is organized around civil society. France political system can be given an example to the 4th cell called the state-nation. The state is both connected to the rationality as an organizational model and it brings together the wills of the actors in the society. Interest groups are not supported and legal tradition limits the development of interest groups (Jepperson and Meyer, 1991; Jepperson, 2000).

A radical institutional change is challenged and questioned by organizational components due to the internal contradictions and paradoxical nature of the organization despite strong institutional pressures and regulative governance (as a state) (Eisenhardt, 2000). When the dominant basic pattern is forced to rearrangements or changes, professions play an important role in the challenge against it. The dualism of the structure-agency relationship indicates that the structure cannot be reduced to the agency. The structure also emerges as a resistance to change. (Kirkpatrick and Ackroyd, 2003).

Studies on the effects of professional associations in the organizational field are frequently encountered in recent literature on institutional theory. Professional associations have a different position than other organizational organizations in terms of the nature of their basic strategy, their decision-making positions as to who is a member of that field and their presenting normative guides on standardization (Washington, 2004). However, professional associations play an important role in the social control and development of organizational spaces.

Greenwood et al. (2002: 61-62) stated that professional associations are important for three reasons. According to the social interactionist view, it is important how

organizational actors perform the typification that guide social interactions and where these interactions take place. These interactions provide orientation to organizations and form the basis for their behaviour. Professional associations are the places where these questions are answered and interactions are carried out. Secondly, common symbolizations are not only results of interactions within a particular community, but also they are products of interactions with other communities. In this sense, professional associations represent members of the profession against others in the field. Finally, professional associations play an important role in monitoring to be abided normative or compelling sanctions and expectations. How common beliefs develop in institutional theory is a functional question. However, once these beliefs are developed, they are taken for granted and they are reproduced through education, recruitment, certification processes and ceremonies. Professional associations are particularly active in these processes.

In institutional theory studies, it is emphasized that institutionalism and professional associations bring important explanations in institutional change. Lounsbury (2002) has described the model of the establishment of financial institutions in an institutional change process that moves from regulative logics to market logics. The author regarded the professionalization as a result of institutional change, but at the end of the research, he has reached the conclusion that the emergence of new finance professions has laid the market logics in the field. Greenwood et al. (2002) explained how the accountancy profession organization has expanded the profession's field of activity to the extent giving professional advisory services, thus, increased its legitimacy and they defined the groups who achieved this as institutional entrepreneurs. Washington (2004) noted that membership is important for professional associations rather than economic profit, in order to realize their goals . In his study, the author examined how a professional organization, (National Collegiate Athletic Association), emerged to take control of structuring the field and how it transformed. As a result, he has found out that the presence of another institution in competition has caused the institution to change its membership standards and thus increased its legitimacy.

The change in the status and roles of the professionals in an organizational field can trigger institutional conflict. Bureaucratization blurs the boundaries between managerial and professional roles. There are two opinions as weak and strong regarding the change in the roles of the professionals. According to the strong opinion, professionals are undergoing a loss of power in setting an objective and technical aspects as

bureaucratization requires a systematic control over the work they do. In the weak opinion, it is suggested that this loss of power only leads to a reduction of control over the objectives (Kitchener, 2000).

Example of Health Area in the Relation Between State and Professional Associations

We can say that the health transformation is an appropriate example for Turkey to observe how the state and professional associations in the field affect this area. For this reason, the relations between health field and the professional association will be addressed more closely in this chapter.

In the health field, the introduction of the customer word instead of the patient in the discourse of the state is a sign of desire for public creation which is more knowledgeable and demanding about services (Reay and Hinings, 2005). While the state is making physicians a member of health service provision, on the other hand, it takes back the role of being the system's leaders from the physicians through a structural change.

The professional groups which have a high reputation and a central position for organizational functioning are possibly better being able to control their own working conditions (Shortell, 1985). The tendency to maintain these professional autonomies lies at the basis of conflicts arising from the existing institutional logics for the management of health personnel, especially physicians. In this case, autonomy emphasizes that the practitioner can make his own decisions without external pressures coming from customers, from those who are not members of that profession or from their employers (Hall, 1968). From here, we can come to the conclusion that the professional and state institutions are conflicting with each other because of their nature. It is because that the state introduces bureaucracy and a market mechanism to establish control (Ouchi, 1980) creates a situation which conflicts and threatens this autonomy while the professional associations have the elements of autonomy listed above.

However, the need of profession for autonomy in maintaining the affairs brings with it the debate that the clan control mechanisms may be more appropriate.

Freidson (1970) defines three conditions for the acceptance of claims as for professional status of a group: (1) Having the authority to command that can identify the correct content and effective method of performing a task specific to that group (2) Becoming the main source of decisions about what kind of qualifications should be possessed for the work carried out in the professional group (3) That the public has the general belief

regarding that the professional group has competence, knowledge and skill (Longo, 1994). From this point of view, the autonomy that the physician has bears a great potential to create conflicts between physicians and management.

The control over the professionals occurs mostly in the form of business control and bureaucratic control (Leicht and Fennel, 1997: 219). With the rising in health spending and physician fees (Kitchener et al., 2005), this control becomes more apparent as the accessible and quality service norms in the field that are transformed to norms of cost reduction and service restriction. Clinical practice guides, cost centres, outcome-based performance measures can be seen as tools of such control. In systems where health services are maintained in this sense, medical specialist are burdened the responsibility for responding to preferences and demands on the market (Warwicker, 1998). Since the types of control mechanisms under which the physicians work in the hospital environment concerns the professional association as well, changes like this will determine the agenda of the profession.

Davies and Harrison (2003) define the dimensions of physician autonomy. According to this, the first dimension is the control of the physician cover the diagnosis and treatment, so the physician determines which tests and examinations are appropriate, which drugs and procedures are to be used, to whom and where the patient is transferred and the nature of the care to be monitored. The second dimension is the control over the evaluations of care, so the physician has right to evaluate the appropriateness of the service provided to patients. The third dimension is the control over the nature and volume of medical tasks which emphasizes the control of physicians to determine their priorities, workloads and place and time of these activities. Finally, the independence of physicians in participating in the practices regarding education, research, business counselling or private medicine expresses their contractual independence. All in all, the evaluation of the health service is in itself a matter of professional autonomy. Moreover, functional commitment in the health care provision process and the nature of the task that is done by the physician should be considered. Therefore, defining performance criteria and types in health services and separating the outputs of individuals, units and groups from each other does not look like those in businesses.

The concern that the use of a given specific numerical data as a criterion in the evaluation of service provision will destroy the nature of the service is offered in the professional sense leads to the clash of rationales. Hence, institutional conflicts are inevitable in situations where practices that lead to decline in professional autonomy are introduced.

However, the actors, who are imposed with the practices, can evaluate or adopt these changes in a pragmatic way, separating them from their basic rationalities. This implies their instrumental rationality.

Professional associations are the organizations that are formally established to represent and defend important elements and interests in an organizational field. For this reason, they produce the basic rational and meanings in a field (Galvin, 2002: 673). These organizations are representatives of interests defined institutionally in the field as primary carriers of field-level ideologies and institutions. In this way, professional associations defend, assert claims and set the agenda.

The power distributions of the different actor groups in the organizational field are also determinants of how these policies are developed and how they are generated. In their study, Scott et al. (2000) found that the reduction in membership to professional associations resulted in a weakening of physician control in the health care system. Social pressures are associated with the existence of different groups' beliefs and practice that conflict with each other or with other groups. The existence of multiple and competing institutional frameworks weakens the continuity of each other. Professional associations and the state should be viewed as actors who create different political and social pressures in the organizational field. In the provision of health services, whether the state will be the regulator of these services or it will be the first hand server of this service is also the result of various social pressures.

In liberal systems, even if authority centres are often designed to mutually supervise each other, distances between them might be further and schemas and models might compete with each other. The coexistence of regulative, normative, cultural-cognitive elements of institutions may not be in harmony and one can undermine the other's influence. The boundaries of organizational field are often ambiguous or weak which leads to the influence of alternative organizational logics and the emergence of disjoint behavioural models. Suppressed groups and interests can move in and successfully develop new structural models and action repertoires (Scott, 2004).

Scott et al. (2000) addressed the importance of decisions on public politics in the work at the level of organizational field. In the organizational field, politics may have unintended effects other than the intended ones. Besides, the actions of various field-level systems such as professional associations on these policies play a mediating role. Professional associations enable their members to represent their common interests with

a legal identity. Interest organizations which have a monopolistic status and are defined functionally especially in an organizational field, exercise normative - legal control over the right to a particular judgement.

Powell (1991: 196) has noted that the parties can maintain their agreement and reconciliation processes in order to place solutions that meet their demands by stating that the state's claims would not always be via direct enforcement. Borum (2004) examined how different rationalities of the state and the professional associations come together regarding the aims of organizational field and organization principles in his study of the Danish health care field. The author mentions how actors have jointly created a rationalized legend [FBU-function bearing unit] and suggests that a common goal plays a key role in promoting and maintaining rapport and co-operation among actors.

Conclusion

As explained above, institutional theory regards professional associations as actors who defend organizational logics parallel to the coercive power of the state and complement its normative aspects (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991, Baron et al., 1986; Borum, 2004). Such a perspective may rule out that the state and the professional association can defend different institutional logics and in this context, the professional association can transform into an oppositional actor.

The political system in Turkey hasn't shown the development of civil society organizations, instead, it shows a feature that provides state control. The control of the state alone in social life can be seen as an important obstacle to the development of participatory political culture. On the other hand, while a country continues to carry the statist tradition and at the same time, experiences liberalization process, brings about internal conflicts in fulfilling its requirements. Professional associations composed of groups gathered by specialist knowledge worked as subsidiaries of the governments in the early periods of the Republic. However, in the process of modernization and liberalization, the relation of professional associations and other non-governmental organizations seems to be problematic in this sense.

Institutional theory underlines that professional associations have played an active role in the establishment of institutions in a particular organizational field. Professional associations are making effort to shape the field by maintaining the rules governing the behaviour of professionals, professional and ethical responsibilities, educational processes and other professional standards. In the case of a specific institutional change, they defend

the interests of the profession based on their organizational logic. However, the relationship between the state and the professional organization defines the institutional order. A political tradition attached to the rationality as a model for organization, brings the wills of the actors together in the society and limits the development of these interest groups, far from supporting them.

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10 | Seeking Solutions for Poverty in a Non-Policy Environment: Recycling Labour*

Cem ERGUN

Introduction

Processes of inequalities, differentiations, excluding and being excluded that are frequently encountered in social life are as old as human history. It is possible to match the emergence of these phenomena with the period when human-beings began to settle down. With the transition to settled life, the cultivation of land / the beginning of agriculture and the domestication of animals have also laid the foundations of property relations. Labour relation that owns the production tools/capital and on behalf of the owner and the unequal socio-economic positions it naturally brought with it continued by increasing and differentiating until today.

Today, inequalities in the socio-economic context are handled with the concept of new poverty. Buğra and Keyder (2003) regard the new poverty as a concept that "addresses a section which carries the risk of social exclusion, which is forgotten, whose integration with the system is getting increasingly difficult especially in terms of economic relations". According to Kaygalak (2001), the new poverty should be read in a broader context. In this context, today's urban new poverty includes very large masses and becomes increasingly chronic due to the influence of neoliberal policies. In this process, formal working areas are being narrowed down and poverty and accordingly, unemployment are

* All photos in this section were taken by Cem Ergun.

increasing along with intense insecurity. Those who cannot find employment opportunity in formal labour areas have to work either informally or for low wages or they open parvenu / informal work areas for themselves.

Informal sector workers can be placed in the category of unskilled workers because of their lack of specific skills, training and experience, and they are based on physical strength. Unskilled workers have the lowest status both in their working life and social life. Women are generally employed in occupations as housekeeping and so on, and men are more intensely employed in occupations that have been done outdoor areas in general based on physical strength. We have encountered garbage collecting as a new parvenu / informal work recently. Those who cannot take their places as active customers in today's consumerist society and try to meet their needs only by collecting leftovers of what they cannot consume have created a new labour area. Garbage collecting which has several characteristics in common with informal work areas as being deprived of social right and security, bad work and living conditions, discontinuous job, etc. allow them to earn several times more than the minimum wage from time to time and to that separates it from the others accordingly. However, like all the other poor, the factors such as the inability to benefit from the city facilities, the exclusion, being deprived of widespread

consumption patterns, include garbage collectors in category between relativist and absolute poverty rather than absolute poverty category (Ergun, 2005, p. 85).

In this study, an assessment will be made primarily on urban poverty. Then, the informal sector which emerges as a solution to the employment problems of the poor will be dealt with. The concept of garbage which is faced frequently in today's cities as a main source of living from garbage, that is to say, the recycling workmanship will be examined and a discussion will be held on it.

The Poverty Phenomenon in Urban Spaces

Poverty has been discussed depending on its properties of seasonal, spatial, ethnic origin, gender etc. as much as it is handled through income inadequacy or lack of income. Beside there is not a single poverty definition agreed on, the dynamics / characteristics of the sections defined as the poor are also variable. The urban poverty, as well, is one of the poverty types which has been overemphasized recently. When we look at the concept of poverty from the aspect of the city, "urban poverty" can be understood by definition as the relative imbalance, irregularity and distorted functionality of the city in the sense of an economic mechanism or a social reality as well as the deprivation of the city and its region from certain sources by economic and sociological approaches.

Urban poverty causes individual and social problems as a result that a segment of society is unable to access the resources to sustain the basic life depending on different factors (Mingione, 1993, p. 323). In addition, the urban poverty defines inadequacy of physical possibilities of the urban environment as well as inadequacy in terms of social efficiency, competence and organizations, and influences most the individuals and families who migrate from countryside to city, participate in urban and labour life without any properties but mostly employed in the informal sectors due to the conditions of the lab or force markets and live in slums (Özcan and Karakılçık, 2007: 441). Urban or new poverty is used to describe poverty that overlaps with sexual, racial, ethnic, and religious identities living in bad and collapsed spaces and becoming exiled, living with inconsistent, unsecure and marginal affairs apart from the dominant capitalist production, consumption and class relations. In this context, it can be said that urban poverty is a concept that embraces all the social dynamics and inequalities in the macro sense as well as the economic inadequacies (Sipahi, 2006, p. 186).

Urban poverty is often confronted as a phenomenon that mostly influences individual and/or families who migrate from the countryside to the city, enters the urban and labour

life in an unskilled manner and without property but are employed in the informal sector due to the conditions of the labour markets and live in slums (Gül and Sallan Gül , 2005, p. 968).

Dating back the Industrial Revolution and modern urbanization period, urban poverty has reached remarkable dimensions today. While increasing differences in the context of income and living standards with the impact of global capitalism are pushing agricultural workers, who are in a less productive position, towards the cities, the workforce in underdeveloped countries leads to the process of immigration to developed / industrialized countries. In that sense, in one hand poverty is rapidly increasing, on the other hand it becomes complicated in today's cities and reveals some reflections called 'the new urban poverty' (Mingione, 1993; Sallan Gül, 2001; 2002). New urban poverty is used to describe the poverty of the sections who stay out of widespread capitalist production, consumption and class relations, try to generate income from informal work areas which have no continuity and security, live in slummy urban spaces and experience spatial exclusion extensively. While urban poverty includes poverty cases in the frame of low industrialization and rapid urbanization concepts in previous periods; it transformed into a concept that describes the poverty and deprivation of the broader social segments parallel to the growing weight of the informal sector and subcontracted working areas in economic systems with the influence of today's neoliberal policies. In this context, it can be said that the new urban poverty has turned out to be a complex phenomenon across increasing economic-social disadvantages. Increasing social exclusion due to the characteristics of gender, ethnicity, belief, etc. as well as income inadequacy also increase the complexity of the new urban poverty which is used to characterize excluded sections and disadvantaged groups (Mingione, 1993, p. 326).

Reducing the costs in production processes, creating low skilled and low wage employment, making restrictions on workers 'health, safety and social support expenditures, forcing workers to work in non-standard forms as informal, irregular and part-time jobs lead both workers and the jobs to become marginalized, that is, becoming informal. Temporary work contracts affecting the regular work life, the emergence of subcontractor firms, the growth and diversification of the informal sector have originated the new urban poverty. The most prominent feature of the new urban poverty is 'to be excluded from regular employment and from all means of socialization in general' (Castells and Henderson, 1987, p.4; van Kempen, 1994, p. 1004; Aykaç, 2009, p. 60).

While developing the new concept of poverty, Bauman determined consumption as a fundamental characteristic of the new poverty, rather than production and distribution processes by focusing mainly on the consumption process. While "Being poor" once took its meaning from the state of being unemployed, it has taken its present meaning mainly from the state of being unable to consume as much as necessary (Bauman, 1999, p.10). Therefore, the most important feature distinguishing the new poverty from the other periods of history is the state of being unable to consume caused by the lack of income and the feeling of exclusion from social environment and society. The new poor are seen as people who cannot fulfil the consumption function which is the basic characteristic of modern society and naturally cannot sustain normal social life because they cannot consume in the consumerist society (Bauman, 1999, p.136). When we handle " being in a state of unable to consume or not making enough use of possibilities" in the context of urban poverty, it turns out that the closure in the ways of making integration into the city and establishing formative relations provoke urban poverty. Individuals have troubles in their integration into the city as well in the event that they cannot meet their needs such as food, housing, health care, education, social environment and services, consumer's goods, leisure time opportunities, transportation etc. and infrastructure services in their social life (Harvey, 2003, p. 98). At the heart of these troubles are unemployment and poverty which lead to exclusion and marginalization.

Generally speaking, urban poor classes are sections which do not have specific jobs, sustain their lives in connection with the informal sectors and lack the means to transform their lives. Urban poverty which is fed by the intensive migrations is formed by poor people who cannot get integrated into the new social structure and are deferred to a different life atmosphere by the feeling of exclusion. The main difference of the new urban poverty from classical absolute poverty is that the urban population which did not use to have a poverty trouble has become poor as a result of transformations in the economic field and this poverty comes out to be relatively permanent. The clearest result emerged by that urban poverty is that it excludes the segments it contains within itself from the social and spatial environments and processes in time (Dericioğulları Ergun, 2014, p.15; Altuntaş, 2008, p.33).

The changing nature of capital accumulation, the abandonment of full employment as an economic goal and the contraction of social welfare practices since 1970s have profoundly affected the economic differentiation of urban poverty. (Wacquant, 2012; Tümtaş and Dericioğulları Ergun, 2016, p. 71). Similarly, the frequently experienced

economic crises as well as increasing inequalities in the distribution of income and wealth and in formalization in the urban labour market strikingly reveal the urban nature of poverty. The informal sector workplaces that are emerging in the services sector in general and are located in a very wide range can also be defined as the distinctive work areas in which new problems arise (Gül and Sallan Gül, 2005, p. 967-968, Gotham, 2010, p. 556; Şengul, 2009, p. 198-199). The impoverishment of large social groups and their exclusion from the social, economic and political plane of the city by moving away from social security and justice policies constitute the most important dimensions of urban poverty (Kaygalak, 2009, p.71).

Employment Solution of the Poor: The Informal Sector

The visibility of urban poverty has reached quite large dimensions today. The circulation of problems related to the inability to create adequate jobs in the markets, unemployment, informality, informal working, migration process, inadequate and insecure living conditions, poor urban infrastructure and services, spatial problems and social exclusion increase the appearance of poverty and make it permanent (Wacquant: 2012, p. 287-294; Tekeli, 2000, p. 145; Beşirli et.al., 2016, p. 40; Sallan Gül and Kahraman, 2012, p. 378). The spatial differentiation in the modern cities means the differentiation in access opportunities to the scarce resources necessary for reaching the market equipments. For example, differences in access to educational opportunities make it easier to move market equipment from one generation to the other and lead to a significant restriction of mobility opportunities. Opportunities may be so structured that the white-collar workforce is reproduced in a white-collar neighbourhood, the blue-collar worker is reproduced in a blue-collar neighbourhood, and so on. The place where the community lives is the place where the appropriate workforce is reproduced for the production place. In other words, spatial location bears class size features and production style and relations are also effective in this process. In other words, in cities, everyone generally lives in a residential area that corresponds to their income level and class distinctions are directly reflected on the house and residential areas. Spatial differentiation has already been produced to a large extent in urban areas under intense pressure and demand of the capital and urban people have to adapt their preferences accordingly. The market mechanism narrows the selection range of the urban population. In this process, the shaping of the preferences of the wealthy groups and the capital creates sharp spatial differentiations. The poor have no preference in the selection of venue and they have to be contented with the rest after the selection of the richest groups (Harvey, 2002, p. 161-

162, 166-167, Peet, 1987, p. 40; Özer, 2004, p.10; Kartal, 1982, p. 229; Erder, 1996, p. 20-21; Ergun and Koçancı, 2017, p. 2002). In other words, the poor are generally obliged to work and live in the areas allocated to them by the cities themselves, or rather in the areas where they are isolated. Everyday life is shaped in these areas which are covered with some kind of invisible walls. The poor who maintain their behavioural patterns in these areas live in sub cultural networks they have developed and with informal solutions (Koçancı and Beşirli, 2016, p. 437).

Recognising / Identifying Garbage

Solid waste is called as "solid materials which are to be thrown away by the manufacturer and which must be disposed regularly in order for the peace of the community and especially to protect the environment" (TODAİE, 2001, p. 70, Ergun, 2005b, p. 108). Garbage are products, objects or movable properties (whether intended for consumption or industry) which have discarded due to the fact that they have been worn out and torn (especially their technology) and have lost the value of a usage and change, not being produced intentionally or not having production goal and which are different and reutilised to create raw materials/inputs for some other gains without harming human and environmental health (Kılınç, 2011, pp. 31-34).

Solid waste (garbage) can be expressed in the simplest sense as an item that is created as a result of domestic, commercial and industrial functions and that is thrown away by the consumer as it is no longer useful, but which must be removed regularly due to environmental and human health as well as other social benefits. The most prominent feature of the concept is that the user or the manufacturer discards it or has the motive to do so (Acar and Baykara Acar, 2008, p. 25).

Garbage is not a new problem for the people who lead a sedentary life. Along with the settlement of human communities in villages and towns, the establishment of cities, garbage is also a part of everyday life and has become a problem to be solved. We can see the traces of the first garbage in Athens in the 400s BC. Since then, although waste production has continued to increase day by day, it can be said that the Industrial Revolution is a turning point in terms of waste. Before the Industrial Revolution, it is mentioned that there is a lot of evidence showing that wastes were recycled in rural areas without harming nature. It is also stated that it was common practice to reproduce the shards of broken plates by crumbling and to bury organic wastes into the soil (Yüksel and Saltan, 2007, pp. 211-212).

As mentioned above, garbage is a concept of a city, a concept that has emerged with urbanization. However, since then the concept of solid wastes or the garbage in daily language has changed its meaning from the term unused materials and goods into the term revenue-generating and productive through new ecological polices, mere garbage has been disqualified from being urban and industrial substance. Because of its nature, decay, deterioration and danger of the gases it removes, the garbage has become the subject of social and health areas. While cities tried to deal with garbage as such methods as leaving it in a desolate place, burning it, pouring into the sea, with the development of ecological research and sensitivity, changing shape of garbage with the industrial and other production activities etc., some activities regarding separating hazardous items from garbage and using garbage as a productive element, a productive income generator has begun to evolve. What can be understood from the activities here are making use of all the urban wastes and the organization of the re-transformation (Özgen, 2001, pp. 90-91, Altuntaş, 2008, p. 37).

The expression that " garbage is the precious materials found in undesirable places" is quite remarkable (Curi, 1997: 14). After 1950s, garbage increasingly turned into goods/objects for profit from being a substance that has to be disposed and destroyed (Ergun, 2004, p.668). In other words, garbage has gained value economically as it has become a recyclable and reusable product by getting out being a useless and waste material (Özsoy, 2012, p. 111).

After the Industrial Revolution, along with industrialization, urbanization and population increase, garbage has become a problem that is not comparable with the previous periods since proper solutions have not been developed for a long time and the wastes have reached to the dimensions harming nature and people (Yardımcı and Saltan, 2007, p.212). The growth of cities, technological developments, the increase of domestic wastes and industrial wastes, the increase of living standards in parallel with population growth, the amount of solid wastes has constantly increased (Yanıkyürek, 1993, p.15). Since the source of satisfaction and the measure of wealth has developed from dining table, wardrobe, garage towards the minds, the concept of garbage is changing as well. As life changes, the scope of the items that are believed to make it beautiful or ugly also varies (İsen, 2005, p. 148).

When talking about garbage, what left behind from those consumed at home and disposable objects come to mind. The bottles of what we drink, onionskins of the onions we chop for dishes, seeds of olives... It is possible to change what is called garbage to

another concept for a healthier assessment. The concept of "waste" is more useful than the concept of garbage. It reminds us the subject of the action by associating the things we throw away and recalls us more of the things we have tucked into the garbage cans in the house (Keskinsoy, 2005, p. 156).

The process of creation of garbage has started as "throw it away!", "Buy new one, why do you still use it!" and "it is just a junk!". These statements emphasize the notions that the object used is outdated, it does not work anymore, it is out of service, it will not work properly anymore even if it is repaired, new products are introduced and they are more efficient. In particular, garbage being created with discourses such as "single use!" or "why do you make it repaired, the new is cheaper!" (Kılınç, 2011, p. 30). In this context, it is possible to say that garbage is the excreta of the consumerist society. Garbage can be defined as a surplus created when producing or consuming. The upper and middle classes who are active members of the consumerist society consume unlimitedly in one hand, create garbage on the other hand. They create a great deal of waste, garbage with reasoning of eatable but it is not eaten, usable but that is no longer used (for reasons such as fashion, oldness). However, these are still consumable items for the lower classes (Somay, 2005, p 168).

Garbage is literally the surplus or residual that emerges at the end of the production and consumption functions of homo economicus. But rather than considered to be a surplus-value, it is regarded as a missing-value, negative surplus which requires labour and money to be destroyed. But this does not cover all classes. The lowest layers of society find a value in garbage, reveal it, and recirculate many objects that the upper classes see as garbage. For this, they must live on at peace with garbage, touch it and bear its smell (Somay, 2005, p. 167). This value obtained from garbage reveals the result that garbage is regarded as an output of the cities while at the same time it is considered as an economic element which provides input. In other words, garbage is an area of activity that lives with the city and maintains its living. Recycling companies, middlemen, engineers etc. working in these sectors and groups such as professionals, collectors, janitors and sellers are generating income from garbage (Özgen, 2006, p.10). In this frame, recycling labourers1 appear to be the most prominent one among sectors who benefit from garbage economically in today's cities.

On Recycling Labour ...

The first thing which can be counted among the reasons for the emergence of the informal sector is that the urban economic structure cannot provide sufficient employment and there are areas where the formal economy does not enter or is unable to enter in the urban economy (Komşu, 2005, p. 156). It is often possible to define the informal sector labour areas, also known as the marginal sector, as working areas which urban poor or other disadvantaged urban groups work and others do not want to do (dirty jobs). For example, the urban poor are functional for the city since they carry out such works as garbage collection, waste cleaning and etc. which are not wished to be done by others and they earn their livings in return for them (Koçancı, 2016, p.184).

The sections that are deprived of all social participation opportunities and social securities and who are also excluded/pushed out of the market system do not have many alternatives to earn their livings. These sections which are pushed outside the system try to exist in the system illegally as being small commodity producers by selling their goods or labour informally, begging and trading any illegal goods (drugs, weapons, etc.) in demand (Harvey, 2015a, p. 194). Particularly in times of economic crisis and with the disappearing of the welfare state approach, there is a serious increase in trend rate towards informal sector. At such times, individuals who are socio-economically at the low level create enormous labour force under the pressure of the necessity to earn income (Harvey, 2015b, pp. 368, 374). Especially in the crisis period, it is also underlined that there is an increase in informal recycling labour as well as in other informal working areas. In this context, Özgen (2006) emphasizes that recycling labour is not only a poverty-focused process based on his observations made in different cities. He emphasizes that the people who work in this sector are trying to sustain their lives on rather difficult conditions by not involving in illegal works and they are the most desperate and excluded sections of cities beyond their being the poorest of the cities. Despite the great contributions of recycling workers, it can be stated that the biggest problem of them in general is that they are deprived of urban facilities and means of socialization (Özgen, 2006, p.11). The wealthy segments of the society can turn to the tendency to distance themselves from disadvantaged and poor individuals including recycling workers and ignore them (O'Neill, 2001, p. 179).

The fact that recycling workers have lack of precarious existence and temporary position due to their working and living conditions, that the absence of a forecast about how long this temporariness will last, that they don't know their employers and that it is not predictable how many people they have employed in the past, how many they can in the future, that they don't have a foreseeable salary, status and social rights constitute the basic characteristics of the recycling workers. In this context, recycling labour can also be considered as "precariat" by the conceptualization of Standing (2014, p.20).

Waste / garbage collecting-recycling labour is at the top of the most noticeable employment areas regarding working on the streets. Recycling labour which involves labour intensive work is a field that is not based on capital or requires very little capital as it is in similar labour intensive work areas. In addition to the statement of labour intensive sector, the concepts of informal sector, unorganized sector, open-air economy and marginal economic activity are also used to define recycling labour (Gün, 2017, p.44; Güngör and Erdurak, 2016, pp. 15-16, Çaglayandeli, 2007, p.36).

Recycling workers can be studied in three groups: The first group consists of the workers who collect and dispose of garbage in the formal sector. In the second group, there are workers who collect garbage and sell them to the warehouse owners who can be expressed as middleman. The relation of these two groups with garbage is solely on the focus of business / income acquisition. In the third group, unlike the first two groups, there is a

section who live in the garbage depots and areas and manually sort out the recyclable wastes, in other words, those having a relation with garbage as both the work and the living area (Özgen, 2006, p.10, Demircan, 2016, p. 54).

In recycling labour, the process is generally shaped by the middleman employers. The vehicles used in the collection business are usually taken from the middleman employers, so the collected wastes are taken and sold to the these employers (Gün, 2017, p.44).

The informal sector plays the most important role in recycling of waste due to the inadequacy of the municipalities. This informal group includes waste collectors, waste traders and discriminators in the dumping area. The most important feature of this sector is that the money gained in this sector is not recorded and the works that are not done by the municipality are carried out. Despite the extremely difficult working conditions and creating high health risks, there is a significant employment opportunity in this line of business. Waste collectors travel around, collect the recyclable waste that will contribute to economy from the containers in the streets or before the houses. Waste traders are middlemen who sell these goods to recycling facilities. The work of sorting out the recoverable items among the wastes brought to the waste disposal sites is undertaken by a company with a contract made by the municipality or by the people of the landlord who have the right to collect solid wastes for a certain period here. Those

people who have no social rights and security, who work in unfavorable and unhygienic conditions are paid according to the lump-sum basis, i.e. the amount of the material they collect (TODAİE, 2001, p. 67-72; Curi, 1997, p. 14).

The growing numbers of the poor as a result of the economic crises and economic policies that have lived in recent years are trying to exist by reassessing their life and work strategies. When poverty is considered to be "deprived" of other social and cultural opportunities as well as economic opportunities, it can be said that those who engage in informal work suffer the poverty. Recently, with the urban poverty becoming well visible, it is seen that many urban poor who are unable to hold to the urban employment areas in formal ways have canalised to informal sectors. One of these areas is garbage collection (Ergun, 2005, p. i). Turkey has become acquainted with a new type urban poverty in recent years which settles around garbage areas and makes its living from garbage. The garbage mixers used to exist, but it was not so common and visible. Today, those making their living from garbage are increasing day by day. Not just in big cities but in almost all cities, it has become routine to meet people who dive into the garbage bins, collect and sell tin cans, papers and cardboards, pet bottles, briefly recyclable materials. In addition, the visibility of families visiting the garbage areas for their daily food and kitchen needs has also increased (Aytaç and Akdemir, 2003, p. 68).

Either by collecting, or sorting garbage and living in the garbage storage areas, it is a compulsory situation for many people to make a living from garbage and to sustain their lives nesting in garbage. It is difficult for these people to make the economic and cultural investment needed to acquire a new profession since garbage sector does not let them to save money. For this reason, earning their livelihood from garbage can be transformed from a temporary solution to a permanent job. A job which is initiated under the condition of leaving after improvement but can not be left because of insufficient savings to change the conditions (Yardımcı and Saltan, p 2007: 217).

The garbage has left its meaning as being an item required to be destroyed and disposed after 1950s, and it has rapidly become an object-goods related to environment, health and safety and most importantly for profit, which is. The way of achieving the things above mentioned in the most humane way is, first of all, the recycling the materials in garbage. While this process is done at home for some of the developed countries (Germany), in some it is seen as a municipal service (England), it is having done by private sector (USA). In the developing countries, the lack of above mentioned practices causes a new urban business line: the garbage people. In other words, those who make their own

livelihood while sorting out and selling the garbage from the garbage cans in the streets or garbage areas while at the same time performing an urban service ... (Özgen, 2001, pp. 91-92). The garbage collectors who are the most important actors of the garbage market are trying to sustain their lives while at the same time contributing to the country's economy and ecology. This group which includes people who have no occupation or no places in formal business areas intensively try to earn their livings by collecting and selling the recyclables from the garbage cans by the roads or garbage dumping areas. Garbage collectors who work in extremely unhealthy conditions, in irregular working time depending on the weather and climate conditions, without any social rights and guarantees, due to weather and climate conditions resemble those of other informal sector workers, but occasionally earn a few times more than the minimum wage that distinguishes them accordingly from others. However, such factors as the inability to benefit from the city's facilities, the exclusion and the deprivation of widespread consumption patterns place garbage collectors within the pattern of urban poor and cause them to feel the deprivation dimension of poverty intensively (Ergun, 2005b, p. 110).

Waste collectors are one of the members of business lines who experience social exclusion most from the aspects that they earn very little from their work, the unhealthy conditions with lack of social security and as the society associate working on garbage with dirtiness. They are people who collect recyclable products such as paper, glass, metal from the garbage bins and sell them to the waste storages and thus make their living. They assume an intermediary role in the recycling process while waste storages are selling garbage to bigger waste storages and they are selling to the recycling factories (Özsoy, 2012, pp. 106-107).

Conclusion and Evaluation

According to Beall and Fox (2006), urban poverty means economic insecurity in the first place. As a place of capitalist economy, the city creates a very difficult space to live for its poor inhabitants today. This is because the poor populations of the cities face a monetary economy and a dynamic but insecure informal economy to meet their basic needs. At the same time, to become a homeowner in the city means low quality and unsafe shelter for them. In this context, it is possible to list the distinguishing characteristics of urban poverty as being dependent on financial economy, being dependent of informal economy, inadequate housing, job insecurity, lack of access to basic services, openness to diseases, environmental hazards, social exclusion, being exposed to violence and crime. Poverty thus requires an understanding of the poor population from the aspects of their

needs which enable them to meet their vital existence, but also a situation they experience with its spatial and social dimensions.

Buğra and Keyder who point out that the concept of urban poverty, also referred to as the new poverty, addresses to a stratum that carries the risk of social exclusion and is ignored, it is increasingly difficult for it to integrate with the system, especially in terms of economic relations (2003, p. 21), they underline that the new situation faced with the new poverty starts from economic exclusion such as being unable to find a permanent job in everyday life, taking part in informal employment, an increase in the rates of informal employment, becoming unemployed, lack of opportunity for running his own business to cultural exclusion which points to more than the old meaning (2003, p. 21-23).

The forms of informal employment and poverty which are thought to be read as processes that nourish each other lead to the permanence of exclusion from all social processes. Because they are poor/deprived, they have to work in informal jobs in order to create economic resources; they cannot get out of poverty/deprivation spiral due to insecurity of the informal sector and insufficiency/lack of income.

Almost all work lines within the informal sector include unwanted-excluded activities as well as the lack of precariousness and inadequacies within it. In other words, informal

work areas consist of works which are not wished to be done by a large part of the society. One of these areas is the recycling labour we frequently encounter in today's cities.

An important component of the informal economy is the garbage collection / separation process which is particularly evident in the metropolises that allow immigrants heavily. Making one's life from garbage collection applied as a survival strategy has been a source of livelihood for many poor people all over the world. This group of individuals from all age groups constitutes the poorest segment of all the poor. The process of making a living from garbage is often seen as the last chance to survive. The sector of collection / separation of garbage as a new livelihood strategies / separation has evolved in Turkey and in many developing third world countries in distinctive conditions has become a means of holding on to life for the lowest layers of the society in terms of economic, social, and in some cases ethnical aspects. The collection and separation of garbage for recycling has become the only source of livelihood/life for more and more people due to negative economic conditions (Sarı, 2006, pp. 130-131).

Recycling workers who are important actors of the waste market try to live on while at the same time contributing to the economy and ecology of the country. This group in which there are intensive people who have no occupation or cannot gain a place in the formal business areas struggle for making their living by collecting recyclable materials from garbage bins by roads or from garbage dumping areas. Garbage collectors who work in extremely unhealthy conditions, in irregular working time depending on the weather and climate conditions, without any social rights and guarantees, due to weather and climate conditions resemble those of other informal sector workers, but occasionally earn a few times more than the minimum wage that distinguishes them accordingly from others. However, such factors as the inability to benefit from the city's facilities, the exclusion and the deprivation of widespread consumption patterns place garbage collectors within the pattern of urban poor and cause them to feel the deprivation dimension of poverty intensively (Ergun, 2005, p. 193). Today, recycling workers which we often encounter in almost every city are faced with problems arising from garbage commoditisation in their work processes. In addition to the problem of unfair distribution of revenue generated in the recycling sector in which middlemen usually get the largest share, the efforts made to prevent garbage collection of recycling workers due to local governments' policies on privatizing garbage services were added on that problem. What is required to be done for the recycling process in which nobody hardly ever tend to work for their living must not be worsening more the work and living conditions of

garbage workers which are already too hard. On the contrary, this struggle of recycling workers who struggle to hold on to life in the spiral of poverty-precariousness should be supported and the recycling sector should be transformed into a formal workplace, so that the workers of the sector can be made stakeholders.

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11 | The Importance of The Development of Women Cooperatives in Turkey and Analyzing the Activities About Women Cooperatives' Development in the Recent Years

Yeliz YEŞİL

Introduction

Cooperative enterprises can play a role in contributing to achieve the economic and social empowerment of women. There are inspiring examples from around the world of women using the cooperative business model to support themselves, their households and communities. However, there is more that the international cooperative movement can and should do to put women's empowerment and gender equality at the heart of its activities and agenda for change. According to the ILO Promotion of Cooperatives Recommendation, 2002 (No 193) calls for measures to promote the development of cooperatives in all countries. It recommends that "special consideration should be given to increasing women's participation in the cooperative movement at all levels, particularly at management and leadership levels". It also calls for national policies to promote gender equality in cooperatives and in their work (Cooperatives and The World of Work,2017).

Women's Cooperatives are important in terms of economic prosperity and women's economic and social strengths. Women's employment is affected positively by the activities of women's cooperatives. The role of women's cooperative activities is crucial in

reducing the poverty of women and in achieving higher quality and higher standards, especially for women living in rural areas. In addition, women can participate in economic life by increasing their professional knowledge and skills.

The women cooperatives in Turkey have launched a very important movement to ensure that women at local level can create permanent services for themselves, bring their priorities and needs to the agenda, and ensure policies and resource transfers to empower women. These cooperatives also constituted an important model for the role of women in local development to become visible. The network for women's cooperatives was set up here to provide with the opportunity to exchange information and experience to strengthen each other. The women's cooperative network aims to increase the capacity of responding to women's needs by supporting local women's organizations, to increase their national and international recognition and to influence their decision-making mechanisms (Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

The aim of this study is to examine, evaluate and make various suggestions about the work done in recent years on the improvement of women cooperatives and the importance of women cooperatives in Turkey.

Conceptual Framework

Cooperative and Women Cooperatives

Cooperatives are autonomous organizations formed by people who come together voluntarily to meet common economic, social and cultural needs and wants through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise (International Cooperatives Association). Cooperatives are based on a unique pattern that promotes social development and provides the basis for commercial enterprises. These businesses include the following features (General Directorate of Cooperatives (a), 2017):

1. Ownership of partners, serving their partners and managing their partners,
2. Self-sufficiency, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, justice and solidarity,
3. Principles-based management.

Cooperativeism is a type of partnership in which economic and social opportunities are brought together through solidarity, guarantee, and cooperation to achieve common aim. Cooperatives formed around the concept of solidarity and collective service perform an important function in terms of economic, social and democratic development of individuals and society (The Cooperative System and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

In global sense, when new forms of work and growth patterns are taken into consideration, cooperatives have unique opportunities to make an impact. Compared with other social and social solidarity enterprises; cooperatives appear to be an emerging economic alternative to respond to the challenges of the changing business world in many sectors. While all businesses are based on production and work (ILO, 2015c), cooperative businesses are positioned to provide mutual solidarity, solidarity-based ownership and management. Other social, environmental and economic movements to improve working conditions and ensure a sustainable future; cooperatives also share the same values and principles as democracy, equality, self-governing, participation, protection and choice (Future of Working World, 2017).

Cooperatives are also mainly engaged in agriculture (production, buying and selling), wholesale and retail trade, residential construction, water, electricity and health sectors, banking and insurance. However, in sectors such as information and communication technology, new cooperative organizations are increasingly taking place in care service, handicrafts, tourism and cultural area. There are significant contributions of cooperatives for the economy of the country in terms of ensuring economic development, establishment of sustainable development and increasing employment (The Cooperative System and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

There are some values about cooperatives. These are (International Cooperative Alliance, 2017):

Cooperative values:

Cooperatives are based on the values of self-help, self-responsibility democracy, equality, equity and solidarity. In the tradition of their founders, Cooperative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others (International Cooperative Alliance, 2017).

Cooperative principles:

The cooperative principles are guidelines by which cooperatives put their values into practice. These are (International Cooperative Alliance, 2017):

- *Voluntary and Open Membership:* Cooperatives are voluntary organisations, open to all persons able to use their services and willing to accept the responsibilities of membership, without gender, social, racial, political or religious discrimination.

- *Democratic Member Control*: Cooperatives are democratic organisations which are controlled by their members, who actively participate in setting their policies and making decisions.
- *Member Economic Participation*: Members contribute equitably to, and democratically control, the capital of their Cooperative. At least part of that capital is usually the common property of the Cooperative. Members usually receive limited compensation, if any, on capital subscribed as a condition of membership.
- *Autonomy and Independence*: Cooperatives are autonomous, self-help organisations controlled by their members. If they enter into agreements with other organisations, including governments, or raise capital from external sources, they do so on terms that ensure democratic control by their members and maintain their Cooperative autonomy.
- *Education, Training and Information*: Cooperatives provide education and training for their members, elected representatives, managers, and employees so they can contribute effectively to the development of their Cooperatives.
- *Cooperation Among Cooperatives*: Cooperatives serve their members most effectively and strengthen the Cooperative movement by working together through local, national, regional and international structures.
- *Concern for Community*: Cooperatives work for the sustainable development of their communities through policies which has approved by their members.

There are also some properties of cooperatives (General Directorate of Cooperatives (a), 2017):

1. It is a sustainable business model.
2. Strengthens local economies.
3. Improves living conditions.
4. Gives people responsibility.
5. Being participants.

The expression "Women's Cooperative" refers to cooperatives established and operated by women, while at the same time identified with particular women's groups in their search for employment, income-generating activities and participation in social life. In the context of Turkey, the fact those women's cooperatives are different from other economic activity areas and their social aims are as preliminary as economic goals seem

to be the reason for defining a special category under the name of "Women's Cooperative". While other cooperatives are usually established in the fields of agriculture, construction and consumption, women's cooperatives operate mainly in the fields of crafts, home-based production and social services. In other words, since 2000 in Turkey, the form has been used to transfer women's traditional non-agricultural traditional in-house skills and traditional productive activities to the marketplace has often been cooperative, and this has made women's cooperatives different from others. In this regard, women's cooperatives are based on organizing their partners' existing skills as a commercial activity after short training and learning processes (KEİG, 2018).

The Importance of Women Cooperatives for Developing Women Employment

By the help of the cooperatives, women can meet their economic and social needs and ensure effective participation in social life. Whether they are created for social benefit or employment, cooperatives provide an interaction and solidarity for women in all cases. Women with different abilities under the cooperative roof can create a common capacity and provide great benefits to countries' social and economic development. In this context, women who can stand in the economic direction can be a beneficial individual and can be entitled to the rightful place in social life. Therefore, cooperatives can be realized as an important business model for women to participate in the economic and social life (Emiroğlu, 2018).

Generally, cooperatives have contributed to improve livelihoods for women and served as an avenue in which women have exercised their right to participation. Membership comes with other rights and obligations. It gives one the opportunity to access services such training, education and information, dividends, to vote, to make decisions, to run for leadership positions, etc. It also gives one access to services, credit and to other products that the cooperative may provide (Coop Africa, 2018).

Over the last 10 years, in different areas of the world, women cooperatives have created regional Gender Equality Committees, which have implemented a important amount of work for the advancement of women, including carrying out projects and programmes for empowering women cooperators, thus increasing significantly women's participation and leadership in their respective cooperative movements. As cooperatives work for women in all countries of the world, and as women contribute to the economic and social performances and success of cooperatives (Coop Africa, 2018).

Table 1. Cooperatives Contribution to Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment

How Cooperatives Contribute to Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment		
Economic empowerment Equal access to paid work Transition opportunities to the formal economy through cooperation Accessing to capital, financing, and market Accessing to opportunities Gaining skills and knowledge for economic activity Economic development in rural areas	Improving work conditions Fair and adequate earnings / equal pay for equal value of work Decent work in safe working conditions Collective bargaining power Increasing levels of participatory democracy in the workplace	Social empowerment Learning opportunities such as technical skills improvement and management training Affordable and accessible goods and services Improving self-esteem and confidence

Source: The Committee for the Promotion and Advancement of Cooperatives (COPAC),2018.

As t can be seen from the *Table 1,* cooperatives can contribute to gender equality and women's economic empowerment, so women can improve their work and get opportunities for participating

Cooperatives in Turkey

The cooperatives which are based on the idea of cooperation have improved and gained an international identity over time. Its principles and values have been revised in terms of the changing needs, conditions and cooperatives have started to be seen in several countries as one of the economic initiative models. It is clear that cooperatives have different achievement and improvement levels among the countries or societies. There is no doubt that this difference is directly related with the level of social "Membership Culture" which shows the awareness and capacity of the societies to deal with – overcome the challenges jointly, in cooperation or in collaboration (Turkish Cooperatives Strategy and Action Plan (2012-2016), 2017).

It is accepted that the first application of contemporary cooperatives in our country was started with the "country fountains" established by the state in 1863 (a structure similar to agricultural credit cooperatives). However, the first fundamental development in our cooperative system is found in republican period. Perhaps, one of the most important opportunities for the country's cooperatives is that Mustafa Kemal ATATURK, founder of our Republic, has realized the potential and contribution of the cooperative. Ataturk continuously from 1920 until his death had taken place within the cooperative movement

in Turkey. On the other hand, from ATATURK to Planned Transition (1938-1960), cooperativism has passed a stationary period. One of the most important developments since the 1960s is, of course, that the cooperatives should have take place in the constitution. In the Article 51 of the 1961 Constitution, the inclusion of the phrase; "the state takes measures to ensure the development of cooperatives", has made the state more active and accountable for the development of cooperatives. First, because of the social and economic factors at the time, cooperativism emerged in agricultural areas, concentrated on agriculture for many years. Later, due to the changes in the economic and social structure and the emerging new needs, it has spread to areas such as housing, workplace construction, transportation, consumption, credit-bail (General Directorate of Cooperatives (b), 2018).

Although there is not a historical difference in terms of the beginning of modern cooperatives between the developed countries and our country, the cooperatives in Turkey have increased in numbers, but failed to satisfy the economic and social functions. In spite of the provision in the constitution on the development of the cooperatives, "the lack of policy" concerning the cooperatives have not been remedied for a long time. In order to remove this gap, we have initiated the work to create "Turkish Cooperatives Strategy and Action Plan". This document has been prepared to cover the whole cooperative sector in which three different ministries offer services (Turkish Cooperatives Strategy and Action Plan (2012–2016), 2017). In accordance with the Cooperatives Law No. 1163, a cooperative is defined in Turkey as follows (after an amendment in 2004): "Cooperatives are bodies with variable members, variable capital, and legal identity that are established by natural and public legal entities and private administrations, municipalities, villages, societies and associations in order to ensure and maintain certain economic interests and especially the needs of their members toward professional life and living standards by means of mutual assistance, solidarity and service as trustees to each other." (Turkish Cooperatives Strategy and Action Plan (2012–2016), 2017).

Table 2. Cooperatives by Type and Common Numbers

Relevant Ministry	Cooperative Types	Cooperative		Unity		Central Union	
		Number	Number of Partners	Number	Number of Cooperatives	Number	Number of Associations
Ministry of Food, Agriculture	Agricultural Development Coop.	8.173	842.563	82	4.939	4	77
	Irrigation Coop.	2.497	295.984	13	733	1	10

and Livestock	Aquaculture Products Coop.	522	29.972	14	202	1	12
	Beet Sower Coop.	31	1.638.981	1	31	-	-
	Agricultural Credit Coop.	1.767	1.082.978	16	1.767	1	16
	Sub Total	12.990	3.890.478	126	7.672	7	115
Ministry of Environment and City	Housing Building Coop	54.996	1.985.076	338	10.525	3	62
	Small Industrial Site Building Cooperative	1.052	127.098	5	142	-	-
	Collective Business Building Coop.	1.810	103.536	7	116	-	-
	Sub Total	57.858	2.215.710	350	10.783	3	62
Customs and Trade Ministry	Agricultural Sales Coop.	322	602.248	17	322	-	-
	Independent Agricultural Sales Coop.	22	2.245	-	-	-	-
	Tobacco Agriculture Sales Coop.	66	23.414	-	-	-	-
	Fresh Vegetable Fruit Coop.	37	2.886	-	-	-	-
	Consumption Coop.	2.970	288.063	17	155	1	9
	Motor Carriers Coop.	6.734	199.220	42	754	1	15
	Foundation and Artistic Credits and Guarantee Cooperative	993	685.105	32	894	1	32
	Small Art Coop.	331	10.043	5	14	-	-
	Available Transition Coop	344	24.497	-	-	-	-
	Tourism Development Coop.	391	17.448	3	33	-	-
	Production Marketing Coop.	483	22.491	5	429	-	-
	Supply Guarantee Cooperative	7	599	-	-	-	-
	Publishing Coop.	31	767	-	-	-	-
	Carrier Transport Coop.	11	586	-	-	-	-
	Business Coop.	585	98.769	1	7	-	-
	Insurance Coop.	3	15	-	-	-	-
	Cooperation Coop.	24	22.160	-	-	-	-
	Training Coop.	30	2.481	-	-	-	-
	Sub Total	13.384	2.003.037	122	2.608	3	56
	General Total	84.232	8.109.225	598	21.063	13	233

Source: Ministry of Customs and Trade (GTB), Food Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (GTHB) and Ministry of Environment and Urbanization (ÇŞB) (December 2010, April 2011),- (December 2010-April 2011). (General Directorate of Cooperatives (b), 2018).

Table 3. Distribution of Cooperatives Established in 2015 According to Activity Areas

Cooperatives According to Field Of Activity	**Total**
Housing Building Cooperative	446
Collective Workplace Building Cooperative	34
Small Industrial Estate Building Cooperative	31
Subtotal	511
Irrigation Cooperative	101
Agricultural Development Cooperative	85
Subtotal	186
Motor Carriers Cooperative	82
Business Cooperative	38
Production and Marketing Cooperative	19
Guarantee Cooperative	15
Tourism Development Cooperative	10
Water Products Cooperative	10
Consumption Cooperative	7
Site Management Cooperative	7
Education / Research and Development Cooperative	6
Supply and Distribution Cooperative	3
Service Cooperative	3
Marine Motor Carriers Cooperative	3
Insurance Cooperative	2
Little Art Cooperative	1
Consultancy Cooperative	1
Sub Total	207
General Total	904

Source: Cooperative Report of Turkey (2015), 2018.

When *Table 3* is examined, it is observed that a total of 904 cooperatives established in 2015 were granted 511 of the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization, 207 of the Ministry of Customs and Trade and 186 of the Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry. In addition, the "Intellectual Property Rights and Project Consulting Cooperative" was established for the first time as a new kind of cooperative this year. On the other hand, in 2015, Ministry of Customs and Trade (GTB) allowed the establishment of 210 cooperatives in 57 different countries, of which 207 were completed

in the same year. (22), Ankara (19 cooperatives), Antalya (10 cooperatives) and Bursa (9 cooperatives) (KOOPBİS, 2016) (Cooperative Report of Turkey (2015), 2018).

Table 4. Numerical View of Women's Cooperatives Established within the Customs and Trade Ministry

Women's Cooperative Type	Number of cooperatives	City
Business Cooperatives	81	Adana, Ağrı, Adıyaman, Ankara, Aydın, Balıkesir, Bursa, Bitlis, Çanakkale, Diyarbakır, Düzce, Erzincan, Eskişehir, Gaziantep, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kocaeli, Kayseri, Konya, Manisa, Muğla, Mardin, Nevşehir, Sakarya, Tekirdağ, Tokat, Şanlıurfa, Van
Little Art Cooperatives	5	Ankara, Balıkesir, İzmir, İstanbul
Consumption Cooperative	3	Konya, Çorum, Mersin
Production and Marketing Cooperatives	3	Çanakkale, Samsun, Kilis
Publishing Cooperative	1	İstanbul
TOTAL	93	

Source: Emiroğlu, 2018.

As seen in *Table 4,* female cooperatives are functionally classified under 5 types. The number of women cooperatives established in five different types, the total number is 93 by the end of 2013. The largest numbers of cooperative types are business cooperatives and the publishing cooperative is just beginning. Small arts cooperatives, consumption cooperatives and production and marketing cooperatives are other areas of women's cooperatives (Emiroğlu, 2016).

In the main contract of the women's cooperative, it is stated that "the aim of the cooperative is to meet the economic, social and cultural necessities of the partners and to meet their needs for the production and marketing of goods and services within the scope of their economic activities and to improve their production skills so that they will survive in a healthy and developed environment by protecting the economic interests of their partners"(Emiroğlu, 2016:4-5).

Women Cooperatives in Turkey and the Activities about Women Cooperatives' Development in the Recent Years

The establishment of women's cooperatives in Turkey are as follows (General Directorate of Cooperatives (c), 2018):

1. Firstly, selecting a marketable service or production area,
2. Communicating with women who have the properties for producing goods or services in that production area,
3. Examination of the Ministry of National Education's "Women Entrepreneur Production and Operation Cooperative Sample Case" obtained from the General Directorate's website or from the Provincial Directorate of Commerce, it is a sustainable business model.
4. For the permission of the cooperative establishment, it is necessary to apply to the Provincial Directorate of Commerce.

The cooperation also between women's cooperatives and local administrations can be given below (General Directorate of Cooperatives (c), 2018):

1. Allocation of parks, green spaces, idle spaces and buildings or leasing at affordable prices,
2. Facilitating the entry of women's cooperatives into tenders for exhibitions, bazaars, buffets and small stands operated in Municipalities,
3. Ensuring that women's cooperatives are contractors in the goods and services purchased by the municipality and other public institutions,
4. Organizing regional courses to enhance women's production skills,
5. Day care centers and rehabilitation centers are opened and businesses are given to women's cooperatives.

Women cooperative activities play an important role in reducing poverty and improving employment. With the training activities that are designed by cooperatives women can develop their professional knowledge and skills and can adapt to their jobs.

Women's participation in the workforce is an important issue in every modern global economy. Women's cooperatives in Turkey have started to be established at the beginning of the year 2000 and play an important role in developing solutions in the sense of social development. Cooperatives are trading companies in accordance with the Turkish Commercial Code numbered 6102. According to the Cooperatives Law No.

1163, the Ordinary General Assembly is held within 6 months from the end of each activity period. The cooperative is managed by members of the board of directors elected by the general assembly, which is open to the participation of all shareholders, and supervised, by members of the audit committee. The working areas of women's cooperatives are as follows (General Directorate of Cooperatives (c), 2018):

1. Organizing training courses for handicrafts,
2. Traditional food, clothing, souvenirs and so on. production and marketing of products,
3. Recreation,
4. Disability education and care,
5. Pre-school education,
6. Exhibitions, festivals, exhibitions, bazaars etc. at home and abroad. Organizing events, participating in such activities or mediating participation of its partners,
7. Organizing social events for their partners, etc.

As told before this study also examined the important activities about cooperatives between 2012-2017, in the recent years in Turkey. Method of the study is *content analysis*. Content analysis is a research technique that used to make replicable and valid inferences by interpreting and coding textual material. By systematically evaluating texts (e.g., documents, oral communication and graphics) that have been gathered into a collection (www.terry.uga.edu/management/contentanalysis/research/).

There are some activities about developing women cooperatives in Turkey in the recent years. Some examples are given below:

****Cooperative Entrepreneurship Traning Project (KOOP-GİR)"* concerns the training of Cooperative entrepreneurship in order to move people to lead the establishment of cooperatives. The reasons for starting the project are as follows. There are some reasons for starting the project (Cooperative Entrepreneurship Training Project" (KOOP-GIR), 2018):

1. In the society there is a negative image about some cooperative models,
2. The reluctance of the entrepreneurs to organize under the cooperative roof,
3. Women's backwardness in terms of men's participation in entrepreneurship and economic participation, the inability of women to take part in economic life,
4. Difficulties in earning the idle workforce and the small capital,

Goals of the project are (Cooperative Entrepreneurship Training Project) (KOOP-GİR), 2018):

1. Creation of awareness about cooperative enterprises,
2. Ensuring the participation of small capital and idle labor through the cooperatives in the economy,
3. Mediation of the settlement of democratic management in society by ensuring the spread of the cooperative movement,
4. Increasing employment through cooperative organizations.

Disposals to be achieved in Case of Progress (Cooperative Entrepreneurship Training Project) (KOOP-GİR), 2018):

1. As a result of the fact that the project is passed on to life, an opportunity will be created for the idle workforce to participate in economic and social life.
2. It will help to raise self-esteem by earning extra income.
3. Region and country employment will be contributed.
4. Collaboration will allow the development of cultures.
5. They will have experienced in managing democratically through cooperatives.

******Cooperative Development and Adaptation Training Program(KOOP-GEP) (2014)*** was put into practice. In this training program; it is aimed to educate the professionals who have the competencies to carry out the work and operations related to the establishment and operation of the cooperatives. At least primary school graduates who have worked as managers, supervisors or staff in cooperatives or who want to work will benefit from the program (Kooperatifçilik Geliştirme ve Uyum Eğitimi Programı (KOOP-GEP),2018). ***Cooperative Development and Adaptation Training Program*** (Kooperatifçilik Geliştirme ve Uyum Eğitimi Programı), which was prepared together with the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization and the Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Livestock, was approved and implemented by the Ministry of National Education in coordination with our Ministry (Cooperative Development and Adaptation Training Program (KOOP-GEP),2018).

According to ***"Turkey Cooperative Strategy and Action Plan (TÜKOSEP)" (2012) within the scope of "increasing the ability of women's entrepreneurship and making efforts to organize as cooperatives" many projects are carried out. ***"Women's Cooperatives Promotion and Capacity Development Project" (KADIN-KOOP)*** started to be carried out in 2012 in order to ensure that female entrepreneurs carry out commercial activities

under the roof of cooperatives. The purpose of the project is to raise the awareness of cooperative enterprises, increase women's employment through cooperatives and to provide economic participation by evaluating hidden women's labor, to spread the movement of cooperative movement and to mediate democratic management among women and to strengthen the capacities of cooperatives established by existing entrepreneurial women to become professional enterprises. Within the scope of this project, publicity and awareness-raising activities are carried out for women entrepreneurs and women are guided by providing legal counseling services (General Directorate of Women's Status, 2017). A special activity has been included in TUKOSEP to ensure that the female workforce is brought into the economy that they work better and on their own terms, and that the enterprise they are working with can also participate in the management. It was stated that women will be working to increase entrepreneurial activities and create cooperatives in the strategy and accordingly ***"Women's Cooperatives Promotion and Capacity Development Project (KADIN-KOOP)"*** has been put into practice (http://koop.gtb.gov.tr/data/592ea2611a79f514ac499aad/TKR- 200510%-basım.pdf 2015-2017).

The aims of the Women's Cooperatives Promotion and Capacity Development Project (KADIN-KOOP) are as follows **(**Kadın Kooperatifleri Tanıtım ve Kapasite Geliştirme Projesi" (KADIN-KOOP), 2018):

1. Creation of awareness about cooperative enterprises,
2. Increasing women's employment through cooperatives and ensuring economic participation by evaluating hidden women's labor, ensuring that women have economic freedom through cooperatives,
3. Mediation of the establishment of democratic management among women by ensuring the spread of the cooperative movement,
4. Increasing female labor force employment through cooperative organizations,
5. Strengthening the communication network between women's cooperatives and ensuring they operate under a strong supremacy,
6. The existing entrepreneurial women have to make the capacities of the cooperatives strengthened into professional enterprises,
7. Reducing the social barriers resulting from sex-based discrimination and ensuring equality of opportunity for women in business life.

The projects that will contribute to the production and employment of cooperatives and higher institutions are supported under the ***KOOP-DES Program ((Project of Supporting Cooperatives (KOOP-DES), 2018):

1. Contributing to the fact that the cooperatives and their top institutions can not do their own projects with their own resources, ensuring efficiency and efficiency in their activities,
2. Increasing the activities of these cooperatives by encouraging the organization of cooperatives established by women who can not join the labor force such as women, environment, culture and business cooperatives,
3. Increasing the income level of cooperative partners and ensuring that individual savings are earned with appropriate cooperative entrepreneurship models,
4. The fact that cooperatives and their superiors follow the technology and contribute to the development of new production techniques are aimed. The KOOP-DES program is being carried out in order to support the investment projects which will be the production and employment contribution of the cooperatives and the higher institutions, to provide efficiency and efficiency in their activities, to contribute to benefit from technology and new production techniques and to bring economies with appropriate cooperative entrepreneurship models.

A report entitled ***"Opportunities for Supporting Women's Cooperatives from Public Sources" was prepared by the Ministry of Customs and Commerce and this report was sent to the Women's Assessment Foundation (KEDV (Foundation for the Support of Women's Work) - ISTANBUL) to be delivered to women's cooperatives. This report has also been made available to the users in the web site of the General Directorate of Cooperatives, the main service unit of the Ministry. On the other hand, this report has been sent to the Governorships (Provincial Directorate of Science, Industry and Technology) for the announcement of these supports to cooperatives and to inform the public so that the cooperatives can benefit more from public support (Cooperatives and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

There are studies conducted by many public institutions and organizations in our country for the participation of our women in the work force. Between the Ministry of Family and Social Policy and the Ministry of Science, Industry and Technology, a protocol was signed on February 10, 2012*** for the development of entrepreneurship activities for women, people with disabilities, veterans and martyrs, and the promotion of women's employment. Strategies for supporting women's entrepreneurship within the

scope of the protocol were determined; it is envisaged to encourage the opening of nurseries where women working in the organized industrial zone can leave their children and to make necessary arrangements within the framework of measures for reconciliation of work and family life (Cooperatives and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

*********Home-based working women in Turkey,*** has began creating a unity in the early 2000s. Home-based women who have gathered in the past years to meet with various institutions and organizations have also asked the unions to ask for the unions to establish policies related to them and to support their efforts. One of the most important grounds for home-based women in our country to organize is the HomeNet, which is organized internationally. Home-oriented women who came together on various floors in the past years discussed how an organization would be more useful for them and they concluded that organizing under "home-oriented women's cooperatives" would be more advantageous than other forms of organization such as associations and foundations. Since cooperatives have solidarity between their members and are able to make income-generating activities, they are confronted as a form of organization which is intensively preferred by women (Cooperatives and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

*********The Tenth Development Plan (2014-2018)*** defines women as a definite priority to improve workforce participation rates and aims to raise this rate to 35% by 2018 (Ministry of Development, 2014). Other important goals include increasing women's participation in decision-making in the family and economic life, as well as providing support for women's participation in the workforce. It is also mentioned the cooperatives in the plan and it is emphasized the need for "developments" as important legal structures supporting collective work (Ministry of Development, 2014) (Duguid et al.,2015).

*********Panel on "The Role of Women's Cooperatives in Creating Equal Opportunity and Increasing the Participation of Women in Labor*** organized within the scope of 2017 Turkey II. Coordination of Cooperatives Fair (General Directorate of Cooperatives (d), 2018).

***** In addition, ***in many cities and towns in Turkey women's cooperatives organize training programs about women***. By the help of training; women cooperatives help women to do their work and manage their work well and women can be supported. Training activities give knowledge to women generally about living and also about wellness, healthy pregnancy, women's reproductive health, child health and nutrition, child growth and development, etc. The women cooperatives also provide training in

women's rights and environmental issues. Also, for contributing to their personal development in some women's cooperatives; leadership training, financial literacy, computer training, gender equality education, sales and marketing, technical training, safety training and first-aid training, women entrepreneurship culture are given. Generally, the aims of training activities are women development, strengthing women, increasing women consciousness, increasing production, women's having job and increasing women participation into economy (Yeşil et al., 2016). Strengthening women contributes to making jobs more economically more effective and sustainable, also women can increase their self-confidence and their position in society. Increasing employment on the job market, getting the qualified workforce into the market, ensuring that women participate more dynamically in the business environment, being able to adapt to change and development, becoming more productive can be achieved by improving women's entrepreneurship (Fidan et al., 2015: 352). It is acknowledged that entrepreneurship is an important component of prosperity and social justice all over the world. Entrepreneurship creates many economic benefits by contributing to the formation of new jobs, innovation, productivity and growth (Esen et al.,2017:171).

Conclusion and Results

Generally, cooperatives provide an interaction and solidarity for women in every case in terms of social benefit, employment creation or production. The ability of women with different abilities to come together and have a common capacity in Cooperatives will provide great benefits for countries' social and economic development. In this context, women who can stand in the economic direction will be able to take their rightful place in social life as a more beneficial individual to their family, the social circle they live in and their country. Cooperatives provide for the recognition of women in the society and reduce their economic dependence within the family as well as playing a very important role in the empowerment of women in the social and economic environment through various programs. On the other hand, it will be possible to accelerate the accession of our country to the movements of 2023 by incorporating the women into the production processes. Female cooperative entrepreneurship is one of the most important tools in achieving this (Cooperatives and Women's Cooperatives, 2017).

According to the current *Status Report on Women's Cooperative in Turkey* (2015) the most important source of support for women's cooperatives is themselves; this support can be in the form of education, funding or solidarity. Women cooperatives can face some internal and external difficulties, which can cause them to close. The main two difficulties

are financial difficulties, in particular the lack of a general understanding of capital formation and women's cooperatives. Women's cooperatives also face with various internal difficulties, such as lack of business management skills and inadequate operational capacity, and lack of information about how cooperatives can best serve their partners' interests. Women's cooperatives in Turkey, despite these difficulties, have significant influence on society. Women provided in-depth information on their personal experience of the effects of cooperatives within the scope of the research. In addition, in their families (e.g. children and their spouses), both local women and the local community have touched on the impacts within the society in general terms. Here, the impact is interpreted as support for empowering women, contributing to lifelong learning and learning, and contributing to workforce participation. And it is thought that these should not be considered alone. They reinforce each other and have a multiplicative effect on the lives of women who are common to women's cooperatives and are beneficiaries. The supporting infrastructure for women's cooperatives in Turkey that the legal environment and the main findings emerged regarding the support programs, cooperatives and / or women of law for entrepreneurship, policies and programs is not taken into account the women's cooperatives. For example, although women have many entrepreneurial training, they feel the lack of programs for cooperative business and governance issues. The Government of Turkey is the cooperative legislation seeks to harmonize the international regulations. In this context, there is a need for understanding and recognition of the social and economic purposes of women cooperatives. This research reveals that the design and implementation of a comprehensive supportive mechanism that will be fundamentally supported by supportive organizations, and the monitoring of these with appropriate activities, will increase the success of women's cooperatives
(http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/931051485321696406/pdf/112242-WP-TURKISH-PUBLIC-Rapor-TR.pdf).

For developing women employment increasing the awareness of women about cooperative enterprises, encouraging women cooperatives for economic development of country, providing economic freedom for women, reducing the obstacles and also ensuring the equality of women and men in business life are important components.

Establishing policies that support the increase and strengthening of the number of women's cooperatives is important for the sustainability of women's cooperatives. In this scope

(http://koop.gtb.gov.tr/data/51f7a6fe487c8e14b4454624/Kooperatif%C3%A7ilik%20ve%20Kad%C4%% the 20Kitap B1n 20Kooperatif%%%% C3% C4% A7 B1k 2018.12.2012.pdf%):

1. Tax reduction or exemption, support for operating expenses,
2. Provision of venues for the exhibition and marketing of the products,
3. Provision of affordable low-interest and long-term credit advantages,
4. Establishment of institutional support mechanisms,
5. Provision of financial resources and human resource support for empowerment training,
6. Establishment of a program with a wide range of support such as cooperatives and accountants' advice lines in the relevant institutions and organizations,
7. Considering the difficulties of women reaching central governments, incentives should be given to establish good relations with the civil society organizations of central and local governments, both in legislation and in programs,
8. Positive discrimination of women cooperatives targeting poverty struggle different from other cooperatives, establishment of different legislation in this context, simplification of establishment processes, definition of support mechanisms,
9. In order to be able to find a strong vertical organization, applications such as providing financial support for upper union and central union organizations are necessary.

As a result, we can say that women develop and manage their management skills through women's cooperatives. Women's cooperatives are managed by 100% women. The board members of private companies in Turkey, while only 8.5% of employees in managerial positions and 7% are women (Turkey First Female Executives Conference, 2013). Women's cooperatives are examples of good governance within themselves as "institutional". At the same time, they spread good governance skills and knowledge to society at large. For example, they are helping to raise awareness about social needs by establishing business associations with local governments and institutions and encouraging the state to carry out activities for community, children and women. According to KEDV's (Foundation for the Support of Women's Work)'s experiences with women's cooperatives in Diyarbakir, Mardin and İzmir, social services provided by women's cooperatives have been undertaken by local governments and institutions, where

good governance (e.g. democracy) and effective institutions (e.g. services that respond to social needs) could also become widespread (Duguid et al.,2015).

In 2015, many new developments have been made in our country and in the world about cooperatives and cooperatives have continued to contribute to production, employment, industry and trade by meeting the needs of their partners and have developed in quality. As a result, cooperatives are proving themselves as the most effective venture model in the world, by activating idle resources, spreading the capital, spreading to the economy by taking the economic and social assurance of disadvantaged sectors and bringing small enterprises back to big actors. It is aimed to provide a better understanding of cooperatives in our country and in the world, to develop accurate and reliable data about cooperatives, to educate in the field of cooperatives, raising awareness at the highest level, continuing studies to break the negative image about cooperatives, the development of cooperation are important for all segments of the society. It is assessed that it is important to continue program-based strategic approaches in the cooperation of public and Cooperative movements, such as UN and ILO Decisions, EU 2020 Strategy and ICA's strategic planning for cooperatives and 2020 vision setting in line with global developments at the point of planning and implementing all these. Thus, Turkish cooperatives will be able to reach stronger, more reliable, more efficient businesses (Cooperative Report of Turkey (2015), 2018).

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12 | Upon the Success of Entrepreneurship Support for Combatting Poverty

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What about those unrecoverable starfish?

Introduction

Entrepreneurship is a phenomenon which has been discussed from the academic perspective and considered on from 1800s up to now, and the influences of whose activities on the entrepreneur, on his/her social environment, and of course, on the society he/she lives in have been discussed.

The functionality of historical perspective in the explanation of social fact-events and phenomena is also effective for entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship which first has defined especially the type of people that provided access to goods or services needed by the market and created an economic value by supplying them, is today a definition used to describe a person who creates value and enables that value to be seen as a need by the society (Safian, 2012: 23).

The change of entrepreneurship can be observed in other factors of production. Form of the labour and the position of labour within the production organization, the form of capital (agents of production), its ownership, its technical possibilities; the volume of capital that laid by entrepreneurs, ownership, and production attachment rates have also

changed in the same historical process. For this reason, changing the definition of expression and content of entrepreneurship is the result of changes of the capitalist production process.

In the early periods of the First Industrial Revolution, the concept of entrepreneurship which was used in a sense to meet the goods and service needs of the market is mostly used to define the businessmen / businesswoman profile, in the present sense. However, in these days, whereas the Fourth Industrial Revolution, it is more appropriate to use entrepreneurship to describe a production factor that emerges due to the concept of innovation, creating value and turning something that was not needed before to become a need. Despite this contextual change, the concept of entrepreneurship is widely used in the sense of businessmen/ businesswomen in daily language. In this sense, a metaphor can be used to better understand the change mentioned above: Let's suppose that an area of a city is newly opened to settlement. People moving to this area will need a variety of goods and services in their daily lives. By considering to meet these needs in a sense of an economic opportunity and opening shops as bakers, markets, pharmacies, restaurants etc. at that area in order to sell/ rent/ offer various goods and services is called entrepreneurship. However, popular definition of this concept as being a business man / business woman today is important in that it reveals the meaning of entrepreneurship in 21st century. Opening of these shops is extremely important in terms of meeting the needs.

In today's world, entrepreneurship is a phenomenon which makes daily life more comfortable or secure and creates value through this feature; changes the emerging value again and again according to the changing world and needs; and can create new needs at this point. A new sense of entrepreneurship can be caught with the difference between opening a shop to sell white goods to a neighbourhood and producing a refrigerator that reduces energy use, keeps foods longer and fresher, works quieter, and has new features.

Poverty which is the second focal point of the work is also an important phenomenon that changes in the historical process like entrepreneurship. Poverty which emerged due to the shortage of resources and these resources owned by very few people in the early period, has continued to grow despite of increasing in production in process and has become a phenomenon which is examined through consumption as well by going beyond the positions of people in production and distribution processes.

Revealing and clearly specifying the distinction between businessmen / businesswomen and entrepreneurs is the most important point on which the basic problem whose answer is sought in this study is based on. As will be mentioned in the following sections, the literature review has shown, this differentiation brings about a new type of human beings that can be defined as entrepreneurs, as well as giving a new content to entrepreneurship. This new person has a new system of behaviour and thinking. Not only offering the goods and services needed in the market but also producing and delivering goods and services which will become a need in the market form are his basic character.

Within the frame of approach, especially with the second liberal period starting after 1980s, the poor were given entrepreneurship support to get rid of their poverty and they were recommended to be entrepreneurs to "get rid of their state of destitution" as a paradigm. Parallel to this trend in the world, that training and support entrepreneurship are given in Turkey.

At this point, the basic question of the study you are reading is how much worked the entrepreneurial support of the poor people to help them to get rid of poverty and whether it brought about the new type of entrepreneur explained above. The claim of the study is that the people who were expected to create a need / value in the market after receiving entrepreneurship trainings did not come out at the end of these trainings and supports, they were unable to get rid of poverty in absolute sense and even worse, the poverty of these people increased more as a result of activities they "took up" rather than getting rid of poverty in some cases.

Microcredit support which is an example of social entrepreneurship within the scope of the study is regarded as an entrepreneurial activity in terms of targeting the poor who want to run their own business. In this frame, interviews with 38 people who live in Diyarbakır, Eskişehir and İzmit provinces and have received microcredit support were examined as a sample case. Besides, since the study will read entrepreneurship through microcredit, 295 questionnaires conducted with microcredit beneficiaries have been given descriptively in İzmit.

It has been found out that in recent years, the approaches have become increasingly common in Turkey and offered to people in lower economic status, saying "set up your own business", " become an entrepreneur" as a "hope gate" in order for them to get rid of poverty did not fit with conceptual content of entrepreneurship and that "alternative way" made the poor more vulnerable to capitalism.

Crises, Capitalism and The Transformation of Entrepreneurship on the Way to the Microcredit

According to the updated dictionary of the Turkish Linguistic Association, entrepreneurship is defined as "an entrepreneurial status". The Enterprise is defined as "a person who initiates and undertakes a job for production, entrepreneur", as well. The concept of entrepreneurship, which has a very limited dictionary meaning, actually has a scope fed by concepts deeper and contextually different. According to what Günlü quoted (2015: 24), Jean Baptiste Say described entrepreneur in the 19th century as "a person who activates economic resources and taking a less productive field up to a higher productivity and a higher return". Thus, entrepreneurship has been assessed from a systematic point of view and framed as the use of economic resources that are organized through productivity and that increase productivity to achieve higher returns.

In order to explain the semantic and contextual change of entrepreneurship, it is important to examine and analyze the alteration in production relations at first. The capitalist production associations in the first years of the industrial revolution have undergone significant revisions, particularly due to the crises capitalism has experienced. For example, after the crisis in 1873[49], the new capitalist organization entered into a new organization through finance and financial management. The deflation which came out as a result that stocks could not be eradicated although production grew like an avalanche, has led a new organization to be created over efficient use of resources. Capital that focused on the increase of production up to then, strengthened its financial management ability through efficiency and as a result, various changes in production relations emerged.

The "social state" model which emerged after the 1929 crisis, has brought into question not only the re-evaluate of relations of production just as it was in the capitalism but also

[49] Among social scientists there are significant evaluation differences in the content of economic and social changes in terms of paradigms and ideological belongings they have. One example of these differences is the crisis that has begun in 1873 and lasted until 1896 and was called the "Great Depression" in the literature. However, there are different approaches to crises whether it is occurs or not, in other words, it is a sense of crisis which was based on speculation. While, for example, Hobsbawm said that it was not possible to define the crisis in those years as a crisis in any way; Dobb saw it as a turning point when the capitalism passed from one state to another. Engels described those years as the process of "devastating depression" while defining the period. It is thought that the study of Muammer Kaymak, named "1873-1896 Crisis: Myth or Reality?" published in the magazine (65-2) of Ankara University FPS is thought it will be a beneficial source in order to examine the crisis in a multifaceted way that capitalism experienced in 1873.

the re-organizing of relations of dividing. With this new period, the state undertook an entrepreneurial role to solve the problem of unemployment that the classical liberal economic model could not solve with the "invisible hand" and to provide full employment (Sallan Gül, 2006; Dericioğulları Ergun, 2014), made an impression of "a social entrepreneur".

The ones who defended the idea of resolving the available crisis in 1979 came to a common idea that the changing relations of production and distribution could no longer be sustained since 1929. The neoliberal model saw this as a great problem that the state had a say in the division of prosperity as well as the place it occupied in the initiative processes and naturally economic life, and therefore the production and distribution relations have been restructured since the 1980s. On the other hand, the existence of the state was attempted to be excluded from the market as it was in the classical liberal approach, and brought a point only where the capitalists needed help, as a result, it was passed to the neoliberal period we name it as a second liberal enterprise[50].

The periods of the capitalist crisis which are partly emphasized here and which are not mentioned because of their smaller size have brought about minor revisions in their relations with production and distribution. In this sense, it is possible to say that there is a capitalism which not only sees the crisis as an opportunity all the time for the realization of economic goals but also renews itself with every crisis, and becomes more powerful since the emergence of capitalism as a whole. During these changes, it can be said that according to the classical economic theory, entrepreneurs who are the most scarce / least found elements of the productive forces have experienced change in their characteristics, aims, working principles, visions and profiles.

From The Social Policies of the Welfare State to the Social Politicisation of Entrepreneurship

[50] The expression of second liberal enterprise is used instead of neo-liberalism concept. The reason why we make this distinction is to specify that the neoliberalism, which tries to possess the system of exploitation, not only at the local level but also at the global level in the form of the rematch of the first encounter the social state has won, has basically no difference from liberalism, but rather it is more brutal, more crueler than the old liberalism and having no bounds. While it is possible to conduct a wide study on this issue, there is still a wide debate in the literature as to whether the basic principles and objectives of capitalism have changed and its newness/oldness, especially over globalization.

It is known that until 1980s, the state has taken an active role in solving problems such as getting rid of poverty and generating a sustainable income. The conscious intervention in this process by collective subject which is within the change of this process and the social state argues that entrepreneurship is liberation for the poor, depending on the paradigm in which it is based.

According to the welfare state, classes are an undeniable reality and there is a struggle between them. In this context, the state acts in favour of the disadvantaged class. In so doing, he embraces the principle of "social citizenship" and develops a scenario that, according to this principle, allows everyone to receive as much as they deserve from social welfare (Koray, 2008). This is a distribution approach, and while the welfare state is developing this approach, it has developed a "minimum level" principle for everyone to take his share from the social welfare.

The welfare state imposes the burden of "social protection" on the state budget for determining and sustaining that level and it spreads the cost of this burden to the whole society (Kayalıdere and Şahin, 2014: 57-75). In this context, it is possible to make many different definitions of what the social state is. While some authors emphasize the provision of minimum level of living, some authors describe the welfare state over social justice thought which includes issues ranging from the elimination of wage injustice to increased access to services (Dericioğulları Ergun and Sallan Gül, 2016: 338- 339). But perhaps the most concise of these different approaches is the definition of the welfare state based on the economic, social and political adaptation of the poor people, which is the common denominator (Bulut, 2003; Soysal: 1974; Güler: 2003; Koçancı and Ergun, 2018; Aydın, 2005).

In contrast to the subsequent second liberal enterprise, the welfare state which is combating poverty in all areas distributed the cost coming out to whole society while doing such practices as the effective maintenance of active and passive employment policies, the withdrawal of those outside the production process into the productive population and ensuring basic transformations including enhancing personal and qualitative adequacy of the workforce, developing policies to end social marginalization of those who suffer from spatial, political, social and cultural exclusion and marginalization. Distributing these costs is an important factor in the regression and collapse of the social state. The principle of combating poverty by the social state and everyone's receiving his share from public prosperity has become controversial because of the increased public spending and it's being higher than the growth rates. According to

Abbot and Wallace (1992), even if distributing the costs of that new emerging society (sub-classes with greater share of prosperity) by the welfare state on the whole society is an important matter, the value-meaning, The "new society" has become a trigger for the emergence of the wave of second liberal attacks, where the value, meaning and symbols of society, and Christian beliefs, are overwhelmed by the "conservative" feelings of the family approach. Although the collapse of the welfare state, especially in Continental Europe, is a subject of another debate, the tendency of globalization to coexist with the second liberal enterprise has made important changes in the social policy system established by the welfare state. The restriction of social spending, the narrowing of social assistance organizations, and even changed aid policies especially in developing countries have led a changeover from a right-oriented social policy approach to an appreciation-philanthropy oriented approach of social policy. The second liberal enterprise epoch which partly allows the subclasses or "underclass" as a social category get their share from social welfare in terms of scarcity and economic use of sources has created a successful social transformation and network of relationships. Thus, the task of resolving the problems loaded on the public in the period of welfare state was left to the civil society organizations and religious institutions (Markantonatou, 2007: 119). In that way, the problems that people experience are reduced to the individual level as if they were in the first liberal period before the welfare state, instead of searching for structural and mass solutions. As in all liberal periods, individual inadequacies as a source of problems have begun to emerge and the social citizenship emerged by the welfare state has been transformed into liberal citizenship.

According to Swyngedouw (Harwey, 1991), fordist production which is the mode of production of the welfare state has undergone a transformation based on the individual's personal struggle while it was transforming into post-fordist production. Accordingly, mass production turned into small deck production; uniform standardized commodity production turned into production based on product diversity; inventory goods management turned into order goods management. While these stages constitute the backbone of flexible production, some other factors appeared that will change the employees' work perception and work behavior. For example, quality control after production has turned into quality control in production processes; intensive production bureaucracy has turned into time- dependent - less intensive and functional bureaucracy; supply-oriented production has turned into demand driven production; vertical and horizontal organizations in the workplace has turned into intertwined, verticalish and subcontracting organizations and finally the employer's wage-checking-cost reduction

efforts have turned into open wage differentials among wage earners and R & D studies which is the most important expenditure area of today's developed firms apart from production/ marketing relations. In particular, wage differentials among employees have directly affected employees' performance meanwhile reduced their ability to work together in terms of the processes of industry relations.

This differentiation in the way of production model also influenced the political acceptance of the person as an indirect result which influenced working life and state organization at the same time. The understanding of multi-tasking from the understanding of the single task that workers have changed in the process; transferring from a collectively designated fee to a personal payment and bonus system; recruitment of personnel who understand a little more than every profession rather than advanced specialization; the elimination of hierarchical cliffs by passing horizontal business organization from vertical and solid work organization and the introduction of long work-related learning processes and the shift to a working life in which there is no job security for relatively unqualified workers and where working conditions are based on productivity, providing employment security for core workers and qualified persons have emerged.

Therefore, the tendency to be an employer as a historical obligation rather than an employee has arisen. All this change has not lifted the phenomenon of poverty, and it has even made it essential to accept a new formula at the global level to get rid of poverty. In this formula, although the task of struggle with poverty is shown as being social, the subject is not the social structure but the individual itself, in order to get rid of poverty.

The upper and lower structural transformation the welfare state has been exposed to has also terminated the previously accepted Keynesian employment policies, and the state which has done the work that the invisible hand could not do has been rapidly dismissed from the market. As a reflection of this, the state's social assistance and services started to leave its place to some non-governmental aid and "social entrepreneur" organizations. While the social policy which is carried out on the axis of a liberal philanthropy becomes one of the arguments that will lead people to God's Paradise, as in the first liberal period; rights-based social policies are tied to a support/ aid system which is appreciation based and only the ones at the bottom can benefit from.

Entrepreneurship

The transformation in state and economic organization has also manifested itself in the field of entrepreneurship. Depending on the historical changes, Safian (2012: 23) who groups entrepreneurship approaches according to the persons who make these definitions has classified the entrepreneurship and the characteristics of the entrepreneurs in 7 different groups. The first example of this grouping is Schumpeter who owns the classic entrepreneurial approach. Schumpeter considers the entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurs as persons who create value in the marketplace in his study in 1934. Innovativeness is the basic notion of classical entrepreneurship. Innovativeness does not mean simply creating a new product. Nevertheless, the innovation of production methods and the development of new production models are among the elements of changing business processes and consequently, classical entrepreneurship. Another point the entrepreneur should reveal, is the creation of a new market or accessing a new market. While creating a market refers to the process of making a new goods into need; accessing a new market means to form business networks, marketing strategies and enabling them to be consumed by the new mass. According to Schumpeter, entrepreneur, the subject of change, has to make a new presentation for the society. This presentation not only requires a contextual change, but also a formal procedure. The final characteristic of entrepreneurship which is explained through product, production, market, presentation change is to introduce a new organization. The most important aspect of this issue is that the organizational charts and the agents who placed on this chart correspond to the institution's entrepreneurial values (Schumpeter, 1934).

Mc. Clelland's (1961) entrepreneurial approach is based more on a socio-psychological analysis. Accordingly, entrepreneurs' achievement motivation is much more superior to other characteristics of them. Undoubtedly the business risk, which is undertaken by the entrepreneur, is the reason why the achievement motive that high. Thereby, the risk that the entrepreneur's capital for production may be damaged, or perhaps even cause the entire capital to be lost is the greatest influence that shapes the entrepreneur's achievement motive. This motive shows itself in the fields of design, production, and marketing and according to Mc. Clelland, the entrepreneurs are defined as dedicated ones with a high achievement potential who undertake high risks, control process management so that risks will not come true.

According to Kirzner (1978), an entrepreneur is an opportunity hunter and his characteristic feature is making a big haul. Making a big haul means having the maximum

profit in a short time, at the right time and in the right way by taking advantage of the opportunities in the market. Taking advantage of the opportunities in the market means maximizing profits as well as benefiting from new opportunities in fields such as production, design and marketing. In that sense, an entrepreneur is called a person who analyses and manages the entire production and marketing process to make a big haul. This characteristic of the entrepreneur also takes its place in the globalization approach that will emerge a few years later and will be formulated as a desire to establish a single political and economic system all around the world.

In the same period, Shapero (2009) defines entrepreneurship as being the person who takes initiative and has the ability to organize and manage organizations. The creation of production organizations and the recognition of the entrepreneur, as the one who is directly responsible for the successes or failures of these organizations, show parallelism with the mission and vision that are now on the entrepreneur. While Kao and Stevenson (1985) regard entrepreneurship as a value-creating and opportunity-oriented factor of production; Timmons and Spinelli (2004) see entrepreneurship as a form of thinking, a process of meaning; and address entrepreneurship behaviour as an opportunity-oriented attitude and vision of leadership. Accordingly, entrepreneurs are considered to be ones who have leadership features and look at the events and processes through the window of taking advantage of them and make decisive and holistic analyses.

As a result of the changing meaning of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, it is possible to say about that newly emerged enterprising man is that he is a person who is innovative, takes risk, devoted, aims to make a big haul, organizing, takes initiative, thinks strategically, creates value and opportunity motivated, leader and affiliated with his organization.

On the other hand, entrepreneurial activities are offered to the lower income group or to ones who have no incomes, as an important opportunity in getting rid of the poverty of the poor. The process of more equitable sharing of social welfare which the welfare state has undertaken intensively between 1930 and 1980, and which has been achieved through changes in distributional relations; has changed in response to liberal approaches to re-engage with the 1980s, with the view that the state's diminishing economic structure and " the ones that are at the bottom" as finds its definition in Esping-Andersen's statement (2006), can be helped in social policy. With this period, social distribution of wealth, social justice, etc. concepts are reconnected to market conditions. This perspective

continues to propagandize, in fact, that everybody can be an entrepreneur, if that is not possible, one stays in a poor position with his own inadequacies or ineptitude.

A Special Field of Poverty, Women's Poverty and Women's Entrepreneurship through Microfinance- Microcredit

The most important feature of entrepreneurship that makes itself as a subject of a social policy is its meaning in competing against poverty. There may be two basic cases of how entrepreneurship can cope with poverty. First one is mainly those who become entrepreneurs directly through entrepreneurship and get over poverty through their activities. The second one is the employment, the poor who are connected with the workforce the emerging business network, in other words, the employment created by the entrepreneurs. In today's world, these two situations are bringing entrepreneurship into our lives as a social policy argument.

According to Shaeikh and Ali (2013: 109), the private sector has important tasks to reduce poverty in today's world. In this context, examples can be seen that entrepreneurship reduces poverty when looking at both developed and backward countries.

According to Soyak (2010: 129- 130), it is possible to examine the reasons underpinning women entrepreneurship in three different approaches which are socioeconomic role of entrepreneurship; growth approach, business creation approach and poverty reduction approach. The approach of growth considers women's entrepreneurship as a source of economic growth as a whole. On the basis of the job creation approach, it is developing a perspective on supporting women's entrepreneurship in order to reach wider strategies in the fight against unemployment. The approach for reducing poverty gives priority to the need for poor women and their families to have their own business as a means of rescuing their lives.

According to Bruton and his friends (2013: 683-689), although entrepreneurship has been studied by many people from Schumpeter up to today, it is is an important point of criticism that almost all of these studies have been conducted in North America or in European countries where there are no problems regarding financial resources and social attitudes in terms of technology and innovation, there were no massive appearances of poverty, on the other hand, the state made actions in that field for so long. Bruton and his colleagues express an important critique here over both geographical diffusion and relations of entrepreneurship with individual competencies.

On the other hand, entrepreneurship is an approach to reduce poverty which is one of the strategies to combat unemployment on the basis of job creation where importance is given in peripheral countries as well as in central countries (Akın, 2010). By looking from the perspective of creating jobs and employment at the outcomes of entrepreneurial programs/ trainings/ supports designed for groups with lower income and non-income on the basis of entrepreneurial activities, these results can be basically aggregated under three headings. They can be grouped as researches suggesting that entrepreneurship reduces poverty, researches suggesting that entrepreneurship activities does not reduce poverty but regards as an activity that helps build new solidarity networks that will pave the way for the social inclusion of the poor, and lastly, the suggestions which can be grouped that entrepreneurial activities, let alone relieving the poor from poverty, they have no positive effect on the social inclusion of the poor people or the establishment of new networks of solidarity on the one hand, and weakens low social solidarity even more due to uncertainty and debt tension they created on the poor.

In the process of motivating women to the gaining of the economic life by way of entrepreneurship, women are the group that is treated specially and privileged in terms of entrepreneurial support and activities. According to Ecevit (2001), the form and status of women's employment that came to the city showed differences in the opposite direction from the employment pattern of the man because of city attraction depending on the industrialization. While men are connected with industrial relations in a formal/ formal relation, women cannot be connected with business life with the principles of social security and law, take their part especially in the service sector with an atypical employment.

Therefore, the ones who make productions are men, and those who provide services are women in cities. Accordingly, the different production relations between men and women did not come out, and poverty of men and women has shown differences as well as their as social status (Kümbetoğlu, 2002: 129).

According to what Ecevit quoted (2003: 85-86), women's poverty was an important topic of discussion at the World Conference on Women held in Beijing, and such issues as women's limited right of property, unequal treatment to women on accessing and using resources compared to men, being excluded from economic and political life have been expressed as important elements of women's poverty.

According to Tömen and Sarvan (2015: 348), it is possible to collect the programs of fight against poverty carried out by governments and non-state organizations under certain headings. Accordingly, project activities aimed to improve the position of the poor in the labour market, projects to increase employment and productivity in agriculture, increasing the opportunities for vocational training and credit in a way that the poor can easily access, environmental and urban arrangements such as afforestation or gentrification, projects that create low-wage employment, and grants/ loans and other support to build up their own businesses for the poor can be grouped into anti-poverty programs. According to this, it is possible to distinguish aids in two basic groups as the ones given in the direction of the urgent needs and the ones given on the structure/ individual process-transformation. Entrepreneurship supports also fall into the group of aids provided through the process-transformation relationship.

Almost all over the world, entrepreneurship programs are accepted as a social policy argument in combating poverty. However, this argument needs to be examined through the outcomes of entrepreneurship support in order to measure the effectiveness of social welfare distribution. Many institutions, including the International labour organization have been involved in making entrepreneurship a social policy for those in lower classes, legal regulations have changed in the scope of international conventions and European Union acquis. As a result, legal base of support by the state for entrepreneurial activity in Turkey was created. Within this context, entrepreneurship activities are supported by the state from the remaining inheritance from social state modeling as well as civil society while the development of women entrepreneurship is particularly an important matter (Tömen and Sarvan, 2015: 349-350).

Women's participation in the workforce is closely related to social gender roles. According to the "Household Time Sharing Model", domestic responsibilities are not shared equally, and the woman consumes the time remaining outside the labour market which actually is to be run through paying their fees by the house. This is an obstacle before full-time entry of women into the labour market (Durmaz, 2016: 42). Therefore, the emergence of a workplace where women can move more flexible in terms of time management and active labour hours has gained both structural and functional importance (Vidic, et al, 2016). It is envisaged that the quality of female labor will be increased in the labor market by strengthening women in this line of acceptance, and output such as services and products will qualitatively develop as the female labor force turns to entrepreneurship (Fidan et al., 2015). At this point, many activities organized

under the name of entrepreneurship in our country are an important way for women to enter the time management and active labor market ungracefully.

Microfinance- Microcredit

Microfinance, as it is commonly known, is a system of financing for people (more, or even almost entirely for women) who cannot be a customer of an ordinary bank.

The microcredit which is based on low lending and short repayment periods that do not meet the definition of trust of banks or other fund providers, and are out of the target groups of these institutions, is carried out as "poor banking" through social entrepreneurship and it is considered to be important in many developed/developing countries.

Microcredit is discussed in most works of literature as a model of social entrepreneurship. However, during the social entrepreneurship activity, the necessity to make profits which are not in the examples of social entrepreneurship in general, are also included in microcredit. The profits it earns are seen as "capital increase" beyond the continuation of the work and this capital increase means new credit supports are delivered to the poor. For this reason, according to Bornstein (1996), microfinance is "a capitalist institution having a social consciousness".

Microcredit is an important application implemented in numerous countries from Bolivia to Ghana; from Indonesia to Zimbabwe. Littelefield and his friends (2003) has reported that financial services provided to poor households are an important function in the realization of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals and defend the idea that the poor who are microcredit beneficiaries showed of indications of many such recoveries as income, education, health, nutrition, economic situations and education of children.

According to Artukoğlu (2009: 227), comparison of standard banking activities with Grameen Bank, a microfinance institution and the first and only bank of the microcredit program will ensure that the main differences between the two financial support units will be clearer. According to this, the customer profiles of classical banks are not generally made up of the poor. Standard banks' "guarantee" security system is extremely strict and important. Customers have to go to the bank in the usual way. Classical bankers have their own offices. They have a credit system, restricted in ranges and strict in granting procedures. However, Grameen Bank does not carry these features as a microfinance

bank. For example, all customers are either below or above the poverty line. Grameen Bank establishes a relationship based on mutual trust throughout its activities. Grameen Bank employees create a working environment outside of their offices, and they visit their customers personally to perform credit sales. Credit types are about 50 ranges. The bank has other objectives such as creating value thanks to its social entrepreneurship principles and solving social problems. Grameen Bank's rules and procedures are much less than those of other banks. There are red lines here, as in every organization, but these red lines, according to the Bank's claim, are not the sort of things that would make daily life hard. According to Grameen Bank, what is important is human.

When comparing the profit-oriented banking and the banking activities which are examples of social entrepreneurship, the above-mentioned differences are extremely contrary and at the same time they are remarkable. There are, however, a myriad of researches here that suggest that Grameen Bank and its microcredit system are not as much as they have been told. For example, Buğra (2007) sees the use of microcredit as a means of combating poverty as a pitiful story, suggesting that the organizational structure of the microcredit "increases the burden of solidarity networks that already carry too much burden". Buğra emphasizes that the growing belief for the "minimization of the state" as a slogan of the second liberal enterprise epoch silenced the voice of social rights claims and then people, therefore, turned to different way outs in hope and says that microcredit is an element of this hope trade. In this context, while poverty is not denied through microcredit practices, it is suggested to the poor the necessity to use entrepreneurship which is a more scarce resource than the ability of capital and labour in the economic sense to save themselves.

From this point of view, entrepreneurship is reduced to capital ownership, in fact, through the functions of another production factor, and it loses its special meaning in classical economics. However, entrepreneurship, in particular in the case of the poor and sub-classes, is in the process of providing an offering of goods or services that can be needed in the market than an innovative value-creation principle, which corresponds being a "businessman" more than being an entrepreneur.

According to Husain (2008), the role of each microfinance program poverty is not the same in reducing, and microfinance institutions that are "in need of external assistance and donations" have a lower chance of success in fighting poverty, a those that have their own income and stand on their feet, have a higher chance of success.

Chowdhur (2009), as well, participated in debates of microfinance programs' combatting poverty and made a critical assessment of the current literature. Accordingly, he emphasizes that a significant improvement has been made in the name of innovation, but entrepreneurship is not in the centre of these practices, but on the other hand, microfinance has an important role of creating safety network and regulating consumption.

It is seen that three different assertions are expressed in the literature for microcredit, a type of microfinance, and people working in this field have developed three different approaches to the microcredit system when microcredit applications are examined (Koçancı, 2016: 875).

The first of these groups are the authors such as Morshed (2010), Lofça and Aydın (2010), Yılmaz (2010) and Latifee (2010) who say that microcredit is an important means of combating poverty. The second group is those who say that let alone microcredit is a poverty-reducing effect, on the contrary, it has even poverty-enhancing aspect within the capitalist market. This group includes many writers such as Von Luxburg (2010), Çiftçi and Akkul (2013), Öz and Çolakoğlu (2014), Aşkın and Barış (2015) and Balkız (2015). In addition, the numbers of these authors are increasing in the recent period when the magic of microcredit has broken. On the other hand, there is another group of authors such as Adaman and Bulut (2007), Özmen (2012), Şengür and Taban (2012) and Koçancı (2016) who also reassess microcredit from its features of reaching new networks and raising solidarity and mutualization, thus, tackle poverty as in the approach developed by the World Bank in 2009 that assesses the accessibility of new networks not only through the lack of work and income, but also through instutions provided by social and economic networks and organizations that people live in.

A Field Data on Poor Women Entrepreneurship

In view of the socioeconomic role of entrepreneurship, it is possible to examine the reasons underpinning women's entrepreneurship in three different approaches: the Growth approach, the job creation approach and the poverty reduction approach (UNECE, 2004 and OECD, 2000). The growth approach sees women's entrepreneurship as a source of the growth of the economy as a whole. At the core of the job creation approach is the view of supporting women's entrepreneurship in the name of broader strategies for struggling with unemployment. The approach to reducing poverty gives priority to the need for poor women and their families to have their own

jobs as a means of rescuing their lives (Soyak, 2010: 129-130). The different justifications underpinning women's entrepreneurship are also reflected in policy priorities and can lead to different approaches to policy outreach. For example, active labour market policies in the EU encourage self-employment based largely on the basis of job creation, and programs for this purpose are operated for the benefit of women. In the US and Canada, approaches based on economic growth focus on the risks to formal sector entrepreneurs of larger enterprises rather than low-income micro-entrepreneurs. Conversely, many programs based on non-governmental organizations, particularly in developing and in Eastern Europe countries supporting of women to work in their own jobs aim at poor and vulnerable women and set out an approach based on a reason of typical poverty reduction. The most important problem that comes to mind at this point is that these programs have to be designed in conjunction with the programs of the governments that determine the economic policies. If there is a shortfall in this issue, the mentioned programs can risk marginalizing them and isolating them from society rather than helping them integrate into the economic system.

This part of the study consists of descriptive/ basic statistical tables obtained from the face-to-face interview forms made with 295 women who live in Izmit province in 2013-2014 and are themselves microcredit beneficiaries.

Table 1: Age

Age		Frequency	Percent
Valid	18- 28	23	7,8
	29- 39	175	59,3
	39- 49	83	28,1
	50+	14	4,7
	Total	295	100,0

As can be seen in the table, 59.3% of the microcredit users in the sample of the study consist of women between ages 29-39 and 28.1% of them are between the ages of 39-49. It is seen that the vast majority of micro-credit users are women of middle age group. Qualitative studies have shown that women entering this group are engaged in economic activities to support their livelihood, that the money earned by the male members of the house is not enough, or that the male members of the house do not work at all as seen in many examples.

Table 2: New Product

Do you think you are doing something new that was not on the market before with the product you are producing/ selling?			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	18	6,1
	No	277	93,9
	Total	295	100,0

It is known that innovation lies at the heart of today's entrepreneurship. Looking at the fieldwork, only 6.1% of the women who started entrepreneurship by taking microcredit or aimed to improve their existing venture are talking about a new production / sale that is not so far on the market. In this case, it can be mentioned that microcredit supports do not create a new entrepreneurial profile for women, in a sense literature tells to us. As it is learned from in-depth interviews, the vast majority of women who indicate that they produce or sell innovative products have tried to produce/ sell a product that was not available in the market before the microcredit use. It is possible to mention that microcredit support is not used to develop a new product in this sense.

Table 3: New Market

Have you reached a new market with microcredit support?			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	111	37,6
	No	184	62,4
	Total	295	100,0

Table 4: Reaching the Market

What do you think is the reason that you cannot reach the market?			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Inadequate credit given	29	9,8
	I did not search for a new market	32	10,8
	Municipal / Public does not show us suitable places	102	34,6
	The work I do is not suitable for finding new markets / peripheral sales	21	7,1
	Total	184	62,4
	Those reaching a new market	111	37,6
	Total	295	100,0

When Table 3 and Table 4 are interpreted together, it is seen that 37.6% of those reach a new market among the women using microcredit. On the other hand, when inquired why they cannot reach a new market, the main problem seems to be related to sales of manufactured products. Finding a market is one of the most important aspects of market-creating entrepreneurial profile. However, microcredit beneficiaries show that there is no closeness between the entrepreneurial profile and the profile of microcredit beneficiaries by the literature, giving different responses from the inadequacy of the given credit to their business's being not suitable for finding new markets. When looking at the data obtained from the qualitative part of fieldwork, it can be seen that most of the women are selling handicrafts (lace-braids etc.) or various textile materials (pyjamas, confectionery products etc.) they have bought cheaply and sold them to their surroundings, in this process, they make use of microcredit supports to buy threads and other materials. On the other hand, those who enter into the search for a new market will be able to produce overshoes or kitchen utensils that can be produced by using machines. Therefore, the search for a new market is a situation that changes depending on the nature and type of the work as character traits of the entrepreneur.

Table 5: New Partners- Taking Risk in Business Life- Capacity of Make a Big Haul

	Do you have new business partners through Microcredit?		Do you take risks in your business life?		Do you see yourself as a person with ability "to make a big haul" in business life?	
Valid	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	164	55,6	38	12,9	17	5,8
No	131	44,4	99	33,6	199	67,5
Partially	0	0,0	158	53,6	79	26,8
Total	295	100,0	295	100,0	295	100,0

According to the entrepreneurship profile, when people start their business activities, they have to enter into new business organizations and direct them; they can take risk and must have a character that features to be able to make a big haul in terms of both production and sales/ marketing. Looking at the picture above from this angle, 55.6% of the women who are included in the sample, were found to have established new business partnerships. Qualitative evidence has shown that these partnerships are actually individual efforts and that the partnership perception is a group of 5 people, one of the support conditions of the microcredit office.

At the point of risk taking, 12.9% of microcredit beneficiaries stated that they could take a risk and 53.6% of them stated that they can take risks partly. About one-third proportion of the sample showed that they never take risks in their current work by showing that they were far away from the entrepreneur's profile.

According to the fieldwork, 5.8% of microcredit users see themselves as a person with ability to make a big haul. A proportion of 67.5% of them did not see the qualification of "man of a big haul" in them, which means capturing big profit opportunities.

Table 6: Growing with Microcredit Support- Creating a New Job with Microcredit

Valid	Did you grow your business with microcredit support?		Have you used microcredit support to create new jobs?	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	122	41,4	98	33,2
No	173	58,6	197	66,8
Total	295	100,0	295	100,0

The rate of people who grew their businesses with microcredit support is 41.4%. The common features of growing work according to qualitative study data, women who were in need of production and lacking in capital bought technical materials and equipments, are speaking of growing their business through them. Many women who cannot grow their business, on the other hand, are the ones who set aside the microcredit that they use for the payment of the current debts. It is seen that from those interviewed that there are those who use micro credit support in their daily life for their needs excluding production since the support received via that program is not questioned where to use.

On the other hand, the rate of those who made use of microcredit opportunities to create new jobs is 33.2%. It is also seen from the data obtained from qualitative studies that the women who created new business areas are mostly in the sales sector and defined their product diversification as a new job creation. Creating a new job in this framework is actually outside the entrepreneurship profile as it means a rise in the diversity of the current products that are sold.

Table 7: Reduce of Poverty

	Did microcredit reduce your poverty?	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes, to a large extent.	21	7,1
	Yes, partially	24	8,1
	No, there was no change	204	69,2
	No, On the contrary, I became even more poorer	46	15,6
	Total	295	100,0

Approximately 15% of microcredit beneficiaries appear that their poverty status has reduced more or less through microcredit use. However, there are 15.6% of people who say that their poverty status has increased more. When extreme values are excluded from the general evaluation, it is observed that there is no change in the poverty status of the general population of microcredit users entering the sample area. It can be said that microcredit, one of the "entrepreneurship" supports, as claimed in this framework, does not reduce or increase poverty. Qualitative data in this frame is in line with the above table. When people use microcredit, they meet their acute needs, which create a relative economic relief for a while, but shows that they cannot solve their financial problems permanently due to this source.

Table 8: Current Business or Regular Job

Valid	If possible, would you like to continue your current business or have a regular job?	
	Frequency	Percent
I want to work in a regular job	187	63,4
I shall run my own business	68	23,1
I am not sure	40	13,6
Total	295	100,0

From the perspective of entrepreneurship profile, it is known that those with entrepreneurial characters do not tend to jobs that are regular and with constant income. Looking at the above table, it is seen that 63,4% of the women included in the sampling wanted to work in a job with regular and constant income. On the other hand, 23.1% stated that they want to continue their current business. Among those who want to continue their current job during qualitative work, it is seen that women who execute non-paid and non-transferable liabilities, such as looking after spouses, children, elderly and patient care at home, want more to participate in the active labour market. The data obtained in this framework does not match up with the entrepreneur profile.

Conclusion

Entrepreneurship is an important phenomenon that shows changes in the historical process and is valued at national and international level, especially with the second liberal period. The duties and responsibilities which are undertaken by the social state in the combatting poverty in the historical process have gradually decreased with the 1980s and new social policies have begun to be developed in the context of the combatting the new poverty.

For some circles, entrepreneurship is also made into one of these social policy arguments and is offered as a hope of salvation for those who suffer from lack of income or absence. In this rationale, in the case of failing in the commercial activities of the poor who receive various training in order to take the title of "entrepreneur", the cause and responsibility of failure are attributed to their personal inadequacy by considering the structural or social dimensions beyond the power of determining factors.

Within the scope of the study, microcredit support, which is in fact one of the entrepreneurship supports, is actually given to the persons not carrying entrepreneurial features; that these people cannot carry out commercial activities as they already have social-cultural and economic capital in real terms and that the works they do are not of that kind creating value on the market and creating demands for the product and a kind of work as supplying services and goods in to the market that are already needed by the market.

In this context, it is thought that the success stories expressed in the support of microfinance do not in fact reflect the general public. While entrepreneurship is an employment-creating activity as it appears in the literature, it means for many to enhance current individual's work more and brings mobility into the labour market for those who do that job. As can be seen from the research findings, those who receive micro finance support actually want to do a regular job with constant-income, however, they start to run their own business since they cannot find a place for themselves in that area which is too limited due to structural and social reasons and also they have to meet their needs under hard living conditions.

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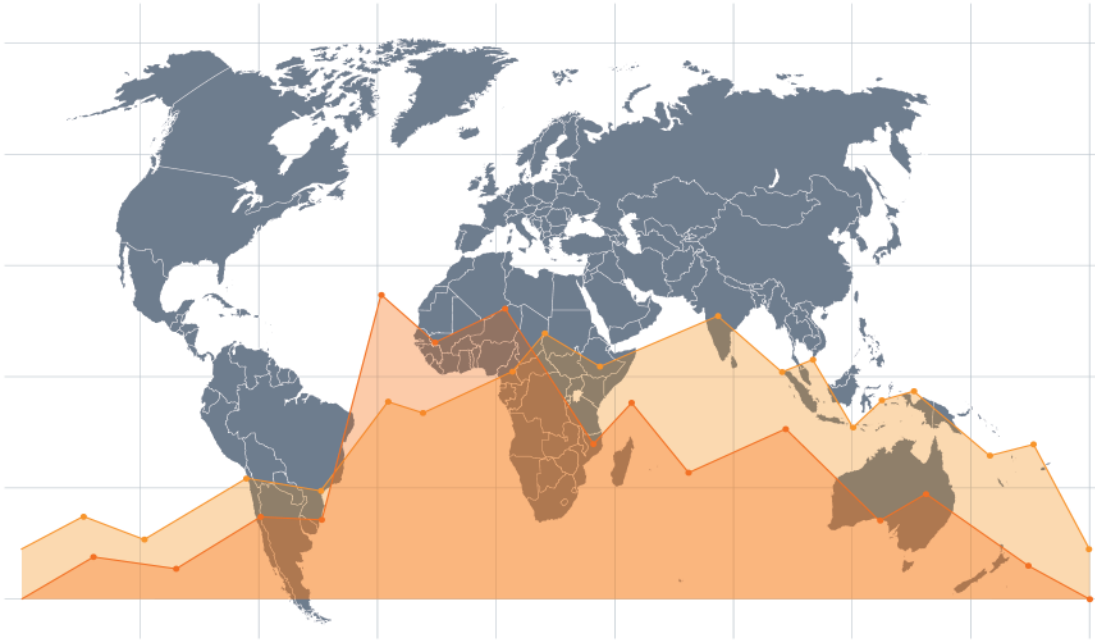

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