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International Balkan and Near Eastern Social Sciences Conference Series
IBANESS Conference Series-Plovdiv/BULGARIA

March 12-13, 2016

University of Agribusiness and Rural Development
Plovdiv/BULGARIA

PROCEEDINGS

Editors

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FOREWORD

International Balkan and Near Eastern Conference Series brings together many distinguished social and behavioral science researchers from all over the world. Participants find opportunities for presenting new research, exchanging information, and discussing current issues.

We are delighted and honored to host the ***IBANESS Conference Series*** in Plovdiv/BULGARIA at the University of Agribusiness and Rural Development. Presented papers have been selected from submitted papers by the referees. Sincere thanks to those all who have submitted papers.

We hope that through exchange of the presented researches and experiences, the Conference will enhance communication and dissemination of knowledge in Balkan and Near Eastern Countries.

The Organization Committee
13 March, 2016

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Program

March 12, 2016 - Saturday

09:00 – 17:45	Registration	Congress Center		
10:00 – 10:45	Opening Ceremony	Congress Center	Prof.Dr. Rasim Yılmaz (IBANESS) Prof.Dr. Eng. Dimitar Kirilov Dimitrov	

10:45 - 11:00 Coffee Break

11:00 – 13:00	Parallel Session I	Congress Center Chair Person: Prof.Dr. Mariana Ivanova	Mariana Ivanova	E-learning course for Good Organic Retailing Practice
			Evgeniy Stoyanov	Social Effects of An "Exit" of The Economic Crisis
			Sema Konyalı	The Agricultural Policies Applied For Wheat in Turkey
			Tuğçe Kızıltuğ, Halil Fidan	Contributions to Economy of Turkey of Organic Agriculture
			Nevin Demirbaş, Özge Can Niyaz, Yeliz Merve Apaydın	Family Farming in Terms of Sustainable Food Supply And Evaluation of The Present Situation in Turkey
			Özge Can Niyaz, İsmail Hakkı İnan	Determination Of Variables Effective On The Opinion Of Milk Producers About Ensuring Food Security In Milk: A Case Study Of Tr22 South Marmara Region

11:00 – 13:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 1 Chair Person: Prof.Dr. M.Ömer Azabağaoğlu	Sevdalina Dimitrova, Elitsa Petrova	Mission and vision of the organization and their relations with corporate social responsibility
			Sibel Tan, Bengü Everest	The Examination Of Project Preparation Tendencies Of The Teaching Staff in Social Sciences: The Case Of Faculty Of Economics And Administrative Sciences Of Canakkale Province
			Zlatka Grigorova, Ivanka Shopova, Stefka Timareva	Rural food tourism
			Murat Selim Selvi, Aytaç Güt, Sevi Baloğlu, Uğuray Başargan	A Study Regarding Family Physicians' Holiday Purchase Decision-Making Process
			M.Ömer Azabağaoğlu, Derya İlkay Abdikoğlu, Gökhan Unakıtan	Best-Worst Analysis Of Fish Purchase Behavior In Tekirdag
			Derya İlkay Abdikoğlu, Gökhan Unakıtan	International Competitiveness Analysis Of Hazelnut Export In Turkey

11:00 – 13:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 2 Chair Person: Prof.Dr. Dilek Altaş	Ekaterina Arabska	Problems of employment and unemployment in Bulgaria: is sustainable development possible?
			Emel Yıldız	Factors Affecting Consumer's Purchase Intention Of Green Products
			Seçil Ulufer	The Impact of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on Perceived Performance: A Case Study in Airlines
			Ahmet Kubaş, Dilek Altaş, Fulya Atak	Analysis of Problems Faced by Manufacturing Firms in Production Process: The Case of Tekirdag
			Konstantin Tsvetkov, Teodor Georgiev	An innovate and proven-to-be-effective approach in the educational process in primary schools with the help of IT technologies
			Teoman Akpınar, Nazlı Çağıl Küçükgöksel	Legal Position of University Students Working for Part-time

11:00 – 13:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 3 Chair Person: Assoc. Prof. Fusun Özerdem	Fusun Özerdem	The European Union's Black Sea Policy And Regionalism
			Elif Meryem Yurdakul	The Relationship between Import and Economic Growth in Turkey: Granger Causality Test
			Duran Güler, Bülent Miran, Gamze Saner	Best Location For Animal Feed Manufacturing Company in Izmir
			Mustafa Unver, Mustafa Yilmaz	Macro Financial Risks in The Euro Area After The 2008-2009 Global Financial Crisis
			Natalliya Stoyanova	European practices to reduce work accidents in the agricultural sector of Bulgaria

13:00 - 13:30 Lunch

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			Duran Güler, Nevin Demirbaş	Examination of The Developments in The Tobacco Sector in Turkey
			Volkan Özbek, Fatih Koç, Ümit Alınacı, Eda Kaş, Oktay Çetin	The Impact of Perceived Ease of Use, Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Risk On Behavioral Intentions: A Study On Online Booking Sites
			Evgeniy Stoyanov	Establishment and Organization Of A Control System - The Key To The Organizational Effectiveness
			Yasemin Çabuk	Supply Chain Management in Public Hospitals and Purchase Order Management Process
			Çağdaş İnan, Harun Hurma	The Role Of Cooperative Organizations In The Development Of Ecotourism

13:30 – 15:30	Parallel Session II	Lecture Hall 1 Chair Person: Assoc.Prof.Dr. Sibel Tan	Bengü Everest, Sibel Tan	A Study On Cooperative Relationship and Social interaction With Other Disciplines
			Murat Selim Selvi, Sevi Baloğlu, Aytaç Güt, Göktuğ Yılmaz	Customer Perceptions of Store image
			Ekaterina Arabska	Bulgarian experience in improving effectiveness of activities in public employment services
			Bekir Değirmenci, Sibel Değirmenci	In Modern Business Human Resources Department In Terms Vital "Career Management" Concept And Modern Organization Causing Career Obstacles In Investigation Of Entropy
			Nuri Baltacı, Bilal Kargı, Gülçin H. Beken	The Relationship Between Foreign Direct Investment and Employment :The Case of Balkan States
			Natalliya Stoyanova	Repairs in The Agricultural Sector of Bulgaria

13:30 – 15:30	Parallel Session II	Lecture Hall 2 Chair Person: Prof.Dr. Konstantin Tsvetkov	Konstantin Tsvetkov, Teodor Georgiev	Basic relationships with the work of application software to support project management
			Savaş Selahattin Ateş	Perception of Intern Students Working in Aviation Business About Occupational Health and Safety at Work
			Salih Yıldız , Mehmet Hanefi Topal	Increasing E-Trust On E-Government Services: A Case Study On The Users Of Internet Tax Office
			Nihat Yılmaz, Metin Aksoy	Ethics in Politics: Political Virtues of Citizens and Politicians
			Tanya Plamenova Todorova	Tax policy efficiency and macroeconomic stabilization

13:30 – 15:30	Parallel Session II	Lecture Hall 3 Chair Person: Prof.Lyuben Hristov	Mustafa Çebi	Analisis of Logistic Activities of Martas Port in Marmara Ereglisi
			Nur Yanık, Şükran Yazkan	Rural Development in Turkey: The Case of Kütahya
			Gülten Madendağ, Tuncay Bilecen	Local Media Reflections of Daily Life in Adana under the Government of Democrat Party
			Nursel Turksoy, Ahmet Kubaş	Determination of Rural Tourism Potential of the Northern Gulf of Saros
			Lyuben Hristov	Opportunities for cultural exchange between the countries of Southeastern Europe (following the example of Bulgaria and Turkey)
			Celal Demirkol, Hamide Salha	Evaluation Of Tekirdag Province Tourism Potential With SWOT Analysis

15:30 - 15:45 Coffee Break

15:45 – 17:45	Parallel Session III	Congress Center Chair Person: Prof. Sevdalina Dimitrova	Yılmaz Özdemir, Oğuz Kaymakçı	The Future of Private Security Sector
			Deniz Çağla Turan, Yasemin Oraman	E-Commerce Opportunities of Food Products And The Consumer Perception
			Onder Canveren	Serbian Nationalism Revisited: Slobodan Milošević And The Question Of Leadership
			Konstantin Tsvetkov	Project management for students from university of agribusiness and rural development and software for its application
			Sevdalina Dimitrova	Social activity of human factor security and defense
			Yusuf Ziya Şipal	The Relationship between Commercial Ship Transport Prices and Cobweb Price Fluctuations: The Case of Turkey

15:45 – 17:45	Parallel Session III	Lecture Hall 1 Chair Person: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet Menteş	Ahmet Yüksel	Incentives and Supports of Turkish Government for Firms Operating in Free Trade Zone
			Elif Baraz Gültekin	Economics and Future of Semi-precious Stones Having Commercial Value in Turkey
			Şule Erkuş, S.Ahmet Menteş	Use of Accounting Software Packages in Management Accounting: A Comparative Study
			Mehmet Çitak, Nazlı Çağıl Küçükgöksen, Teoman Akpınar	Problems of Women in Working Life
			Goldie Kushelieva	Legal Protection Of The Black Sea Coast Of Bulgaria

15:45 – 17:45	Parallel Session III	Lecture Hall 2 Chair Person: Prof.Dr. Rasim Yılmaz	Oğuz Kaymakçı, Çağlayan Erdoğan	Analysis of Policies for Increasing Women's Employment in Turkey
			Müzehher Yamaç	Multi-Cultural Ethnic Structure in Balkan States, Minority Rights and Bulgaria
			Rasim Yılmaz, Julide Yalcinkaya Koyuncu	Productivity Effects of Privatization: Panel Study Evidence from Transition and Balkan Countries
			Patricia Georgieva	Challenges in University Quality Management Posed by the New Bologna Standards for Quality Assurance
			Mariana Assenova - Velikova	Certificates of deposit - the unknown instrument of the money market in Bulgaria

15:45 – 17:45	Parallel Session III	Lecture Hall 3 Chair Person: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Georgi Georgiev	Ekaterina Arabska	Active social policies - insights in developing a functioning labor market
			Ahmet Aktuna	The Future of Economic Relationship Between Turkey and Bulgaria
			Oğuz Kaymakçı, Şeyda Dağlı	The New Role of Turkey in Global Economy
			Hamide Salha, Hasan Cinnioğlu, Hasibe Yazıt, Tayfur Akcan	The Determination of The Contentment Levels of The Students in 2-Year-Undergraduate-Vocational-Higher-Schools About Their Education: Tekirdağ Sample
			Muharrem Bakkal, Süreyya Bakkal, Hakan Kılıcı, Şükran Yazkan,	Determination of the Need for Re-Organization in Businesses: An Experimental Study on Large-Scale Businesses Operating in Tekirdağ
			Georgi Georgiev	Interest rate risk management using economic value sensitivity model

19:00 Gala Dinner

March 13, 2016 - Sunday

10:00 – 12:00	Parallel Session I	Congress Center Chair Person: Hasan Engin Duran	Yasemin Oraman, Deniz Cagla Turan	Function Of Packaging And Various Forms Of Labelling Currently Presented For Foodstuffs On Turkish Consumer'S Purchase Decisions
			Hasan Engin Duran	Youth Unemployment: Macroeconomic Causes, Consequences And Determinants
			Engin Derman, Ahmet Yazar	Determination of Satisfaction Factors For Local Community in Sports Tourism
			Bekir Değirmenci, Sibel Değirmenci	Current Developments In Human Resources Management: Talent Management
			Mariana Petrova, Nedko Minchev, Yuriy Dyachenko	Modern information technologies as an opportunity for development and integration of innovative small and medium enterprises in clusters

10:00 – 12:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 1 Chair Person: Bisser Krastev	Rasim Yılmaz, Julide Yalcinkaya Koyuncu	The Impact of Privatization on Employment Level: Panel Study Evidence from Transition Countries
			Haluk Kaba, Şükran Yazgan	The Effect of Exchange Rate Regimes in Turkey on Turkish Economy
			Vihra Dimitrova	The modern universities as a regional development factor
			Sevinç Ongan, Oğuz Kaymakçı	Multinational Companies in Globalization Process and Economic Dimensions of This Process
			Muharrem Bakkal, Süreyya Bakkal, Hakan Kılıç, Nermin Akarçay	A Theoretical Study on the Effects of Specialized Leadership on Organizational Management: The Case of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's Organization of Republic of Turkey
			Biser Krastev	Dynamics of bank transactions in the money and currency markets in Bulgaria

10:00 – 12:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 2 Chair Person: Vyara Slavyanska	Salih Yıldız	Exploring Factors Affecting The Adoption Of Mobile Commerce: An Application To Tr90
			Muharrem Bakkal, Süreyya Bakkal, Ebru Sargin, Alper Saryuva	The Impact of Factors Determining Financial Crises on Macro Economy in Developing Countries
			Hamide Salha, Hasan Cinnioğlu, Hasibe Yazıt	The Impact of Organizational Silence Level of Hotel Employees on Their Organizational Commitment: A Research on Hotels Serving in Tekirdağ
			Bilal Kargı, Nuri Baltacı	Labor Force Participation Rate and Economic Growth: Observations for Turkey
			Vyara Slavyanska, Jose Ramon Reyes	Elaboration of The Human Resource Management As A Development Strategy For Bulgarian Agricultural Firms
			Kadir Sancak	Vision Change and Foreign Supports in Turkey's Foreign Policy

10:00 – 12:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 3 Chair Person: Nayden Nenkov	Altug Özden, Murat Cankurt, Harun Hurma	Firm Efficiency Measurement For Various Technology Groups
			Abdullah Akpınar	Health and Restorative Effects of Turkish Parks: An Exploratory Study
			Nayden Nenkov	Models and algorithms in the field of artificial intelligence in university research projects
			Rositsa Ivanova	Aspects of The Financial Position of The Bulgarian Municipalities
			Pınar Yürük, Özgür Kayapınar	A Research on the Relationship between Components of Relationship Marketing and Customer Loyalty
			Harun Hurma, Murat Cankurt	Economic Crisis And Agricultural Production
			Emine ÇOBANOĞLU, Sevi Baloğlu	The Effect of Trust and Security on University Students' Mobile Payment Systems Acceptance

10:00 – 12:00	Parallel Session I	Lecture Hall 4 Chair Person: Georgi Gluhchov	Selin Bahar	The Position of Ports in National Economy And Analysis of Socioeconomic Effects: Example of Tekirdağ Province
			Süreyya Bakkal, Muharrem Bakkal, Alper Sarıyüva, Ebru Sargin	The Impact of Public Deficits on Turkish Economy
			İlknur Özdemir	The Economic Future of Trade Between Turkey and Balkan Countries in 21th Century
			Elena Nikolova	Perspectives for cultivation of olives in Bulgaria
			Stanislava Pancheva	Accounting concept of leasing contracts
			Georgi Gluhchov, Svetoslava Aleksandrova	An algorithm for working with software of project management
			Aytaç Güt, Derman Küçükaltan	Possible Economic Reflections of Tekirdağ Asyaport Port on Thrace Region

13:30 Closing Ceremony Congress Center

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E-Learning Course for Good Organic Retailing Practice

¹Mariana Ivanova

¹University of Agribusiness and Rural Development – Plovdiv, Bulgaria

Abstract: The current paper presents results from the Erasmus+ Transnational Strategic Partnership Project titled: “Preparing for the Future – European E-Learning Training on the “Code of Good Organic Retailing Practice”. The project aims are to develop a European „Code of Good Organic Retailing Practice“, and an e-learning course. This tool provides managers and staff of organic retailers with training to implement the Code’s principles in daily business practice. The so called Code of good organic retail practice involves 8 principles in business and staff related to the following contexts: social aspects, involvement in the organic sector, product quality, sustainability in the shop, sustainable relationships, transparency, open communication, quality management, etc. The e-learning platform is created to cover all mentioned aspects and to help the staff and managers working in the organic retail sector to meet the coming requirements of the EU. The e-learning platform has been designed to host the e-learning course in the following languages: English, Bulgarian, Czech, French, German, Slovenian and Turkish. The curriculum involves a description of learning outcomes, according to the requirements of the EQF and the NQF.

Keywords: organic retailing, good practices, e-learning, EQF

1. Introduction

The e-learning tool developed within the project „Preparing for the future“ aims to cover all relevant aspects of ethical retail practice. This will help the shop staff and managers to meet the coming requirements of the EU and assist in introducing a comprehensive approach towards retailing ethics in daily business practice. In 2014, the EU Commission published a legal draft for a new EU regulation for organic production, proposing that organic shops will fall under the scope of the organic regulation. This could mean for shops to be responsible for assurance of their organic products assortment’s authenticity and the traceability of that products all through the organic production chain. That’s why, in this sector, the idea of ethical principles for business becomes more relevant and activities in this area are increasing. Based on all mentioned above the partnership project established seven principles in business and staff contexts: social responsibility, involvement in business chain, sustainable pricing and relationships, transparency, open communication, harmonized business chain system and quality management.

2. Methodology

The methodology of the development of e-Learning Course follows several consecutive steps. The first step is the revision and update of the European approach of a “Code of Good Organic Retailing Practice” and its principles, which has been developed within a former partnership project on Leonardo da Vinci Program. In the second step, the curricula, learning materials and contents for training are designed in English language covering the following criteria in form of 8 separate modules: Social Aspects, Open Communication, Involvement in the Organic Sector, Product Quality, Sustainability in the Shop, Sustainable Relationships, Transparency, Open Communication, and Quality Management. Work on developing the content of the modules is shared among the partners. The University of Agribusiness and Rural Development elaborated Module 2 - Involvement in the Organic Sector. The next important step is partners’ common analysis on the elaborated training materials and contents. Suggestions for the learning units of the eLearning course with reference to the national context and experiences are provided by the partners, and the overall European view, as well. Learning outcomes are defined according to the requirements of the European Qualification Framework (EQF).

3. Project Partners and Target Groups

The partnership consists of institutions (in VET and higher education, NGOs, etc.) with experience and competences in different areas of organic sector in a wide geographical scope. Institute Equalita from Germany, as coordinating institution of the general project management takes the overall coordination and financial management. The other partners are as follows: Zivy Venkov – Czech Republic, Ecozept – France, Bionext – the Netherlands, KGGK – Germany, Hamburg University of Applied Sciences (HUAS) – Germany, Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University – Turkey, Institute for sustainable development (ISD) – Slovenia, University of Agribusiness and Rural Development (UARD) – Bulgaria. All the partners ensure the implementation of the Code of good organic practices and training offers in daily practice in their countries.

The target groups who can benefit from the outcomes and results involve people in the organic and conventional food sector. They can find training offers for a higher quality of skills, knowledge and competences of the retail staff as well as an improved ethical image of the whole business sector. These groups include: representatives, managers and staff in organic and non-organic retail sector, institutions of adult education, higher education institutions, teachers/trainers, instructors and consultants, decision-makers in public administration, human resource managers, etc.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. E-Learning Contents – Description of The Main E-Learning Course Modul Es

The current chapter presents a brief review of the modules developed by the partners. The final contents was approved after an extended discussion among the authors of the respective modules. The English version is designed according to the common principles of the EU. Each partner institution will adapt the contents according to their national specificity. Learning outcomes are defined according to the requirements of the European Qualification Framework (EQF).

4.1.1. Module 1 – Social aspects

The goal of this module is to provide learners with knowledge and skills about economic sustainability on shop level. Learners should be able to assess themselves whether they are suitable as a health food store owner. They should learn about the key success factors for start-ups in the organic retail sector. Learners should be able to set up a business plan and to prevent self-exploitation. The module is divided into two units:

Unit 1 - Economic sustainability: provides learners with knowledge and skills about economic sustainability. Learners should be able to assess themselves whether they are suitable as a health food store owner. They should learn about the key success factors for start-ups in the organic retail sector. Learners should be able to set up a business plan and to prevent self-exploitation.

Unit 2 - Social sustainability: introduces learners in tools of human resource management, leadership and employee participation in an organic shop.

4.1.2. Module 2 - Involvement in Organic Sector

Module 2 provides knowledge on the following issues:

- Structures, policies and benefits of organic umbrella organizations, national, regional and local networks of organic retailers, functioning of cooperation organisations in organic retail.
- Regional structure of organic farming sector.

- EU and national policies on organic agriculture and trade, tools for NGOs' initiatives, IFOAM initiatives, activities, communication, tools for local marketing and PR activities in organic retail, implementing organic farming projects, funding, project management, etc.

4.1.3. Module 3 - Product Quality

The main goal of this module is to provide the learners with knowledge about: Quality principles, product quality, product quality characteristics; Objective and subjective methods and their principles used in evaluation of product quality characteristics basic statistical quality control techniques; Quality and quality assurance techniques and systems and food legislation; Basic structure of process control systems, Goals of control, etc.

4.1.4. Module 4 - Sustainability in The Shop

The goal of this module is to learn what sustainability in the shop means. Participants can learn that sustainability has more than one dimension. With practical examples and stories, we show how shop owners and staff can integrate many actions into daily practise.

The module is divided into 3 units: 1/ HEALTH: Healthy food, healthy lifestyle and hygiene; 2/ ECOLOGY: Sustainable energy, prevention of waste and food waste; 3/ FAIRNESS: Playing an active role in being a good neighbor and employer.

The Learning outcomes cover the following aspects:

- The relation between health and organic food, between health and lifestyle and the different ways in which you can contribute to consumer health and employee health in the shop;
- The importance of reduction of energy and waste and use of renewable resources;
- Fairness in the relationship with your neighborhood and employers.

4.1.5. Module 5. Sustainable Relationship

Module 5 covers aspects on sustainable relationship within the following units:

Unit 1 - Relations with suppliers: The aim of this module is to make participants aware of the importance of good, lasting relationships with suppliers and learn how to establish and maintain them. The goal is to present ways of selecting suppliers according to their own ethical standards, and to present the negotiating process and the importance of good solid contractual relations, personal relationships and permanent dialogue.

Unit 2 - Relations with customers: After completion of this module, the participants are aware of the importance of regular customers for the success of the business. The goal of this topic is to give participants the knowledge how to reach the potential customers and also how to keep them, with certain soft skills, with building the confidence and with various tools of marketing communication. The goal is that participants identify the topic of sustainability as a unique market opportunity and that they know how to encourage customers to sustainable behaviour.

Unit 3 - Relations with employees: The goal is to present quality employment policy, which is focused on contracts for full-time for an indefinite period and present to them all aspects that contribute to satisfaction and motivation for employees and to long-term employment and loyalty. The goal is also to ensure that participants are aware of the importance of continuous education and training of employees for the success of the shop and to encourage them to sustainable behaviour.

4.1.6. Module 6. Transparency

The goal of this module is to provide you with recommendations on how to improve transparency at all levels of your activity. The module also delivers advices on how to communicate on your involvement and good practices. The module is divided in two units:

Unit 1. Transparency on products

Unit 2. Transparency on the company's identity and practices

After finishing this module the learners will have learnt:

- How to make information on organic products characteristics/specificities clear and available for customers;
- How to ensure transparency on supply chains: what's behind the product;
- How to make information on the company and its practices available;
- How to organize clear process to integrate consumers' feedback;
- How to maintain transparency in business relationships.

4.1.7. Module 7. Open Communication

The goal of this module is to provide shop managers and team members with knowledge and skills to ensure the concept of open communication is implemented in the workplace in order to achieve full transparency and active involvement of all stakeholders. The module is divided in three units:

Unit 1. Company structure and its policies - To provide learners with knowledge and skills in order to be able to describe important information on company structure and its policies, and prepare work place descriptions.

Unit 2. Open communication – how to build trust - To introduce learners to the concept of Open communication and how to achieve it in the workplace through building of trust.

Unit 3. Open communication tools - To help learners use open communication tools in order to provide stakeholders with information on organisation's goals, targets, strategies and policies and share values and visions of the organisation.

4.1.8. Module 8. Quality Management

The Module is divided into three units:

Unit 1. What is Quality Management all about?

Unit 2. Principles of Quality Management

Unit 3. Quality Management in Organic Trade

After finishing this module the trainees will get knowledge on:

- Why it is so important to think about quality.
- What are the benefits of Quality Management Principles.
- What a Quality Handbook looks like.

The training materials are adapted and prepared for the e-learning format and the content is transferred into a comprehensive e-learning platform which is based on CMS Moodle. The process includes training and instructing of the partners, designing of the materials for the e-learning course content, development of design concept; and the transfer of materials to the learning platform. Another important task is the

integration of currently available tools of CMS Moodle and the use of interactive elements and instruments like audio tracks, video and internet films, web-links, chats, assessments, working groups etc.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, we can declare that the presented e-learning course will help managers and staff of organic food retailers to improve their knowledge and competences in sustainability issues, active environmental protection, social competence and customer orientation. Acquiring these skills and competences will ensure that the principles of organic farming will be extended up to the last piece of the supply chain – that is the retail sector, which is today excluded from the EU organic regulation. And it will support that additionally ethical and sustainable principles become part of daily practice and can be included in the communication strategy of the organic business.

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Social Effects of an "Exit" of The Economic Crisis

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Abstract: The paper examines the essence of bankruptcy and social effects related to that process. The reason for choosing that topic is the application of that, not always lawful, but allowed by the law means for organizational transformation. The aim of the study is to analyze some of the features of bankruptcy. The main task is to answer the question whether this is an effective method for manipulating the situation in order to obtain benefit for the acquisition of assets, and in many cases entire enterprises, or it is just a delicate way to mitigate bankruptcy reached because of various reasons.

Keywords: crisis, bankruptcy, analysis

1. Introduction

For the last two centuries of the evolution of mankind, and in particular from the genesis of industrial society, in the economy of many countries crises have been conducted and continue to flow. In these moments as characteristic and developing trends in the economic life the following can be mentioned: critically increasing decline in production, dramatically increasing volume of unrealized goods on market, failures in price levels, wreck of systems of planning and finances, collapse of banks, bank systems and institutions, mass bankruptcies of industrial and commercial organizations, sharply increased levels of unemployment.

Specialized literature deals with the concept of the economic crisis in principle as a disturbance, i.e. creating a sufficient imbalance between supply and demand of goods and services¹. The evolution of human society is the best proof that crises accompany throughout its history by provoking its development and improvement. In the initial period at the very emergence crises essentially appear as a decline in agricultural production, but by the mid-19th century their mechanism is associated with an imbalance between industrial production and solvent demand.

Current study makes analyses of the interrelations between organizational development and financial function in terms of the economic crisis making special accent on the example of the Republic of Bulgaria, its specific development in the years of transition to a market economy and modern crises considering relevant legislative regimes.

2. Organizational Development and Financial Function in The Context of The Economic Crisis

In 19th century and the first half of the 20th century the world passed through a series of international financial crises. Economic crises before are limited within the confines of one or two countries, but subsequently this trend has changed, scale increases and crises acquired an international character. Although in recent years scientific thought and certain leading business circles are working on the creation of anti-crisis models and programs justified by better regulated and economic processes, a relatively balanced global financial system and conducting continuous monitoring, the history of world upheaval proves that crises can not be foreseen and surrounded. For the last two centuries on the political and economic map of the world there were more than 20 crises².

¹ Stoyanov, E. 2015. Pressing problems in Bulgarian management control. 5th International Conference of Economic Sciences, 5th CCEDEP of the ACEU, May 7-8, 2015, Kaposvar, Hungary, ISBN 978-963-9821-86-6, 491-500.

² Stoyanov, E. Financial control, Libra scorp, Burgas, 2010.

The analysis of the crisis creates conditions to make a few brief conclusions outlining the status and trends, namely:

1. Each crisis is unique in itself.
2. Each crisis was triggered by the depletion of the capacity of the model of governance.
3. In terms of the set by a crisis deficit and of a model of thinking and behavior more sophisticated conceptual models are imposed.

Still, drastic changes have an impact on smaller organizational structures forming the national economic systems. Transformation processes register both in structural and functional terms. Because there is no organization that can not authenticate the realization of certain interests, of particularly importance is the change that occurs in the financial function of the modern organization.

It is perceived that the finance function is logically organized set of processes governed by technological justification that³: contribute to getting answers through financial analysis; manage income and expenditure; track changes in the financial availability; regulate the movement of cash flows; control the conditions of financing; perform financial analysis of projects and investments; form the budget and fiscal policy; register each transaction and distribute lawful earnings.

In a general plan in the structuring of the investment process in the absence of an effective financial function it is difficult to attract funds. The status of the financial function has a key role in the formation of interest from investors and building an impression of sustainable climate.

In terms of tax behavior it can be argued that the poorly organized document flow is an evidence of the broken financial function. This is reflected in the creation of a bad credit and social image and the imposition of financial sanctions.

In the process of managing growth and sustainable development without a personalization of responsibility and a strict control usually financial function decays or causes severe turbulence.

In the shared circumstances it is completely natural the financial function of the modern organization to reorganize. The change is process-oriented. Generally as a process we could accept the sequence of actions or procedures which together ease the performance of a particular operation.

The construction and development of the organizational structure relevant to the ongoing core processes are implemented for various reasons, namely: processes and not functions determine the nature of the activity; processes seen in an organized aggregate supply conditions for the completion of operations; improvement of the processes over time is not as sweeping changes in the structure of other resources; underlying processes continue to be implemented even after the termination of activities of key managers; the whole working staff feel constraints arising from the lack of optimality in one process or more.

In this direction, the financial process rather than function is right to be involved with the creation of a product or service at optimal adequacy of trends and recorded signals. It is natural to revise all the necessary processes and reorganize in any restructuring of financial services. The processes appear as a factor in development of organizational efficiency, a regulator in the allocation of responsibility and a balancing mechanism for conflict of interest.

Although the process-oriented approach to the analysis of organizational development is important, versatile and very widespread, changes in economic realities require another type of mechanism for organizational development. The focus of organizational optimization shifts from the underlying processes to the stated strategy. The establishment of the new strategically oriented organization is premised on two features. On the one hand, financial measuring can not form a complete picture of the

³ Stoyanov, E. 2012. Updating financial functions of the modern organization. Jubilee international scientific conference of the University of Economics – Varna, Bulgaria.

organizational situation and potential, and on the other - intangible factors of organizational success acquire criterial matter⁴.

The discussion on the financial function of the modern organization proves that the mechanism that generated financial results for the old, classical organization is completely reorganized and its update turns the modern enterprise in an attractive object with a different and higher value. This is what causes the heterogeneous interest to modern enterprises especially in crisis situations.

An understanding is approved that the effective management of the modern organization largely depends on timely and comprehensive analysis of financial condition and results of correct judgments and correct decisions⁵. Conducting ongoing monitoring and formation of conclusions create conditions for timely warning in critical situations. Finding a real alternative out of these conditions is predetermined by previously holding various forms of control early diagnosis (descriptive, predictive, legal, etc.).

The problem standing over management in critical situations, howsoever arising, is the opportunity of bankruptcy. The term increasingly is used in the vocabulary of modern business because the years of past economic crises and almost the entire period of the transition in post-socialist economies are marked by high uncertainty and display of multiple risks. Analysts and experts argue that bankruptcy in recent years can not be interpreted unambiguously - only as a result of "weak" management⁶. According normative basis it is defined as a legally regulated inability of a person to service its loan commitments and in this context it can be charged or brought by the bankrupt person or by a credit institution in order to indemnify due⁷.

The interpretation of this concept causes some clarifications. Regarding its mechanism, the analysts generally distinguish several formal expression of bankruptcy⁸.

Unintentional bankruptcy is interpreted as a result of the emergence of a crisis situation for the enterprise threatening its viability. The crisis state is formed by the development of such factors as higher financial instability, a dramatic decline in competitive position and an occurrence of high levels of risk of bankruptcy. As its varieties we could mention: bankruptcy caused by force majeure (disaster) and the actual bankruptcy arising as a result of long-term insolvency.

The other main variant is the intentional bankruptcy resulting from the deliberate insolvency. Losses of this kind of appearances affect lenders, guarantors, investors and others⁹. The main problem is proving fault. This problem is exacerbated because usually a large part of the document flow by such enterprises is manipulated or destroyed, and the property – a subject of concealment or transferred prior to the bankruptcy.

It is interesting to note that along with the development of the global economic system new formal appearances of bankruptcy develop and refine, i.e. bankruptcy becomes a smart weapon for financial machinations. Recurrence of a similar nature increase their volume and they are increasingly noticeable in the period of the transition in post-socialist countries.

In this context, as a form of the "negligent" bankruptcy comes the famous "technical" bankruptcy. This particular condition occurs when the amount of assets significantly exceed that of liabilities, i.e. there is a

⁴ Simeonov, O. Theoretic questions in control, Academ Consult, Sofia, 1997.

⁵ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Arabska, E., Vasileva, E. 2014. Good practices of highly effective managers in human resources management. Scientific conference "Qualification system and career development of university teachers", Vasil Levski National military university, 11-12 December 2014, Veliko Tarnovo, 49-75.

⁶ Stoyanov, E. 2015. Management effect in organizational design. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol. 3, No 4, 21-27.

⁷ Trade law of the Republic of Bulgaria.

⁸ Stoyanov, E. Financial control, Libra scorp, Burgas, 2010.

⁹ In some cases these actions are interpreted as crimes against creditors according to the Bulgarian Criminal Code.

temporary excess of debtors' indebtedness. Professionals and experts in financial security opined that very rapidly after administration of this "trick" a real bankruptcy is declared¹⁰.

Far more interesting are things with fictitious bankruptcy. The mechanism of this crime is associated with false bankruptcy by the perpetrator, which is being implemented with the aim of causing damage or extracting benefit, and the victims are among shareholders, lenders, guarantors and others.

Too revealing and interesting is the fact that with the advent of the custom bankruptcy a new kind of specific business creates. Certain "players" acquire or resell both working enterprises and those having temporary financial difficulties. The techniques applied to reach a similar bankruptcy fit unlawful and illegal actions that can generally be tied to the category of "machinations".

If there are victims, if there is blame it is not so significant, but it is certain that bankruptcy puts a lot of questions that seek answers and justify on its own legal decision. Their number and scope is growing with every diagnosed case once the problems are focused on the border of insolvency or over-indebtedness, to the limits of insolvency and alternatives of recovery, for evaluation of the property and for the proper and equitable distribution thereof.

It can be objectively argued that bankruptcy is developed and established as a way to cheaply acquire liquid assets, a means of diverting serviced debts, a refined manner for personal gain due to damages, a dishonest but a working mechanism for restructuring the economy and certainly a crude and profitable business.

In an attempt to protect the integrity of the economic system, and in particular individual economic operators and managers, consultants and analysts using various forms of analysis apply different diagnostic structures¹¹. Moving from diagnosis to express multicriteria analyses structuring the system of the fundamental diagnosis of bankruptcy, business and scientific thought create the prevention of the diversion that could provoke catastrophic consequences for any organization. For completeness and maximum efficiency in the operation of this system are increasingly used the eclecticism¹² consolidating the capabilities of a number of models.

3. Conclusion

The critical situations in which modern organizations improve their financial functions are increasingly able to create conditions for bankruptcy, but actually this is not a way out of a crisis. In most cases this is only an opportunity to deepen analytical thinking and decision-makers to pay attention to even the weak signals that sometimes mean enough.

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The Agricultural Policies Applied For Wheat In Turkey

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Abstract: Wheat is strategic product for millions of people in worldwide. Demand of wheat is expected to increase strongly in the near future as a result of global population growth strongly. In Turkey, wheat is one of the most important agricultural commodities, and the country ranks among the top ten wheat producers in the world. The total production of wheat is approximately 22 million metric tons in Turkey. The average yield of wheat was 2.88 metric tons per ha in 2015 (TSI, 2016), despite changes in the regions. Although the increase of wheat production in Turkey, it is barely self-sufficient. However, this self-sufficiency is not an obstacle for wheat import that needs flour industry. Turkey also has to import wheat by applying many different regimes and strategies for being an exporter of wheat. In many other countries, wheat has been deemed to fall within the scope of “special support” from the government and, in the case of Turkey, wheat production has been supported by the Turkish state throughout the history of the Republic. Support programs are offered by the Soil Products Office (SPO), which aims to protect and regulate the markets for wheat and other cereals. Producers are meant to be protected against any negative developments in the domestic or foreign markets. However, the support system implemented for wheat growers is really intended to form a market through state institutions such as the SPO. Within the scope of price and intervention purchases implemented mostly by means of a support policy, domestic wheat prices have largely been determined to be higher than the average global price, which has had a negative effect on the use of budget and resources, besides consumer spending. Nevertheless, SPO didn't purchase domestic wheat in 2014 due to significant decreases in the domestic harvest. Wheat is a major beneficiary of Turkish agricultural support and benefits from minimum purchase prices, input subsidies (diesel, fertilizer and certified seeds), and deficiency (premium) payments. But some years supports are insufficient for producers. According to the agreement with the IMF's agricultural support, it is limited to 1% of GDP. The purpose of this study is to examine agricultural policies applied for wheat in Turkey and to present suggestions for problems.

Keywords: wheat production, agricultural support, wheat price, agricultural policy, producer

Introduction

Wheat is currently an important cereal for millions of people worldwide, and demand for wheat is expected to increase strongly in the near future as a result of global population growth and dietary changes. It is also an important commodity and is consumed by households in almost all countries in several forms (bread, pasta, breakfast cereals, chapati, and bakery products) (Gómez-Plana and Devadoss, 2004). When there is a decrease in wheat production globally, for any reason, there is an increase in the price of bread and also of foods made from flour, which has a direct effect on consumers. It is therefore important for countries to produce sufficient wheat to meet the demand, or to have sufficient quantities of wheat in their stocks.

Wheat is widely produced across the world. Total world wheat production was 725 million tons in 2014. EU-27 (157,2 million tons) was the largest producer of wheat in 2014, followed by China (126,2 million tons) and India (94,5 million tons). Other major wheat-producing countries are United States, Russia Federation, France, Canada, Pakistan and Turkey (FAO, 2016). World wheat consumption in 2014 was about 712 million metric tons. In 2014, about 153 million tons wheat was traded in the world wheat market (IGC, 2015). Because of the concentration of wheat production in a few countries, a large volume of wheat is traded in the world market (Koo and Taylor, 2008). Major exporting countries are the United States, EU-27, Canada and Australia. Major importing countries are North Africa, Middle East and, North East Asian countries (FAO, 2016).

Turkey is one of the centers of origin of wheat and wheat has been grown on about 7.9 million ha with production of around 22 million metric tons annually. The average yield of the wheat is 2870 kg/ha in Turkey (TSI, 2016). It is strategic product that consumed mostly as bread, but also as bulgur, yufka (falt bread) and cookies. Wheat is generally produced in Thrace, Mediterranean, Aegean and Marmara Seaside places as spring type and in the other places it is produced as winter type. In many other countries, wheat

has been deemed to fall within the scope of “special support” from the government and, in the case of Turkey, wheat production has been supported by the Turkish state throughout the history of the Republic. Support programs are offered by the Soil Products Office (SPO), which aims to protect and regulate the markets for wheat and other cereals. SPO buys grains from producers who are not able to obtain higher prices on the commercial market. SPO's purchasing policy is meant to encourage farmers to produce more quality wheat by offering a greater premium for higher protein content and lower pest damage (USDA, 2015). However, the support system implemented for wheat growers is really intended to form a market through state institutions such as the SPO. Within the scope of price and intervention purchases implemented mostly by means of a support policy, domestic wheat prices have largely been determined to be higher than the average global price, which has had a negative effect on the use of budget and resources, besides consumer spending. Nevertheless, SPO didn't purchase domestic wheat in 2014 due to significant decreases in the domestic harvest. In 2015, SPO was re-started wheat purchases. SPO should continue to purchase wheat from producers and protect domestic production. Wheat is a major beneficiary of Turkish agricultural support and benefits from minimum purchase prices, input subsidies (diesel, fertilizer and certified seeds), and deficiency (premium) payments. But, in some years supports are insufficient for producers.

The agricultural policies applied for wheat was studied in earlier studies. Carriquiry and Elobeid (2015) studied the impact of the removal of price supports and input subsidies for wheat in the key advanced developing countries of Brazil, China, India and Turkey on production, trade and prices in both the U.S. and globally. An adaption of the CARD-FAPRI modeling system was used in the analysis. Jha et al. (2007) studied recent developments in India's markets and policies for wheat and rice, and analyzed the impacts of several policy changes already underway or under consideration to rebalance producer and consumer interests and control budgetary costs. Kherallah et al. (2000) examined two main objectives: to analyze the structure and performance of the wheat sector following the market liberalization programs initiated in 1987, and to explore the economy wide effects of changes in three areas that are critical to wheat policy. Ali et al. (2011) determined the effect of agriculture policy on wheat production in Pakistan. Using the data for the period 1971-2006, the study concluded that the government policy has insignificant effect on wheat production though the sign of its coefficient is positive. Kozicka et al. (2015) tried to disentangle the complex system of Indian food policies related to wheat and rice procurement, storage, distribution and trade. Using nationally aggregated time series data, these policies are econometrically analyzed. Abdel-Latif et al. (1998) examined the impact of the wheat policy reforms in Egypt on production, prices and marketing channels. The study explained why the agricultural reforms were initiated and spelled out the goals of the programs and their consequences. Hosseini and Torshizi (2009) evaluated of wheat production's support policy in Iran. Based upon the obtained results, it was proposed that policy makers reconsider the method of wheat producers' subsidization and shift the agricultural policies in Iran from distributive transfer oriented ones towards productive policies to promote the competitiveness in the world markets.

In Turkey, few studies carried out agricultural policies for wheat. Kızılaslan (2004) examined the supporting policies by comparing agricultural policies at EC, OECD countries and Turkey. Aydoğuş (1999) analyzed the effects on the production, consumption, trade, producer and consumer welfare, budget, and the net social costs of the three alternative support policies, namely support purchases, deficiency payments, and direct income payments in Turkish wheat sector. Uzunoğlu and Akçay (2009) analyzed the factors affecting import demand for wheat during the period 1984-2006 by using double logarithmic-linear function. Karabina (2015) studied Turkey Grain and Feed Annual. Özçelik and Özer (2006) determined the correlations between wheat production and its price in Turkey and used the Koyck model at the calculations. Oğuz and Esengün (2009) studied the economic results and income distribution of wheat producers in Middle Anatolia Region. Çakmak and Eruygur (2006) studied the developments in cereals and related policies in Turkey. Kan et al. (2014) researched to determine the general condition of wheat landraces in Turkey.

In this study it was aimed that were to examine agricultural policies applied for wheat in Turkey and to present suggestions for problems.

Turkey's Wheat Production, Consumption And Trade

Turkey's Wheat Production

Turkey is a major producer in the arable crop sector. The production of cereals in Turkey was 38.6 million tons in 2015. The main products in the grain group are wheat, barley and corn which constituted approximately 58.5 %, 20.7 % and 16.6 % of the total grain production quantity in 2015, respectively. Wheat is one of the most important agricultural commodities in Turkey, and the country ranks among the top ten wheat producers in the world. The total production of wheat is approximately 22 million metric tons in Turkey. The average yield of wheat was 2.88 metric tons per ha in 2015 (TSI, 2016), despite changes in the regions.

Figure 2.1 Turkey's Wheat Area-Production and Yield in 1995-2015

Year	Area (ha)	Production (tons)	Yield (kg/da)
1995	9 400 000	18 000 000	192
1996	9 350 000	18 500 000	198
1997	9 340 000	18 650 000	200
1998	9 400 000	21 000 000	224
1999	9 380 000	18 000 000	192
2000	9 400 000	21 000 000	224
2001	9 350 000	19 000 000	203
2002	9 300 000	19 500 000	210
2003	9 100 000	19 000 000	209
2004	9 300 000	21 000 000	226
2005	9 250 000	21 500 000	232
2006	8 490 000	20 010 000	236
2007	8 097 700	17 234 000	213
2008	8 090 000	17 782 000	220
2009	8 100 000	20 600 000	254
2010	8 103 400	19 674 000	244
2011	8 096 000	21 800 000	270
2012	7 529 639	20 100 000	267
2013	7 772 600	22 050 000	285
2014	7 919 208	19 000 000	243
2015	7 866 887	22 600 000	288

Source: Turkey Statistical Institute

According to the data of Turkey Statistical Institute (TSI), the most produced grain product in Turkey is wheat. There has been no significant rise in wheat production between 1995 and 2015 despite some critical decreases. Wheat production of Turkey was around 22 million tons in 2013. This amount decreased to 19 million tons in 2014 and in 2015 increased to 22,6 million by rising again. The highest production amount was reached in 2015 with 22.6 million tons. Cultivated land of wheat which is the most important product in Turkey on the basis of production amount has been decreasing for years. Wheat which was cultivated on a land of 9.4 million hectares in 1995 has decreased and cultivated on 7.8 million hectares in 2015. So, wheat cultivation has decreased gradually over the last 15 years. Yet there has been a significant rise in yields of wheat production. While yield in wheat production was 192 kg per decare in 1995, it increased to 288 kg in 2015.

Turkey's Wheat Consumption

Wheat consumption is increasing parallel to the growing population in Turkey. Turkey is one of the leading countries in terms of per capita consumption of wheat. Per capita wheat consumption in Turkey is 211 kg per year, compared to a world average of 67 kg in 2014 (OECD/FAO, 2015).

Figure 2.2 Turkey's Wheat Consumption in 2000-2015

Year	Consumption (000 Tons)
2000	15.078
2001	15.628
2002	15.644
2003	14.781
2004	15.132
2005	14.283
2006	16.490
2007	14.584
2008	15.458
2009	14.494
2010	15.766
2011	17.089
2012	17.042
2013	16.329
2014	16.700
2015	18.000

Source: Turkey Statistical Institute

Wheat consumption of Turkey was around 18 million tons in 2015 (TSI, 2016). Turkey's wheat production is sufficient to satisfy domestic consumption. While expecting the increase of production as parallel to increasing population, consumption has decreased in some years. The production of wheat is increasing every year to satisfy domestic consumption in Turkey, which is one of the most country that consuming of cereal products. Therefore, it should be increased the production to satisfy consumption by taking into account the share of the population growth.

Turkey's Wheat Foreign Trade

Grain trade is being carried out by usually Soil Product Office and private purchasers (trader, brokers, companies, etc.) and partially by farmers that stocked grain. The tasks of Soil Product Office is to prevent abnormal decrease or abnormal increase of the wheat prices against producers and consumers, respectively, to protect and regulate the wheat industry, to import or export wheat when necessary, to monitor wheat production trends and market movements in the world and to carry on other similar tasks (SPO, 2016).

Wheat export in Turkey is closely related to the amount of production and product quality. There has been a significant fluctuations in wheat export depending on climatic conditions and consequently production.

Turkey has become a net exporter county of wheat in 2005 and 2006. However in 2007 and 2008, it was seen a significant reductions depending on production. Although the amount of wheat export has increased in 2014, this ratio has lagged behind of wheat imports.

Wheat import was 140 thousand tons in 2005. Wheat import which rose to 2.1 million tons in 2007 and to 3.7 million tons in 2008 was around 2.5 million tons by decreasing a little in 2010. The highest import rate of last 10 years until 2013 was reached with 4.7 million tons in 2011. It decreased a little in 2012 and remained as 3.7 million tons. Then it increased again to 4 million tons in 2013. In accordance with the drought, decreased production amount caused wheat import of Turkey reached 5.3 million tons, the

highest amount for the last 15 years. Turkey that is a self-sufficient country in terms of wheat carries import activities in order to provide quality wheat for products to export. Turkey export wheat as a processed product (flour, pasta etc.). Thus, grain-based wheat export is highly limited.

Figure 2.3 Turkey's Wheat Foreign Trade in 2002-2014 (including wheat products)

Year	Export		Import		Difference	
	Quantity (Tons)	Value (1000 \$)	Quantity (Tons)	Value (1000 \$)	Quantity (Tons)	Value (1000 \$)
2002	644.534	211.324	1.118.836	156.941	-474.302	54.383
2003	1.126.394	336.566	1.849.112	285.647	-722.718	50.919
2004	1.498.069	483.246	1.069.684	236.791	428.385	246.455
2005	3.564.856	803.944	140.536	42.624	3.424.320	761.320
2006	2.974.185	746.430	246.153	73.960	2.728.032	672.470
2007	2.307.718	941.174	2.154.427	597.567	153.291	343.607
2008	2.274.195	1.307.179	3.720.479	1.524.691	-1.446.283	-217.511
2009	3.491.232	1.281.650	3.408.844	947.298	82.387	334.352
2010	4.686.760	1.570.562	2.569.454	709.156	2.117.306	861.405
2011	3.877.699	1.897.485	4.770.836	1.685.391	-893.137	212.094
2012	4.160.707	2.055.941	3.737.494	1.195.121	423.213	860.821
2013	4.935.452	2.507.376	4.074.862	1.371.838	860.590	1.135.538
2014	4.996.778	2.553.323	5.312.480	1.622.041	-315.703	931.282

Source: Turkey Statistical Institute

While the market prices of wheat is high in US dollar terms, the export prices is low in Turkey. The reason for this, at the abroad (USA, France etc.) there is a significant amount of export subsidies and the countries sell the products to the world market under the production cost. For the realization of the export, wheat price should be lower than or parallel to other countries' wheat price.

The Agricultural Policies Applied For Wheat in Turkey

The cereals sector was one of the major sub-sectors in agriculture to be affected by the subsidization reform programme due to the heavy involvement of the government in the output market through the Soil Products Office (SPO). The Soil Product Office was delegated to purchase wheat, barley, and some others crops at a fixed minimum price (floor price). SPO is also a price stabilizing institution in that it carries a buffer stock in order to stabilize producer and consumer prices.

The state has purchased the wheat by explaining the price over many years. Wheat prices are proposed to the Council of Ministers by Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Livestock and purchases are made by SPO. Soil Product Office has implemented various price according to the wheat quality in support purchases. However, whole of the wheat production hasn't been purchased by SPO and purchases have remained very small amounts in some years.

The intervention purchases of wheat by the SPO from 1990 to 2015 are presented in Figure 3.1. The limits on the SPO intervention purchases were effective in 2004 and 2005. Nevertheless, SPO didn't purchase domestic wheat in 2014 due to significant decreases in the domestic harvest. There has been a significant fluctuations in SPO intervention purchases depending on climatic conditions and political policies.

The SPO acts as a market regulator and announces annual procurement prices for all grains. SPO will buy grains at these prices from producers who are not able to obtain higher prices on the commercial market. SPO uses its position to monopolize imports of certain commodities in order to help control domestic prices (USDA, 2004). The intervention prices of wheat by the SPO from 1995 to 2015 are given in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.1 Intervention purchases of wheat by the SPO, 1990-2015

Year	SPO Purchases (1000 tons)	Wheat Production (1000 tons)	Purchase Production Rate (%)
1990	5 159	20 000	26
1995	41	18 000	0
2000	2 959	21 000	14
2001	1 459	19 000	8
2002	333	19 500	2
2003	545	19 000	3
2004	2 023	21 000	10
2005	4 171	21 500	19
2006	1 457	20 010	7
2007	122	17 234	1
2008	10	17 782	0
2009	3 769	20 600	18
2010	3 771	19 674	5
2011	980	21 800	4
2012	823	20 100	8
2013	1 634	22 050	9
2014	-	19 000	0
2015	3 304	22 600	15

Source: Soil Products Office

Figure 3.2 Intervention prices of wheat by the SPO, 1990-2015

Year	Milling Wheat (TL/kg)	Rate of Increase (%)	Producer Price Index (PPI) Rate of Increase (%)	Intervention Price of SPO (\$/tons)	World Milling Wheat Price (FOB/\$/Tons)	Durum Wheat (TL/kg)	Rate of Increase (%)
2000	102	28	57	165	118	117	28
2001	164	61	62	150	130	189	61
2002	230	40	47	153	150	260	38
2003	325	41	30	220	151	367	41
2004	370	14	18	240	161	392	7
2005	350 + 30 *	3	4	259	159	360 + 30*	- 0.5
2006	375 + 35	8	13	243	202	385 + 35	8
2007	425 + 45	15	3	322	267	440 + 45	15
2008**	500 + 45	-	17	-	347	500 + 45	-
2009	500 + 45	0	-2	325	238	525 + 45	5
2010	550+50	10	8	348	247	575+50	10
2011	605+50	9	10	368	331	640+50	10
2012	665+50	9	6	356	329	705+50	9
2013	720+50	8	5	381	324	765+50	8
2014	-	-	10	-	317	-	-

Source: Soil Products Office

* Premiums are given by Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Livestock. (TL/tons)

** Prices for 2008 are consignment procurement price and intervention procurement price was not announced

Note: PPI shows annual change rates (%) based on Producer Price Index (PPI) on June. Average world wheat price and exchange rate of dollar on June was considered for calculations.

As seen in Figure 3.2, the highest rate of increase in milling wheat was carried out in 2001 (61%), and the lowest growth rate carried out in 2005 (3%), that this rate is lower than the rate of increase in 1982 (%23).

Due to the populist policies applied in the last 15 year period, significant fluctuations have occurred in wheat intervention prices. Especially, in 2004-2006 and 2000-2002, 2009 and 2011 years, Producer Price Index (PPI) was remained under the milling wheat intervention prices. Wheat prices realized above the PPI (average of June) in 2003, 2007, 2010, 2012-2013 years. The reason is that, there has been a big influence of drought and decrease in wheat production. However the point to be noted here that, SPO didn't purchase wheat in 2014, so the producers sold their products to the traders and exchanges compulsorily. In Turkey, wheat intervention prices are generally above average world wheat intervention prices. Corresponds to rising world prices, it has been started to the premium applications in 2005 in Turkey. Premiums have been paid to the producers as 30-50 TL/tons in between 2005-2014 years.

In the world every country supports its agriculture. Because to ensure the needs of food of the people, it is one of the most important issues for countries. Wheat is a major beneficiary of Turkish agricultural support and benefits from minimum purchase prices, input subsidies (diesel, fertilizer and certified seeds), and deficiency (premium) payments. Price supports and input subsidies have been the most important two policy tools, respectively (Flam, 2004). In Turkey, government support for wheat producers are given in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 Government support for wheat producers in Turkey (TL and \$/MT), 2009-2015

Year	Certified seed (TL, \$/ha)	Soil analysis (TL, \$/ha)	Premium (TL, \$/Ton)	Diesel (TL, \$/ha)	Fertilizer (TL, \$/ha)
2009	50 TL	22.5 TL	45 TL	29.3 TL	38.3 TL
	\$32.25	\$14.51	\$29.03	\$18.9	\$24.71
2010	50 TL	25 TL	50 TL	32.5 TL	42.5 TL
	\$33.33	\$16.66	\$33.33	\$21.66	\$28.33
2011	60 TL	25 TL	50 TL	37.5 TL	47.5 TL
	\$35.71	\$14.88	\$29.76	\$22.32	\$31.66
2012	60 TL	25 TL	50 TL	40 TL	50 TL
	\$33.33	\$13.29	\$27.77	\$22.22	\$27.77
2013	75 TL	25 TL	50 TL	43 TL	55 TL
	\$39.47	\$13.15	\$26.31	\$22.63	\$28.95
2014	75 TL	25 TL	50 TL	46 TL	60 TL
	\$34.72	\$11.57	\$23.15	\$21.29	\$27.77
2015	85 TL	25 TL	50 TL	48.5 TL	66 TL
	\$34.55	\$10.16	\$20.32	\$19.71	\$26.83

Source: Grain and Feed Annual, 2015

There are several different wheat support systems which are managed by the government. The most significant is the premium support system. Each year the government decides on what will be each commodities premium level. In 2015, approximately the premiums were 20 \$/tons, certified seed 35 \$/ha, soil analysis 10 \$/ha, diesel \$/ha and fertilizer 27 \$/ha for wheat. Government supports that given to the producers haven't been increased in some years. Premiums and soil analysis payments has remained the same for the last 5 years. Some years supports are insufficient for producers. According to the agreement with the IMF's agricultural support, it is limited to 1% of GDP (Gross Domestic Product). But the producers have taken only the half of their support. These supports must be increased for protecting producers. Because the input prices are very high in Turkey and producers are affected negatively. Changes in the prices of agricultural inputs of wheat are given in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 Changes in the prices of agricultural inputs of wheat (TL/tons)

Agricultural Inputs	2002	2014	Index (2002=100)
21% Ammonium sulfate	162	566	349
26 % Calcium ammonium nitrate	176	762	433
33% Ammonium nitrate	193	880	456
Urea	237	1.039	438
Diammonium phosphate	354	1.405	397
Composite (20.20.0)	254	946	372
Diesel (average)	1.100	4.350	395
Seed	385	1.297	337
Milling Wheat Intervention Price	230	720 (in 2013)	313
Durum Wheat Intervention Price	260	765 (in 2013)	294

Source: Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Livestock

As seen in Figure 3.4, agricultural input prices are higher than milling and durum wheat intervention prices in Turkey. Chemical fertilizer prices have increased in the rate of 349-456 % according to the types in 2002-2014 period. Also, diesel and seed prices have increased 397% and 313 % respectively in the same period. In contrast to input prices of wheat, milling and durum wheat intervention prices have increased 313% and 294%. At the result, input prices were increased more than 30% from the wheat prices.

Conclusion And Recommendations

Wheat is the main product in the grain group and is produced in almost every province in Turkey. It is one of the most important sources of income for producers in Turkey. According to the data of 2015, approximately 7.8 million hectares of wheat planted area, 2.2 million tons produced and the yield of 288 kg/da. Wheat yield has increased gradually in recent years depending on irrigation facilities, proper agriculture techniques, certified seed using and wheat varieties.

Today, Turkey's wheat production is sufficient to domestic consumption. While it is expected to increasing of the amount of production which parallel to the increasing population, it has decreased in some years. Therefore, taking into account the increasing of the share of population growth, amount of production should be increased to satisfy of consumption.

Wheat export is closely related to the amount of production and product quality in Turkey. There has been a significant fluctuations in wheat export depending on climatic conditions and consequently production. In accordance with the drought, decreased production amount caused wheat import of Turkey reached 5.3 million tons, the highest amount for the last 15 years. In some years, the import of wheat has increased more than wheat export. So, foreign trade deficit has been occurred. Turkey has imported wheat because in Turkey the wheat prices are higher than some countries' prices. Some of the flour factories have imported wheat because of their low prices. But Turkey has a potential country in wheat production. The state should support the wheat, wheat producers and consider the world price determining the price of wheat.

Product Office has implemented various price according to the wheat quality in support purchases. However, whole of the wheat production hasn't been purchased by SPO and purchases have remained very small amounts in some years. SPO should purchase the wheat from the producers because it is a very important institution for producers who are not able to obtain higher prices on the commercial market. Because of the purchasing policies of SPO, wheat producers sold their wheat to the private purchasers (trader, brokers, companies, etc.) in some years. So, producers sold their products lower prices from SPO. SPO should purchase wheat from producers every year to protect producers.

Due to the populist policies applied in the last 15 year period, significant fluctuations have occurred in wheat intervention prices. Wheat prices realized above the PPI (average of June) in some years. The reason is that, there has been a big influence of drought and decrease in wheat production. In Turkey,

wheat intervention prices are generally above average world wheat intervention prices. Corresponds to rising world prices, it has been started to the premium applications in 2005 in Turkey. Premiums have been paid to the producers as 30-50 TL/tons in between 2005-2014 years. Quantity of premium should increase every year to increase the producers' income. Wheat producers have been supported with various payments which are input subsidies (diesel, fertilizer and certified seeds), and deficiency (premium) payments. These payments are not enough to the producers because the input prices are higher than wheat prices. Input prices were increased more than 30% from the wheat prices. Therefore, the input prices should decreased for producers to do a better wheat farming.

According to the agreement with the IMF's agricultural support, it is limited to 1% of GDP (Gross Domestic Product). But the producers have taken only the half of their support (0.6 %). These supports must be increased for protecting producers.

At the result, wheat and wheat producers should be supported by state. The agricultural policies applied for wheat in Turkey should be consistent, determined production according to consumption and prices parallel to the world price, given importance to structural and social policies, adopted long-term agricultural policies instead of daily or short-term policies so shouldn't be changed according to the government.

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Contributions of Organic Agriculture to The Turkish Economy

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Abstract: Organic agriculture which is safety for human health and made without harm to nature is important in commerce as well as nutrition is preferred. It is engaged in organic agriculture in Turkey and it is still a emerging market. Organic foods that are generally produced are firstly fig and grape. These have been added to dried apricots, nut and cotton in the later years. So, organic agricultural lands and harvested products show an increase from year to year. In Turkey, while organic agricultural lands are totally 203.811 hectare in 2005, they increase in 842.216 hectare with up 4, 13 fold in 2014. Turkey is also is one of the countries that is the highest increase in their organic agricultural lands between 2008 and 2009 years. However, the 80-85% of organic throughput is export and also its 15-20% is internal consumption. While nut and nut products, raisin, apricot and apricot products, fig and fig products, lentil and lentil products, cotton and textiles are among the main exported products, apple juice concentrate, bean and bean types, corn and rape seed have the largest share among imported products. Most exporting countries are Germany, USA, France and Holland. Additionally, most importing countries are Russia, Sweden, Kirghizia, Kazakhstan and China. In this study, contributions to economy of Turkey of organic agriculture in terms of employment, nutrition, industry, national dividend and balance of payments will be researched and obtained results will be commented.

Key words: Organic agriculture, economy of Turkey, import, export.

Organik Tarımın Türkiye Ekonomisine Katkıları

Özet: Türkiye’de organik ürün üretimi artmakta ve dış ticarete de talebi olan bir pazardır. Türkiye organik üretimi, dış ticaret taleplerine göre şekillenmektedir. Bu nedenle organik üretim ihracat yapmak üzere üretilmekte, iç piyasada beklenen talebi görmemektedir. İç piyasada tüketim kişi başına tüketim 20,69 kg/kişi olarak tahmin edilmiştir. Son 13 yıllık dönem organik üretim alanı 9,4 kat, miktarı 5,3 kat, çiftçi sayısı 5,75 kat ve ürün sayısı 1,39 kat artmıştır. Bu artışla birlikte organik ürünlerin ihracattaki payı %0,05’lik paya sahiptir. Organik tarımın GSMH içerisindeki payı %0,05, tarımsal GSMH içindeki payı ise %0,26 olarak tahmin edilmiştir. İthalat miktarı azaltmak için 9.132 ha alanda organik ürün üretimi yapılması ve bunun içinde 16 bin işgününe ihtiyaç duyulacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Organik tarım, Türkiye ekonomisi, ithalat, ihracat.

1. Introduction

Organic agriculture, is an alternativecultivation system which forbids the synthetic chemical agricultural drugs, hormones and synthetic mineral fertilizers and includes humanist and environmentally friendly production systems to establish a balance not existing anymore because of the incorrect applications in ecological system. On the contrary, It suggests a lot of eco-friendly technics like organic and gren fertilization, alternation, presevation of the soil, increasing the resistance of the plant, utilization of natural struggle ways and takes all of the technics in a closed system whichaimsto increase not only amount but also quality of the products (ITO,2006).

First applications in organic agriculture in Turkey started as contract productions to supply the demands of the developed countries.The production started in a less product range at the beginning. But it has increasedyear by year because of both the increasing demands from the developed countries and having no trouble on sales of the production. This increasing of the production made the producer move in to this sector. After all, organic agricultural production and marketing in Turkey found a place in the international markets. While organic production area in Turkey was 89.827 hain 2002, it has increased 9.5 times and reached 842.216 ha in 2014.The production area of Turkey consists of 33.82 % in East Anatolia, 28.18 % in Aegean, 17.78 % in Mediterrennean, 14.79 % in Black Sea, 2.58 % in SouthEast Anatolia, 2.12 % in Central Anatolia and with the less percentage of 0.72 in Marmara.At the same years, Whilst the amount of the organic production in Turkey was 310.125 tons of a year in 2002, it has increased 5.3 times and reached 1.642.235 tons of a year in 2014. The most productive regions in Turkey are East Anatolia (%60)

and Aegean (%18). Especially Van and Erzurum are the most productive cities in organic agricultural production in Turkey.

Organical production are mostly produced for foreign trade and 30% increasing in production is predicted in next ten years (GÜLER, 2006). Demiryurek (2011), defended the opinion that with a growing organic agriculture and supporting self consumption, the foreign trade would grow. In another study, researchers thought that there should be more comprehensive researches and there is a need to make strategies on the most important production groups in organical production marketing (Ataseven and Güneş, 2008).

There has been a 5.3 times increasing in the amount; an 8.6 times increasing in areas and a 5.7 times increasing in the of farmers in organical agricultural production from 2002 to 2014. Beside of these remarkable increasings, how to increase the production and foreign trade; which products to be focused and what kind of a strategy to increase the foreign trade are being studied. Whilst a lot of researcher has worked on the indicators of the situation in Turkey and the world, employment, nutrition, national income and other contributions to other sectors were investigated. In this paper, the contributions of the organical agricultural productions to Turkish economy will be investigated. So, the contributions of the organical agricultural productions to Gross National Product Gnp (GNPG), employment, nutrition, foreign trade and other sectors will be emphasized. There will be recommendations to increase the potential of the production in Turkey.

2. Organical Agricultural Products in Turkish Economy

2.1. In Terms of Consumption

Although there has been an increasing in the number of the farmers in organic agriculture, the production has made for the exportation rather than domestic consumption. Therefore, to increase the domestic consumption, neighborhood markets are emerging and there are new stands in the supermarkets in recent years. Due to this insufficient information, the consumption of organic products per person in Turkey is less than 1 euro (Finans, 2014). On the other hand, in another countries, the situation is different. Germany is highly sensitive of the consumption of organic products. The consumption of organic products per person in Germany is 150 euros (Türkexim, 2016). Swiss encourages the producers the most on selling the organic products in supermarkets. The consumption of organic products per person in Swiss which protects the consumers with national and international regulations is 150 euros (EİB, 2016).

Italy sells 60 percentage of its organic agricultural production to Germany, England, France, Austria, Swiss and etc. Prices of the products are more than the other European Union Countries because of poor yield and foreign-source dependency in Italy. According to researches, whilst % 30 of the consumers are buying the organic products, % 6 of them buys more than once in a month. Despite of this datum, the consumption of organic products per person is 120 euros (EYDD, 2005).

In Turkey, the consumption of organic products per person in 2014 is calculated by adding the total production amount (1.642.235.000 kg) to the importation amount (2.254.640 kg), then subtracting to exportation amount (15.552.638 kg) from the sum and dividing to amount of population as a whole. With this calculations, it is estimated that the consumption of organic products per person is 20.69 kg.

In recent years, consumption habits of people in the developed countries start to show a tendency to organic agricultural products which have the least chemical and synthetic additives. The countries that recognize the importance of a healthy diet (Germany, Swiss, etc.) make points of using organic products. In another research in the USA, the reasons of choosing organic products by consumers were investigated in 2001. % 66 of the consumers choose to buy them for being healthy and nutritious, % 38 of the consumers for being delicious, % 30 of the consumers for being without drugs and hormones and % 26 of the consumers for being eco-friendly. Another important point in this research is shown that the organic products which is in the countries (Denmark, Austria and Swiss) holding big parts of organic marketshare, are selling 20 percentage cheaper than average prices of EU organic products (Hatunoğlu Durmaz, 2010). As mentioned above, both consumption amounts per person and the reasons to buy these

organic products are shown. In developed countries, organic products are seen as only export products and these countries do not take notice of domestic consumption on organic products. To have a rising on consumption of organic products in Turkey, it should be given the importance of domestic consumption. High prices, insufficient information and less variety in markets are shown as the main reasons of fewer demands than expected in Turkey. Therewithal, living in big cities, sensitive of ecology and health and educated consumers are observed to buy organic products in a growing range (Akgüngör ve ark., 1999; Kayahan, 2001; Aksoy, 2001; Sayın and d., 2005; Akgüngör and d., 2007; Demiryürek and d., 2008).

2.2. In Terms of Production

A total of 4912 million hectares are being cultivated in the world. According to IFOAM 2009; total organic agricultural area (37.2 million hectares) is 7,5 % of all cultivated areas in the world. Oceania has the biggest part of organic agricultural areas (12.15 million hectares and % 32,6 of all). After that, respectively, Europe has 9,3 million hectares (% 24,9), Latin America has 8,6 million hectares (% 23), Asia has 3,6 million hectares (% 9,6), North America has 2,7 million hectares (% 7,1) and Africa has 1,02 million hectares (% 2,8) (FIBL-IFOAM, 2011).

The countries have the biggest area of the world are Austria, Argentina, USA, China and Spain. The most cultivated products are, according to the 2011 datum, cacao with its 222000 hectares area. The countries with the largest production area of cacao are Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico and Peru. Coffee is being cultivated in almost 355555 hectares area and the countries with the largest production area of coffee are Mexico, Ethiopia and Peru. The countries with the largest production area of temperate fruits (apple, pears, apricots, plums, etc.) are Poland, Italy, Turkey and France. The countries with the largest production area of tropical and subtropical fruits (bananas, avocados, mangos, etc.) are Mexico, Dominican Republic, Philippines and Ecuador.

Table 1: Organic Agricultural Datum in Turkey (includes the transition process)

Year	Number of products	Number of farmers	Range (%)	Area (ha)	Range (%)	production (ton)	Range (%)
2002	150	12 428	-	89 827	-	310 125	-
2003	179	14 798	19,1	113 621	26,5	323 981	4,5
2004	174	12 751	-13,8	209 573	84,4	377 616	16,6
2005	205	14 401	12,9	203 811	-2,7	421 934	11,7
2006	203	14 256	-1,0	192 789	-5,4	458 095	8,6
2007	201	16 276	14,2	174 283	-9,6	568 128	24,0
2008	247	14 926	-8,3	166 883	-4,2	530 224	-6,7
2009	212	35 565	138,3	501 641	200,6	983 715	85,5
2010	216	42 097	18,4	510 033	1,7	1 343 737	36,6
2011	225	42 460	0,9	614 618	20,5	1 659 543	23,5
2012	204	54 635	28,7	702 909	14,4	1 750 127	5,5
2013	213	60 797	11,3	769 014	9,4	1 620 466	-7,4
2014	208	71 472	17,6	842 216	9,5	1 642 235	1,3

Source: www.tarim.gov.tr

They are being cultivated in 190000 hectares. Olives are being cultivated in 540000 hectares and the most productive countries of olives are Spain, Italy, Tunisia, Greece and Turkey. The last one is grape which is being cultivated in 260000 hectares and the most productive countries are Spain, Italy, France, China and Turkey (Willer and Lernoud, 2013).

A total area of 38,56 million hectares were being cultivated in Turkey in 2014. % 2,18 of these areas were used as organic agricultural productions. Among the years 2002 and 2014, there has been some increases and decreases. While the number of products were 150 in 2002, it has increased to 208 in 2014. In this 13 years period, an increasing was occurred. Especially in 2009, the number of farmers, the production areas and the amount of production have had a big increasing compared to the previous year. This big increasing has been going on until 2014 (Table 1).

The production areas in Turkey sums up with East Anatolia (% 32,82), Aegean (% 28,18), Mediterranean (% 17,78), BlackSea (% 14,79), Southeast Anatolia (%2,58), Central Anatolia (%2,12) and the least Marmara (% 0,72) (Table 2). The most organic agricultural productive cities by region, Van (78208,88 ha), Kars (38181,64 ha) and Erzurum (32828,33 ha) in East Anatolia; Izmir (144005,77 ha), Aydin (21694,65 ha) and Mugla (10708,44 ha) in Aegean; (8617,55 ha), Nigde (1916,68 ha) and Konya (822,52 ha) in Central Anatolia; (10661,51), Gaziantep (2036,60) and Kilis (1359,12) in Southeast Anatolia; Mersin (100800,76 ha), Antalya (12421,07 ha) and Adana (2268,92 ha) in Mediterranean; (80675,32 ha), Samsun (2285,32 ha) and Ordu (1988,34 ha) in BlackSea; Canakkale (2100,87 ha), Bursa (927,22 ha) and Balikesir (831,59 ha) in Marmara.

Table 2: organic farmers', production areas' and amounts' range by region in Turkey in 2014 (not including husbandary and transition process' datum)

Regions	Number of Farmers	Range (%)	Total Area (ha)	Range (%)	Amount of production (ton)	Range (%)
Southeast	794,00	2,35	17.049,66	2,58	58.681,09	5,51
Mediterranean	633,00	1,88	117.502,26	17,78	47.478,59	4,46
BlackSea	4.839,00	14,34	97.754,70	14,79	43.259,56	4,06
Aegean	7.159,00	21,22	186.219,16	28,18	190.040,85	17,83
East Anatolia	18.222,00	54,01	223.502,95	33,82	637.615,92	59,84
Marmara	640,00	1,90	4.755,61	0,72	20.308,58	1,91
Central Anat.	1451	4,30	14.023,07	2,12	68.182,73	6,40
Total	33.738,00	100,00	660.807,40	100,00	1.065.567,32	100,00

Source: www.tarim.gov.tr

Organic production in Turkey involves dried fruits (% 61), plantation products (% 21), fresh or cultivated fruits (% 5), vegetables (% 2), berries (% 2), medicinal aromatic plants (% 2) and others (% 7) (Olhan et al. 2005). In these products, fig, nut, lentil, dried apricot, dried grape and cotton are the important ones in export. The range of these products are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Organic Products in Conventional Products in Turkey (2014)

Products	Organic Products	Conventional Products	Total	Range (%)
	Amount of Production (Ton)	Amount of Production (Ton)		
Wheat	217.843,08	15.482.156,92	15.700.000	1,41
Olive	62.664,25	1.705.335,75	1.768.000	3,67
Fig	52.130,35	248.151,65	300.282	21,01
Apple	48.449,45	2.431.994,55	2.480.444	1,99
Grape	27.319,09	4.148.036,91	4.175.356	0,66
Cotton	27.058,22	2.322.941,78	2.350.000	1,16
Nut	10.192,75	439.807,25	450.000	2,32
Lentil	9.314,48	335.685,52	345.000	2,77
Apricot	4.102,34	265.897,66	270.000	1,54

Source: GTHB and TÜİK

Fig is the most cultivated organic product. Almost % 20 of conventional fig cultivation changed to organic cultivation. According to table 3, wheat is the most cultivated organic product, but it has a little range of % 1,4.

Price differences between conventional and organic products are shown in Table 4. Nut has the most price difference. It can be seen in the table that cultivation of organic products is more economic than cultivation of conventional products.

Tablo 4: Resale Prices Between Organic and Conventional Products in Migros Markets (Anonim, 2016)

Products	Organic Products Price (TL/Kg)	Conventional Products Price (TL/Kg)	Price Difference (TL/Kg)	Range (%)
Lentik	11,95	8,45	3,50	41,42
Dried Fig	34,5	24,9	9,6	38,55
Dried Grape	24,5	20	4,5	22,5
Dried Apricot	58,00	45	13,00	28,89
Nut	99,8	55	44,8	81,45

2.3. Organic Agricultural Products in Foreign Trade

Very big part of the organic products cultivated in Turkey are for export. EU countries (%80) and America (% 20) are the important countries in terms of foreign trade in Turkey (Güler, 2006). Germany had the most big part of the marketshare in EU countries in 2014. Some of countries which export the most organic products are Germany (%24,4), US (%24,2), France (% 10,8), Holland (%9) and Swiss (%7,9). Turkey have exported to the 12 countries and gained 76 million dollars (%96,6 of the exportation).

Table 5: Countries Which Export The Most Organic Products in 2014

Country	Amount (KG)	Price (\$)	% Range
Germany	3.335.466	19.248.646	24,4
United States	3.782.712	19.053.760	24,2
France	1.488.675	8.507.402	10,8
Holland	1.254.091	7.075.308	9,0
Swiss	1.190.599	6.217.360	7,9
United Kingdom	998.137	4.446.227	5,6
Swedish	808.811	4.360.203	5,5
Italy	389.770	2.775.607	3,5
Japan	296.571	1.910.147	2,4
Denmark	250.452	1.201.498	1,5
Austria	211.130	1.038.758	1,3
Belgium	136.720	471.784	0,6
Total	14.143.134	76.306.700	96,9
Overall (Including others)	15.552.638	78.779.537	100

Source: GTHB, 2016

The most exported products in 2014 in Turkey were fig and fig products (%27,5), nut and nut products (%21,6), dried grape (%17,2), apricot and apricot products (%14,1) and fruit and fruit products (%10,9). 71 million dollars are gained in exportation of these products and this is %91,3 of all income. Export and import amounts of organic products are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Export and Import Amountsof Organic Products

Years	Amount of Export (ton)	Value (1000\$)	Amount of Import (Ton)	Export-Import Amount (ton)
2005	9.319,33	26.230,26	23,10	9.296,23
2006	10.374,49	28.236,62	0,55	10.373,95
2007	9.346,68	29.359,32	591,76	8.754,92
2008	8.628,80	27.260,48	33.219,62	-24.590,83
2009	7.565,61	27.504,94	887,45	6.678,16
2010	3.592,57	15.877,32	28.291,92	-24.699,35
2011	3.371,30	15.529,39	3.982,87	-611,58
2012	6.258,31	27.703,61	14.562,89	-8.304,58
2013	10.495,22	46.020,39	24.400,85	-13.905,63
2014	15.552,64	78.779,54	2.254,64	13.298,00

Source: GTHB, 2016

Domestic organic production may be insufficient in some periods, so import can be a solution to this insufficiency. Because of the insufficient import values, it is hard to have a good comment. When Turkey hasan insufficient amount of organic production, knowing the value of importation is an indicator for exportation is whether profitable or not. Foreign trade volume of Turkey in 2014 is 399.138.342 thousand dollars. While export value with 157.610.158 thousand dollars takes %39,5; import value with 242.177.117 thousand dollars takes %40,5 of foreign trade volume. Export meets import in a range of % 65,1. While agricultural part in export is 6.007.500 thousand dollars (%3,8); it is 8.433.933 thousand dollars (%0,05) in import.

In organic agricultural trade, demands are less than supply. So, developed countries do not use protective customs duty to meet these demands. Beside this, they both give financial support and do not use prohibitive factors in international trade (Çetin ve Başarır,2006, s.80; İpek ve Yaşar Çil, 2010). Organic farmers in Turkey are supported by ÇATAK (supporting of the farmers choosing the protecting of eco-aimed agricultural areas programme)FPPEP (Farmland Protection Program for Environmental Purposes). In additon to agricultural supportings, 70TL/da for fruits-vegetables, 10TL/da for plantation, 150TL per cows-manda and 10TL per goat-sheep are given to the farmers. Furthermore, reduction of interest on agricultural credits and 135TL/da for eco-friendly agricultural technics and cultural applications are to plan.

2.4. Organic Agricultural Products' Contribution to National Income

Gross National Product Gnp, is the total value of goods and services in a period (generally 1 year) in an economy. This income which is resulted by national economic units, is calculated by current or market prices in that period. Gross National Product Gnp's references consists of agriculture, industry and services groups (Eraktan, 2009).

National income is subtracking taxes from net national product in the same period. In terms of production approach, national income is net monetary value of goods and services (except indirect taxes and amortizations) in one period in a country(MD, 2016).

Table 7: Agricultural Part Of Gross National Product Gnp

Year	GNPG (Thousand TL)	Agriculture (Thousand TL)	Range%
2008	5.128.334,13	259.154,10	5,05
2009	5.415.280,70	300.616,43	5,55
2010	5.649.534,94	330.292,73	5,85
2011	6.559.174,53	366.385,94	5,59
2012	6.915.831,63	386.522,00	5,59
2013	7.579.403,28	404.964,64	5,34
2014	8.840.388,01	489.292,26	5,53

Source: State Planning Organization of Turkish Republic, 2016

GNPG and agricultural values have been increased among the years 2008-2014. While agricultural part has had big increasings till 2010, it has not changed in 2011-2012. It has decreased to % 5,342 in 2013, but it has increased to %5,53 again in 2014.

Agricultural part in agricultural GNPG is %10,3 in Turkey. Among the years 2002 and 2008, while GNPG and agriculture's value were increasing, range of agricultural part in agricultural GNPG was decreasing to %7,9. After that, agriculture increased %9 in 2009 and and %17,7 in 2010, and then its part increased to % 8,4. Among the years 2011 and 2014, evenif GNPG and agriculture's value increased, agricultural part decreased year by year and became %7,1 in 2014 (GTHB,2016).

Organic agricultural part in GNPG is estimated as % 0.05; in agricultural GNPG is estimated as % 0.26. Even though its contribution to national income is very low, it is a growing market.

2.5. Organic Agricultural Products' Contribution to Employment

There is a sense that organic products have more labour than conventional ones in Turkey. But, according to researches, it depends on cultivation systems. Berardi's studies (1976) showed that while it was needed to use 21 hours/ha labour on wheat cultivation in organic areas, 9 hours/ha in conventional areas (Atış, 2004; Turhan, 2005). But, whilst expense of organic agriculture was 465.75 TL per decare, expense of conventional agriculture was 648.25 TL per decare. This difference is explained as the result of using more inputs (fertilization and disinfection) and technology in conventional agriculture (Karaman et al. 2013). After all, when the labour is taken as 18 hours/ha, for a total of 842.216 ha organic area, it will be needed to have 15 million hours' labour. If one person works ten hours in a day, 1.5 million hours' labour is needed. For decreasing import, it is estimated that we need 9.132 ha production area, we need 16 thousand hours' labour, though.

2.6. In Terms of Nourishment

Organic products have come in to prominence in human nutrition in recent years. Due to increasing of population, chemical fertilizers and drugs, at the same time, genetical changes to increase growing crops has been applied. It is thought that, chronic diseases are results of nutrition. This is why people started to cultivated and consumed organic products. Having more sales prices in organic products is a limited factor than conventional ones. a research showed that people have willingness to pay of this difference of % 2, and the reason of that is people does not have enough information about organic agriculture (Hatunoğlu Durmaz, 2010). In another research in 2011, % 33.4 of people know about organic agriculture and their willingness to pay is about % 50-100 (Kaya, 2003; Hatunoğlu Durmaz, 2010). According to these two researches, it can be realized that, if people have sufficient information, they will have willingness to pay. Then it continous more demands and contributes to economy. So, to increase domestic demands of organic products, consumers should have awareness at first.

2.7. Organic Agricultural Products' Contribution to Other Sectors

Exported raw material at first years of organic agriculture in Turkey changed in time exported processed products. Dried products which have the most contribution to agricultural industry, are being processed, packed and offered to consumers. Tomato paste, fruit concentrate, rose water and rose oil are the other processed products. while cotton is an export material, it is started to be export as textile products (Çetin, 2008; Merdan ve Kaya, 2013). According to the datum of 2005, organic products are % 33 dried ones, %30 fresh ones, % 10 concentrate ones, % 4 frozen ones, % 0.3 canned ones and % 25.7 others (Ataseven ve Güneş, 2008). The most contributed organic products was dried ones which has 69.944.478 \$ with a %88,78 part in total exportation value in 2014. Fresh, canned and concentrate parts are just % 6.04. other parts are belongs to other products.

5.741.518 ton chemical fertilizer was used in 2014 in Turkey. From 2002 to 2014, while it was increasing of % 21, then from 2013 to 2014, it decreased of % 2. Organic fertilizers sholud be choosen beacuse chemical ones result in environmental pollution and a decrease on organical materials in soil. Organic

fertilizers are prepared from crop residues and animal dung. Due to insufficient information, contributions to fertilizer industry can not be commented.

Chemical drug usage is limited in Turkey and world. According to a research, % 94 of conventional peaches and %91 of apples have pesticides (BEYD,2013). Usage of organic products in drug sector and less usage of chemical pests contributes to healthier nutrition.

3. Results and Recommendations Conclusions and Recommendations

With an increasing on population, demands on agricultural products increase in the world. usage of more inputs to meet this demands results in environmental pollution and disrupting the natural balance. Turning to organic farming is beneficial to prevent these negative effects.

Organic productivity gets shaped depends on foreign demands. Domestic consumings does not has enough importance. Consumers' educational level, income and sensitivity of ecology are the main reasons of not choosing organic products in domestic market. The consuming of organic products in Turkey is 20.6 kg per person. It will become more with governmental supportings and awareness of consumers. There also is a need to have more stands in super and hiper markets.

Organical agricultural area is just % 2.18 of all. An increase on organic products, especially exports, contributes more to Turkish economy. Fig is one of the most important example of this. Beacuse sales prices of organic products are more expensive than conventional ones, organic farming may be attractive. But, there is a need to limit in domestic market, so, prices between organic and conventional products should be least.

Organic agriculture in Turkey is to meet demands of developed countries. So, it can be said that developing countries are producers, developed ones are consumers. While agricultural part in export is %3.8, organic products' part in export is low as % 0.05. Even though, there are governmental supports and not prohibitive limits in international markets, organic agricultural part is very low in export. Not having import prices in economy is the most important absence which governments mean business. With increasing on organic agriculture, more labour are needed year by year. Organic agricultural area is 842.216 ha and needs 1.5 million labour. If the area increase, labour needs increase, too. So, it can contribute to decrease the unemployment.

Another contribution of organic agriculture to Turkish economy is that raw material products can be sold as processed. So, markets value of the products will rise.

As a conclusion, growing organic agricultural products and selling should be in strategical plans. Technological growings should be followed and reflected to marketing of these products. Furthermore, works should be not only on exportation, but also on growing of domestic economy.

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Family Farming In Terms Of Sustainable Food Supply And Evaluation Of The Present Situation In Turkey

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Abstract: Family farming has an important place in the agricultural sector of both developing and developed countries. Producing families make various socio- economic contribution to the agricultural sector and, thus, to the national economy. The latest actions on sustainability of the food supply are among these contributions. Despite the fact that the development levels are different, ensuring food security is the primary concern of every country.

In Turkey, which is a developing country, sustainability of the food supply is important in terms of meeting the food needs of increasing population along with the development of the food industry and export. This study reveals the importance of family farming across the world and evaluates the issue in terms of sustainability of the food supply in the example of Turkey. In the study some suggestions on enhancing family farming's possible contribution to the sustainability of the food supply are included. This study is a literature research made with the help of secondary sources.

Key words: Family Farming, Food Supply, Sustainability, Turkey.

1. Introduction

Family farming is a proportion of powers and abilities of all family members in rural areas, which takes form of agricultural production; it is inseparably connected with food security. Firms engaged in family farming are one of the most effective elements of the agricultural sector in both developed and developing countries. Producing families, despite the poor ability to access the factors of production, such as agricultural inputs and support, manage their land carefully to maintain the high levels of production. Indeed, many researches reveal inverse proportion between the size of the land and production (Ünal, 2008). Family farming is one of the solutions for food security, which is among the biggest future challenges; it has a great importance in terms of providing sustainable food especially for developing countries. In the future, a great contribution is expected from the firms engaged in family farming as a solution to problems of more severe hunger and poverty (FAO, 2015a; FAO, 2015b; Güneş ve Keskin, 2014).

Family farming, while providing help in preservation of the traditional food products, also contributes to the balanced nutrition, preservation of agro-diversity and sustainable usage of natural resources. Having adopted precisely the local ecology and land facilities, small family companies, by using their knowledge generally on the land of low value, apply complex and innovative land management techniques to maintain productivity. Along with the deep knowledge of the land and different sustainable land management skills, producing families contribute to the improvement of many ecological system services (FAO, 2015a; FAO, 2015b).

Family farming, especially when supported by the social protection- and public welfare- oriented policies, comes in sight as an opportunity for the revival of local economies. Producing families have strong economic links with the rural area. A significant part of the workforce is still employed in the agricultural sector, thus, producing families in developing countries make a great contribution to employment. Moreover, income made by family farming, in non-agricultural economy, is spent on housing, education and clothing (TOBB, 2015). Risk of hunger and poverty, being on the agenda, has increased the awareness

of importance of family farming on a global scale in recent years. There are over 500 million family farming facilities in the world, and developed countries consider family farming very important in terms of food security (FAO, 2015a; FAO, 2015b; FAO, 2015c).

Turkey, despite the 22 percent decline in rural population, still has high potential of rural population (TÜİK, 2015b). It also brings some social and economic problems. One of the most important of these problems is related to providing food security. Despite the potential of existing rural population, for many years the importance of family farming in terms of sustainable food supply in Turkey remained outside the agenda. The aim of the current study is to emphasize the importance of family farming and to evaluate this issue in terms of sustainable food supply in Turkey.

2. Family Farming and Its Characteristics

Family farming is defined differently. FAO as a whole introduces family farming as family-based agricultural activities associated with many areas of rural development (FAO, 2015a; FAO, 2015b; FAO, 2015c).

Family farming, managed and brought into existence by one family, is a method of organizing production activities which are mainly based on family labor oriented on agriculture, forestry, fishery, apiculture and aquaculture. In rural areas, 90 percent of family farming, which includes powers and abilities of all family members engaged in agricultural production, is composed of small farms. In these farms, family members cooperate with each other in production to the extent of their experience and knowledge (Örnek, 2016; Rehber 2014). Family farming has a key role from the point of food security and sustainability, it is also very important for local economy. It can be stated that provision of food security and disappearance of poverty depend on supporting family farming and small landowners (Food in Life, 2015).

Facilities engaged in family farming in underdeveloped countries, despite many problems, manage to survive in difficult conditions, such as feeding family members. It also plays role in transfer of the national natural resources to production and finding economic value. Family farming is the most important actor in the agricultural production both in developed and developing countries. Facilities engaged in family farming, along with being the largest food producing sector for the future of humanity, are also seen as an insurance of food security (Mert, 2015; Yıldırım, 2014a).

Facilities engaged in family farming yield the products to the regional markets, however, at the same time they are the biggest consumers for these markets due to their agricultural input demands and household expenses. Family farming plays role in employment creation both in agricultural and non-agricultural areas. Small family facilities ensure the preservation of the traditional food products in their regions. In addition, family farming gives an opportunity to the rural population to have balanced nutrition. These facilities also support protection and preservation of agricultural bio-diversity and make it possible to use resources sustainably. In addition, they are the source of cultural life (UN Information Centre, 2014; Örnek, 2016).

3. Family Farming Around The World

Food security is one of the most important strategic issues of the 21st century. Diminishing food resources have become one of the topics used as an element of pressure on society by developed countries and international companies. Dominance in food production is even more important than energy dominance; not taking necessary measures towards food security has led the countries to a danger of being powerless in commercial and military respect, because it is not possible to support the future of the country without ensuring food security. Whereas more than 40 percent of industrial agricultural production entering the supply chain is wasted due to rottenness and decay, small-scale family farms, despite the fact that they own only 20-25 percent of cultivated land, are able to feed 70 percent of the world population (Derdiyok, 2014).

Nowadays, rural areas in more than 70 percent of the countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Near East experience risk of hunger and food security problems. Small-scale family facilities in these countries,

where along with the risk of hunger poverty is also high, are generally businesses which have low income, lack necessary agricultural support and have difficulties to access natural resources. According to the study performed by the United Nations (the UN), provision of food security is possible providing that necessary social and economic support is granted to the farms engaged in family farming (FAO, 2015a; FAO, 2015b; FAO, 2015c).

Evaluating the issue on a global scale, it can be observed that developed countries also give importance to family farming. For instance, in the agricultural sector of the United States of America (the USA) share of the large livestock companies is about 3-4 percent. 96-97 percent of these facilities are family farms. The European Union (the EU) has a similar situation. 98 percent of the facilities are family farms. 84 percent of the workforce, employed by 12 millions agricultural facilities engaged in agricultural production, consist of family members (Yıldırım, 2014a). In the EU and the USA, people engaged in cattle breeding are the families that continue a livestock farming tradition throughout generations. The EU, the USA and other developed countries maintain the agriculture by accumulation technology and development of the habits passed from generation to generation. This is one of the most important reasons of achievements made in the agricultural sector (MacDonald, 2014; Yıldırım, 2014a). However, the main problem for family facilities and family farming is the aging of the agricultural population almost everywhere in the world. In the EU the average age is over 50. In Poland and France, which are the two most important agricultural countries in the EU, elderly agricultural population is the main problem (IFAD, 2014a; IFAD, 2014b). Consequently, the existence and sustainability of the family facilities in the agricultural sector is of great importance for all developed and developing countries.

As a matter of fact, family farming is the lynchpin of sustainable agriculture; the world has created a unique model based on small-scale family facilities and supports it. Whereas the USA and the EU countries give more importance to family farming and food security in their agricultural policy, developing countries, on the contrary, provide financial support to encourage agricultural industrialization (Yıldırım, 2014a; Yıldırım, 2014b).

Family farming is largely composed of small-scale agricultural facilities in developed countries it generally gains a place in the market as a part of a cooperative, while in underdeveloped countries the policy of reducing the number of small-scale family facilities has been pursued. This policy mistakes emerged over time; due to ruralization of cities farm lands remained empty, which led to social and economic problems increase. Despite the adequate food production in the world and sufficient production resources in these countries, the hunger problem could not be overcome. First, hunger and poverty existing in Africa started to spread to other nowadays underdeveloped and developing countries, and day by day it became a problem (Kaymakçı, 2014; Derdiyok, 2014).

In the new century, developed countries are meticulous and resolute on the subject of food production and security new policies aimed at family farming have been developed. In developing countries, food market is supported by domination of private companies and capital groups. As a result of the developments in this direction, the number of facilities engaged in family farming decreased gradually (Örnek, 2016).

However, the world economic crisis experienced in the recent years, sequential collapse of global companies, increased poverty even in developed countries, and hunger reaching the critical line- all these factors mobilized all the countries, with the United Nations being in the first place, and civil society organizations. The solution of the problem of food security endangerment based on the policies is at the top of the agenda. At this point the importance of family farming becomes obvious. Harm to family farming caused by faulty agricultural policies over the years came in sight. The importance of preservation, rather than elimination, of the essential part of small-scale family facilities, which ought to be a part of a cooperative, has increased (Yıldırım, 2014a; Örnek, 2016).

4. Evaluation of Family Farming in Turkey in Terms of Sustainable Food Supply

There is no official definition of family farming in Turkey. However, in the Ad Hoc Commission report on the Development Plan, in respect of the existence of small-scale agricultural facilities and demographic indicators per facilities, the agriculture is stated to be at subsistence level. Thus, according to the results of recent (2001) Agricultural Census, more than 80 percent of agricultural facilities in Turkey are small-scale facilities, and these facilities cultivate in 42 percent of total agricultural land (TÜİK, 2015a). In Turkey, despite the regional differences, most of agricultural population live in traditional conditions of production (DPT, 2007).

In Turkey, after 1950 the ratio of urban population started to increase rapidly, and a big number of population abandoned rural areas. In 2012, the proportion of urban and rural population was 77.3 percent and 22.7 percent respectively (TÜİK, 2015b).

After 1980, rapid expansion of large-scale agricultural facilities in Turkey along with the industrialization of agriculture, affected the rural population negatively. The policy pursued after 1980 caused gradual decrease of the number of facilities engaged in family farming (Derdiyok, 2014; Rehber, 2014). Family farming proved to make a significant contribution to rural development; in Turkey, on the grounds that the facilities are small-scale and the land area is fragmented, large-scale facilities gain more land, while the USA and the EU countries provide agricultural technological development and preserve family farming. Decrease of the number of facilities engaged in family farming in Turkey boosted problems, such as careless use of natural resources, hunger, change of urban structure and food security (ESK, 2014; Derdiyok, 2014). Despite the developments which emerged over the time, today the small-scale facilities in the agricultural sector are still kept in existence. As in other sectors of economy, in the agricultural sector the scale of a facility has always been a matter of discussion. Nowadays, when a smaller (due to separation) scale of agricultural facilities has increased the outflow from the agricultural sector, obtaining sufficient income in the agricultural sector requires cost reduction and, consequently, the scale growth; issues such as sustainable use of resources and food security increase the importance of family farming. This reveals the need of agricultural policy to monitor the projects and programs oriented to the multiple structure (Çivioğlu ve ark., 2014; Saçlı, 2014).

To solve some economic problems in Turkey caused by generally small and medium scale of family facilities and fragmented and dispersed structure of the land, in 2014 the Law amending the Law on Soil Preservation and Land Utilization No. 6537 came into force (Official Journal, 2014). The most important issues that arise under the law are identifying the level of “sufficient income” in parallel with determination of the facility scale (Saçlı, 2014). To retain residual population in rural areas in Turkey, effective policies aimed at supporting family farming should be developed. It should be recognized that the facility size is not a very important criterion, and significance of family farming ought to be acknowledged. Otherwise, problems related to food sustainability will increase, and the cities may become uninhabitable (Mert, 2014).

To ensure food security, in Turkey in recent years apart from the legislative regulations various studies have been performed. These studies include the grant-maintained Rural Development Investments Support Program. This program is aimed at ensuring the sustainable food supply by including small family facilities into the food supply chain (ESK, 2014). However, it is difficult to state that these studies are sufficient. Looking back at the history of Turkey, for over 40 years increasing the scale of small lands led to decrease of the number of small family facilities. Thus, small-scale production included in the food supply chain gradually diminishes. Nevertheless, budget support will ensure economic sustainability of family facilities and may provide them with appropriate subsidies. In Turkey, neither differentiation of facilities nor privileges to family facilities have been observed when providing support to the agricultural sector. Moreover, family facilities due to hypothec difficulties may be disadvantaged compare to large-scale facilities in terms of financing. Nevertheless, support of activities which conduce to employment, such as organic agriculture, good agricultural practices and livestock, contribute to family farming and agricultural sustainability. In addition, agricultural advisory services along with educating activities make a significant contribution to family facilities (Arisoy, 2014). Preparation and application of supporting legislation for small-scale agriculture and family farming is crucial. Besides, supporting farmers’

organizations is extremely important so as to be able to provide more facilities to its members and to proclaim the problems in political area. Nevertheless, implementation of consultancy services, including the research about technologies which meet needs of the small family farms, and formation of alternative sources of income for small-scale farms are also beneficial measures towards family farming preservation (SDC, 2016).

Evaluation in terms of sustainable food supply shows that in Turkey, along with the development of large-scale facilities, preservation of existing facilities engaged in family farming is needed. Maintaining the balance between the facilities engaged in family farming and large-scale facilities is the most important point of providing sustainable food in Turkey, for large-scale facilities makes a significant contribution to sustainable food supply, agro- industry and national economy. Assuming that instead of the existence of large-scale facilities importance is given solely to family farming, the development of agro-industry may be affected negatively, and unemployment may increase. Consequently, national economy will experience significant losses. Providing that the development of large-scale facilities does not quickly reduce the number of small family facilities, food supply will be positively affected by this integrated structure. In case the current number of the facilities engaged in family farming is not preserved, conditions are not improved and large-scale facility-oriented policy is continued, small producers will migrate to urban areas as it happened in previous years. Thus, socio-economic crisis will get worse. In particular, success of family farming in countries like Turkey, where a certain part of the population is employed in agriculture, provide benefits, such as social welfare, peace maintenance, prevention of excessive rural-urban migration along with reducing unemployment through establishment and development of rural industry (Güneş ve Keskin, 2014).

5. Conclusion And Suggestions

Facilities engaged in family farming manage to survive in difficult conditions, such as feeding family members. Transfer of the national natural resources to production and finding economic value also play an important role. On a global scale it can be observed that developed countries give a great importance to family farming, for it plays a key role in terms of sustainability of food supply and natural resources, and local economy. Ensuring sustainable food supply and disappearance of poverty is directly related to support of family farming and small landowners. For many years in Turkey small producers were not given place to in agricultural policy. Preserving the existence of both large-scale commercial enterprises and family businesses in the structure of agriculture will make a great contribution to agricultural sector and, consequently, to sustainable food supply.

Hence, national definition of family farming ought to be clearly described. Appropriate and adequate data ought to be obtained from the agricultural sector. Small family facilities should be well identified and recognized for their further development. Primarily, in the places where these facilities are located environmental conditions, soil characteristics, demographic structure, economic and socio-cultural conditions should be known well. Complementary support policies ought to be developed against lack of ability of small facilities to access markets, agricultural land, natural resources, financial resources, technology, other services and also vocational education. For all these purposes the effectiveness in solving problems and the importance of cooperatives should be increased. Facilities engaged in family farming must be transformed into soil preserving and soil developing production units that provide land economy through crop and livestock production and, thus, make a significant contribution to sustainable food supply.

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Determination Of Variables Effective On The Opinion Of Milk Producers About Ensuring Food Security In Milk: A Case Study Of Tr22 South Marmara Region

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Abstract: Milk is a specific product for various fields such as agriculture and industry as well as nutrition of people. According to data of 2013, Turkey is at the 8th rank in production of cow milk and at the 7th rank in production of drinking milk in the world ranking. It was regarded important to mention milk production in the terms of food security which has important contribution to Turkey's economy. Food security is quite a comprehensive term. First of the main dimensions of food security is the aspect of availability. Providing all the other aspects depends on providing the aspect of availability. Sufficient level of production is compulsory to ensure availability. Therefore producers play important role in the terms of ensuring food security.

TR22 South Marmara Region is one of the leading region in the country in the terms of milk production. The study was carried out in TR22 South Marmara Region for this reason. The aim of this study is to determine variables which are effective on the opinion of milk producers whether food security is ensured or not in TR22 South Marmara Region. The study is composed of primary data. A total of 96 milk producers, selected by means of proportional sampling, were interviewed face-to-face. Factor Analysis and Binary Logistic Regression Analysis were used in the analysis of primary data. As a result, positive variables effective on the opinion of milk producers in ensuring food security in milk; factor of conditions for production, factor of sustainable production, factor of availability, experience in dairy farming, the rate of feed crops produced in the enterprise and recordkeeping by the producer. Negative variables are factor of unskilled inspection, factor of costs, variable of province and off-farm income of producer.

Keywords: Milk, Food Security, Factor Analysis, Binary Logistik Regression.

Jel Code: Q190, Q180, C190.

1. Introduction

Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. This widely accepted definition points to the following dimensions of food security; food availability, food access, utilization and stability (Anonymous, 2015a; Anonymous, 2015b).

Milk occupies an important place in human nutrition. Milk and milk products constitute the main sources of protein in daily diet. Milk is a very important product not only in agricultural sector but also in industry sector. Furthermore, milk producers can generate a cash flow on daily basis in their enterprises by means of milk production. Therefore, it is of importance to ensure food security in milk.

The share of the value of animal production in the value of agricultural production is 32,6 % in Turkey according to the data obtained in 2012-2014. Moreover, the share of the value of milk production in the value of animal production is 40,7 % and in the value of agricultural production is 13,3 % in Turkey between the same years (Anonymous, 2015c).

According to the area classification of NTUS-2 (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics-2) by TUIK (Turkish Statistical Institute), TR22 South Marmara Region covers the provinces of Balıkesir and Canakkale. The share of the total value of milk produced in the region in the total value of milk in Turkey is 6,04 % given the average value between the years 2011-2013 (Anonymous 2013a; Anonymous 2013b). For that reason, this study was performed in TR22 South Marmara Region, which is a one of leading region in Turkey in terms of milk production. The aim of this study is to determine the variables that have an impact on the opinion of milk producers in TR22 South Marmara Region about ensuring food security in milk.

2. Material And Methods

The main source in the study was primary data. A total of 96 milk producers, selected by means of proportional sampling, were interviewed face-to-face. The analysis of the obtained data was performed by means of Reliability Analysis, Factor Analysis and Binary Logistic Regression Analysis (Tekin, 2000; Tavşancıl, 2005; Cankurt, 2008). The reliability of the estimations on the food security in milk which were addressed to the milk producers was also shown. Factor Analysis was performed in order to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of variables (Spearman, 1904; Özdamar 2013). The estimations including the statements on the food security in milk were grouped under certain factors and a smaller set of variables was obtained. Then, Binary Logistic Regression Analysis was carried out in order to determine the variables that have an impact on the opinion of milk producers about ensuring food security in milk. The factors obtained by Factor Analysis in this study were included in Binary Logistic Regression Analysis as an independent variable along with other variables. Thereby, the impact of these factors on the opinion of milk producers on food security was revealed.

3. Findings

Table 1 indicates the descriptive statistics on the characteristics of the milk producers in the study. According to Table 1, the average age of the producers in the research area is 45,65 years; the average of their educational period is 7,44 years; the average of their dairy farming experience is 22,74 years; the average number of the individuals in their household is approximately 5 persons.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of milk producers' characteristics in the research area

Characteristics of Milk Producers	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Sample Size (N)
Age (Year)	45,65	11,44	18	70	N=96
Education (Year)	7,44	3,26	1	17	N=96
Experience of Milk Producers (Year)	22,74	12,67	2	50	N=96
Number of Person in Household (Person)	4,61	2,25	1	12	N=96

The distribution of the milk producers in terms of income groups indicates that the income of 40 % of the producers is 1.500 TL and below.

The Five-Point Likert Scale consisting of the statements on food security in milk was prepared and the estimations were provided to the milk producers. The consistency of the scale utilized for the estimations was tested by means of Reliability Analysis. In order that the scale is considered reliable, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient should be at least 0,60 (Kalaycı, 2010). In this regard, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 34 estimations in this study was found 0,721; which follows from that the scale is consistent.

Factor Analysis can be performed once the estimations in the study and the scale in relation to these estimations are determined to be reliable. Another indicator that Factor Analysis is practicable is Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value, which is required to be above 0,5 (Field, 2000). The KMO value of the estimations in this study were found 0,621. Therefore, Factor Analysis can be performed in this study.

After the implementation of Reliability Analysis and the determination of KMO values, the first phase of Factor Analysis is the determination of the numbers of factors. There are several methods and this study utilized the method of eigenvalue in the determination of the numbers of factors. Accordingly, it was found that the eigenvalues of 10 variables were above 1, as per the table of total explained variance in

relation to the estimations and that these variables explained 70,306 % of the total variance. In this regard, 34 estimations were grouped under 10 factors.

Table 2. Factor loads and distribution of variables about food security in milk

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The cleanliness of containers by which milk is transported	0.872	-0.025	0.175	-0.095	0.039	-0.137	0.042	0.083	0.004	0.059
Putting spoiled milk on market	-0.87	0.057	-0.042	0.091	-0.088	-0.064	0.072	-0.076	0.194	-0.047
The opinion that milk is of good quality	0.762	0.077	0.063	0.142	-0.083	0.153	0.216	-0.121	-0.122	-0.118
The use of yield-enhancing agent for milk	-0.49	0.221	-0.165	0.104	0.11	0.242	0.303	0.287	0.059	0.008
Ensuring the hygienic conditions for milking	0.43	-0.192	0.361	0.071	0.057	-0.113	-0.11	-0.35	0.295	0.338
The adequacy of state supports	-0.081	0.789	0.136	0.09	0.274	0.017	0.062	0.017	-0.079	-0.054
The opinion that the sale price of milk is reasonable	0.087	0.783	0.083	-0.002	-0.073	-0.054	0.021	0.343	0.053	-0.077
Obtaining profit in most instances	-0.041	0.764	0.032	-0.093	-0.077	0.179	0.033	-0.3	0.169	0.012
Having an adequate income to earn a living and to make production	-0.048	0.627	-0.039	-0.024	0.179	0.448	-0.001	-0.188	0.057	0.113
Milk production covering the expenses for milk	-0.131	0.551	-0.016	-0.216	0.102	0.405	0.278	-0.044	0.086	0.106
The daily purchase of milk on the market in a regular amount	0.056	-0.012	0.839	-0.01	-0.053	-0.09	-0.122	-0.087	-0.167	0.053
The daily supply/sale of milk on the market in a regular amount	-0.039	0.115	0.783	0.116	-0.06	0.183	0.143	-0.138	-0.167	-0.038
The opinion of maintaining milk production	0.166	0.217	0.565	0.144	0.053	0.096	0.155	0.138	0.11	-0.233
The ability to access a veterinarian at all times	0.342	-0.079	0.558	-0.108	-0.129	-0.229	0.151	-0.117	0.304	-0.003
Hygienic conditions for milk storage	0.333	0.06	0.553	0.3	0.027	-0.078	0.039	0.036	0.265	-0.149
Hygienic conditions for milk production	-0.031	-0.03	0.13	0.87	-0.064	0.042	-0.041	-0.13	0.176	0.013
Adequate inspection for milk production	-0.066	-0.086	0.082	0.85	0.235	-0.075	0.121	0.014	0.021	0.087
Regular inspection for animals	0.037	0.09	-0.049	0.057	0.879	0.068	0.008	-0.044	0.079	-0.055
Regular inspection for production environment	-0.005	0.126	-0.104	0.165	0.79	0.203	0.034	0.122	0.302	0.045
Finding feed prices reasonable	0.043	0.182	-0.001	-0.105	0.093	0.71	0.059	0.049	0.098	-0.095
The availability of all the required infrastructure facilities	0.015	0.136	0.123	0.37	0.037	0.582	0.243	-0.147	0.195	0.097
The milk production in an amount sufficient for everyone	0.228	-0.002	0.371	0.035	-0.091	-0.454	0.296	-0.004	0.262	-0.016
The milk production meeting the target set by the producer	-0.017	0.174	0.086	0.121	0.069	0.302	0.705	0.06	0.07	0.002
The ability of the producer to find high quality feeds at all times	0.35	-0.009	0.116	0.104	-0.179	-0.107	0.559	-0.362	0.009	-0.1
Using antibiotics only when necessary	0.046	-0.026	-0.086	0.2	-0.473	0.151	-0.55	0.179	0.113	-0.195
Acknowledging that feeds contain certain substances threatening human health	-0.006	-0.061	-0.102	-0.093	-0.005	-0.063	-0.103	0.804	-0.008	0.125
The availability of storage facilities for free of charge	-0.226	0.083	0.009	0.223	0.228	0.1	-0.114	0.2	0.684	0.042
Reasonable veterinary expenses	-0.19	0.152	-0.086	0.085	0.196	0.174	0.183	-0.247	0.632	-0.084
Unstable amounts of milk	0.073	0.116	-0.191	0.236	0.031	-0.121	-0.081	0.028	-0.088	0.773
Unstable prices of milk	-0.104	-0.16	0.029	-0.206	-0.042	0.236	0.26	0.319	0.1	0.619

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy=0,621, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1157,45 (p=0,000)

The next phase after the determination of the number of factors in the model should be the determination of the number of variables in each factor and the distribution of variables according to factors. To this end, the factor load of each variable was calculated. Factor loads indicate the load of variables in each factor. The values that constitute factor loads are simply a correlation coefficient and determine the

extent of correlation between variables and factors. A variable belongs to a factor with which the variable has the strongest correlation. Accordingly, the variables that form 10 factors obtained from the estimations provided to the milk producers in regard to food security were determined. Table 2 indicates the factor loads of variables and the distribution of the variables according to their factors.

The last phase of Factor Analysis is the nomenclature of the determined factors. Table 3 demonstrates the phase of the nomenclature of the factors obtained from the estimations in The Five-Point Likert Scale, which was prepared based on the milk producers. The name of the factor with the highest coefficient or the names collectively representing the factors may be taken into consideration in the nomenclature of factors in the factor analysis. In this regard, Table 3 indicates the nomenclature of the factors under the relevant variables in detail.

Table 3. Nomenclature of the factor groups about food security in milk

Variables	Name of Factors
The cleanliness of containers by which milk is transported Putting spoiled milk on market The opinion that milk is of good quality The use of yield-enhancing agent for milk Ensuring the hygienic conditions for milking	Factor of Conditions for Production
The adequacy of state supports The opinion that the sale price of milk is reasonable Obtaining profit in most instances Having an adequate income to earn a living and to make production Milk production covering the expenses for milk	Factor of Sustainable Production
The daily purchase of milk on the market in a regular amount The daily supply/sale of milk on the market in a regular amount The opinion of maintaining milk production The ability to access a veterinarian at all times Hygienic conditions for milk storage	Factor of Sustainable Marketing
Hygienic conditions for milk production Adequate inspection for milk production	Factor of Hygiene
Regular inspection for animals Regular inspection for production environment	Factor of Unskilled Inspection
Finding feed prices reasonable The availability of all the required infrastructure facilities The milk production in an amount sufficient for everyone	Factor of Raw Materials and Infrastructure
The milk production meeting the target set by the producer The ability of the producer to find high quality feeds at all times Using antibiotics only when necessary	Factor of Availability
Acknowledging that feeds contain certain substances threatening human health	Factor of Feed Safety
The availability of storage facilities for free of charge Reasonable veterinary expenses	Factor of Costs
Unstable amounts of milk Unstable prices of milk	Factor of Stability

Logistic Regression Analysis was performed in order to determine the variables that have an impact on ensuring food security in milk in relation to the producers in the research area. The model of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis was deemed appropriate since the outcome for the dependent variable is discrete and can have two options. 10 factors obtained by Factor Analysis were utilized as independent

variables within the Regression Model. Accordingly, Table 4 demonstrates the results of all of the variables in this model and in the Binary Logistic Regression model.

Table 4. Variables effective on the opinion of milk producer about ensuring food security in milk

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Odds Ratio
Coefficient	1,251	6,188	0,042	1	0,838	3,492
Factor of Conditions for Production	3,164	1,440	4,831	1	0,028**	0,042
Factor of Sustainable Production	0,110	0,722	0,023	1	0,879	0,896
Factor of Sustainable Marketing	2,293	1,078	4,524	1	0,033**	0,101
Factor of Hygiene	0,369	0,656	0,316	1	0,574	0,692
Factor of Unskilled Inspection	-1,806	1,031	3,067	1	0,080*	6,087
Factor of Raw Materials and Infrastructure	0,328	0,686	0,229	1	0,632	0,720
Factor of Availability	2,794	1,315	4,514	1	0,034**	0,061
Factor of Feed Safety	0,865	0,868	0,993	1	0,319	0,421
Factor of Costs	-1,722	0,933	3,411	1	0,065*	5,598
Factor of Stability	0,379	0,758	0,250	1	0,617	1,461
Province	-12,226	4,396	7,734	1	0,005***	0,000
Total Milk Production Value	-0,012	0,008	2,545	1	0,111	0,988
Experience in Dairy Farming	0,150	0,080	3,481	1	0,062*	1,161
Cultivation of Feed Crops	4,223	2,933	2,074	1	0,150	68,255
Rate of Feed Crops Production in the Enterprise	0,176	0,071	6,170	1	0,013**	1,192
Recordkeeping	4,134	2,322	3,171	1	0,075*	62,455
Level of the Off-Farm Income	-4,424	2,060	4,610	1	0,032**	0,012

*significant at the level 10 %, ** significant at the level 5 %, *** significant at the level 1 %

Cox&Snell $R^2=0,448$, Nagelkerke $R^2=0,754$, $X^2=57,021$ ($p=0,000$)

This study utilized Hosmer-Lemeshow test to determine whether the overall model where the relevant variables have an impact on the opinion of ensuring food security in milk by the milk producers is significant or not. The sigma value is required to be above 0,05 so that the model is deemed significant. The sigma value of this model is 0,194. In this regard, the Binary Logistic Regression model, which was based on the opinion of ensuring food security in milk by the milk producers is a significant and valid model.

The independent variables that have an impact on the opinion of ensuring food security in milk by the milk producers in the research area were found as factor of conditions for production, factor of sustainable marketing, factor of unskilled inspection, factor of availability, factor of costs, the variable of province, experience in dairy farming, the rate of feed crops production in the enterprise, recordkeeping by the producer, the off-farm income of the producer.

The potential improvements in the conditions of production and sustainable marketing increase the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured. The increase in the number of unskilled inspections decreases the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured. The increase in the costs decreases the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured.

The significance level of the variable of province was found 5 % and its coefficient sign was negative. As we move from the province of Balıkesir towards the province of Canakkale, which are the provinces covered in this study, the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured decreases compared to the likelihood that they acknowledge that food security in milk is not ensured.

The significance level of the variable of experience in dairy farming was found 10 %, and its coefficient sign was positive. When the experience in dairy farming increases by one year, the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured increases by 1,161 times.

The significance level of the rate of feed crops production in the enterprise was found 5 %, and its coefficient sign was positive. As the rate of feed crops production in the enterprise increases by one unit, the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured increases by 1,192 times.

The significance level of the variable of recordkeeping was found 10 %, and its coefficient sign was positive. As the activity of recordkeeping increases, the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured increases by 62,455 times.

The significance level of the off-farm income was found 5 %, and its coefficient sign was negative. When the off-farm income increases by one Turkish Lira, the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured decreases by 83,3 times. Therefore, engaging in non-agricultural activities weakens the belief that food security in milk is ensured.

4. Results

As a result of the Factor Analysis implemented by means of the data obtained by the face-to-face interviews with the milk producers in the research region, the estimations on food security in milk were grouped under the factor of conditions for production, the factor of sustainable production, the factor of sustainable marketing, the factor of hygiene, the factor of unskilled inspection, the factor of raw materials and infrastructure, the factor of availability, the factor of feed safety, factor of costs, the factor of stability.

Given the milk producers in the research area, the variables with a positive impact on the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured were the factor of conditions for production, the factor of sustainable marketing, the factor of availability, the experience in dairy farming, the rate of feed crops production in the enterprise, and the situation of recordkeeping. Any improvement in these variables would lead to an increase in the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured.

Given the milk producers in the research area, the variables with a negative impact on the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured were the factor of unskilled inspection, the factor of costs, the variable of province and the presence of off-farm income of the producer. Any increase in these variables would lead to a decrease in the likelihood that the producers acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured.

In order that the milk producers in the research area acknowledge that food security in milk is ensured, the variables with a positive coefficient must be increased whereas the variables with a negative coefficient must be decreased.

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Mission and Vision of the Organization and Their Relations with Corporate Social Responsibility

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Abstract: The functioning of modern business organizations in a dynamic environment, more than ever required to have a strictly defined missions, goals and objectives relevant to the business environment, and resource limitations which performance is through the strategies at different levels of management. This provoked scientific researches of the authors to be directed towards the study of the mission and vision of cross-border organizations, according to the challenges of the changes in business environment which are marked by globalization, economic crisis, uncertainty and risks threats.

Key words: management; mission and vision of the organization; corporate social responsibility.

JEL: A1, A2, L2, M00, M1, M2.

1. Introduction

Every organization is created with a purpose, which is a specific, conscious, expected results in terms of what, how and when to achieve the organization in fulfilling of its mission and vision. The most popular classification of purposes divides them to: strategic goals (they provide the existence, development and prosperity of the organization and have a long-lasting, effect consistent with organizational mission and vision), tactical goals (provide achievement of individual targets from relevant strategic goal) and operational goals (which provide specific current results and contribute to the achievement of the tactical goals).

The globalization of business force organizations to take into account not only national but also international interests. The universal approach to the formulation of objectives provides the principle of creation in accordance with the level of strategic decision-making, namely the placement of: 1) general corporate purposes, respectively strategies 2) business objectives and strategies, and 3) functional objectives and strategies that are targeted to different elements of the business. The general corporate purpose indicates the main direction of activity of the organization. Business objectives are aimed at improving the competitive position of goods and services, and functional objectives specify the actions of departments (production, marketing, finance, human resources, R & D). The corporate, business and functional strategies are prepared according to these objectives.

2. Material and Methods

Formulation of strategic objectives in the form of mission leads to informing the public about the purpose and direction of action of the organization and allows people who work in it to become involved with its values. The mission should reflect what distinguishes the organization from many other organizations operating in the business environment. It consists of general statements of intent, philosophy and objectives of the organization. The mission can be defined as a fundamental goal, which outlines the meaning of existence of the organization, identify the scope of its activities in respect of the products and the markets in which the organization operates. Mission is the reason of the existence of organization.

The mission should be short, within one to a maximum of two sentences highlighting the importance and the basic obligations of the organization. It should convey these intentions of the organization, which relates to the social impacts of its activities. It is necessary to invest only positive emotions and information, and in such a way as to cause willingness to act. It should be attractive to consumers, staff and competitors and must be oriented towards satisfying consumer needs.

Mission often is a combination of image of the organization and its credo. The image is directed to the external environment of the organization and is based on the current reputation of the business organization on the market, seeks to secure the outer world, and the credo is directed to the internal environment of the organization, and expresses its strategic orientation and the basic beliefs and organizational values that are reflected in the organizational culture.

Mission may contain the following elements: name and status of the organization; description of the goods and services offered by the organization; target audience; main features of the product; markets and market segments; real benefits to the consumer; competitiveness of the organization; used technologies and scientific achievements; organizational beliefs, values, rules, norms of behavior; image of the organization.

The mission of the organization must express: the meaning of existence of the organization, needs that satisfy and offered products; occupied competitive position and distinctive competencies of the organization; values, i.e. what people believe in the organization; standards and patterns of behavior that are characteristic of the organization and maintain its distinctive capabilities and competencies.

Below are examples for mission of various business companies.

Microsoft: At Microsoft, our mission is to enable people and businesses throughout the world to realize their full potential. We consider our mission statement a promise to our customers. We deliver on that promise by striving to create technology that is accessible to everyone-regardless of age or ability. Microsoft's mission is to enable people and businesses throughout the world to realize their full potential. [1]

Facebook: Founded in 2004, Facebook's mission is to give people the power to share and make the world more open and connected. People use Facebook to stay connected with friends and family, to discover what is going on in the world, and to share and express what matters to them. [2]

Google: Since the beginning, we have focused on providing the best user experience possible. Whether we are designing a new Internet browser or a new tweak to the look of the homepage, we take great care to ensure that they will ultimately serve you, rather than our own internal goal or bottom line. [3]

Dell: "Our mission is to be the most successful IT systems company in the world by delivering the best customer experience in all markets we serve. In doing so, Dell will meet customer expectations of: highest quality leading technology competitive pricing individual and company accountability best-in-class service and support flexible customization capability superior corporate citizenship "[4]

While the mission declared the main goal of the organization vision outlines what the organization wants to be. Effective vision presents a clear and accurate picture of the future, reflecting the realistic aspirations of the organization, it is memorable and translated in accordance with organizational values and culture. The vision is a strategic vision of the desired future state of the organization. Mission and vision are sensitive to changes in the environment, resulting in a certain time and can be redesigned to improve. [5]

The vision of the organization is a figurative representation of the meaning and prospects of the organization, which explains and shows to all employees and public what the organization should be.

Microsoft: "Our vision is to create innovative technology that is accessible to everyone and that adapts to each person's needs. Accessible technology eliminates barriers for people with disabilities and it enables individuals to take full advantage of their capabilities." [6] Bill Gates, Chairman, Microsoft Corporation.

Facebook: "People use Facebook to stay connected with friends and family, to discover what's going on in the world, and to share and express what matters to them." [7]

Nestlé: Each day we strive to make our products tastier and healthier choices that help consumers care for themselves and their families. This would not be possible without our unmatched R & D capability, nutrition science and passion for quality in everything we do. [8]

McDonald: "To be our customers' favorite place and way to eat and drink." [9]

Disney Company: To be a top 10 brand within every market we operate in across Europe, Middle East and Africa delivering one vision and one voice to consumers and customers. [10]

Objectives, mission and vision of the organization should be in synchronization with the established organizational culture. The organizational culture outlines the organizational boundaries, keep its history, and presents its genetic code. Organizational culture builds and maintains the necessary distribution and balance of power and influence between the posts, informal roles and their contractors. It integrates individuals, socializes them and gives opportunity to meet their need for communication, sharing of knowledge, experience, forms a sense of identity, educates and motivates staff and increases a stability of a system.

For the first time the concept of "organizational culture" used Andrew Pettigrew in 1976. [11]

Formation of organizational culture is a consequence of the creation of a universal, national and individual culture. The region of its creation, gender, race, religion, ethnicity, environmental factors and others have an impact on them.

Organizational culture is defined as a set of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way of interaction between them. [12]

Overall, the perception of the essence of the organizational culture promotes understanding that culture: is shared by all or most members of a social group; is passed from older members of the group to younger members; consists morals, laws, customs, forming behavior or structure of the worldview of individuals. [13]

Through a functioning system of values, norms and rules, the leaders involve their associates and employees to desirable behavior patterns, and require the compliance with the appropriate behavior. In many organizations is created internal regulations in this area, which includes regulations, codes of conduct and standards for organizational culture. By internal regulations may be specified the requirements for the due behavior of staff in relation to certain areas of concern.

3. Result and Discussion

Back in 1776, Adam Smith stated that the business was required to report to the public. Regardless of its nature - setting in order to generate profits with minimum inputs, it is bound to be ethical at least two reasons: first, because whatever its field of activity involves various stakeholders and secondly because there is the possibility to choose the form of behavior (moral or otherwise) and need to be responsible for its selection.

CSR is a term characterized the ethical rights and obligations existing between companies and society. The main aspects of it are moral relationship between the company and its shareholders, ethical problems among companies, ethical problems between companies and society (such as hostile takeovers, industrial espionage, abuse of corporate policies, etc.). Social responsibility is such behavior, which is a reaction to the prevailing social norms in society, activities and expected results. It represents the assumption of public duties by the organization beyond the requirements of the law, thus goes beyond it.

Interested in socially responsible actions of organizations are different internal and external groups. Some beneficiaries are staff, executives, shareholders, and owners. As examples of interested external parties can be given: society, governmental and non-governmental sector, the market as an economic category with the economic entities operating in it.

The strategy for corporate social responsibility of the organization may include items such as: Ownership rights over the material, financial and intangible resources, such as ideas, thoughts, information, and innovation; Ethics of financial management, incl.: ban on the use of double-entry bookkeeping and misleading financial analysis, ban on insider information, securities fraud, currency fraud, prohibition of various corrupt practices, etc.; Ethics of human resources management incl.: prohibition of discrimination based on age, sex, race, religion, physical and mental performance, weight and attractiveness; ban on the application of mental and physical harassment, privacy the employee; safety and healthy working

conditions; ethics in the appointment and dismissal of employees; fair treatment and fair wages of the workforce and others; Ethics of marketing, including requirements for transparency of the source of labor, environmental risks, transparency regarding the ingredients used in the products, appropriate labeling, truthfulness and authenticity of promotional offers and other; Ethics of production incl.: the company's commitment to ensure that the products and services that are produced and production processes that apply do not harm the environment and the consumer; International business ethics, incl.: search of universal values, combining the value systems of individual nations and communities; international business conduct; comparing of business traditions in relation to ethics and social responsibility in various countries, nations, religions; review and attempt to resolve the ethical problems arising from international transactions, globalization of the economy, cultural exchanges between countries, the implementation of global standards and others.

Google - Our culture: Really, the people make Google the kind of company it is. We hire people who are smart and determined, and we favor ability over experience. Although Googlers share common goals and visions for the company, and speak dozens of languages, reflecting the global audience that we serve. In addition, when not at work, Googlers pursue interests ranging from cycling to beekeeping, from frisbee to foxtrot. We strive to maintain the open culture often associated with startups, in which everyone is a hands-on contributor and feels comfortable sharing ideas and opinions. In our weekly all-hands meetings - not to mention over email or in the cafe - Googlers ask questions directly to Larry, Sergey and other execs about any number of company issues. Our offices and cafes are designed to encourage interactions between Googlers within and across teams, and to spark conversation about work as well as play. [14]

Microsoft 's Accessibility: Microsoft recognizes and values the capabilities and contributions of all people-including those with disabilities. We are a more successful company because of our efforts to recruit and employ top quality people including those who happen to have disabilities. Moreover, we recognize that our employees with disabilities make an added contribution by helping us reach a broader market for our products. Microsoft understands that accommodating and enabling employees to perform the necessary functions of their jobs ultimately enhances our ability to develop great products and services for everyone. Microsoft provides ergonomic hardware and assistive technology consultation so employees can be productive, comfortable, and injury-free at work. At Microsoft, accessibility is a business practice. Accessibility is part of Microsoft's Trustworthy Computing efforts, which focus on integrity and responsibility in our business practices. Microsoft recognizes that trust in computer technology is directly related to trust in the technology industry. [15]

Business and Ethics Standards: The Walt Disney Company incorporates best-in-class business standards as a key pillar of its business practices.

Compliance training, including training regarding the Company's Standards of Business Conduct and ethics, is provided to employees and Cast Members worldwide through the Company's learning management system known as Disney Development Connection. It is the Company's intent, through its compliance training, to ensure that all of its employees and Cast Members have the knowledge and training to act ethically and legally, in compliance with the Company's Standards of Business Conduct.

It is the policy of The Walt Disney Company to provide equal opportunity for all employees and applicants for employment without regard to race, religion, color, sex, sexual orientation, gender identity, national origin, age, marital status, covered veteran status, mental or physical disability, pregnancy, or any other basis prohibited by state or federal law. This policy extends, but is not limited, to recruitment and employment, promotion, demotion, transfer, layoff, termination, rate of pay and other forms of compensation, education, and training. [16]

Disney - Our Commitment to the Community: We are dedicated to delivering quality products and services and cooperating with community leader s and members throughout the world to benefit local communities.

We are committed to the protection of the environment and the conservation of natural resources. [17]

4. Conclusion

Typical business objectives of organizations are realizing higher profits, increasing market share and cash flow. However, more and more of businesses focus on areas such as contributions to the community and support to reduce the negative impacts on the environment. In recent years, there has been growing interest of organizations, their customers, employees and partners to corporate social responsibility. It focuses on the role of business as part of society and include: minimizing the adverse impact of the organizational activities on the environment; providing good quality of working life of the employees; providing balance between personal life and professional development; investment in the development of local communities; supporting disadvantaged groups and others.

Many companies have formulated internal policies pertaining to the conduct of its employees as a part of more comprehensive programs to ensure practice of business ethics. These policies can vary from corporate ethics statement to corporate codes of conduct requiring specific behavior.

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Rural Food Tourism

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Abstract: This article aims to present opportunities for integrated tourist product in rural areas of Bulgaria with an emphasis on traditional Bulgarian dishes. Tradition in culinary production is the primary prerequisite for the development of rural tourism and its derivatives. Regional gastronomy as a tourism resource is a key element in rural tourism performance and can be used as a tool for the development of tourism in the area. The main drivers for rural food tourism are discussed. The PESTLE analysis is used to assess the external factors in relation to rural food tourism situation in Bulgaria. It also helps to identify SWOT factors and give lastly conclusions and recommendations.

Key words: rural tourism, food tourism, rural development

1. Introduction

The tourism system is dynamic and its interdisciplinary nature requires its continuous research and analysis. The beginning of the new century was marked by changes in supply and demand in the tourism industry. The contemporary phase of tourism development is characterized by a steady increase in tourist travel and the amount of time devoted to recreation and tourism. Factors influencing this process are manifold: increased prosperity in society, increased leisure time, fragmentation of annual holidays, new ways of communication, urbanization and growing population, many aspects of "social life" and personal motivation to take a trip, etc. Until now tourism has been principally driven by just one of the senses - sight- at the expense of the other senses. Tourists are now beginning to react against this strong sensual bias by demanding holidays that stimulate the other senses (Guzman, Canizares, 2012). Further important trend that affects tourism demand is improving the food culture of consumers who are looking for opportunities to improve their lifestyle and health status. This encourages a higher interest in healthy eating habits and leads to greater consumption of healthy foods. Bulgarian cuisine is exceptionally diverse and delicious, consisting of various salads, breadstuffs, stews, and other local dishes. Many of the dishes are prepared according to traditional recipes handed down from generation to generation over the centuries (Tourism portal of Bulgaria). Traditional dishes indicate a direct connection with nature, culture, religion and lifestyle of local communities. In its very essence regional gastronomy is a resource for the development of rural tourism, diversifies the landscape and generates huge differences in the productive base. Promotion of local and regional production reserves culinary heritage and guarantees fair remuneration for producers. According to a study made by the Agency for Regional Development of Rila 84% of tourists in rural areas, who bought souvenirs, preferred food and drinks to take home. In the strategic plan for the development of cultural tourism of Bulgaria tourist position of the country following strategic actions undertaken in recent years must rely on four competitive factors - history, art and culture, traditions and eno-gastronomy - valorising its most powerful features. The development of rural areas in Bulgaria is the key issue in many legislative and strategic documents and priorities are set to enhance attractiveness and strengthen development. The opportunities which are provided by agriculture, food industry and tourism make them the sectors with greatest significance in the processes of overcoming rural depopulation through sustainable economic and social development (goods and services according to end-users demand in conditions of sustainable use of resources) (Arabska, et al., 2014).

Growing market

Gastronomy plays a significant role in representing the culture and lifestyle of specific area and reflects new trends in tourism related to authenticity, sustainability, healthy lifestyle and revival of traditions. According to Global report on food tourism (UNWTO, 2012) this leading role of gastronomy in the choice of destination and tourism consumption has resulted in the growth of gastronomic offerings based on high-quality local products and the consolidation of a separate market for food tourism. As identity marker

of a region and/or as a means of promoting farm products, gastronomy meets the specific needs of consumers, local producers and other actors in rural tourism (Bessiere, 1998). On this basis the food tourism is a rapidly growing sector and rural areas can use it as a tool of economic diversification.

In the current global environment the relationship between food and tourism therefore represents a significant opportunity product development as well as a means to rural diversification (Hall, et. al., 2004).

Tourists of the rural food tourism seeking an authenticity of the visited place through the food they consume there. They recognize the value of gastronomy as a means of socializing, as a space for sharing life with others, for exchanging experiences (Global report on food tourism). Even in the daily life, variety and change are necessary complements to the routines and habits. Thus, in tourism, itself a form of change from the daily routine, quest for various foods is one of appealing experiences (Quan, Wang, 2004). The conversion of the territory into a culinary landscape is one of the challenges of tourism destinations (UNWTO, 2012). Destination product portfolios consist of a variety of tangible and intangible goods and services. Food (including beverage) can form one of the most important of these elements (Okumus et al., 2007). It is important to identify existing natural and heritage resource that will become an asset for tourism. Heritage valorization represents not only a fashionable trend but also social, economic and political determination. Indeed, if local authorities are experiencing an identity crisis and are discovering a new-found interest for their own gastronomy, heritage promotion may turn out to be profitable. As tourists come into their area, they buy local products or eat in restaurants or on farms, thus representing a sizeable source of income for local communities (Bessiere, 1998). Sims (2010) stated that local food can have an important role to play in sustainable tourism as a result of its ability to satisfy a complex range of demands – from producer concerns about the importance of reducing food miles and promoting animal welfare to tourists' demands for iconic products that appear to say something about a region's place and culture.

Hall et al. (2003) described the relationship between food and tourism for the purpose of place competitiveness in the following scheme.

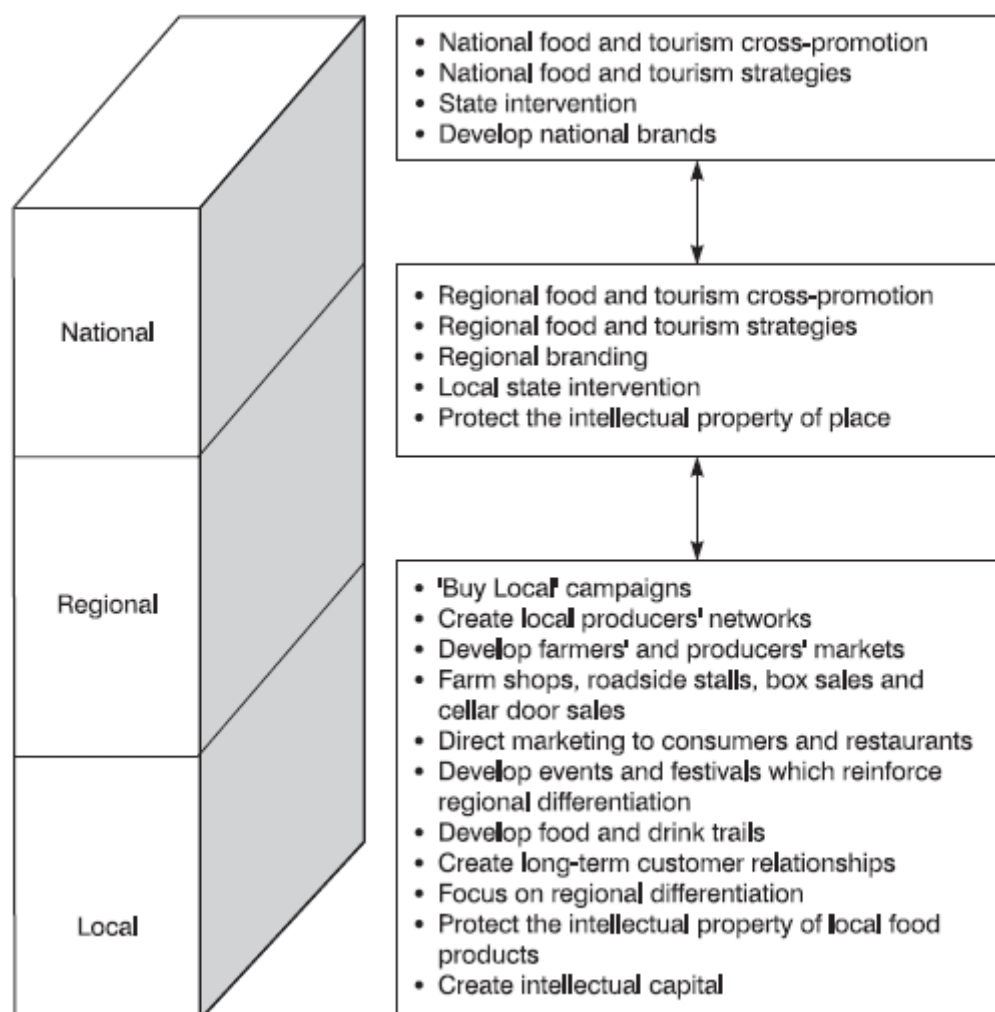


Figure 1 Relationship between national, regional and local food, tourism and regional development (source: Hall, et.al. 2003, p.58)

Rural tourism and food tourism – possible interaction

Rural tourism is the best way to explore the traditions in Bulgaria. By staying in a farmhouse tourists can experience the traditional lifestyle and culture. The food adds value to the tourism product offerings in rural areas. Levkov (2013), in his book "Alternative types of tourism", summarizes Bulgarian authors' discussions on rural tourism, as follows: M. Stankova defines it as "a set of activities developed in the countryside and offering an alternative to the dynamic and strenuous rhythm of life in cities. It covers the transit journey through rural areas by car, bicycle, horse, stay in the house, and conducting certain research activities in connection with a hobby or profession". President of The Bulgarian Association for Rural and Ecological Tourism (BARET) P. Petrov offers the following definition of "tourism in sparsely urbanized environment, including accommodation in a farmhouse, introduction to rural life through direct participation in various agricultural and craft activities and familiarization with the rural cultural, historical and natural heritage. Analysing the specifics and development of rural tourism in Europe and in Bulgaria, Statev defines rural tourism as "tourism activities in the rural area where the main tourist services and typical rural additional tourism services have to be offered as a complementary activity of farmers". He points out one very important feature of the classic rural tourism - rural tourism occurs when tourists are welcomed in a village house and they use the services of a host (accommodation, home prepared food, homemade dishes), various additional services provided in rural environment and associated with the use of special farmhouses and other type of accommodation. Aleksieva and Stamov define rural tourism as

"tourism in rural areas, which meet the interests of tourists to the traditions, customs, culture, agricultural and other specific activities as well as natural, historic and cultural resources of the region in peaceful and informal human relationships".

Often the differences in approaches and definitions of rural tourism is large due to the fact that the rural environment can be a place to practice of other types and forms of alternative tourism such as ecological, cultural, culinary (food) etc. This shows that the boundary between rural and other types of tourism carried out in rural areas, do not almost exist.

A key prerequisite for the development of rural tourism is the authentic character of the products. Therefore rural and food tourism have their basis for networking.

In the concept for tourism zoning of Bulgaria (2015) in order to accurately distinguish the types of tourism and the use of a single terminology, based on officially accepted and globally market-imposed definitions, a classification of the main types of tourism and their subtypes is designed and adapted to the Bulgarian market specifics. The rural tourism is divided into etno, eco and agro tourism. Eco-rural tourism is defined as a travel to rural areas with the main objective: a stay in clean environment, consumption of green products, communication with nature and local communities. The culinary (food) tourism is defined as travel outside the permanent residence, which primary goal is tasting food and drinks typical for a particular destination. The concept defines as well as gourmet tourism - kind of culinary tourism, with a requirement for exclusiveness in the quality and uniqueness of the food and beverages. A particular geographic location of Bulgaria, the wealth of natural and cultural resources and preserved food traditions favour the gourmet tourism development, especially in rural areas, where it can be combined with other alternative forms of tourism (Grigorova et al., 2015).

Food tourism may be defined as visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific location for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production region are the primary motivating factor for travel (Hall et.al., 2003) It attracts many national as well foreign foodies who seeks new food experience. The relation between different types of tourism where food has different positions – from main factor for choosing destination (gourmet tourism) to basic service together with accommodation (rural tourism) can be found. When food is a main factor for destination choice the food tourism may possibly be regarded as an example of culinary, gastronomic, gourmet or cuisine tourism that reflects consumers for whom interest in food and wine is a form of "serious leisure" (Hall et.al., 2003). The range between "high interest" and "low/no interest" describes tourist primary motive for travelling: from all tourist activities that are food related to "just a stop to eat". Food tourism can be described once as a part of rural tourism when traditional food and regional specialties are offered to tourist, and as a part of cultural tourism when tourists discover the destination through food, wine and cultural heritage.

According to the survey of foreign tourists in Bulgaria, made within a project of the Ministry of Tourism, 72% of the respondents indicated that good food is a factor in selecting a destination. This is the most recognizable feature of Bulgaria according to the tourists. Food / beverages are placed third after nature and slopes in assessing the satisfaction of tourists' stay, giving them an assessment at 4.49 from maximum 5. Food / drinks are in second place as a factor influencing satisfaction of tourists (coefficient 0, 47 after accommodation, which has 0.5). Culinary and wine tourism practice - respectively 11.7% and 6.6% of the tourists and other 15% declared that they want to try food tourism and over 18% - wine tourism.

2. Materials and Methods

The fundamental of this study is to analyze the potential for rural food tourism development in Bulgaria. The increasing trend of market demand has to be well understood and used by the tourism actors in rural areas to evaluate the potential of rural food tourism and to improve their performance. The focus is on analysis of the environment, which may influence the development of this type of tourism in Bulgaria. Some statistical data made by official state bodies in Bulgaria are presented in order to support the statement that Bulgarian cuisine is recognizable by tourist, especially in rural areas where it has long traditions. Regional gastronomy as a tourism resource is a key element in rural tourism performance and

can be used as a tool for the development of tourism in the area. This study is important insofar as regional gastronomy is underutilized as a tool for regional development. The food is considered a natural complement to the tourist service in rural areas often overlooked by locals as a resource with potential for development of a regional brand. Growing trend in food tourism demand globally requires analysis of the factors that would influence its development in Bulgaria. Our country has potential, but has so far failed to capitalize on profitable both for tourists and for the local community. The PESTLE analysis is used to assess the external factors in relation to rural food tourism situation in Bulgaria. It also helps to identify SWOT factors and give lastly conclusions and recommendations.

3. Results and Discussion

The increased demand for rural tourism with an emphasis on traditional foods is a result of many factors, but most common are demographics and household changes; increased requirements to food quality, including health and wellness aspects; revaluation of the food as cultural heritage of destinations; sustainability awareness etc. An ageing population and changes in life styles reinforce the food tourism opportunities. Gastronomy allows tourists to access the cultural and historical heritage of destinations through tasting, experiencing and purchasing (UNWTO, 2012). Travelers want to experience authentic dishes and they look for local food experience.

Common Agricultural Policy of the European Union also includes rural tourism as a way for sustainable rural development, and in particular Bulgaria has the prerequisites for development this type of tourism. Food production in rural areas in Bulgaria is mainly associated with ecological and organic production. Emerging consumer demand for rural tourism product, however, lacks actors of offering this tourism product, unpreparedness of local stakeholders to restructure their activities, especially the farms, and personnel crisis at both levels operating staff and management.

In order to emphasize the opportunities and to highlight weaknesses in the development of rural tourism in Bulgaria with an emphasis on traditional Bulgarian foods PESTLE analysis is used. PEST(LE) analysis takes into account key aspects of the external environment: political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental, whose analysis is based on the identification of changes in this environment and how they affect an organization or business. The analysis of the external environment is necessary and regular activity for any business throughout its successful existence. Results allow the definition of strategic perspectives in two main directions: opportunities for development and future threats, unforeseen at current stage. Among the main drivers of change in an industry could be: changes in user demand; the emergence of new products and new technologies; changes in legislation and public policy; changes in values, lifestyles, etc.

4. Conclusion

Rural tourism in Bulgaria is a promising sector of the tourism industry, but still remains directly dependent on socio-economic development of rural areas. Many of the rural areas (which are 81% of the country territory) define tourism as a priority for development. However there is a lack of assessment of the potential for sector development, both in terms of statistics of resources, accommodation facilities and tourists flow and funding resources and investments. The bad condition of social, technical and road infrastructure in rural areas also hinders the development of tourism. A small part of farmers perceive rural tourism as a way of diversifying their activities and opportunity for additional income.

At the same time one of the main obstacles to the development of food tourism, in particular in rural areas, is the lack of a culinary zoning. The presence of culinary map and national calendar of culinary holidays in Bulgaria would oriented, on the one hand, the tourists what specialties and products are characteristic of a given area, and another - would facilitated tour operators in the creation and supply of specialized products in the food tourism.

Levels	Potential	Obstacles
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Bulgarian agricultural, tourism and food production policies (Rural Development programme 2014-2020; Tourism Law; Tourism zoning; different regulations and strategies). ➤ the important role that national and local authorities can play in supporting local food supply chains, with consequent benefits for local economies and communities. ➤ protected geographical products stimulate the rural economy and keep people in the area, as it should only be produced there, according to EU regulations. Goods can apply for funding from EU. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ weak regional policy. ➤ unsatisfactory results of Leader and LAGs from the previous programming period. ➤ lack of experience in intersectoral collaboration.
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ new demand in the local economy, generating local jobs and incomes. ➤ short supply chains of local markets, proven to increase incomes, give more autonomy to farmers and strengthen local economies through more support for small businesses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ depopulation of rural land abandonment, seizing land for non-agricultural needs and aging population in the villages are different faces of weak national economies. ➤ low wages and only seasonal employment. ➤ economic development via tourism in many rural areas and its promotion is synonymous with small-business promotion and the industry is heavily characterized by small, family-centered enterprises (Fleischer A., Felsenstein D., 2000) ➤ globalization of the food market.
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ rich culinary heritage of a given geographical area or community. ➤ social cohesion and craft support. ➤ food shared (festivals, fairs, celebrations, gastronomic itineraries, museums, traditional restaurants etc.). ➤ local brand identity. ➤ network, clusters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ the observed population decline in rural areas leads to loss of social contacts and cultural identity. ➤ disconnecting traditions. ➤ Traditional production in the country for the most part is not subject to marketing, mainly closed in families, and manufacturers do not act as business entities.
Technological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ an emerging tech trend requires advertising and marketing of rural and food tourism in tourism portals, blogs, social media etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ poor communication network.
Legal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ legalization of homemade food retail (EU Regulation, 2010; Food Law; Tourism Law; etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ lack of a legal framework for artisanal food. ➤ formal and mechanical adaptation of national legislation to the European framework, disregarding the need to preserve craft industries as part of national identity.
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ reduce carbon emissions from food distribution. ➤ sustainable tourism involves the preservation and enhancement of cultural and natural heritage - from the arts to local cuisine, or the preservation of biodiversity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ sanitary requirements for making homemade food; product traceability; ➤ small number foods with protected geographical names; ➤ local and regional policy for agri-environment and climate.

Food tourism is directly linked to the production of authentic products locally, with agriculture and livestock, which are essential prerequisites for the development of culinary regions. Wine tours have been relatively recently popular, due to the large investment in winemaking and advertising of Bulgaria as a destination for wine tourism. A large part of the cellars built tasting rooms and regularly organize events to promote the wine production. Eg. 8 wineries in the region of Plovdiv and a wine bar united in developing a wine route, creating the first joint general wine card in the country. In the spring of 2016 the city will host the very prestigious festival "Concours Mondial de Bruxelles". The competition will bring together more than 300 sommeliers from 5 continents. The combination of a food and wine tourism can certainly contribute to the development of Bulgaria as a tourist destination.

Promoting local producers and local handicrafts and regional initiatives for direct supplies from manufacturers to the tourism enterprises is the right way to overcome the problems with the supply of local products, improve communication between suppliers and consumers and strengthen regional economic cooperation. Food tourism in rural areas also needs proper advertising strategy, as along with representation of the authentic cuisine of different tourist regions of Bulgaria on national and international tourism forums, can be used and the mechanism of so called "food shared" – festivals, fairs, celebrations, gastronomic itineraries, food museums, traditional restaurants, etc. Fundamentally, in the field of marketing and promotion the importance presented by gastronomy is based on a strategy to build the image and the brand of the destinations. Key factors in this matter are: development of high-quality and credible promotional tools-such as gastronomic guides-the organization of events, the media and use of the Internet and social networks (Gheorghe et al., 2014).

The paper contributed to the statement that rural tourism with an emphasis on locally produced food can contribute to the development of rural areas and integrated approach to sustainable development through it will bring economic, social and environmental benefits. Priorities for sustainable and balanced development of the regions require a reassessment of resources in terms of sustainable development of agriculture, food industry and tourism as sectors that could not be developed separately.

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Best-Worst Analysis of Fish Purchase Behavior in Tekirdag

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Abstract: Although, Turkey has rich fishery resources, per capita fish consumption is lower than the EU and World. There are differences in the amount of fish consumption among the regions of Turkey. Average fish consumption of world, EU and Turkey are 18.93, 22.86 and 6,3 kg/capita respectively.

The aim of this study is to determine the factors effecting fish consumption habit of consumers in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district, evaluation of these factors according to importance levels of them and determining the average fish consumption. Conducting polls on 270 selected consumers from 48000 households in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa county with random sampling method, fish consumption habits and factors which are affecting them, are analyzed with best worst analysis in this study.

According to findings of this study, annual fish consumption per capita is determined as 14.69 kg in Tekirdağ. It is found that most important reason for 72.35% of fish consumers who participated in the research is the healthiness of fish, besides 33.33% of participants who do not consume fish suggest that it is difficult to prepare and eat fish. According to BW scores major reason for the fish consumption is healthiness of fish meat, but worst reason for fish consumption is difficulties about prepare to cook. Brand is the main choice criterion on frozen fish products but in generally, fish purchase criterion is the appropriate fish regarding season. Consumers were understand to freshness of fish with respect to outlook of fish.

Keywords: fish consumption, habit, purchase preferences, best worst analysis

Introduction

Increasing world population in recent years has led to the lack of animal protein source has an important role in human nutrition. Primary source to cover animal protein absence in the best level and in a cheap way is fishery products, especially fish. Fishery products consumption depends on several factors such as economic factors, product presentation and aquatic product consumption habit.

Fishery products are consumed in different amounts and different forms according to the regions. The most important reason for this situation is cultural differences and different consumptions habits between regions.

Seafood, especially fish is an important source of protein in many diets around the world. Despite the benefits on the health, fish consumption is not at the desired level in Turkey yet. In terms of consumption, there is an increasing tendency to white meat, especially fish. This tendency affects positively world global fishery trade.

Turkey which has rich fishery resources, fish consumption is lower than the EU and World averages. Average fish consumption of World, EU and Turkey are 18,93, 22,86 and 6,3 kg/capita respectively (FAO, 2015). It's a fact that increasing the fish consumption will be positive impact on future generations.

In this study, a survey was conducted with consumers in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district. Best – worst analysis applied to determine the criteria which they find least/most important and which they care least/most.

Materials And Methods

In this study, data obtained from consumers living in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district were used as the primary data.

According to the sampling formula calculated from a limited population, 270 different households selected randomly and survey was conducted face to face. (90% confidence interval, 5% error margin and $p=q=0,5$ has been taken to reach maximum sample size)

In Best-Worst Analysis, survey respondents are shown a subset of items from a master list and are asked to indicate the best and worst items (or most and least important, or most and least appealing, etc.). Best Worst Analysis estimates how much a consumer prefers item A over item B is provided by how often item A is chosen over item B in repeated choices. Thus, choice frequencies estimate the utilities on the relevant scale.

In this study, the best and the worst (BW) scores were calculated for each property by considering the responses of consumers. The most important (B) and least important (W) selection numbers were counted for each feature and calculated the best – the worst (B-W) scores. The average B-W score was calculated by dividing B-W score by the number of consumers who answered the question. Average B-W score shows that the feature how many times chosen the most important or the least important.

Results

Survey was conducted among 270 consumers in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district. Survey findings indicate that 43,70% of consumers are women and 56,30% men. The ages of consumers are; 10,37% between 18 and 25, 58,89% between 26 and 40, 26,67% is between 41 and 55 and 4,07% is bigger than 55 years old. 64,07% of consumers are married while 35,93% are single. Consumers' education level percentages of postgraduate, undergraduate, associate degree, high school and elementary school are 21,11%, 41,85%, 8,52%, 21,11% and 7,41% respectively. Sixty percent of consumers work in public sector and 16,30% in private sector 7,04% are worker, 4,81% are student and 7,77% are unemployed. The average household income percentages of the participants are 34% between 2001 and 3500 TL, 27% between 3501 and 5000, 22% between 5001 and 8000 and 13% between 1000 and 2000 TL.

Four questions asked to the participants for best worst analysis. These are reasons of fish consumption, preferences for buying frozen fish product, preferences for determining the freshness of fish and preferences while buying fish. Questions that asked to the consumers and consumers' answers to the questions are organized and shown in the following tables.

Table 1. Average BW Scores Calculation for Reasons of Fish Consumption (n=258)

Reasons of Fish Consumption	The Most Important (B)	The Least Important (W)	Not Prefer	B-W	Average B-W
Healthiness of fish	185	2	71	183	0,709
Taste of fish	58	3	197	55	0,213
Easiness of procure	2	32	224	-30	-0,116
Reasonable price	1	51	206	-50	-0,194
Consumption habits from family	11	63	184	-52	-0,202
Easiness of preparation and cooking	1	107	150	-106	-0,411

According to Table 1, the healthiness of fish has the highest average BW score with 0,709. The taste of fish is in the second place with 0,213 BW score. The lowest BW score from the fish consumption reasons is easiness of cooking and preparation with -0,411 BW score.

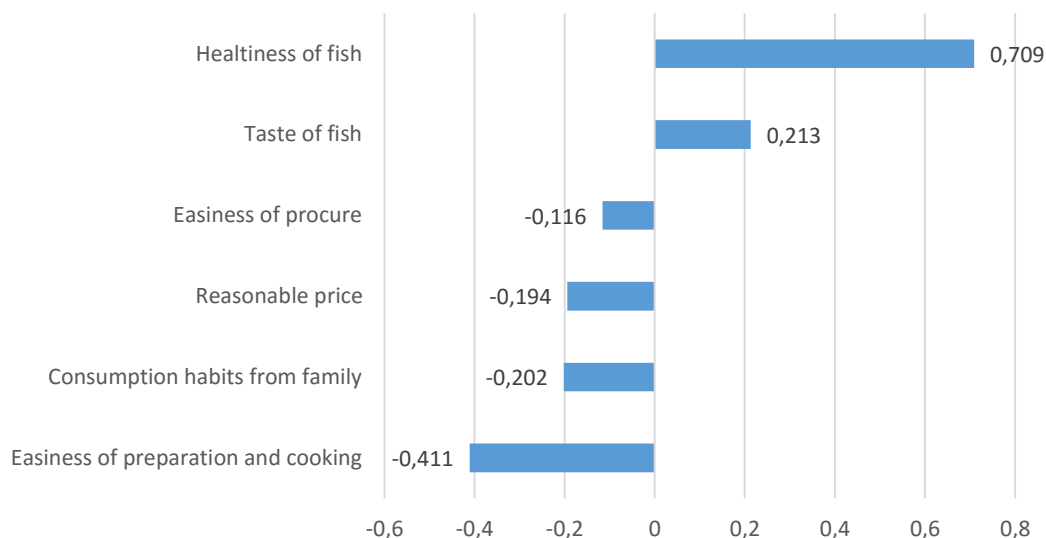


Figure 1. Average BW Scores for Reasons of Fish Consumption

Table 2 shows the results of 151 participants from 270 which are answered the question about the preferences while buying frozen fish product.

Table 2. Average BW Scores Calculation for preferences Considering When Buying Frozen Fish Product (n=151)

Preferences	The Most Important (B)	The Least Important (W)	Not Prefer	B-W	Average B-W
Brand	82	6	63	76	0,503
Market	23	16	112	7	0,046
Expiration date	6	1	144	5	0,033
Package	17	17	117	0	0
Price	22	23	106	-1	-0,007
Advertisement	1	88	62	-87	-0,576

According to Table 2, brand of the product has the highest average BW score with 0,503. The market is in the second place with 0,046 and expiration date is in the third place with 0,033 BW score. The lowest average BW score is belong to advertisement with -0,576. Other BW scores are shown in the Figure 2.

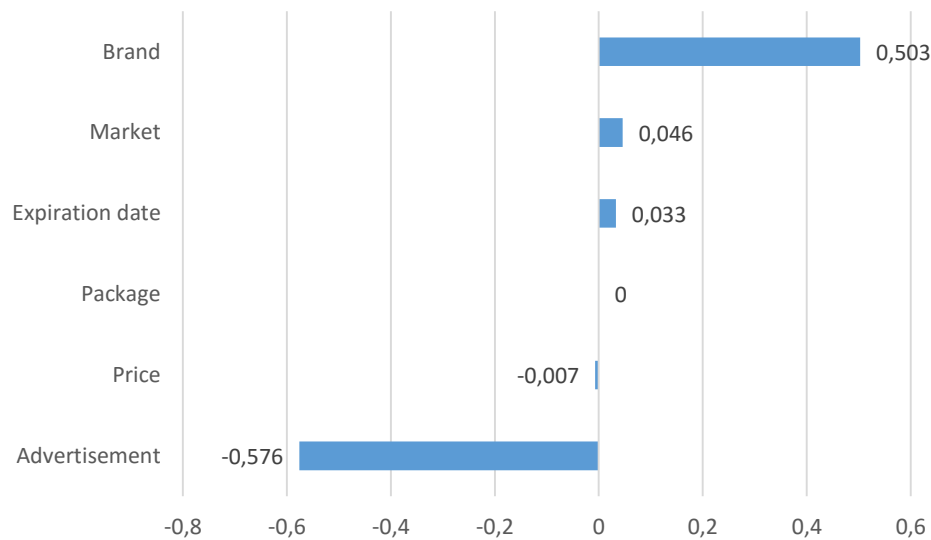


Figure 2. Average BW Scores Calculation for Features Considering When Buying Frozen Fish Product

Table 1

Table 3 shows the results of 256 participants from 270 which are answered the question about the properties while buying fresh fish.

Table 3. Average BW Scores Calculation for properties Considering When Buying Fresh Fish (n=256)

Preferences	The Most Important (B)	The Least Important (W)	Not Prefer	B-W	Average B-W
Season fish	177	6	73	171	0,668
Taste / palate	57	6	193	51	0,199
Price	9	17	230	-8	-0,031
Habit	2	24	230	-22	-0,086
Appearance	2	25	229	-23	-0,090
Production method	2	35	219	-33	-0,129
Cooking method	2	38	216	-36	-0,141
Fishbone	5	105	146	-100	-0,391

According to consumers' fresh fish buying preferences, the most important preference is to be appropriate fish for season with 0,668 BW score. Taste/palate is in the second place with 0,199 BW score. The lowest average BW score is belong to fishbone with -0,391. Other BW scores are shown in the Figure 3.

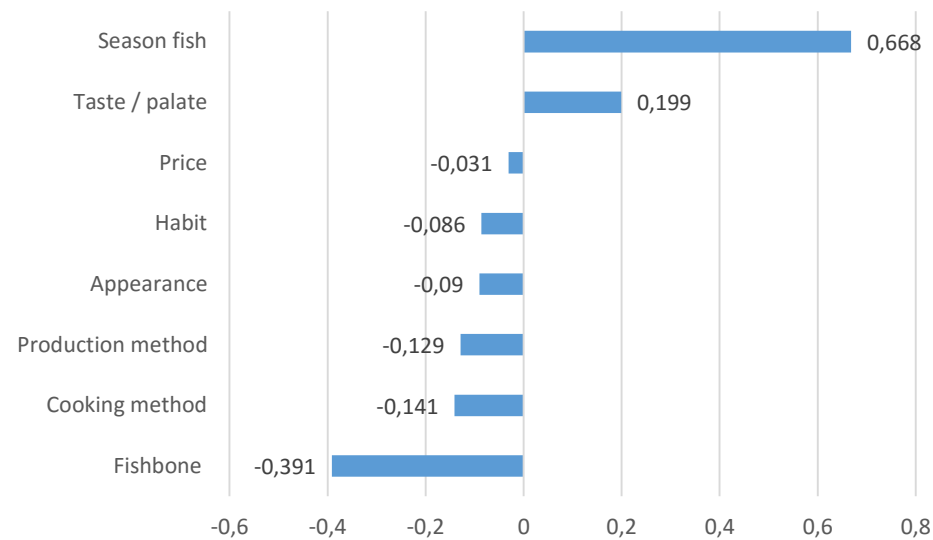


Figure 3. Average BW Scores for preferences Considering When Buying Fresh Fish

Table 1Table 4 shows the results of 232 participants from 270 which are answered the question about the properties while determining freshness of fish.

Table 4. Average BW Scores Calculation for properties of determining freshness of Fish (n=232)

Preferences	The Most Important (B)	The Least Important (W)	Not Prefer	B-W	Average B-W
Outlook	76	6	150	70	0,302
Eye	71	9	152	62	0,267
Gill	68	20	144	48	0,207
Smell	8	12	212	-4	-0,017
Color	5	10	217	-5	-0,022
Hardness of fish	4	50	178	-46	-0,198
Scale	0	125	107	-125	-0,539

According to consumers' preferences, the most, the second and the third important properties for determining freshness of fish are outlook, eye and gill with 0,302, 0,267 and 0,207 BW score respectively. The least important property is scale with -0,539 BW score.

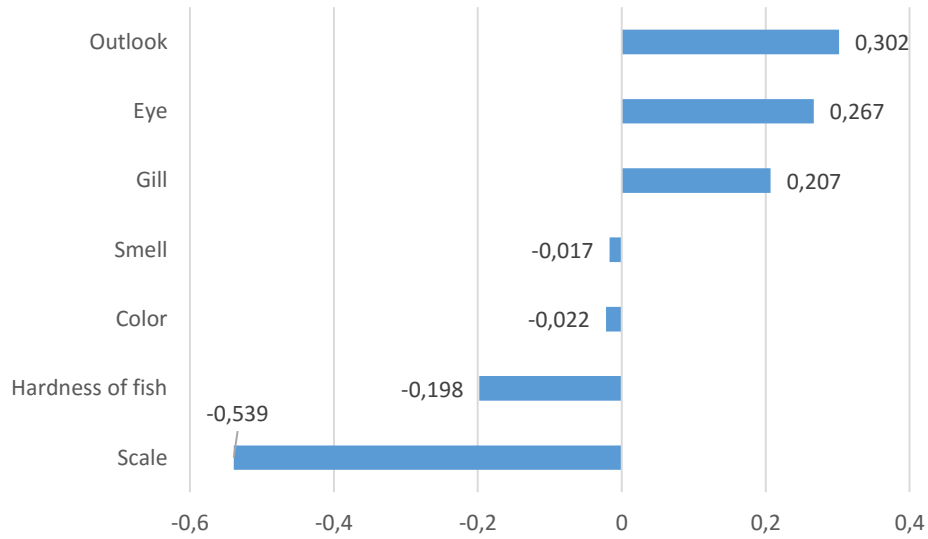


Figure 4. Average BW Scores for properties of determining freshness of Fish (n=232)

Conclusion

In this study, consumers' the most/least important preferences are determined in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district and suggestions are made to increase fish consumption

According to best worst analysis results, the most and the least important reasons for fish consumption are healthiness of fish and easiness of preparation and cooking respectively. Consumers pay attention to brand of the products most and advertisement about products least while buying frozen fish products. While purchasing fresh fish, the most important property is to be season fish and the least important property is fishbone. Consumers determine the freshness of fish by looking general look mostly and scale rarely.

Due to changing living conditions and economic conditions, consumers have begun to use more practical and easy – prepare products for saving time. Because of this, fish must be presented to consumers in different ways. Canned and frozen fish products variety is limited in Turkey. These products should be diversified and generalized to increase fish consumption.

Based on the most important reasons given by consumers, a fish market where fresh and qualified fish sold, necessary food controls done and suitable for European Union standards should be establish. There isn't a fish market in Tekirdağ province Süleymanpaşa district like this.

Consumers should be informed about health benefits of fish, consumption types and cooking methods. Also fishermen should be informed about sustainability of natural resources, hunting methods, size of hunted fish and seasonal hunting. Consumers should be easily accessible both economically and positional.

With the realization of the stated objectives and policies, it's expected that the improvement of the structure of the fisheries sector, increasing consumers fish consumption and providing employment in fisheries sector.

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International Competitiveness Analysis of Hazelnut Export in Turkey

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Abstract: Turkey is a country that has favorable conditions for the cultivation of some agricultural products, because of its climate conditions. Hazelnut is the most important of these agricultural product. Turkey's hazelnut-production has been 549.000 tonnes and hazelnut-export quantity has been 162.932 tonnes in 2013.

The aim of this study is to determine the competitiveness of Turkey comparing with other hazelnut exporting countries. In this study, international competitiveness in the hazelnuts of Turkey was determined by using Balassa Revealed Comparative Advantage Index (RCA) and Comparative Export Performance (CEP) between the years 2004-2013.

When the hazelnuts exporting countries are compared, it is seen that Turkey is the second country having the highest competitiveness after Georgia. Turkey's competitiveness is declining in recent years. According to comparative export performance index, it's seen that Turkey has a comparative advantage against Georgia in all years except 2004. Comparative advantage between Turkey and Azerbaijan varies by the years. Turkey should develop agricultural supporting policies for hazelnut production and foreign trade in order to increase the international competitiveness in hazelnut exports.

Keywords: comparative export performance index, revealed comparative advantage index, competitiveness

Introduction

The market is moving into a more competitive environment by changes taking place with globalization in the world economy in recent years. The existence of competitive environment is increasing companies' and countries' efforts to obtain extra added value from international competition. With globalization not only companies and industries operating in countries also the international competitiveness of the industry's competitiveness importance is increasing. International competitiveness, originally based on comparative advantage theory, is strength of to sell a product produced by a country on the world market at world prices, to have an effective export share in the international market and to be able to maintain this position. (Saraçoğlu and Köse)

Factors that affect a country's competitiveness in international markets are economic factors such as gross domestic product, exchange rates, import, export and non-economic social factors such as religion, culture and habits (Reed, 1994). However, the most important criteria affecting the competitiveness of the country is foreign trade policies that country applies. In order to ensure continuity of exports and to gain competitiveness, it's necessary to decrease costs per unit. Therefore, quality and technical performance should be improved and production should be increased. It's required to ensure a high and sustainable growth rate of exports, competing in foreign markets is necessary.

Although there is not a precise way, three approaches typically used to measure the competitiveness in the literature. These are macroeconomic approach, microeconomic approach and trade approach (Wziatek-Kubiak, 2003: 2-4).

In macroeconomic approach, country economies are taken as a whole and rated according to specific criteria. In microeconomic approach, the commercial sector and their sub-branches are examined and competitiveness indicators are formed by using data about prices, productivity, price – cost margins and market share. In trade approach based on the classical theory of international trade, foreign trade performance constitutes the subject of research.

Revealed Comparative Advantages (RCA), Net Export Index (NEI), Export Similarity (ES), Export Market Share (EMS) and Comparative Export Performance (CEP) are the most widely used techniques to measure international competitiveness.

Comparative advantage indices are used in studies to measure the competitiveness of many sectors in various countries. The main objective of these studies is able to measure comparative advantages by using indicators consist of post-trade data.

Comparative advantage indices have been applied in numerous academic publications (e.g. Bowen (1983), Yeats (1985), Kojima (1970), Kunimoto (1977), Vollrath (1987; 1989). In literature, there are studies that calculated competitiveness between Turkey and EU in various sectors. (Yılmaz ve Ergün 2003, Erat ve Erat 2005).

The aims of this study are to analyze the competitiveness of Turkey comparing with other hazelnut exporting countries and determine policies that maintain or increase competitiveness by comparing current situation with other countries.

Materials And Methods

Revealed comparative advantage index (RCA) formulated by Balassa, revealed competitiveness index (RC) formulated by Vollrath and comparative export performance index (CEP) were used to determine the competitiveness of Turkey according to other countries. Secondary data obtained from FAO is used in this study. Five countries, including Turkey, which has highest hazelnut export between 2004 and 2013 were analyzed.

Balassa index tries to explain that whether country has a comparative advantage in certain good/sector rather than the determination of the underlying cause of comparative advantage, RCA is based on observed trade patterns; it measures a country's exports of a commodity relative to its total exports and to the corresponding export performance of a set of countries.

The original RCA index, formulated by Balassa (1965), can be written as:

$$RCA = (X_{ij} / X_j) / (X_{iw} / X_w) \quad (1)$$

where X represents exports, j is a country, i is a product and w is for world.

If $RCA > 1$, then a comparative advantage is revealed and country j is an expert on j product export.

Vollrath offered three alternative specifications of revealed comparative advantage, by using net trade effect in addition to export and import data. The first of these measures is the relative export advantage (RXA). The second of these measures is the relative trade advantage (RTA), which accounts for imports as well as exports. It is calculated as the difference between relative export advantage (RXA) and relative import advantage (RMA)

$$RXA_{ij} = (X_{ij} / X_{nj}) / (X_{ir} / X_{nr}) \quad (2)$$

$$RMA_{ij} = (M_{ij} / M_{nj}) / (M_{ir} / M_{nr}) \quad (3)$$

$$RTA_{ij} = RXA_{ij} - RMA_{ij} \quad (4)$$

Vollrath's third measure, called revealed competitiveness (RC) is difference between the logarithm of the relative export advantage (ln RXA) and the logarithm of the relative import advantage (ln RMA).

$$RC_{ij} = \ln (RXA_{ij}) - \ln (RMA_{ij}) \quad (5)$$

where X represents exports, M represents imports, j is a country, i is a product or sector, n is all other products or sectors except i, r is all countries except j. If RTA, RXA and RC have positive value then there is comparative advantage; by contrast, if they have negative values there is comparative disadvantage.

Comparative Export Performance (CEP) is an alternative for RCA indices (Kılıçkaplan 1997). CEP represents the comparative export advantage of country j against country k.

$$CEP = \ln((X_{ij} / X_j) / (X_{ik} / X_k)) \quad (6)$$

Where X represents exports, i is a product or sector, j and k refer to countries. If index value is positive, country j has a competitive advantage against country k.

Results

Considering to the amount of hazelnut production and hazelnut export quantities of countries, Turkey is in the first place in production with 549.000 tonnes and export with 162.932 tonnes (Table 5). Italy is in the second place with 112.643 tonnes and the United States ranks third with 40.500 tonnes for global hazelnut production. Georgia is the second highest hazelnut exporter with 27.726 tonnes followed by Italy with 16.027 tonnes. 69,22% of the total hazelnut is exported by Turkey in the world. Georgia ranks the second place with 10.88% and Italy ranks the third place with 7.68% of exported total hazelnut.

Table 5. 10 countries with the highest hazelnut production and export quantities in 2013 (tonnes)

Country	Production Quantity	Export Quantity	World Export Share (%)	Export / Production Rate
Turkey	549.000	162.932	69,22	0,30
Georgia	39.700	27.726	10,88	0,70
Italy	112.643	16.027	7,68	0,14
Azerbaijan	31.202	10.415	3,05	0,33
Germany	0	4.811	2,64	-
Spain	15.300	2.421	1,02	0,16
Netherlands	0	2.240	1,06	-
United States of America	40.500	2.112	0,79	0,05
Czech Republic	0	1.514	0,67	-
France	7.619	871	0,37	0,11

According to Balassa index calculated by considering of five highest hazelnut exporter country's export amounts; Georgia, Azerbaijan and Turkey are the most specialised countries in hazelnut export. It's seen that Turkey specializes in hazelnut exports by Germany and Italy between 2004 and 2013. Although Turkey has an absolute advantage in hazelnut production and export, according to the revealed comparative advantages indices Turkey has fallen behind Georgia and Azerbaijan because of the low ratio of import quantity to total agricultural production. Georgia is the most specialized country in hazelnut exports in all other years except 2004 and 2005. Specialization level between Turkey and Azerbaijan varies depending on the years. Turkey's specialization level tends to decrease by years. Specialization levels of Germany and Italy are so low. (Table 6).

Table 6. Specialization Level of Countries According to the Balassa Index

Balassa's RCA (Revealed Comparative Advantage)					
Year	Turkey	Azerbaijan	Georgia	Germany	Italy
2004	77,335	34,126	51,366	0,270	2,865
2005	61,882	99,120	88,373	0,224	1,878
2006	85,073	93,483	167,804	0,348	1,490
2007	84,770	84,571	188,229	0,445	3,672
2008	74,570	60,090	115,768	0,431	2,862
2009	63,644	98,628	203,963	0,331	2,506
2010	69,698	61,434	157,789	0,360	2,300
2011	67,135	76,738	259,576	0,410	2,284
2012	67,030	53,625	145,993	0,470	2,418
2013	57,480	49,820	195,678	0,426	2,445

According to Vollrath's revealed competitiveness index Turkey, Georgia and Azerbaijan have comparative advantage while Germany and Italy have comparative disadvantage between 2004 and 2013 (Table 7).

Revealed competitiveness between Turkey, Azerbaijan and Georgia varies according to the years. In 2005 and 2006 Georgia, in 2012 Turkey has competitiveness in hazelnut export while Azerbaijan in other years.

Table 7. Revealed Competitiveness Results

RC (Revealed Competitiveness)					
Year	Turkey	Azerbaijan	Georgia	Germany	Italy
2004	6,415	7,865	7,420	-2,929	-0,093
2005	5,490	5,042	9,730	-2,833	-1,050
2006	5,056	4,284	6,689	-2,366	-1,373
2007	5,406	11,800	7,055	-2,611	-0,044
2008	5,748	7,589	1,937	-2,634	-0,068
2009	5,535	6,865	6,526	-3,054	-0,514
2010	7,108	10,462	6,068	-2,913	-0,595
2011	5,866	8,804	7,242	-2,638	-0,719
2012	6,525	5,275	5,624	-2,394	-0,581
2013	5,535	5,886	5,750	-2,682	-0,826

The index of comparative export performance (CEP) refers that Turkey has comparative advantage against to Germany and Italy between 2004 and 2013. Turkey has a comparative disadvantage against Georgia in the hazelnut export except year 2004. When Turkey hazelnut export advantage compared with Azerbaijan, it is seen that the advantage varies from year to year (Table 8).

Table 8. Turkey's Status Against Other Countries According to Comparative Export Performance Index

CEP (Comparative Export Performance)				
Year	Azerbaijan	Georgia	Germany	Italy
2004	0,818	0,409	5,659	3,295
2005	-0,471	-0,356	5,620	3,495
2006	-0,094	-0,679	5,499	4,045
2007	0,002	-0,798	5,250	3,139
2008	0,216	-0,440	5,153	3,260
2009	-0,438	-1,165	5,259	3,234
2010	0,126	-0,817	5,266	3,411
2011	-0,134	-1,352	5,098	3,381
2012	0,223	-0,778	4,960	3,322
2013	0,143	-1,225	4,905	3,157

Conclusion

In this paper competitiveness of Turkey against 4 other countries that have highest hazelnut export based on three indices and calculated for the period 2004 to 2013 has been presented.

Although with 69,22% of the world's total hazelnut export, Turkey is not in the leading position in terms of competitiveness. The competitiveness of Turkey's in hazelnut exports remains low against to Azerbaijan and Georgia. It's seen that there is a decline in the level of specialization of hazelnut exports of Turkey's in recent years. There are fluctuations in the relative competitive advantages of Turkey by year. Turkey's hazelnut export performance is low compared to Georgia. All three indices show that Turkey has comparative advantage against Germany and Italy in hazelnut export.

Turkey should provide increased efficiency and should give importance to technological development and R&D to protect its competitive power in the world market. In recent years, the idea of the competitiveness

can be improved by government policies such as protection measures, export promotion and assistance are gaining weight .

Preventing the opening of the Turkish agricultural sector to world markets must overcome and the agricultural policy that will have an impact on the international competitiveness of Turkey needs to be implemented.

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Problems of Employment and Unemployment in Bulgaria: Is Sustainable Development Possible?

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Abstract: As a specific market, entering the complex interactions with economic policies and processes, and located directly linked to the achievement of social security and macroeconomic stability, the labor market in Bulgaria is characterized by peculiar features provided by the hallmarks of development during periods of transition to a market economy, European integration, economic crisis and the contemporary dynamic conditions of pervasive globalization. Current study examines the factors of unemployment and economic growth in the country leading to conclusions about the need of flexibility and adequate and timely policies of labor market and economic development. Analyses are based on the key findings of the EC national report 2015 (concerning the implementation of goals regarding sustainable, inclusive and intelligent growth) providing implications on the problems of employment and unemployment in Bulgaria, labor market and social policy development. Recommendations are made concerning needed changes in different spheres of social and economic life and the role of state.

Key words: employment, unemployment, labor market, social policy

1. Introduction

The problems of the modern labor market are subject to increasing interest in the field of research, policy discussions and management practice. The topical interest of the studied subject for the impact of various policies, programs and measures on the national labor market is conditioned by the fact that in recent years the implementation of specific programs and measures plays an increasing role in Bulgaria and is used as a main tool for the impact the labor market, both at regional and national level¹. The economic activity, the employment of the population with productive labor, is the most important factor for economic growth. As a factor for economic growth at this stage, employment is important for Bulgaria in terms of its quality structures, sectoral and branch redistribution, mobility and price. Regarding its rate and structure, the employment is a result of the economic development of the radical changes occurred in the structure of ownership and production. In large part, however, it is a result of the ongoing economic, social and political reforms².

The political changes of the early 90-s of the twentieth century in Bulgaria lay the foundations for the development of a real labor market and major reforms in the hitherto existing social protection systems and the development of human capital. The transition from a centrally planned to a market economy in Bulgaria results in huge transformations in the ownership and structure of the national economy³. These processes lead to a significant downturn in the functioning of the national economy. In these adverse economic conditions, the development of the labor market and social protection policies go through many turns due to the inconsistent policy of frequently changing governments and their different attitude towards policies on unemployment and employment. Further, the entrance of the country into the European Union challenged again the still developing economy and social system which soon after that are deeply influenced by the economic crises.

1 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Analyses of Labor Market Development in Bulgaria: Role of active policies for social and economic development. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 140-145.

2 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2015. Peculiarities of Labor Market Development in the Republic of Bulgaria, Journal of Innovations and Sustainability, Vol. 1, No 1, 2015, p. 47-99.

3 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Arabska, E. 2015. Assessment of active social policies' impacts on labor market in a period of transformation Bulgarian society. Procedia Economics and Finance 30 (2015) 890 – 902.

The deindustrialization in Bulgaria has a number of specifics and as compared to Western economies, it was determined not so much by the natural course of the economic development, but rather by the initiated political changes and policy reforms for transition to a market economy⁴. So the process of deindustrialization had to solve both economic and political tasks: the economy had to become efficient and competitive, but together with that it had to change its ownership, scales and features. The reforms began with the change of ownership, the restriction of monopoly and environmental pollution, the eradication and limitation of inefficient industries, and it continued to the establishment of a functioning market economy, corresponding to the standards and the rules of the EU policy and the requirements of the globalizing economy. These two essential transitional periods - to a market economy and to integration into the EU - led to a radical restructuring of production and employment. Unlike in other countries in Central and Eastern Europe, going through similar transitions, in Bulgaria these processes had a high social cost and significant impact on the incomes of the population, its security and employment.

The decline in the economic activity of the population and even more in the employment in the 90s of the XX century, the high rate of long-term unemployment and the mass poverty led to the contraction of the domestic market, reducing the chances for production development and increasing employment. All this reduced the social security (even if only in terms of insurance funds) and retarded the society development, making the transition to a market economy long and happening at high social and economic costs. The restructuring of the workforce and the changes in the employment of the population in Bulgaria are radical, large-scale and diverse. The first group of changes in employment, creating a good basis and opportunities are⁵:

- change in the model of employment - from administrative to market distribution of employees and their mobility; from full employment on social basis to unemployment and uncertainty in terms of paid work; from passive to active behavior and competition in the labor market.
- elimination of administrative restrictions on the movement of the workforce inside and outside the country; creation of conditions, albeit limited for now, for greater mobility of the workforce;
- new and radical change in the existing national labor and social legislation in the context of the development of the market economy and the democratic processes and in accordance with international conventions, European directives, etc.;
- creation and development of the labor market and its institutions and policies with the development of a network of employment services throughout the country, their equipment and the qualification of the persons employed in them;
- creation and development of a policy for regulating the labor market, an active policy for stimulating unemployed to return to work and employers to hire certain groups of unemployed;
- restructuring of branch and sectoral employment, rapid increase in the number of employees in services and reduction of those in industry;
- increase in the employment in the private sector, in the number of entrepreneurs and self-employed.

The second group of changes in employment are changes posing problems and barriers to the achievement of economic growth and social cohesion, such as: reduced participation of the population in paid work, employment and economic development; growing economic burden on workers (social contributions, taxes, restrictions on wage growth, etc.); the drastical decline in the employment of young people, ethnic groups, women, rural population stands out on the background of the general drop in employment. As a result, there is a rise in the number of poor and impoverished, excluded from the world of work. There is a high proportion of the employable population dependent on and in need of social

4 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Bulgarian experience in labor market development. 18th International Academic Conference, 25 August 2015, London. ISBN 978-80-87927-11-3, IISES, 710-733.

5 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

assistance. For part of the unemployed (mainly long-term unemployed) it is difficult to return to work, for another part it becomes impossible to provide education to their children. The preliminary school leavers are therefore numerous.

Despite the significant contraction in employment in the 90s of the XX century (about 40% compared with 1989), the hidden unemployment and the inefficient use of the employed remain high. Improving the efficiency, the competitiveness of the majority of the national production requires reducing the share of the costs of production, including labor costs⁶. This virtually requires dismissal of some employees. The process of deindustrialization and economic restructuring naturally resulted in the sharp reduction of employment in industry. The decrease in production was more significant⁷. Crushed were the employment and the production in some sectors for which it is considered that the country has a good potential and traditions and in sectors in which a lot has been invested in recent decades. The first ones include light and food industries and the second ones - electronics, computing, electrical industry, instrumentation, specialized equipment, etc. In this way the national economy has not only lost foreign markets and opportunities for more accelerated growth and employment, including of highly skilled labor, but also opportunities to change the technical and technological level of production in the near future, to keep in the country and to use professionally trained and qualified specialists in an effective way.

In the public and especially in the private sector, there is a high share of employees, receiving wages around the minimum amount. Part of the private sector employees are still not insured for social risks. This leads to an increase in the number and the proportion of the so-called working poor and also increases insecurity and social differentiation. One part of these people choose official unemployment to employment (the social benefits are relatively high or sufficient in size so that they are preferred to the receipt of income from work) or continue their stay in unemployment as preferred to the alternative of low pay and insecurity.

In the 90s the unemployment was high, mass and long and lead to profound social and economic changes in society⁸. Actually the labor supply was much greater because of the many graduates of educational establishments or early drop-outs, desperate and disillusioned unemployed who gave up their official registration, seeking employment pensioners and students and others. Thereto was also added the huge number of exempted from the army in connection with the ongoing reform in it. During this period the unemployment rate in many communities was over 30%, and in some - over 40 and even 50%. Most of these regions are with mixed and Roma population. Only about 1/4 of the unemployed receive social benefits or the majority of the unemployed have no income. Relatively few of them can hope for social assistance or involvement in subsidized employment programs. The majority of the unemployed have lower education without professional training and/or without work experience. The majority of them are Roma, young people and women. About 60% of the unemployed are with low education and without profession, which means that, case of favorable economic growth, increase in the foreign investments, increased labor demand, it is very unlikely that they find paid employment. And this is confirmed in practice as in recent years a high growth, a high labor demand, even a shortage nationwide, have been registered in the country. The unemployment, although significantly decreased, remained relatively high, especially for the unemployed from the so called risk groups (long-term unemployed with low education, no profession, disabled, etc.). For many of them paid jobs remain inaccessible and entering into such an employment is accidental, non-continuous, uncertain. This in turn results in social insecurity and in the "best" cases - employment in the informal economy, migration and others.

The first half of the 90s was a period of economic reform: establishment and development of markets, including the labor market; a change in the pattern of employment and formation of adequate policies to

6 Terziev, V. 2015. Methodological Approach to Research and Evaluate Main States And Transitions on Labor Market. Проблемы современной экономики URL: <http://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/methodological-approach-to-research-and-evaluate-main-states-and-transitions-on-labor-market> (дата обращения: 26.01.2016).

7 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2014. Development and restructuring of employment in Bulgaria in the period of transition and active transformations. New knowledge Journal of science, 3(3), p. 19-29.

8 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2014. Transformation in Bulgarian labor market in the years of transition. New knowledge Journal of science, 3(3), p. 30-48.

address the social problems arising from the privatization, the structural reforms and the evolved unemployment and impoverishment of the population. Since the late 90s a policy of EU integration was pursued and related actions of strategic plan character were carried out on reduction of unemployment and increase of employment. Strategies were adopted (including the Employment strategy and national plans) for linking the economic development with job creation⁹.

Since the beginning of 2000 and especially after 2003, the reduction of unemployment in Bulgaria has been associated with the attenuation of the processes of privatization and liquidation of unprofitable businesses, as well as with the pursued active policy, creating a high share of offered subsidized jobs. Since the mid-2008 one could observe again processes of increase of the officially registered unemployment, which are connected not only with the usual seasonal fluctuations in production and employment, but also with the started global financial and economic crisis, which had repercussions in Bulgaria – a country with an open economy, with a significant export to the developed countries affected by the crisis and with a high proportion of import of raw materials and materials, whose prices were rising. The global financial crisis resulted in a drop of the foreign investments in the national economy. Additional factors were the constraints, the drop in the transfer of financial resources in the country by Bulgarian emigrants which were significant in volume and share, including in the financing of consumption and investments and therefore in the GDP growth¹⁰. The impact of the global financial and economic crisis, that started to occur in Bulgaria at the end of 2008, worsened the economic situation in the country during the period from 2009 to 2011, turned the direction of the firm trend of economic growth and significantly changed the situation in the labor market causing a rise in the number of unemployed. The unfavorable economic environment resulted in market contraction, reducing the workload in many economic activities, cost optimization, implementation of structural changes and reduction of the employees in companies.

2. Peculiarities of Labor Market Development in Bulgaria

The transformation of the Bulgarian economy into a market one revealed numerous peculiarities and paradoxes in the formation of the labor market, which are not usually characteristic of the countries with a traditional organization of the market economy¹¹. Thus the absence of major economic growth in the first years of the reforms contributed to the establishment of a view of the uniqueness of the Bulgarian transition phase in the sense that the successfully selected macroeconomic strategy resulted in the avoidance of serious problems in the labor market. This "success" however was accompanied by hypertrophic appearance of intermediate forms in the status of the employees who were not completely unemployed, but were also not working. "Unemployment in the workplace", including the one connected with the preservation of excessive, economically unjustified employment, paradoxically coupled with a shortage of staff. The actual unemployment resulting from a periodic change of jobs met the inflexible employment system, the weak points of the labor market, the insufficient understanding of the role of some market mechanisms such as the employment services (primarily with their functions in informing about available vacancies and workers seeking employment). Structural unemployment, usually determined by the recession in some industry branches and the growth (including the increase in the number of jobs) in new sectors is generally eliminated by systems for retraining of employees. But in the transition conditions in Bulgaria, the compensating creation of new jobs was clearly insufficient, and the new jobs often required no training but professional habits and skills of a lower level than the ones in the previous job. In response to cyclical unemployment (unemployment of insufficient demand) are often used measures for recovery of aggregate demand (or for retention of its decline), promotion of job creation (tax concessions, removing the obstacles to the creation of small businesses, provision of know-how, etc.), promotion of part-time employment. But in the Bulgarian transitional conditions, cyclical

9 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

10 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Arabska, E. 2015. Assessment of active social policies' impacts on labor market in a period of transformation Bulgarian society. *Procedia Economics and Finance* 30 (2015) 890 – 902.

11 Terziev, V. Impact of labor market policies on employment provision. Dema Press, Ruse, 2013.

unemployment rather took the form of systematic unemployment as a result of the continuous and prolonged economic recession, sectoral imbalances and other causes that put into question the traditional means of counteracting to unemployment.

Similar paradoxes of the labor relations in an economy in transition often suggest that the measures of state influence on the labor market make no sense in such a situation. Therefore, their application should be postponed until the moment when the labor market and the economic system as a whole finally acquire classic market features. But the problem is that not only the listed, but also many other paradoxes of the transitional period entirely dictate the situation in the labor market. The increasing discrimination in hiring and dismissal, for example, can hardly be attributed to the regularities of the transition. Even the distortions related to the causes of unemployment cannot be used to deny the fact that each year tens of hundreds of people change their jobs remaining in a state of frictional unemployment for a certain period of time. Structural changes, although acquiring the form of almost universal, but uneven decline, coexist with different points of growth both in new sectors (e.g. financial and commercial sector) and within the industries that are experiencing recession (some companies hire new workers and others dismiss workers). The weak points of the institutions in the labor market, regulating the wage dynamics (e.g. employment contracts and agreements) can not also be used as a starting point for conclusions about their temporary inappropriateness. Nowadays the transformation of the labor relations from such that are typical of the planning economy to ones typical of the market economy is significantly delayed, compared with the advent of other attributes of the market (formation of different forms of ownership, financial and other markets)¹². A delay of this kind may become an essential factor leading to the delay in the completion of the transformation period. It could be stated that this period will not end if the labor relations, the creation of effective institutions in the labor market remain inadequate to the other economic transformations.

In such circumstances the increase in unemployment as a result of an accidental, single drop of the real GDP is due to the formation of cyclical unemployment, which is limited - about one percentage point. The changes in the actual and the cyclical unemployment are closely related to the process of market transition and its recessive impulses, the experienced deep financial and economic crisis and the recently set under control variation in the growth rate¹³. However, they run fairly smoothly and monotonically. The unemployment dynamics was characterized by an explosive, dramatic increase in the first two or three years of the period (for example, by 9.6 percentage points in 1991 and by 3.8 points in 1999) and by a sharp drop by 3.6% in 1994. In the other years of the period there was a shift to more moderate changes¹⁴. So after 1993-1994 the unemployment rate fluctuated mainly in a more narrow range, changing by 1.1 to 1.9 percentage points per year, regardless of the declines, the moments of boom or sometimes the large variations in the growth rate. This was accompanied by a reverse dependence to the growth rate, which showed only occasional distortions.

Any recorded rate of actual unemployment includes a certain rate of natural unemployment. During the first years of the transition in Bulgaria, it increased, which further raised the actual unemployment rate and distorted the assessment of the cyclical unemployment rate.

The natural unemployment growth is predetermined by cardinal economic changes, specific personal motives and objective conditions which determine a relative share of friction that is higher than the most prevalent (about 1%) and especially regarding the structural component¹⁵. The relative weight of the friction component increases due to the intense internal migration, the gradual expansion of the private

12 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

13 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Analyses of Labor Market Development in Bulgaria: Role of active policies for social and economic development. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 140-145.

14 National Statistical Institute (NSI) web-site: <http://www.nsi.bg/>.

15 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

sector share and the differences in the amount of wages, the higher requirements to the professional skills of workers, the demand for workers with other specializations, the need for updating the vocational training or the retraining of specialists. There is a growth in the proportion of the structural unemployment, determined by the simultaneous introduction of radical branch, product and technological reform and restructuring of the Bulgarian production. The low unemployment benefits provided until recently have a discouraging effect on employment. The composition of employees (classified according to different criteria) is gradually changing, with an increase in the participation of certain groups of employees, of whom are typical more frequent fluctuations, change in the workplace and hence a higher level of unemployment. Furthermore, at the outset of the transition a significant part of the previously employed (almost completely, but inefficiently used workforce) left the sphere of production and did not get back into it. In some cases these people got transferred to the group outside the active workforce, in others they made attempts to develop their own small business or remained long-term unemployed. Among the reasons for this movement were the difficulties encountered in finding other suitable employment, especially for people over a certain age limit, the emerged and partly preserved up to now mismatch between the demand and the supply of labor for some specialties and professions, the increasing share of the hidden economy and the employment in it, the reduction of real wages and the availability of savings from previous periods, etc. As a result, the number of the discharged exceeded the one of the registered unemployed.

In the calculation of the employment indicators one may not fully cover or may not clearly distinguish until recently growing number of partially, occasionally employed. Pressured by the lack or shortage of money, in spite of the uncertainty, many people accept proposals for a short-time job or mostly services, for temporary or part-time activities, including part-time and irregular, campaigning commitment without contractual obligations. Even the reported (based on civil contracts concluded) parameters of temporary and part-time employment are still alarming. Thus, for 2004 and 2005 the full-time employed were around 91% of the total employees, as 85% were the employed under a permanent contract. On the other hand, as a component of unemployment it is reported that in 2005, for example, over one-sixth or almost 16% were the unemployed, who had lost their jobs due to the termination of temporary or seasonal employment¹⁶. Although in the recent years the labor legislation in the country has improved, the legal labor relations have been regulated and put under tighter control, the existing problems in this field and the number of the employed unregistered persons have been reduced, but this problem has not yet been completely overcome. Statistics show that over 85 thousand people (5.2% of the employees in the private sector and 0.4% of the employees in the public sector) are employed without a contract, but their actual range is probably higher¹⁷.

The market orientation induced processes leading to a profound disruption of the labor market. The decline in production in the mid-90s caused a reduction in the number of employees, as this trend also had technological prerequisites. It significantly affected the people with higher education. Thus, while almost 39% of the total number of the registered unemployed in 2005, for example, were with no profession, with primary or lower education, about half of all unemployed had a specialty and almost 23% of them were university graduates and were long-term unemployed. The dismissals of trained staff and the narrowed opportunities for developing the production areas so that they can fully absorb this labor potential increased the relative "price" of the growth, affecting its current and future rate. The backward inclusion of people with higher qualifications in labor activities was hampered by the irreversible changes in the company and sectoral structure of the GDP, by the advanced technical and technological characteristics of the production, by the new and higher requirements for professional knowledge and skills of the specialists which were set by companies.

16 National Statistical Institute (NSI) web-site: <http://www.nsi.bg/>.

17 Terziev, V. Impact of labor market policies on employment provision. Dema Press, Ruse, 2013.

In the modern structure of the Bulgarian economy, the services sector has crucial importance and share - its share in creating GDP amounted to more than 60% at the end of this period¹⁸. Its accelerated development can serve to explain the recently observed increase in the number of the persons employed in trade, catering and hospitality, construction, utilities and utilities services. These industries are prospering and labor-absorbing, but they provide opportunities for engagement mostly of people without special training, with lower qualifications, for a not too high remuneration or under not especially attractive work conditions. So this has retained the gap between the supply and the demand of labor, there were many vacancies (over 2400 in 2005). Only 15% of these vacancies, however, were suitable for university graduates. The violated conformity between the proposed jobs and the qualification level gave additional contribution to the extension of the duration of unemployment – around 60% of the unemployed in the country searched for work for a period exceeding one year. Industry – the sector most affected by the process of privatization and reorganization of the corporate activity - was gradually overcoming its falling behind and already predisposed to increased employment. So over the past few years there has been an increase in the number of the employed in the manufacture of food products, textiles and clothing, processed leather, wood and wood products and others. However, the proportion of the employment in the industries remains marginal, over 80% of the employees are concentrated in trade. The trend towards fewer employed under a permanent employment contract is observed in the public sector, while in the private sector (which quickly responds to the reactivating domestic market) the number of the employees increased by 5% at the end of the period. Because of the predominant development of areas characterized by higher labor intensity, even the productivity growth of about 7-8% annually, reported in the last several years, is insufficient. This growth failed to induce a significant change and approximation in the ratio between the growth rate and the unemployment rate.

The specific degree of correlation between the GDP dynamics and the unemployment (and the employment) is determined largely by the relevant corporate structure. The established in the country and already amounting to 79.4% share of the private sector in basic prices covers more than 99% of micro and small enterprises. Therefore there is a dominance of companies with extremely tight capacity to generate employment and growth, also for their own growth, characterized by a more frequent change of employees, reduction of their number or firmly established family commitment. While in both institutional sectors (the public and the private one) one can recently observe a tendency of increase in the number and the proportion of medium-sized and larger companies, they do not carry out reciprocal parity process of increasing employment. The opportunities for higher employment through own business and self-performed activities are not utilized, insofar as the data show that only 3.8% of the employed in 2005 were employers and only 8.6% were self-employed.

The recorded disproportionate features of the labor market and the negative effect of them on the growth rate may persist and later reverse if the government pursues a more stringent policy for reducing unemployment and promoting employment. Already started, the implementation of state-funded infrastructure projects, the provision of financial incentives and the assistance in finding work without using the services of labor offices and by self-employment provide positive results – the unemployment rate declined to 12.2% in 2004 and once more to 10.7% in 2005. The level of employment is still problematic, as its increasing requires a more dramatic increase in the incentives to labor activity - the minimum and the average wages in the country. They will affect the individual consumption; the growing domestic demand will accelerate the realization of the production and will provide an increase of its volume, further accelerating the growth. In this aspect, other areas of the macroeconomic policy also become important - it is necessary to pursue investment, innovation, industrial, regional and other policy, more steadily focused on employment.

In the Bulgarian labor market there could be considered crucial not only the influence of the inflows in unemployment at the expense of macroeconomic and other external measures, but this influence, which would reduce the average duration of unemployment. In order to be achieved a reduction in the total number of unemployed, there is a need of long and uninterrupted period of growth in the number of jobs. The increase in the number of vacancies need not be necessarily accompanied by a decline in long-term

18 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

unemployment (and, consequently, of total unemployment). Even in times of economic growth, the increase in the proportion of the long-term unemployed can be significant, but the ratio of the outflow of this group can be reduced. The reason lies in the fact that the economic growth can reduce short-term unemployment, but has little impact on long-term unemployment and on other "fragile" components of unemployment (unskilled workers, young people without work experience, etc.). One major reason is the presence of "effects of duration"¹⁹, not directly related to the economic opportunities of employment.

The differences in the unemployment rates according to sex, age, education and professional background give reason to assume that for some groups of employees, the risk of becoming long-term unemployed is relatively higher. This risk is of a sustainable nature. The effects of the duration can also be fully attributed to such fragile components of unemployment. For example, young people without experience can be confronted with the effects of selection. Older workers and low-skilled women who are unemployed may become victims of circumstances, similar to the loss of qualification (supply effect) or may face discriminatory practices by employers (demand effect).

The discussed circumstances once again confirm that the increase in the labor demand caused by the economic recovery will have a positive impact mainly on those who have been unemployed for a relatively short period of time. As a rule, this group of employees who have a high capacity for employment does not need intensive support from the state. The reliable and comprehensive information about the available vacancies in the economy is often sufficient to reduce the period of job search. But the long-term unemployed and those for whom the risk to fall into this group is high will hardly be able to reap the fruits of the economic growth and to find a new job on their own.

3. Contemporary Challenges and Problems in Employment and Unemployment in Bulgaria

In the implementation of the approved by the European Council in June 2010 "Europe 2020" Strategy, the Republic of Bulgaria adopted a National Development Programme: Bulgaria 2020 – an integrated document showing the relationship between the EU's priorities in the context of the strategy "Europe 2020" and national priorities. In application of the tool for better coordination of economic policies in the EU - the "European semester"²⁰, Member States draw up national reform programs. With these countries report their commitments to economic and structural reforms to achieve national goals according to the strategy "Europe 2020".

In preparing and updating the strategic documents and analyzes the opportunities for prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances point to the contemporary socio-economic situation, strongly influenced by imbalances and risks in the labor market. Country-specific recommendations and commitments for 2014 concerning the labor market and social protection are:

- to improve the effectiveness of the Employment Agency by developing a system for monitoring performance and better focus on the most vulnerable, such as low-skilled and older workers, the long-term unemployed and Roma.
- to extend the scope and effectiveness of active policies for the labor market in order to increase their ability to find workers with the appropriate profile and reach unregistered young people neither employed nor in education or training, in line with the guarantee youth.
- to increase the effective coverage of unemployment benefits and social assistance and their connections with activation measures.
- to conduct the comprehensive review of minimum insurance thresholds to ensure that the system is not too expensive hiring of low-skilled persons.

19 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH. 2015.

20 Europe 2020. Making it happen: http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/making-it-happen/index_bg.htm.

- prepare after consultation with social partners transparent guidelines for amending the statutory amount of the minimum wage, taking into account the impact on employment and competitiveness.
- in order to reduce poverty, to further improve the accessibility and efficiency of social services and transfers to children and the elderly.

Consideration of the National Report for Bulgaria 2015 displays key issues and trends and formulating guidelines for future development. Unemployment has been identified as a major cause of poverty in Bulgaria in the National Report for Bulgaria for 2015, stressing that the Bulgarian labor market is inert with low employment and high unemployment by making the following key findings²¹: economic growth is still insufficient to support sustainable recovery in employment and the labor market continues to be the subject of serious concern. The negative effect of the crisis on employment is not limited to traditional vulnerable groups in the labor market. Unemployment in the vast majority of long-term, underlining its predominantly structural nature, in the absence of properly targeted and adequate policies to enable employment for the most vulnerable population groups. The transition from school to work is still problematic. The low quality of education and training and their limited relevance to the labor market hinder the supply of properly trained personnel for the economy. Poverty and social exclusion continue to be alarming for Bulgaria, as their effect is exacerbated by high levels of income inequality.

Discussing imbalance risks and adjustments a special focus on labor market and social situation is put and the following conclusions are made:

- a) the Bulgarian labor market is inert with low employment and high unemployment.
 - the employment rate, measured on the basis of the working age population (aged 20-65 years) fell from over 70% in 2008 to 63.5% in 2013. Bulgaria is lagging behind the EU average of 68.4%.
 - dropped to below 6% in 2008, the unemployment rate rose to 13% in 2013 and dropped to 11.7 percent in 2014
 - in 2013, the level of activity for people aged 15-64 by 3.5% lower than the EU average.
 - according to forecasts, by 2016 the recovery in the labor market will remain relatively weak.
- b) some sectors and categories of workers are particularly affected by the crisis.
 - unemployment in Bulgaria during the economic crisis increased mostly among unskilled and low-skilled workers, young people and Roma.
 - the loss of jobs is the most significant in the construction and manufacturing.
- c) the main problems in the structure of the workforce leads to low employment and limited capacity to adapt economy and limited growth potential.
 - the high degree of mismatches between demand and supply of skills is even more noticeable because of the sharp and perhaps permanently destroying jobs in sectors that have been affected by the crisis, on the other hand - due to the large discrepancies between supply and demand skills in the labor market. This results in a structurally weak opportunities to find employment for certain disadvantaged groups.
 - the situation is aggravated by high levels of emigration and the problems of an aging population.
- d) long-term unemployment has increased in the period after the crisis and there is a risk that it becomes structural.

²¹ Commission staff working document. Country Report Bulgaria 2015. Including an In-Depth Review on the prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances {COM(2015) 85 final}.

The social consequences of unemployment

- a) unemployment has been identified as a major cause of poverty in Bulgaria.
 - the proportion of the working age population in Bulgaria (people aged 18-64 years) at risk of poverty is almost two times higher than the EU average.
 - the proportion of employees who are at risk of poverty is lower than the EU average which indicates that employment has a major impact on reducing relative poverty in Bulgaria.
- b) since the crisis has cost the labor market automatically shift to passive measures, as the cost of unemployment benefits increase.
- c) improving the suitability of finding work for young people not in employment, education or training continues to be a challenge.
- d) policies regarding the labor market, supported by the European Social Fund retained its importance in Bulgaria.
- e) in general, adapting the labor market after the crisis is even more difficult due to lack of adequate systems to determine salaries and social security contributions, as this lack continues to restrict job creation and tackling poverty, and risks the potential for growth.

Measures for the labor market, education and social protection

- a) as economic growth remains insufficient to significantly increase employment in Bulgaria, the labor market remains an area giving rise to major concerns.
 - the negative consequences of the crisis on employment is not limited to the usual vulnerable groups in the labor market. The majority of unemployment in the country is long-term, underlining that unemployment in Bulgaria is more structural than cyclical. Since 57% of the unemployed are long-term unemployed, at risk their chances of finding work diminish.
 - the transition from school to employment continues to be slow. Poor quality of education and training system and their limited importance in terms of the labor market makes it difficult labor supply with appropriate qualifications in the economy.
 - increased emigration of highly qualified specialists increases the challenges facing the labor market in the medium and long term, especially given the situation in Bulgaria in demographic terms.
 - the integration of Roma into the labor market and social inclusion in general remains limited. This becomes a cause for growing concern with time, because according to demographic trends the proportion of Roma in the total population is growing rapidly.
- b) Bulgaria is facing a percentage in employment, education or training young people, which is well above the EU average.
 - 21.6% compared with an average of 13% for the EU in 2013. Much of this group is long-term unemployed (43%). Bulgaria has the highest share in employment, education or training young people who are not in connection with the employment services and are therefore not covered by standard measures to help the labor market. The proportion of inactive employment, education or training young people (14.3%) is more than two times higher than the EU-28 (6.1%).
 - among the proportion of Roma in employment, education or training young people is extremely high (61%).
 - over 60% of those aged under 29 years who are registered as unemployed have no professional specialty or any professional qualifications. Consequently, their chances of finding a job are limited to work that requires skilled labor unless take appropriate education or training.

Active policies on the labor market

- a) active policies for the labor market are still underdeveloped as in scope and focus on the most deprived persons, including Roma.
 - as a share of GDP expenditure on active policies on the labor market in Bulgaria is significantly lower than in the years before the crisis, while in similar states of the EU-10 these costs have increased.
 - there are problems in the relations between public employment services (PES) and employers.
 - "activation" of registered unemployed persons is one of the lowest in the EU - 6.5% in 2012
 - among the factors critical are effective system for monitoring performance and better focus on the most vulnerable, such as low-skilled and older workers, the disabled, long-term unemployed and Roma.
- b) funding continues to depend largely on the European Social Fund.
 - capacity to implement policies to activate is strongly influenced by major layoffs in recent years despite a significant increase in long-term unemployment.
 - there is no proper coordination and integration at the institutional level between the various employment services. Coordination between employment services and the "Social Assistance" is not aimed at effective and integrated implementation of measures in favor of the most vulnerable. Employment agency work limited to the primary labor market, such as people looking for work is more likely to be directed to subsidized employment and provide only limited access to information on more sustainable jobs.
- c) agencies for integration in the labor market and services for benefits and social assistance for the unemployed and inactive persons are still fragmented.
- d) there are at least five different agencies that meet the needs of vulnerable persons. This fragmentation poses a major challenge for the provision of benefits and services to the unemployed and inactive persons in Bulgaria.
- e) cooperation between employment services, social assistance directorates and municipalities focus on administrative functions and application of the rules rather than on improving integration into the labor market and promoting this market by focusing on the needs of specific target groups or difficult to resolve cases.
- f) fairly strict eligibility criteria contribute to the narrow scope of unemployment benefits as activation measures also reach difficult to those who do not receive any compensation.
 - the scope of unemployment is among the lowest in the EU, more than three times lower than the EU average (9.4% versus 30%).
 - the net replacement rate of income is very low after 12 months (13% compared to the EU average of 38%).
 - the percentage of unemployed poor people who do not receive benefits, is the third largest in the EU at 49%.
- g) low levels of coverage of unemployment benefits could partly be explained by changes in the composition of the unemployed population.
 - as the system of unemployment benefits is focused primarily on periods of unemployment up to one year and employees full-time, which had previously been provided, some groups of individuals, such as young people who have never been insured long-term unemployed persons and workers to part-time or seasonal workers not eligible for benefits. In turn, the lack of adequate income support for these groups puts much of unemployed high risk of poverty.

Education and skills

- a) improving the overall quality of education remains a challenge.
- b) the continuing disparities between demand and supply of skills in the labor market are related to substandard needs education and training.
- c) the participation of adults in lifelong learning in Bulgaria is the lowest in the EU
- d) there are significant challenges with regard to inclusive education in early childhood and inclusive schooling for disadvantaged children, especially children of Roma origin.

Social protection, poverty and social exclusion

- a) poverty and social exclusion remain a particular concern for Bulgaria, as well as high levels of income inequality.
 - Bulgarian citizens are still most at risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU (48% in 2013, which is almost twice the EU average of 24.5%).
 - the share of those at risk of poverty Roma (87%) and high levels of poverty and social exclusion among children (51.5% in 2013) and those aged over 65 years (57.6% in 2013 .).
 - in addition to high levels of poverty great material deprivation is an important factor in Bulgaria - 39.9% in 2013 (EU average: 10%).
 - the latest data also show an increase in income inequality by 0.5% between 2012 and 2013. As the share of
 - income of the top 20% is over six times higher than that of the bottom 20%, Bulgaria is among the Member States with the highest score on this indicator.
 - energy poverty is a particular problem, with 67% of the population limit heating during the winter due to lack of funds.
- b) an important reason for the high risk of poverty is the low efficiency of the social protection system.
 - the total amount of social protection expenditure amounted to 17.4% of GDP in 2012 (average for the EU-28: 29.0%).
 - level of coverage and adequacy of social transfers and the quality of social services and access to them is low.
 - much of the unemployed not covered by standard safeguards (unemployment benefits and social assistance) and rely more on help from family or unregulated employment.
 - job creation is key to reducing poverty and social exclusion.
 - need adequate income support and access to measures under active policies on the labor market.
- c) social assistance schemes continue to be ineffective with regard to support the inclusion of those furthest from the labor market.
- d) Bulgaria has not adopted (or mean) any measures or new legislation to increase the actual scope of social assistance or to increase the ties of social assistance to activation measures.
- e) Children continue to be at high risk of poverty and social exclusion
 - 51,5% in 2013, 46.3% of the population aged 0 to 17 years living in severe material deprivation.
 - the challenge of integrating Roma also persists.

- Roma are facing an extremely high risk of poverty and social exclusion (87%), which is only partially connected with unemployment by three-quarters of employed Roma suffer from in-work poverty.
- poverty among Roma is aggravated by the lack of basic living conditions.
- campaigns to combat discrimination, communication on the integration of Roma and monitoring and combating discrimination in the labor market are still underdeveloped.

National Report 2015 stresses that the policy challenges identified in the previous working document of the Commission services remain current. Bulgaria has made limited progress in meeting the specific recommendations in the development of labor market and social protection:

- limited progress has been made in improving the effectiveness of the Employment Agency and a better focus on the most vulnerable. A system for monitoring implementation.
- limited progress has been achieved in terms of extending and improving the effectiveness of active policies for the labor market in order to increase their ability to find workers with the appropriate profile due to the still poor orientation of policies.
- limited progress has been made with regard to measures aimed at unregistered young people neither employed nor in education or training. Mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the Youth Guarantee remain weak.
- limited progress has been made in improving the effective coverage of unemployment benefits and social assistance and their connections with activation measures. Planned project for the development of integrated services, but have not yet taken concrete steps in this regard.
- some actions have been undertaken to analyze the effects of raising the minimum thresholds, but no clear conclusions and follow-up policy.
- there has been no progress regarding the preparation of transparent guidelines for determining the minimum wage.
- limited progress has been made in improving the accessibility and efficiency of social transfers and services for children and the elderly.
- in terms of the objectives of the Strategy for inclusive, sustainable and smart growth, the findings are "limited progress" or "no progress".

The report confirms "notorious truths" about troubling issues and trends, justified by national realities, signaling once again that we need new approaches to implementation and monitoring of the planned strategic goals.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

In the development of the labor market in recent years, the policy focuses more active actions to support the restructuring of the workforce and increase its mobility. The predictability of economic developments and the effects on employment is not high and still remains within the short-term events, but not with an extended character. The development of models to predict the needs of the workforce is imperative for closer linking policy on the labor market with periodicity in the dynamics of the economy. Adequacy and modernity of policy are crucial for effective support of the changes in the parameters of the labor market and economic development. Reporting to the time delay effects and changes in its duration should not be overlooked in order to develop preventive measures for timely response. The shortening of the period in which the effects of the modern crisis are transferred to the labor market, respectively to the labor demand, reflects not only the degree of elasticity of the labor demand in relation to primary markets, but also the flexibility of the implemented policies. This fact brings in the focus of attention the flexibility of the labor markets and the opportunities (through its improvement) to enhance the mobility and the adaptability of the workforce to the rapidly changing labor demand.

The findings of the study lead to the formulation of recommendations for changes in the following areas:

- an integrated approach in the "regulation" of social and economic development;
- effective mechanisms for consultation and coordination of programs and measures;
- structural changes in the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy;
- focus of active policies on the labor market;
- changes in the education system.

Consideration of the features of economic development and the possible impacts on the labor market gradually becomes inseparable part of the process of policy making in the labor market.

The sensitivity of the labor market and its basic parameters will increase in the future and will be challenged by both the positives and negatives of cyclicity in economic development. The openness of the Bulgarian economy determines the effects of external influences and the ongoing reform process in the country presuppose additional internal impacts on the labor market. Policy efforts to increase the flexibility of the labor market should continue as they are an essential tool for softening the impacts and timely adjustments. The more flexible is the market, the higher will be its adaptability to internal and external influences and the smaller will be the negative consequences.

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Factors Affecting Consumers' Purchase Intention of Green Products

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to examine the factors that affect green purchase intention. Also this study examine whether there are differences in demographic variables for green purchase intention. Within the context of study, the data is obtained from an electronic survey applied to 760 customer. According to results of Regression Analysis green brand awareness, green brand trust, green brand image, green brand loyalty, green perceived value, green advertisement have significant and positive effect on consumers' green purchase intention. In the second part of the study data was analyzed based on mean differences tests (t-test and ANOVA) and it is found that consumers' green purchase intention shows significant differences by gender, marital status, age, education and income. In other words, female and married couples are tend to purchase green products more. And also, old, educated and high income consumers are more likely to purchase green products.

Keywords: Green Marketing, Consumer Behaviour, Purchase Intention, Regression Analysis

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been increasing emphasis on the environment in the world (Jian and Kaur, 2004, Delafrooz et al., 2014). People started to pay more attention to environmental issues due to the environmental pollution originating from manufacturing industry (Chen, 2011). This interest for the environment also affect their purchase decision and they are willingness to pay more for environmental friendly products (Kotler and Armstrong, 1999; Yazdanifard and Mercy, 2011). So many firms are more susceptible to accept environmental protection and produce green products for both to show they have social responsibility and to meet customers' needs (Lee, 2009; Dwyer, 2009; Kleshmi and Monsef, 2015). Emphasis on the environment and environmental products has led to the increased importance of the green marketing (Chen et al., 2006).

Green marketing is the process of producing products that do not harm the natural environment (Akbar et al., 2014) and it includes many activities such as product modification, changes in the packaging and production process as well as modifying advertising (Tiba et al., 2015). Consumers perform their green purchase behaviour as regards to benefits of the brands to the environment (Keskin and Yıldız, 2010). It is important for companies to satisfy their customers so if companies can produce environmental friendly products that meet customer's environmental concerns, they may be more favourable to their products (Chen, 2010). There are five reasons for companies to adopt green marketing 1) Evaluating green opportunities, 2) Enhance the image, 3) Raising product value, 4) Obtain competitive advantage, 5) Comply with environmental trends (Chen, 2008). Also green marketing can enhance customers' green purchase intention.

This study aim to investigate factors affecting consumers' green purchase intention. Although prior researches examine green marketing and green brand equity, there is lack of empirical studies about which factors effect green purchase intention among Turkish consumers. Prior studies have examined effects of green brand awareness, green brand trust, green perceived value, green brand image and green advertisement on green purchase intention but none of them examined green brand loyalty and also not have looked at all factors together. So this study would like to fill this gap in the literature.

2. Literature Review and Research Hypothesis

Green Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is defined as recognize the brand and being aware of the brand (Papu and Quester, 2006). Green brand awareness is to be aware of effects of the brand on environment (Rizwan et al., 2014). Chen ve Chang (2012a) stated that green brand awareness is an important dimension of brand equity. Related to green purchase intention many researchers found positive effect on consumers' green purchase intention (Mourad and Ahmed, 2012; Tariq, 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014; Doszhanov and Ahmad, 2015).

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₁: Green brand awareness has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Green Brand Image

Brand image is symbolic and functional perceptions kept in the mind of consumer (Dobni and Zinkham, 1990; Keller, 1993; Hsieh and Lindridge, 2005). Green brand image can be defined as perceptions and associations in consumer minds that are related to product's environmental commitments (Padget and Allen, 1997; Cretu and Brodie, 2007; Chen, 2010). When examining the literature (Mourad and Ahmed, 2012; Rizwan et al., 2014; Doszhanov and Ahmad, 2015; Saleem et al., 2015) stated that brands that perceived as green brand by consumers are more preferred.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₂: Green brand image has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Green Perceived Value

Perceived value that is defined consumer's evaluations of benefits of products and services (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Patterson and Spreng, 1997), indicated as an important and effective factor on purchase intention (Thaler, 1985). All studies in the literature (Chen and Chang, 2012b; Denghanan and Bakhshandeh, 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014; Akbar et al., 2014; Kleshafi and Monsef, 2015; Doszhanov and Ahmad, 2015) indicated that green perceived value has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₃: Green perceived value has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Green Brand Trust

Chen (2010: 309) defined green brand trust as "willingness to depend on product, service, or brand based on the belief or expectations resulting from its credibility, benevolence and ability about environmental performance". There are several studies related to effect of green brand trust. Chen (2010) found that green brand trust has positive effect on green brand equity. Also in literature brand trust indicated as an important determinant on consumer's purchase intentions (Garbarino and Johnson 1999; Schlosset et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2011). Harris and Goode (2010) stated that trust affect consumer purchase intentions. Supporting past literature (Chen and Chung, 2012b; Mourad and Ahmed, 2012; Rizwan et al, 2014; Akbar et al., 2014; Denghanan and Bakhshandeh, 2014; Kleshafi and Monsef, 2015; Saleem et al., 2015; Doszhanov and Ahmad, 2015) indicated that if consumers trust more to brand they will have more purchase intention.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₄: Green perceived value has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Green Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty is to buy a particular brand among alternative brands and to repeat this purchases (Aaker, 1991). Brand loyalty is so important for companies because having loyal consumers allows to obtain expected sales and profit (Çilingir and Yildiz, 2010). Chen (2013) defined green brand loyalty as level of repurchase intentions mobilised by environmental attitudes and commitments. In literature there are many studies examined the effect of brand loyalty on purchase intention (Jalilvand et al., 2011; Gowri,

2012; Malik et al., 2013; Roozy et al., 2014). All other studies except Gowri (2012), indicated that brand loyalty has important and positive effect on purchase intention.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₅: Green brand loyalty has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Green Advertisement

Green advertisements are the ads that direct consumers to buy products that do not harm environment (Rizwan et al., 2014). They attract consumers by green features and create environmental responsible image in the mind's of consumer (Banerjee et al., 1995; Ahuja, 2015). Richards (2013) stated that if brands that make green advertisements mentioned that products are reliable, affordable, healthy and environmentally beneficial, consumer will more prefer to buy green products and brands. To support this statement studies in literature indicated that green advertisement has positive effect on green purchase intentions (Zhu, 2013; Tariq, 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014; Ahuja, 2015)

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₆: Green advertisement has positive effect on green purchase intention.

Demographic Variables

In literature there are many studies examined relations between demographics and green purchase intention. Many of these studies stated that there are not significant relations between demographics and green purchase intention (Moon et al., 2002; Kim, 2002; Deng et al., 2006; D'Souza et al., 2006). In contrast to these studies many studies found significant relationship between demographics and purchase intention.

Table 1. Studies related to Demographics

Independent variable	Relationship	Studies
Age	Positive Negative	Balderjahn, 1988; Scotts and Willits, 1994; Roberts, 1996; Buttel, 1979
Gender	Female Male	Webster, 1975; Roberts, 1996 Arcury, 1990; Scotts and Willits, 1994
Education	Positive	Buttel and Fillin, 1976; Balderjahn, 1988; Arcury, 1990; Scotts and Willits, 1994; Roberts, 1996; Tilikodou, 2001
Income	Positive Negative	Webster, 1975; Balderjahn, 1988; Arcury, 1990; Scotts and Willits, 1994; Tilikodou, 2001 Roberts, 1996

Source: Tilikodou et al. (2007)

Besides this studies, according to Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) female and married couples are more likely to have pro-environmentally behaviour. Gilg et al. (2005) indicated that old consumers use green products more and Tsay (2010) found that old and low income consumers are more likely to purchase green products.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₇: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by demographic factors

H_{7a}: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by age

H_{7b}: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by gender

H_{7c}: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by education

H_{7d}: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by income

H_{7e}: Consumers' green purchase intention shows significant difference by marital status

3. Methodology

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of green brand awareness, green brand image, green brand loyalty, green perceived value, green brand trust and green advertisement on consumers' green purchase intention and contribute to the literature.

Research Model

For the purposes stated above, research model as shown in figure 1 was developed.

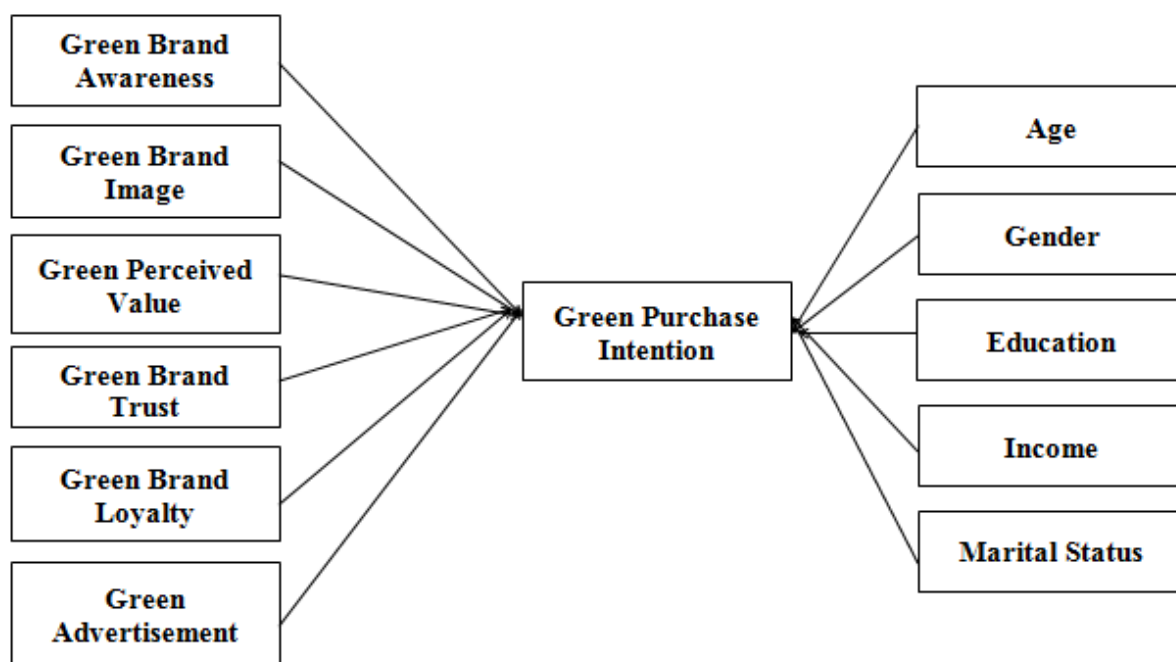


Figure 1. Research Model

Sample and Measure

The study used an online questionnaire to collect data and a total of 760 usable responses were collected. The questionnaire has two parts and first part included 12 constructs in the research model. Second part consists of questions to determine demographics. Items for each factors came from empirical studies in the literature and adapted to study. The scales were adapted from (Mourad and Ahmed, 2012; Chen and Chung, 2012a; Chen and Chung, 2012b; Akbar et al., 2014; Denghanon and Bakhshandeh, 2014; Tariq, 2014; Kleshafi and Monsef, 2015; Rizwan et al. 2015; Doszhanov and Ahmad, 2015). All questions were measured by five-point Likert scale. For instance, "1" expressed as strongly disagree, "2" expressed as disagree, "3", expressed as neutral, "4" expressed as strongly agree, "5" expressed as strongly agree. The second part of the questionnaire included demographic variables such as age, education, occupation and internet experience.

Data Analysis Method

In the concept of the study, firstly, reliability and validity analysis of the scale were performed, . To test the reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. For the adoption of the scale reliable, the calculated reliability coefficient must be over 0.70. The exploratory factor analysis was conducted to test the construct validity of the scale. To analyze the effects of factors on green purchase intention, Regression Analysis was used. Also to analyze whether consumer's green purchase intention shows significant difference by demographic factors test ANOVA was used.

4. Results

Demographic profiles of consumers is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Demographic Profile of Respondents

Variable		Count	Percent %
Gender	<i>Female</i>	408	53.7
	<i>Male</i>	352	46.3
Marital Status	<i>Married</i>	414	54.5
	<i>Single</i>	346	45.5
Education	<i>Elementary Education</i>	141	18.6
	<i>High School</i>	197	25.9
	<i>Under Graduate</i>	240	31.6
	<i>Graduate</i>	182	23.9
Income	<i>Under 1301 TL</i>	188	24.7
	<i>1301 – 2600 TL</i>	162	21.3
	<i>2601 – 3900 TL</i>	166	21.8
	<i>3901 – 5200 TL</i>	142	18.7
	<i>Upper 5200</i>	102	13.4
Age	<i>Under 18</i>	226	29.7
	<i>18-28</i>	185	24.3
	<i>29-39</i>	100	13.2
	<i>40-50</i>	166	21.8
	<i>Upper 50</i>	83	10.9
Occupational Status	<i>Puplic Employee</i>	160	21.1
	<i>Employee</i>	214	28.2
	<i>Self Employment</i>	182	23.9
	<i>Retired</i>	28	3.7
	<i>Housewife</i>	15	2.0
	<i>Student</i>	144	18.9
	<i>Others</i>	17	2.2
	Total	760	100

Results of Reliability and Validity Analysis

Table 3. Reliability Statistics for Scales of Research Model

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
GBI1	14,3053	14,083	,721	,820
GBI2	14,4066	13,844	,709	,822
GBI3	14,4039	14,049	,689	,827
GBI4	14,5000	13,763	,670	,832
GBI5	14,2842	13,901	,605	,850
Alpha: .859				N: 760
GPV1	9,8118	9,376	,702	,795
GPV2	9,5197	8,845	,713	,790
GPV3	9,5421	9,155	,664	,812
GPV5	9,6329	9,711	,649	,817
Alpha: .845				N: 760
GBT1	14,8789	12,626	,720	,796
GBT2	14,8421	12,958	,684	,806
GBT3	14,6632	13,441	,695	,804
GBT4	14,7342	13,945	,637	,819
GBT5	15,0184	13,860	,542	,845
Alpha: .846				N: 760
GBL1	10,3974	8,190	,625	,762
GBL2	10,3842	8,390	,639	,755
GBL3	10,3947	8,476	,617	,766
GBL4	10,1605	8,467	,625	,762
Alpha: .809				N: 760
GAD1	7,0763	3,528	,488	,578
GAD2	7,1303	3,557	,481	,588
GAD3	7,2303	3,614	,491	,575
Alpha: .674				N: 760
GBA1	12,9158	16,660	,655	,901
GBA2	13,4289	14,938	,818	,867
GBA3	13,7763	15,610	,748	,882
GBA4	13,8421	15,016	,784	,874
GBA5	13,0421	15,471	,775	,876
Alpha: .902				N: 760
GPI1	10,6763	6,670	,645	,710
GPI2	10,7395	7,002	,631	,718
GPI3	10,5303	7,704	,545	,761
GPI4	10,3579	7,453	,565	,751
Alpha: .788				N: 760

(GBI: Green brand image; GPV: Green perceived value, GBT: Green brand trust, GBL: Green brand loyalty, GAD: Green advertisement, GBA: Green brand awareness, GPI: Green purchase intention)

As seen in table 3, alpha coefficients of the scales (Green brand image, Green brand perceived value, Green brand trust, Green brand loyalty, Green advertisement, Green brand awareness, Green purchase intention) are 0,859- 0,845- 0,846-0,809-0,674-0,902-0,788. Only one item deleted from green perceived value scale. Alpha coefficients of the green perceived value was 0,742 before GPV3 item deleted. After the item deleted the alpha is increased to 0,845.

Table 4. Total Variance Explained for Scales of Research Model

Item	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Std. Loading
	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative	
GBI1	3,223	64,454	64,454	3,223	64,454	64,454	,834
GBI2	,604	12,071	76,525				,829
GBI3	,491	9,824	86,349				,814
GBI4	,350	7,001	93,350				,793
GBI5	,332	6,650	100,000				,741
KMO: 0,847				Bartlett's Test: 1661,591 p: 0,000			
GPV1	2,734	68,359	68,359	2,734	68,359	68,359	,842
GPV2	,502	12,553	80,912				,850
GPV3	,436	10,888	91,800				,813
GPV5	,328	8,200	100,000				,802
KMO: 0,806				Bartlett's Test: 1232,845 p: 0,000			
GBT1	3,114	62,288	62,288	3,114	62,288	62,288	,840
GBT2	,674	13,488	75,775				,813
GBT3	,545	10,905	86,680				,819
GBT4	,395	7,909	94,589				,775
GBT5	,271	5,411	100,000				,690
KMO: 0,822				Bartlett's Test: 1588,254 p: 0,000			
GBL1	2,546	63,651	63,651	2,546	63,651	63,651	,797
GBL2	,515	12,873	76,524				,808
GBL3	,493	12,326	88,850				,790
GBL4	,446	11,150	100,000				,797
KMO: 0,802				Bartlett's Test: 941,350 p: 0,000			
GAD1	1,817	60,577	60,577	1,817	60,577	60,577	,780
GAD2	,599	19,977	80,554				,773
GAD3	,583	19,446	100,00				,782
KMO: 0,665				Bartlett's Test: 343,390 p: 0,000			
GBA1	3,596	71,911	71,911	3,596	71,911	71,911	,769
GBA2	,535	10,701	82,612				,892
GBA3	,390	7,791	90,403				,842
GBA4	,252	5,038	95,440				,869
GBA5	,228	4,560	100,000				,862
KMO: 0,862				Bartlett's Test: 2379,736 p: 0,000			
GPI1	2,446	61,148	61,148	2,446	61,148	61,148	,821
GPI2	,709	17,724	78,872				,809
GPI3	,504	12,598	91,470				,739
GPI4	,341	8,530	100,000				,757
KMO: 0,732				Bartlett's Test: 915,889 p: 0,000			

Factor analysis used to determine the validity of the scale of research and as seen in table 4, as a result of analysis of the validity located scale of research, there is no item deleted from scale.

Mean Differences Tests (t-test and ANOVA)

Results of t-Test

t-test was used to explore whether consumer's green purchase intention shows differences by gender and marital status. Results of t-test are shown in table 5 and table 6.

Table 5. Differences Between Consumers According to Gender

	Groups	N	Xmean	SD	t	F	p-Value
Green Purchase Intention	Female	408	4.2475	.630	28.926	14.964	.000
	Male	352	2.8750	.676	28.779		

In table 5, we can see the results of t-test that explore whether consumers' green purchase intention by gender and marital status shows a significant differences. According to the results of t-test that used to test H_{7b}, consumers' green purchase intention shows differences by gender [$t_{(760)} = 28,926$, $p < 0,05$]. Result of the current study validates H_{7b}. According to these results, female are more likely to purchase green products than male.

Table 6. The Differences Between Consumers According to Marital Status

	Groups	N	Xmean	SD	t	F	p-Value
Green Purchase Intention	Married	414	4.1812	.684	24.129	12.012	.001
	Single	346	2.9306	.742	23.953		

Similarly in table 6, we can see the results of t-test based on marital status. According to the results of t-test that used to test H_{7e}, consumers' green purchase intention shows differences by marital status [$t_{(760)} = 24,129$, $p < 0,05$]. Result of the current study validates H_{7e}. According to these results, married couples purchase green products more than single.

Results of ANOVA

ANOVA was used to test whether consumer's green purchase intention shows differences by education level, income and age. Results of t-test are shown in table 7, table 8 and table 9.

Table 7. The Differences Between Consumers According to Education Level

Variable	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference *
Green Purchase Intention	Elementary Education (1)	141	2.7376	.723	133.320	.0000	1-2, 1-3
	High School (2)	197	3.4467	.965			1-4, 2-3
	Under Graduate (3)	240	3.6417	.735			2-4, 3-4
	Graduate (4)	182	4.4286	.568			
	Total	760	3.6118	.945			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 7, there are significant differences in the green purchase intention of consumers' by education level ($p < 0,05$). Result of the current study validates H_{7c}. According to ANOVA results, average of distributions of consumer's green purchase intention by education level are as follows: elementary education, 2,73; high school, 3,44; under graduate, 3,64; graduate, 4,42. So, it means that consumers who have high education level are more likely to purchase green products.

Table 8. The Differences Between Consumers According to Income

Variable	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference *
Green Purchase Intention	Under 1301TL (1)	188	2.8032	.661	68.550	.0000	1-2, 1-3
	1301 – 2600 TL (2)	162	3.6728	.862			1-4, 1-5
	2601 – 3900 TL (3)	166	3.9458	.825			2-3, 2-4
	3901 – 5200 TL (4)	142	4.1197	.745			4-5
	Upper 5200 (5)	102	3.7549	1.018			
	Total	760	3.6118	.945			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 8, there are significant differences in the green purchase intention of consumers' by income ($p < 0,05$). Result of the current study validates H7d. According to ANOVA results, average of distributions of consumer's green purchase intention by income level are as follows: average of under 1301, 2,80; average of between 1301-2600, 3,67; average of between 2601-3900, 3,94; average of between 3901-5200, 4,11 and average of upper 5200, 3,75. So, it means that consumers who have high income level are more likely to purchase green products.

Table 9. The Differences Between Consumers According to Age

Variable	Groups	N	\bar{X}_{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference *
Green Purchase Intention	Under 18(1)	226	2.8673	.660	201.393	.0000	
	18-28 (2)	185	3.1514	.728			1-2, 1-3
	29-39 (3)	100	4.2800	.620			1-4, 1-5
	40-50 (4)	166	4.3133	.621			2-3, 2-4
	Upper 50 (5)	83	4.4578	.610			2-5
	Total	760	3.6118	.945			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 9, there are significant differences in the green purchase intention of consumers' by age ($p < 0,05$). Result of the current study validates H7a. According to ANOVA results, average of distributions of consumer's green purchase intention by age groups are as follows: average of under 18, 2,86; average of between 18-28, 3,15; average of between 29-39, 4,28; average of between 40-50, 4,31 and average of upper 50, 3,61. So, it means that young consumers are not likely to purchase green products. In other words, with age, consumers more likely to purchase green products.

Results of Regression Analysis

In this study effects of green brand awareness, green brand image, green perceived value, green brand loyalty, green brand trust and green advertisement on green purchase intention are tested by regression analysis and results are shown in table 10.

Table 10. Linear Regression Results for Green Purchase Intention

Factor	B	S.E.	β	t	p-Value
Constant	,236	,086		2,748	,006
F1-Green Brand Awareness (GBA)	,103	,021	,121	4,889	,000
F2-Green Brand Image (GBI)	,294	,024	,338	12,221	,000
F3-Green Perceived Value (GPV)	,093	,017	,110	5,323	,000
F4- Green Brand Trust (GBT)	,043	,021	,047	2,004	,045
F5- Green Brand Loyalty (GBL)	,330	,023	,378	14,401	,000
F6- Green Advertisement (GAD)	,101	,022	,107	4,570	,000
R ² : 0,732 F: 345,983			Durbin-Watson: 1,818 p: 0,000		

According to regression analysis results all factors have significant and positive effect on green purchase intention. B in table 10 shows the non-standardized partial regression coefficients and gradient of the variables in formula. Looking at the B, 1 unit increase in the green brand awareness, lead to increase 0,103 unit in the green purchase intention. Similarly for other factors 1 unit increase in green brand image, green perceived value, green brand trust, green brand loyalty and green advertisement, lead to increase respectively (0,294), (0,093), (0,043), (0,330) and (0,101) unit. β is the standardized regression coefficients and allows interpretation of the relative order importance related to dependent variable. According to β , green brand loyalty (0,378) is the most important factor affecting the purchase intention. Other factors are; green brand image (0,338), green brand awareness (0,121), green perceived value (0,110), green advertisement (0,107), green brand trust (0,047). R² is 73,2% and it means that independent variables explain the 73,2% of green purchase intention.

According to the results in the table, regression equation is as follows:

$$GPI = .0,236 + 0,121GBA + 0,338GBI + 0,119GPV + 0,047GBT + 0,378GBL + 0,107GAD$$

As shown in table 10 and the regression equation all factors positively affect green purchase intention. So, all hypothesis are supported in this study.

5. Conclusion

Paralleling with the development of environmental issues in the world, consumers began to give more importance to environmental products and become willing to purchase green products. So green marketing became an indispensable concept for companies. They began to develop environmentally oriented strategies and policies. Although prior researches explore the factors affecting green purchase intention, there has been no study exploring the effects of green awareness, green image, green perceived value, green trust, green loyalty and green advertisement on green purchase intention in Turkey. In order to fill this gap, this study used green awareness, green image, green perceived value, green trust, green loyalty and green advertisement and developed a research model.

This study explores the effects of green awareness, green image, green perceived value, green brand trust, green brand loyalty and green advertisement on green purchase intention. Also it is examined whether there are differences by demographic variables for green purchase intention. According to the t-test and ANOVA results, there are differences in consumers' green purchase intention by demographic variables. t-test results show that female and married couples are more likely to purchase green products than male and single. These findings support the findings of Webster (1975); Roberts (1996); Diamantopoulos et al. (2003). Also ANOVA results show that there are significant differences for income, education and age. In other words, educated, high-income and old consumers use green products more.

According to regression analysis results all factors have significant and positive effect on consumer's green purchase intention. All hypothesis supported in this study are supported. Findings of this study indicated that green loyalty is the most effective factor on green purchase intention. Many studies in the literature found that brand loyalty affects purchase intention and the results of this study support the findings of Jalilvand et al., (2011); Malik et al., (2013); Roozy et al., (2014).

The results show that the second most important factor that affects green purchase intention is green image. It means that brands perceived as green brand by consumers are more preferred. These findings support the findings of (Mourad ve Ahmed, 2012; Rizwan et al., 2014; Doszhanov ve Ahmad, 2015; Saleem et al., 2015).

Also, regression analysis results indicated that green awareness, green advertisement, green perceived value and green trust have positive effect on green purchase intention. All these findings support the results of Mourad and Ahmed (2012); Tariq (2014); Rizwan et al., (2014); Doszhanov ve Ahmad (2015) who indicate that awareness of consumers about the effects of the brand on environment affects their intention to purchase green products. Also Zhu (2013); Tariq (2014); Rizwan et al., (2014) and Ahuja, (2015) found that green advertisement has positive effect on green purchase intentions. To support this study finding Chen and Chung (2012b); Mourad ve Ahmed (2012); Rizwan et al., (2014); Akbar et al., (2014); Denghanan and Bakhshandeh (2014); Kleshafi and Monsef, (2015); Saleem et al., (2015); Doszhanov and Ahmad (2015) indicated that the higher the trust brand, will be high on the intention of buying. To support the effect of green perceived value on consumers' green purchase intention Chen and Chang, (2012b); Denghanan and Bakhshandeh (2014); Rizwan et al., (2014); Akbar et al., (2014); Kleshafi and Monsef (2015); Doszhanov and Ahmad (2015) indicated that if brand perceived value is high, consumers are more likely to purchase green products.

If companies want to enhance their green purchase intentions for their products, first they should increase customer loyalty and create positive image by fulfilling environmental commitment and showing that they care about the environment. Second, companies should enhance awareness of consumers related to their products and use green advertisement to direct consumers to buy their products that do not harm environment. In this direction, they should use more advertisements and promotions and state in these ads that they care about environmental issues. Third, companies should maintain marketing strategies to

create a higher perceived value for their products. And also they should increase green trust of consumers.

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Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışlarının Algılanan Performansa Etkisi: Havayollarında Bir Uygulama

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Özet: Bu çalışma Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışlarının algılanan performans üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma kapsamında havacılık sektöründe çalışan 91 kişiden elde edilen veriler hiyerarşik regresyon analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Araştırma sonuçları örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının algılanan performans üzerinde etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Performans, örgütsel vatandaşlık, havayolu

The Effects of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour on Perceived Performance: A Research on Airlines

Abstract: This study aims to search either there is an effect of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on perceived performance. The data was gathered from 91 people from aviation sector. The data was analyzed using hierarchical regression analysis. Result showed that there was an effect of both human resource management processes and organizational learning on the perceived performance. Besides, organizational learning had a mediator effect on the relationship between human resource management processes and perceived performance.

Key Words: Performance, organizational citizenship, airliner.

1. Giriş

Çalışanların ve organizasyonun performansını arttırmak günümüzde işletmelerin temel amaçlarından biridir. Organizasyonlar ancak bu şekilde ayakta kalabileceklerinin ve diğer işletmelerle rekabet edebileceklerinin farkındadırlar. Rekabet ortamında ayakta kalabilmek, insan kaynağının sürekli olarak beslenmesi ve geliştirilmesi ile mümkündür. Bu anlamda performans ölçümü ve alınan geri bildirimler çalışma hayatında işletmeler açısından hayati önem taşır. Bu nedenle performans uzun yıllardır ilgi çeken bir konu olmakla ve her geçen gün önemini arttırmaktadır. Bunun yanında ise, performans ölçütleri de hızla değişmekte ve farklı başlıklar altında ele alınmaktadır. Günümüzde bireysel performansın artırılması genel olarak örgütsel performansın artmasını sağlamaktadır. Organizasyon performansı da ön plana çıkarmıştır. Bunun sonucu olarak performans ile ilgili yapılan araştırmalarda da bu yönde bir artış gözlenmektedir.

Örgütsel vatandaşlık konusu çalışanların kendilerinden görev tanımları içinde bulunmayan davranışları örgüt yararına gerçekleştirmesidir. Bu davranışların örgütler için ekstra bir maliyet yaratmadan birçok faydalı sonuçlar sağlayabilmektedir. Gönüllülük, diğerkâmlık, sadakat ve yardım etme gibi davranışlarla karakterize edilen ÖVD, örgütlerin performansının, etkililiğinin ve verimliliğinin artırılmasında etkili bir davranış olarak değerlendirilmektedir (Organ, 1988).

Bu temel düşünceden şekillenen bu çalışmada, havayolu işletmelerinde çalışanlardan toplanan veriler ışığında, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının, algılanan performansı nasıl etkilediği araştırılmıştır.

2. Literatür ve Hipotezler

2.1. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık ve Algılanan Performans

Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları kavramı ilk olarak Smith ve arkadaşları (1983) tarafından kullanılmış ve “örgüt çalışanlarının diğer kişilere yardım etme veya örgütü destekleme gibi biçimsel rollerinin ötesine geçen isteğe bağlı davranışları” olarak tanımlanmıştır. Organ (1988) ise bu davranışları, ödül ve terfi süreçlerinde değerlendirilmeye alınmayan, kişilerin herhangi bir ödül beklentisi olmadan sergilediği rol ötesi davranışlar biçiminde görmektedir.

Bu davranışlar araştırmacılar tarafından, performans, rol davranışları veya kişiler arası ilişkiler odaklı bakış açılarının bir sonucu olarak farklı biçimlerde adlandırılmaktadır. ÖVD, diğerlerinin hatalarına tepki vermede duyarlı olma, problemleri diğerleri ile tartışma, işleri zamanında bitirme, diğerlerine işlerinde gönüllü olarak yardımcı olma gibi rol ötesindeki olumlu davranışları içerebilmektedir (Kidwell ve diğ.).

Alanyazın incelendiğinde, ÖVD konusunda ilk boyutlandırma çalışmalarını yapan Organ (1988)'in diğerkâmlık, nezaket, vicdanlılık, sivil erdem ve centilmenlik olmak üzere 5 boyutlu bir tanımlama yaptığı görülmektedir. Bazı başka araştırmalarda farklı boyutlandırmaların yapıldığı, son dönemde ise iki boyutlu (Williams ve Anderson, 1991) ve tek boyutlu (Hoffman ve diğ., 2007) ÖVD boyutlandırmalarının da kullanıldığı görülmektedir.

Performans ve performans değerlendirme, günümüzde işletmeler açısından vazgeçilmez unsurların başında gelmektedir. İşletmeler varlıklarını sürdürebilmek, insan kaynağını nasıl ve ne şekilde verimli kullanmanın ve performans değerlendirmenin çeşitli yollarını araştırmakta ve uygulamaktadırlar. Kişisel anlamda da performansı arttırmak özellikle şirketler açısından çok önemlidir. Bunun yanında işletmeler açısından olduğu kadar kişisel kariyer gelişimi açısından performansın arttırılması gerekmektedir. Çalışanların gönüllü olarak örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı sergilemesinin performans göstergesi olup olmadığı araştırmanın önemli bir yanını oluşturmaktadır.

Bu çalışmada özellikle yöneticilerin gözlem yoluyla çalışanların performanslarını arttırmada çalışanlardan örgütsel vatandaşlık ve dolayısıyla örgüte bağlılıklarını ölçme hususunda öneriler sunmaktadır. Bu anlamda literatüre katkısının yanında çalışanların değerlendirilmesinde katkılar sunacağı düşünülmektedir.

H1: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın nezaket boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler.

H2: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın vicdanlılık boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler.

H3: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın sivil erdem boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler.

H4: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın centilmenlik boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler.

3. Metodoloji

3.2. Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarının performans üzerindeki etkisini havacılık sektöründe inceleyerek ortaya koymaktır. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarından bireye yönelik ve örgüte yönelik olanlardan hangilerinin ne oranda performansı etkilediğinin tespit edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Bunun yanında algılanan performansı arttırmaya yönelik stratejiler ve zamanı yönetme konusunda çözüm önerileri getirilmiştir.

3.3. Örnek ve Veri Toplama

Çalışma İstanbul'da yer alan havayollarında çalışan toplam 91 kişiye uygulanmıştır. Örneklem belirlenirken kolayda örnekleme metodu kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada, mevcut problem, bu problemle ilgili durumlar, değişkenleri ve değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler belirlenmiştir. Bu şekliyle araştırmanın modeli, belirli değişkenler ve de değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilerin ifade edilmeye çalışıldığı "tanımlayıcı araştırma" modeline uymaktadır. Tanımlayıcı araştırmalar, bilinen bir durum ya da olayla ilgili çeşitli değişkenlerin özelliklerini ortaya koyma amacı taşır. Çalışmanın hazırlanmasında ampirik yöntem tercih edildiğinden soruları cevaplandırmak veya varsayımları sınamak için gerekli veriler anket tekniği ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmada teorik bölümün hazırlanmasında ikincil kaynaklardan yararlanılmıştır. Toplanan veriler, SPSS 21 programında istatistiksel analizler uygulanarak irdelenmiştir.

3.3.1. Ölçekler

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık: Vey/Campbell(2004) ve Williams/Shiaw(1999)'ın çalışmalarından yararlanılarak hazırlanan Basım-Şeşen (2006) tarafından Türkçeleştirilmiş ve uyarlaması yapılmış 19 maddeli bir ölçektir.

Katılımcılardan, ölçeğe belirtilen ifadelerle hangi düzeyde katıldıklarını beşli Likert ölçeği üzerinde (1-Hiçbir Zaman; 5-Her Zaman) aralığında işaretlemeleri istenmiştir. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği .72 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Algılanan Performans: İkinci veri toplama aracı ise Çöl tarafından oluşturulan (2008) uyarlanan , 4 ifadeden oluşan ve tek boyut olarak oluşturulan performans ölçeğidir.

3.3.2. Ölçeklerin Geçerlilik ve Güvenilirlik Sonuçları

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık ile Performans ilişkisi için geliştirilen hipotezlerin test edilmesi için verilerin normallik dağılımı incelenmiş ve parametrik testlerin yapılmasına karar verilmiştir. Bu doğrultuda; Pearson korelasyon analizi, regresyon analizlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Ayrıca Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Ölçeği anketindeki boyutlara yönelik olarak faktör analizi yapılmış ve Cronbach Alpha güvenilirlik değerleri hesaplanmıştır. KMO örneklem uygunluğunun test sonucu 0,647 olarak bulunmuş ve Barlett küresellik testi de anlamlı sonuçlar vermiştir. (anlamlılık düzeyi $p:0,000<0,001$).

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık ölçeğinin cronbach alfa değeri 0.74, performans ölçeğinin ise ,763 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu değerler Güvenirlik sınırları içerisinde.

3.4. Analizler ve Sonuçlar

3.4.1. Anket Uygulamasına Katılanlar ile İlgili Demografik Bulgular

Araştırmamıza katılanların 79'u erkek (%83) ve 12'si (%13) kadındır. Katılımcıların 8'inin yaşları 18-24 yaş arasında (%8,0), 25'inin 25-34 yaş arasında (%28), 45'inin 35-44 yaş arasında(%50) ve 11'inin 45-54 yaş arasında (%12) ve 2'sinin 55 yaş ve üstündedir(%2).

Katılımcıların 21'ünün çalışma süresi 1-5 yıl arasında(%23), 13'ünün 6-10 yıl arasında(%14), 30'sinin 11-15 yıl arasında (%33), 14'sinin 16-20 yıl arasında (%15) ve 13'ünün 21 yıl ve üzerindedir(%14).

3.4.2. Tanımlayıcı İstatistik ve Korelasyon Analizi Sonuçları

Bu kısımda, araştırma boyutlarına ilişkin tanımlayıcı istatistik (aritmetik ortalama ve standart sapma) sonuçları ve korelasyon değerleri sunulmuştur.

Tablo 1. Korelasyon sonuçları

Factor	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Performans	4.05	.631	1				
2. Nezaket	3.84	.699	.276**	1			
3. Vicdanlılık	3.96	.076	.214*	.236**	1		
4. Sivil Erdem	2.93	.951	.343**	.162	.098	1	
5. Centilmenlik	4.00	.601	.149	.331**	.305**	.252*	1

* $p<0,05$ ** $p<0,01$

Performans boyutunun ortalama skor 4,05 (std. sapma: ,631) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değer, çalışanların performans ile ilgili ifadelerde "Katılım" şeklindeki yanıtı yakın bir değerlendirmede bulunduklarını göstermektedir. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık değişkeninin boyutlarından biri olan "Nezaket'e" ait ortalama skor 3,84 (std. sapma: ,69) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değer, çalışanların nezaket ile ilgili ifadelerde "Çoğunlukla" şeklindeki yanıtı yakın bir değerlendirmede bulunduklarını göstermektedir. Vicdanlılık boyutuna ait ortalama skor 3,96 (std. sapma: ,76) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değer, çalışanların Vicdanlılık ile ilgili ifadelerde "Çoğunlukla" şeklindeki yanıtı yakın bir değerlendirmede bulunduklarını göstermektedir. Sivil Erdem boyutuna ait ortalama skor 2,93 (std. sapma: 0,951) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değer, Sivil Erdem ile ilgili ifadelerde "Zaman zaman" şeklindeki yanıtı yakın bir değerlendirmede bulunduklarını göstermektedir. Centilmenlik boyutuna ait ortalama skor 4,00 (std. sapma: 0,601) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu değer, Centilmenlik ile ilgili ifadelerde "Çoğunlukla" şeklindeki yanıtı yakın bir değerlendirmede bulunduklarını göstermektedir.

Araştırmada incelenen iki değişken arasındaki ilişkinin test edildiği korelasyon analizi sonucunda;

Korelasyon analizi incelendiğinde, “Performans” ile “Nezaket” arasında korelasyon değeri 0,276 (anlamlılık düzeyi:0,000<0,10); “Vicdanlılık” korelasyon değeri 0.214 (anlamlılık düzeyi:0,000<0,10) ve “sivil erdem” korelasyon değeri 0.343 (anlamlılık düzeyi:0,000<0,05) boyutları arasında anlamlı pozitif yönlü ilişkiler olduğu görülmektedir.

3.4.3. Regresyon Analizi Sonuçları

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarının, performansı üzerinde anlamlı olarak ne kadar etkili olduğunu test etmek üzere hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Regresyon analizi yapılırken Örgütsel Vatandaşlık değişkenlerinin boyutları denkleme dâhil edilerek etkileri ayrı ayrı ele alınmış, açıklanan varyansa bakılmıştır. Regresyon analizi sonuçları Tablo-2’de sunulmuştur.

Tablo 2. Regresyon Analizi Sonucu

	Algılanan Performans (β)
Nezaket	.205*
Vicdanlılık	.148
Sivil Erdem	.305**
Centilmenlik	-.041
ΔR^2	.432
ΔF	4.936***

*p<0,05 **p<0,01 ***p<0,001

Bu sonuçlar ışığında kabul ve reddedilen hipotezler aşağıda belirtilmiştir:

- H1: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın nezaket boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler. Kabul edilmiştir
- H2: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın vicdanlılık boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler. Kabul edilmemiştir.
- H3: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın sivil erdem boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler. Kabul edilmiştir
- H4: Örgütsel vatandaşlığın centilmenlik boyutu performansı olumlu anlamda etkiler. Kabul edilmemiştir.

4. Sonuç

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarının performans üzerindeki etkisini havacılık sektöründe inceleyerek ortaya koymaktır. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarından bireye yönelik ve örgüte yönelik olanlardan hangilerinin ne oranda performansı etkilediğinin tespit edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık ile performans ilişkisi inceleyen araştırmamızda elde ettiğimiz sonuçlar Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışlarının iki boyutunun (nezaket ve sivil erdem) algılanan performans üzerinde etkili olduklarıdır. Araştırmamızdaki sonuçlar aşağıda detaylandırılmıştır.

Korelasyon analizlerinde elde edilen sonuçlar, algılanan performansın centilmenlik boyutu hariç örgütsel vatandaşlık alt boyutları ile pozitif yönlü ilişkilerin olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu beklenen bir sonuç olmakla birlikte tüm boyutlarda aynı sonuç elde edilmesi beklenmiştir.

Regresyon analizine göre algılanan performans üzerinde en etkili boyutlar nezaket ve sivil erdem olarak tespit edilmiştir. Kişisel performans bu anlamda örgütsel ve bireysel faktörlerle yakından ilişkilidir.

İki hipotez reddedilmekle birlikte daha geniş bir örnekleme yapılacak bir araştırmada bu sonucun elde edilebileceği değerlendirilmektedir.

Araştırma, değişkenleri ölçmek için geliştirilen ölçeklerle toplanan bilgilerle sınırlandırılmıştır.

Çalışanlar örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları sergilediklerinde örgüte bağlılık ve aidiyet duygusunun getirdiği motivasyonla kendilerini örgüte daha verimli bireyler olarak algılamaktadırlar. Örgüte sağladıkları her katkı onları her anlamda motive etmektedir. Havacılık sektöründe çalıştığı şirketi sahiplenme belki de alternatif şirket sayısının azlığı bu yönde bir motivasyonu sağlıyor olabilir. Bağlamsal performans kapsamında da zaman zaman değerlendirilen örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları, görev performansını da bu anlamda desteklemekte ve pozitif olarak etkilemektedir.

Nezaket başkalarının davranışlarını etkileyecek hareketler yapmadan onlara haber vermek olarak düşünülebilir. Sivil erdem ise örgütü etkileyen olaylarda çalışanların kendileri sorumlu hissetmeleri anlamına gelir ki havacılık sektöründe sorumluluk sadece bir kişide değil, herkes üzerindedir. Herkes birbirine sıkı sıkıya bağlı olmak ve güvenmek durumundadır.

Sonuç olarak örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları organizasyon ve bireysel anlamda performansı artırmaktadır. Ancak çalışma sınırlı sayıda çalışan ile yapılmıştır. Bu nedenle önümüzdeki dönemde yapılacak çalışmalarda daha çok örneklem üzerinde çalışmanın geliştirilmesi faydalı olacaktır.

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Sanayi İşletmelerinin Üretim Süreçlerinde Karşılaştıkları Sorunların Analizi: Tekirdağ İli Örneği

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Özet: Rekabetçi üstünlüğe sahip olmak sanayi işletmeleri açısından önemli bir konudur. Bunun gerçekleştirilmesi için maliyetlerin minimize edilmesi ve kabul edilebilir fiyatla rekabet edilebilmesi önemli olmaktadır. Ancak ürün kalitesinin de aynı oranda etkili olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu nedenle ARGE faaliyetlerine önem verilerek mevcut ürünlerin fonksiyonunun geliştirilmesi veya yeni ürünlerin işletmeler üzerindeki maliyet baskısını azaltması kalite ve nitelik kavramının öne çıkmasına yardımcı olmaktadır. Bu durum firmaya rekabet üstünlüğü getirecektir.

İşletmelerin rekabet üstünlüğünü kaliteli ve yeni ürünlerle daha kolay sağlayabileceği görülmektedir. Bunun için nitelikli işgücü ve kaliteli hammadde ve kaliteli ürün üretilebilmesi için tedarikçilerle yakın işbirliği yapılması gerektiği tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca kamu destekleri, üretim yönetimi, kurumsallaşma ve teknik bilgi ihtiyacının sürekli olarak sağlanması da bu konuda önem taşımaktadır.

Bu çalışma ile sanayi işletmelerinde rekabetçi üstünlüğe etki eden üretim süreçlerinde yaşanan sorunlar araştırılmıştır. Bu kapsamda Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan 1458 sanayi işletmesinden 92'sinin yöneticilerine anket yapılmıştır. Bunun sonucunda sanayi işletmeleri açısından en güncel ve önemli sorunların tedarikçilerle yaşanan sorunların ve nitelikli personel eksikliğinden kaynaklandığı ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sanayi işletmeleri, KOBİ, Teknik Bilgi, Kurumsallaşma, Verimlilik

Analysis of Problems Faced by Manufacturing Firms in Production Process: The Case of Tekirdağ

Abstract: Competitive advantage is an important aspect for industry companies. To achieve that objective, they have to minimize their costs, attain a fair and acceptable prices and produce high quality products. Therefore, improving usability of existing products, emphasize on Research&Development activities and emphasize on the qualification of new products could benefit companies by reducing the cost pressure which results in competitive advantage.

High quality products and new product innovations can improve competitive advantage. Hence to provide high quality raw materials and produce high quality products, it is important to have a close relationship with suppliers. In addition to that, skilled workforce is needed for active competitive advantage. Also it can be said that constantly providing the need for technical information, public support, production management and corporate governance could help bringing competitive advantage.

In this study, the manufacturing processes problems affecting the competitive advantage in the industrial companies have been investigated. Tekirdağ In this context, a survey has been conducted with 92 of industrial company managers in Tekirdağ. As a result, it has been found out that the most important and up-to-date issues industrial companies have to deal with are the lack of skilled workforce and problems with suppliers.

Keywords: industrial enterprises, SMEs, technical information, corporate governance, productivity.

1.Giriş

Türkiye'nin kuzeybatısında yer alan Tekirdağ ilinin, doğusunda İstanbul, batısında Edirne ve Çanakkale, kuzeyinde Kırklareli ile sınır komşusu olup Karadeniz ve Marmara Denizine kıyıları bulunmaktadır (TÜİK, 2013). İl, konumu itibarıyla önemli geçiş güzergahları üzerinde yer almaktadır.

Tekirdağ ili, merkez ilçe ile birlikte on bir ilçeden oluşmaktadır. Bunlar: Süleymanpaşa (Merkez), Çerkezköy, Çorlu, Hayrabolu, Malkara, Marmara Ereğlisi, Muratlı, Saray, Şarköy, Kapaklı, Ergene ilçeleridir

(Tekirdağ Ticaret ve Sanayi Odası, 2015). Büyükşehir statüsüne sahip Tekirdağ ilinin nüfusu, 2015 adrese dayalı kayıt sistemine (ADNK) göre toplam 937.910 kişidir. Nüfusun en kalabalık olduğu ilçeler sırasıyla Çorlu, Süleymanpaşa ve Çerkezköy'dür (TÜİK, 2015, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr>).

Tekirdağ ili, sanayi açısından önemli bir potansiyele sahiptir. Uzun yıllar bir tarım merkezi olarak hizmet eden il, özellikle 1970'lerde önemli bir sanayileşme hamlesi geçirmiştir. İstanbul'a yakın olması, önemli geçiş güzergahları üzerinde bulunması, lojistik açısından elverişli ve stratejik konumu ile Avrupa ile artan ekonomik ilişkiler sanayi kuruluşlarının ile kaymasına katkı sağlamıştır. Özellikle 1980'li yıllardan itibaren yaşanan iç ve dış göçler nedeniyle gelen nitelikli ve eğitilmiş nüfus bölgede nitelikli işgücü ihtiyacının karşılanmasına önemli katkılar sağlamıştır.

Gelişmiş bir sanayiye sahip Tekirdağ ili, toplam 13 Organize Sanayi Bölgesine sahip olup, bünyesinde yer alan ulusal ve uluslararası firmalar ile göz doldurmaktadır (www.osbbs.sanayi.gov.tr). Tekirdağ, gelişmiş sanayisi ve uluslararası firmaların içinde bulunduğu üretim tesisleriyle göz doldurmaktadır. Tekirdağ toplam işletmeler içerisinde %2'lik payla sanayisi gelişmiş onuncu il olarak üst sıralarda yer almaktadır. Marmara Bölgesi dikkate alındığında %3'lük sanayi payıyla İstanbul, Bursa ve Kocaeli'nden sonra dördüncü en büyük olarak dikkat çekmektedir. Ülke genelinde tekstilin % 10'u, margarinin %25'i, rafine ayçiçeği yağının %20'si, kağıt ve ambalajın %40'ı, işlenmiş derinin %37'si bu ilden karşılanmaktadır. İldeki kuruluşlar kendi sektörlerinde marka konumda olan büyük işletmelerdir. Özellikle son yirmi yıl içerisindeki gelişmelerle birlikte Tekirdağ, adeta Türkiye'nin tekstil, gıda, toprak, beyaz eşya gibi alanlarda üretim üssü haline gelmiştir (Trakya Kalkınma Ajansı, 2012).

Tekirdağ ilinde toplam 1458 firma bulunmaktadır. Bunun 353'ü Çerkezköy, 723'ü Çorlu, 122'si Tekirdağ ili Merkez ilçesinde bulunmaktadır. Bunun dışında diğer ilçelere de dağılmıştır. Bu işletmelerden bazıları Türkiye'nin önde gelen kuruluşları arasında olup ulusal ve uluslararası düzeyde faaliyet göstermektedir (Anonim, 2015).

Hızlı sanayileşme bölgeye önemli bir nüfusun toplanmasına ve ilde yapılan kamu yatırımlarının artmasına neden olmuştur. Sanayileşme ilin demografik yapısı ile birlikte birçok önemli yapısını değiştirmiştir. Bu gelişmeler sonucunda Tekirdağ ili, Kalkınma Bakanlığı tarafından gerçekleştirilen "İllerin ve Bölgelerin Sosyo-Gelişmişlik Sıralaması (SEGE-2011)" raporuna göre, Türkiye'nin ekonomik ve sosyal gelişmişlik açısından 9. ili olmuştur (Tekirdağ Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2015).

Trakya Bölgesi'nde son 50 yılda tarım yanında sanayi ve hizmet sektörlerinde yaşanan hızlı gelişmeler altyapı ve inşaat sektörünü de olumlu yönde etkilemiştir.

Tekirdağ'da tarım ve sanayi sektöründe yaşanan gelişmeler hizmet sektörünü de olumlu etkilemiştir. Nüfus artışına paralel olarak ihtiyaçların artması başta bankacılık, otel, restoran, sigortacılık vb. olmak üzere benzeri hizmet sektöründe faaliyet gösteren işletmelerin sayısının hızla artmasına neden olmuştur.

Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan sanayi işletmelerinde yaşanan teknolojik gelişmeler daha rekabetçi bir piyasanın ortaya çıkmasına neden olmuştur. Özellikle aynı sektörde faaliyet gösteren işletmeler arasında fiyat ve kalite merkezli bir rekabet söz konusudur. İşletmeler fiyat rekabeti yapabilmek için üretimde verimlilik ilkelerine uygun olarak üretim yapmaya başlamışlardır. Verimliliği dikkate almayan işletmeler rekabete uzun süre dayanamayacakları için pazarlarını kaybederek zor durumda kalabilirler. Son yıllarda işletmeler verimlilik ilkelerini dikkate almaya başlamışlardır. Bu nedenle birim üretim maliyetlerinde düşüşler sağlanmıştır.

Ancak bazı işletmeler hammadde temini konusunda en uygun ve ucuz ulaşım yollarını kullanarak maliyeti düşürmeye çalışmaktadır. Örneğin Tekirdağ ilinin İstanbul'a yakın olması ve Tekirdağ'da limanların bulunması lojistik maliyetlerinin düşmesine yardımcı olmaktadır.

2. İşletmelerin Üretim Aşamasında Karşılaştığı Sorunlar

İşletmeler; faaliyet türlerine göre hammadde temininden nihai ürüne kadar geçen süreçte çeşitli sorunlarla karşılaşmaktadırlar. Özellikle otomasyon sisteminin yeterince işlemediği sistemlerde ve üretim bantlarında çeşitli kayıp ve kaçaklar söz konusu olabilmektedir. Bu nedenle girişimcilerin üretim aşamasındaki süreçlerin organizasyonunu çok iyi koordine etmeleri gerekmektedir.

Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan sanayi işletmelerin yöneticileri tarafından üretim aşamasında karşılaşılan sorunların başında, personelden kaynaklanan sorunların geldiği belirtilmiş olup bu işletmelerin oranı %41,33 olarak bulunmuştur. Hammadde yetersizliğinden kaynaklanan sorunların oranı ise %32,00 olup, bunu üçüncü sırada montaj aşamasında yaşanan sorunların izlediği görülmektedir. Bunların oranının da %21,34 olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bunların dışında azda olsa %2,67'si hatalı ürün, %1,33'ü tedarikçiden ve %1,33'ü personel yetersizliğinden kaynaklanan sorunlar yer almaktadır. (Tablo 1).

Tablo 1: İşletmelerin Üretim Aşamasında Karşılaştığı Sorunlar

Karşılaşılan Sorunlar	İşletme Sayısı	Oran(%)
Hammadde Yetersizliği	24	32,00
Montajda Yaşanan Sorunlar	16	21,34
Personelden Kaynaklanan Sorunlar	31	41,33
Hatalı Ürün	2	2,67
Tedarikçiden Kaynaklanan Sorunlar	1	1,33
Personel Yetersizliği	1	1,33
Toplam	75	86,1

Burada en önemli konu sektörlerin yaptığı iş konusunda mesleki eğitimi ve yeterliliği olan nitelikli personel bulmada yaşanan sorunlardır. Bunun dışında işletmelerin yeterli ve nitelikli hammadde temininde de güçlüklerle karşılaştığı görülmektedir. Ayrıca bazen üretim bantlarında çeşitli sorunlar yaşandığı da ifade edilmiştir.

3.İşletmelerin Kalite Kontrolünde Karşılaşılan Hatalı Ürün Tespiti

Tablo 2'de görüldüğü gibi, Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan sanayi işletmelerinin %77,33'ünde çok sık olmasa da kalite kontrol noktasında hatalı ürün tespit edildiği ifade edilmiştir. Nadir olarak hatalı ürün görülen işletme oranı ise %22,67 çıkmıştır. Ancak ankete katılan işletmeler içerisinde hiç hatalı ürün görülmeyen işletme tespit edilmemiştir.

Tablo 2: İşletmelerin Kalite Kontrolünde Hatalı Ürün Tespiti

Hatalı Ürün Tespiti	İşletme Sayısı	Oran (%)
Evet	58	77,33
Kısmen	17	22,67
Toplam	75	100,0

Bu işletmelerin tamamında hatalı ürün üretme olasılığının olması kalite kontrol biriminin önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu nedenle kalite kontrol sistemleri ve otomatik kontrol bantları veya elemanları hatalı çıkan ürünleri kontrol ederek pazara ulaşmasını kesinlikle engellemektedir.

Ancak hatalı ürünler; hammadde, enerji, emek ve kaynak kayıplarına neden olduğu için işletme karlılığını olumsuz etkileyen en önemli faktörlerden birisidir. Hata, kayıp ve kaçak oranlarının azaltılması işletme verimliliğini ve etkinliğini artıracak en önemli faktörlerden birisidir. Bu durum da kalite kontrol bölümünün önemini ortaya koyması açısından önemlidir. Özellikle bu bölümde ortaya çıkan hatalı ürünler tespit edilerek nihai tüketiciye ulaşılması engellenmektedir.

4.İşletmelerin Karşılaştığı Hatalı Ürünlerin Nedenleri

Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan sanayi işletmelerinin yöneticileriyle yapılan araştırmada uygulanan anket sonucunda hatalı ürün nedenleri dört ana başlık altında oransal olarak belirlenmiştir. Buna göre kalite

kontrol bölümünde tespit edilen hatalı ürünlerin 29,99'u personel hatası, %25,75'i üretim hatası, %24,13'ü malzeme hatası ve %20,13'ü ise üretim yönetiminden kaynaklanan hatalardan oluşmaktadır. (Tablo 3).

Tablo 3: İşletmelerin Hatalı Ürün Nedenleri

Hatalı Ürün Nedenleri		Oran(%)
Hatalı Ürün Nedenleri	Personel Hatası	29,99
	Üretim Hatası	25,75
	Malzeme Hatası	24,13
	Üretim Yönetiminden	20,13
	Kaynaklanan Hatalar	20,13
Oran(%)		100,0

Tablo.3'de görüldüğü gibi, personel, üretim, hammadde ve yönetimden kaynaklanan sorunlar hatalı ürünlerin ortaya çıkmasında önemli etki faktörleri olarak tespit edilmiştir. Burada önemli olan hatalı ürünlerin ortaya çıkmasını en aza indirmek işletme verimliliği açısından oldukça önemlidir. Tüketicie ulaşmadan önlenmesi ise firma imajı ve müşteri ilişkili yönetimi açısından dikkate alınması gereken bir unsurdur.

5. İşletmelerin Kullandığı Teknolojinin Düzeyi

Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan sanayi işletmelerinin teknolojik düzeyi incelendiğinde, %47,2'si standart teknolojiye, %33,3'ü yeni teknolojiye, %11,1'i eski teknolojiye ve %5,6'sı ise son teknolojiye sahip olduklarını belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca %2,8'i ise çok eski teknolojiye sahip olduklarını ifade etmiştir. Tablo.4'teki veriler genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde işletmelerin yaklaşık %85'i standart ve üstü teknolojiye sahiptirler.

Tablo 4:İşletmelerde Teknoloji Durumu

Teknoloji Durumu	İşletme Sayısı	Oran(%)
Çok Eski	2	2,8
Eski	8	11,1
Standart	34	47,2
Yeni	24	33,3
Son Teknoloji	4	5,6
Toplam	72	100,0

Yukarıdaki tabloda işletmelerin teknolojiyi yakından takip ettikleri görülmektedir. Son yıllarda Türkiye'de teknoloji ve yazılım üretimi konusunda da önemli gelişmeler yaşanmaktadır. Buna rağmen yatırım malları konusunda yurtdışından teknoloji transferi halen sürmektedir. Ancak ülkemizdeki yatırımcıların dünya fuarlarını yakından takip edip, en yeni teknolojilerle üretim yaparak maliyet avantajı sağlama konusunda ciddi bir çaba içerisinde oldukları gözlenmiştir.

6.Verilerin Faktör Analizi

Araştırmada anket sonucunda elde edilen verilerin analizinde Faktör Analizi (FA) kullanılmıştır. FA, 1950'li yıllarda hızla kullanımı artan birbirleri ile ilişkili olan ve bu nedenle karşılaştırılması ve yorumlanması güç olan çok sayıdaki değişkenden birbirleri ile ilişkisiz daha az sayıda faktör adı verilen değişkenler elde etmeyi sağlayan bir çok değişkenli istatistik yöntemidir. Yani, bir boyut indirgeme ve bağımlılık yapısını yok etme yöntemidir (Tatlidil, 2002).

FA'da değişken sayısı kadar faktör vardır (Aoker, 1998). Ancak amaç az sayıdaki ortak faktörle değişimleri açıklamaktır. Yani k adet faktörle p adet değişkenin değişimi açıklanmaktadır. ep açıklanmayan faktörü, bp ise onun katsayısını göstermek üzere faktör analizi modeli;

$$Z_j = a_{p1}F_1 + a_{p2}F_2 + \dots + a_{pk}F_k + b_{pe_p}$$

şeklinde elde edilir (Özdamar, 1999).

FA modelinde tek çözüm olmamasından dolayı alternatif çözümlerden en iyi yorumlamayı sağlayacak çözümü elde etmek gerekir. Yani kavramsal anlamlılığın sağlanması gerekir. Bu amaçla dik ve eğik döndürme teknikleri uygulanmaktadır. Dik döndürme tekniklerinde (Varimax, Quartimax, Equamax) faktörlerin birbirine korelasyonu olmayıp, matematiksel işlemler daha kolay, eğik döndürme tekniklerinde (Oblimax, Quartimin, Oblimin) ise faktörlerin birbirleri ile korelasyonu olup, daha kolay yorum yapabilmek imkanı sağlanmaktadır (Harman, 1976).

FA'de önemli bir nokta uygun faktör sayısının (k) belirlenmesi olup, bu amaçla kullanılan bir kriter 1'den büyük olan özdeğer sayısı kadar faktör almak, ikinci bir kriter ise Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) testidir. Özdeğerlere ilişkin yığın grafiği (scree plot) de faktör sayısının belirlenmesinde kullanılan bir diğer kriterdir (Hair vd., 1998).

6.1. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin ve Bartlett Testi

Ankette yer alan 13 soruya KMO ve Bartlett testi uygulanmış olup, her iki değer de verilerin faktör analizine uygunluğunu gösterecek düzeyde anlamlı çıkmıştır. Literatürde KMO değeri 0,5'den yüksek olduğu takdirde verilerin uygunluğu açısından yeterli bulunmaktadır.

Tablo 5: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin ve Bartlett Testi Sonuçları

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Değeri		,792
Bartlett Küresellik Testi	Ki-kare	430,888
	sd	78
	P değeri	,000

Bu çalışmada Tablo.5'te görüldüğü gibi KMO değeri 0,792 elde edilmiş, Bartlett küresellik testi sonucunda da p değeri %5'ten küçük olduğundan bu değer anlamlı olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

6.2. Toplam Açıklanan Varyans

Tablo.6' da görüldüğü gibi faktör analizi uygulanan değişkenlerin varyans açıklama oranları incelendiğinde, elde edilen faktörlerin toplam varyansı açıklama oranı %60,490 olarak elde edilmiştir.

Tablo 6: Toplam Açıklanan Varyans Sonuçları

Bileşen	Özdeğerler			Kareler Toplamı			Dönüştürülmüş Kareler Toplamı		
	Toplam	Varyans %	Kümülatif %	Toplam	Varyans %	Kümülatif %	Toplam	Varyans %	Kümülatif %
1	4,940	38,003	38,003	4,940	38,003	38,003	3,825	29,419	29,419
2	1,643	12,636	50,639	1,643	12,636	50,639	2,618	20,135	49,554
3	1,281	9,851	60,490	1,281	9,851	60,490	1,422	10,936	60,490
4	1,000	7,689	68,179						
5	,819	6,302	74,481						
6	,761	5,853	80,334						
7	,583	4,488	84,822						
8	,507	3,896	88,718						
9	,437	3,361	92,079						
10	,339	2,604	94,683						
11	,300	2,306	96,990						
12	,229	1,759	98,748						
13	,163	1,252	100,000						

6.3. Varimax Döndürmesi Sonucunda Elde Edilen Bulgular

Tablo.7'deki Varimax döndürme sonuçları incelendiğinde Tekirdağ ilinde ankete katılan ve sanayi üretimi yapan tüm firmaların üretime bağlı değişkenlerin 1. faktörde yer aldığı görülmektedir. Bunlar sırasıyla; eğitimin ve teknolojinin yeterli düzeyde olması ayrıca üretim planlamasının doğru yapılmasıdır.

Bu durum Tekirdağ da üretim yapan firmaların yöneticilerinin firmalarının bu konularda benzer düzeyde yeterli olduğu düşüncesiyle ilgili yargılarını ortaya koymaktadır.

İkinci faktörde yer alan değişkenlerin daha çok kalite faktörleri ile ilgili olduğu söylenebilir. Bunlar sırasıyla; hatalı ürün oranının düşüklüğü, hammaddenin kalitesi ve tedarikçiden sağlanan ürünlerin kalitesi ile ilgilidir. İkinci bileşende personelin hizmet içi eğitiminin yeterli olduğu ifadesi yer almıştır.

Üçüncü faktörde üretim bantlarının dolu olduğu, tedarikçilerle sorun yaşanmadığı ve siparişlerin zamanında teslim edildiği ifadeleri yer almaktadır. Bu durum bazı işletmelerin tam zamanında üretim yöntemlerini uyguladığını göstermektedir.

Tablo.7: Bileşenlerin Rotasyon Matrisi

		Faktörler		
		1	2	3
1	Personelin eğitimi yeterli düzeydedir	,839	-,003	,119
2	Teknoloji yeterli düzeydedir	,740	,289	-,188
3	Üretim planlaması doğru yapılıyor	,381	,367	,129
4	Hatalı ürün oranı sıfıra yakındır	,150	,630	,004
5	Tedarikçilerden sağlanan hammadde yeterli kalitededir	,119	,921	-,077
6	Tedarikçiden sağlanan ürünler yeterli kalitededir	,184	,830	,125
7	Üretim bantları sürekli doludur	-,037	-,125	,809
8	Hatalı ürünler kesinlikle kontrol ediliyor	,498	,274	,304
9	Ürettiğimiz ürünlerin kalitesi dünya standartlarındadır	,700	,282	,001
10	Tedarikçilerle herhangi bir sorun yaşanmamaktadır	,142	,530	,556
11	Siparişler zamanında teslim ediliyor	,541	,219	,561
12	Kalite kontrolde hatalı ürün tespit edilmiyor	,673	,057	,425
13	Çalışan personelin hizmet içi eğitimi yeterlidir	,381	,507	,442

5.Sonuç Ve Öneriler

Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan KOBİ işletmelerinin verimlilik ve kalite ilkelerine uygun üretim yapmasına rağmen tedarikçilerle yaşanan sorunların bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir. Özellikle iade edilen ürün olması kalite uygulamaları konusunda bir sorun olduğunu göstermektedir.

İşletmelerin bazı konularda ihtiyaçları olduğu tespit edilmiştir. KOBİ işletmelerinin yöneticilerinin de işletme çalışanları gibi kurumsallaşma ve kamunun izlediği destek programları ve üretim yönetimi konusunda eksikliklerin bulunduğu gözlemlenmiştir.

Nitelikli personelin önemli olduğu ancak yeterli olmadığı ifade edilmiştir. Nitelikli personelin işletmenin gelişmesine paralel olarak sürekli gerekli ve nitelikli eğitim programları ile sürekli desteklenmesi gerektiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Yapılacak uygulamalar ile verimlilik, etkinlik ve kalite konusunda işletmelerin daha rekabetçi olmalarına katkı sağlayacağı görülmektedir.

İşletme yöneticilerinin sorunları ve çözümleri ortaya koyması bakımından Tekirdağ ilinde bulunan işletme yöneticilerinin konuları iyi kavrayan nitelikli, tecrübeli ve eğitilmiş oldukları gözlenmiştir. Bu nedenle ilde yaşanan sanayileşmenin gelecekte bölgeyi sanayi malı ihracatının yapıldığı bir merkez haline getirebilir. Özellikle bu yöneticiler taşeron ve tedarikçi firmaların ana firmalar gibi profesyonel çalışmaları gerektiğini ortaya koymaktadırlar. Bunlar; üretimde nitelikli personelin olmasına rağmen bunların sürekli eğitildiği ve tedarikçilerin çalışanları konusunda da aynı hassasiyetin ortaya konulduğunu göstermesi açısından önemlidir.

Üretimde verimliliğin artmasına paralel olarak maliyetin azalması işletmenin rekabetçiliğini daha olanaklı hale getirecektir. Bu nedenle birim maliyetlerin minimize edilmesi önemli hale gelmiştir. İşletme

yöneticilerinin bu konudaki yaklaşımları ve düşünceleri konuya analitik bir şekilde yaklaştıklarını ve önemsediklerini göstermektedir.

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An Innovate and Proven and Proven-To-Be Effective Approach in The Educational Process in Primary Schools With Help of It Technologies

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Abstract: The HR market nowadays is struggling to find school and university “leavers” for entry and mid-level jobs, due to lack of practical skills. The situation is disturbing, because the gap between “supply” and “demand” in areas like IT, engineering and medicine has expanded to alarming levels, whilst in others like the economics degree courses formally there is a 'supply', but with inadequate 'quality'.

There is a set of some essential skills – IT, foreign language, math, logical thinking, problem solving, ICI (Inspiration, Creativity, and Imagination) and information processing whose possession guarantees the success of the college and university education in general.

A vast majority of government educational institutions, however, fail to understand that the university is not the place where students are expected to gain these basic skills. An innovative and carefully selected approach in the education process at preschool and primary school could bring outstanding results. The attraction of children towards the “gadgets”, games and computer graphics could be of great use. A special educational software, combined with 3D graphics/animation and “learn by play” method would give much better and quicker results compared to the traditional old-fashioned approach.

Keywords: innovative education, object-oriented education, OOP training, IT in primary school, IT in education, first steps in IT, quick gain of knowledge in IT and foreign languages, IT for children, problem-solving skills

JEL Class: C3,C6,C7,C8,I8

1. Introduction

Everyone is currently aware that the businesses, the human resources market, the humanity in general are facing a huge problem in regard to the demand of up-to-date skills (IT, engineering, medicine, marketing, information analysis). The gap between the “demand” and the “supply” grows dangerously.

Even in order to survive in this world we are obliged to process and cope with a vast amount of information around us and that amount increases with each year. The skills and knowledge someone has acquired 15 years ago are considered today quite obsolete.

The key to a successful business education is to have already built solid grounds based on these 5 areas of knowledge:

- Information technologies
- English language
- Problem solving
- Math
- Inspiration, creativity and imagination (ICI)

It is more than obvious that students who are in possession of these skills will give much better final results in their education at university level of economics related disciplines.

The majority of students who enter the university are in lack of these skills (some or even all). Therefore, no matter how good a university has structured their education programs and no matter how good lecturers are involved, they achieve limited success in providing complete and effective education, because the students have no “foundations”, they miss the basic, the first level skills which would allow them to assimilate the next levels.

Obviously that is a serious concern and what has been a concern yesterday is a problem today and tomorrow is already a disaster. Simply said - if you want to eat an apple today, you have to plant a tree several years ago. Therefore, in my humble opinion, all the efforts for reforms applied at university levels have little effect, if they have been not preceded by a similar or even stronger education process reform yet in primary schools (at age of 5-12).

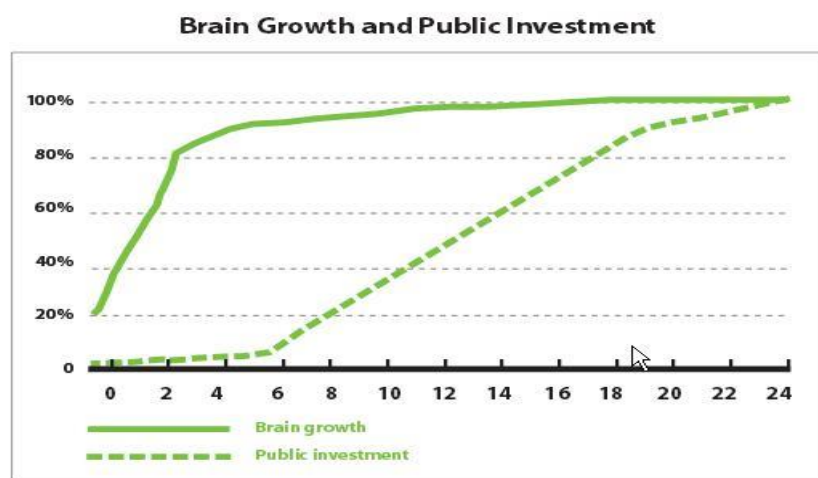
2. A Proposed Solution

Any kind of educational reform should start in the early ages. It is unchallenged that small kids learn better and quicker than a grown-up, adult person. Researches prove that children are able to “imbibe” knowledge very fast and effective in their age between 5 and 12. A research of the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine in 2002 shows that it actually takes up to 12 years for the brain to become fully organized.

According to James Heckman, University of Chicago Economist and Nobel Laureate, **investments in high-quality early education programs have the highest rate of return of any social investment.**¹

With the neuroscience of brain development unfolding, we now know that (1) the way a brain develops hinges on the complex interplay between the genes a person is born with and the experiences a person has from birth on; (2) it actually takes up to 12 years for the brain to become fully organized, with parts of the cortex still to become organized through the later teen years.²

The GRAPH 1 below illustrates the trajectory of brain development compared to public investment, by age. It is striking that while 85 percent of a child's core brain structure is formed by age five, less than 4 percent of public investments on education and development have occurred by that time.³



Graph 1. Brain Growth and Public Investment

Therefore, the proposed here solution matters to children from preschools and primary schools.

Unfortunately, in overall the current methodology of teaching in primary schools is obsolete and ineffective. It cannot cope with the demand for modern and up-to-date skills and knowledge. *And that has to change.*

¹ Heckman, J. 2005. Lessons from the Technology of Skill Formation.

² "Quality matters: A policy brief series on early care and education", Wisconsin Council on children & families, Winter 2007 Volume 1

³ Also there

At the same time educational programs for children in preschools (kindergarten) and primary schools should be very carefully selected and planned due to the fragility of their mind and personality at this early age. Educational programs by the style of “command & demand” could have the opposite effect - “damage” their willingness to learn and could create internal “fear” and “uncertainty” when facing new things and unprocessed information.

In addition, Rebecca Marcon, a Developmental Psychologist states that *“learning progress may actually be slowed by overly academic preschool experiences that introduce formalized learning experiences too early for a child's development status”*. On the opposite – learning by playing and hands-on exploration is proven to be quick and effective, yet it does not “exhaust” kid’s energy and emotions.

Psychologists say that children will develop best if they are provided with:

- Novel ways to learn
- Learn through play and hands-on exploration
- Exposure to rich, interactive language
- Opportunities to learn through hands-on interaction
- Positive, reliable and supportive relationships

Probably you all know that at an age of between 6 and 8 (could be even less) most kids (if not all) already feel the need to start playing with tablets, smartphones, laptops and other gadgets. Basically they are doing their first steps into the information technologies and the Internet world. Their first steps are usually – playing little games like Angry Birds, FarmVille, Candy Saga or whatever is now the trend, getting on Facebook/Zynga and so on.

The interest and attraction that kids have towards the information technologies is (believe me) 1) unavoidable and (believe me as well) 2) there is nothing to worry about that as long as you can wisely control it.

First steps are important (in everything). So, what if kids first steps into IT are not some waste of time – like playing senseless games, and sometimes even dangerous – like getting on the Internet through the social networks, but are something useful and constructive?

What if you make them learn and gain solid knowledge, what if you boost their ICI (Inspiration, Creativity and Imagination), what if you stimulate them to think properly and at the same time you won't take away their pleasure from doing it as they would have playing games and browsing through Facebook?

3. What “Alice” Gives?

Here I would like to introduce to you a software product called “Alice”. It has been named after the popular book “Alice in Wonderland”. “Alice” is an educational software product, developed at Carnegie Mellon University more than 10 years ago with the support of Oracle and Electronic Arts (EA), Inc and distributed free of charge. It is available for all major operating systems – Windows, Linux and Mac.

With Alice you can use the drag-and-drop style interaction and create 3D animations like stories, movies and games. In Alice, 3D objects (e.g., people, animals, furniture and vehicles) populate a virtual world and students drag and drop graphic tiles to create a program. Thus students learn fundamental programming concepts in the context of creating animations, videos, and simple games.

Alice has been designed to be especially suitable for courses where students are expected to transition into writing Java code, either by the end of an Alice to Java course or as preparation for a traditional Java/AP course. The 3D animation provides program visualization which aids students in understanding the execution and catching bugs.

Due to its way of interactivity, graphics/animation and “learn by play” method, teaching through Alice gives **much better and quicker results** compared to the traditional old-fashioned approach. In NSF-sponsored formal studies, Alice has been shown highly effective for introducing computer programming concepts and transitioning to Java in a high school or first year college Computer Science course.

The nice thing about Alice in regard to programming is that it does not teach **how to code software**, but instead **how to THINK in an object oriented-way** which is much more efficient.

Therefore, the design introduces students to programming in a supportive and engaging environment from which they can gradually transition to programming in commercially-used languages. More importantly, Alice functions as an entry point to all the programming concepts typically taught in introductory computing courses.⁴

Once they start playing with Alice and getting used it, kids will start looking and perceive the world in an object-oriented way. They will easily get used to key concepts in programming like class, object, method/function, properties, variable, flow control (different loops – for/do/while, conditionals – if/else), multitasking (doing several things at once).

Besides the experience and knowledge in the object-oriented concept, the students will gain as well very good English language skills (although Alice has a multi-language interface of approximately 20 languages at the moment). Their “dictionary” will definitely extend vastly at least due to the large database of objects in Alice gallery (characters, animals, vehicles, buildings and so on) and their corresponding properties (colors, size) and actions (“move”, “jump”, “turn”, “speak”, “think”).

The content-rich gallery of Alice (which is updated frequently) could assist in the education process in other disciplines other than foreign language and IT. It could help in physics, history, nature and environment sciences and so on.

When the students start to create a virtual world, they will decide where and how to place objects, what kind of actions and when these objects have and can perform, how the different objects with their properties can interact between each other. These actions with time will develop very good skills like 1) logical and out-of-the-box thinking, 2) problem solving, 3) inspiration, creativity and imagination.

A proof-of-concept study⁵ found that among "at-risk" introductory computer science majors, Alice improved students' performance and retention rate within the major, and generally had a positive impact on their attitudes toward computer science.

4. Conclusion.

As we can see, Alice can be of great help in the education process. It can be used for programming courses in the middle and high-school. It could be of great use as well at preschool and primary school for teaching foreign language, basic computer literacy, nature & environment, for encouraging logical thinking, inspiration, creativity and imagination (ICI). Yet with Alice the children accept the education process more as a game, rather than as an obligation which guarantees much more interest from them and of course – better results.

For parents who are concerned that their children already spend too much time playing video games, the designers are quick to note that Alice 3.0 will not, in fact, be a video game; state-of-the-art animation is a context which exposures students to programming in a fun space so they can experience how compelling it can be.

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Legal Position of Part-Time Working University Students

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Abstract: Nowadays, emerging economic and technological developments as well as change of family structure and responsibilities have led to expansion of flexible working models in working life. According to 4857 Labour Law and the relevant by laws, part-time employment contracts has been defined; it is stated that the weekly working time is less determined in comparison with the precedent workers with full-time employment contracts. Therefore, up to two-thirds of the full-time work is said to be part-time work. University students are able to earn Money by part-time working up to 15 hours perweek. Students working at the universities are counted insured in scope of 5510 Social Insurance and Universal Health Insurance Law. In addition, only work accident and occupational disease insurance provisions shall applied them which are considered as the part of short-term insurance. For this reason, working of students by this way will not contribute to their retirement. Part-time working students' status could be brought to workers or civil servants, as well as relevant status, in able to prevent for feiture. Besides that, legal arrangements of full payment of insurance could ensure the counting of the time they work to their retirement. By the help of these arrangements, working desire of the students in the university will be encouraged; thus, it will cause easier adaptation to work life.

Keywords: part-time working, flexible working, universitys tudents, social insurance

JEL Codes: K22, M53, M51

1. Introduction

Due to increasing employment demand particularly in service industry, part-time work model is becoming more and more prevalent and legislation on this issue is frequently renewed. Part-time work is considered popular, particularly for women because of its form that allows the creation of working scheme reconciling business and social life. Especially housewives, students and retirees prefer part-time work in Turkey. In western countries, it is rather preferred because of more leisure demand in comparison with wages. It is stated that, International Labour Organization's (ILO) 175 numbered and 24 June 1994 dated ILO agreement is related to part-time working. According to this, part-time work is described as "regular work formed by mutual contract between employers and workers that is less than the normal working time." In other words, part-time working which is one of the most widely type of flexible working, express less work than the normal working time determined by law (Koc and Gorucu, 2011: 149-152).

The most important factors for the positive perception of flexible working are increasing organizational commitment, morale and productivity; opportunity for balancing work and social life, increasing interest for work programmes allowing individuals take time for their private life as well as changes of family structure. Individuals are willing to be flexible in terms of "where", "when" and "how" to use their time as well as balancing their social life and business. By flexible working, persons are able to take time for their interests; in particular meet their family responsibilities more easy. Worldwide researches show that, individuals working non-flexible are becoming the ones who can not manage the conflicts between work and social life. In addition, they cause absenteeism because of the lack of moral and productivity (Dogan et al., 2015: 381, 383).

Examining part-time working which allows students to learn specific jobs and discipline as well as preparing them for life, in terms of Labour Law and Social Security Law would be useful.

2. Difference of Part-Time Working From Other Types of Working

Considering the difference of part-time working from other types of working, three factors should be taken into account; time, voluntariness, regularity and continuity.

2.1. Time Factor

13rd Article of the Labour Law defines Part-Time Working Contract as; “the contract is considered as part-time contract, if normal weekly working time of the worker is less determined in comparison with the precedent workers working with full-time contract.” According to this definition, part-time work is considered as a type of work that determines normal weekly working time of worker less than precedent workers working with full-time contract.(Koc and Gorucu, 2011: 151-152)

If working time is “substantially less” determined than the working time that is essential in a full-time contract, part-time employment contracts are concerned. In order to understand “substantially less” expression, 6th article of “Working Time Regulations Relating to Labour Law” could be checked. Due to related article, up to two thirds of precedent work in workplace with full-time contract is defined as part-time working. According to 63rd article of Labour Law, working time is maximum 45 hours per week in general. Considering Labour Law and related regulation together, 30 hours that is two thirds of 45 hours emerges as the maximum duration of partial work. In other words, in order to mention about part-time work, weekly working time should be taken into account and weekly working time must be 30 hours or less. University students can work maximum 15 hours per week in accordance with the laws and regulations.

2.2. Voluntariness Factor

Partial employment contracts differ from other types of work with “voluntariness” basis. In Turkish Law and Law of Obligation in particular, the principle of liberty of contract is valid. Both sides can organize the contract as they wish, provided that the consent of both sides. In other words, students signing the contract should be aware what benefits and responsibilities would be.

2.3. Regularity and Continuity Factor

Students with partial term work contract work less than full term workers; however duration of work is not temporary. Student and employer (University) agree in order to sign a permanent contract. Thus, in scope of this contract students enter into obligation of working whereas employers have the obligation for the payment of fees and other rights in return (Koc and Gorucu, 2011: 154)

“Since the beginning of contract, working time is particular for workers of partial time performance; however there is an uncertainty concerning the realization of this working period on days of the week. Workers should be doing the work to fulfill their responsibilities on time determined by employers. In other words, this working period can be in form of full day work on certain days at the request of employer and employee. It can also be performed at certain times on certain days of the week. In this context, working period of the workers with part-time employment contracts is calculated according to the contract start and end days. Therefore part-time work is not a temporary or accidental work form. Mentioned work form is standard and continuous (Koc and Gorucu, 2011: 153)

Considering them all, part-time work can be defined as a working form that is **regular, optional and less than normal working time**. In addition, part-time employment contracts differ from short-time and fixed-term works with continuity factor whereas they differ from seasonal and temporary jobs with regularity factor (Koc and Gorucu, 2011: 150-151; Aydınli, 2007: 70).

3. Legal Position of University Students’ Part-Time Working in International and National Law

3.1. Part Time Job: EU Directive no. 97/81

The directive is one of the element of European Union that based on an agreement between the social partners in Europe. The objectives of the mentioned directive are as follows:

- To eliminate discrimination against part-time workers

- To improve the quality of part-time jobs
- To facilitate the development of part-time work based on voluntary
- To contribute to the organization of working time in a flexible way.

According to EU Law, part-time workers are the ones whose normal working time is less than the normal working hours of full-time employees working in the same or similar establishments. According to European Court of Justice; persons working by “work on request” contracts, can be included in application field of mentioned directive in principal. Thus, as far as it’s based on objective reasons; part-time workers shouldn’t be exposed to worse treatment just because they work part-time, in comparison with full-time workers. (http://www.avrupa.info.tr/fileadmin/Content/Files/Images/haber_arsivi/2012/Sosyal_Guvenlik_Hukuku_El_Kitab%C4%B1_EN-TR.pdf, 23.12.2015).

3.2. University Students’ Part-Time Working in Turkish Law

The main objectives of employing part-time working students are; to employ them in temporary jobs according to their interests and talents in free times apart from class hours in order to provide them both financial return as well as practical skills. In addition, to contribute them as business discipline acquired and productive members.

It has been extended to run students in universities in recent years. Students working in universities are esteemed insured in scope of 5510 Social Insurance and General Health Insurance Law; therefore only *work accident* and *occupational disease insurance* rights are applied.

“ Procedures and Principles of Higher Education Institutions for Operating Part-time Students “

These procedures and principles are organized in order to determine the number of students who can be employed in temporary part-time jobs according to 46th article of Higher Education Law no.2547 as well as selection of students start to work, determining weekly working time and other issues. These procedures and principles are organized according to provisions of 46th article of Law no.2547 as well as 20th article and different last paragraph of Law no.5917¹

The statements mentioned in these procedures and principles are as follows;

Directorate: Directorate of Health, Culture and Sports in Higher Education Institutions, **Institutional Unit:** Units employing part-time students, **Functional Manager:** Managers of the units employing part-time students, **Part-time Working Student:** Part-time employed students in temporary jobs in Higher Education Institutions who are not considered as workers. **Higher Education Institutions:** Universities and High Technology Institutions.

4. Determining numbers and working conditions of part-time employed students

The related units in universities, report the needs of students they want to run part-time in temporary jobs on grounds until the end of September to Health, Culture and Sports Directorate. The number of part-time students will be run by the unit, the tasks will be fulfilled by the units, features of the units, needs for human resources with part-time students’ running costs as well as budget facilities determined as of units are taken into account by Directorate; submitted for the approval of the Rector.

Priority is given to students getting scholarship from Higher Education Credit and Dormitories Institution or possess the conditions for getting scholarship. In addition; students with conditions stated below, can be operated in temporary jobs as part-time working students in Higher Education Institutions:

¹**Law No 5917:** “Addition of some provisions stated in the Budget Law to related Laws and Executive Orders and Law relating to revision of some Laws and Executive Orders”, Law No: 5917, Date of approval: 25.06.2009,

Official Journal Date: 10.July.2009, Official journal issue: 27284.

- a) Being a registered student of the related Higher Education Institution, excluding non-thesis master program and special students,
- b) Not to have received any disciplinary punishment,
- c) Not to have any income in minimum wage, excluding orphan pension and alimony
- d) Not to have the contract terminated between the part-time working student and Higher Education Institution due to breach of contract,
- e) To have sufficient knowledge, skills and ability for the related job,
- f) Not to be study suspending and foreign national student,
- g) To be educating in regular education period.

These conditions; excluding “to be educating in regular education period, not to be foreign national student and not to have any disciplinary punishment”, are not required from disabled students, students documenting damages from natural disasters such as earthquake, floods as well as being martyr and ghazi child.

“Part-time Employed Student Contract” is signed between the Rectorate and the students decided to run part-time. Related contract can be renewed with student’s request and if it deems appropriate by Higher Education Institution. The working time of the students is maximum 5 hours per day, maximum 15 hours per week and can not exceed totally 60 hours in one month. Distribution of working period to days of the week, starting and ending times of the work are determined by unit managers. Part-time employed students are not considered as workers because of the mentioned works above.

Part-time students are esteemed insured in terms of Social Security and in scope of 5510 Social Security Law as well as Universal Health Insurance Law’s 4th article-first paragraph-(a) subparagraph. Thus, only *accidents at work and occupational disease insurance* provisions shall be applied. Notifications about insurance and termination of insurance concerning part-time students are made by Directorate.

Fees to be paid for an hourly work for students who work as part-time, are determined by University Board according to 4857 Labour Law. The related fee is determined as not to exceed a quarter of the daily gross minimum wage of workers older than 16 years. Part-time students are paid on a monthly basis from Directorate budget.

Schedule.1: Fees will be applied in 2016

	Daily/(TL)	Monthly/(TL)
For fromal education students attending vocational training in establishments with more than 20 staff	16,47	494,10
For fromal education students attending vocational training in establishments with less than 20 staff	8,24	247,05
For apprentice candidates and apprentices	16,47	494,10

Reference: Ministry of Labor and Social Security

Schedule:1, is prepared with the help of information from Ministry of Labor and Social Security. The part concerning university students is located on the top line. Although each university is different, part-time working university students’ for example one hour of work for the financial year 2016 is determined **8,235.-TL**. After 01.01.2016, students will be eligible for a monthly gross wage **494.10.-TL (8,235 x 60 hours = 494,10.-TL)** and because of this gross wage is *exempt from any tax charges*, they will be getting net **494,10.TL**

The period between the 15th day of previous month and the 14th day of current month is considered as one month. One month’s salary of this period is deposited to student’s bank account the latest until the 25th of the month.

4.1. Other working/employing conditions

- Registered students of associate degree, undergraduate and master programs (excluding non-thesis and special students) educating in normal education period without any discipline punishment, can work as part-time students in universities.
- Students are responsible for contributing managers, officers and lecturers without disrupting the work order of the unit in order to run the business and operations faster and more efficiently. In general, they work in simple Office works as well as works that do not require expertise and the works related to their education subject.
- Students can not be operated firstly **student and grade affairs** of units as well as **heavy works** of units such as cleaning, transport etc.
- Students can not be operated in national and public holidays adopted by law, at the weekends, at night and on public holidays.

However, according to our researches the following statement is frequently found in some universities:

“ While its essential, not to run students in national holidays and public holidays determined by law; part-time students must work at the request of unit managers in open units at weekends, nights and public holidays.” Especially in universities that have canteens, cafeterias open in the evening or the ones making exams at the weekends with Senate decision might run students by necessity.

- Students are not entitled to work in two different units.
- According to Law no. 2547 - 46th article - (k) subparagraph; **any scholarship of a part-time working student is not interrupted.**
- **Salary of students'** who are having pension from Social Security Institution, **is not cut** when they start to work part-time.
- **General Health Insurance** received through family is **not terminated**. Students can have medical benefits through the family.
- Employment period of students are made at the beginning (October) of each academic year. In case of need, it is carried out during mid-term (February) and summer period (July). Student employment is invalid except related periods.
- According to related law provisions, **there isn't any effect for retirement** of students worked and will be working part-time in universities because **long-term insurance branches premium is not paid up.**
- According to related law provisions, **unemployment insurance is not eligible** because unemployment insurance premium is not credited (<http://sks.marmara.edu.tr/iletisim/sikca-sorulan-sorular/kismi-zamanli-ogrenci-calistirma-programi> , 21.01.2016).

4.1.1. Job description and job change

The jobs and the operations will be run by part-time students, defined in advance and determined by their respective units and prepared work plan is reported to students.

When deemed necessity, unit managers can make job changes of part-time students in units. However, part-time students can not be operated for heavy jobs of the units such as cleaning, transport etc.

4.1.2. Work attendance obligation

Part-time students are obliged to be at work in designated business hours and they can't leave their workplace without permission before the end of business hours.

Mediterranean University web site has been given the following information concerning Part-time Working:

“Various social service activities are produced in order to assess students’ extracurricular time and to contribute to their economy. The most efficient of these, both as a result and idea is part-time working. Students are insured against accidents at work in scope of this study conducted by Mediterranean University since 1996 and they are operated maximum 3 hours a day, in the request of university’s units. Part-time working students are paid monthly over the minimum hourly wage. Students willing to work part-time should fill in “scholarship and social service application form” during September. Students deserved to work part-time, are announced in Social Service Clipboards and Student Affairs Clipboards of Departments. Part-time Working Application is valid for one academic year and applications should be renewed each year. Part-time working students have supervisors (Consultant) in every unit. Supervisors are required to complete the payrolls on the internet, showing the working hours of students for a month. In order to provide students to receive their salaries on time (following days of 15th of each month), supervisors are required to check whether the payrolls are completed by 15th of every month. Part Time Work is a Social Service Practice and students with economic inefficiency have priority.” (<http://sks.akdeniz.edu.tr/part-time-working>, 22.01.2016).

Some substances stated in part-time working agreements between majority of universities and students are as follows:

Students are charged for the time they worked.

- Students must have appropriate behaviours in terms of Higher Education Student Disciplinary Regulations as long as they work. Student Employment Agreements of students’ are terminated unilaterally by the university when students act contrary to Higher Education Student Disciplinary Regulations and Student Employment Agreements. Students can not make any claims in case of justified termination of Student Employment Agreement by university in this way.
- Students leaving the job without providing information to administration and justified excuse can not be employed as part-time student in the same academic year. But the ones with justified excuses can be employed in same or another unit. New students can be operated for the remaining quota in accordance with the principles stated in the guidelines.
- With this agreement, students are deemed to have accepted “Principles and Procedures of Higher Education Institutions’ Part-time Student Employment”.
- University has the rights to terminate this contract at any time with the notice of termination. Students can not make any claims against the university in case of termination of the contract in this way (www.idari.adu.edu.tr/.../Kismi%20Zamanli%20Oğrenci%20Çalıştırma%2, 21.01.2016).

4.1.3. Occupational Health and Safety

Occupational Health and Security Law no 6331 will be implemented in public institutions on 01.July.2016. Therefore, state universities will be subjected to Occupational Health and Security Law no 6331. helps

In 2nd article of 6331 numbered Occupational Health and Security Law; “Related Law is implemented in all public and private sector jobs and workplaces, employer and employer representatives of these establishments, including apprentices and trainees regardless of their activity” expressions are stated. Therefore, with the provisions 2nd article; since 01.July.2016 part-time working students of state universities will be able to benefit from rights of Occupational Health and Security.

5. Conclusion

One of the disadvantage of employing part-time students in universities is implementing only work accident and occupational disease insurance which are branches of short-term insurance. Therefore, the working period of the student will not make any contribution to their retirement. For example, when the students worked for 6 months are thrown to retirement age they will be retired only after 6 months work. It should be noted that, the situation is the same even if the students do internship. Time period during

the internship do not contribute to retirement just because work accident and occupational illness insurance is paid during the internship.

Another disadvantage for part-time working students in university is requirement for premium payment as a result of income determination in order to complete monthly premium for university students working part-time to earn school allowance. However, with final arrangements of Social Security Institution; students are no longer required to income determination.

Despite the correction of these disadvantages is possible, with respect to our legislation and implementation, to run students in university is considered positive in general. Working part-time helps students to get important experience with providing faster adaptation to business life.

However, part-time working students do not claim too much authorith and responsibility; it is much more helpful to pay their insurance in full as a regular worker or officier. Thus, they will be able to retire as early as they work.

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Avrupa Birliği'nin Karadeniz Politikası ve Bölgeselleşme

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Özet: 2007 yılında Romanya ve Bulgaristan'ın üyeliği ile gerçekleşen genişleme, Avrupa Birliği (AB) dış sınırları çalışmalarına yeni bir ivme kazandırmış olup AB'yi resmen Karadeniz'e getirmiştir. Daha öncesinde Karadeniz'de gerçekleşen olaylara ve hatta yeni işbirliklerine oldukça sessiz kalan AB için artık, yeni bir dönem başlamış olmaktadır.

Bulgaristan ile Romanya'nın üye oluşuna kadar Karadeniz ile ilgili konularda ketum davranılmasına rağmen, 2007'den sonra Avrupa Komisyonu bölgeye yakın ilgi göstermeye başlamıştır. Elbette bu değişimde Karadeniz'e sınır yeni üyelerin de taleplerinin katkısı olmuştur. Ve 2007 Nisan ayında AB, Karadeniz Sinerjisi-Yeni Bir Bölgesel Girişim başlıklı resmi bir belge yayımlamıştır. Böylece AB Karadeniz'e doğru yeni bir açılıma girmiştir. Karadeniz girişimi, Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası'nın doğu kanadına çok katlı yeni bir bölgesel boyut kazandırmıştır.

AB öyle bir bölgeye doğru açılım başlatmıştır ki bu bölge, AB-Rusya ve NATO-Rusya çıkarlarının çatıştığı; Karadeniz bölgesi boyunca güvenlik tehditlerinin genişleyerek projeksiyon altına alındığı ve yerel güvenlik sorunlarının bulunduğu bir yerdir. Böyle bir coğrafyada AB, Karadeniz Politikası ile ne kadar başarılı olabilecektir ve coğrafyadaki muhtemel bölgeselleşme ne olacaktır? Bu makale bu tür sorulara cevap arayacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Avrupa Birliği, Karadeniz Politikası, Bölgeselleşme, Güvenlik Politikaları

The European Union's Black Sea Policy And Regionalism

Abstract: The enlargement of the European Union (EU), which took place in 2007 has accelerated the studies on its external borders and officialy brought the EU to the Black Sea. Until the new period has begun, the EU had been very reticent about events and even new co-operations in the Black Sea region.

Although it is behaved very secretive towards subjects concerned the Black Sea until the Bulgaria and Romania's EU membership, after 2007, the European Commision has begun to show close interest to the region. Obviously, the demands by the two new border member states to the Black Sea contributed to this process. And in April 2007, the EU produced an official document entitled 'Black Sea Synergy - a New Regional Initiative'. By this way, the EU has made a new opening towards the Black Sea. The Black Sea Initiative has also added a multilateral regional dimension to the Eastern wing of the European Neighbourhood Policy.

The region where the expansion has begun by the EU is such an environment where there are conflicting interests between EU and Russia and NATO and Russia; as well as increasing security threats are highlighted across the Black Sea Region with many local security issues. In a geography like this how the EU would succeed with its Black Sea policy and what will be the possible regionalism in the region? The paper will seek to find answers for similar questions.

Key Words: European Union, Black Sea Policy, Regionalism, Security Policies

1. Giriş

Karadeniz Bölgesi dünyanın en heterojen ve en karmaşık bölgelerinden bir tanesidir. Bölge kültürel, sosyal, dini gelenekler olduğu kadar büyüklük, siyasi ve ekonomik gelişmişlik seviyesi, askeri potansiyel ve coğrafi ilgiler açısından da birbirinden çok farklı ülkeleri kapsamaktadır. Bu ülkelerden kimisi eski Komünist sistem ülkesi olup çok karmaşık geçiş ve kimliklendirme sürecinden geçmişlerdir. Dahası, çözüme kavuşmamış bölgesel çatışmalar, birikmiş gerginlikler ve husumetler bu ülkeleri bir araya getirmekten öte daha da ayırmaktadır¹.

Bölgenin modern tarihi, Kıbrıs konusunda Yunanistan ile Türkiye arasında uzatmalı gerginliğe; Dağlık-Karabağ konusunda Ermenistan ile Azerbaycan arasındaki savaşa; Moldova-Transdinyester ve Gürcistan-

1 Oleksandr Pavliuk, "Regionalism Before and After September 11", Oleksandr Pavliuk ve Ivanna Klympush-Tsintsadze (der.), The Black Sea Region: Cooperation and Security Building, New York, EastWest Insitute, 2004.

Abhazy'daki silahlı çatışmalara ve Çeçenistan'daki Rus savaşına tanıklık etmiştir. Bu çatışmalar bölge içerisinde bölgesel ilişkilerin, dış ticaretin ve ekonomik işbirliğinin gelişmesini önlemiştir².

Uzun yıllardan beri, Karadeniz'in güney ve kuzey kıyıları birbirlerinden ayrı kalmışlardır. Batı-doğu ayrımı, olayların ve gelişmelerin ana eksenini olmuş ve Karadeniz siyaseti süper güçlerin rekabetine bağımlı kalmıştır. Karadeniz herhangi bir birleşik fonksiyondan mahrum kaldığı gibi pan-Avrupa siyasetinin bütünleyici bir parçası olmaktan çok bir sınır işlevi görmüştür. Soğuk Savaşın bitişi ile Karadeniz bölgesinden kendi politik ve ekonomik dinamikleriyle söz etmek artık mümkün olmuştur³.

Karadeniz bölgesi, Müslüman, Ortodoks, Acem, Türk ve Batılı siyaset ve toplumsal kültürleri ve gelenekleri birleştiren, bir medeniyetler kavşağıdır. Karadeniz'in stratejik önemi, Avrupa ile Asya arasında bir tampon bölge, bir geçiş bölgesi, bir köprü yada bir sınır rolü oynaması sebebiyle yüzyıllardır süregelmiştir. Dahası, Karadeniz bölgesi ticaret yolları ile bölgeleri arasında bir bağlantı noktası olarak durmuştur.

Bunlardan yola çıkarak bu çalışmada bölgeye adını veren Karadeniz'in bölge için önemine değinilecek; son dönemlerde bölgeye olan ilgisini daha da artıran Avrupa Birliği'nin bölgeye yönelik politikaları değerlendirilecek; çalışmanın bir diğer alt başlığı olan bölgeselleşme konusu incelenecek ve Karadeniz bölgesindeki bölgeselleşme konusuna AB perspektifinden bakılacaktır.

2. Bölgeye Adını Veren Deniz: Karadeniz ve Bölge için Değeri

Bölgeye adını veren Karadeniz, güneydoğu Avrupa ile Anadolu yarımadası arasında yeralan, kuzeyinde Ukrayna, kuzeydoğusunda Rusya, doğusunda Abhazy ve Gürcistan, güneyinde Türkiye ve batısında Romanya ile Bulgaristan'la çevrili bir iç denizdir. Bu iç denizin Atlantik Okyanusu ile bağlantısını Marmara Denizi, Ege Denizi ve Akdeniz sağlamaktadır. Karadeniz aynı zamanda kuzey tarafından Don, Dinyeper ve Tuna Nehirleri ile Avrupa nehir sistemine bağlantılıdır. Karadeniz, Avrupa ile Asya arasında olduğu kadar Rusya ile Orta Doğu arasındaki önemli ekonomik bağlantı ve deniz ticareti bölgesidir. Nehir açısından oldukça zengin olan Karadeniz⁴, bu özelliğiyle diğer bölgelerle bağlantı kurarken bölgenin nerede başlayıp nerede bittiği konusunda sıkıntılara yol açmaktadır. Ancak yapılan tüm tanımlamalar, konuyu değerlendirenlerin kendi bakış açısı ve tarihi sürece göre değişiklik göstermektedir⁵. Karadeniz Bölgesi'nin sınırlarının nereye kadar uzandığı konusunda bir tanımlama yapmanın zor olduğunu belirten Erler, yapılmış bölgesel işbirliklerinin bu sınırları belirleyip belirlemediği konusunda da kararsızdır⁶.

Karadeniz Ekonomik İşbirliği, Karadeniz'e kıyısı olan 6 ülkeyi, Ukrayna, Rusya, Gürcistan, Bulgaristan, Romanya ve Türkiye'yi; Güney Doğu Avrupa'dan 4 ülkeyi, Yunanistan, Arnavutluk, Sırbistan ve Moldova'yı; Güney Kafkasya'dan da 2 ülkeyi, Azerbaycan ve Ermenistan'ı kapsamaktadır. Bir diğer bölgesel ittifak ise 1997 yılında Gürcistan, Ukrayna, Azerbaycan ve Moldova tarafından kurulmuş olan GUAM'dır⁷ ve Azerbaycan'ın Karadeniz'e sınırı yokken üyedir ki Karadeniz'e kıyısı bulunan Türkiye, Rusya, Romanya ve Bulgaristan bu ittifak üyesi değildir. Ukrayna ve Gürcistan'ın öncülüğünde 2005 yılında oluşturulan Demokratik Tercih Milletleri Topluluğu'nun (Community of Democratic Choice) diğer üyeleri ise Estonya, Litvanya, Letonya, Makedonya, Moldova, Romanya ve Slovenya'dır.

2 Ibid.

3 Tunç Aybak, *Politics of the Black Sea: Dynamics of Cooperation and Conflict*, New York, St. Martin's Press, 2001, s. 122.

4 Karadeniz'e Kuban, Don, Dinyeper, Dinyester ve Tuna akmaktadır. Bkz. Neal Ascherson, *Karadeniz*, çev. Kudret Emiroğlu, İstanbul, Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, 2002, s. 16.

5 Charles King, "Is The Black Sea A Region: Cooperation and Security Building", Oleksandr Pavliuk ve Ivanna Klymush-Tsintsadze (der.), *The Black Sea Region: Cooperation and Security Building*, New York, EastWest Institute, 2004, s. 17.

6 Gernot Erler, "Where Does the Black Sea Region Belong?", *The Black Sea Between the EU and Russia Security, Energy, Democracy*, 134th Bergedorf Round Table, Hamburg, Körber-Stiftung, 2007, s. 24.

7 1999 yılında Özbekistan'da bu ittifak'a katılmış, adı da GUUAM olarak değiştirilmiştir; fakat Andican olayları esnasında Özbekistan bu ittifak'tan ayrılmıştır.

Ekolojik odaklı bir değerlendirme yapacak olursak Karadeniz Havzasının 22 ülkeden oluştuğunu söyleyebiliriz. Ancak ticari, ekonomik ilişkiler, güvenlik vb. alanlar açısından bir değerlendirme yaparsak o zaman Karadeniz’e kıyıdaş ülkeler ile Yunanistan, Azerbaycan, Ermenistan ve Moldova da dahil edilmelidir⁸.

Karadeniz bölgesi bugüne kadar tek bir kimliğe sahip olmadığı gibi bundan sonra da böyle olacaktır. Mesela, tüm bölge için asla ortak bir isim olmamıştır. Bölge, ülkelerin kendi dillerine göre isimlendirilmiş, “Soğuk Deniz-Inhospitable Sea”, “Büyük Deniz-Great Sea” yada sadece “Deniz-The Sea” isimleriyle bilinmiştir⁹. “Karadeniz-Black Sea” ismi ise son iki yüzyıldır hakim gelen tanımlama olmuştur.

Karadeniz, yoğun turistik faaliyetler için sınırı olan yedi ülkenin de kullandığı oldukça popüler tatil bölgelerine sahiptir. Komünist rejim altında iken Bulgaristan sahilleri “Kızıl Riviera” olarak bilinirdi¹⁰ ve en çok tercih edilen turist destinasyonları arasındaydı. AB üyesi olduğundan bu yana bu ününe yeniden kavuşmuş olup Varna ve Burgas’daki havalimanları aracılığıyla da yüksek bir turist talebine cevap vermektedir. Hatta turizm, Karadeniz bölgesi için bölgenin büyüyen endüstrilerinden bir tanesidir.

Günümüze kadar olan süreçte Karadeniz bölgesi’nde yoğun mücadeleler olmuştur. Osmanlı İmparatorluğu ile Rus İmparatorluğu arasında geçen deniz savaşlarına, halefleri Türkiye Cumhuriyeti ile SSCB/Rusya Federasyonu arasındaki güç mücadelesine sahne olan Karadeniz, sıcak denizlere ulaşmak isteyen Rusya için halen jeostratejik önemini korumaktadır. Sovyetler Birliği’nin aynı zamanda Akdeniz’e inmesini de engelleyen Karadeniz, II. Dünya Savaşı sonrasında önemini yitirmeye başlamıştır. Bu dönemde üç Varşova Paktı üyesi (Bulgaristan, Romanya, SSCB) ve bir NATO üyesi (Türkiye), görece barış içinde yaşamışlar; bölge uzun barış döneminin stratejik bir tampon bölgesi olmuştur¹¹. Soğuk Savaş dönemine kadar çok da ilgi çekmeyen bölge, bu dönemin bitişiyle hem iç dinamikleri hem de dış etkenler ile kendi başlangıcını gerçekleştirmiştir.

Bu değişim, bölgenin jeopolitik özelliğini artırırken dış politik müdahalelere açık olmasından dolayı daha da duyarlı hale gelmesine vesile olmuştur. Bir coğrafyada siyasi etkinlik artıyorsa, bu o bölgenin güçlendiği anlamına gelirken aynı zamanda dış politik güçler tarafından politik egemenliğin zayıflatıldığı anlamına da gelmektedir¹². Kısa bir sürede batılı güçlerin, uluslararası ve bölgesel organizasyonların odağı haline gelen Karadeniz¹³ özellikle Balkanlar ve Kafkasya’nın Avrupa’nın en sorunlu alt bölgeleri olduğu¹⁴ göz önünde bulundurulduğunda Karadeniz Bölgesinin Balkanlar, Orta Asya ve Ortadoğu’ya yakınlığı, jeostratejik önem kazanmasına neden olmaktadır. Petrol ve doğalgaz gibi önemli bölgesel doğal kaynaklar ve bunların nakliyesi için önemli bir konumda bulunan Karadeniz, Orta Asya ve Hazar Havzası’ndaki enerji kaynaklarının Avrupa’ya aktarılmasında boru hatlarını üzerinden geçirmesi sebebiyle önemli bir konuma gelmiştir. Kazak ve Azeri petrolleri ile Türkmen gazının dünyaya Karadeniz yolu ile ulaştırılması Karadeniz’in ekonomik değerini de artırmıştır¹⁵. Bulgaristan ile Romanya’nın 2007 yılında AB’ye tam üye

8 Batılı kaynaklar Yunanistan dışındaki 10 ülkeyi “Wider Black Sea Region” olarak tanımlamaktadır.

9 134. Bergedorf Yuvarlak Masa Çalışma Raporu, Berlin, Körber-Stiftung, 2007, s. 25.

10 The Red Riviera: Gender, Tourism, and Postsocialism on the Black Sea, <http://www.bowdoin.edu/books/red-riviera/> (Erişim Tarihi 17 Haziran 2015).

11 Özdem Sanberk, “Türkiye, ABD ve Yeni Karadeniz Bölgesinde Dönüşüm İçin İşbirliği”, Avrasya Dosyası, Cilt 13, Sayı 1, 2007, s. 44.

12 Deniz Kutluk, Hazar-Kafkas Petrolleri, Türk Boğazları: Çevresel Tehdit, İstanbul, TÜDAV Yayınları, No: 16, 2003, s. 23.

13 Borys Tarasyuk, “A Ukrainian View of a New Euro-Atlantic Strategy in the Black Sea Area”, Ronald D. Asmus, Konstantin Dimitrov ve Joerg Forbrig (der.), A New Euro-Atlantic Strategy For The Black Sea Region, Washington, The German Marshall Fund, 2004, s. 35.

14 Duygu B. Sezer, “The Changing Stratejik Situation in the Black Sea”, Erich Reiter (der.), JahrBuch für Internationale Sicherheitspolitik, E.S.Mittler & Sohn GmbH, 2000, s. 1.

15 Ibid., s. 5.

olmasıyla, AB Karadeniz'e kıyıdaş olmuştur. Bu döneme kadar ciddi bir Karadeniz stratejisine sahip olmayan hem ABD hem de AB, artık Karadeniz'i öncelikli politikaları arasında görmeye başlamışlardır¹⁶.

3. Avrupa Birliği Karadeniz Politikaları

Avrupa Birliği, 2004 yılında yaptığı büyük genişlemeden (Çek Cumhuriyeti, Estonya, Güney Kıbrıs, Letonya, Litvanya, Macaristan, Malta, Polonya, Slovakya ve Slovenya) ve 2007 yılında Bulgaristan ve Romanya'nın da üye olmasından sonra, sınırlarının Karadeniz'e kadar dayanması ve yeni komşular edinmesinden dolayı bu süreç sınırların nerede olduğu, tarihi misyonlar, temel değerler ve gelecekteki yönleri tartışarak¹⁷ yeni bir güvenlik ve komşuluk politikası arayışına girmiştir. Bu kapsamda, Mart 2003'te Komisyon tarafından "Daha Geniş Avrupa-Komşuluk: Güney ve Doğu Komşularıyla İlişkiler İçin Yeni Bir Çerçeve" dokümanı hazırlanarak "Daha Geniş Avrupa Görev Gücü" oluşturulmuştur. 12 Mayıs 2004 tarihinde ise komşuluk politikasının temel belgesi niteliğinde olan "Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası Strateji Belgesi" yayımlanmıştır. Aralık 2003'de "Avrupa Güvenlik Stratejisi" belgesinde belirtilen stratejik amaçlar da AB Komşuluk Politikası'nın temellerini oluşturmaktadır ki bunlar terörizm, kitle imha silahlarının yayılması, bölgesel çatışmalar ve organize suçlardır.

2003 yılında yayımlanan Avrupa Güvenlik Stratejisi, Güney Kafkasya'nın bölgenin bir parçası olduğu ve daha fazla öneme haiz olması gerektiğini vurgulayan ilk resmi belgedir. Bu Belge ile bölge, Avrupa Güvenlik ve Savunma Politikası'nda artan bir öneme sahip olmuştur. Genişleme süreci de AB'nin bölgeye daha fazla dahil olmasını sağlamıştır. 11 Nisan 2007 tarihinde yayımlanan Karadeniz Sinerjisi-Yeni Bir Bölgesel İşbirliği Girişimi, AB'yi bölge için stratejik bir vizyona götürmesinden dolayı ara bir adım olarak görülmektedir¹⁸. Aynı zamanda Kuzeydoğu Avrupa ve Kuzeydoğu Asya ülkelerini Karadeniz Sinerjisi ile desteklediğinin çok açık ifadesidir. Sinerji; komşuluk politikasının bir gereği olarak Karadeniz'e kıyısı olan Doğu Avrupa, Orta Asya ve Kuzey Kafkas ülkeleriyle, yani Ermenistan, Azerbaycan, Gürcistan, Kırgızistan, Moldova, Ukrayna ve Rusya ile ortak problemlerin çözülmesine ve ekonomik, kültürel ve politik ilişkilerin geliştirilmesine dayanmaktadır¹⁹. Bunu, Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası (European Neighbourhood Policy-ENP), AB ve Rusya arasındaki stratejik ortaklık ve Türkiye ile müzakere paketi ile tamamlanmıştır. AB, Mart 2009'da da Doğu Ortaklığı Programı'nı²⁰ hayata geçirmiştir ki yoğunlaştırılmış ikili işbirliğine ve AB ile daha derin uyuma odaklanmaktadır. AB'nin bu işbirliği, yardımseverlik ve demokrasi ile yönlendirilmiş ilişkisi, özellikle Yugoslavya, Çeçenistan ve Kafkasya olayları sırasında gösterilen kötü politika sonrasındaki tecrübesi, bu bölgeye yönelik siyasi misyon ve sorumluluklarını tamamlayacak demokratik ve barışçıl uygulamaları yeniden kurma şeklindedir²¹.

ENP, AB'nin doğuya doğru genişlemesinde şekillenmiş olup amacı, yeni komşuluk ilişkilerini yönlendirmektir. Bu Politika, AB'nin aday statüsünde olmayan yakın komşuları olan: İsrail, Ürdün, Moldova, Fas, Tunus, Filistin, Ukrayna, Ermenistan, Azerbaycan, Mısır, Gürcistan, Lübnan, Cezayir, Suriye, Libya ve Belarus olmak üzere toplam on altı ülkeyi kapsamaktadır. Hedefi, AB ve yeni komşuların refah, istikrar ve güvenliğini artırmak olan Politika, her bir ülke özelinde şekillendirilmiş projelerden oluşmaktadır. Bu projelerin ortak amacı ise, özgürlük ve demokrasinin yayılması, ekonomik bütünleşme

16 Ronald D. Asmus ve Bruce P. Jackson, "The Black Sea and the Frontiers of Freedom", Policy Review, June 1, No: 125, 2004, ss. 17.

17 Sami Moisiu, Book Review Essay, Europe's Enlargements: Security, Identity and the New-Politico-Geographical Constellations, Cooperation and Conflict Journal of the Nordic International Studies Association, 2009, p. 99.

18 Avrupa Parlamentosu 2011 yılında Karadeniz bölgesindeki gelişmeler uyarınca yürütülecek AB politikaları konusunda ikinci bir sonuç belgesi kabul etmiştir.

19 E. Sare Aydın Yılmaz, "AB'nin Güvenlik Politikası ve Karadeniz Bölgesi ile İlişkileri", <http://dergipark.ulakbim.gov.tr/karadearas/article/viewFile/5000052299/5000049618>, (Erişim Tarihi 06 Aralık 2015).

20 Bu Programa, Azerbaycan, Beyaz Rusya, Ermenistan, Gürcistan, Moldova ve Ukrayna dahildir.

21 Reimund Seidelmann, "European Union and Eastern Europe", Mario Telo (der.), European Union and New Regionalism, Hants, Ashgate, 2001, s. 191

sağlama ve refah düzeylerini artırmadığı. Aynı zamanda yasadışı göç, sığınma talepleri, kadın-çocuk ticareti ve uyuşturucu trafiğinden dolayı da bu Politikayı oluşturan AB, enerji sorunu ile de ilgilenmektedir.

“Barış misyonuna” sahip bir AB düşüncesi, Avrupa’nın başından sonuna kadar istikrar sağlayabilmek için hem ahlaki hem de ayrıcalıklı kimlik sağlayan bir AB sağlarken, “Avrupalı değerler”in sınırlarının dışında da yayılması için çalışmaktadır²². “Tam ve özgür bir Avrupa (Europe whole and free)²³” ve “Sınırlar Olmaksızın Avrupa (Europe without dividing lines)²⁴” gibi sloganlar, bu tür bir çabayı göstermektedir. “Avrupalı değerlerin” yaygınlaştırılması aracılığıyla istikrarın ve güvenliğin geliştirilmesi isteği, güvenlik söylemleri ile de artırılmıştır. Tassinari’nin belirttiği gibi AB geleneksel olarak Birlik’in güvenliğini sağlayacak ileri entegrasyonlar için tüm eğilimleri dengeleme içerisinde²⁵.

Çünkü AB, sınırları dışında kalan bölgeyi istikrarsızlık ve güvensizlik kaynağı olarak görme eğilimindedir. Sonuçta bu düşünceye karşı çıkarılmış iki politika ile cevap verilmektedir. Birincisi, tehlikeyi Avrupa kale kapılarının dışında tutmak için geçirgen olmayan sınırları yaratmak ve içerideki güvenliği korumaktır ki, buna verilecek en güzel örnek de Schengen vize uygulamasıdır²⁶. İkincisi, dış tehditlerin üstesinden gelmek ve açık barış projesi olan AB ideallerini yaşatmak adına AB yönetim sistemlerini genişletmek ve istikrar ile güvenliği sağlamak için politikalar geliştirmektir.

ENP, AB’nin temel dış politika araçlarından daha derin ve bütünleştirilmiş bir çerçeve çizmesinden dolayı daha farklı ve bütüncül bir politika. ENP ile klasik dış politika yönetiminden öte komşu ülkelerin reform ve modernleşme sürecine daha fazla destek olma imkanını sağlamaktadır. Eşleştirme (Twinning) ve Teknik İşbirliği ve Bilgi Değişimi (Technical Assistance and Information Exchange-TAIX) gibi programlar aracılığıyla mali ve teknik yardım desteklenmektedir. Bu kapsamda Doğu Avrupa ve Rusya’ya yönelik Bağımsız Devletler Topluluğu’na Teknik Yardım (Technical Aid to the Commonwealth of Independent States-TACIS) programı; Güney Akdeniz kıyıları için Avrupa-Akdeniz Ortaklığı (Euro-Mediterranean Partnership-MEDA); Batı Balkan ülkelerine yönelik Batı Balkanlarda Yeniden Yapılanma, Kalkınma ve İstikrara Yönelik Topluluk Yardımı (The Community Assistance for Reconstruction, Development and Stabilization-CARDS) gibi programlar 2000-2006 döneminde uygulanmıştır. Tüm bu Programlar, 1 Ocak 2007 itibarıyla Katılım Öncesi Mali Yardım Aracı (Instrument of Pre-Accession-IPA) altında birleştirilmiş; Avrupa Komşuluk ve Ortaklık Aracı (ENPI) da Karadeniz Bölgesi’ne yönelik ENP için mali kaynak oluşturmuştur.

ENP kapsamında doğu komşuları ile imzalanmış olan Ortaklık ve İşbirliği Anlaşmaları ile güney komşularıyla imzalanmış Ortaklık Anlaşmaları bünyesinde yapılan Eylem Planları, bu politikanın en önemli uygulama araçlarıdır. Ortak değerlere bağlılık; daha etkili siyasi diyalog; ekonomik ve sosyal kalkınma politikası; ticaret ve iç pazar; enerji ve ulaşım gibi temel unsurları bulunan Eylem Planları kapsamında, ilgili ülkelere ciddi maddi destekler sağlanmıştır. Üyelik perspektifi sunmayan bu politikanın özü aslında komşu ülkeleri “dışarıdakiler” konumuna sokmadan ilişkileri hassas bir dengede tutmak; ancak artık genişleme kapasitesi azalan AB’yi yeni ve büyük genişlemelerden uzak tutmaktır.

Türkiye’nin AB’ye adaylık süreci, ENP’nin dışında tutulmasına yol açmıştır; ancak Türkiye’nin AB’ye bir gün üye olabilecek olması Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası’nı yeni ve sorunlu bölgelerle buluşturması açısından farklı bir anlam taşımaktadır. Türkiye üye olduğunda Güney Kafkaslar (Gürcistan, Ermenistan ve Azerbaycan), Irak, İran ve Suriye AB’nin sınır komşuları haline gelecektir. Bu durumda Türkiye’nin söz konusu komşu ülkelerle ikili ilişkileri oldukça önem kazanmaktadır. Türkiye’nin bölge coğrafyasında

22 Christopher S. Browning ve Pertti Joenniemi. “Geostrategies of the European Neighbourhood Policy”, *European Journal of International Relations*, 14, 519, 2008. s. 524.

23 Soğuk Savaş’ın bitişinin 20. yıldönümü kutlamaları vesilesiyle Merkezi ve Doğu Avrupa ülke vatandaşlarının görüşlerini paylaşması için oluşturulmuş Avrupa Komisyonu girişimidir.

24 Avrupa Konseyi, Parlamenter Meclisi’nin “Building Greater Europe without dividing lines” adlı 1999 tarihli raporu. <http://assembly.coe.int/Documents/WorkingDocs/doc99/edoc8299.htm>, (Erişim Tarihi 17 Haziran 2015).

25 Fabrizio Tassinari, “Security and Integration in the EU Neighbourhood: The Case for Regionalism”, CEPS Working Document, No. 226/July, 2005, s. 1.

26 Heather Grabbe, “The Sharp Edges of Europe: Extending Schengen Eastwards”, *International Affairs*, 76(3), 2000, s. 525.

Avrupalı bir ülke olarak yer alması ve etkili bir rol oynaması Türkiye'nin komşu ülkeleri için iyi bir model olmasını sağlayacaktır²⁷.

ENPI Sınır Ötesi İşbirliği (SÖİ) kapsamında iki tip program öngörülmüştür²⁸: **1. AB üyesi ülkeler ile komşu ülkeler arasındaki ortak kara ve deniz sınırlarında gerçekleştirilen SÖİ programları:** Bu programlar, AB üyesi ülkeler ile komşu ülkeler arasındaki tüm kara sınırları ve belirli deniz sınırları boyunca yer alan Düzey 3 Bölgelerini kapsamaktadır. Eğer ilgili komşu ülkede istatistiki bölge birimleri sınıflandırılması yapılmamış ise, Düzey 3 Bölgesine denk gelen idari yerleşim birimleri program kapsamına alınmaktadır. Ayrıca, bu bölgelere komşu olan bölgelerin de (adjoining regions) program kapsamına dahil edilmesine imkan tanınmaktadır. Bu çerçevede, ENPI SÖİ kapsamında 9 adet kara sınırı ve 3 adet deniz sınırı SÖİ programının desteklenmesi öngörülmektedir²⁹. **2. AB üyesi ülkeler ile komşu ülkeler arasındaki ortak deniz havzalarında gerçekleştirilen çok taraflı havza programları:** Bu programlar, AB üyesi ülkeler ile komşu ülkeler arasındaki ortak deniz havzalarında yer alan Düzey 2 Bölgelerini kapsamaktadır. Eğer ilgili komşu ülkede istatistiki bölge birimleri sınıflandırılması yapılmamış ise, Düzey 2 Bölgesine denk gelen idari yerleşim birimleri program kapsamına alınmaktadır. Ayrıca, program bütçesinin yüzde 20'sini aşmaması koşuluyla, bu bölgelere komşu olan bölgelerin de program kapsamına dahil edilmesine imkan tanınmaktadır.

Bu çerçevede, ENPI SÖİ kapsamında Akdeniz, Baltık Denizi ve Karadeniz havzalarında olmak üzere, 3 adet havza programı öngörülmektedir³⁰. ENPI Tüzüğü madde 9(5)'de belirtildiği üzere, ilgili havzada yer alan, ancak ENPI kapsamında yer almayan diğer ülkelerin havza programlarına katılmasına imkan tanınmaktadır. Böylece, Türkiye'nin Akdeniz ve Karadeniz havzaları SÖİ programlarına katılması imkanı doğmuştur. Bu programlara katılma imkanı bulunan tek IPA ülkesi Türkiye'dir.

4. Bölgeselleşme

Dünyada birçok ülke ekonomik alan başta olmak üzere farklı alanlarda ittifak oluşturmaya başlamışlardır. Avrupa kıtasında Avrupa Birliği (AB), Amerika'da Kuzey Amerika Serbest Ticaret Anlaşması (NAFTA), Asya'da Asya-Pasifik Ekonomik İşbirliği (APEC) en göze çarpan ittifaklar olmaları yanında bölgesel ekonomik entegrasyonlara da güzel örnek teşkil etmektedirler. Bu tür yapılanmalar ticari sınırları kaldırmakta ve aynı zamanda bölgeselleşme eğilimlerini artırmaktadırlar. Bölgeselleşme, küreselleşme ile birlikte gelmekte olup ittifak içerisine girememiş ülkelerin ekonomik anlamda kalkınmalarına da engel olabilmektedir.

Avrupa'daki bölgeselleşmenin büyümesi olayına dönmeden önce "bölge" kavramının tanımlanması yerinde olacaktır. Bu kavram çoğunlukla coğrafi bir tanımla karşımıza çıkmakta olup, ortak birtakım özellikleri olan ancak herhangi yönetim ya da yönetim yapılarına vurgu yapmayan bir kavramdır. Bölge kavramı temelde, sosyo-ekonomik olarak birbirine bağlı mekanların tespit edilmesi ve çerçevesinin çizilmesini amaçlayan bölge planlamanın ve mekan düzenlemenin 19. yüzyılda ortaya çıkmış bir ürünüdür³¹. Bölge sözcüğü bir mekan birimini ifade etmekte olup boyutu ve içeriği, sözcüğün kullanıldığı bağlama göre de değişebilir ya da aynı bağlamda farklılık gösterebilir. Konumuz Avrupa Birliği olduğu için AB'de planlama anlamında bölgeler; kent ve metropol alandan, çok geniş kırsal bölgeye kadar çeşitli

27 Bu konuda daha fazla bilgi almak için yazarın TÜBİTAK Bursu ile Birleşik Krallık Birmingham Üniversitesi'nde yürüttüğü "Turkey's European Union Membership and Cross Border Cooperation: Today's Opportunities and Tomorrow's Challenges" adlı araştırma projesi incelenebilir.

28 Cross-Border Cooperation within the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument. European Commission, Development and Cooperation. http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/where/neighbourhood/regional-cooperation/enpi-cross-border/index_en.htm, (Erişim Tarihi: 8 Temmuz 2015).

29 European Commission. European Neighbourhood & Partnership Instrument Cross-Border Cooperation Strategy Paper 2007-2013. http://ec.europa.eu/world/enp/pdf/country/enpi_cross-border_cooperation_strategy_paper_en.pdf, s. 20, (Erişim Tarihi: 8 Temmuz 2015).a.g.e. p. 20

30 Ibid., s. 32.

31 Klemens Probst, Regionale Selbstverwaltung Die bayerische Bezirke als Modell für ein bürgernahes Europa, Rechtswissenschaftliche Forschung und Entwicklung, 452, München, Florentz, 1994, s. 131.

boyutlardadır. Bir kısmı kültürel, sosyal, ekonomik açıdan, bir kısmı işlevsel açıdan bütünlük gösteren birimlerdir³². Avrupa kurumları bölgeyi tanımlamaya çalışırken genelde politik-yönetimsel birimlerden hareket etmektedirler. “Bölge” kavramı aynı zamanda ulusüstü bir seviyede, Avrupa ve Avustralasya gibi dünya bölgelerini tanımlarken de kullanılır. Avrupa Birliği değişinde ise bu kavram, alt ulus yönetim yapılarına vurgu yapmadan, mesela İstatistiki Bölge Birimleri Sınıflandırması (İBBS-NUTS) aracılığıyla istatistiksel sınıflandırma için kullanılır³³.

AB’de bölgeselleşme, kendine özgü bir devletleşmeden ziyade yerel birimlerin kurulmasında daha güçlü insani ölçütlerin bulunmasını araştırmaktadır³⁴. Mengi, bölgeselleşmeyi, adem-i merkezileşme yönünde, merkezi yönetim karşısında yerel ve bölgesel birimlerin yönetsel açıdan güçlendirilmesi olarak tanımlamaktadır³⁵. Bölgeselleşme kelimesi, bir bölgede yaşayanları ilgilendiren istekler ve aktivizmin anlamına gelir ve böyle bir birimin özel ihtiyaçlarının araştırılmasında kullanılır³⁶. Joseph Nye bölgeyi, “coğrafi ilişki ve karşılıklı bağımlılık derecesi ile bir araya gelmiş sınırlı sayıda devlet” olarak ve bölgeselleşmeyi de “bölgeler temelinde devletlerarası gruplaşma biçimi” olarak tanımlar³⁷. Nalbant’a göre de bölgeselleşme olgusu üç ana başlıkta toplanmaktadır: ekonomik nedenler, politik nedenler ve kültürel ve dilsel nedenler³⁸. Bölgeler arasındaki ekonomik gelişmişlik farkları bölgeselleşmenin en önemli itici gücü olup sonucunda bölgesel aktörlerin birlikteliği doğmakta, hatta ekonomik ağlar kurulmaktadır. Merkezi devlet yapısında görülen siyasi yetersizlikler de bölgeselleşmenin politik nedenlerinin başında gelmektedir. Bazı ülkelerde görülen kimi bölgeselleşme eğilimlerinin başında da kültürel ve dilsel nedenler gelmektedir ki buna verilebilecek en güzel örnek Belçika’nın Valon, Flaman ve Alman Özerk Topluluklara sahip olmasıdır.

Avrupa Bölgeler Topluluğu (Assembly of European Regions-AER) yayınladığı Deklarasyon’da bölgeselleşmeyi, “Devlet’in bir alt birimi olarak kamu hukuku ile kurulmuş ve kendi siyasi hükümetine sahip bölgesel bir birim” (Madde 1.1) olarak tanımlamaktadır. Bu tanımlamaya göre Avrupa bölgeleri bağdaşık bir kimlik değil, büyüklük, nüfus, kurumsal yapılar, yeterlilik ve mali güçler açısından büyük farklılık göstermektedir³⁹. Ancak bölgeselleşme, merkezi hükümetten kendini ayıran özel bir bölge hareketini simgeleyen ayrılıkçılık gibi bir yanlış anlama şeklinde anlaşılmamalıdır. Federalizm gibi de kabul edilmemelidir ki federalizm bölgeselleşmenin bir alt unsurudur. Federal bir sistem altında, egemenlik merkezi bir yönetim otoritesi ile anayasal siyasi birimler arasında bölünmüş olup bölgeselleşmenin diğer formları gibi de olma zorunluluğu bulunmamaktadır.

1957 yılında ilk toplantısını gerçekleştiren Avrupa Bölgesel ve Yerel Yönetimler Kongresi, ekonomik, toplumsal ve kültürel özellikleri ile bir bütün oluşturan ve bir yörede oturan kişilerin kendi doğal kaynaklarını işletmelerini bölgecilik kavramı olarak tanımlamış⁴⁰; buna göre AB’nin Avrupa entegrasyonu sürecinde izlediği politikalar da bölgeselleşme kavramı olarak literatüre girmiştir. Avrupa’da bölgeselleşmenin tarihi İkinci Dünya Savaşı sonrası görülmekte olup, her bir Devlet güçlerini ve sorumluluklarını yerel yönetimler ile paylaşmak için farklı reformlar hayata geçirmişlerdir. 1960 ve 1970lerden başlayarak 1980 ve 1990lara gelinceye kadar merkeziyetçilikten önemli bir ayrılma

32 Füsün Özerdem, “AB Destekli Bölgesel Kalkınma Programları ve Bölgeye Getirdiği Değerler”, Uluslararası Bölgesel Kalkınma Sempozyumu Bildiri Kitabı, Gazetecilik Matbaacılık, Reklamcılık, Ajans ve Medya Hizmetleri Ltd. Şirketi, Yozgat, 2011, s. 100.

33 Assembly of European Regions, The State of Regionalism in Europe, Strasbourg, AER, 2010, s. 15.

34 Klemens Probst, s. 173 ve 179.

35 Ayşegül Mengi, Avrupa Birliği’nde Bölgesel Karşısında Yerel Yönetimler Ankara, İmaj Yayıncılık, 1998, s. 45.

36 Peter Wagstaff, “Regions, Nations, Identities”, Peter Wagstaff (der.), Regionalism in the European Union, Oregon, Intellect Books, 1999, s. 6.

37 Joseph Nye, International Regionalism, Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1968, s. vii.

38 Atilla Nalbant, “Bölgesel Devlet: Yeni Bir Devlet Biçimi mi? (I) Kuramsal Temeller”, Amme İdaresi Dergisi, Cilt 29, Sayı 2, 1996, s. 41.

39 Assembly of European Regions, s. 15.

40 Ibid., s. 17.

gözlenmiştir⁴¹. Bu da, bölgeselleşmeyi bitmiş bir süreçten ziyade sürekli gelişen bir duruma sokmaktadır. Bugün bile bu süreç devam etmekte ve bölgeselleşmenin daha ileri gelişimleri açısından devam eden bir etki görülmektedir⁴². Buna verilecek en güzel örnek doğu ve güney ülkelerinin çok taraflı ticaret sistemini benimseyerek bölgeselleşme sürecinin bu ülkelerin dünya ticaretine katılmaları konusunda “tamamlayıcı” rol üstlenmesidir⁴³. Bu örnekten de yola çıkarak 1980lerin ortalarından günümüze kadar gelen yeni bölgeselcilik ile 1980lere kadar olan dönemde yaşanan eski bölgeselcilik arasındaki temel farklar aşağıdaki tabloda verilmiştir.

Tablo 1: Eski ve Yeni Bölgeselleşme⁴⁴

ESKİ	YENİ
İthal ikameci sanayileşme politikaları, dünya ekonomisinden kopma	İhracat artırıcı politikalar ve ticaret liberalizasyonu, dünya ekonomisiyle entegrasyon
Kaynakların planlı ve kurumsal dağılımı	Kaynakların piyasa tarafından dağılımı
Bölgesel rekabet	Küresel rekabet
Bölge içi ticaretin önceliği	Açık ticaret, yatırım ve büyümenin önemi
Güney-Güney veya Kuzey-Kuzey ortaklığı	Kuzey-Güney ortaklığı
Temel olarak sanayi ürünlerinin serbest dolaşımı	Bütün ürünlerin, hizmetlerin serbest dolaşımı ve yatırımın liberalizasyonu
Sadece sınır engellerinin kaldırılması	Derin entegrasyon
Gelişmekte olan ülkeler için tercihli muamele	Karşılıklı ve eşit muamele
Genellikle bir bölgesel gruba üye olma	Birden fazla bölgesel gruba üye olma

Yeni bölgeselleşme farklı yazarlar tarafından farklı şekilde tanımlanmıştır ancak bu kavram genellikle 1980lerin ortalarından ve özellikle Soğuk Savaş'ın bitişi olan 1989'dan itibaren bölgesel işbirliği ve entegrasyonun “ikinci dalgası” şeklinde algılanmıştır⁴⁵.

5. Avrupa Birliği Karadeniz Politikası ile Karadeniz’de Bölgeselleşme

Bölgesel entegrasyon çeşitlerine AB açısından baktığımızda ilk olarak Gümrük Birliği örneği verilebilir. Gümrük Tarifeleri ve Ticaret Genel Anlaşması'nın 24. maddesine göre tanımlanan gümrük birliği, üçüncü ülkelerle yapılan ticarete genel olarak aynı vergi ve ticaret uygulamaları olan serbest ticaret bölgesidir⁴⁶. Ancak gümrük birliğinin bir sakıncası da birliğe dahil olan ülkeler açısından eşitsiz bir büyümenin olabilmesidir. Bunun önüne geçebilmek için de emeğin ve sermayenin serbest dolaşımı sağlanmalıdır ki bu da ortak pazarı gündeme getirmektedir. Ortak pazarın da bir üst aşaması ekonomik birliktir. Bu aşamada ülkelerin uyguladıkları ulusal politikalar, birliğin geneliyle uyumlaştırılmaktadır. En son aşama ise tam ekonomik bütünleşmedir ki örnek olarak ülkeler tek bir paraya geçmişlerdir. AB bu aşamadaki bütünleşmenin en güzel örneğidir.

41 Bölgeselleşmenin tarihi ve kuramsal geçmişi hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için bkz: Louise Fawcett, “Regionalism in Historical Perspective”, Louise Fawcett, Andrew Hurrell (der.), Regionalism in World Politics, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2004, s. 9-36; Andrew Hurrell, “Regionalism in Theoretical Perspective”, Louise Fawcett, Andrew Hurrell (der.), Regionalism in World Politics, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2004, s. 37-73.

42 Assembly of European Regions s. 16.

43 Sajal Lahiri, Regionalism and Globalization, New York, Routledge Contemporary Economic Policy Issues, 2001, s. 4.

44 Yonca Özer, “Dünya Ekonomisinde Gelişmeler: Bölgeselleşme”, Osman Küçükahmetoğlu, Hamza Çeştepe, Şevket Tüylüoğlu (der.), Ekonomik Entegrasyon Küresel ve Bölgesel Yaklaşım, Ankara, Ekin Kitabevi, 2005, s. 30.

45 Björn Hettne, “Globalization and the New Regionalism: The Second Great Transformation”, Björn Hettne, Andras Inotai ve Osvaldo Sunkel (der.), Globalism and The New Regionalism, Hampshire, Macmillan Pres Ltd, 1999, s. 8.

46 Understanding on the Interpretation of Article XXIV of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994, http://www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e/10-24_e.htm, (Erişim Tarihi: 12 Temmuz 2015).

Tarihsel açıdan Karadeniz bölgesinde sosyal ve ekonomik bir birlik formuna işaret eden bir kanıt görülmemiştir⁴⁷. Avrupa, Asya ve Orta Doğu arasında bir köprü görevi görmesinden dolayı Karadeniz, değişik paydaşlar arasında jeostratejik bir öneme sahip olmuştur. Anlaşmazlıkların tarihi nedenleri ve modern zamanlarda bölgenin parçalanmış doğası yüzünden Karadeniz bölgesi ülkeleri arasında bölgesel işbirliği ve entegrasyon geçmişte de zor ve belirsiz olmuştur⁴⁸. 1990lardan bu yana hem bölgedeki hem de bölge dışındaki paydaşlar, bölgenin güvenlik, enerji, ticaret rotaları ve ekonomik değişim konularında sürekli artan bir ilgi içerisinde olmuşlardır. Sürekli artan bu uluslararası ilgiye paralel olarak bölgeselleşmenin birçok çeşidi yada ifadesi 1990larda ortaya çıkmaya başlamış ve bölgeselleşmenin “olimpiyat halkaları”nı yaratmıştır⁴⁹. Karadeniz bölgesel işbirliğinin gelişimi, bölgedeki zorlu güvenlik ve sosyo-ekonomik koşulları, çoğu kere de paydaşların rekabet politikalarını yansıtmaktadır. Karadeniz bölgeselleşmesini tanımlayan iki dönem bulunmaktadır. Birincisi, 1990ların başlarında başlamış ve Soğuk Savaş sonrası dünyada yer bulan sistematik değişimlerle ilişkilendirilmiştir. 2000li yılların başında ise Karadeniz bölgeselleşmesinin ikinci dönemi, bir yandan Avrupa’daki sistematik değişimlerle (AB ve NATO genişlemesi), diğer yandan küresel sorunların artan bölgesel etkisiyle ilişkilendirilmiştir.

Karadeniz bölgesinde yapılan bölgeselleşme hareketlerinden biri olan Karadeniz Ekonomik İşbirliği Örgütü (KEİ), Türkiye’nin önderliğinde 1992 yılında kurulmuştur. Arnavutluk, Azerbaycan, Bulgaristan, Ermenistan, Moldova, Romanya, Rusya Federasyonu, Sırbistan, Türkiye, Ukrayna ve Yunanistan’ın üye olduğu Örgüt, barış ve insan haklarını ön plana çıkaran bir siyasi tutum takınmıştır; ancak ekonomik işbirliği anlamında çok da başarıya ulaşamamıştır. Örgüt üyesi ülkeler, bu entegrasyon ile mal ve hizmet ticaretini artırmayı hedeflemişler, uzun dönemde de kişilerin, malların ve sermayenin serbest dolaşımı hedeflenmiştir.

Ancak Karadeniz bölgesinde yer alan ülkeler, büyüklük, ekonomik yapı ve gelişmişlik düzeyleri açısından birbirlerinden farklılık göstermektedir. Örneğin AB üyeleri ve Türkiye, genel anlamda daha gelişmiş ve AB ile ilişkileri açısından küresel ekonomiye daha entegre olmuşlardır. Bu, daha büyük küresel fırsatlar için karlı olurken ekonomik şoklar açısından (finansal bulaşma gibi) daha yüksek risk getirmektedir. Moldova ve Kafkas ülkeleri küçük ve daha az açık ülkeler olup bu duruş onları küresel ekonomik kargaşadan uzak tutarken özellikle ana kentsel merkezler dışında kalan yerlerin az gelişmiş ve sürekli bir yüksek yoksulluk oranına maruz kalmasına sebep olmaktadır. İki enerji ihracatçısı olan Rusya ve Azerbaycan ekonomilerini çeşitlendirmeye devam etmektedirler. Ukrayna, kendi sosyal çeşitlilik, politik sistem ve ekonomik yapısından kaynaklanan bir takım sorunla karşı karşıyadır.

Ekonomik açıdan değerlendirildiğinde Karadeniz bölgesinin temel dış aktörleri, önem sırasına göre AB, Amerika, Çin, Orta Doğu ve Merkezi Asya’dır. Bunlar arasında AB ekonomik açıdan öyle büyük bir öneme sahiptir ki geri kalanlar “cüce” gibi görünmektedir⁵⁰. AB’nin kararları Karadeniz bölgesi üzerinde büyük ve doğrudan bir etkiye sahip olup çoğunlukla dışsal bir etki yaratmaktadır. Bu yüzden AB kararları, bölgedeki AB üyesi olmayan ülkeler üzerinde göze çarpan bir şekilde dolaylı bir etki göstermektedir. Bu bazen olumlu olmakta ancak zaman zaman da ayırıcı veya olumsuz olmaktadır. Bertelsmann Vakfı’nın analizine göre “Avrupa Birliği dikkate alındığında, Karadeniz bölgesi enerji kaynakları dar boğazının yaşandığı civar ama öte yandan farklı kültür ve nüfus alanlarının odak noktası”dır⁵¹. AB Karadeniz bölgesi için ayrıca kritik bir pazardır. Karadeniz bölgesinden gelen ihracatların ana destinasyonudur; ayrıca kredilendirme, yatırım ve resmi yardım açısından finansman sağlayan temel kaynaktır. Bulgaristan ve Romanya’nın üye olmasıyla AB, Karadeniz kıyılarına kadar genişlemiş ve bölge, hızlı bir ekonomik büyüme görürken bölgeye olan ilgi de artmış olup bunun devam etmesi beklenmektedir. 2004-2009 yılları arasında AB Dış İlişkiler ve

47 Charles King, *The Black Sea A History*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2006, s. 31.

48 Mustafa Aydın, “Regional Cooperation in the Black Sea and The Role of Institutions”, *Perceptions*, Autumn 2005, s. 61.

49 Panagiotis Manoli, *Reinvigorating Black Sea Cooperation: A Policy Discussion*, Policy Report III, Bertelsmann Stiftung, Gütersloh, 2010, s. 9.

50 Panagiotis Gavras, *The Current State of Economic Development in the Black Sea Region*, Policy Report I, Bertelsmann Stiftung, Gütersloh, 2010, s. 20.

51 Bertelsmann Foundation www.bertelsmann-stiftung.de/cps/rde/xchg/SID-08AEC9FF-36381038/bst/hs.xml/86681_87271.htm (Erişim Tarihi: 03 Ocak 2016).

Komşuluk Politikası'ndan sorumlu Komisyon üyesi Benita Ferrero-Waldner, "Bulgaristan ve Romanya'nın katılımıyla AB Karadeniz Bölgesi'nin bir parçası haline gelmiştir. Siyasi olarak dikkatimizi bölgesel düzeyde yoğunlaştırmanın ve Rusya, Türkiye ve doğudaki Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası ortaklarımızla işbirliği için yeni bir alan açarak devam etmekte olan işbirliği süreçlerini canlandırmanın artık zamanı gelmiştir"⁵² şeklinde bir açıklama yapmıştır. Ekonomik kriz, çeşitli ilgi ve AB üye ülkelerinin farklı önceliklerine rağmen, AB, batı ve merkezi Avrupa ülkeleri son yıllarda Karadeniz bölgesi ile durmadan gelişen bir ekonomik birliktelik kurmakta, yatırım için yeni fırsatlar ve genişlemiş pazarlar aramaktadırlar. Uzun dönemde bu, Karadeniz bölgesini AB'ye daha da yakınlaştıran önemli bir faktör olacaktır. Burada sorulması gereken en önemli soru, AB kendi kural, düzenleme ve standartlarını "ihraç" etme konusunda ısrarlı olduğu müddetçe ne olacağıdır. Birçok durumda AB kuralları, ekonominin gelişmesi ve daha şeffaf olmasını sağladığı, rekabeti artırdığı, açık yasal çerçeveler çizdiği ve sınır ötesi uygulanabilirlik kattığı için son model uygulamaları temsil etmektedir. Ancak yine de, bazı AB uygulamaları fark gözetmekte ve ortak tarım politikası gibi sorun yaratmasına rağmen, AB'nin Karadeniz bölgesi ile kurumsal ilişkileri ilgili birçok ülkede önemli bir etki yaratmaktadır. Yunanistan'ın 2000 yılında eurobölgesine dahil olması, Bulgaristan ve Romanya'nın AB'ye katılımı ve Türkiye'nin AB'ye tam üye olmak için müzakerelere başlamasından bu yana, önemli ve olumlu ekonomik gelişmeler bulunmaktadır. AB ile ticaret artmış, yatırım yükselmiş ve devlet kredi derecelendirmesi gelişmiş, ve böylece borçlanma maliyeti düşmüştür⁵³. Ancak AB'nin Karadeniz bölgesi ülkeleriyle işbirliği konusundaki etkisi tümünden karlı değildir. Çünkü Karadeniz bölge ülkeleriyle ilişkiler, bölgesel işbirliği için gerekli uygulamaları göz önünde bulundurmaksızın iki taraflı gelişmektedir. Bu "diğer coğrafi bölgelerdeki en başından beri iki taraflı değil bölgesel bir formatta tasarlanmış AB girişimlerine tam bir tezat teşkil etmektedir"⁵⁴.

Soğuk Savaşın neticelenmesi ile Karadeniz bölge ülkeleri özgürlüklerine kavuşmuş ancak 1990ların başında bölge, silahlı çatışmalara ve siyasi gerilimlere tanıklık etmiştir. 11 Eylül saldırısı sonrası Amerika'nın da bölgeye olan ilgisi artmış ve Gürcistan ve Ukrayna'ya çeşitli programlar uygulamış; AB ve NATO gibi kurumlar da bölgeye genişletme başlatmıştır. Bölgedeki bu güvenlik ve istikrar yaratımı, bölgesel aktörler arasında gerilim ve rekabet ile sonuçlanmıştır⁵⁵. Soğuk Savaş sonrası dönemde Karadeniz bölgesi, bölgesel aktörlerin ana paydaş oldukları işbirliğine dayalı bir güvenlik yapısı geliştirememiştir. Bunun en önemli nedeni, Karadeniz bölgesinde çok sayıda aktörün bulunmasıdır ki daha önceki bölümde de ifade edildiği üzere güvenlik açısından bölge birçok tarihi mirası barındırmaktadır.

11 Eylül 2001 sonrası dönemde güvenlik çevresi değişmiş, Türkiye Irak konusunda Amerika ile anlaşmazlığa düşmüş, Rusya ve NATO arasında artan gerilim Türkiye'yi Karadeniz açısından "dikkat" politikasına itmiştir⁵⁶. Bölgede var olan Karadeniz Ekonomik İşbirliği Örgütü, Karadeniz Deniz İşbirliği Görev Gücü ve Karadeniz Uyum Harekatı girişimlerinin anlaşmazlıklardan kaynaklanan sorunlardan zarar görmemesi için Türkiye statükoyu savunan bir tavır benimsemiştir. Diğer bölgesel aktörler de kendi önceliklerine göre hareket etmektedirler. Hali hazırda NATO ve AB üyesi olan Bulgaristan ve Romanya, Amerika ile yakın ilişkiler içerisinde olmaya en ilgili ülkelerdir. Amerika'nın pozisyonu başta Romanya olmak üzere, Bulgaristan, Gürcistan ve daha az olmak kaydıyla Ukrayna tarafından desteklenmektedir. Romanya hükümeti Romanya'yı, Karadeniz'de bir şeyler yapmak durumunda olan bir AB üyesi olarak görmek

52 "The European Neighbourhood Policy and Black Sea Synergy – new opportunities for Bulgaria", European Commission Press Release, 17 September 2007, http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_SPEECH-07-538_en.htm?locale=en (Erişim Tarihi: 2 Aralık 2015).

53 Ibid., s. 21.

54 Vasily Astrov ve Peter Havlik, "Economic Developments in the Wider Black Sea Region", Daniel Hamilton ve Gerhard Mangott (der.), The Wider Black Sea Region in the 21st Century: Strategic, Economic, and Energy Perspectives, Center for Transatlantic Relations, The Johns Hopkins University and the Austrian Institute for International Affairs, 2008, ss. 137–139.

55 Mitat Çelikpala, Security in the Black Sea Region, Policy Report II, Bertelsmann Stiftung, Gütersloh, 2010, s. 7.

56 Ibid., s. 12.

istemektedir. Yunanistan ve Bulgaristan'ın desteği olmaksızın bu çok da gerçekçi olmamakla birlikte pazarlık sürecinde AB'den önemli bir ayrıcalık görmesine yardımcı olacaktır⁵⁷.

Bölgesel devletler arasında devam eden potansiyel askeri çatışmalar, bölgesel istikrar ve güvenlik konusunda temel tehditleri oluşturmaktadır. Komşuluğun ihtilaf eğilimi bölgede rol oynamakta; istikrarsızlığın ve güvensizliğin kaynağı olduğu müddetçe dikkate alınmaya ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Etnik, dini yada kişi ve devletler arasındaki başka farklılıklardan veya sınır sorunlarından sebeplenerek katı güvenlik konuları bölgede halen ana konudur. Örneğin Rusya'nın Abhazya'nın ve Güney Osetya'nın bağımsızlığını tek taraflı tanıması, bölgesel dengeyi ve sınırları değiştirmekle kalmamış, siyasi gelişmeler için de çıkarımlar sağlamıştır.

6. Sonuç

Son 30 yıl göstermiştir ki bölgeselleşme ve bölgesel entegrasyon, dünyanın birçok yerinde daha geniş istikrar ve güvenlik sağlama ve kalıcı barışa yönelik engelleri kaldırmada öncü görev üstlenmektedirler. Bu hareketler ortak ilgileri bir araya getirirken diyalog ve işbirliği ortamına yardımcı olmakta ve daha geniş bir mutabakatın önünü açmaktadır.

AB'nin, Avrupa Komşuluk Politikası aracılığıyla hayata geçirdiği Karadeniz bölgesel politikaları, belirli konularda birçok paydaşın odak noktasını oluşturmaktadır. Bu eğilim geliştikçe Karadeniz bölgeselleşmesinin doğası da değişecektir. Bu gelişmelere paralel olarak, bölgesel yapılar daha da gelişecektir. Aynı zamanda, özellikle sınır ötesi ve kıyasal konulara işaret eden bölgesel projelere sağlanan kaynak ve hibeler, Bulgaristan ve Romanya'nın Birliğe katılımıyla artmıştır. Elbette yapılan bu ilk olumlu adımlar daha da geliştirilmelidir.

Karadeniz bölgesi rekabetçi güvenlik çevresinden bölgesel işbirliğini teşvik eden ve güçlendiren bir yapıya dönüşmelidir. Bunun için de tüm uluslararası ve bölgesel işbirliği girişimleri desteklenmeli, işbirliğinin bu dönüşümü güvenlik alanında da rol oynamalıdır.

Bölgedeki gelişmeler yerel dinamiklerin canlanışına da bağlıdır. Dış güçler bu dinamiklere gerekli desteği sağlamalıdır ki bu da artı değer kazandıracaktır. Bunun olumlu sonuçlar doğurabilmesi de hem Amerika'nın hem de AB'nin bölgedeki yerel işbirliği mekanizmaları ya da yerel taleplere cevap veren iki taraflı temel üzerinde çalışmalarını gerekli kılmaktadır. Dış güçlerin yerel girişimlerle mutabakatını sürdürebilir kılmak için bu daha gerçekçi olacak ve yönlendirilmiş bir yaklaşımla sonuçlanacaktır.

Karadeniz bölgesi tarihi, kültürel, ekonomik ve jeopolitik önemini sürdürdüğü müddetçe etnik ve milliyetçi gerilimlerle ateşlenen anlaşmazlık ve ayrılıkçı hareketlerle yüzyüze kalacaktır. Bölgede bölgesel ve sınır ötesi işbirliğini daha da geliştirmek için farklı yöntemler aranmalı, geçmişte elde edilen iyi tecrübeler paylaşılmalı, yerel, bölgesel ve çok taraflı girişimler incelenmeli ve gelecekteki işbirlikleri artırılmalıdır. İstikrarın ve güvenliğin sağlanması siyasi, ekonomik ve kültürel alanların tümünde dengeli ve birbirine paralel bir gelişim gerektirmektedir.

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Türkiye’de İthalat Ve Ekonomik Büyüme Arasındaki İlişki: Granger Nedensellik Testi

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Özet: Gelişmekte olan ülkelerde ekonomik büyümenin ithalata olanbağımlılığı dikkat çekmektedir. Bu çalışmada; Türkiye’de toplam ithalat ile GSYİH arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisi, Granger Nedensellik Testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın amacı ithalat ile ekonomik büyüme arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymaktır. Türkiye’de 2003:01-2012:04 yılları için üçer aylık veriler ile reel ithalat ile reel GSYİH değişkenleri kullanılmıştır. Analizde kullanılan tüm veriler 2003:100 bazlı reel verilerdir. Granger Nedensellik testi ile değişkenler arasında ilişkinin yönü ortaya çıkmaktadır. Testin güvenilirliği, değişkenlerin durağan olması durumunda sağlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle model testinden önce kullanılan serilerin durağan olup olmadıkları ADF Birim Kök Testi ile test edilmiştir. Seriler durağan hale getirilmiş ve daha sonra Granger Test uygulanmıştır. Granger nedensellik testine göre; Türkiye’de 2003-2012 yılları arasında ithalat değişkeninden GSYİH değişkenine doğru tek yönlü nedensellik ilişkisine rastlanmıştır. Analiz edilen dönem için Türkiye’de, ithalatın büyüme üzerinde belirleyici bir unsur olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İthalat, Büyüme, Granger Nedensellik Testi.

The Relationship Between Import and Economic Growth in Turkey: Granger Causality Test

Özet: Gelişmekte olan ülkelerde ekonomik büyümenin ithalata olanbağımlılığı dikkat çekmektedir. Bu çalışmada; Türkiye’de toplam ithalat ile GSYİH arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisi, Granger Nedensellik Testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın amacı ithalat ile ekonomik büyüme arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymaktır. Türkiye’de 2003:01-2012:04 yılları için üçer aylık veriler ile reel ithalat ile reel GSYİH değişkenleri kullanılmıştır. Analizde kullanılan tüm veriler 2003:100 bazlı reel verilerdir. Granger Nedensellik testi ile değişkenler arasında ilişkinin yönü ortaya çıkmaktadır. Testin güvenilirliği, değişkenlerin durağan olması durumunda sağlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle model testinden önce kullanılan serilerin durağan olup olmadıkları ADF Birim Kök Testi ile test edilmiştir. Seriler durağan hale getirilmiş ve daha sonra Granger Test uygulanmıştır. Granger nedensellik testine göre; Türkiye’de 2003-2012 yılları arasında ithalat değişkeninden GSYİH değişkenine doğru tek yönlü nedensellik ilişkisine rastlanmıştır. Analiz edilen dönem için Türkiye’de, ithalatın büyüme üzerinde belirleyici bir unsur olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İthalat, Büyüme, Granger Nedensellik Testi.

1.Giriş

Dışa açık ekonomilerde dış ticaret ve ekonomik büyüme arasındaki ilişki, klasiklerden günümüze kadar, oldukça tartışılan bir konu olmuştur. Adam Smith’den itibaren klasikler, dış ticaret ile birlikte, uluslararası uzmanlaşmaya bağlı olarak faktör verimliliklerinin artmasıyla toplam üretimin de artacağını söylemişlerdir. Neoklasikler, büyüme modellerini üretim faktörlerinin azalan verimliliği esasına dayalı kurgulayıp, teknolojinin dışsallığı ve uzun dönemde ekonominin durağan hale geleceği varsayımlarına vurgu yapmışlar ve teknolojik gelişme süreçleri ile dış ticaret arasında olabilecek muhtemel bir ilişkiyi ihmal etmişlerdir. Keynes ve takip eden iktisatçılar ise, konuyu gelir ve harcama ilişkisi içinde ele alarak ihracatı bir toplam katkı, ithalatı da bir toplam sızıntı faktörü olarak değerlendirip, ihracatın gelir artırıcı etkisine vurgu yapmışlardır (İspir vd, 2009:60).

1980 yılından itibaren Türkiye ekonomisinde ihracata dayalı büyüme stratejisi ile önemli yapısal değişikliklere neden olmuştur. Bu bağlamda temelde dış ticaret ekonomik büyüme arasındaki ilişkiye dayandırılan strateji, mamul mal ihracatının özendirilmesi ve bu yolla büyümenin sağlanması amaçlanmıştır. Türkiye’de 1980 sonrası izlenen ihracat yönelik sanayileşme stratejisi kapsamında, 1980’de 11.9 olan toplam ihracat ve ithalatın GSYİH (Gayrisafi Yurt İçi Hasıla)’ya oranının, 2011’de 56.5’e yükseldiği tespit edilmektedir. Dışa açıklık oranı şeklinde ifade edilen bu değerdeki artışın ekonomik büyüme üzerindeki etkisi, dış ticaretin bileşimini oluşturan ihracat veya ithalat kanalıyla gerçekleşmektedir. Buna göre, milli gelir hesaplamalarında ihracat, GSYİH’ya pozitif bir katkı sağlayıp ekonomik büyüme oranının

yükselmesine katkıda bulunabileceği gibi ithalat da GSYİH üzerinde negatif bir etkiye bulunabilmektedir. Bununla birlikte, ara malı ve teknoloji ithalatı ise ekonomik verimliliğin artmasını sağlayarak ihracat ve GSYİH üzerinde pozitif bir etki meydana getirebilmektedir (Saraç, 2013:182).

İthalat fonksiyonu, ithalat ve milli gelir arasındaki pozitif yönlü ilişkidir. Milli gelirin üretimini gerçekleştirebilmek için bir kısım yatırım malı, ham madde ve ara mallarının yurt dışından ithal edilmesine gerek duyulmaktadır. Aynı zamanda, tüketimin bir bölümü de ithal mallara yöneliktir. Böylece hem üretim hem de tüketim açısından milli gelir artışına bağlı olarak ithalat artışı da yaşanmaktadır.

Çalışmada Türkiye’de 2003-2012 yılları arasında ithalat ve büyüme arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisi Granger Nedensellik testi ile analiz edilecektir.

2. Türkiye’de İthalat Ve GSYİH’nın Gelişimi

Türkiye ekonomisi 2000 Kasım ve 2001 Şubat krizleriyle karşı karşıya kalmıştır. Finansal sistem kaynaklı Kasım 2000 krizinin baş aktörü bankacılık kesimidir. Krizin artmasında, bankaların açık pozisyonlarını kapatmaya çalışmaları amacıyla kamu ve özel bankaların borçlanma telaşına girmeleri olmuştur. Bankaların yükselen likidite ihtiyaçları ve bunun için de yüksek faizle likidite arayışı içine girme çabaları sonucu döviz talepleri artarken, yabancı bankalar da Hazine kâğıtlarını hızla satarak Türkiye’den çıkmaya başlamıştır. Yükselen faizler ve döviz kayıpları bankacılık sektöründe telafisi olmayan sorunlara neden olmuştur (Karaçor, 2006: 387).

Kasım 2000’de bankacılık sektöründe başlayan kriz Şubat 2001’de döviz krizine dönüşmüştür. Şubat 2001’de siyasi gerginlikle su yüzüne çıkan yoğun döviz talebi, ödemeler sistemini kilitlemiş ve 22 Şubat’ta Türk Lirası yabancı para birimleri karşısında dalgalanmaya bırakılmıştır. Aynı günlerde bankacılık sistemindeki çöküşü önlemek için bir takım düzenlemeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Reel ekonomi arz ve talep yönlü olumsuzluklardan önemli oranda daralmıştır (Celasun, 2013: 2).

Türkiye, kriz sonrası dönemde uygulanan sıkı para ve maliye politikaları ile yeniden istikrar ortamını yakalamayı başarmıştır. 2009 yılına kadar geçen sürede Türkiye ekonomisinin makro değişkenleri ve finansal yapısında önemli iyileşmeler sağlanmış ve ekonomi istikrarlı bir büyüme hızını yakalamıştır. Ancak 2008 yılının ikinci yarısında ABD’de ortaya çıkan, etkisi Uzak Doğu’ya kadar yayılan yeni bir kriz sürecine girilmiştir (Susam, Bakkal, 2008: 75).

Ekonomik durum çerçevesinde 2002-2012 yılları arasında ithalat ve milli gelir verileri tabloda verilmiştir.

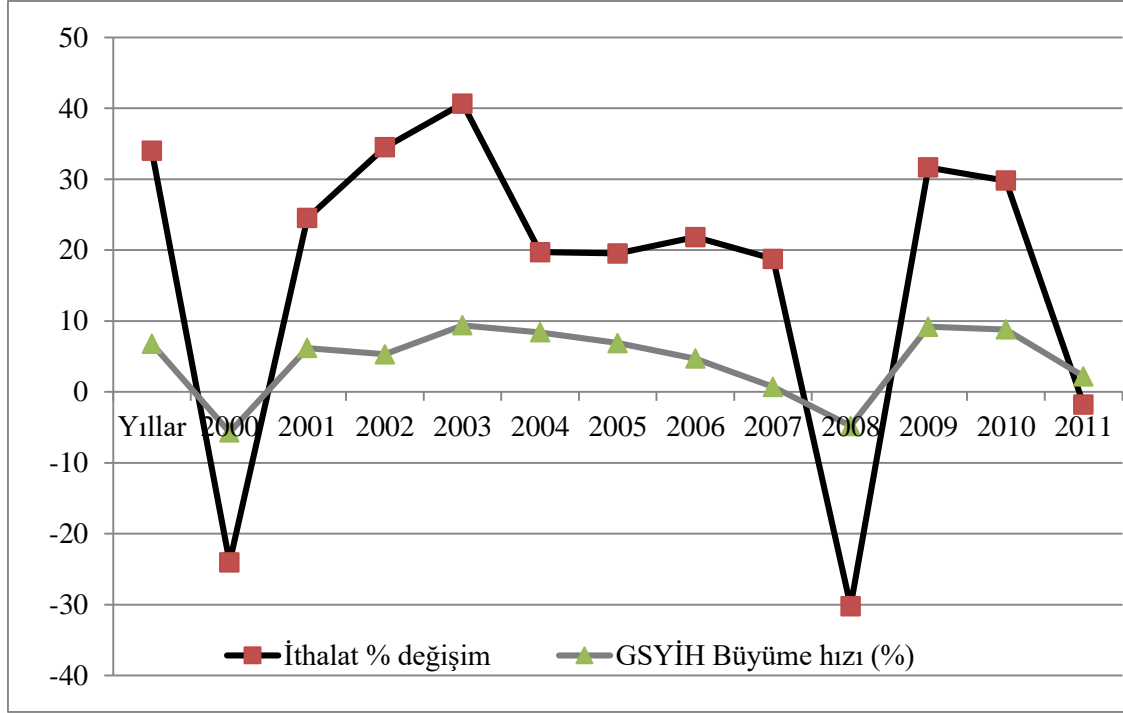
Tablo 1: Türkiye’de 2000-2012 Yılları Arasında İthalat ve GSYİH

Yıllar	İthalat (Milyon Dolar)	İthalat % değişim	GSYİH (Sabit Fiyatlarla) (Milyon TL)	GSYİH Büyüme hızı (%)
2000	54.503	34	72.436	6,8
2001	41.399	-24,04	68.309	-5,7
2002	51.554	24,53	72.520	6,2
2003	69.340	34,5	76.338	5,3
2004	97.540	40,67	83.486	9,4
2005	116.774	19,72	90.500	8,4
2006	139.576	19,53	96.738	6,9
2007	170.063	21,84	101.255	4,7
2008	201.964	18,76	101.922	0,7
2009	140.928	-30,22	97.003	-4,8
2010	185.544	31,66	105.886	9,2
2011	240.842	29,8	115.174	8,8
2012	236.545	-1,78	117.674	2,2

Kaynak: TÜİK (2016) Resmi İnternet Sitesi, Dış Ticaret İstatistikleri.

2000’li yıllara büyük bir ekonomik kriz ile giren Türkiye ekonomisinde Çizelge 3.13’de görüldüğü gibi GSYİH büyümesi 2000 yılında % 6,8 oranında gerçekleşirken 2001 yılında ise -% 5,7 oranında daralma meydana gelmiştir. 2002 yılından itibaren üretim artış trendinde gerçekleşmiştir. 2009 yılında yaşanan küresel kriz Türkiye’de GSYİH da -% 4,8 azalmaya neden olmuştur. GSYİH’da daralma yaşanan yıllarda ithalat da önemli azalışlar olmuştur. 2000 yılında ithalat % 34 oranında artış gösterirken, GSYİH’da % 6,8 oranında artmıştır. 2009 yılında ise ithalat % 30,22 gibi büyük bir oranda azalma meydana gelirken GSYİH’da -% 4,8 oranında azalmıştır.

Tablo 1’de görüldüğü gibi GSYİH büyümesinin düştüğü dönemlerde ithalat da azalmıştır. Aynı şekilde arttığı dönemlerde artmıştır. Türkiye’de, ithalat fonksiyonun önemli oranda geçerli olduğunu söyleyebiliriz.



Şekil 3. 1: İthalat ve GSYİH % Değişim Grafiği

3. Literatür

Ulusal ve uluslar arası literatürde ihracat ve büyümeye yönelik çalışmalar çoğunluktadır. Sınırlı sayıda ithalat ve büyüme üzerine çalışmalar aşağıdaki gibidir;

Tuncer (2002), Türkiye’de 1980-2000 döneminde, ihracat; ithalat; yatırımlar ve GSYİH arasında GSYİH’den ihracata doğru güçlü bir nedensellik ilişkisinin varlığını, dolayısıyla söz konusu dönemde ithalatın büyüme üzerinde ana etken olduğunu vurgulamaktadır.

Gerni, Emsan, Değer (2006), 1980-2006 yıllık verilerinden hareketle Feder Metodolojisinden faydalanarak Türkiye ekonomisinde ithalata dayalı ihracat ve ekonomik büyüme ilişkilerini ortaya koymuşlardır. Elde edilen ampirik bulgular Türkiye ekonomisinde ihracatın ve büyümenin ithalattan etkilendiğini ortaya koymaktadır.

Aktaş (2009), Türkiye’nin 1996-2006 dönemindeki verileri ile ihracat, ithalat ve ekonomik büyüme arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisini araştırmıştır. Kısa dönemde ithalat, ihracat ve ekonomik büyüme arasında iki yönlü nedensellik ilişkisi olduğunu belirtmiştir.

Taştan (2010), 1989-2009 dönemi Türkiye ekonomisinde ihracat, sanayi üretimi ve ithalat değişkenleri arasındaki etkileşimi; Frekans Alanı Nedensellik testini kullanarak incelemişlerdir. Uzun dönemli nedenselliğin yönünün, sanayi üretiminden ihracata doğru olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Ayrıca ithalat büyüme hızının, sanayi üretimi büyüme hızının nedeni olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Yıldız, Berber (2011), çalışmalarında 1989-2007 yılları arasında Türkiye’de ithalata dayalı büyüme hipotezini test etmişlerdir. Toplam ithalattan büyümeye yönelik nedensellik olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Saraç (2013), İhracat ve İthalatın Ekonomik Büyüme Üzerindeki Etkileri başlıklı çalışmasında 1989-2011 yılları arasında ithalata dayalı ekonomik büyüme görüşünün geçerli olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Çamurdan (2013), Türkiye’de 1999-2013 dönemi için ihracat, ithalat ve ekonomik büyüme arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisini incelemiştir. Söz konusu dönemde ihracatın ithalat, ekonomik büyümenin de ihracata dayalı olduğunu işaret etmiştir.

4. Veri Ve Ampirik Bulgular

Çalışmada ithalat ile ekonomik büyüme arasında ampirik bir ilişki olup olmadığı 2003:01-2012:04 üçer aylık veriler kullanılarak incelenecektir. Belirtilmeye çalışılan nokta, ithalatta meydana gelen artışların milli geliri artırıp artırmadığıdır. Bu bağlamda ithalat ile milli gelir arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisi araştırılacaktır. Kullanılan veriler reel ithalat ve reel Gayrisafi Yurtiçi Hasıla (GSYİH)'dır. Toplam ithalat, ithalatın ithalat fiyat endeksine (2003=100) oranlanmasıyla reel hale getirilmiştir. Reel GSYİH ise GSYİH'nin yurtiçi fiyat endeksine (2003=100) oranlanmasıyla oluşturulmuştur. Çalışmada kullanılan veriler TCMB (Türkiye Cumhuriyet Merkez Bankası)'nın veri dağıtım sisteminden sağlanmış, hesaplamalarda ise EViews7 paket programından yararlanılmıştır.

Granger nedensellik testine geçmeden önce değişkenlerin zaman serisi özellikleri incelenmiştir. Zaman serilerinin analizinde durağanlık kavramı oldukça önemlidir. Analizde kullanılan değişkenler arasında anlamlı ilişkiler elde edilebilmesi, serilerin durağan olup olmadıkları ile bağlantılıdır. Durağanlık testi, serilerin birim kök içerip içermediğinin test edilmesidir. Bu bağlamda çalışmada kullanılan verilerin birim kök içerip içermediği ADF (Genişletilmiş Dickey-Fuller) testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Serilerin durağanlık testinde sabitsiz, sabitli ve trendli süreç izlenir. ADF Birim Kök Testi Sonuçları aşağıda toplu olarak verilmiştir.

Tablo 2: ADF Birim Kök Sonuçları

	LNİTHALAT			LNGSYİH		
	Sabitli	Sabitli Trendli	Sabitsiz Trendsiz	Sabitli	Sabitli Trendli	Sabitsiz Trendsiz
Düzye	0,83*	2,26*	1,36*	1,19*	2,79*	1,27*
Değeri	2,94**	3,54**	1,95**	2,94**	3,54**	1,95**
Birinci Fark	17,56*	17,44*	15,50*	9,13*	9,00*	8,29*
	2,94**	3,53**	1,95**	2,94**	3,53**	1,94**

*Gecikme uzunluğu Akaike Bilgi Kriterine (AIC) göre belirlenmiş olup (1)'dir.

** %5 seviyesinde MacKinnon kritik değerlerini göstermektedir.

Tablo 2 incelendiğinde değişkenlerin 1.farkları alındığında durağan hale geldiği görülmektedir. Granger Nedensellik Testi için kurulan model, nedensellik sınamalarının gerçekleştirilmesini amaçlamaktadır. Bu nedenle kullanılan değişkenlerin logaritması ve farkı alınarak durağan hale getirilmiştir. Test aynı zamanda gecikme sayısına duyarlı bir analizdir. Çalışmada, uygun gecikme uzunluğunun belirlenmesinde Schwarz bilgi kriteri esas alınarak farklı gecikme uzunlukları ardışık olarak denenmiştir. Uygun sistem gecikmesi 1 olarak bulunmuştur.

Sistem gecikmesinin 1 kabul edildiği ithalat ve GSMH değişkenlerinin kullanıldığı nedensellik analizi sonuçları aşağıda verilmiştir.

H_0 = Granger Nedeni Değildir.

H_1 = Granger Nedenidir.

Tablo 3: Granger Nedensellik Testi Sonuçları

Örneklem: 2003-2012			
Gecikme: 1			
	Gözlem	F-İstatistiği	Olasılık(P)
DLNITHALATdoes not GrangerCause GSYİH	38	7,96	0,01
GSYİHdoes not GrangerCause DLNITHALAT		0,32	0,56

GSYİH ithalatın nedeni değildir H_0 hipotezi kabul edilmektedir. İthalat GSYİH'nın nedeni değildir hipotezi reddedilmektedir. Sonuç olarak ithalattan büyümeye doğru bir nedensellik ilişkisi bulunmuştur.

5. Sonuç

Çalışmada Türkiye’de ithalat ile ekonomik büyüme arasında nedensellik ilişkisi incelenmiştir. Öncelikle değişkenlerin birim kök taşıyıp taşımadıkları araştırılmıştır. Durağanlık testi sonucunda bütün değişkenlerin birinci farklarında durağan oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmada, uygun gecikme uzunluğunun belirlenmesinde Schwarz bilgi kriteri esas alınarak farklı gecikme uzunlukları ardışık olarak denenmiştir. Uygun sistem gecikmesi 1 olarak bulunmuştur. Granger Nedensellik Testi uygulanarak sonucunda, Türkiye ekonomisinde 2003-2012 yılları arasında ithalattan büyümeye doğru nedensellik ilişkisi bulunmuştur. İthalat büyümeyi desteklemektedir sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

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Macro-Financial Risks in the Euro Area after the 2008-2009 Global Financial Crisis

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Abstract: Nowadays, it is widely believed that a combination of price stability and financial stability policies may help central banks to reach their main targets. The control of macro-financial risks is fairly important for these combination policies. In this regard, the purpose of this paper is to determine the status of macro-financial risks for 2006-2014 periods of 19 countries in Euro area. Macro-financial risk variables in this paper is classified in three parts including credit risk in banking system, current account balance, and public debt ratios. However, the interactions between these macro-financial risk variables and other macroeconomic variables are analyzed.

Keywords: Macro-Financial Risks, Credit Growth, Current Account Balance, Public Debt, Euro Area

1. Introduction

On-going problems in the economies of developed countries, which are regarded as the center countries, stay on the focus of the problems experienced today's world economy. These economic problems developed countries experience turn world economy into a vicious circle as negatively affecting the economies of developing countries, in particularly. In this context, developed countries need to cope with their current problems in order for world economy to achieve great growth, increase in employment and consistent financial markets as in the past. Europe area draws attention as being among developed countries which have growth potential for world economy. Therefore the economic situation of Europe area is important for world economy as much as for its own economy. In particularly, whether the expected results of the policies which were applied by the area's policy makers after 2008 Global Finance Crisis is taken or not is the interesting subject. In this context, the study aims specifically to analyze the situations of after crisis macro-financial risks in Europe area. Moreover, whether the policies which were intended for the worsened economy in crisis period to reach the balance offer the expected results or not could be tested.

Today, macro-financial risks are important problems for especially countries' central banks which have money authority. Central banks generally focus on the price consistency. In addition to macro factors; financial factors also should be taken under control in order to reach this target. According to the publishing of Turkish Republic Central Bank, titled as "Inflation and Price Consistency " (2013); macro-financial risks are described as extensive expansion or narrowing on the loans, fluctuations on current accounts and worsening on the financing. In this context, macro-financial variables belong to 19 countries in Euro area for the period of 2006-2014 are analyzed in this study. Therefore, the situations of loans which are delivered through financial markets, current balance of economy and public financing are evaluated.

2. The Situation of Macro-Financial Risks in Euro Area

2.1. The Situation of Loans in Financial Markets

Quality decrease in loan portfolio of banking sector remains on the center of economic crisis and costly banking systems' problems of developed and developing economies. This was not an exception for 2008 Global Financial Crisis. Today, the relationships between financial and macroeconomic shocks are important because of the negative aspects of dramatic increases in the weakness of paying installments of mortgage loans which are delivered United States of America. Therefore, significant attention to the

relationship between loan market disputes and financial inconsistency is paid, again (Nkusu, 2011: 3). In the evaluation of this perspective, a high level of loan expansion increases the probability of not being able to pay back to banks in future periods for the loans which are received. Because, the uncontrolled increases in loan expansion is an indicator that risky loans are also approved. Therefore, the uncontrolled increases in loan expansion will be an indicator that increases the amount of loans which will not be paid back in the future periods (Castro, 2013: 674).

The problems occurred in re-payment processes for the loans which are given by the financial markets regarded as loan risk affect the economy in macro-financial manners. Nonperforming loans should be taken under control in order to establish a strong macro-financial structure which is required for a healthy economy. In this context, the factors which increase the amount of nonperforming loans should be known. Nkusu (2011: 7) stated five selected variables which are associated with nonperforming loans as follows:

1) Real GDP growth and employment level: A growing economy is closely associated with increasing income level and decreasing financial problems. Therefore, there expected a negative directed relationship among reel GDP growth and employment level with nonperforming loans. On the other hand, it is expected to have a positive directed relationship between unemployment rate and nonperforming loans.

2) The level of asset prices: Increasing asset prices revitalize the fortune in terms of financial and real-estate instruments. Additionally, increase in asset prices may help people who borrow for entering loan markets in the ways of both the assets used as collateral and unexpected demand increase. In this context, there expected a negative directed relationship between financial asset or real-estate prices and nonperforming loans.

3) Interest rates: An increase in interest rates in the economies which have fluctuating interest rates weakens debt paying capacity of borrowers. Therefore, it is expected to have a positive directed relationship between interest rates and nonperforming loans.

4) Amount of debt: High amount of debts increases the vulnerability to demand increases which affect borrowers' fortune and incomes. On the other hand, this vulnerability increases the probability to have problem on re-payment of debts for borrowers. In the periods of economic improving, it is expected to have a negative directed relationship between the portion of loan given to private sector in the total GDP and nonperforming loans. On the other hand, high level of debt ratio during even economic improving periods, insufficient risk management or lack of restraints in terms of loan approvals can create problems to increase the amount of nonperforming loans for the future periods.

5) Inflation: Inflation variable affects the debt payment capacity of borrowers through different channels. These effects can be associated in either positive or negative directions with the inflation rate and nonperforming loans. For example; high inflation rates might ease the borrower condition as decreasing the reel value of loans which were not paid back. On the other hand, high inflation rates might reduce repayment possibilities of borrowers as decreasing their incomes' reel values when prices are strictly monitored. Additionally, inflation causes a decrease of repayment capacity of borrowers when loan interest rates fluctuate. Because, banks would prefer an increase in loan interest rates in order to continue their reel profits or money authorities would prefer an increase in policy interest rates through money policies in terms of fighting against inflation. As a result, it could create a positive or negative directed relationship between inflation rates and nonperforming loans.

Putting season based and country based restraints would be more explanatory for the subject of nonperforming loans or taking control of loan expansion for today's world. For example, a differentiation between nonperforming loan levels of before and after 2008 period could be observed. On the other hand, it could be observed that the nonperforming loan conditions' Europe area average and the conditions of the countries located in this area are not the same. Therefore, it could be said that homogeneity situation does not exist in Europe area.

Generally, analysis could be conducted in two different ways for loan growth. Firstly, in the analysis of loan growth in terms of periods, the policy of bank loan limits, which describe a penalty condition for banks which cause high level of loan growth as offering loan below market interest rates in 1960s and

1970s, was used as a widely-common money policy tool. The main objective of this policy was to take guarantee of total demand or efficient loan growth controls since there were not proper money transfer mechanisms in those periods. Additionally, it was aimed to directly control the total demand level or loan growth without especially increasing the interest rates of government bonds in that period. This process could be a basis for less developed countries of the period. However, the less developed countries in those periods used loan limit policies with other reasons. On the other hand, today while experiencing high level of capital movements¹; developing countries which are reluctant to utilize their local money and indirectly not able to decrease the amount of local money aim to limit the local loan growth (Cottarelli, Dell'Ariccia and Vladkova-Hollar, 2005: 41-43). Therefore, improvements in financial systems and increase in international capital movements might affect the local loan growth levels of countries through different channels. In the evaluation depending on macroeconomic concepts, imbalances of current account balances might affect different macroeconomic variables including output growth rate, national based spending level, exchange rates, and inflation rate and asset prices. Additionally, these macroeconomic variables might affect countries' balance loan growth rates indirectly (Lane and McQuade, 2014: 219). Therefore, today's loan growth policies differentiate from the past policies (see also Baltaci, Akbulut and Civelek, 2014). Secondly, in the analysis of country classifications; a differentiation exists between the average condition in Europe area and the condition of specific country. In the analysis of regional condition; the effects of global crisis is one of the important instances which give direction to developments in loan and economic activities during the past 10 years in Europe area. Loans decreased dramatically and GDP narrowed in the period of 2008-2009 after increased in a strong manner in the years before the financial crisis. On the other hand, in the period after the crisis, economic activities slowly backed to normal although loan growth continued to decrease (Bijsterbosch and Falagiarda, 2014: 9). In the analysis of Europe area in terms of country based, it could be observed that some countries experience controlled-loan growth while some countries enable loan growth in uncontrolled manners. For example; loan growth rates differentiate among countries in the period of 2003-2008. In comparison of mature economies including Germany, Austria and Norway to other European countries, a relatively low level of loan growth and even negative directed loan growth rate is observed. This situation is also applicable for new members of European Union including Slovak Republic, Poland and Czech Republic. On the other hand, Iceland, Ireland, Spain and the Baltic countries experienced a loan growth explosion which ever seen before (Lane and McQuade, 2014: 226).

Another ratio which will be evaluated about loan growth from macro-financial variables is the ratio of loan-deposit which financial markets have. The ratio is used to describe different means in the related literature. These meanings could be defined as the crisis indicator which financial markets have and liquidity level which finance markets have. The variable of loan-deposit ratio is regarded as one of the most important indicators which show the economic crisis which is experienced by countries. In this context, Makri, Tsagkanos and Bellas (2014) included loan-deposit ratio into their models in the study they analyzed the indicators of nonperforming loans for Euro Zone. This variable is an important tool which shows the relationship between loans which are offered by banks and deposits which are accepted by banks. This tool shows the liquidity level obtained by banks which direct the funds collecting from deposits to loans. Additionally; Caprio, D'Apice, Ferri and Puopolo (2014: 116) stated that high level of loan-deposit ratio depicts that financial institutions have high productivity in terms of their intermediary functions. In case of this value are greater than 1, it is stated that such institutions will face the risk of non-deposit financing dependency problems. According to analysis results of this study which researched the macro-financial indicators of 2008 Financial Crisis for 83 countries; they found a positive and statistically meaningful effect of loan-deposit variable over 2008 Financial Crisis. Therefore, high level of loan-deposit ratio could also be stated as a variable which increases the probability of crisis.

¹ The increasing trend towards globalization, the liberalization of economic and trade policies and integration between the economies of the world agenda have brought the free movement of capital to the countries. Especially, foreign direct investment (FDI) has become the most effective ways to solution the lack of capital accumulation for developing countries suffering from capital shortage (Ayaydin, 2010: 133).

As a result, the quality of loans which are offered by financial institutions is very important for a strong economy in Euro area. Evaluation about these loans for the period of 2006-2014 in Euro area in association with GDP growth, the portion of nonperforming loans in total loans, and loan-deposit variable is provided in Table-1. In this context, in the analysis of Table-1, it is observed that Euro area, Cyprus, Finland, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain economies narrowed in the recent years for GDP growth level. Additionally, economic recession was experienced in Austria, Belgium and France. It is observed in Table-1 that the portion of nonperforming loans in total loan is high in Cyprus, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain. Lastly, in the analysis of loan-deposit ratio for Euro area countries in Table-1; it is seen that the ratio is high in Austria, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain. Therefore, the probability of financial markets of these mentioned countries to face with a risk is high.

2.2. The Situation of Current Accounts Balance

Today, imbalances including current accounts' positions of some industrial countries which have global effect are among the most interesting subjects in terms of international macroeconomics. In the evaluation through this context, it might be beneficial to make a quick evaluation about current account balance of US economy which is world's policy maker, leading and implementer power before evaluating the European economies. In general, the portion of US current account's deficit for the period of 1989-1997 in GDP fluctuated under the average level of 2%. With the effects of Asia Financial Crisis in the year of 1998, the portion of this deficit in GDP reached to 2,4% and to 4,8% till the year of 2003. At the end of high level of investment levels which are processed during the late 1990s, US current account's deficit caused for national savings to have low level of trends till 2003. With this period, the ratio of US foreign debts to GDP reached to approximately the level of 6% till the years of 2005-2006 before crisis. A decrease was experienced in a slow level during crisis and in sharp manners after periods of crisis (Obstfeld and Rogoff, 2009: 5). The developments of Europe area current accounts have quite importance which should be taken into account as in US economy. Because, current accounts imbalances among the countries positioned in European Union and especially Euro Currency Union have experienced a dramatic increase in the recent years. The ratio of deficits on current accounts operated in this area to GDP is found as close to the level which US and China have. Through this concept, the imbalances of current accounts become one of the topics which policy makers should handle in terms of sustainability of current union in Europe (Schmitz and Von Hagen, 2011: 1677).

A result of problem free current account balance for Europe area after obtaining general country averages would not be a healthy analysis. Such an analysis would enable problems which some countries encounter in this area to be overlooked. When taking an average of total European area, current accounts seem to have balanced. However, when evaluating the member countries individually, it could be seem that many of European countries face big amount of current account deficits and their deficit trends worsen. For example, Greece, Portugal and Spain have the worst ratios, and France and Italy have a worsening trend. On the other hand, such countries including Germany, Austria, Belgium, Finland and the Netherlands have current account surplus (Arghyrou and Chortareas, 2006: 1 and Campa, Gavilan, 2011: 205-206). Therefore, making analysis depending on the countries individually in terms of current account balances will be more strong analysis method. Moreover, comparing countries' situations with European area averages would be an effective method to see the general situations of countries.

Many economists argue that the last crisis in Europe can not only be attributed to public financing sustainability problem but also it could be associated with the foreign debt problem which member countries have. Supporters of this idea think that 2008 Crisis was caused by the permanent imbalance which gives rise to German increasing current account surpluses and systematic current account deficits of other countries in Euro zone (Brancaccio, 2012: 47-48). Additionally, capital movements from the countries which experience current surplus to the ones which have current deficits created benefits for deficit having countries. Current account balances which consistently differentiated among countries in Europe and net international investment positions which are strongly differed are effective on that debt crisis create strong effects. As of the beginning of 2000s, it is interesting that German creates increasingly current account surplus while South, West and East European countries have had current account deficits

in a consistent manner. One sided capita flow from center countries to less developed countries financed the unit labor costs in the less developed countries. Therefore, local currency of crisis countries which devalued re-gained value in real terms (Schnabl and Wollmershauser, 2013: 2). As a result, the area overcomes the crisis more slowly because of the economics which have current account deficit in Europe area.

Growth strategy with local demand which is one of the reasons of high level current accounts deficit causes for different aspects of economic imbalances, which disable the economic sustainability, to form. On the other hand, export based growth strategy might be dysfunctional if economies could not continue their borrowing capacities or countries like Germany could not vary their export operations to different countries. Therefore, the solid reason of Europe economic crisis is caused by the developments of growth models which are sentence to fail (Uxo, Paul and Febrero, 2011: 583). Not only that current account surplus having countries should continue their conditions but also the countries that experience current account deficit should handle their conditions in order for Europe area to remove this negative trend.

Current accounts as being one of the macro-financial factors and the variable related to it re analyzed in Table-2. Accordingly, in the analysis for after 2012, almost all of the countries in Europe area have generally balance conditions in terms of current accounts balance. In this period, such countries as Cyprus and Greece seem to have still inconsistency problems. The second variable analyzed here is Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP). In the analysis of this variable, Belgium, Cyprus, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg, Slovak Republic and Slovenia experience external flow in their portfolio investments. Lastly, in the analysis of external balance on goods and services (%GDP) variable, it could be seen that Greece and Latvia have more vulnerable conditions.

2.3. The Situation of Public Finance

Today, public borrowing is not regarded as a full prevention tool against financial risks. This situation is more obvious for especially European area countries since central banks in this area are not able to print money out rightly. In case of that public debt ratios are very high, slight increases in public debts which are triggered by public finance warning might cause big changes in risk-adapted interest rates. The main problem, here is the risk of liquidity shortage. Total amount of debt increase and becomes uncontrollable if investors lose their confidence on governments and refuse to pay their debts (Vranceanu and Besancenot, 2012: 1).

In the analysis of public debt ratio in terms of periods, it could be seen that fluctuating periods are experienced. Public debt was not regarded as a problem for Euro area in the middle of 2000s. Public debt to GDP ratio was in the level of 60% for US and 70% for Euro area in 1995. However, the ratio dramatically decreased in US and Euro area economies in the end of the 1990s. The ratio which continued to decrease till 2007 started increasing after the crisis (Lane, 2012: 50). Euro zone crisis which started in the year of 2000 is interpreted as excessively high level of public debt and deficits risk the sustainability of European Currency Union. This argument led almost all of the member countries to establish targets to decrease public debts in greater amounts after the periods of crisis (Brancaccio, 2012: 47). The sharp increases in public debts and deficits in public finance structures which are observed in developed countries especially in the recent years are among the important problems which affect such countries' long term interest rates. Because, negative changes in long term interest rates also affect many factors including personal saving ratios, demographic factors, institutional quality and international financial integration (Baldacci and Kumar, 2010: 3).

In the related literature research, it could be seen that the variable of public debt is associated with the macro-financial risks. For example, Makri, Tsagkanos and Bellas (2014) included public debts into their models in the study they analyzed the indicators of nonperforming loans as being among macro-financial risks for Euro Zone. According to analysis results, a statistically meaningful and positive directed effect of public debt as % of GDP variable on the dependent variable is found. This relationship depicts that financial problems in public sectors of Euro zone countries might seriously increase loan problems.

The debt crisis of Europe area could not have been solved since 2009. One of the most important indicators of this is countries' public debts. In Table-3, it could be seen that Austria, Belgium, Cyprus,

France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Malta and Portugal still continue having public debt with rates. In the analysis of public budget deficits, it could be seen that high level of public budget deficits continues in Cyprus, France, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain. Lastly, in the analysis of long term interest rates, as exception of relatively high and wavy ratios in Greece and Portugal, long term interest rates in Euro area have more consistent trend comparing to the other region economies.

3. Conclusion

Economic development in Europe area has drawn attention with 2008 Global Crisis. Some economies in the area become burden for European Currency Union. This situation led attention to both economy policies implemented in Europe and by the problematic economies. It could be said that the policies implemented since the crisis period was not suffice to remove the problems, and especially some of the countries still experience such difficulties. Generally, main target of central banks is to sustain price consistency. Not only macro variables but also financial variables should be taken under control accordingly in order to achieve this target. Because, the freedom situation in today's financial markets causes entering and exiting capital amounts to be wavy and turbulent. In such an environment, the control the macro-financial risks is an important duty in fighting with inflation. This study organized macro-financial risks depending on the study of Turkish Republic Central Bank, titled as "Inflation and Price Consistency" (2013). In this context, macro-financial risks for euro area are analyzed in direction of the situation of loans in financial markets, the situation of current accounts balance and the situation of public finance structure. Additionally, sub-variables related to above mentioned situations are compared on the basis of countries. An analysis is conducted depending on the data belong to 19 European countries in Euro area for the period of 2006-2014.

The situation of loans in financial markets of Euro area as being the first of macro-financial risks is analyzed with the countries' GDP growth, bank nonperforming loans and loans to deposits ratios. It is expected to have a negative directed relationship between GDP growth and loan risk. This expectation is supported by the observation that the growth rates of Euro area decreased over years and the problems related to repayment of loans which are offered by banks are increased. In the analysis of individual economies for GDP growth, Cyprus, Finland, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain experience economic narrowing while Austria, Belgium and France could not handle the recession problem. The second variable which shows loan risks is the portion of nonperforming loans in total loans which are given by banks. It could be said that this variable especially increased in Euro area in the recent years. For example, this ratio increased over the level of 10% in Cyprus, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Portugal and Slovenia. The last variable which should be mentioned in this area is loans to deposits ratio. Increasing on this ratio reduces the liquidity level of banking sector and increases the dependency on deposit financing. Additionally, reaching the level of 1 in this ratio depicts a risk for banking sector. In this context, the result of that; other countries except Belgium, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovak Republic have risks on this ratio is concluded.

The second of the macro-financial risks used in this study is current account balance. In this context, current account balance, portfolio investments and foreign trade balance are analyzed. Euro area except Cyprus experience a balanced period in terms of current account balance. Secondly, portfolio investments show a negative condition for Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg, Slovak Republic and Slovenia, external capital movements are observed. Lastly, in the analysis of foreign trade balance, it is found out that Euro area has surplus on average. In the country-based analysis; Finland, France, Greece and Latvia have deficits.

The third analyzed macro-financial risk is public debt variable. Public debt variable is one of the main indicators showing debt crisis in Euro area. Public debt to GDP ratio is found very high in the area and this leads to macro-financial risks. For example, increase in this ratio depicts the risk of increase in nonperforming loans. For example, high ratios in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Malta and Portugal increase the vulnerability of these economies. Another variable analyzed in this section is public budget deficits. Budget deficit to GDP ratio decreased to under the level of 3% in the recent years while it was nearly the level of 6,2% in the year of 2010. Budget deficits with high rates are found out in Cyprus, France, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain. In the analysis of the third

factor, long term interest rates; it is observed that long term interest rates do not generally have excessive wavy trends in the area in spite of sharp increases in public debts and increases in budget deficits.

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Appendix

Table 1. Selected Credit Indicators for Euro Zone

Countries/Variables	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Euro Area									
GDP growth (annual %)	3,24	3,05	0,47	-4,54	2,09	1,63	-0,85	-0,29	0,88
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	1,29	1,80	2,81	4,82	5,38	6,01	7,48	7,89	6,77
Loans to deposits ratio									
Austria									
GDP growth (annual %)	3,35	3,62	1,54	-3,79	1,92	2,80	0,75	0,32	0,35
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	2,74	2,24	1,90	2,25	2,83	2,71	2,81	2,87	3,47
Loans to deposits ratio	121,1	121,5	125,9	124,5	123,9	124,6	124,2	123,6	122,3
Belgium									
GDP growth (annual %)	2,49	3,39	0,74	-2,28	2,69	1,79	0,15	0,01	1,34
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	1,28	1,16	1,67	3,11	2,83	3,35	3,80	4,32	4,38
Loans to deposits ratio	85,88	90,37	83,98	73,08	66,25	63,13	62,31	61,18	62,14
Cyprus									
GDP growth (annual %)	4,51	4,89	3,62	-2,04	1,39	0,26	-2,38	-5,35	-2,25
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)			3,59	4,51	5,82	9,99	18,3	38,5	44,87
Loans to deposits ratio	73,02	74,73	89,77	100,6	93,19	96,09	101,8	126,5	129,7
Estonia									
GDP growth (annual %)	10,27	7,74	-5,41	-14,7	2,46	7,58	5,18	1,56	2,90
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,20	0,50	1,94	5,20	5,38	4,05	2,62	1,47	1,39
Loans to deposits ratio			185,3	178,5	159,3	141,2	123,9	119,1	112,5
Finland									
GDP growth (annual %)	4,05	5,18	0,72	-8,26	2,99	2,57	-1,42	-1,12	-0,40
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,20	0,30	0,40	0,60	0,60	0,50	0,50		
Loans to deposits ratio	159,4	162,5	157,7	156,0	153,5	151,4	157,0	159,8	164,3
France									
GDP growth (annual %)	2,37	2,36	0,19	-2,94	1,96	2,07	0,18	0,65	0,17
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	3,00	2,70	2,82	4,02	3,76	4,29	4,29	4,50	4,16
Loans to deposits ratio	125,2	131,8	139,0	138,0	135,8	135,0	128,5	123,9	119,8
Germany									
GDP growth (annual %)	3,70	3,26	1,08	-5,61	4,07	3,66	0,40	0,29	1,59
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	3,41	2,65	2,85	3,31	3,20	3,03	2,86	2,70	2,34
Loans to deposits ratio	135,3	133,5	131,5	122,7	117,3	113,8	109,9	105,5	102,7
Greece									
GDP growth (annual %)	5,65	3,27	-0,33	-4,30	-5,47	-9,13	-7,30	-3,19	0,65
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	5,40	4,60	4,67	6,95	9,12	14,43	23,27	31,90	33,78
Loans to deposits ratio	79,98	80,22	80,49	76,05	92,14	107,7	117,8	114,2	111,2
Ireland									
GDP growth (annual %)	6,30	5,54	-2,16	-5,63	0,39	2,58	0,15	1,43	5,19
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,54	0,63	1,92	9,80	13,05	16,12	24,99	25,71	20,65
Loans to deposits ratio	161,9	170,2	190,7	179,1	171,0	169,2	153,4	145,7	126,5
Italy									
GDP growth (annual %)	2,00	1,47	-1,04	-5,48	1,71	0,58	-2,81	-1,74	-0,44
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	6,57	5,78	6,281	9,45	10,03	11,74	13,75	16,54	17,26
Loans to deposits ratio	155,6	157,5	137,9	134,2	136,9	143,7	137,3	126,3	120,9
Latvia									
GDP growth (annual %)	11,9	9,96	-3,59	-14,3	-3,78	6,21	4,00	3,02	2,35
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,50	0,80	2,10	14,28	15,93	14,05	8,72	6,41	4,60
Loans to deposits ratio					157,9	136,5	107,6	92,33	76,9
Lithuania									
GDP growth (annual %)	7,40	11,08	2,62	-14,8	1,63	6,04	3,83	3,54	3,03
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	1,00	1,00	6,08	23,99	23,33	18,84	14,80	11,59	8,19
Loans to deposits ratio	126,0	147,3	177,0	180,7	155,9	136,3	124,9	117,0	109,7
Luxembourg									
GDP growth (annual %)	5,11	8,39	-0,84	-5,37	5,67	2,56	-0,84	4,34	4,06
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,10	0,40	0,60	0,67	0,25	0,38	0,15	0,21	
Loans to deposits ratio	75,48	83,06	95,66	103,6	98,97	101,2	100,0	95,39	96,3
Malta									
GDP growth (annual %)	2,22	4,27	3,9	-2,8	4,3	1,4	1,1	2,9	
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	7,09	5,88	5,45	5,78	7,02	7,09	7,75	8,95	9,05
Loans to deposits ratio	111,7	139,3	154,1	145,0	106,4	97,40	93,89	80,88	73,12

Netherlands									
GDP growth (annual %)	3,51	3,69	1,69	-3,76	1,40	1,66	-1,05	-0,49	1,01
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,80		1,68	3,20	2,83	2,71	3,10	3,23	3,15
Loans to deposits ratio	134,1	132,4	131,3	127,9	122,3	126,8	123,5	123,8	118,6
Portugal									
GDP growth (annual %)	1,55	2,49	0,19	-2,97	1,89	-1,82	-4,02	-1,13	0,90
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	1,30	2,83	3,61	4,82	5,19	7,51	9,80	10,65	11,89
Loans to deposits ratio	158,3	162,7	164,9	166,4	164,1	157,6	148,6	140,8	130,7
Slovak Republic									
GDP growth (annual %)	8,48	10,83	5,65	-5,49	5,08	2,84	1,52	1,42	2,52
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	3,20	2,50	2,49	5,29	5,84	5,61	5,22	5,14	5,35
Loans to deposits ratio	74,14	80,13	90,08	92,16	92,18	94,71	94,73	94,86	97,53
Slovenia									
GDP growth (annual %)	5,65	6,94	3,30	-7,79	1,23	0,64	-2,71	-1,05	3,04
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	2,50	1,80	4,22	5,79	8,21	11,81	15,18	13,31	11,73
Loans to deposits ratio	123,6	148,4	171,1	173,7	172,8	168,8	162,1	147,4	116,0
Spain									
GDP growth (annual %)	4,17	3,76	1,11	-3,57	0,01	-1,00	-2,62	-1,67	1,36
Bank nonperforming loans (% of total loans)	0,70	0,90	2,81	4,12	4,67	6,01	7,48	9,38	8,45
Loans to deposits ratio	186,7	201,5	201,0	191,5	179,9	165,9	170,7	147,4	134,4

Source: WDI and European Central Bank

Table 2. Selected Current Account Indicators for Euro Zone

Countries/Variables	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Euro Area									
Current account balance (% of GDP)									
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)									
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	1,12	1,50	1,03	1,46	1,29	1,28	2,54	3,27	3,54
Austria									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	3,30	3,81	4,52	2,59	2,94	1,58	1,50	0,95	0,73
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	-	-	-	3,85	3,37	-	-	-	4,12
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	5,43	10,6	12,2	3,0	3,3	7,22	2,35	0,90	3,8
	3,4	4,2	4,2			2,5	2,6	3,0	
Belgium									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	1,84	1,49	-	-	1,64	-	-	-	1,58
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	2,81	12,4	0,82	1,08	7,49	1,04	0,72	0,19	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	3,7	3,8	-	-	1,8	6,10	-	-	4,04
			13,5	11,5		0,5	15,8	7,25	0,9
			0,5	2,3			0,6	1,3	
Cyprus									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	6,43	7,72	14,1	9,69	9,14	2,98	6,32	3,05	5,11
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	0,94	2,86	94,8	126	12,7	-	-	-	-
	-3,0	-4,8	-	-4,5	-5,6	41,3	35,7	92,5	20,5
			10,8			-3,4	-1,9	2,5	2,8
Estonia									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	2,84	2,00	0,22	-	-	0,00
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	15,2	15,7	9,16	14,7	3,98	-	1,90	1,10	3,32
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	9,49	3,05	-	5,0	6,4	9,47	0,74	3,61	3,4
	-	-8,9	4,24			5,7	1,0	2,2	
	10,1		-3,9						
Finland									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	5,33	5,20	3,15	2,66	2,39	-	-	-	
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	5,00	2,67	0,34	5,40	7,23	0,61	1,21	0,91	
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	4,2	4,8	3,6	2,0	1,3	-	-	-	-0,8
						5,53	6,01	1,50	
						-0,9	-1,4	-0,8	
France									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	0,02	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	0,93	0,32	0,96	0,81	0,83	1,03	1,55	1,43	1,02
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-0,8	-	-	4,85	5,97	-	2,56	7,73	5,77
		8,57	1,74	-1,4	-1,9	1,90	-2,2	-1,9	-1,8
		-1,3	-1,8			-2,6			
Germany									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	5,70	6,77	5,62	5,81	5,65	6,06	6,80	6,47	7,50
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	7,24	8,66	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	5,3	6,6	1,36	16,8	7,69	16,2	1,74	4,44	0,55

			6,0	4,9	5,2	4,9	6,1	6,0	6,7
Greece									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0,58	0,93
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	10,8	13,9	14,4	10,8	10,1	9,93	2,51	4,25	4,55
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	-	-	-	11,8	12,8	67,1	-2,8	-2,6
	4,30	10,2	10,3	13,5	-8,6	-6,8	-4,4		
	-	-	-	-9,8					
	10,5	12,5	12,6						
Ireland									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	1,05	1,16	4,11	6,05	
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	3,38	5,13	5,56	2,12	-	-	0,99	31,8	
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	5,25	33,3	-	71,8	21,2	17,2	19,3	18,3
	6,47	8,3	8,6	20,3	16,0	18,0			
	8,0			13,5					
Italy									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0,94	1,89
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	2,46	2,33	2,81	1,88	3,49	3,07	0,44	-	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	-	-	-	3,57	0,87	-	1,26	0,80
	3,46	1,59	6,54	3,16	-2,0	-1,6	1,95	2,3	3,0
	-0,8	-0,4	-0,8	-0,7			1,0		
Latvia									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	8,21	2,37	-	-	-	-
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	21,1	20,8	12,6	-	2,30	2,82	3,29	2,37	3,21
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	2,93	-	0,90	-1,5	3,06	-	1,15	-
	0,25	-	1,49	-1,6		-5,0	5,90	-3,2	0,60
	-	19,1	-				-4,5		-2,2
	20,7		12,9						
Lithuania									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	2,26	-	-	-	1,62	0,12
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	10,3	14,6	13,3	-	0,32	3,84	1,20	5,36	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	1,05	0,79	1,03	4,74	-	-	-	1,3	4,07
	-	-	-	-1,7	7,88	5,27	3,66		1,9
	10,2	13,1	11,6		-1,9	-2,6	0,9		
Luxembourg									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	10,0	9,91	7,58	7,26	7,00	5,76	5,73	4,72	5,12
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	-223	-362	-100	-142	-175	-277	-570	-262	-248
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	30,4	32,1	29,7	30,1	31,9	30,8	30,4	33,7	32,4
Malta									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,36	3,26	
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	9,81	4,23	0,90	6,88	5,14	2,48	173	161	
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	48,7	-	72,2	153	104	240			
	-4,5	9,77	-1,5	-0,2	3,4	4,7			
		-2,4							
Netherlands									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	7,86	5,96	4,16	5,83	7,39	9,09	10,8	10,9	10,8
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	-	18,7	-	1,36	-	-	11,5	3,18	12,0
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	15,2	8,8	14,4	7,3	8,17	0,24	9,6	11,0	11,4
	8,7		8,6		8,4	8,5			
Portugal									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,42	0,57
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	10,6	9,79	12,1	10,4	10,1	6,06	2,11	1,41	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	-	-	-	8,07	1,94	22,6	1,0	5,14
	2,99	7,94	13,2	11,5	-7,6	-4,3	-0,5		0,4
	-8,2	-7,6	-9,7	-6,9					
Slovak Republic									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,19	1,48	0,11
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	5,59	4,76	6,18	3,56	3,63	2,07	-	-	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	1,17	-	1,84	-	0,33	14,6	12,8	4,59
	2,77	-1,1	3,56	-1,5	2,49	-0,9	3,7	4,3	3,6
	-4,0		-2,8		-1,5				
Slovenia									
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	0,23	2,64	5,63	5,74
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	1,75	4,18	5,41	0,59	0,07	-	0,70	-	-
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	5,79	8,79	-	-	-	6,72	4,2	14,7	14,6
	0,0	-1,3	1,56	17,8	7,30	1,8		5,9	7,9
			-1,9	1,9	1,4				
Spain									

Current account balance (% of GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,46	0,76
Portfolio Investment, net (% of GDP)	8,76	9,77	9,45	4,65	4,36	3,62	1,21	-	0,62
External balance on goods and services (%GDP)	-	-	-	-	-	4,04	5,15	5,93	2,5
	23,0	10,9	0,38	6,76	4,29	-0,2	1,5	3,2	
	-5,9	-6,0	-5,1	-1,2	-1,3				

Source: WDI

Table 3. Selected Public Debt Indicators for Euro Zone

Countries/Variables	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Euro Area									
Public debt to GDP	62,04	59,00	57,21	67,70	77,57	80,95	84,06		
General government balance to GDP	-1,5	-0,6	-2,2	-6,3	-6,2	-4,2	-3,7	-3	-2,6
Long term interest rate	3,84	4,32	4,31	3,82	3,60	4,34	3,86	2,99	2,04
Austria									
Public debt to GDP	62,04	59,00	64,14	68,99	72,06	73,13	78,49		
General government balance to GDP	-2,5	-1,3	-1,4	-5,3	-4,4	-2,6	-2,2	-1,3	-2,7
Long term interest rate	3,80	4,30	4,36	3,94	3,23	3,32	2,37	2,01	1,49
Belgium									
Public debt to GDP	83,39	80,29	82,93	87,23	86,38	88,77	89,62		
General government balance to GDP	0,3	0,1	-1,1	-5,4	-4	-4,1	-4,1	-2,9	-3,1
Long term interest rate	3,81	4,33	4,42	3,90	3,46	4,23	3,00	2,41	1,71
Cyprus									
Public debt to GDP	156,2	88,64	132,8	89,74	93,83	104,1	119,5		
General government balance to GDP	-1,0	3,2	0,9	-5,5	-4,8	-5,7	-5,8	-4,9	-8,9
Long term interest rate	4,13	4,48	4,60	4,60	4,60	5,79	7,00	6,50	6,00
Estonia									
Public debt to GDP	5,48	4,76	5,56	8,83	8,89	6,45	10,14		
General government balance to GDP	2,9	2,7	-2,7	-2,2	0,2	1,2	-0,3	-0,1	0,7
Long term interest rate									
Finland									
Public debt to GDP	39,69	36,01	31,96	41,23	46,99	45,95	50,81		
General government balance to GDP	3,9	5,1	4,2	-2,5	-2,6	-1,0	-2,1	-2,5	-3,3
Long term interest rate	3,78	4,29	4,29	3,74	3,01	3,01	1,89	1,86	1,45
France									
Public debt to GDP	66,45	65,37	70,99	82,69	86,46	90,60	101,0		
General government balance to GDP	-2,3	-2,5	-3,2	-7,2	-6,8	-5,1	-4,8	-4,1	-3,9
Long term interest rate	3,80	4,30	4,23	3,65	3,12	3,32	2,54	2,20	1,67
Germany									
Public debt to GDP	42,04	39,38	41,66	45,96	53,65	53,23	55,08		
General government balance to GDP	-1,7	0,2	-0,2	-3,2	-4,2	-1,0	-0,1	-0,1	0,3
Long term interest rate	3,76	4,22	3,98	3,22	2,74	2,61	1,50	1,57	1,16
Greece									
Public debt to GDP	123,0	120,4	116,8	133,1	127,0	109,0	166,1		
General government balance to GDP	-5,9	-6,7	-10,2	-15,2	-11,2	-10,2	-8,8	-12,4	-3,6
Long term interest rate	4,07	4,50	4,80	5,17	9,09	15,75	22,50	10,05	6,93
Ireland									
Public debt to GDP	28,01	27,59	46,67	66,42	83,08	96,16	119,0		
General government balance to GDP	2,8	0,3	-7,0	-13,8	-32,3	-12,5	-8,0	-5,7	-3,9
Long term interest rate	3,76	4,31	4,53	5,23	5,74	9,60	6,17	3,79	2,37
Italy									
Public debt to GDP	105,1	100,6	103,3	117,1	115,8	108,8	127,2		
General government balance to GDP	-3,6	-1,5	-2,7	-5,3	-4,2	-3,5	-3,0	-2,9	-3,0
Long term interest rate	4,05	4,49	4,68	4,31	4,04	5,42	5,49	4,32	2,89
Latvia									
Public debt to GDP			15,24	29,32	35,44	29,70	29,23		
General government balance to GDP	-0,6	-0,7	-4,1	-9,1	-8,5	-3,4	-0,8	-0,9	-1,5
Long term interest rate	4,13	5,28	6,43	12,36	10,34	5,91	4,57	3,34	2,51
Lithuania									
Public debt to GDP	72,20	67,54	62,59	116,1	146,3	148,1	168,6		
General government balance to GDP	-0,3	-0,8	-3,1	-9,1	-6,9	-8,9	-3,1	-2,6	-0,7
Long term interest rate	4,08	4,55	5,61	14,00	5,57	5,16	4,83	3,83	2,79
Luxembourg									
Public debt to GDP	4,42	4,68	12,29	13,23	17,44	16,99	20,14		
General government balance to GDP	1,4	4,2	3,3	-0,5	-0,5	0,5	0,2	0,7	1,4
Long term interest rate	3,30	4,46	4,61	4,23	3,17	2,92	1,82	1,85	1,34
Malta									
Public debt to GDP	178,2	170,9	75,84	81,93	82,94	82,77	85,93		
General government balance to GDP	-2,6	-2,3	-4,2	-3,3	-3,2	-2,6	-3,6	-2,6	-2,1

Long term interest rate	4,32	4,72	4,81	4,54	4,19	4,49	4,13	3,36	2,61
Netherlands									
Public debt to GDP	42,72	40,28	51,83	53,95	57,65	61,78	67,41		
General government balance to GDP	0,2	0,2	0,2	-5,4	-5	-4,3	-3,9	-2,4	-2,4
Long term interest rate	3,78	4,29	4,23	3,69	2,99	2,99	1,93	1,96	1,45
Portugal									
Public debt to GDP	67,10	65,14	75,90	87,92	91,42	90,15	123,6		
General government balance to GDP	-4,3	-3,0	-3,8	-9,8	-11,2	-7,4	-5,7	-4,8	-7,2
Long term interest rate	3,91	4,42	4,52	4,21	5,40	10,24	10,55	6,29	3,75
Slovak Republic									
Public debt to GDP	32,26	31,18	29,58	37,63	45,42	44,65	53,30		
General government balance to GDP	-3,6	-1,9	-2,3	-7,9	-7,5	-4,1	-4,2	-2,6	-2,8
Long term interest rate	4,41	4,49	4,72	4,71	3,87	4,45	4,55	3,19	2,07
Slovenia									
Public debt to GDP									
General government balance to GDP	-1,2	-0,1	-1,4	-5,9	-5,6	-6,6	-4,1	-15,0	-5,0
Long term interest rate	3,85	4,53	4,61	4,38	3,83	4,97	5,81	5,81	3,27
Spain									
Public debt to GDP	33,36	29,43	33,52	45,55	47,09	54,83	66,69		
General government balance to GDP	2,2	2,0	-4,4	-11,0	-9,4	-9,5	-10,4	-6,9	-5,9
Long term interest rate	3,78	4,31	4,37	3,98	4,25	5,44	5,85	4,56	2,72

Source: IMF and EuroStat

European Practices to Reduce Work Accidents in the Agricultural Sector of Bulgaria

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Abstract: The new legislative framework aims at improving the working conditions, provision of welfare at work and quality of work, taking into account changes in the workplace and the emergence of new occupational hazards. Purpose of the National Strategy is to reduce accidents by 27% by 2015, it is expected that the implementation of the National Program for 2013 will lead to a 8% decrease in the number of accidents. Achieving this goal is of particular importance given that, although declining in recent years, the number of accidents is still high. An important factor for improving the working conditions of social partnership and expansion of participation in the workplace in the agrarian sector of Bulgaria.

Key words: work accident, workers' rights, social partnership agricultural sector of Bulgaria

1. Introduction

Agriculture forms the 11% -13% of Bulgaria's GDP and has become an important sector of the Bulgarian economy. After the financial crisis of 1996, agriculture was the only sector reported growth (30% in 1997 compared with 1996). This improvement has partly recovered the decline in agricultural production observed between 1989 and 1996, which is estimated at 30%. Agriculture is an important source of employment in Bulgaria, 23% of the active population works in the agricultural sector. Different causes for a decline in agricultural production for the period after the transition period. After the liberalization of prices, farmers are affected by a large increase in producer prices by reducing demand, as well as government intervention aimed at slowing down the increase in consumer prices of staple foods and to ensure food security by limiting exports. Failure to coordinate the process of returning the land to its former owners with the liquidation of state-controlled co-operatives increased the difficulties of transition. The combination of this pressure with the difficulties resulting from land reform gives an explanation for the decline in agricultural production. In addition, the wrong policy conducted during 1995 and 1996 and poor weather conditions led to a shortage of grain in those years with very negative consequences for the agricultural sector and food industry. The decline in production was accompanied by a decline in domestic demand and changes in consumption patterns, mainly from animal products to cereals, due to the overall loss of purchasing power and the high share of food expenditure of total income of the population. In 1997, the agricultural recovery was due mainly to favorable yields and grain harvest this year.

The new legislative framework aims at improving the working conditions, provision of welfare at work and quality of work, taking into account changes in the workplace and the emergence of new occupational hazards. Purpose of the National Strategy is to reduce accidents by 25% by 2013, it is expected that the implementation of the National Program for 2009 will lead to a 8% decrease in the number of accidents. Achieving this goal is of particular importance given that, although declining in recent years, the number of accidents is still high. An important factor for improving the working conditions of social partnership and expansion of participation in the workplace in the agrarian sector. The best legislation is not sufficient to establish a good working conditions, it is only a necessary and important first step. The challenge and the government and the employers and trade unions, is its effective enforcement and compliance. An additional challenge is that many of the established social partnership bodies do not function effectively. This also applies largely to the WCC and WCG in the construction and operation of which there are significant problems.

2. Research and Results on the Topic

2.1.Characteristics of the accident

Occupational accident is any sudden injury to health occurred during and in relation to or in connection with work performed as well as any work performed in the interest of the undertaking when the cause disability or death. Labour is accident occurred during the usual time for going to and returning from the workplace to the principal place of residence; where the insured worker usually eats during the working day; place to receive remuneration. For each occupational accident victim, his immediate supervisor or witnesses of the accident immediately inform the head of the employer / enterprise user or the authorized official. The majority of the participating members of the WCC study - 67 percent - work in large companies, and third - in the middle.

2.1.1. Land cultivation and crop production

Agricultural land represents about 6.2 mil.hektara (55% of the territory), of which 4.2 mln.hektara is arable and 1.7 mln.hektara permanent pasture. Approximately 15% (700,000 hectares) of agricultural land are neglected and not treated. Most cultures are very sensitive to changes the experience in Bulgarian agriculture and the process of transition impact and leads to Reduce wind some areas or reduction of production levels. As , the production of sugar and wine, fall turns importance to the economy.

2.1.2. Livestock breeding

Since 1989, the livestock sector is undergoing secondary and a sharp drop compared to the crop (a contraction of more than 50% in livestock numbers). At the end of the eighties, livestock was highly concentrated in large state controlled co-operatives and state livestock complexes. The process of liquidation of state-controlled cooperatives and drop natarseneto domestically mark the beginning of the phenomenon of "deleveraging". The consolidation of small farms, which are now the main structures Livestock not offset the effect of the negative trend to reduce the number of animals. The decline in livestock has been persistent and there are no signs of recovery. Pig is the most important unit for the livestock sector, which is still a relative importance of livestock complex and still not privatized, but most are to be privatized in the near future. In the agricultural sector there is no specific guidance for risk assessment. The employer bears all responsibility in case of an accident, but in practice the risk assessment is carried out by consulting firms and service and the provision of occupational medicine. Training for health and safety in the workplace are organized by training centers approved by the National Agency for vocational education and training, but these courses are usually prepared by professional organizations of employers. International employers - professional organizations. They receive financial support from the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. There must be a certificate issued employers.

3. Analysis of the results of a survey conducted within the project "Social Competence for Safety in Agriculture"

Within the project "Social Competence for Safety in Agriculture" were held several meetings. Participation in them have taken almost 600 people. The questionnaire consists of three parts. Part A refers to the age and education of the persons interviewed. The aim of this part was to determine the profile of the target group. Part B consists of closed questions directly related to safety agriculture.

Part A

A total of 600 people completed the questionnaire. Of these, 383 were men and 217 - women. The average age of interviewees was 18-30. 253 respondents with secondary education. The majority of the participants live in rural areas, most inhabited farms than 1 hectare (201 people) and from 2 to 10 hectares (163 people). The main agricultural activity on farms is crop. Skilled workers and immigrants are part of the risk groups. One important group of agricultural workers are low-skilled. In recent years a large number of immigrants working in the agricultural sector as a result of which a problem with the

perception of labor habits. Some of these habits relate to the prevention of occupational risks. Moreover - the ten-year period covering the years 1995-2005, the agricultural sector recorded the highest risk of fatal accidents, and remains one of the sectors with the highest number of non-working days.

Part B

The low level of awareness among farmers about the risks in the workplace due to the fact that farmers in their capacity as self-employed persons are not subject to the provisions of the Labour Code. No doubt this is one of the most important reasons for the high percentage of accidents on farms and occupational diseases as a result of agricultural labor. Due to insufficient safety on the farm, set by the European Federation of Trade Unions in the agriculture sector in their proclamation of better health and safety of agricultural workers need to make the necessary legislative changes to provide farmers rights and obligations similar to those of other workers outside the agricultural sector.

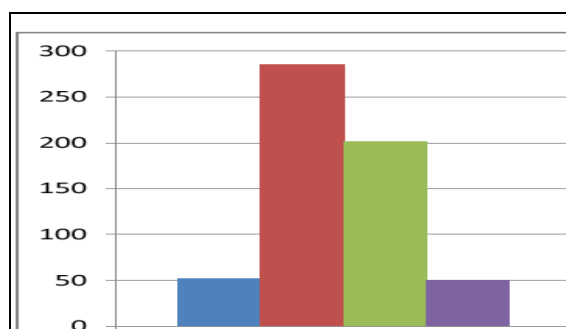


Figure 1. Do you know the requirements for health and safety working conditions in agriculture

Table 1. The requirements for health and safety working conditions in agriculture

The requirements for health and safety in agriculture	Answers
Largely	52
In moderate	285
In lesser extent	201
I have no knowledge of the topic	50

Most respondents said that determine their knowledge of health and safety on the farm by more than medium high - 48% of respondents. Defined as weak knowledge, 33% of respondents.

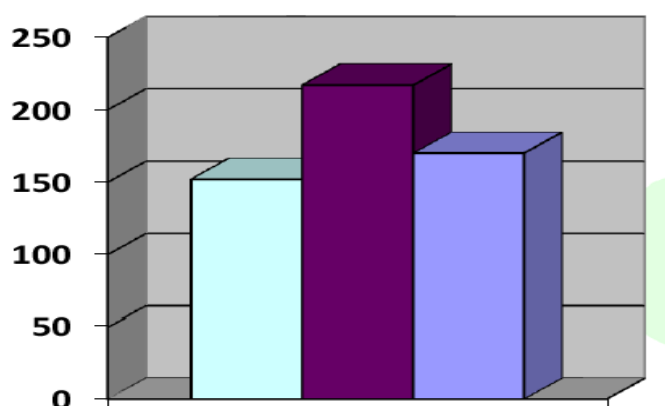


Figure 2. Do you undergone training in safety and health conditions in the farm

Table 2 Training in safety and health conditions in the farm

Training in safety and health conditions in the farm	Answers
Yes	152
No, I do not intend to do it	217
I do not intend to do	170

Figure 2 shows the state of learning. According to her, 25% of respondents have received training in health and safety on the farm. 36% were not trained but willing it to happen. 28% unwilling to undergo similar training for various reasons. Data show that the training should be aimed not only at people declaring their wish to participate in this, but also to those who are not interested in this kind of training, but could change their minds.

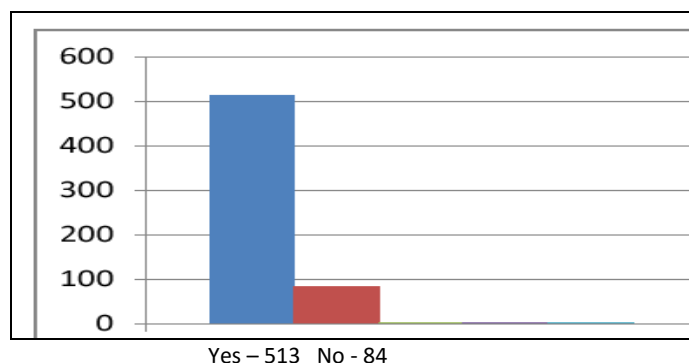


Figure 3: Are you aware of the risks associated with work on the farm

3.1. Risk description

The identification of risk is based on a careful look at the factors at work that could be hazardous to health. The aim is to assess whether they are adequate preventive measures taken and whether they could be taken additional ones in order to avoid accidents and occupational diseases. Almost 82% of respondents say they know how to recognize the risks associated with work on the farm. To describe the risk must be taken into account all the risks associated with the specific type of work. It should be an evaluation of the outdoors and indoors. Risk assessment is subjective and therefore one should not trust her blindly.

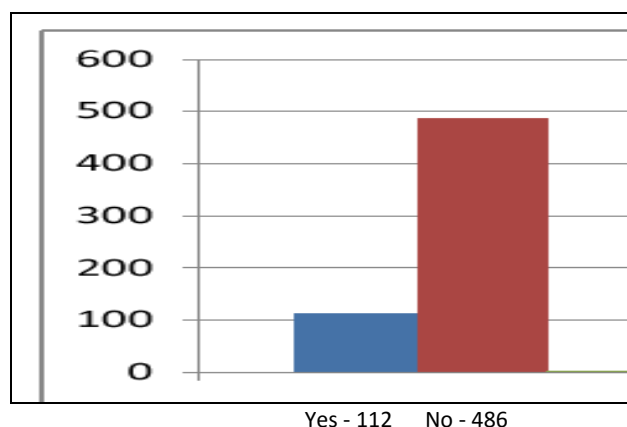


Figure 4. Have you witnessed the accident on the farm

3.2. Causes of injuries

Most accidents occur due to improper organization of work, mainly as it relates to the improper organization of the workplace, such as poor conditions of transport; incoherence farm and production facilities; lack of adequate access and inappropriate distribution and storage of working materials; incorrectly entering and exiting the farm equipment; non-use of ladders and platforms at work high and

improper use of tools. Only 64 respondents indicated as the cause of accidents fall from heights. A large number of accidents are caused by unsecured safety, improper placement of limbs in hazardous areas, poor coordination of collective actions and ignoring instructions work safety. Incidents arise as a result of incorrect rate of work or hurry in the work, and a sudden change in weather conditions. The main reasons for accidents caused by improper cover machinery, inadequate equipment and tools or their absence, failure to provide safe working conditions for farmers and failure to provide clothing, and inadequate protection of machinery when in motion or stationary. In smaller farms where the financial situation is difficult, the main cause of accidents is the old equipment, which should be discarded and which has no protection on. 486 people have indicated this as a major cause of accidents. The main cause of accidents related to animals, improper treatment, animal aggression and their reaction to the unfamiliar environment. Among the causes of incidents indicating the use of unsafe buildings for storage of production. Risks resulting from contact with animals are out of 60 respondents.

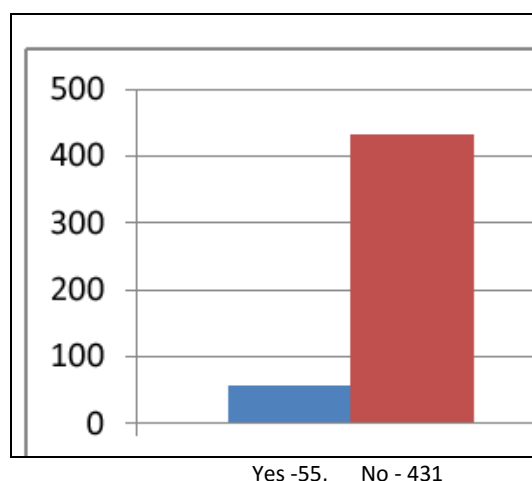


Figure 5. Have we're involved in an accident?

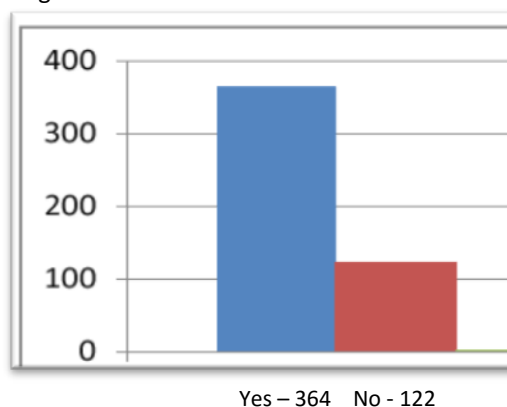


Figure 6. Do you know how to prevent accidents?

3.3. How to prevent accidents - prevention.

74% of respondents said that it is possible accidents on farms can be prevented, while 20.3% are of the opposite opinion. These responses can be attributed to the activities of various institutions working in the field of health and safety at work, providing not only training but also organize training events to improve the general awareness of the dangers in agriculture - competitions, quizzes, exhibitions, demonstrations, conferences, meetings and more. However, it is clear that large awareness campaigns are not sufficiently visible - respondents say they have not witnessed large-scale campaigns at national or international level. People are reached more easily through actions directly addressed to a specific audience. Specialized training and informal forms of dissemination of information are better means of large-scale television, radio and marketing campaigns.

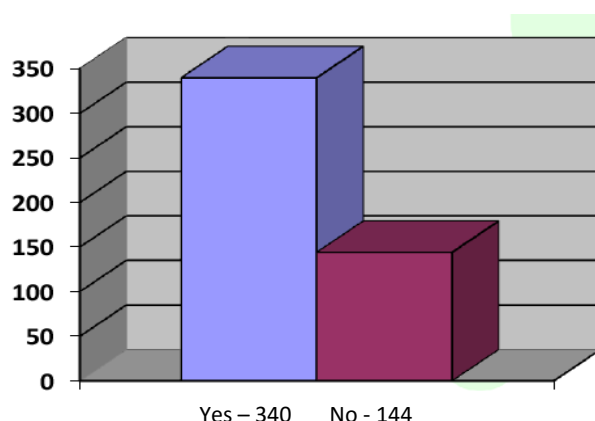


Figure 7. Do you know how to do first aid

Daily incidents kill many people, while others are injured. In cases where it is necessary to give first aid of great importance is the behavior of the witnesses. Alarming, very few people are able to provide first aid. Despite these data, 69% of respondents stated that they may have first aid while others said they could not help the victims of accidents on the farm. We need to know that it is possible at one point one of us needs this kind of help, but no one to prove. Still actions Witness accidents limited to call in an ambulance. These actions are also perceived as support and perhaps for that reason the majority of respondents said they know how to provide first aid. Lack of skills prevents appropriate action. Usually the problem is due to the fear of not harm a person. This situation is worrying, and this determines the importance of first aid training. When the witnesses passed training accidents can take lifesaving action. Many respondents stated that a one-day training on the subject will have the desired effect.

Table 3. Which are the most common accidents?

common accidents	Answers	Reasons
Accidents caused by animals	60	Accidents in this group occur mainly during the execution of daily activities such as feeding, milking, cleaning or during the loading of the animals when used for transportation. The reasons for most injuries associated with improper care of animals; poor conditions in which animals are kept; lack of fences; aggressive behavior of some animals; animal responses to unfamiliar surroundings or actions. Accidents with animals occur mostly in small farms, which have outdated equipment and facilities.
Accidents caused by machines	486	This type of accidents occur mostly when using machines and equipment for woodworking, during use of machinery designed to work in the fields and livestock, as well as during the use of hand-held power tools (drills, angle grinders and hand saws). Cause of accidents is the use of outdated equipment and misbehavior farmers neglect of safety rules, wearing loose clothing that can be attached when operating the machine and others. Farmers still use handmade saws that are unsafe.
Accidents caused by work on high	64	Much of the fall in the farms are primarily the result of lack of proper care for the condition of the surface of the courtyards and pathways. After rain and melting snow and unpaved trails yards are slippery and muddy. Falls from height are due to inattention and relocated because of unnecessary items. Farmers could fall and during boarding and disembarking from the stairs of trailers loaded with straw and hay. The reason for these accidents is mainly unsecured cargo and non-use of ladders and platforms for loading and unloading.
Others	12	In this group are referred to responses that can be placed in any of the groups above. These include electric shocks, the escape of material during repairs and others. The reasons for these occurrences are poor maintenance of paths, non-use of protective clothing, misuse of equipment, trailers, vehicles, ignorance of the rules for safe use of electrical appliances and wearing the clothing.

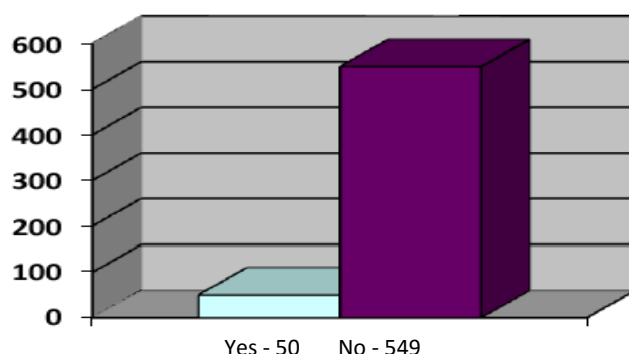


Figure 8. Does are large-scale information and promotional campaigns dedicated to health and safety?

As shown in Figure 8, only 50 of the respondents have come across large information and promotional campaigns. This represents only 8.3% of respondents. 91.5% of respondents have never heard of such campaigns or have not noticed them. One of the largest information and promotion campaigns was the campaign on risk assessment carried out by the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work in Bilbao.

4. Conclusions

The agricultural sector is one of the main sectors of the economy. It boasts a large number of self-employed persons and limited interference of state institutions that ensure the provision of healthy and safe working conditions. However, taking into account the commitment to public health and the desire to improve living conditions and working conditions of people working in private farms are carried out numerous educational, preventive and preventive initiatives. The majority are institutional measures required by legislation and regulations. Important role in play and institutions whose activities are aimed at protecting public health and the improvement of the technical security measures in agricultural activity. The main institutions mentioned by respondents are: the Agricultural Social Insurance Fund, the State Labour Inspectorate, the Institute of Rural Medicine, Central Institute for Labour Protection, some universities, the International Labor Organization and others. Only 15% know the educational institutions in their area. Almost 85% do not know what are the institutions that provide training for health and safety.

Improper inclusion of children work on farms, giving them work that is not consistent with their abilities, or their work in harmful or hazardous environments have adverse effects on health and overall development of children. The working environment of farmers has many risks to life and health of workers. These risk factors have a much greater impact on children than on adults. Negative effects resulting from agricultural activity in family farms can affect not just on children directly involved in agricultural work, but also on those who are in the area to play or relax. It is therefore important that both parents and children aware of the dangers to life and health in agricultural work, and parents should have the necessary skills to organize safety at work on the farm and to ensure the safety of children at work, play or rest in farm.

Activities undertaken in this area by different institutions. The above institutions have developed educational and training materials for the prevention of threats to the lives and health of children posed by the life, work, rest and play in the farms. Moreover - have organized activities for children and their parents in the form of training, education programs and competitions to identify risks and ensure safe living conditions for children from farming families. However, only 18% of respondents are aware of these activities. Most respondents do not know whether schools are performing similar activities and trainings. Almost 80% said that such actions are not available or do not know about them. The conclusion that follows from these data is that the measures have not led to satisfactory results due to the lack of coordination of the initiatives of the various institutions that relate to children's safety on farms. Comparing the level of knowledge and awareness of the most common accidents, we can say that there is a stereotype among farmers and people working in agriculture that most accidents happen at work

machines. This is true if we consider the amount of fatal accidents. However, according to results of a study conducted by the Agricultural Social Insurance Fund, most accidents happen at work high. It is therefore necessary to raise awareness about the fact that not only work with machines and carries risks that different types of agricultural work include various hazards. The study showed that it is important to pay attention to safety when operating machinery, but also at work on high. It is important to take into account and first aid. This need stems from the results of the polls. During the study identified was the ultimate target group of the project. The results confirmed the initial assumptions. The target group will comprise farmers engaged in agriculture and self-employed. Could include an additional target group - students in agricultural universities.

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The accounting analysis as a function of accountability

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Abstract: In the article considers the accounting analysis from a semantic point of view. It discusses its role and place in studying the economic facts and phenomena. It also discusses if it is possible to be considered as a separate branch of science. It reaches the conclusion that the analysis does not have its own subject of study.

Key words: Accounting analysis; Information base; Methods.

JEL codes: M 410.

1. Introduction

The semantic character of the concept of "analysis" connects with the concepts of division, separation., fragmentation. In this sense the researched object will be seen in the context of its component parts. Thus the inner nature of the object could be studied to determine the importance of each of its elements. If attention is focused on the analysis in a broader sense, it may be determined as means to study the activities of the reporting units so as to obtain knowledge¹, on the basis of the separating the whole into its component parts.

The analysis is different, depending on the subject matter of the research. However attention will be directed towards the economic, financial and accounting analysis and accounting analysis.

G. Vakliev believes that the economic analysis "studies business processes that take place in all unit parts of the economy (brigades, enterprises, companies and other units from the national economy), at all levels of the management (micro, meso and macro), which are located under the influence of objective and subjective factors which receive a reflection in the information system"².

For **D. Belev** "economic analysis represents a system of methods and instruments used for the assessment of the achieved results, for the disclosure of the factors influencing them and possibly for a quantitative measurement and the representation of this influence"³.

All authors determine that the information base for the economic analysis are the statistical accountability, the accounting, operational and technical accountability, plans (if planning indicators are developed), media of information for demographic and other studies, documents, in which objectives are reflected and etc.

However, where is the place of the accounting analysis?

2. Material and Methods:

In the first place, the accounting analysis cannot be carried out at the level of the industry or at a macro level. This is because when it is carried out, (as seen from its name) entirely and only accounting information is used. And it is created in the reporting unit, in our case the bank. Here comes the difference

¹ The idea of knowledge is best viewed by DRUCKER, Peter (2006). Managing for the future, translated from English Sofia, Klasika and style publishing house with an introduction pg..xiii. There he emphasizes the fact that knowledge is to "achieve the reality in its individual parts and in integrity, an opportunity and ability for getting knowledge of the things."

² Vakliev, Grigor, Chukov, K., Timchev, M. (1990) The foundations of economic analysis of business. Sofia, pg.10

³ Belev, Dimitar. Economic analysis, forecasting and planning in the enterprise. Sofia, Forkom publ.house, 1998, pg.10

with economic analysis. The latter, as indicated, may be done at a macro level, meso level and microeconomic level.

Secondly, the sources of information for both analysis are different. With the economic analysis information of a different nature is used, while in the accounting analysis only the data from the current and the periodic reports is taken into account.

Thirdly, referring to the methods used, economic and accounting analysis use instruments, validated for other sciences, i.e. they do not have their own methods of the study.

Finally, both types of analysis study the ongoing economic facts, phenomena and processes in the institutions.

To conclude, it can be shown that the accounting analysis has a narrower scope or accounting analysis is an important component of the economic analysis.

Following the course of reasoning it is also necessary to specify what is understood by the concept of financial accounting analysis. It is defined as the "element of finance and accounting management, through which the property and financial situation of the bank is examined and evaluated and characterized and provides information for making managerial decisions." ⁴ G.Todorov considers this type of analysis also as a "targeted activity of selecting, comparing and evaluating the accounting information (underlined by me - P.D.) to the establish the essential links and relationships, the characteristic and unusual fluctuations and outlining the trends in the activities of the enterprise that are necessary for making managerial decisions." ⁵ Dinev expresses his opinion that the "financial- accounting analysis is a process of choice, comparison and assessment of the financial information." ⁶

The term financial accounting analysis was settled in the already cancelled NAS 13- Indicators for financial accounting analysis of the enterprise⁷. This concept referred to a "selection, comparison and evaluation of the accounting (underlined by me -P.D.) and other information in the process of management in order to examine the significant ratios and trends, unusual fluctuations and processes, to determine the directions of development, to measure the impact of the factors which justify them and to adopt the optimal management solutions". ⁸

These opinions allow you to outline a few basic emphasis:

- Financial - accounting analysis is a targeted human activity, where the intermediate objective obtains some concrete results related to the actions of the reporting unit in the economic environment, an outline of the reasons for these results and the final goal is "making reasonable decisions by the various users of the information, which is analysed" ⁹.
- The analysis is connected to the comparison of the results obtained with those from prior periods or with those from other units, operating in the same industry.
- The analysis allows an evaluation of the results to be obtained.
- Referring to the information basis, the opinions are different. **G. Todorov** considers that only accounting data is used. While the other views show that financial information is used as well.

⁴ Stoyanov, St, Feshiyan, D.(2009) Financial - accounting analysis in banks. Sofia, UI "STOPANSTVO":.23

⁵ Todorov, Georgi.(2005) Financial - accounting analysis of the enterprise. Varna, Publ. Steno:7

⁶ Dinev, Dimitar, KRASTEV, Todor.(1993) Analysis of financial and accounting reports. Sofia:66

⁷ NATIONAL ACCOUNTANCY STANDARDS. NATIONAL CHART OF ACCOUNTS. COMMENT. ACCOUNTING LAW. (2001), Sofia, publ. Ciela

⁸ NATIONAL ACCOUNTANCY STANDARDS. NATIONAL CHART OF ACCOUNTS. COMMENT. ACCOUNTING LAW. extract.trud: 80

⁹ KOSTOVA, Nadia.(2010) Financial -accounting analysis. Varna: 8

It could be pointed out that the information basis itself should be a starting point for receiving a specific name of the analysis. It will give the guideline for the determination of the name. But when the main information core is the accounting information, it is then necessary to talk about accounting analysis. For example, accounting data is the one providing information on such indicators as liquidity and solvency, which are of financial nature and when the financial situation is analysed. Which means that the carried out analysis for the financial situation is also accounting one. In some cases, when some financial information is used that is not "produced" from accounting it could be argued that financial analysis is carried out. Such is the analysis of the balance of payments of the country.

So a conclusion could be reached that the accounting analysis is a set of activities which use methods, based on practice, based on data from the periodic and current accounting, aiming to reveal the state of the institution, the results from its activity, to outline its strength of influence of the specific factors for achieving the objective - making efficient management decisions.

M. Dimitrov points the fact that the accounting analysis has significant qualities for the ruling. In particular they are¹⁰ :

- In the first place more extensive information base is mentioned- besides the periodic financial statement, the instruments of the current accounting - accounts are also used. As an example the indicator of average duration of detention of deposits can be cited. Here, daily balances and turnovers on deposit accounts are used- information which cannot be obtained from the balance sheet.
- In the second place - the methods used in it are the method of coefficient, but also the referential, structural, index, graphic methods and method of factors. With the referential method data on one and the same relation between the different units for the same period is compared. Also data of one reported unit for different periods could also be compared. On the basis of the results obtained the trends of development of the banks are outlined and recommendations for a change in their activities are prepared.

The structural method considers the elements of the whole. For example, it can be examined what is the relative share of deposits from the entire amount of the attracted capital. Or what is the relative share the unlimited in time deposits in the whole volume of the deposit portfolio and what is the relative share of the loans in the total amount of the assets of the institutions. In this case, if there are any certain regulations, it is taken into account whether they are complied with or if they are not, what the reasons are. Analysts prepare recommendations for the future compliance with the norms.

The index method is widely used by the statistical accountability, but can also be applied in the accounting analysis. "The index method is a set of principles, rules and formulas for quantitative measurement of the differences in time and place between the norms and the factual results and the impact of the factors in the analysis of the complex phenomena"¹¹ . 2 functions are recorded with the indexes synthetic and an analytical function. With synthetic, all amendments shall be presented with a number, giving a summary information, for example the amendments in the loans for one period compared to another, which is adopted as a base. Analytical indexes are observed in index factor analysis where the influence of the factors upon the result value is measured.

The graphical method provides a clearer and more accessible way to the development of processes and phenomena in the institutions for a wide range of consumers . The images are: a comparison of variables (e.g. comparing the volume of deposit portfolios of 2 banks); graphical images for structures - for example the relative share of long-term loans in the total amount of the credit portfolio; graphical images for development - for example monitoring by means of a graph dynamics of the credit portfolio for 5- year period; graphical images for functional dependencies, for example how the liquidity is reflected on the strong increase of the credit portfolio.

¹⁰ For more details see Dimitrov, Marin.(2011) The accounting analysis - a challenge to the accountants.// The challenges before the accounting and control: Scientific Conference-01-02.10.2010, Varna:39.

¹¹ Petkov, Petko. (2001).Statistics. Varna, IM the VFU "Chernorozets Hrabar":435

The method of factors, as it could be seen by its name, provides information on the quantitative impact of the factors on a specified resultative value.

- In third place, ratios and trends are examined, in case such negative are determined and the factors for them are determined with a view to eliminate them; the effectiveness of the resources is measured; it predetermines what the trends in the activities in the future should be.

The accounting analysis in the literature is seen in 2 basic guidelines. On one hand it provides the required information for the management, on the basis of which optimal solutions shall be taken.¹² In this context we talk about the analytical function of the accountancy. On the other hand, the accounting analysis is seen as a separate science.

The analytical function of the accounts shall be regarded as its fundamental function. Although an idea appears that "on the number and the content of the functions of the accounting there is no single opinion"¹³, "analysis of the information contained in the accounting records, which is a rich economic information, directs the workforce to a continuous improvement of their knowledge, at mastering the rich scientific treasury..."¹⁴ That is how it is stressed out that the accounting analysis is an integral part of accountability. Here the emphasis is on the idea that the analysis as science would not be able to develop itself. This way of thinking is also routed in the research of another author: "Accounting analysis does not have its own subject of study and methods of testing. It studies the subject matter and applies the methods that are defined in the theory of accounting, but for the management of a domestic activity of the firm."¹⁵ All devices of the analysis as a comparison, the group, balance technique could be used if the data provided by the accountability is missing.

If we need to consider the second claim, an emphasis of the following could be made:

1. Does the accounting analysis have its individual subject, tasks, method, aim, subject of study.
2. Approved a positive opinion in item 1 would be a prerequisite for fencing the analysis as a separate branch of science.
3. With the development of the public - economic relations, the method and subject matter could develop with the time. It is this is one of the tasks before the science - to be useful and to meet the needs of the separate groups of interested persons.
4. The use of methods, which are used by other sciences, does not reduce the significance of the analysis as a branch of science, if the last is confirmed.

3. Result and Discussion:

In order to illustrate to what extent analysis can be considered as part of the accounting or is it necessary to be treated as a separate science, will be used in the following table:

Table 1 ¹⁶A comparative table between the Accountancy as a science and "The accounting analysis as a function of accountability"

¹² The first thesis is supported by some authors, as IOTOVA, Ionka, KANEVA, Totka.(2006) Accounting analysis (for example of the banks). Svishtov: 16.

¹³ PERGELOV, Kosta.(2002) Intensifying the national economics and improving the functions of accounting. // Jubilee collection dedicated to the prof. Kosta Pergelov : For his 80th anniversary and 55 years continuous activity. Sofia: 10

¹⁴ PERGELOV, Kosta. cited from:127.

¹⁵ Trifonov, Trifon.(2000) Accounting analysis of the company. Managerial accounting. I part. Sofia, publ. Ciela: 29

¹⁶ For the compilation of the table the views of authors such as Ivan Dushanov, Marin Dimitrov, Trifon Trifonov, Grigor Vakliev, Mihail Mihaylov, Krastyo Chukov are used.

Criteria	Accounting Records	The accounting analysis as a function of accountability
Subject	Very often between the subject and the object of the accounting is put a sign of equality ¹⁷ . For authors, who distinguish the two concepts subject is connected with a documentary recording of the movement of capital in their monetary or other material form.	The subject matter of the accounting analysis can be reduced to the study of the movement of capital in all phases of their circles in the different institutions.
Purpose	The creation of a certain information product which will be useful for the needs of the management and for the needs of other users e.g. customers, tax authorities, statistics, owners.	The provision of information on the financial and economic state of the enterprise where information is necessary for the needs of the internal and external users.
Object	The one that is object to accounting and to which human attention is directed- the resources of enterprises in their circles, the source of these resources and business-legal relations.	The property status submitted by the current and periodical accounting; the results from the operations of the reported unit; the financial state, expressed by its liquidity, solvency, capital structure and resources which it controls.
Tasks	The main tasks are related to the necessity to deliver in advance information related to the assets of the enterprise and their origin at a particular moment, its revenue and cash flows; systematical and chronological comprehension and evaluation of the changes in the assets and their origin as a result of the performed business operations; establishing control over the authenticity of data in the accounting documents; to present information on the outcome of the integral activities of the enterprise for the reporting period.	The main task is to present on-time and objective evaluation of the financial and property state of the enterprise. For the implementation of this task, the following sub-tasks should be performed: assessment of tangible, financial, labor resources - ways to use; an evaluation of the actual financial situation on the basis of the statement for financial state, the income statement and the annexes to the annual financial statements.

¹⁷ Authors such as Bahchevanov, Totev, Dushanov, Bazlyankov consider the object and the subject of accounting as equivalent concepts

Criteria	Accounting Records	The accounting analysis as a function of accountability
Method	The methods are general and private. The general methods include: the dialectical method, the method of the systems analysis, the economic and mathematical modeling. Private methods include: balance sheet summary, summary, recording, inventory, evaluation, calculation, the system of accounting the accounts, double recording in the accounts.	The method of the analysis includes the following methods: the method of comparison, the balance method, method of induction, method of deduction, the method of the group, graphical method, structural method, co-efficient method, method of factors, index method.

Source: Own Development

4. Conclusions:

On the basis of the presented table the following conclusions can be made:

- It is obvious that the accounting analysis does not have its own subject and uses the subject matter of the accounting.
- The analysis uses methods, characteristic for accounting and for other sciences, as statistics and mathematics. Neither of the methods listed above is characteristic only for the analysis.
- The aim of the analysis coincides with the purpose of accounting - the provision of information for the needs of management and other users.
- A significant part of the subjects of the accounting are targeted by the analysis. The analysis compares and assesses information related to the capital in their circles.

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Examination of the Developments in the Tobacco Sector in Turkey

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Abstract: Despite its drawbacks in terms of health, tobacco continues to be an important agricultural product for Turkey in the sense both the employment opportunities it provides and the added value it creates. The aim of this study is to reveal the developments in the tobacco sector in Turkey for a special period in which before and after the Law No. 4733 by several socioeconomic indicators. These indicators were analysed by using percentages. The results obtained indicate that the privatization of TEKEL has significantly affected amount of the tobacco production, number of the farmers, foreign trade and prices of tobacco. While the decrease in the tobacco supply due to the relevant Law is evaluated favourable in terms of the farmers going on producing tobacco, the substantial reduction in the contribution of tobacco to the employment may result in various problems such as unemployment, migration from rural to urban areas and sustainability of tobacco production. This study, which evaluated the tobacco market may provide guidance to policy makers for developing policy on the tobacco sector in Turkey

Keywords: Tobacco, TEKEL, price, marketing, Turkey

1. Introduction

Tobacco has been used for a variety of different purposes since it has been known. Some substances such as nicotine, cellulose, oil, extract, potassium carbonate are obtained from tobacco. From this aspect tobacco is a significant source of income for countries (Gür et al., 1986).

For centuries, tobacco that provides wide employment opportunity from production to consumption has been commonly grown in various regions of the world by family farming and has also an important position in terms of Turkey's national income, especially in exports (Parlaklar, 2010). The number of tobacco sector employees that are directly associated with production of tobacco and the other activities related to tobacco such as transport, storage, trade, manufacturing has reached one million people in Turkey (Çakmak and Kasnakoğlu, 2001).

In 2012, the worldwide tobacco production came to approximately 7.49 million metric tons from harvested area of 4.3 million hectares. Between 1993 and 2012, the world tobacco harvest area and production decreased by 18.96% and 10.23% respectively. The world's leading countries in terms of total harvested area are China (19.76%), India (6.61%), Brazil (5.48%) and Indonesia (3.33%). The five top tobacco producing countries are China (74.57%), India (20.39%), Brazil (18.89%), the United States (8.06%) and Indonesia (5.28%). Turkey's tobacco production constitutes 1.75% of global production (FAO, 2014).

Harvested area and production of tobacco, which was one of Turkey's traditional export products in the past declined significantly due to policy changes in Turkey (KB, 2014). In 2014, Turkey's tobacco production was 70 thousands metric tons from harvested area of 108 thousands hectares. Between 1993 and 2012, tobacco area and production decreased by 68.80% and 79.34% respectively (TÜİK, 2015).

The tobacco law which compels farmers to enter into contract farming and the privatization of Turkish State Monopoly (TEKEL), caused decline of production (Özkaya et al., 2010).

The world's top tobacco exporter is Brazil, owning 25.58% of the world's market by value. The United States is the second leading exporter with 10.30% of the world's market. Zimbabwe (5.90%), China (5.79%), India (5.08%) and Malawi (5.07%) are the next largest exporters. In 2011, Turkey tobacco exports and imports amounted respectively to US\$369 million and US\$298 million (FAO, 2014).

The aim of structural change and stability programme, which started end of 1999 is to cut down government intervention in processing and marketing of agricultural products through privatization of agricultural enterprises (Şahinöz, 2011; Olhan, 2012).

Excluding TEKEL from support purchases, privatising it, and legislation to repeal support price were committed in the Letter of Intent of the government of Turkey to the IMF on 22 June 2000 (Yörür, 2010). The significant factors on the tobacco sector are going beyond the scope of support of tobacco production after the Law No. 4733 on 9 January 2002, the privatization of TEKEL and companies who are buyers of tobacco have the right to comment on price of tobacco (Gümüş et al. 2010). The aim of this study is to reveal the developments in the tobacco sector in Turkey by several indicators such as production, cost, price and foreign trade. These indicators were analysed by using percentages. The data used in this study includes twenty years of tobacco. The database consists of different dates of indicators in the study, which are updated at different times.

2. Turkey Tobacco Sector

2.1. Tobacco Production in Turkey

In Turkey the tobacco area at 340,000 hectares in 1993. The area then fell to approximately 99,000 hectares in 2014. The tobacco production in 1993 at 338,796 tonnes. The production fell to 74,696 tonnes in 2014. Between 1993 and 2014, tobacco yield decreased by 25% (Table 1). The average yield in Turkey (750 kg/ha) is well below the world average of 1,746 kg/ha (FAO, 2014).

Production in Turkey decreased by 44% due to quota between 1993 and 2002. Production decreased by %33 between 2003 and 2014 when TEKEL gradually withdrawn from buying tobacco.

The Aegean Region stands first in production of tobacco in Turkey. The production of Aegean Region accounts for 4% of overall tobacco production in Turkey. Other producing regions are Western Black Sea (12.03%), Southeastern Anatolia (8.27%), Western Marmara (4.27%), Mediterranean (3.49%), Central Anatolian (2.45%), Eastern Marmara (0.06%) and Eastern Black Sea (0.01%). Turkey's leading tobacco producing provinces are Manisa (29.09%), Denizli (24.15%), Usak (7.45%), Samsun (7.23%) and Adiyaman (4.14%) by three-year average (2010-2012) (TÜİK, 2015).

The rate of tobacco area and tobacco production decreased by an average of 5.41% and 3.63% respectively per year from 2003 to 2014. The rate of tobacco production decreased by an average of 4.29% for the five years from 2008 to 2012, and by an average of 7.84% for the five years from 2003 to 2007 (Table 1). This indicates that privatization is more effective on production in the early years.

Table 1. Tobacco area (ha), production (tonne) and yields (kg/ha) in Turkey

Year	Area	Index (1992=100)	Rate of change of area % (for the five years)	Production	Index (1992=100)	Rate of change of production % (for the five years)	Yield	Index (1992=100)
1993	339,856	100		338,796	100		997	100
1997	288,976	85	-3.19	286,414	85	-3.3	990	99
1998	274,617	81		250,556	74		912	91
2002	191,000	56	-7.00	152,856	45	-9.41	800	80
2003	183,043	54		112,158	33		613	61
2007	144,904	43	-4.57	74,584	22	-7.84	515	52
2008	146,874	43		93,403	28		636	64
2012	108,000	32	-5.96	75,000	22	-4.29	694	70
2013	133,073	39		93,158	27		700	70
2014	99,262	29		74,696	22		750	75

Source: TÜİK, 2015

Tobacco farmers in Turkey accounted to 81,799 in 2014, down about 80% from 405,882 in 2003. Turkish tobacco farmers' share in total tobacco farmers in Turkey was 94.80% in 2014 (Table 2).

The rate of tobacco farmers decreased by an average of 13.55 per year from 2003 to 2014. The rate of tobacco farmers decreased by an average of 11.91% for the five years from 2003 to 2007, and by an average of 22.37% for the five years from 2008 to 2012 (Table 1). This indicates that privatization was more effective on the number of tobacco farmers year after year.

Tobacco production was affected dramatically by the quota and low price policies of government. However, tobacco growing areas are barren lands where aren't convenient to grow substitute crops in terms of economy (Özkul and Sarı, 2008). Proposed crops within the scope of Alternative Crop Program in return for giving up tobacco production are wheat, sunflower, canola, dry bean, chickpea, red lentil, cotton, vetch, sainfoin, vineyard, fig, dwarf apple, olive, walnut, cherry, vegetables, strawberry, medicinal and aromatic plants (Tan et al., 2010).

Reduction in the number of tobacco farmers has led to various social problems such as unemployment, migration from rural to urban areas, and impoverishment (Karakaş, 2014). Indeed, when TEKEL finished the purchase of tobacco from Adiyaman villages, Celikhan, Malatya Dogansehir, Bitlis, Mus Kızılagac, Hakkari Semdinli, Diyarbakir Lice and Kulp, Antakya Yayladagi where produce leaf tobacco, it had created significant losses in income of tobacco growers (Çelik et al. 2012). The number of people employed in various ways in the tobacco market decreased due to reduction in the production of tobacco. Approximately 2 million of the agricultural labour employed in tobacco production and 50 thousand of TEKEL workers faced unemployment as a result of privatization (Uznay, 2013).

Table 2. Farmers of Turkish tobacco and farmers of tobacco of foreign origin in Turkey

Year	Turkish tobacco		Tobacco of Foreign Origin		Total	Rate of change of number of farmers % (for the five years)	Index (2003=100)
	Number of Farmers	%	Number of Farmers	%			
2003	402,145	99.08	3,737	0.92	405,882		100
2004	315,758	99.14	2,746	0.86	318,504		78
2005	278,907	98.60	3,967	1.40	282,874		70
2006	249,439	98.86	2,873	1.14	252,312		62
2007	213,101	98.98	2,206	1.02	215,307	-11.91	53
2008	178,285	99.17	1,484	0.83	179,769		44
2009	180,735	99.53	853	0.47	181,588		45
2010	75,629	97.70	1,782	2.30	77,411		19
2011	61,205	95.35	2,986	4.65	64,191		16
2012	46,771	92.28	3,914	7.72	50,685	-22.37	12
2013	63,355	95.30	3,124	4.70	66,479		16
2014	77,549	94.80	4,250	5.20	81,799		20

Source: TAPDK, 2014a

As a result of the acquisition of cigarette factories by multinational corporations, the amount of Oriental tobacco used in the blends consumed in domestic market has declined considerably. This is the other reason of decreasing number of tobacco farmers (Özkaya, 2012).

Tobacco farmers have organized themselves within the law of agricultural producers association in three provinces where are Denizli-Tavas, Samsun-Bafra, and Bitlis (TED, 2015).

2.2. Tobacco Trade of Turkey

The quantity of tobacco export of Turkey has increased by 1% from 1993 to 2002. The quantity of tobacco import of Turkey has increased by 231% over the same period. The quantity of export decreased by 40%, while the quantity of import increased by 35 % from 2003 to 2014 (Table 3).

Table 3. The quantity of export/import and the value of export/import of Turkey

Year	The quantity of export (tonne)	Index (1993=100)	The value of export (1000\$)	Index (1993=100)	The quantity of import (tonne)	Index (1993=100)	The value of import (1000\$)	Index (1993=100)
1993	91,352	100	395,560	100	12,497	100	93,666	100
1994	103,712	114	395,166	100	16,692	134	86,442	92
1995	82,590	90	244,545	62	21,639	173	134,398	143
1996	162,027	177	538,548	136	42,962	344	240,019	256
1997	162,516	178	564,513	143	54,397	435	341,158	364
1998	155,058	170	520,480	132	42,174	337	255,497	273
1999	129,284	142	478,624	121	48,846	391	247,592	264
2000	100,388	110	368,363	93	62,195	498	308,183	329
2001	105,769	116	354,315	90	50,113	401	243,369	260
2002	92,162	101	273,209	69	41,368	331	162,087	173
2003	113,711	124	328,976	83	48,934	392	176,868	189
2004	114,774	126	399,804	101	46,254	370	165,947	177
2005	134,276	147	468,260	118	50,109	401	182,045	194
2006	128,480	141	402,937	102	42,875	343	172,137	184
2007	111,166	122	324,702	82	53,817	431	219,986	235
2008	151,702	166	427,747	108	63,331	507	287,678	307
2009	99,123	109	491,087	124	57,332	459	289,876	309
2010	78,878	86	401,316	101	50,019	400	275,522	294
2011	68,031	74	369,464	93	48,672	389	297,879	318
2012	75,680	83	427,092	108	60,697	486	359,985	384
2013	57,512	63	439,064	111	61,099	489	378,574	404
2014	67,895	74	517,170	131	66,252	530	411,040	439

Source: FAO, 2014; ITC, 2014

Turkey is self-sufficient in tobacco production. Between 2009 and 2011, self-sufficiency rates were 245%, 572%, and 457% respectively. However, Turkey's tobacco competitiveness is also significantly high. Thus, Turkey ranked fifth in terms of the competitiveness in comparison with EU countries during the 1996 to 2007 term (Çoban et al., 2010).

Value of exports of government services increased by 46.4%, while value of exports of private sector decreased by 28.4% from 1993 to 2003. However, value of exports of government services decreased by 85.14%, while value of exports of private sector increased by 59.56% from 1993 to 2003 (Table 4). This situation is resulted from privatization.

Table 4. Shares of government service and private sector on export

Year	Government Service			Private sector			Total	
	Value (1000\$)	Index (1993=100)	Share of export (%)	Value (1000\$)	Index (1993=100)	Share of export (%)	Quantity (tonne)	Value (1000\$)
1993	48,937	100	11.92	361,508	100	88.08	95,559	410,445
1998	130,485	267	25.75	376,186	104	74.25	128,797	506,671
2003	71,667	146	21.70	258,615	72	78.30	112,430	330,282
2004	48,434	99	12.47	340,033	94	87.53	106,988	388,467
2005	82,778	169	17.38	393,599	109	82.62	134,534	476,377
2006	55,375	113	11.14	441,668	122	88.86	127,975	497,043
2007	47,599	97	10.58	402,153	111	89.42	113,943	449,752
2008	112,092	229	26.16	316,350	88	73.84	152,034	428,442
2009	40,872	84	8.51	439,360	122	91.49	97,184	480,232
2010	29,838	61	7.21	383,942	106	92.79	80,311	413,780
2011	38,992	80	10.48	333,146	92	89.52	68,685	372,138
2012	43,210	88	10.10	384,422	106	89.90	75,321	427,632
2013	10,650	22	2.52	412,646	114	97.48	56,899	423,296

Source: TAPDK, 2014b

2.3. Price

In recent years, tobacco farmers haven't earned enough to live well and young people don't want to farm (TZOB, 2014). Although output price increased than input price, contract farming confined tobacco production (Table 5).

Table 5. Comparison of output and input prices

Year	Tobacco price* (TL/Kg) (1)	Index	Input price (TL/Kg) (3)			Parity		
			Diesel fuel	DAP**	A.Nitrate** %26	Diesel fuel	DAP	A.Nitrate %26
2002	2.43	100	1.10	0.35	0.18	2.21	6.94	13.50
2009	5.94	244	2.61	0.69	0.44	2.28	8.61	13.50
2010	6.70	276	3.08	0.92	0.44	2.18	7.28	15.23
2011	6.87	283	3.61	1.32	0.62	1.90	5.20	11.08
2012	7.55	311	3.99	1.34	0.68	1.89	5.63	11.10
2013	9.73	400	4.28	1.43	0.80	2.27	6.80	12.16
2014	11.22	462	4.35	1.41	0.76	2.58	7.96	14.76

* Prices are given without being the kind of tobacco in the source.

** Fertilizers used in tobacco production

Source: (1, 3) GTHB, 2015

Tobacco's share within the scope of total alternative crop support was 0.13% in 2010, and 0.10% in 2011. But, tobacco is not in the scope of support programme during 2012-2014 (Sayin et al., 2015).

Throughout 1992 and 2012, the lowest producer price per kg of tobacco was in 1994 (Table 6). Tobacco and Alcohol Market Regulatory Authority (TAPDK) support purchases of tobacco ended following the 2001 financial crisis.

Export price decreased by 27% from 1992 to 2002. Producer price decreased by 36% in the same period. Exports price increased by 88%, while producer price increased by 48% from 2003 to 2011. (Table 6). This situation is resulted from the significant decrease in production in the years following privatization of TEKEL.

Table 6. Export and producer price in Turkey (\$/kg)

Year	Export price	Index	Producer price	Index
1992	4.0472	100	3.7342	100
1993	4.3301	107	2.6243	70
1994	3.8102	94	1.6184	43
1995	2.9610	73	2.1515	58
1996	3.3238	82	2.2099	59
1997	3.4736	86	2.2062	59
1998	3.3567	83	3.6502	98
1999	3.7021	92	3.5110	94
2000	3.6694	91	2.7735	74
2001	3.3499	83	1.6635	45
2002	2.9644	73	2.3719	64
2003	2.8931	72	2.7758	74
2004	3.4834	86	3.2765	88
2005	3.4873	86	3.2680	88
2006	3.1362	78	3.4267	92
2007	2.9209	72	4.2064	113
2008	2.8197	70	4.8866	131
2009	4.9543	122	4.2703	114
2010	5.0878	126	4.4553	119
2011	5.4308	134	4.1099	110
2012	-	-	5.2250	140

Source: FAO, 2014

The privatization of TEKEL in 2008 and depletion of tobacco stocks in 2009 have led to increase in the tobacco price (Gümüő, 2003). Shrinking tobacco supply has supported the increase in tobacco prices.

The leaf tobacco produced in Turkey in the framework of Law No. 4733 is marketed by auction system or under the basis of contract (Emeksiz et al. 2005).

Using domestic tobacco to manufacture cigarettes in Turkey has decreased proportionally after 2003. Domestic tobacco usage rate in manufacturing was 42.07% in 2003 and 15.82% in 2013. Imported tobacco usage rate in manufacturing has increased to 84.18% (Table 7).

Table 7. Domestic and imported tobacco usage of cigarette companies in Turkey (thousand tonne)

Year	Domestic tobacco		Imported tobacco		Total
	Quantity	Ratio (%)	Quantity	Ratio (%)	
2003	45.99	42.07	63.34	57.93	109.33
2004	51.03	48.26	54.71	51.74	105.74
2005	41.19	41.97	56.95	58.03	98.14
2006	39.01	35.06	72.26	64.94	111.27
2007	32.69	32.14	69.01	67.86	101.70
2008	27.79	25.69	80.39	74.31	108.18
2009	24.98	23.76	80.16	76.24	105.14
2010	17.88	20.42	69.7	79.58	87.58
2011	15.81	19.05	67.2	80.95	83.01
2012	17.5	17.42	82.98	82.58	100.48
2013	15.35	15.82	81.7	84.18	97.05

Source: TAPDK, 2014c

3. Conclusion

The privatization of TEKEL has significantly affected amount of the tobacco production, number of the farmers, foreign trade and prices of tobacco. In the period following the privatization, tobacco companies have become decisive on tobacco prices. Tobacco contract farming started in Turkey after the removal of quotas. Contract farming confined tobacco production and number of farmers. Experts of TAPDK have stated that tobacco area has been moved from fertile to barren land which is the main growth area of tobacco. This situation is considered to be favorable in terms of these lands used be grown highly competitive products

The organization of the tobacco growers is not enough. There are three tobacco farmers union which are in Denizli-Tavas-Kale-Beyagac, Samsun-Bafra, and Bitlis. Poor farmer organization restrain farmers to become decisive on price and production conditions of tobacco. So, the organization of the tobacco growers is important in terms of becoming decisive on market.

It was found to be increased in producer prices in parallel with reduction of tobacco production. While the decrease in the tobacco supply due to the relevant Law is evaluated favourable in terms of the farmers going on producing tobacco, the substantial reduction in the contribution of tobacco to the employment may result in various problems such as unemployment, migration from rural to urban areas and sustainability of tobacco production.

In the next studies, socio-economic consequences can be revealed by comparative analysis of the relationship between the number of farmers that give up production and increasing producer price.

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Establishment and Organization of a Control System - The Key To The Organizational Effectiveness

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Abstract: The study examines the process of creating a control system in the modern organization as a significant moment in the organizational development and success. The technology of the process is presented in stages in which emphasis is placed on the guiding principles justifying the contents of consecutive steps. The last stage is addressed in detail because at this point the newly established control system becomes a subject of control or an expression of selfcontrol. The aim is to provide evidence that the well-modeled control system is a major factor in achieving organizational success. The tasks determined in such a way are directed towards revealing the principal beginning in the content of each stage, tracing the ideological continuity between the exposed elements of technology and defining specific solutions to problems occurring in the development of the whole process.

Keywords: management, control system, principle, self-control, technology

1. Introduction

The control has been more often discussed due to the fact that its deficiency becomes more serious. The very idea has proved its sustainability but in modern organizations and in the society she is being increasingly underestimated. The analyses of failures in modern organizations, regardless of their activities, increasingly prove that among the reasons are either the delayed creation of an adequate monitoring system, or low efficiency within the control activities. The reasons create conditions to believe that, although the necessary basic elements (subject, object, standards and tools) are available, they do not interact with each other in good synchronization¹.

The process of creating or designing the control system is connected both with registered bonds and analyzed relationships between those elements and with a certain design technology, logically organized and at the same time being a subject to principles that guarantee solidity and balance of the established control system.

2. Stages and Principles in Design and Implementation of The Control System

The initial stage of the technology in the design of the control system is engaged with a selection of standards. Its implementation is justified on the results of assessment activities planned and expected status of the control system. The specific choice of subject and the importance of standards is a function of the perceived need for control and analysis of the impact of the monitored parameters on achieving the planned state. This stage is characterized by the application of several principles that are crucial to its successful completion.

The first principle is "the principle of targeting" or the achievement a full compliance and coherence between planned targets, tasks and elected standards. Its implementation is a mechanism forming a hierarchy of standards which order them in severity according to the planned implementation. The compliance with the standards is unique and necessary for the success of the whole process that has started.

"Reasonable sufficiency" is the second principle according to which as an object of control only controllable parameters can be defined that are crucial for deviations from the planned state. The application of this principle has a preventive importance to "overdose" of control effect, increasing the frustration of control and restriction of the initiative.

¹ Simeonov, O. Theoretic questions in control, Academ Consult, Sofia, 1997.

The third principle – that of "decisive element" or its formation, occurs after analyzing the relationships and connections in the system of the checks through the standards of the most sensitive and crucial parameters that posit the conditions and causes of deviant behavior.

The proper observance of the principles set out stakes in the process of designing the control system the development of basic essential characteristics of the control activities as effective targeting, economy, democracy, etc.². The development of this trend is observed within the whole process of creation systematically and consistently. The very systematic nature of the process does not allow occasional or incidental appearances.

The second stage of the design of the control system includes the analysis of the relationship of control that determines deviations from standards. Based on a critical analysis of the motivation and potential of stakeholders regarding compliance with the standards established the state of the real relationships in control is determined. The control influence on the behavior of personality formation complying with set standards is purposefully increased.

In the next phase of this stage possible options are determined for restructuring and optimization of the control relationship in accordance with the standards. After analyzing the results potential objects of control are determined in an initial appearance and the system requirements for stimulation are formulated. As a result specifically for each standard an idea of the control sites is created, as well as potential actors and measures guaranteeing the selected subject positions.

In the implementation of the second stage it is necessary to take into consideration that the object structure of the control system is defined in particular. In terms of the subjective structure more things are quite unknown and the possible subjects are in informal relationships, both among themselves and in terms of monitored parameters. Similar is the state of the system of stimulating the instrumental structure. Again, there are options for incentives that are not organized in a specific structure and are independent, knee-jerk involved groups around individual controllable parameters.

In forming an assessment of the results of the second stage it is better to take account of the fact that the separation of subjective structure and system to stimulate a justification of power and commitment starting from the analysis of the opportunity of the realization of the controlling influence in its regulatory aspect. Among the principles which compliance is desirable the process at this point to follow is the principle of the closest approach of the subject to the object of control. The proximity determines the optimal opportunities for observation and analysis. In terms of the subjective side one can say that there is a specific form of diversification of control relations and in particular the attribution of qualities of the subject and the object of control to certain individuals or groups simultaneously dealt with in different situations.

In the course of this stage the mentioned in the previous stage performance of control activities has created the impression of full presence and appearances. Maybe it is in full force especially true for the economy in control.

The next (third) stage of the design lies in the analysis of the forms and the methods of control. The basic assumption for the realization of it are the previous two stages. Based on the existing structure of standards and performance parameters, which are subject to its influence, the choice of optimal forms is performed, as well as methods and technology in the implementation of control activities. This choice is the foundation on which the broader picture of the instrumental structure of the control system is built.

A significant difference from the content of the preceding steps is the presence and reporting not only of power resources but also increase in the burden of information-analytical aspects of the operation of the control system³.

The greatest significance of this stage is the manifestation of the principle of compliance of control with monitoring activities. Its application determines the expansion of the influence of effective control activity

² Simeonov, O. Theoretic questions in control, Academ Consult, Sofia, 1997.

³ Stoyanov, E. Financial control, Libra scorp, Burgas, 2010.

towards productivity of research, flexibility, economy and precaution. Essential to this stage is the compliance with the principle of simplicity, clarity and understandability of selected forms, methods and tools of control. They should ensure the real opportunity of making the wrap subjective structure to the objects of control.

In the fourth stage of the process of establishing a control system merging notions of subjective and instrumental structure of the control system is carried by assessing their compliance with object structure and system of standards. The subjective structure in the stage is a kind of epicenter of logic and design activity because it provides balance in the future effective functioning of the control system. In this sense adjustments are separated in a limiting factor for optimal deployment of the remaining structures. It therefore becomes essential to find opportunities the subjective structure to be fully developed at different hierarchical levels. Paramount importance in the design of these levels is the application and observance of the principle of opportunities exhaustion of bottom-up, which optimizes the use of the principle of maximum proximity of the subject to the object of control.

The application of the above-mentioned consolidated set of principles is a prerequisite for defining the functions and tasks of the control subjects in operational, tactical and strategic aspect. There are conditions lower and middle levels of the hierarchy to be engaged with the majority of operational-tactical control activities. This enables senior in the hierarchy of control subjects to concentrate their efforts in the field of strategic control organizing the strategic orientation of the control activities.

As a result of the draft of the subjective structure, to a greater degree of certainty it can be spoken about a limited number of variants of the instrumental structure and from it to refine the object structure and the structure of standards. As a whole, after this stage a certain clarity creates and a relatively comprehensive view is formed on the structure of the entire control system in its distinct specificity and reasonable interconnection.

The subject of the fifth and the last stage of the process is the open question remaining for the subjects of management control system. In other words, the structuring of specialized bodies for management control system is connected with the actual condition and capacity of the common controls in terms of controls functions of determining the strategy, planning, organization, motivation and control⁴.

In the closeup several important issues are outlined in the management of the control system⁵, the resolution of which is the prerogative of its management bodies. The first problem is connected to the design of the control system and ongoing analyzes justifying the exploratory activity. The second problem comes from the obligatory condition for the success of a process operation of the control system, i.e. creation of methodical and methodological uniformity of control activities. This includes not only the development of instrumentation and control technology, but also creating conditions for its effective implementation. The third problem is the constant coordination of control activities and the continuous refinement of the control system. As far as inevitably this type of fine tuning are a kind of adaptation to

⁴ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Arabska, E., Vasileva, E. 2014. Good practices of highly effective managers in human resources management. Scientific conference "Qualification system and career development of university teachers", Vasil Levski National military university, 11-12 December 2014, Veliko Tarnovo, 49-75.

Stoyanov, E. 2015. Models of thinking and strategies in small business. IV International scientific conference Climate Change, Economic Development, Environment And People Conference (CCEDEP) under the subtopic Regional development of Central and Eastern European countries, 7-9 October 2014, Proceedings Volume 1, 86-99.

Zahariev, E., Arabska, E. 2014. Eclectic concepts for distribution and popularization of good management practices. VII International scientific conference "Innovations in technology and education", March 2014. Ministry of Education and Science, Federal State budget institution of higher education "Kuzbass State Technical University named after T.F. Gorbachev", St. Cyril and St. Methodius University of Veliko Turnovo, Bulgaria, Branch KuzSTU in Belovo, University of Agribusiness and Rural development - Plovdiv, Bulgaria, Belovo, March 2014, 149-153.

⁵ Stoyanov, E. 2015. Pressing problems in Bulgarian management control. 5th International Conference of Economic Sciences, 5th CCEDEP of the ACEU, May 7-8, 2015, Kaposvar, Hungary, 491-500.

Stoyanov, E. 2015. Management effect in organizational design. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol. 3, No 4, 21-27.

emerging circumstances. The fourth problem stems from multi-directional functionality of the control system in particular and information. The heterogeneous nature of information determines the formation of specialization in terms of overall use of information consumed in the three established areas: financial accounting, statistical and socio-psychological. The fifth problem is related to the high reliability of the control system through the design and implementation of control over the control of the authorities managing the control system. Solving this problem has varying success, which is linked to changes in economic conditions and changes in the behavior of economic systems.

The analysis and the evaluation of problematic events reflect the content of this stage. It assesses the designed control system from the position of its economic effectiveness. The main task of the stage is to assess whether the organization management is able to pay the estimated cost of the control system and where possible areas for effective cost optimization.

In this sense, a useful tool for identifying excessive and unnecessary costs, which may increase the cost-effectiveness of the control system without affecting its performance, is the functional and value analysis. The technology is implemented in a multi-step process.

First stage. Preparation of a structural component model of the analyzed control system. In this model the composition and subordination of functional components according to their commitment are reflected.

Second stage. A functional model of the control system defining and indicating the specificity of the functional components of the system:

1. Main function - external component function that defines its purpose, nature and purpose;
2. Secondary functions - external functions for components reflecting additional beneficial effects in line with the objectives of the control system;
3. Basic functions - internal functions of the component expressing the fundamental principles of its formation and existence;
4. Auxiliary functions - these are internal functions that contribute to the realization of the main ones.

Third stage. Functional-structural model of the control system, wherein the system components are linked to their functions.

Fourth stage. Preparation of a functional-value chart reflecting correlations between the significance of individual functions and realized costs through various components of the control system. The significance of individual features are formed through expert assessment based on the goals, objectives and requirements for the control system⁶.

Through the application of functional value analysis the following may be specified:

- The necessary and useful features of the components of the control system to meet its objectives and requirements;
- Unnecessary and useless features of components that do not conflict with its objectives and requirements, but unduly inflate its parameters and then unnecessarily expensive;
- Unnecessary and harmful functions of the components of the control system, creating highly conflict generating environment based on goals, objectives and value.

⁶ Stoyanov, E. 2015. The role of control systems in the process of goal setting. Economics and management: trends analysis and development perspectives. Proceedings of XVIII International scientific and applied conference – Novosibirsk, 16 February 2015, 183-187.

It is necessary to note that the application of this format of analytical work is only compatible in terms of the normal development and functioning of the control system when thinking and looking for a model to optimize its functionality⁷.

In periods of crisis development, the principle of economy is most adequately administered by budgeting zero base⁸. In applying this model of optimization the efficiency factor becomes gets leading role over all outputs of the individual stages. The effect of budget planning of the control system of zero-based substantiates the conclusion that inspections and review of expenditure for the functioning of each control system are needed.

3. Conclusion

The establishment of a working control system is a complex, creative process that is gaining importance for the effective operation of any modern organization. Finding synergies between the work of the control system and the work of the organization becomes one of the few alternatives for sustainable and stable development and finding the "right" way for the future.

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⁷ Stoyanov, E. For and against the small business in the establishment of sustainability in social development. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol. 4, No 3, 31-36.

⁸ Stoyanov, E. Financial control, Libra scorp, Burgas, 2010.

Kamu Hastanelerinde Tedarik Zinciri Yönetimi ve Mal Alım Sürecinin İncelenmesi¹

Yasemin Çabuk¹

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Özet: Ülkemizde sağlık hizmetleri, kamu ya da özel şahıslar tarafından sunulmakta olup kâr amacı güden ticari kuruluşlar olabileceği gibi, kar amacı gütmeyen kuruluşlar da yer almaktadır. Ağırlıklı olarak Sağlık Bakanlığına bağlı sağlık kurum ve kuruluşlarca gerçekleştirilmektedir. İyi bir sağlık hizmeti sunumunun sağlanmasında, ihtiyaç duyulan kaynakların yeterince ve zamanında karşılanması önemlidir. Kaliteli sağlık hizmeti sunumunun gerçekleştirilebilmesi için gerekli olan yüksek maliyetli sağlık hizmeti girdilerine karşılık, kıt kaynakların ekonomik, etkin ve verimli kullanılması da ayrı bir öneme sahiptir.

Söz konusu kurum ve kuruluşlarımızda ifa edilen sağlık hizmetlerinin aksamadan kesintisiz devamı sağlanarak sunulabilmesi için, hastanelerdeki tedarik zinciri yönetiminin (TZY) etkin, tam ve zamanında uygulanması gerekmektedir. Sağlık sistemi, herkese gerekli olan sağlık hizmetinin yüksek kalitede verilmesini sağlayacak şekilde tasarlanmalıdır. Sağlığın doğuştan kazanılan bir hak olması nedeniyle sağlık hizmetlerinin herkese eşit olarak ulaştırılacak bir biçimde örgütlenmesi zorunluluğu vardır.

Teşhis, tedavi, eğitim, otelcilik gibi çeşitli hizmetlerin bir arada sunulduğu hastaneler için ihtiyaç duyulan mal ve hizmetlerde çok sayıda olmaktadır. Malzeme eksikliği nedeniyle hizmette oluşabilecek aksaklıkların ise telafisi mümkün olmamaktadır. Bu makalede, hastanelerde yapılan tedarik zinciri yönetimi ve mal alım sürecinde olması gereken temel ilkeler işlenmiş, satın alma mevzuatları çerçevesinde incelenmiş ve uygulama rehberi niteliğinde hazırlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tedarik Zinciri, Tedarik Zinciri Yönetimi, Hastane, Satınalma

Supply Chain Management in Public Hospitals and Purchase Order Management Process

Abstract: Health care is provided by public or private persons whereby they can be profit maximizers or non-profit organizations in Turkey. Health care is mainly carried out by organizations under the control of Ministry of Health. The resources needed should be provided in timely and adequately and timely for the provision of good health services. The high cost of health care inputs necessary for the realization of quality health services; however it is also important to use of scarce resources economically, effectively and efficiently. Provision of uninterrupted performance of health care services depend on implementation of supply chain management (SCM) in hospitals in full, effectively and timely manner. The health system must be designed in such a way that everyone is needed to ensure the delivery of high quality health services. Health care services should be organized in such a manner that everyone benefits equally from them since health care are an innate right. There is a need for hospitals offering a combination of various services such as diagnosis, treatment, education, and hospitality. The compensation of defects that may occur in service due to lack of material are very hard. In this article, basic principles of supply chain management in hospitals are determined, purchase order management process is examined, and implementation guidelines for purchase order management process are prepared.

Keywords: Supply Chain, Supply Chain Management, Hospital

1. Giriş

“Tüm toplumlar tarafından bireylerine doğuştan elde edilen bir hak olarak sunulan sağlık kavramı; Dünya Sağlık Örgütü (WHO) tarafından genel anlamda “fiziksel, ruhsal ve sosyal yönden tam bir iyilik hali” dir. Sağlık evrenselidir ve en temel insan haklarından birisidir. 21. yüzyılda sağlık alanında hedeflenen en önemli konu; yalnızca daha uzun bir yaşam değil yaşam kalitesinin de yükseltilmesidir. Bu sebeple yukarıda yapılan tanımda sağlık sadece fiziksel ve bedensel olarak değil ruhsal ve sosyal açıdan da tam bir iyilik hali olarak tanımlanmıştır” (Bayar, 2008).

¹ Yazarın, Yüksek Lisans tezinden türetilmiştir.

Sağlık hizmetleri kavramı kişilerin sağlığının korunması ve teşhis, tedavi, bakım olmak üzere iki gruba ayrılmaktadır. Gelişmiş ülkelerde kurumsallaşma üst düzeyde olduğu için sağlık hizmetleri genelde örgütler tarafından sunulmaktadır. Sunulan hizmetin ekip çalışması gerektirmesi nedeniyle kurumsal düşünme ve uygulama gerektirmektedir.

Ülkemizde sağlık hizmetleri, kamu ya da özel şahıslar tarafından sunulmakta olup kâr amacı güden ticari kuruluşlar olabileceği gibi, kar amacı gütmeyen kuruluşlar da yer almaktadır (Semerci, 2011).

Sağlık hizmetlerinin temel özellikleri şu şekildedir:

- Sağlık hizmeti, kullanılması zorunlu bir hizmet olduğu için talep esnekliği katıdır.
- Sağlık hizmetlerinin bir bölümü toplumsal özellik taşır.
- Sağlık hizmetleri talebi tesadüfidir (rassaldır).
- Sağlık hizmetlerinde kişinin talebini hekim belirler.
- Hasta almış olduğu sağlık hizmetlerinin kalitesini ve karakterini ölçme yeteneğine sahip değildir.
- Sağlık hizmetlerinin ikamesi yoktur.
- Sağlık hizmetleri yine kendine özgü özelliklerinden dolayı, çoğu kez kâr amaçlı olmayıp sosyal amaçlıdır.

Dünya Sağlık Örgütü (WHO) hastaneleri, "müşahade, teşhis, tedavi ve rehabilitasyon olmak üzere gruplandırılacak sağlık hizmetleri veren, hastaların uzun veya kısa süreli tedavi gördükleri yataklı kuruluşlardır" şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Sağlık Bakanlığı Yataklı Tedavi Kurumları İşletme Yönetmeliğinde ise hastaneler, "hasta ve yaralıların hastalıktan şüphe edenlerin ve sağlık durumlarını kontrol ettirmek isteyenlerin, ayakta veya yatarak müşahade, muayene, teşhis, tedavi ve rehabilite edildikleri, aynı zamanda doğum yapılan kurumlar" olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Ancak hastanelerin esas fonksiyonlarının yanında eğitim, araştırma ve geliştirme, toplumun sağlık seviyesini yükseltmek gibi fonksiyonları vardır." (Büker ve Bakır 2001).

Sağlık Bakanlığı hastanelerin amaçlarını, Yataklı Tedavi Kurumları İşletme Yönetmeliği'nde "hastanelerdeki hizmet çeşitleriyle, bunların uygulanmasındaki esaslar ve hastane personelinin görev, yetki ve sorumlulukları arasındaki ilişkileri belirtmek yoluyla, modern çağın icaplarına ve ülke gerçeklerine uygun, hızlı, disiplinli, üstün kaliteli ve ekonomik bir hastane işletmeciliği sağlamaktır." şeklinde belirtilmiştir.

Bu makalede, hastanelerde verilen sağlık hizmetlerinin aksamaması, devamlılığı, hizmetin tam ve zamanında yapılabilmesi için uygulanacak tedarik zinciri yönetimi ve mal alım sürecinde olması gereken temel ilkeler mevzuatlar çerçevesinde incelenmiştir.

2. Hastanelerde Tedarik Zinciri Yönetimi Ve Satın Alma Sürecinde Kullanılan Uygulamalar

Tedarik zincirini oluşturan tüm fonksiyonların bütünleşmiş olması Tedarik Zinciri Yönetimi (TZY)'nin etkinliğini artırır. Zinciri oluşturan fonksiyonların belirli görevleri bulunmakla beraber bunları; talep ve sipariş yönetimi, planlama, satın alma, stok yönetimi, depo yönetimi, sevkiyat ve dağıtım olarak sıralayabiliriz. Tüm işletmeler için geçerli olan TZY fonksiyonları, sağlık hizmetlerinin özellikleri ve hastanelerin karmaşık yapısı nedeniyle bazı farklılıklar göstermektedir (Eymen, 2013).

Bu sebeple hastanelerde TZY ve fonksiyonlarının yerine getirilmesi daha fazla önem arz etmektedir. Talep ve sipariş yönetiminde müşteri ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması etkin ve tam zamanında olmalıdır. Sağlık kurumlarında gelecekteki talepler belirlenirken, taleplerdeki değişkenlik (rassallık), mevsimsellik, çeşitlilik ve eş zamanlılık göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır (Özkul,2000).

Müşteri bilgi ve ihtiyaçları bir havuzda toplanmalı, tedarik zinciri halkaları en etkin ve hızlı işleyebilecek şekilde kurulmalı, işletmenin yapısına ve amaçlarına göre düşük maliyetle yüksek müşteri tatminini sağlayacak uygulanabilir kısa/orta/uzun vade planlar hazırlanmalıdır. Yönetim açısından kapasite önemli bir planlama girdisidir. Tam zamanında üretim ve dağıtım sağlanmalıdır (Özkul,2000- Eymen, 2013).

Ülkemizde uzun dönemli planlar genellikle Sağlık Bakanlığı tarafından, orta dönemli planlar hastane yöneticisi tarafından, kısa dönemli planlar ise birim sorumluları tarafından yapılmaktadır (Özkul, 2000: 128-129).

2.1. Satın Alma Sürecinde Kullanılan Uygulamalar

Hizmet çeşitlilikleri ve uygulanan kalite standartları nedeniyle sağlık hizmetleri sunumunda, ihtiyaçların karşılanması ve aksatılmadan sürdürülebilmesi karmaşık bir hal almıştır. Ancak, gelişen teknoloji ve otomasyon sistemleri, verinin dağıtılmasını ve tek noktadan kontrol edilmesini sağladı. Bu sistemler sayesinde alımlar kontrol edilebilir oldu. Yaşanan bu süreçler sektörde yer alan tedarikçileri de sistemin içine dahil etti. Birbirini tetikleyen bu uygulamalar alım yapan tüm yapıları entegre hale getirdi.

Kamu hastaneleri tedarik zinciri sürecinde kullanılan bazı uygulamalar şunlardır.

2.1.1. Malzeme Kaynakları Yönetim Sistemi (MKYS)

Sağlık Bakanlığı bünyesindeki Merkez Teşkilatı ile İl Sağlık Müdürlüklerine ait kaynakların (dayanıklı taşınır ve sarf malzemelerin) verimli ve güncel olarak takibini sağlamaktadır. MKYS Türkiye’deki en büyük malzeme deposu olarak, Bakanlığın 2. ve 3. Basamak kurumlarında hangi hastanemizde hangi ürünün stok fazlası olduğu kolayca izlenebilmektedir. Ayrıca tüm harcama birimlerimizin malzeme satın alma sorgulaması yapılarak bir ürünün maliyeti hakkında bilgi paylaşımı yapılabilmektedir.

MKYS deki verilerden özet tablolar oluşturularak Karar Destek Sistemine (KDS) günlük olarak veriler aktarılmakta ve hızlı sorgulamalar yapılabilmektedir. (www.saglik.gov.tr)

2.1.2. EKAP (Elektronik Kamu Alımları Platformu)

EKAP (Elektronik Kamu Alımları Platformu); Kamu İhale Kurumu tarafından oluşturulan, İdareler ile kamu alımları sürecine taraf olanların bu sürece ilişkin işlemleri internet üzerinden gerçekleştirebilecekleri ve Kurum tarafından yönetilen elektronik ortamdır.(KİK.Genel Esaslar) 1 Eylül 2010 tarihinde kullanılmaya başlanmıştır.

Kamu Satın alma Platformu ve EKAP üzerinden gerçekleştirilecek işlemler için posta ile gönderme sürecini ortadan kaldırmak, platformda oluşan bilgilerin bütünlüğünün, tutarlılığının ve doğruluğunun sağlamak ve platform üzerinden yapılan işlemlerin daha hızlı ve güvenilir bir şekilde yerine getirmek amacı ile yapılmıştır. EKAP üzerinden yapılması zorunlu ihale işlemler “Elektronik İhale Uygulama Yönetmeliği, Md. 4/1” de belirtilmiştir.

3. Çerçeve Anlaşma İhaleleri ve ihale usulleri

Bilindiği üzere ülkemizdeki sağlık hizmeti sunumu ağırlıklı olarak Bakanlığımıza bağlı sağlık kurum ve kuruluşlarınca ifa edilmektedir. Söz konusu kurum ve kuruluşlarımız döner sermayeli işletme niteliğinde olup, tabi olduğu mevzuat çerçevesinde kâr amacı gözetmeden genel işletmecilik esasları doğrultusunda yönetilmektedirler. (Sağlık Bakanlığı, Genelge 2009/45).

Ülkemizdeki kamu hastaneleri satın alma işlemleri, Kamu İhale Kurumu ve Sağlık Bakanlığı tarafından çıkarılan “çeşitli kanun, yönetmelik, tebliğ, kanun hükmünde kararname, kamu ihale kurulu düzenleyici kararları, fiyat farkı esasları, istisnalar çerçevesinde yapılan düzenlemeler ve genelgeler doğrultusunda yürütülmektedir.

28 Kasım 2012 tarihinde uygulanmaya başlanılan, 663 Sayılı Sağlık Bakanlığı ve Bağlı Kuruluşlarının Teşkilat ve Görevleri Hakkında Kanun Hükmünde Kararnameye göre “**Kamu Hastaneleri Birlikleri**” oluşturulmuş olup, Kamu Hastane Birliğine bağlı hastaneler, hastane yöneticisi tarafından idare edilmekte olup kurumun Harcama Yetkilisi’dir. Makalemiz içerisinde Türkiye Kamu Hastaneleri Kurumu’na bağlı il düzeyindeki Kamu Hastane Birlikleri “**Birlik**” olarak anılacaktır.

Birliğe bağlı sağlık tesislerinin ambarlarında bulunan ve gerekli hallerde ortak kullanıma sunulan ilaç, Tıbbi Sarf, Kırtasiye, Tıbbi Cihaz, Demirbaş vb. mal ve malzemeler “birlik stok havuzu” olarak değerlendirilir. Birliğe bağlı sağlık tesisleri arasında ayırım olmaksızın bu mal ve malzemeler öncelikle acil ihtiyaç ve stok fazlası durumlarında olmak üzere kaynak israfına yol açmadan ortak kullanılır. İdareye alım yapma yükümlülüğü getirmemesi ve münferit alım sözleşmeleri ile peyderpey alım yapmaya imkân verdiği için, stok yönetimine katkı sağlayan en uygun alım yöntemi olarak da, mevcut mevzuat hükümlerine göre “Çerçeve Anlaşma İhaleleri” ön plana çıkmaktadır. (2013/09 Stok Yönetimi ve Taşınır Mal Uygulamaları Genelge)

Çerçeve Anlaşma İhaleleri, Uygulama Yönetmeliği hükümleri çerçevesinde **ihtiyaçların il düzeyinde birden fazla idarenin bir araya gelerek temin edilmesi imkân dâhilinde olup**, çerçeve anlaşmadan yararlanacak olan her bir idare tarafından ayrı münferit sözleşmeler yapılabilmektedir.

3.1. Çerçeve Anlaşma

Bir veya birden fazla idare ile bir veya birden fazla istekli arasında, belirli bir zaman aralığında gerçekleştirilecek alımların özellikle fiyat ve mümkün olan hallerde öngörülen miktarlarının tespitine ilişkin şartları belirleyen anlaşmadır. (Ç.A.İ.U.Y. Md.3)

Çerçeve Anlaşma İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği hükümleri çerçevesinde Çerçeve Anlaşma İhalelerinde önem arz eden bazı esaslar şu şekildedir:

1. Çerçeve anlaşmaya taraf olacak istekli (kısmi teklif veya götürü bedel) sayısı üçten az olamaz. İstekli sayısının üçün altına inmesi halinde, çerçeve anlaşmanın sona erdiği taraflara bildirilir.
2. Birden fazla idarenin bir araya gelerek çerçeve anlaşma ihalesini gerçekleştirdiği durumlarda, çerçeve anlaşmadan yararlanacak olan her bir idare tarafından çerçeve anlaşma kapsamında ayrı münferit sözleşmeler yapılabilir.
3. Konsorsiyumlar çerçeve anlaşma ihalelerine katılamazlar.
4. Münferit sözleşme aşamasında teklif edilen birim fiyat teklif bedeli, çerçeve anlaşmada yazılı birim fiyat teklif bedelini aşamaz.
5. İstekliler yeterliklerinin devam ettiğini oniki ayda bir belgelendirir. Yeterliği devam etmeyen istekliler ile çerçeve anlaşma kapsamında teklif vermeye davet edildiği halde iki kez teklif vermeyen veya iki kez geçerli teklif vermeyen isteklilerin çerçeve anlaşmaları feshedilir.
6. Birden fazla idarenin bir araya gelerek çerçeve anlaşma ihalesini gerçekleştirdiği durumlarda, münferit sözleşmenin imzalanmasına ve uygulanmasına ilişkin hususlar, alımı/işi gerçekleştirecek idare tarafından belirlenir ve muayene ve kabul komisyonu da aynı idare tarafından oluşturulur.
7. Münferit sözleşme aşamasında, münferit alımı yapacak idare tarafından tekliflerin elektronik ortamda alınmasına karar verilebilir. Bu durumda münferit sözleşme aşamasında elektronik ortamda verilmeyen teklifler kabul edilmez. Ayrıca münferit sözleşme aşamasında teklif verecek isteklilerin son teklif verme tarih ve saati öncesinde EKAP’a kayıt olmaları zorunludur. (Ç.A.İ.U.Y. Md.6)
8. Çerçeve anlaşmalar sadece “**açık ihale usulü**” ile yapılacak olup, çerçeve anlaşma yapılmış olması idareye alım yapma yükümlülüğü getirmemektedir. Çerçeve anlaşmaların süresi **kırksekiz** ay geçemeyecektir. (Ç.A.İ.U.Y. Md.5)

Ayrıca; Çerçeve Anlaşma İhale dokümanı, münferit sözleşme tasarısı hariç, ilk ilan tarihine kadar kesinleştirilir. Münferit sözleşme tasarısı ise münferit sözleşme için teklif vermeye davet aşamasında kesinleştirilir ve teklif vermeye davet yazısının ekinde isteklilere gönderilir. Tekliflerin elektronik ortamda alınmasına karar verilir ise münferit sözleşme tasarısının e-imza kullanılarak indirilmesi EKAP üzerinden yapılır.

3.2. İhale Usulleri

Ülkemizde uygulanan ihale usulleri; “4734 sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu, Md. 18’ de İdarelerce Mal veya Hizmet Alımları İle Yapım İşlerinin İhalelerinde;

Açık İhale Usulü: Bütün isteklilerin teklif verebildiği ihale usulü (KİK, Md.19).

Belli İstekliler Arasında İhale Usulü: Belli istekliler arasında ihale usulü, yapılacak ön yeterlik değerlendirmesi sonucunda idarece davet edilen isteklilerin teklif verebildiği usuldür. İhaleye davet edilebilecek aday sayısının beşten az olması veya teklif veren istekli sayısının üçten az olması halinde ihale iptal edilir (KİK, Md.20).

Pazarlık Usulü: İhale sürecinin iki aşamalı olarak gerçekleştirildiği ve idarenin ihale konusu işin teknik detayları ile gerçekleştirme yöntemlerini ve belli hallerde fiyatı isteklilerle görüştüğü usuldür. İlk fiyat tekliflerini aşmamak üzere isteklilerden ihale kararına esas olacak son yazılı fiyat teklifleri alınarak ihale sonuçlandırılır. (KİK, Md.21).

Doğrudan Temin (22/d): İhtiyaçların ilân yapılmaksızın ve teminat alınmaksızın doğrudan temin usulüne başvurulabilir. Doğrudan temin usulünde, ihale komisyonu kurma ve KİK 10 uncu maddede sayılan yeterlik kurallarını arama zorunluluğu aranmaksızın, sözleşme yapma zorunluluğu olmadan ihale yetkilisince görevlendirilecek kişi veya kişiler tarafından piyasada fiyat araştırması yapılarak ihtiyaçlar temin edilir. (KİK, Md.22). Kamu İhale Kanunu’nun öngördüğü durumlarda Doğrudan Temin Usulü ile temine de olanak sağlanmıştır.

Ayrıca sağlık kurumlarımıza Doğrudan Temin Usulü gibi temin olanağı sağlayan Kamu İhale Kanunu 21. Maddesi f bendi “İdarelerin yaklaşık maliyeti elli milyar Türk Lirasına (**Yüz altmış yedi bin dokuz yüz altmış altı Türk Lirasına**) kadar olan mamul mal, malzeme veya hizmet alımları” ile de alımlar fazlaca tercih edilmektedir. Ancak bu iki alım türü için sınırlama getirilmiştir.

2003/14 no’lu Kamu İhale Tebliği gereği, 4964 sayılı Kanunla 4734 sayılı Kanuna eklenen 62 nci maddenin (ı) bendi ile 22/d ve 21/f maddelerine göre yapılacak alımlara parasal sınırlama getirilmiştir. Kanun kapsamındaki kurum ve kuruluşlar gerek 21 inci maddesinin (f) bendi, gerekse temsil ağırlama faaliyetleri kapsamında yapılacak konaklama, seyahat ve işeyle ilişkin alımlar hariç 22 nci maddesinin (d) bendi kapsamında yapacakları harcamalarda bütçelerine bu amaçla konulan ödeneklerin %10 oranının Kamu İhale Kurulunun uygun görüşü olmadan aşamayacaklardır. Kurum ve kuruluşlar, mal alımı, hizmet alımı veya yapım işleri için bütçelerine konan yıllık toplam ödenekleri üzerinden her biri için ayrı ayrı %10 oranı hesaplayacaklardır.

4734 sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu’nun temel ilkeler başlığı altındaki 5. maddesi idarelerin ihalelerde saydamlığı, rekabeti, eşit muameleyi, güvenilirliği, gizliliği, kamuoyu denetimini, ihtiyaçların uygun şartlarla ve zamanında karşılanmasını ve kaynakların verimli kullanılmasını sağlamakla sorumlu oldukları açıkça belirtilmiştir.

4. Ülkemiz Kamu Alımlarında Sağlık Harcamalarının Yeri

Ülkemizde kamu alımı ihalelerini gerçekleştiren “Belediyeler, Başbakanlık, Adalet Bakanlığı, İl Özel İdareleri, Bayındırlık ve İskan Bakanlığı, Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, Çevre ve Orman Bakanlığı, Yükseköğretim Kurumları, Enerji ve Tabii Kaynaklar Bakanlığı” gibi 39 (otuzdokuz) en üst idare bulunmaktadır.(KİK. İhale İstatistikleri)

Hazırlanan Kamu Alımları İzleme Tabloları, “gerçekleştirilen kamu alımlarına ilişkin ihale usulü, ihale iptal nedenleri, 22/d ve 21/f maddeleri kapsamında yapılan alımların tüm harcamalara oranları, ayrıca Sağlık Bakanlığı’ nın toplam kamu alımları harcama tutarı içerisindeki yerini kapsamaktadır. İhale İstatistikleri, ihaleleri yapan idareler tarafından Kamu İhale Kurumu’ na Kamu Satınalma Platformu (KSP) veya Elektronik Kamu Alımları Platformu (EKAP) üzerinden internet yoluyla gönderilen verilerden hareketle Kamu İhale Kurumu tarafından düzenlenen istatistiklerden derlenmiştir.

İhale Kayıt Numarası (İKN): Kamu Satınalma Platformu ve Elektronik Kamu Alımları Platformu (EKAP) tarafından her ihale için otomatik olarak verilen bir numaradır. Her bir ihale kayıt numarası (İKN) bir ihaleyi temsil etmektedir. (KİK.İhale İstatistikleri)

Tablo 1. Kamu alımı ihalelerini gerçekleştiren 39 (otuzdokuz) En Üst İdarenin ihale türüne ve aldıkları geçerli ihale (İKN) sayısına göre 2008-2012 yılları arasında, yıllık toplam tutar bazında harcamaları ve Sağlık Bakanlığı'nın toplam harcamalar içerisindeki yeri

Yılı	Gerçekleştiren İdareler	4734 sayılı kanun Kapsamındaki İhaleler (tutar)	Doğrudan Temin (tutar)	İstisnalar (tutar)	Toplam (tutar)	%
2012	İdareler	76.634.709	10.554.256	7.121.725	94.310.689	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	4.295.567	2.618.373	127	6.914.067	7,33
2011	İdareler	62.958.815	16.912.958	11.870.15	91.771.406	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	4.705.644	1.486.044	2.079	6.193.779	6,75
2010	İdareler	54.291.186	5.866.929	9.352.169	69.510.284	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	7.035.837	1.349.097	932	8.385.865	12,06
2009	İdareler	53.462.792	4.806.070	7.955.974	66.224.836	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	6.970.554	904.505	1.194	7.876.253	11,89
2008	İdareler	68.179.739	4.806.070	10.746.29	83.915.297	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	10.931.844	838.435	2.338	11.772.617	14,03
A.O	İdareler	63.105.448	8.589.257	9.409.264	81.146.502	100
	Sağlık Bakanlığı	5.995.631	1.439.291	1.334	8.228.516	10,41

Kaynak: (kik.gov.tr/istatistikler/ 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 Kamu Alımları İzleme Raporu).

Yukarıdaki tabloda görüldüğü üzere 39 En Üst İdarenin gerçekleştirdiği toplam alımlarda, Sağlık Bakanlığı'nın payı ortalama %10,41 oranındadır. Bu oran ile birçok en üst idareyi geride bırakarak sağlık sektörü hizmet sunumu harcamalarının ülke genelinde en üst seviyelerde olduğunun göstergesidir. Hizmet sunumunun hayatiliği ve devamlılığı göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, ihale süreçlerinin, sürelerin ve sonuçlandırmanın hızlı olmasının önemi açıkça ortadadır. İhale sonuçlandırmada yaşanan sıkıntılar idareleri, kanunun 22/d ve 21/f ile %10 baraj olmasına rağmen alım yapmaya mecbur bırakmaktadır. Aşağıda tabloda 2008-2012 yılları arasında tüm ihale usulleri toplam alımlarında, kanunun 22/d ve 21/f maddesi alımlarının yeri, yüzde ve tutar olarak gösterilmiştir. Yıllar arasında bu alım türlerine gittikçe artan bir talep olduğu aşikârdır. Bunun nedenlerini ihaleleri sonuçlandıramamak, ihtiyaç tespitlerini tam zamanlı ve planlı yapamamak, teknik şartnamelerin hazırlanmasında yaşanan sorunlar, stok kontrolünün düzenli ve doğru yapılmaması, hızlı temin edilememe ve öncelikli ihtiyaçların belirlenip planlanamaması gibi sıralamak mümkündür.

İhtiyaçların gerçekçi tespiti ve yaklaşık maliyet ile başlayan, kanunun öngördüğü madde 8'de (her yıl şubat ayı içerisinde günün koşullarına göre rakamlar güncellenmektedir) belirtilen **eşik değere göre devam eden ihale hazırlık/ ihale/şikâyet/itirazen şikâyet/şikâyetlerin sonuçlandırılması/sözleşme ve mal/hizmet/yapım işlerinin teslimatı süreçleri** göz önünde bulundurulduğunda oldukça uzun bir süreç ve hazırlık gerektirmektedir. İhaleye şikâyet/itirazen şikâyet başvurusu olduğu takdirde bu süreç daha da uzayacak, şikâyet/itirazen şikâyet başvurusu sonucunda İdare/Kamu İhale Kurulu tarafından "ihalenin iptali" kararı verildiği takdirde süreç başa dönecek, eksiklikler giderilerek yeni bir ihale hazırlanacaktır. Şu ana dek bunlardan yakınmamıza rağmen, alım yapan idarelerin **"İhale Kayıt No iptal nedenlerine"** baktığımızda; Şikâyet Üzerine İdare Tarafından İptal % 0,99 + Şikâyet Üzerine Kamu İhale Kurulu Kararı ile İptal % 0,51 ile toplam %1,5 oranında olup sıralamaların sonlarında yer alırken, İdarelerin işleyiş ve çalışan bazında eksikliklerinin ve bunlardan kaynaklı ihale iptallerinin azımsanmayacak derecede olduğu ortadadır. "Çerçeve Anlaşma İhaleleri" sağlıkta birçok idarenin bir arada alım yapabilmesine olanak sağlanması ile, kaynak israfını önlemiş, toplu alımlar nedeniyle maliyetleri düşürmüş, her bir idarenin kendi bünyesinde satın alma personel istihdamını azaltmış, tek bir ihale maliyeti ile birçok kurumun tedariki sağlanmıştır. Ayrıca Birlik bünyesinde stokların ortak kullanıma açık olması da kaynak israfını ve stok maliyetlerini büyük ölçüde azaltmıştır. Diğer yandan "ihtiyaç tespitlerinin gerçekçi ve hızlı hazırlanmasını zorlaştırmış, tüm kullanıcı isteklerine cevap verebilecek teknik şartname hazırlanması sürecini uzatmış,

yaklaşık maliyet tutarlarını yükseltmiş, beraberinde ihale süreci ve ilan süreleri” uzamıştır. İhtiyaç tespitinin gerçekçi belirlenememesi, yaklaşık maliyeti piyasa koşullarına göre belirleyememe, ihale usulü/ilan/idari ve teknik şartname hazırlıklarının yetersiz yada hatalı hazırlanması gibi konuların başı çekmesi de, yetişmiş ve konusunda uzmanlaşmış nitelikli personel eksikliğini gözler önüne sermektedir. 2012 yılı verilerine baktığımızda bu durum daha net anlaşılabacaktır.

Tablo 2. İhale Türüne Göre Yapılan Kamu Alımları İçerisinde Madde 22/d* , Madde 22/d** ve Madde 21/f ile Yapılan Alımların Payı

Yılı	İhale türü	Alımın/İşin Türü				IV/I Oranı (%)
		İhale Usulü+ Doğrudan Temin+ İstisna I	Madde 22/d* ve 22/d** II	Madde 21/f III	II+III IV	
						V
2012	Mal Alımı	25.308.860	3.909.338	538.970	4.448.308	17,58
	Hizmet	24.168.786	1.618.724	672.746	2.291.471	9,48
	Alımı	44.833.043	337.053	0	337.053	0,75
	Yapım İş Toplam	94.310.689	5.865.115	1.211.717	7.076.832	7,50
2011	Mal Alımı	34.630.789	9.661.519	539.648	10.201.167	29,46
	Hizmet	20.964.053	1.674.007	587.079	2.261.086	10,79
	Alımı	36.176.564	360.681		360.681	1,00
	Yapım İş Toplam	91.771.406	11.696.207	1.126.727	12.822.934	13,97
2010	Mal Alımı	24.802.366	2.791.051	672.670	3.463.721	14
	Hizmet	24.307.291	637.026	578.816	1.215.843	5
	Alımı	20.400.627	203.098		203.098	1
	Yapım İş Toplam	69.510.284	3.631.175	1.251.486	4.882.662	7
2009	Mal Alımı	22.962.173	2.520.999	556.715	3.077.714	13
	Hizmet	22.717.606	622.695	774.616	1.397.311	6
	Alımı	20.545.058	235.243		235.243	1
	Yapım İş Toplam	66.224.836	3.378.937	1.331.331	4.710.268	7
2008	Mal Alımı	32.569.813	2.745.056	752.212	3.497.268	11
	Hizmet	24.268.949	653.629	771.299	1.424.928	6
	Alımı	27.076.536	242.851		242.851	1
	Yapım İş Toplam	83.915.297	3.641.536	1.523.511	5.165.047	6

Madde 22/d*: Parasal limitler kapsamında yapılan alımlardır.

Madde 22d**: Temsil ağrılama faaliyetleri kapsamında yapılan konaklama, seyahat ve işeyle ilişkin alımlardır.

Kaynak: (kik.gov.tr/istatistikler/ 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 Kamu Alımları İzleme Raporu).

Tablo 3. İhalelerin İptal Nedenleri, Sayısı, Karşılaşılma Oranları (2012) Genel Toplam, %

İptal Edilen İKN' lerin İptal Nedenlerine Göre Sınıflandırılması (2012)	Genel Toplam Adet	%
İhaleye Teklif Veren İstekli Çıkması Nedeniyle	5.387	13,69
İhale Kayıt Numarasının Sehven Alınması	5.075	12,89
İhalenin Niteliğinin veya Miktarının Değişmesi	3.998	10,16
Bütün Tekliflerin Alıma Ayrılan Ödeneğin/ Yaklaşık Maliyetin Çok Üzerinde Olması Nedeniyle	3.843	9,76
İhaleye Geçerli Teklif Veren İstekli Çıkması Nedeniyle	2.509	6,37
İhale İlanı ile İlgili Eksiklik veya Hatalardan Dolayı	1.805	4,59
Teknik Şartnamenin Uygun Olmaması Nedeniyle	1.644	4,18
İlan, Teknik/İdari Şartname Dışında İhale Dokümanlarında Eksikliğin Fark Edilmesi	1.365	3,47
İhale Usulünün Değiştirilmesi	1.301	3,31
İdari Şartnamenin Uygun Olmaması Nedeniyle	1.287	3,27
Şikâyet Üzerine İdare Tarafından İptal	388	0,99
Belli İstekliler Arasında İhalelerde Yeterli Sayıda Katılımın Sağlanamaması	252	0,64
4734/ 10. maddesinde belirtilen belgeleri tamamlayamaması nedeniyle	221	0,56
Şikâyet Üzerine Kamu İhale Kurulu Kararı ile İptal	200	0,51
İhale Üzerinde Kalan İsteklinin Sözleşme İmzalamaması	100	0,25
Bütün Tekliflerin Aşırı Düşük Olarak Değerlendirilmesi	94	0,24
Teyit Alınan İstekli Hakkında Yasaklılık / Hakkında Kamu Davası Olması	48	0,12
Diğer	9.789	24,87
Genel Toplam	39.357	100

Kaynak: (kik.gov.tr/istatistikler/ 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 Kamu Alımları İzleme Raporu).

Tablo 3. de görüldüğü üzere, “ihaleye teklif veren istekli çıkması, ihale kayıt numarasının sehven alınması, ihalenin niteliğinin veya miktarının değişmesi, yaklaşık maliyetin çok üzerinde olması, ihale usulü/ilan/idari ve teknik şartname uygunsuzlukları” iptal nedenlerinin çoğunluğunu oluşturmaktadır. Kurumların ihale süreci içerisinde sehven ihale kayıt no almamak için daha dikkatli olmaları, yaklaşık maliyet belirlenirken ihaleye katılımı sağlamayı da hedefleyerek, piyasa koşullarına uygunluğunu ve gerçekliğini teyit etmeleri, işin miktar ve niteliğinin belirlenmesinde ihtiyaç tespit komisyonlarının etkin çalışmasını sağlamaları ve denetlemeleri gerekmektedir. Sağlık hizmetleri gibi **hayati önemi ve devamlılığı zorunlu olan, kamu alımlarında başı çeken bir sektörde** bu tip eksiklikler nedeniyle sonuçlandırılmayan ihalelerin önüne geçilmeli ve bunun için ivedilikle tedbirler alınmalıdır. Yetmişmiş personel istihdamı için çalışmalar başlatılmalı, eğitimleri sağlanmalı, denetim mekanizmaları kurulmalı, kurum bünyesinde karşılanamayan teknik şartname ve benzeri durumlar için hizmet alımına gidilmelidir.

5. Kamu Hastanelerinde Açık İhale Usulü İle Mal Alımı Örnek Uygulaması

Sağlık işletmelerinin ortaya çıkacak ani gereksinimleri karşılamak ve tıbbi tetkik ve tedavilerin kesintiye uğramadan sürdürülmesini sağlamak amacıyla el altında bulundurulmuş, her türlü sarf maddelerine “stok” denilmektedir. Gereğinden fazla stok bulundurma masrafları yüksektir. Şayet, işletme üretimde kullandığı birçok maddeyi stokta bulunduruyorsa, her bir stok kalemini ihtiyacına göre ayarlamalıdır. Bir kısım stok kalemlerinin, diğer stok kalemlerine uygun oranlarla bulundurulmaması, yani stok kalemlerindeki dengenin bozukluğu işletmeyi güç duruma düşürür.

Asgari stok miktarları tespit edildikten sonra, eldeki stokların fiilen bu miktarların altına düşüp düşmediği sürekli olarak kontrol edilmelidir. Stokların iyi hesaplanması, dönemsel gelirlerle ilgili dönem giderlerinin uyumunu belirler ve yönetimin ileride alacağı kararlara dayanak olur. Bu faktörlerin ışığı altında tüm departmanların katkısıyla kurulacak etkin bir kontrol sistemi yadsınamaz. İşletmenin amacı, gereğinden çok veya az, stokları ortadan kaldırmaktır. Belli bir zamanda, çok az olan stok miktarı, bir süre sonra çok çabuk fazla stok haline gelebilir (AKMAN, 2003).

Taşınır mal mevzuatına ilişkin iş ve işlemlerin yoğunluğu, sürekliliği, yönetim dönemine ilişkin hesap verme sorumluluğu gibi hususlar dikkate alınarak Birlik genelinde **“Stok Yönetim Birimleri”** kurulur. Sağlık tesisleri ölçeğinde ise stok yönetimi uygulamaları Hastane Yöneticisinin başkanlığında, Başhekim, İdari ve Mali Hizmetler Müdürü, Sağlık Bakım Hizmetleri Müdürü ile ambarlardan sorumlu Taşınır Kayıt ve Kontrol Yetkililerinin koordinasyonu ile yürütülür.

Stok Yönetim Birimlerince; Birliğe bağlı sağlık tesisleri arasında ve birlikler arasında gerçekleştirilecek stok devirlerinin koordine edilmesi, siparişlerin yönetimi veya kontrolü, Birlik Sağlık Tesislerinin stoklarının yerinde denetlenmesi, birlik bünyesinde yer alan Sağlık Tesislerinin stoklarının öncelikle MKYS-Karar Destek Sistemleri ve sonra diğer bilgi sistemleri verilerine dayanılarak analiz edilmesi, birlik stoğunda yer alan ilaç ve tıbbi malzemelerin fiili stok durumu ve tüketimlerine ilişkin branş dağılımlarının takibi, hareket görmeyen malzemelerin takibi, hasta başı ilaç, tıbbi malzeme, laboratuvar maliyetleri ve tüketimlerinin takibi, raporlanması ve maliyet kontrolüne dönük çalışmaların koordinesi (süreç yönetimi, akılcı ilaç kullanımı vb.) hizmetleri yürütülür. Birlikler ve Bağlı Sağlık Tesisleri için Azami Stok Miktarı **“60 gün”** olarak belirlenmiştir. (Sağlık Bakanlığı, TKHK, Genelge 20013/09).

MKYS-Karar Destek Sistemleri incelemeleri sonucunda, temin edilemeyen ihtiyaçların adım adım satın alma süreci aşağıda incelenmiştir.

5.1. İhtiyaç Listelerinin Belirlenmesi ve Hazırlanması

Hastane Birim/klinik Sorumluları, ihtiyaç duyulan herhangi bir malzemeyi “taşınır istek belgesi formu” düzenleyerek (belge ya da hastane bilgi yönetim sistemi üzerinden) depodan malzemeyi talep eder. Malzemelerin çıkışı FIFO (ilk giren ilk çıkar) yöntemine göre yapılır. Bu yöntemin uygulanmasının nedeni hastanelerde kullanılan malzemelerin büyük çoğunluğunun miadlı malzemelerden oluşmasıdır. İstenilen malzeme hastane stoklarında (depoda) yoksa malzemenin karşılanabilmesi için birim/kliniklerin sorumlularınca “ihtiyacın gerekçesinin açıkça yazılı olduğu, istenilen malzemelerin özelliklerini ve sayısını belirten “satın alma talep formu” hastane yöneticisine sunulur.

Bölümün veya kliniğin sorumlu birim amiri tarafından hazırlanan ve imza altına alınan satın alma talep formları hastane yöneticisi tarafından “İhtiyaç Tespit Komisyonu” na sunulur. **“İhtiyaç Tespit Komisyonu;** Hastane Yöneticisi veya görevlendireceği kişinin başkanlığında, Başhekim, Sağlık Bakım Hizmetleri Müdürü, İdari ve Mali Hizmetler Müdürü veya bunları temsilen yardımcıları ile Taşınır Kayıt ve Kontrol Yetkililerinden oluşturulur. Ayrıca bu komisyona ihtiyacın niteliğine göre (mal veya hizmet) ilgili teknik veya uzman personel de katılabilir.” (Sağlık Bakanlığı, TKHK, Genelge 20013/09).

İhtiyaç Tespit Komisyonu tarafından, mevcut stoklar ve alternatif temin yöntemleri, geçmiş yıllar tüketim miktarları, tüketim miktarlarının hangi aylarda arttığı veya azaldığı, hizmet sunumunda meydana gelebilecek eksiliş veya artışlar, ihalenin sonuçlanma süresi, ihalenin usulü, peyderpey yapılacak mal teslimatları veya kısa süreli ihtiyaçları karşılayacak miktarlar için yapılacak ihalenin getirebileceği maliyetler, merkeze uzak illere yapılacak teslimatlarda yaşanabilecek zorluklar, sözleşme imzalandıktan sonra yapılacak iş artışları/eksilişleri gibi hususlar dikkate alınarak ihtiyaç tespiti belirlenir.

“Birliğe bağlı sağlık tesislerince ihtiyaç duyulan malzemeler birlik stok havuzunda bulunan sırasıyla ihtiyaç fazlası, stok fazlası ve diğer ürün stoklarından karşılanır. Birlik dışından temin edilecek malzemelerde ise maliyet unsurları dikkate alınır. İhtiyaç tespit aşamasında ve satın alma öncesinde bu sorgulamaların kimlerce ve nasıl yapılacağına ilişkin hususlar Genel Sekreterlikçe belirlenir.” (Sağlık Bakanlığı, TKHK, Genelge 20013/09).

“Aralarında kabul edilebilir doğal bir bağlantı olmadığı sürece mal alımı, hizmet alımı ve yapım işleri bir arada ihale edilemez. Eşik değerin veya parasal limitlerin altında kalmak amacıyla mal alımları kısımlara bölünemez.” (KİK, Genel Esaslar)

İhale sürecinde bu aşamadan sonra yapılacak tüm işlemler, “kamu ihale kurumu/elektronik kamu alımları platformu (EKAP)” üzerinden gerçekleştirilecektir.

5.2. Teknik Şartnamelerin Hazırlanması

İhtiyaç Tespit Komisyonları tarafından hazırlanan “İhtiyaç “Tespit Tutanakları”nın Harcama Yetkilisince onaylanması üzerine, yine harcama yetkilisince en az ikisi konunun uzmanı olması kaydıyla “Teknik Şartname Hazırlama Komisyonu” kurulur. Kurumda yeterli uzman yok ise eşdeğer kurumlardan teknik şartname hazırlama komisyonuna uzman istenir ve bu komisyona ilişkin onay yazısı ilgililere tebliğ edilir.

Teknik Şartnameler, Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği, Md. 14 hükümleri doğrultusunda ve öngörülen sürede, belirlenen uzmanlarca hazırlanır, satınalma birimi tarafından kontrol edilir, gerekli görüldüğü takdirde öngörülen düzeltmeler yapılır.

5.3. Yaklaşık Maliyetin Tespiti

Gerekçeli satın alma talebi, ihtiyaç tespiti komisyon tutanağı, teknik şartnamesi hazırlanıp, harcama yetkilisince alımı onaylanan ihtiyaçlar için;

Harcama yetkilisi tarafından “Yaklaşık Maliyet Belirleme Komisyonu” oluşturulur ve ilgililere tebliğ edilir. İdarenin daha önceki alımları da dahil, nitelik ve nicelik açısından benzerlik gösteren kurumların alım fiyatları temin edilerek komisyona veri oluşturulur. Gerekli olması halinde Ticaret Odasından fiyat temini için yazışmaları yapılır. Komisyon gerekli piyasa fiyat araştırmasını yaparken, malın cinsini, sınıfını, miktarını, teslim süresini, teslim edilecek parti miktarlarını, nakliyenin kime ait olacağını, sigorta şartlarını, varsa diğer özel şartları ve teknik şartnamesini eklemek suretiyle katma değer vergisi hariç olmak üzere fiyat tekliflerini ister. Buna göre gelen tekliflerle yaklaşık maliyetini belirler ve bir hesap cetveli hazırlanır. Hazırlanan Yaklaşık Maliyet Hesap Cetveli ihale onay belgesine eklenir.

4734 sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu, Md.9’da; Yaklaşık maliyete ihale ve ön yeterlik ilânlarında yer verilmez, isteklilere veya ihale süreci ile resmî ilişkisi olmayan diğer kişilere açıklanmaz.” şeklinde hükme bağlamıştır. “EKAP üzerinden yapılan ihalelerde idarece hazırlanan yaklaşık maliyet EKAP’a kaydedilir ve yaklaşık maliyetin açıklanması aşamasına kadar şifreli olarak tutulur”. (EİUY,Md.8)

5.4. İhale Usulünün Belirlenmesi

Uygulanacak ihale usulleri; “4734 sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu, Md. 18’ de İdarelerce Mal veya Hizmet Alımları İle Yapım İşlerinin İhalelerinde, Açık ihale usulü, Belli istekliler arasında ihale usulü, Pazarlık usulü temin olarak belirlenir.

5.5. İhale Dokümanlarının Hazırlanması

“İhale dokümanında; idari şartnameler ile yaptırılacak işin projesini de kapsayan teknik şartnameler, sözleşme tasarısı ve gerekli diğer belge ve bilgiler bulunur. Ön yeterlik dokümanında ise adaylarda aranılan şartlara, ön yeterlik kriterlerine ve gerekli diğer belge ve bilgilere yer verilir. İhale dokümanı hazırlanmadan ilan ya da davet yapılamaz. **Ödeneği bulunmayan hiçbir iş için ihaleye çıkılamaz.**” (KİK, Md.27).

İdari Şartnameler

İdari şartnamelerde; ihale konusuna göre kanunun öngördüğü asgari hususların belirtilmesi zorunludur (KİK, Md.27). İdari şartnamelerde yer verilmesi zorunlu bazı hususların açıklamalarının mevzuatta yer verildiği maddeler aşağıda belirtilmiştir;

1. Tekliflerin Geçerlilik Süresi (KİK, Md.32).
2. Geçici Teminat (KİK, Md.33). Teminat olarak kabul edilecek değerler (KİK, Md.34).
3. Geçici Teminat Mektuplarının Süresi (K.İ.G.T., Md.18.2).
4. Kesin Teminat (KİK, Md.43 (K.İ.G.T., Md.18.5). (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.54.10).
5. Ortak Girişim (KİK, Md.14).
6. Alt Yüklenici (KİK, Md.15).

7. İş Deneyim Belgesi ve Benzer İş Kavramı (K.İ.G.T., Md.72.1,2,3).
8. Yerli İstekli ve Yerli Malını Teklif Edenler Lehine Fiyat Avantajı Uygulanması
 - a. Yerli İstekli (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.5).
 - b. Yerli Malı (K.İ.G.T., Md.6.2.2.1).
 - c. Yerli Malını Teklif Edenler Lehine Fiyat Avantajı Uygulanması (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.61).
9. Fiyat Farkı Uygulanması: Mal alımlarında fiyat farkı uygulaması “Mal Alımı Fiyat Farkı Hesabında Uygulanacak Esaslar” doğrultusunda uygulanır. İşçi çalıştırılmasına yönelik hizmet alımlarında fiyat farkı uygulaması, 4734 sayılı Kamu İhale Kanununa göre ihalesi yapılacak olan hizmet alımlarına ilişkin Fiyat Farkı Hesabında Uygulanacak Esaslar doğrultusunda yapılır.
10. Fiyat Dışı Unsurlar (M.A.İ.U.Y.,Md.60).
11. İhalelerin Yabancı İsteklilere Açılması (K.İ.G.T.,Md.6.2.5.1.).
12. Alternatif Teklif (K.İ.G.T.,Md.59).

Sözleşmeler

Kamu İhale Sözleşmeleri Kanunu’na göre düzenlenecek sözleşmelerde kanunun öngördüğü hususların belirtilmesi zorunludur.

Sözleşme Türleri (K.İ.S.K., Md.6)

Kamu İhale Kanununa göre yapılan ihaleler sonucunda düzenlenen sözleşmeler;

- a) Yapım işlerinde, işin tamamı için isteklinin teklif ettiği toplam bedel üzerinden **anahtar teslimi götürü bedel sözleşme**,
- b) Mal veya hizmet alımı işlerinde, işin tamamı için isteklinin teklif ettiği toplam bedel üzerinden **götürü bedel sözleşme**,
- c) Yapım işlerinde ve mal veya hizmet alımı işlerinde, idarece hazırlanmış cetvelde yer alan her bir iş kaleminin miktarı ile bu iş kalemleri için istekli tarafından teklif edilen birim fiyatların çarpımı sonucu bulunan **toplam bedel üzerinden birim fiyat sözleşme**,
- d) Yapım işlerinde, iş kalemlerinin bir kısmı için **anahtar teslimi götürü bedel**, bir kısmı için **birim fiyat teklifi alma yöntemleri** birlikte uygulanmak suretiyle **karma sözleşme**,
- e) Çerçeve anlaşmaya dayalı olarak idare ile yüklenici arasında imzalanan **münferit sözleşme**.

Çerçeve anlaşma ve münferit sözleşmede belirtilmesi zorunlu olan hususları belirlemeye Kurum yetkilidir (K.İ.S.K.,Md.6).

5.6. İhale Onayının Alınması

İhale onayı alınmadan önce, yaklaşık maliyet rakamı ile ilgili bütçe kalemindeki ödenek miktarının araştırması yapılarak ödenek yetersizliği durumunda ödenek aktarma işlemleri satın alma birimi aracılığı ile yapılır.

Belirlenen yaklaşık maliyet cetvelindeki toplam fiyata göre, “**ihale onay formu**” tanzim edilerek hangi yöntemle alım yapılacağına karar verilir.

Belirlenen yaklaşık maliyet ile belirlenen ihale usulünün gerektirdiği, ön ilan, ilan şekilleri ve süreleri; 4734 Sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu Md. 8 Eşik Değerler bölümünde belirtilen parasal sınırlara göre “KİK, Md.13 İhale ilan süreleri ve kuralları ile ön ilan” hükümlerince belirlenir.

Ayrıca ihale onay belgesinde “**fiyat farkı verilip verilmeyeceği, avans verilecekse şartları**” ile ilgili hususlarda belirtilmelidir.

İhale onay belgesi, EKAP üzerinden **hazırlanmayacak** olup, 4734 Sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu Uygulama Yönetmelikleri/ ek 1 standart formlar bölümünde bulunmaktadır.

5.7. İhale Kayıt Numarası (İKN) Alınması

İdarelerce ön ilan, ihale ilanı veya ön yeterlik ilanı yayımlanmadan, ilan yapılmaksızın yapılan ihalelerde ise davet yazısı gönderilmeden önce EKAP üzerinden Kurumdan İhale Kayıt Numarası (İKN) alınması zorunludur. İstisna kapsamında yapılan ihaleler için de İKN alınacaktır. Ayrıca çerçeve anlaşma kapsamında yapılacak her bir münferit alım için de münferit sözleşme onay belgesi hazırlanmadan önce İKN alınacaktır. (K.İ.G.T.,Md.29).

5.8. İhale Komisyonu ve Muayene ve Kabul Komisyonunun Kurulması, Görevleri

5.8.1. İhale Komisyonunun Kurulması ve Çalışma Esasları

İhale yetkilisi, ihaleyi gerçekleştirmek üzere ihale ilanı veya ön yeterlik ilanı ya da davet tarihini izleyen en geç üç gün içinde ihale komisyonunu “tek sayıda olmak üzere başkan dahil en az beş kişiden oluşturur”. Üyelerden en az ikisinin ihale konusu işin uzmanı ve diğer bir üyenin muhasebe veya mali işlerden sorumlu personel olması zorunludur. Asıl üyeler ile bu üyelerin yerine geçecek aynı niteliklere sahip yeterli sayıda yedek üyenin isimleri ve bu üyelerin komisyonda hangi sıfatla yer alacakları belirtilir. İhale sürecindeki değerlendirmeleri yapmak üzere oluşturulan ihale komisyonu dışında başka adlar altında komisyonlar kurulamaz.

İhale komisyonu eksiksiz olarak toplanır ve kararlar çoğunlukla alınır. Komisyon üyeleri, kararlarda çekimser kalamaz. Komisyon başkanı ve üyeleri oy ve kararlarından sorumlu olup; karşı oy kullanan komisyon üyeleri, gerekçelerini komisyon kararına yazmak ve imzalamak zorundadır. İhale komisyonunca alınan kararlar ve düzenlenen tutanaklar, komisyon başkan ve üyelerinin adları ve soyadları, unvanları ve komisyondaki sıfatları belirtilerek imzalanır.

İhale komisyonu, teklif veya başvuru kapsamında yer alan belgelerin doğruluğunu teyit için gerekli gördüğü belge ve bilgileri isteyebilir. Bu doğrultuda yapılan talepler, ilgililerce ivedilikle yerine getirilir. (M.A.D.M.K.İ.D.Y.,Md.17).

Gerekli incelemeyi yapmalarını sağlamak amacıyla ihale işlem dosyasının birer örneği, ilân veya daveti izleyen üç gün içinde ihale komisyonu üyelerine verilir.

5.8.2. Muayene ve Kabul Komisyonunun Kurulması ve Çalışma Esasları

Yetkili makam tarafından biri başkan, biri işin uzmanı olmak üzere en az üç veya daha fazla tek sayıda kişi ile yedek üyelerden oluşan “muayene ve kabul komisyonları” kurulur. Ancak, ilgili idarede yeterli sayıda veya işin özelliğine uygun nitelikte uzman personel bulunmaması durumunda, 4734 sayılı Kanuna tabi idarelerden uzman personel görevlendirilebilir.

Ara denetimi gerçekleştiren personel muayene kabul komisyonlarında görevlendirilebilir. Ancak, muayene ve kabul komisyonlarında görevlendirilen personelin tamamı ara denetimi gerçekleştiren personelden oluşturulamaz (M.A.D.M.K.İ.D.Y.,Md.2).

Komisyonun Görev ve Sorumlulukları

Komisyon üyeleri her muayenede hazır bulunarak, yüklenici tarafından idareye teslim edilen malın veya yapılan işin ihale dokümanında belirtilen şartlara uygun olup olmadığını inceler, ihale dokümanında belirlenen şekilde kabul işlemlerini yürütür. Kısa sürede bozulabilen malzemelerin muayenesine öncelik verir.

Malın muayeneye hazırlanmasında yüklenicinin görevleri “Mal Alımları Denetim Muayene ve Kabul İşlemlerine Dair Yönetmelik Md.12” de belirtilmiştir.

Muayene İşlemleri “Mal Alımları Denetim Muayene ve Kabul İşlemlerine Dair Yönetmelik” hükümlerince gerçekleştirilir. Niteliklerin şartnamelere uygun bulunması ve uygunluk tutanağının düzenlenmesi halinde MKYS üzerinden “Muayene ve Kabul Komisyon Tutanağı” düzenlenir ve imza altına alınır.

5.9. İhale İşlem Dosyası

İdare, ihalesi yapılacak her iş için bir ihale işlem dosyası düzenler. Bu dosyada ihale sürecinin bulunduğu aşamaya göre, M.A.İ.U.Y.,Md.18 de belirtilen, EKAP üzerinden hazırlanarak çıktısı alınanlar da dahil olmak üzere tüm ihale evrakları/belgeler yer alır. İhale işlem dosyasının birer örneği, ilan veya daveti izleyen üç gün içinde idare tarafından ihale komisyonu üyelerine verilir.

5.10. İhalenin Ön İlan ve İlan Edilmesi, İhale Düzeltme ve İptal İlanı

5.10.1. İhalenin Ön İlan ve İlan Edilmesi

Belirlenen yaklaşık maliyet ve ihale usulünün gerektirdiği, ön ilan, ilan şekilleri ve süreleri; 4734 Sayılı Kamu İhale Kanunu Md. 8, Eşik Değerler bölümünde belirtilen parasal sınırlara göre KİK, Md.13 İhale İlan süreleri ve kuralları ile ön ilan gereği belirlenmekte ve ilanlar bu hükümler doğrultusunda hazırlanmaktadır.

Kamu İhale Kurumu tarafından yapılan ihale ilanlarının yayımlanabilmesi için Kurum tarafından belirlenen ihale ilan ücretinin idarelerce Kurumun internet sayfasında duyurulan ilgili bankalar nezdindeki Kurumsal Tahsilat Hesabına yatırılması gerekmektedir. Ön ilan, ihale sonucunun ilanı ile düzeltme ve iptal ilanları ücretsiz olarak yayımlanır.

İlan metinlerinin yayım için kabul edilmesi ve idarece ücretinin ödenmesinin ardından, Kurumun internet sayfasında yer alan “Kamu İhale Bülteni İhale İlanı Sevk ve İşlem Formu” nun eksiksiz ve doğru olarak doldurularak internet üzerinden Kuruma gönderilir. İlanların yayımlanması gereken tarihten en az 2 iş günü önce (yayım günü hariç) Kurum kayıtlarındaki tüm işlemlerin tamamlanmış olması gerekmektedir.

5.10.2. İhale Düzeltme İlanı

İdareler tarafından yayımlattırılan ihale ilanlarında, Kanunun 24 ve 25 inci maddelerine uygun olmayan hususlar bulunduğu tespit edilmesi durumunda, Kanunun 26 ncı maddesi gereğince ilanın yayımlanmasını takip eden süreler içinde hatalı hususlar için verilecek ilanlardır. İhale düzeltme ilanı EKAP üzerinden hazırlanacaktır (K.İ.G.T.,Md.30.3).

5.10.3. İhale İptal İlanı

İdarelerce, gerekli görülen hallerde veya ihale dokümanında yer alan belgelerde ihalenin yapılmasına engel teşkil edecek ve düzeltilmesi mümkün olmayacak hususların tespit edildiği hallerde Kanunun 16’ ncı maddesi kapsamında ihale saatinden önce iptal edilen ihalenin duyurusuna yönelik verilecek ilanlardır (K.İ.G.T.,Md.30.3.4).

5.11. İhale ve Ön Yeterlik Dokümanın Görülmesi, Satın Alınması ve EKAP Üzerinden İndirilmesi

Ön yeterlik dokümanı ile ihale dokümanı, EKAP’ ta ve idarenin ilanda belirtilen adresinde bedelsiz olarak görülebilir. İhaleye katılmak için bu dokümanın idarece her sayfası onaylanmış nüshasının idareden satın alınması veya EKAP üzerinden e-imza kullanılarak indirilmesi zorunludur. EKAP üzerinden e-imza kullanılarak indirilmesi halinde doküman satın alınmış sayılır ve **doküman bedeli ödenmez**. Ancak ilansız ihalelerde doküman EKAP üzerinden görülemez ve indirilmez.

Dokümanın, basım maliyetini aşmayacak ve rekabeti engellemeyecek bir bedelle satılması zorunlu olup, satış hakkı yalnız idareye aittir. Dokümanın basım maliyetinin tespitine ilişkin belge ve bilgileri içeren bir tutanak düzenlenerek ihale işlem dosyasında muhafaza edilir. Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.23 de açıklamalar mevcuttur.

5.12. İhale ve Ön Yeterlik Dokümanında Değişiklik veya Açıklama Yapılması

İlan yapıldıktan sonra ihale ve ön yeterlik dokümanında değişiklik yapılmaması esastır. Değişiklik yapılması zorunlu olursa, bunu gerektiren sebep ve zorunluluklar bir tutanakla tespit edilerek önceki ilanlar geçersiz sayılır ve ihale yeniden aynı şekilde ilan edilir. Ancak, teklif veya başvuruların hazırlanmasını etkileyebilecek maddi veya teknik hatalar veya eksikliklerin idarece tespit edilmesi ya da idareye yazılı olarak bildirilmesi halinde, zeyilname düzenlenmek suretiyle dokümanda değişiklik yapılabilir.

Yapılan değişiklik nedeniyle tekliflerin veya başvuruların hazırlanabilmesi için ek süreye ihtiyaç duyulması halinde, ihale veya son başvuru tarihi bir defaya mahsus olmak üzere en fazla yirmi gün zeyilname ile ertelenebilir. Bu durumda tekliflerini vermiş veya başvurularını yapmış olan istekli veya adaylara teklif veya başvurularını geri çekerek, yeniden teklif verme veya başvuru yapma imkânı tanınır. İhale ve ön yeterlik dokümanında değişiklik veya açıklama yapılması ile ilgili tüm hususlar Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.24 de açıkça belirtilmiştir.

5.13. İhaleye Katılımı Belirleyen Yeterlilik Şartları ve İstenecek Belgeler

Mal Alımı İhalelerinde Uygulama Yönetmeliğinde yapılan düzenlemeler ile kamu alımlarında tedarikçi seçimine yönelik yeterlik şartları ve belgeler aşağıdaki gibi düzenlenmiştir.

- A. Ekonomik ve Mali Yeterliğe İlişkin Belgeler
 - a- Bankalardan temin edilecek belgeler
 - b- İsteklinin bilançosu veya eşdeğer belgeleri
 - c- İsteklinin iş hacmini gösteren belgeler
- B. Mesleki ve Teknik Yeterliğe İlişkin Belgeler
 - a- İsteklinin mesleki faaliyetini sürdürdüğünü ve teklif vermeye yetkili olduğunu gösteren belgeler
 - b- İş deneyim belgeleri
 - c- Üretim ve/veya imalat kapasitesine, araştırma-geliştirme faaliyetlerine ve kaliteyi sağlamasına yönelik belgeler,
 - d- İsteklinin organizasyon yapısına ve ihale konusu işi yerine getirmek için yeterli sayıda ve nitelikte personel çalıştırdığına veya çalıştıracağına ilişkin bilgi ve/veya belgeler,
 - e- İhale konusu işin yerine getirilebilmesi için gerekli görülen tesis, makine, teçhizat ve diğer ekipmana ilişkin belgeler,
 - f- İhale konusu işin yerine getirilebilmesi için gerekli görülen tesis, makine, teçhizat ve diğer ekipmana ilişkin belgeler,
 - g- İstekliye doğrudan bağlı olsun veya olmasın, kalite kontrolden sorumlu olan ilgili teknik personel veya teknik kuruluşlara ilişkin belgeler,
 - h- İhale konusu işin ihale dokümanında belirtilen standartlara uygunluğunu gösteren, uluslararası kurallara uygun şekilde akredite edilmiş kalite kontrol kuruluşları tarafından verilen sertifikalar,
 - i- Uluslararası kurallara uygun şekilde akredite edilmiş kalite kontrol kuruluşları tarafından verilen sertifikalar
 - j- Tedarik edilecek malların numuneleri, katalogları, fotoğrafları.,

5.14. İhale Saatinden Önce İhalenin İptal Edilmesi

İdarenin gerekli gördüğü veya ihale dokümanında yer alan belgelerde ihalenin yapılmasına engel olan ve düzeltilmesi mümkün bulunmayan hususların bulunduğu hallerde ihale saatinden önce

ihale iptal edilebilir. Bu durumda, iptal nedeni belirtilerek ihalenin iptal edildiği isteklilere ilân edilerek duyurulur. Bu aşamaya kadar teklif vermiş olanlara ihalenin iptal edildiği ayrıca tebliğ edilir. İdareye verilmiş olan bütün teklifler reddedilmiş sayılır ve bu teklifler açılmaksızın isteklilere iade edilir. İsteklilerce idareden herhangi bir hak talebinde bulunulamaz (KİK,Md.16).

5.15. İhaleye Katılamayacak Olanlar ve İhale Dışı Bırakılma Nedenleri

İhaleye katılamayacak olanlar “Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.51” de belirtilmiştir. Kurumlar bu doğrultuda hareket etmek zorundadır.

İhale dışı bırakılma nedenleri “Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.50” de belirtilmiştir. Kurumlar bu doğrultuda hareket etmek zorundadır.

5.16. İhaleye Katılım Belgelerinin Sunuluş Şekli

Belgelerin aslını veya aslına uygunluğu noterce onaylanmış örneklerini isterler. Bu kapsamda sunulan fatura örnekleri de asıl olarak kabul edilir. Adaylar veya istekliler, istenen belgelerin aslı yerine ihale veya son başvuru tarihinden önce idare tarafından “aslı idarece görülmüştür” veya bu anlama gelecek şerh düşülen suretlerini başvuruları veya teklifleri kapsamında sunabilirler. Diğer hususlar ve detaylar “Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.29” da belirtilmiştir.

5.17. İsteklilerin İhale Dosyalarının, Tekliflerinin Hazırlanması ve Sunulması

Teklif mektubu ve geçici teminat da dahil olmak üzere ihaleye katılabilme şartı olarak istenilen bütün belgeler bir zarfa konulur. Zarfın üzerine isteklinin adı, soyadı veya ticaret unvanı, tebligata esas açık adresi, teklifin hangi işe ait olduğu ve ihaleyi yapan idarenin açık adresi yazılır. Zarfın yapııştırılan yeri istekli tarafından imzalanır ve mühürlenir.

Teklif mektupları yazılı ve imzalı olarak sunulur. Teklif mektubunda ihale dokümanının tamamen okunup kabul edildiğinin belirtilmesi, teklif edilen bedelin rakam ve yazı ile birbirine uygun olarak açıkça yazılması, üzerinde kazıntı, silinti, düzeltme bulunmaması ve teklif mektubunun ad, soyad veya ticaret unvanı yazılmak suretiyle yetkili kişilerce imzalanmış olması zorunludur. Mal alımı ihalelerinde, ihale dokümanında alternatif teklif verilebileceğine dair hüküm bulunması halinde, alternatif tekliflerde aynı şekilde hazırlanarak sunulur.

Teklifler ihale dokümanında belirtilen ihale saatine kadar sıra numaralı alındılar karşılığında idareye verilir. Bu saatten sonra verilen teklifler kabul edilmez ve açılmaksızın iade edilir. Teklifler iadeli taahhütlü olarak da gönderilebilir. Posta ile gönderilecek tekliflerin ihale dokümanında belirtilen ihale saatine kadar idareye ulaşması şarttır. Postadaki gecikme nedeniyle işleme konulmayacak olan tekliflerin alınış zamanı bir tutanakla tespit edilir.

Verilen teklifler, zeyilname düzenlenmesi hali hariç, herhangi bir sebeple geri alınamaz ve değiştirilemez.”(KİK,Md.,30).

5.18. Tekliflerin Alınması, Açılması ve Değerlendirilmesi

Teklifler ihale dokümanında belirtilen ihale saatine kadar idareye verilir. İhale komisyonunca ihale dokümanında belirtilen saatte kaç teklif verilmiş olduğu bir tutanakla tespit edilerek duyurulur, ihale komisyonu eksiksiz olarak toplanır ve ihaleye başlanır. İhale komisyonu teklif zarflarını alınış sırasına göre inceler, uygun olmayan zarflar bir tutanak ile belirlenerek değerlendirmeye alınmaz. Zarflar isteklilerle birlikte hazır bulunanlar önünde alınış sırasına göre açılır.

İsteklilerin belgelerinin eksik olup olmadığı ve teklif mektubu ile geçici teminatlarının usulüne uygun olup olmadığı kontrol edilir. Belgeleri eksik veya teklif mektubu ile geçici teminatı usulüne uygun olmayan istekliler tutanakla tespit edilir. İstekliler, teklif fiyatları ve yaklaşık maliyet tutarı açıklanır. Bu işlemlere ilişkin hazırlanan tutanak ihale komisyonunca imzalanır. Bu aşamada; hiçbir teklifin reddine veya kabulüne

karar verilmez, teklifi oluşturan belgeler düzeltilemez ve tamamlanamaz. Teklifler ihale komisyonunca değerlendirilmek üzere oturum kapatılır.

İhale komisyonunun talebi üzerine idare tekliflerin incelenmesi, karşılaştırılması ve değerlendirilmesinde yararlanmak üzere net olmayan hususlarla ilgili isteklilerden yazılı olarak tekliflerini açıklamaları istenebilir. Ancak bu açıklama, hiçbir şekilde teklif fiyatında değişiklik yapılması veya ihale dokümanında yer alan şartlara uygun olmayan tekliflerin uygun hale getirilmesi amacıyla istenilemez ve yapılamaz. İhale komisyonu, EKAP üzerinden isteklilerin sunmuş olduğu belgelerin doğruluğunu sorgulayarak teyit eder. Bu sorgulama; Teklif işlemleri/Belge sorgulama bölümünden yapılmaktadır.

Tekliflerin değerlendirilmesi “Kamu İhale Kanunu Md.26-27” de belirtilen şekilde gerçekleştirilir.

İsteklilerden Aşırı Düşük Tekliflerin Tespiti ve Yapılması Gerekenler

İhale komisyonu aşırı düşük teklif değerlendirmesini, Resmi kurum ve kuruluşların fiyatları, mesleki örgütlerin fiyatları, hal ve piyasaların açıklanmış fiyatları ve proforma faturaları da göz önünde bulundurarak; verilen tekliflerden diğer tekliflere veya yaklaşık maliyete göre teklif fiyatı aşırı düşük olanları tespit eder. Bu teklifleri reddetmeden önce, belirlediği süre içinde teklif sahiplerinden teklifte önemli olduğunu tespit ettiği hususlar ile ilgili ayrıntıları yazılı olarak ister.

İhale komisyonu; İmalat sürecinin ekonomik olması, seçilen teknik çözümler ve teklif sahibinin mal ve hizmetlerin temininde kullanacağı avantajlı koşullar, teklif edilen malların özgünlüğü hususlarında, isteklinin belgelendirilmek suretiyle yaptığı yazılı açıklamaları dikkate alarak aşırı düşük teklifleri değerlendirir. Bu değerlendirme sonucunda, açıklamaları yeterli görülmeyen veya yazılı açıklamada bulunmayan isteklilerin teklifleri reddedilir. İhale komisyonunca reddedilmeyen aşırı düşük teklifler, geçerli teklif olarak dikkate alınır. (KİK, Md.38, M.A.İ.U.Y.,Md.58)

5.19. Bütün Tekliflerin Reddedilmesi ve İhalenin İptali

İhale komisyonu kararı üzerine idare, verilmiş olan bütün teklifleri reddederek ihaleyi iptal etmekte serbesttir ve herhangi bir yükümlülük altına girmez. İhalenin iptal edilmesi halinde bu durum bütün isteklilere bildirilir. Ancak, idare isteklilerin talepte bulunması halinde, ihalenin iptal edilme gerekçelerini talep eden isteklilere bildirir. (KİK, Md.39)

5.20. Ekonomik Açıdan En Avantajlı Teklifin Belirlenmesi

Ekonomik açıdan en avantajlı teklif; sadece en düşük fiyat esasına göre değil, fiyat ile birlikte fiyat dışındaki unsurlar, yerli malını teklif edenlere fiyat avantajı uygulanmasının öngörülmesi de dikkate alınarak belirlenir. Değerlendirme kriterlerinde öncelik sırasıyla; **fiyat dışı unsur/unsurlara, isteklilerce teklif edilen malın yerli malı olmasına ve iş deneyimini gösteren belgedeki belge tutarına** verilir.

İhaleye katılımda yeterlik kriteri olarak iş deneyimini gösteren belgelerin istenilemediği veya istenilmediği ihalelerde de tekliflerin eşitliği durumunda ekonomik açıdan en avantajlı teklifin belirlenmesi için iş deneyimini gösteren belgedeki belge tutarı değerlendirme kriteridir (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.59,60).

5.21. İhalenin Karara Bağlanması ve Onaylanması

“Yapılan değerlendirme sonucu ihale ekonomik açıdan en avantajlı teklifi veren isteklinin üzerinde bırakılır ve ihale komisyonunca alınan gerekçeli karar ihale yetkilisinin onayına sunulur.

İhale kararı ihale yetkilisince onaylanmadan önce idare, ihale üzerinde kalan istekli ile varsa ekonomik açıdan en avantajlı ikinci teklif sahibi isteklinin ihalelere katılmaktan yasaklı olup olmadığını Kurumdan teyit ederek buna ilişkin belgeyi ihale kararına eklemek zorundadır. Her iki isteklinin de yasaklı olduğunun anlaşılması durumunda ihale yetkilisince ihale kararı onaylanamaz ve ihale iptal edilir.

İhale yetkilisi, karar tarihini izleyen en geç beş iş günü içinde ihale kararını onaylar veya gerekçesini açıkça belirtmek suretiyle iptal eder. İhale; kararın onaylanması halinde geçerli, iptal edilmesi halinde ise hükümsüz sayılır.” (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.64).

5.22. Kesinleşen İhale Kararlarının Bildirilmesi

İhale sonucu, ihale kararının ihale yetkilisi tarafından onaylandığı günü izleyen en geç üç gün içinde, ihale üzerinde bırakılan istekli dahil olmak üzere, ihaleye teklif veren bütün isteklilere bildirilir. İhale sonucunun bildiriminde, tekliflerin değerlendirmeye alınmama veya uygun bulunmama gerekçelerine de yer verilir.

İhale kararının ihale yetkilisi tarafından iptal edilmesi durumunda da isteklilere gerekçeleri belirtilmek suretiyle bildirim yapılır (M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.65).

5.23. İhale Üzerinde Kalan İsteklinin Sözleşmeye Davet Edilmesi

İhale sonucunun bütün isteklilere bildiriminden itibaren; kanunun 21 inci maddenin (b) ve (c) bentlerine göre yapılan ihalelerde beş gün, diğer hallerde ise on gün geçmedikçe sözleşme imzalanamaz (KİK, Md. 41).

Kesinleşen ihale kararının kanunun öngördüğü şekil ve zorunlu sürelerin bitimi tarihini, ön mali kontrol yapılması gereken hallerde ise bu kontrolün tamamlandığı tarihi izleyen günden itibaren üç gün içinde ihale üzerinde bırakılan istekliye, tebliğ tarihini izleyen on gün içinde kesin teminatı vermek suretiyle sözleşmeyi imzalaması hususu bildirilir. Yabancı istekliler için bu süreye oniki gün ilave edilir.

Sözleşmeden önce kesin teminat alınmayan danışmanlık hizmet ihalelerinde sözleşmeye davet ise, kesin teminat istenilmeksizin aynı şekilde yapılır. (KİK, Md.42).

5.24. Sözleşme İmzalanması

1. İhale üzerinde kalan isteklinin son başvuru ve/veya ihale tarihinde Kanunun 10 uncu maddesinin dördüncü fıkrasının (a), (b), (c), (d), (e) ve (g) bentlerinde sayılan durumlarda (sosyal güvenlik prim veya vergi borcu bulunması gibi) olmadığına dair belgeleri
2. Kesin teminatı (zorunlu durumlarda)
3. İdarelerin ilgili mevzuatları gereğince sözleşme bedelinin onbinde beşinin Kurum hesaplarına yatırılmasının istenmesi durumunda, onbindebeş bedelinin tahsilat bilgilerinin girilmesi
4. İhale bedeli üzerinden binde 5.69 karar pulu bedeli ile binde 8.25 Sözleşmeye ait Damga Vergisi bedeli ilgili vergi dairesine yatırıldığına dair belgelerin,

sözleşme aşamasında istenmesi zorunludur. Teminat mektubunun ilgili banka şubesinden idare tarafından teyidi yapılır. Teyit ve mektup aslı, üst yazı ile verilir. Alındı belgesi ihale işlem dosyasına eklenir.

Sözleşmenin imzalanacağı tarihte, ihale sonuç bilgileri Kuruma EKAP üzerinden gönderilmek suretiyle ihale üzerinde kalan isteklinin ihalelere katılmaktan yasaklı olup olmadığına teyit edilmesi zorunludur.

İhalenin iş ortaklığı üzerinde kalması halinde; sözleşmenin imzalanmasından önce noter onaylı ortaklık sözleşmesinin idareye verilmesi zorunludur.

Sözleşmenin imzalanması ve/veya çeşitli nedenlerle imzalanamaması, bu doğrultularda yapılması gereken esaslar “ Mal Alımı İhaleleri Uygulama Yönetmeliği Md.66-67 ve Kamu İhale Kanunu Md.42-43-44-45-46” de açıkça belirtilmiştir.

5.25. İhale Sonucunun Kamu İhale Kurumuna Bildirilmesi

Sözleşmenin taraflarca imzalanmasından sonra hazırlanacak İhale Sonuç Formu en geç on beş gün içinde Kuruma EKAP üzerinden gönderilir. Bu çerçevede ihale sonuç formunda yer alan yasaklılık teyidi amacı ile gönderilen yüklenici bilgileri hariç ihale ve sözleşmeye ilişkin bilgiler idare tarafından doldurularak ihale sonuç ilanına ilişkin işlemler de yerine getirilmiş olacaktır.

İhale sonucu, sözleşmenin imzalanmasından sonra Kamu İhale Bülteninde yayımlanır. İdare ihale konusu işin önem ve özelliğine göre ihale sonucunu, yurt içinde ve yurt dışında çıkan gazetelerde veya yayın

araçları, bilgi işlem ağı veya elektronik haberleşme yolu ile de ayrıca ilan edebilir. (KİK, Md.47, M.A.İ.U.Y., Md.68).

5.26. İhalesi Sonuçlanan Malların Teslim Alınması

İdarece, ihale dokümanlarında yer verilen ve ihale sözleşmesinde imza altına alınan malların/malın teslim süresi içerisinde belirlenen şekilde yüklenici tarafından tesliminin yapılması zorunludur.

Muayene ve Kabul Komisyonunun Kurulması ve Çalışma Esasları konusu içerisinde belirtildiği üzere teşekkül edilen komisyon, çalışma esasları doğrultusunda görevlerini yerine getirmekle, malları teslim almakla yükümlüdür.

5.27. Muhasebe ve Fatura İşlemleri

Satın alınan taşınırлар teslim alındıktan sonra, Taşınır Kod Listesindeki hesap kodları itibariyle üçer nüsha Taşınır İşlem Fişi düzenlenir.

Alımı bir merkezden yapılarak birden fazla birime doğrudan teslim edilen taşınırлар için, taşınırın teslim edildiği birimlerce Taşınır İşlem Fişi düzenlenir ve bir nüshası alımı yapan birime gönderilir. Alımı yapan birim, gelen fişlere dayanarak, ödemeye ve kendi giriş kayıtlarına esas olmak üzere Taşınır İşlem Fişi düzenler.

Bu işlemler esnasında malzeme ile ilgili olarak bütçe türü, tedarik türü, fiş no/tarih, muayene no/tarih, dayandığı belgenin no/tarih, geldiği yer firma bilgileri MKYS'ne girilir.

Teslim işlemleri gerçekleştirilen malzemelerin Taşınır İşlem Fişi, muayene raporu, malzemelerin faturası veya sevk irsaliyesi ve eki belgeler muhasebe birimine teslim edilir. Muhasebe biriminde satın alma evrakları ve fatura bedelleri kontrol edilerek tahakkuk fişi düzenlenir ve ilgili firmaya ödemesi yapılmak üzere Gerçekleştirme Görevlisi ve Harcama Yetkilisi tarafından imzalanır. Ödeme işlemleri, Maliye Bakanlığına ait hastanenin bağlı olduğu ilgili Saymanlık Müdürlüklerince, firmanın hesabına yatırılması suretiyle gerçekleştirilir. (Sağlık Bakanlığı, KHBK, Genelge 2013/09)

6. Sonuç ve Öneriler

Farklılık ve çeşitlilik içeren birçok hizmetin bir arada sunulduğu hastanelerde, malzeme eksikliği nedeniyle hizmette oluşabilecek aksaklıkların telafisi mümkün olmamaktadır. Sonuç olarak bu makalede, hastanelerde verilen sağlık hizmetinin aksamaması, devamlılığın olması, hizmetin tam ve zamanında yapılabilmesi için, yapılan tedarik zinciri yönetimi ve mal alım sürecinde olması gereken temel ilkeler incelenerek; tedarik zinciri yönetiminin, mevcut, güncel ve ilgili mevzuat hükümleri çerçevesinde nasıl yönetilmesi gerektiği özetlenmiştir.

Ülkemizde kamu alımları içerisinde %10'luk bir paya sahip olan Sağlık Bakanlığı bünyesinde gerçekleştirilen ihalelerin, verilen hizmetin de hayatiyeti göz önünde bulundurulduğunda;

- İptal nedenlerine bakıldığında çoğunluğun, alanında uzmanlaşmış ve nitelikli personel eksikliğinin giderilmesi,
- Birim çalışanlarına güncel eğitimlerin düzenli olarak verilmesi, uzmanlaşmak adına personel hareketliliğinin en aza indirgenmesi,
- Yaklaşık maliyetin piyasa koşullarına uygun olarak belirlenmesine olanak sağlayacak gerçekçi verilerin temin edilmesi ve bu doğrultuda hazırlanması,
- Kurumlardaki stok birimlerinin verilerinin güncel ve gerçekçi kayıt altına alınması, azami stok miktarlarının belirlenmesi ve belirlenen bu azami stok miktarlarının düzenli kontrollerinin yapılması,
- İhalenin niteliğinin ve miktarının geçmiş yıllar verileride dahil değerlendirilerek gerçekçi tespitlerin yapılması,

- Teknik şartnamelerin işin uzmanları tarafından hazırlanması ve kurum bünyesinde uzman bulunmaması halinde eşdeğer kurumlardan destek alınması yada şartnamenin hizmet alımı yolu ile hazırlatılması önerilmektedir.

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A Study on Cooperative Relationship and Social Interaction with Other Disciplines

Bengü EVEREST¹

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Abstract: Cooperative has a variety of meanings ranging from association, acting in conjunction with others, supporting oneself and protection of mutual interests. Human beings cannot live alone by nature and they are to help each other. The individuals who come together for the same purpose in cooperatives act in conjunction with each other through cooperation and solidarity in accordance with their economic and social interests. It can be stated that the cooperative system is involved in some disciplines given its humanitarian, economic and social dimensions. Some of the disciplines with a field of study common to the cooperative system are economics, finance, education, philosophy, law, communication, business, marketing, psychology, sociology. The relationship of the cooperative system with these disciplines has been explained in this study by means of a diagram. Thereby, this study deals with the cooperative system in a multi-dimensional scope. As a result, this study highlights the significance of education on these disciplines in the studies to improve the cooperative system.

Keywords: Cooperative System, disciplines, relationship

1. Introduction

Everyone as a producer and a consumer is familiar with the concept of cooperative and is involved in a cooperative for many times (Geray, 2014). Cooperative is being defined in various ways; however, there is no single meaning upon which everyone agrees. The word “cooperative” means collaboration. Cooperative refers to the assembly of economic powers of individuals to carry out the works which they cannot perform alone or they can benefit more when they perform together through collaboration at prime cost and in the best way possible (Mülayim, 2010). People start to appreciate that they need to be in cooperation for protecting themselves, hunting, housing and other activities as they begin to live collectively (Çıktın and Karacan, 1994). Human beings cannot live alone by nature and they are to help each other. Similarly, the world’s first cooperative union was established as a result of the desire of people to live in better conditions in England, in 1844. This movement initiated by 28 textile weavers 170 years ago has been widespread now in all continents and in all countries (Everest, 2015). Hence, human beings are at the core of the cooperative system. Further, the cooperative system, which examines the behaviors of the people who act in conjunction with others and collaborate with each other, has both direct and indirect relationships with various disciplines. The disciplines that have a relationship with the cooperative system and the place of these disciplines in the cooperative system are provided below.

2. Findings and Discussion

The cooperative system is generally associated with social sciences given the social aspect of the system in the society, also with economic sciences given the business aspect of the system and with human sciences given the human-centered aspect of the system. In regard to the economic dimension of the cooperative system, the cooperative system is associated with the disciplines of accounting, business, economics, finance, marketing and statistics. In regard to the social dimension of the system, the cooperative system is also linked with the disciplines of law, philosophy, politics, rural development and sociology. Also, in regard to the human-centered dimension of the system, the cooperative system is related to the disciplines of communication, education, extension, human resources and psychology (Figure 1).



Figure 1. The dimensions and relationships with other disciplines of the cooperative system
Source: Created by the authors

2.1. The Economic Dimension of the Cooperative System

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Economics: Economics is a discipline devoted the study of the allocation of scarce resources among alternative uses and of the way that individuals, businesses, and societies decide how to employ these alternative uses (Inan, 2008). Economics is a social science that deals with the question of how people use scarce resources among various uses to meet their needs (Türkey, 2010). The discipline of economics seeks solutions to the main problems of the national economy (What to and how much to produce? How to produce? For whom to produce?) (Pekin, 2013). Cooperatives as a third sector, along with public and private sectors, have a part in the solutions of these main problems of the national economy. Cooperatives are to direct their partners to participate in the production.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Finance: Finance generally means order of payment, public revenue and monetary affairs. To put it all in the simple terms, finance is used to refer the enhancement of net assets of a business. Financing is considered as a fund or a resource (Bülbül, 2006). All of the cooperatives in Turkey often face with financing difficulties due to the lack of their equity capital and the lack of credit facilities (Mülayim, 2010). Cooperatives must access to the funds that they need to successfully carry out their activities. In this regard, the access to and the management of the necessary funds indicate the relationship of the cooperative system with finance. Cooperatives are also associated with the discipline of finance because of their activities such as determining and collecting partnership interest, finding and using credits, and loan repayment.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Statistics: Statistics has progressed further throughout history in order to be utilized as a method to explain the phenomena in a scientific way, to collect and analyze statistical data, and to reach a conclusion. Statistics is a numerical method to explore the phenomena (Güneş and Arıkan, 1988). Statistics involves the collection, classification, analysis and interpretation of data. The results are instrumental in reaching conclusions (Miran, 2010). The successful management of the cooperative system in a scientific way is of importance in the determination of the current issues that prevent more effective cooperative systems, and requires the collection of the relevant data and the interpretation of the results of statistical analysis. The interpretations are the fundamental

basis for the determination of the strategies for the cooperative system. Therefore, statistics is an indispensable part of the cooperative system.

The Relationships of the Cooperative System-Business: Enterprises appear to be an important part of our daily life, and cover a large part of human needs. Enterprises vary in size and type. The enterprises which constitute a national economy and may be hundreds of thousands and even millions in number can be considered as the cells of an economy (Anonim, 2016a). Cooperatives are based on a unique model that paves the way for commercial enterprises and enhances the social development. These enterprises are those which operate in accordance with the principles of the ownership of partners, the rendering of services for partners and the management by the partners, self-sufficiency, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, justice and solidarity and the management based on principles (Anonim, 2016a). Cooperatives common in the practice of individual enterprises are the simplest form of business. Moreover, cooperatives are a form of business in which the business owner adopts, implements and supervises a course of action on his own (Çetin and Tipi, 2007). The unique structure of business of cooperatives reveals the relationship of the cooperative system with this discipline. The activities of production, marketing, financing, human resources, accounting and management, which are the functions of a business in general terms, must be performed in a professional way in cooperative enterprises as well. For that reason, the success in the cooperative system depends on the adoption of reasonable principles of business.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Accounting: Accounting allows for future planning through the data and the experience obtained by means of the production cycles in the past. Accounting underlies an effective and a successful management. A manager reviews and evaluates the previous production cycle by means of accounting records and plans the future accordingly (Aras, 1988). Cooperatives must keep the following accounts in accordance with the provisions of Tax Procedural Law and the Law on Cooperatives: journal, ledger, inventory and balance book, minutes of general meeting, board report, and register of shareholders (Anonim, 2016c). The knowledge and practice of the concepts of accounting have a critical place in the improvement of the efficiency of cooperative enterprises. The acknowledgement and accurate implementation of the concepts of balance sheet, profit-loss, resources, revenues-expenses, debit-credit are of high importance in the practices of the cooperative system.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Marketing: There is a need for other new activities following the production in an economy. The manufactured goods are required to provide the desired benefit on consumers and to be accessible for consumers anywhere and at any time. Accordingly, the production has other benefits, which are called “the marketing activity.” (Güneş, 1996). One of the major tasks of the cooperative system is to make the best of the goods produced by their partners, in other words, to perform the marketing activities following the production. These activities are the main activities in marketing such as brand building, packaging, labeling, pricing, distribution, promotion, market research, which must be wholly and accurately performed for a successful cooperative system.

2.2. The Social Dimension of the Cooperative System

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Philosophy: Philosophy is the study of the main matters such as existence, knowledge, truth, justice, beauty, propriety, pronoun and language (Grayling, 1998). Philosophy is a breakthrough in the realms such as law, economics, and communication. Philosophy of science allows for the questioning of knowledge and thus contributes to the major and primary characteristics of science (Anonim, 2016d). Science cannot know its meaning on its own and an attempt to do that falls within the realm of philosophy. In this regard, the philosophy of science is the entirety of the studies within philosophy to be performed to determine the place, meaning and theoretical position of science. After the separation of philosophy and science, the reflection of philosophy on science forms the content of the philosophy of science. That is to say, philosophy of science attempts to provide a reasonable or theoretical analysis of scientific thinking and methods (Anonim, 2016e).

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Law: The regulatory documents such as laws, decrees, regulations, circulars come to mind when hearing the word legislation. Cooperatives in Turkey are subject to three fundamental laws (Law No. 1581, No. 4572 and No. 1163). Moreover, cooperatives comply with their main contracts and tax legislations. Further, cooperatives are not allowed to perform any activity contrary to the laws of corporate tax, income tax, value-added tax, stamp duty and the act of fees.

Therefore, the knowledge of the legal structure on which the cooperative system is based has an important place in the successful management of the cooperative system.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System and Rural Development: Rural development does not only involve industrial approach or agricultural development any more. Today, there has been an increasing interest for development rather than growth; sharing rather than production, marketing rather than selling, local development rather than national scale, different social dynamics rather than homogeneous social structure (Gülçubuk et al, 2010). The community development based on the voluntary cooperation of the state and the people is possible only through the mutual assistance and organization of local communities to overcome social, economic and cultural problems (Geray, 1981). In broad strokes, the impact of cooperatives on the community development is channeled in two ways: 1. Paving the way for the public effort required for the community development, 2. Ensuring the required leadership on a local scale (Atsan et al.). Indeed, the purpose of the cooperative system is the development of partners, thus, the development of society, which follows from the principle of accountability of the cooperative system against society.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Politics: The lexical meaning of politics is the entirety of the principles through which the state regulates and implements its activities in regard to their objectives, methods and content (Anonim, 2016f). The objective of the policy of the cooperative system is to increase production and income as well as to prevent the annual fluctuations in production. The cooperative system also aims to improve the export commodities in terms of quantity and quality (Açıl and Demirci, 1984). Hence, the role of the cooperative system in the aspects of politics is of great importance.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Sociology: Sociology is a social discipline that deals with the structure and transformation of the society, human relations, behaviors and attitudes based on a holistic point of view. Sociology is the study of the outside World (Yurttaş et al., 1998). The cooperative system requires mutual support and solidarity. For that reason, the examination of the behaviors of the human factor, which underlies the cooperative system, reveals the relationship of the cooperative system-sociology.

2.3. The Human-Centered Dimension of the Cooperative System

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Education: Education plays an important role in the improvement of the cooperative system. An education on the cooperative system may be intended for managers, partners and those who are not involved in a cooperative. Moreover, the community education is highly critical given the responsibilities of a cooperative for its society. Merely rational people can successfully perform the activities of a cooperative. That is, it is required to have a good knowledge on the methods of formal and non-formal education.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Communication: Communication may be only possible when individuals in an interrelation or mutual interaction have the same or similar symbols, the meanings of which are based upon the same social and cultural environment, and when both of these individuals envision the same or similar concepts on the level of thinking (Yaman, 2006). The use of effective communication methods is of importance in the cooperative system as in any structure based on the human factor.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Human Resources: The work performance of the partners in a cooperative has an impact on its activities and thus the performance of the cooperative. Human resources provides the necessary qualified work force. The department of the human resources in a company is recruited professionally to reach a certain objective. Those who have certain characteristics are assigned with certain tasks. The cooperative system also must adopt and implement a professional management approach. Given that a company distributes the duties based on certain criteria, the cooperative system is required to determine certain minimum criteria (for instance, a high-school degree) to recruit its managers. Furthermore, the cooperative system should employ the individuals who are graduated from the departments of cooperatives in universities. These matters should be included in the law and should be binding.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Psychology: The scope of psychology is extensive. Psychology underpins almost every aspect of our lives. Today, the discipline of psychology enables us to understand certain behaviors that we observe about ourselves and others. As the society where an individual lives in becomes more complex, the importance of psychology in problem-solving increases further (Anonim, 2016g). Psychology, which is the study of human behaviors, is related to the cooperative system which the human factor underlies. It is considered that a rational individual who has previously received an education on psychology may establish a more healthy relationship with others, which would be advantageous for the cooperative system as in any aspect of life.

The Relationship of the Cooperative System-Extension: The concept of “extension” in Turkish, just like the same term in English, derives from “the act of making publicly known” and means “to disseminate information.” Furthermore, extension also refers to the provision or transfer of certain services (suggestions, ideas, technology, information, knowledge and skills) (Özçatalbaş and Gürgen, 1998). Indeed, all of the activities of a cooperative for the benefit of their partners and its community are considered as an act of extension. Hence, the knowledge and practice of the techniques of the discipline of extension are required to carry out efficient activities.

3. Conclusion

That said, the cooperative system is intertwined with various disciplines. For a successful cooperative model, a cooperative must perform its practices in accordance with the principles of these disciplines, which depends on the education of the managers and the partners in the cooperative. The managers and the partners in cooperatives in Turkey are subjected to certain practices and trainings on the cooperative system by the relevant ministries. However, the scope of such trainings does not cover the whole of the afore-mentioned disciplines and other disciplines with which the cooperative system is intertwined. The cooperatives in Turkey have not been up to the mark yet, which indicates the inadequacy of such trainings. In this regard, it is required to provide more extensive trainings on the cooperative system to achieve more effective practices. The cooperative system should be discussed along with other disciplines. These trainings should be regularly and repeatedly implemented. To this end, these trainings contribute to the cooperative system and further many other aspects of our lives. As a result, the only way to accelerate the improvement of the cooperative system is to provide more extensive trainings.

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Bulgarian Experience in Improving Effectiveness of Activities in Public Employment Services

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Abstract: In contemporary dynamic social and economic conditions, the perceptions of the role of government agencies and public services change. Public employment services (PES) are facing uncertain political choices about their long-term funding and scope of its activities. Rapid response to changing conditions and the combination of short-term interventions with sustainable solutions require flexibility, organizational response capability and creativity. Public employment services needs ability and capacity to ensure maximum impact of policy on the labor market and therefore regardless of the variability of economic, social or financial circumstances. The necessity of application of new approaches and models in public employment services for achievement of social efficiency is imposed by the need of effectively implemented social policy in the sphere of labor market and employment through determination of the main technological processes in the implementation of activities in Bulgarian Employment agency. For that purpose, defining and making concrete the activities and the stages contained in them and implemented by Directorates "Labor office", current study analyzes the model of work which is focused on the achievement of satisfaction and containing instruments for rationalization of managerial decisions, provision of quality in administrative services and increasing the effectiveness of the conducted social policy. It goes further and offers a model for raising effectiveness of management in PES through the application of a three-stage process of decision taking, implementation and control considering the need of a good substantiation of activities undertaken and the availability of "late" or following effects which should be analyzed too and relevant actions undertaken subsequently for increasing or reducing impacts. The focus is on the result-based implementation and monitoring for effective management in PES and successful realization of active policies on labor market and employment.

Key words: labor market, employment, social policy

1. Introduction

The management of the labor market is closely linked to macroeconomic management. Across Europe, nations are facing the need to tackle the consequences of the financial and economic crisis and the search for new directions in its industry. Globalization puts pressure on Europe's competitive position. The need for prediction by the governments of proactive measures and planning to keep a sufficiently skilled workforce is more than necessary¹. The dynamic changes of the social environment that determine the changes in attitudes and actions on labor markets and public service providers, face policymaking in the field of employment in the coming years with serious trials. Particular importance is assigned to the ability of the public employment services for vigorous action aimed at ensuring the maximum impact of policy on the labor market. Of public employment services is expected to handle both current and future challenges. Rapid response to changing conditions and the combination of short-term interventions with sustainable solutions require flexibility, organizational response capability and creativity. Evolution of bureaucratically oriented organizations with more flexible, open, market-oriented networks and structures requires intellectual and cultural change as the business model and management, and individual ways of working².

In theory and practice, attempts have been made to characterize the methodology for assessment of the efficiency of social programs (projects), representing the complex of social events, united by a common

1 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. Social programming in the context of stimulating social activity and regulation of social development through active policies. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

2 PES 2020 Strategy.

goal, on the basis of which stays the applicability of social programs, directed primarily towards social protection of the population³, as well as the application of control mechanisms⁴.

Focusing on the concept of social inclusion, Europe 2020⁵ laid the foundation for targeted measures to integrate into the labor market of people who are subjected to exclusion. Already in 2008, the European Commission recommended the establishment of strategies for social and economic inclusion of marginalized groups, which by its nature is a strategy for 'active inclusion', based on three pillars: adequate support, inclusive labor markets and access to quality support services, but so far the implementation of policies is weak. In times of transformation aimed at achieving five key objectives for the EU in the area of employment, research and innovation, climate change and energy, education and combating poverty it is particularly important to find the right direction for creating jobs, stakeholders and society work together in coordination - an idea underlying the new vision of the social market economy for Europe in the XXI century - smart, sustainable and inclusive economy delivering high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion.

It was concluded⁶ that the active involvement of the EU concept is not accepted at national level and should be high priority with work programs and indicators to monitor implementation. Among the main issues addressed in the annual report for 2014 of the European foundation for the improvement of living and working conditions (Eurofound) are those associated with the transition from education to employment, combining work and training, job security, risk of unemployment, flexibility, mobility and social inclusion. The goal of „sustainable employment” is twofold: those who are outside the labor force to become part of it, and those who are part of it to be capable and motivated, i.e. improving the quality of work in a way that does not compromise the ability to work in the future. To achieve this a comprehensive institutional framework, an effective system of social protection and education system, providing knowledge and skills to meet the needs of the labor market are required. Social policy in the EU underlines the importance of social investment, social dialogue and social partnership to build capacity to deal with social problems and objectives and integration in the labor market and in society, which is necessary to ensure high quality public services.

Contemporary changes in economic and social environment pose a number of challenges before public employment services and development and implementation of social policies. New realities on labor market and dynamic environment require adequate actions, rational and timely decision making and optimization of work. In direct relation with the implementation of the Europe 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth is the introduction of a common strategy for public employment services in the EU, reflecting the intensification policy with sustainable results consistent with the challenges of social environment, provoked by the labor markets. This does not mean that the operational consequences for each of the public employment services will be the same. It should not be overlooked that in different countries there are specific conditions that have impact on those consequences. And to respond flexibly and precisely to the numerous internal or external changes, public employment services

3 Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Assessment of Social Programming Efficiency in Dynamic Social Environment, Journal of Innovations and Sustainability, Vol. 1, No 1, 2015, 9-25.

4 Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Controlled development of social programming. International scientific conference "Education, science, economy and technology", University "Prof. D-r Asen Zlatarov"- Burgas, Journal Management and Education XI (4), 40-50.

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Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. Management control in social programming: model improvement in the process of social adaptation, Ruse, 2015.

5 Europe 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth.

6 Eurofound (2015), Eurofound year book 2014: Living and working in Europe, Publication Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

are subjects to conversion and renewal, according to the individual elements to ensure continuity, available in different member states.

The adequacy of responses by institutions on the labor market is directly related to technologies used at work⁷ and applied models to rationalize decision-making and to improve the quality of services provided. Improving processes and the quality of the administrative services in the Bulgarian employment agency, taken as an example, is seen as a prerequisite for effective implementation of employment policies⁸. A solution is the application of a process model of work in the labor offices taking into account the necessary resources (in terms of time required to perform certain actions) and determining the required capacity. The model discussed in the paper is a flexible tool for better management and efficient use of human resources.

2. Public Employment Services' Work in Contemporary Dynamic Environment

Public employment services face a number of urgent tasks as raising the employment rate and reducing the number of vacant jobs for which is difficult to find enough qualified workers. New realities on labor market and dynamic environment require adequate actions, rational and timely decision making and optimization of work. Dynamic changes in social environment impacting labor markets and activities of public employment services impose various tasks which implementation should be carefully planned, organized and controlled. To achieve that public employment services should take a more comprehensive look at the demand and supply of labor, considering the numerous transitions taking place constantly on the labor market and people's personal development. Improving processes and the quality of the administrative services in the Bulgarian employment agency is seen as a prerequisite for effective implementation of employment policies⁹.

The strategy for the future approved by the European public services is in response to the challenges of the dynamic changes in the social environment and consistent with the requirements of the strategic framework for the development of the „Europe 2020”. The introduction of a common strategy does not mean that the operational consequences for each of the public employment services will be the same. It should not neglect the fact that in different countries there are specific conditions that have an impact on those consequences. And to respond flexibly and precisely to the numerous internal or external changes, public employment services are subject to conversion and renewal, according to the individual elements to ensure continuity. There is no doubt that cross-border cooperation in a European context offers many advantages in this respect¹⁰. Regardless of national conditions, the striving to answer current and future challenges leads to significant changes in the role and function, contributes to transitions with a strong impact on the supply of services, and especially on the management model and operations' implementation in public employment services¹¹.

7 Terziev V., Dimitrova S. 2015. Social programming in the context of stimulating social activity and regulation of social development through active policies. „East West” Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna.

8 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Connecting jobseekers and employers and more: the contributions of PES to EU social and economic development. 19th International Academic Conference, Florence, 16-19 September, 2015, IISES, p. 859-873.

9 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Opportunities of Quality and Efficiency Improvement in Public Employment Services: Application of a new process model in Bulgarian labor offices. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 146-151.

10 Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

11 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Connecting jobseekers and employers and more: the contributions of PES to EU social and economic development. 19th International Academic Conference, Florence, 16-19 September, 2015, IISES, p. 859-873.

The main task of public employment services (PES) is to contribute supply and demand match on the labor market providing information, placement and active support services¹². PES function in a network of more than 5 000 local employment offices throughout Europe with more than 100.000 staff offering services to job-seekers and employers. Besides different structuring in different countries their mission is the same regarding:

- easy access to the labor market - comprehensive and detailed information on available jobs and job-seekers, and on related matters of interest; a wide range of active services to assist in job searches and staff recruitment;
- access to more comprehensive services to meet individual needs;
- a range of quality services to enterprises mediating between their needs and labor market conditions, partnership with employers to achieve the economic and social objectives of integrating workers into the labor market.

PES are partners to EURES (The European Job Mobility Portal) in the facilitation of mobility across national borders on the European labor market.

The European network of Public Employment Services is established to maximize efficiency of public employment services (PES). It embraces all 28 EU countries, Norway, Iceland and the European Commission. The aims of the network are the following¹³:

- compare PES performance through benchmarking;
- identify evidence-based good practices and foster mutual learning;
- promote the modernization and strengthening of PES service delivery, including of the Youth Guarantee;
- prepare inputs to the European Employment Strategy and the corresponding national labor market policies.

In last few decades the European labor market is experiencing significant challenges connected to ageing population trends, entrance into a new digital era and all embracing processes of globalization. The Europe's problems regarding increasing threats of long term unemployment and extremely high levels of youth unemployment impose the need of significant changes in the way of functioning of public employment services making them more client-oriented and more flexible services functioning in accordance to the approaches in Europe 2020 addressing structural unemployment and social inclusion¹⁴.

Employment incentives and training dominate the types of active labor market policies offered by PES to young people, the long term unemployed and the 50 + age group. PES targets are typically linked to action planning with fewer targets linked to active measures¹⁵. PES 2020 Strategy is focused on an activation policy with sustainable outcomes considering transitional labor market and adaptation of their business model. The modernization of Public Employment Services (PES) has been an essential element of the European Employment Strategy¹⁶. Economic shocks, demographic and technological changes lead PES to processes of restructuring in basic organizational and financing model, human resources, types and methods of services provision, active labor market policies. Two trends are observed in the business model:

- a trend for increasing the role of PES in the activation of a broader client base

¹² EURES. The European Job Mobility Portal: <https://ec.europa.eu/eures/main.jsp?catId=29&acro=eures&lang=en>.

¹³ European network of Public Employment Services: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1100&langId=en>.

¹⁴ Annual Report of the European Network of Public Employment Services. June 2014 - June 2015. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1100&langId=en>.

¹⁵ Assessment report on PES capacity. July, 2015.

¹⁶ Small Scale Study on PES Business Models. June, 2014.

- a trend towards increasing decentralization of PES.

The striving after development of more results-oriented services requires elaboration of measures concerning economic and social efficiency. Current measures in EURES and in member-states are output-focused and the measurement of the effectiveness of EURES needs improvements. Monitoring should go further of activity and outputs and include consideration of results – a proposal based on the practices in PES¹⁷.

The overall strategy for the future approved by the European public services is in response to the challenges of the dynamic changes in the social environment and consistent with the requirements of the strategic framework for the development of the Europe 2020. It is aimed at the realization of an effective system for management of human resources. Examining PES as a result of the actions of all the factors of a system as a whole could provide significant implications about their economic and social efficiency¹⁸.

3. Main Characteristics and Activities in Bulgarian Public Employment Services

To the subjects of policy of employment in Bulgaria must be mentioned: the state and its specialized agencies: the Employment Agency of the Ministry of Labor and Social Policy, the National Council for Tripartite cooperation representing workers' organizations, employers' organizations, the Agency for Social Assistance of the Ministry of Labor and Social Policy; regional level - regional governors, municipalities, regional employment offices and job centers. These entities are engaged in institutionalized relations "regarding labor" and those between employers and workers¹⁹. Institutionalized subjects can occur as legalized private agencies and bureaus for employment, some non-governmental organizations among its other social functions to have intermediary business of finding employment for persons at risk groups and participate in the implementation of projects for training, qualification and retraining.

Bulgarian employment agency (EA)²⁰ aims to implement the state policy on employment promotion and protection of the labor market, vocational guidance, adult education, and to perform intermediary employment services to increase economic activity and employment potential of the population, by increasing employment and reducing unemployment. The main functions of the employment agency are registering vacancies and those actively seeking employment mediation services for employment. It engages with joint participation of municipalities and employers in the development of socially beneficial for the city and state activities and participation in the development and implementation of programs and measures for employment and training aimed at specific groups of unemployed people who for various reasons are hard adaptable to labor market. The agency participates in performance, either alone or jointly with other bodies or organizations, projects and programs in the areas of employment, vocational education and training, social integration, financed by the funds of the European Union or other international organizations, including and with the participation of Bulgarian resources. It also deals with the protection and preservation of employment, organizing qualification and motivation training of

17 PES performance measurement systems and geographical labor mobility. Final report. Client: European Commission, DG EMPL, C4. Rotterdam, London, 15 May 2012. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1100&langId=en>.

18 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Opportunities of Quality and Efficiency Improvement in Public Employment Services: Application of a new process model in Bulgarian labor offices. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 146-151.

19 Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

20 Bulgarian Employment Agency: <http://www.az.government.bg/>.

Law on employment promotion (in power from 01.01.2002).

unemployed and employed, brokering employment of Bulgarian citizens abroad and foreigners in Bulgaria and analysing supply and demand in the labor market and forecasting possible changes²¹.

Reform of administrative services in the Employment Agency begins with the preparation of analysis of the services provided by the Agency departments covering its overall activity. Main conclusions of the analysis are that there is a need of²²:

- a) A reform in the administrative services, substantiated by:
 - New national social strategy;
 - Changes in the market environment;
 - New customer needs;
 - Increased requirements for quality of service;
 - Achieve the standards and characteristics of the administrations of the EU.
- b) Changes in external environment
 - Significant changes in the structure of unemployment;
 - A growing mismatch between the qualifications of job seekers and employers' requirements.
- c) Changes in domestic environment
 - Rugged, but insufficient effective operation of the EA, despite heavy workload of the employees in the system;
 - Insufficient good image of LOD for employers and job seekers;
 - Increased expectations from the public and from the government for an active role of the EA in the labor market.

Main criticisms of the work of LOD are focused on:

- Bureaucracy, tardiness citizens;
- unequal treatment of individuals;
- Giving information only "internal" people;
- Indifference or mistreatment of employees;

Subjects to change are defined as:

- The way EA provides services- workflows;
- The culture of responsibility and decision-making;
- Work environment;
- Knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes of employees.

A very important point is that reform to improve administrative services in the EA does not require a change in legislation - the Law on Employment Promotion and other regulations.

The next step is the approval of the vision and objectives of the organizational change of the Employment Agency and the specific services that its departments provide.

21 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. Application of new instruments to increase effectiveness of implementation of social policies on labor market in Bulgaria. Journal of economic development, environment and people (JEDEP), Vol. 4, No 3 (2015), 26-44.

22 Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

Employment mediation services include:

- information and / or advice to job seekers and employers;
- psychological assistance to job seekers;
- referral to appropriate programs and measures for employment and training;
- referral to adult education;
- guidance and support for employment, including in another location in the country or in other countries.

Directorate "Labor Office" (LOD) is one of the main intermediaries on the labor market. Except that, LOD performs tasks in regulating the labor market, i.e. performs activities on the realization of social strategies and policies. In this capacity, LODs in the country perform the following functions²³:

- Register job seekers, according to the Law on Employment Promotion (LEP) and its Implementing Regulations and develop an action plan of each registered unemployed person;
- Provide job seekers in compliance with the LEP and the related regulations about: the services provided by the labor office, conditions and procedures for their use; vacant jobs; programs and measures for employment and training, as well as other information from the competence of the Labor Office;
- Implementation of mediation information and employment in Bulgaria and in the Member - States of the European Union, European Economic Area and Swiss Confederation, guidance / information, advice and counselling /; psychological support; adult education; inclusion in programs and measures for employment and training; support to start own business; Information on procedures for operating schemes under international programs and projects, incl. Operational Programme "Human Resources Development";
- Advising on employment opportunities for Bulgarian citizens abroad, incl. use of the network EURES, and foreign nationals in the Republic of Bulgaria and intermediary business in implementation of international agreements for the exchange / export of labor and intermediary contracts concluded by the Employment Agency with foreign employers or licensed intermediaries;
- Provide employers in compliance with the LEP, the Law on protection of personal data and related regulations information for: those seeking work; programs and measures to preserve and promote the employment and training of staff; the rights and obligations under the mass dismissal of employees; mediation to hire labor; inclusion in programs and measures for employment and training; preferences while maintaining and / or increasing employment; preferences for internship and / or apprenticeship; incentives to promote territorial mobility of employees;
- Participate in the survey of the training needs for acquiring professional qualification and acquisition and development of key competencies;
- Perform duties by informing in mass layoffs and teams participate in the drafting of the necessary measures in mass layoffs;
- Carry out an information exchange with other LOD for the announced jobs;
- Provide the Agency for Persons with Disabilities with the received from employers information about jobs for people with disabilities on the grounds of the Implementing Regulations of the Law for the integration of people with disabilities;

23 Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

- Prepare opinions on applications for issuance of work permits to foreign nationals in the Republic of Bulgaria;
- Record short-term employment of foreign nationals, according to the Ordinance on the terms and conditions of the issuance, denial and revocation of work permits to foreigners in the Republic of Bulgaria;
- Participate in the development of regional and sectoral programs for employment and training in the part containing actions in the active employment policy;
- Participate in the implementation of national, regional and sectoral programs for employment and training;
- Gives opinions and propose for approval by the Minister of Labor and Social Policy of regional programs for training and employment, including literacy programs, training and employment;
- Carry out activities for the organization and implementation of vocational guidance and training for adults;
- Operate programs and projects funded by the European Union and other international sources;
- Carry out activities and programs addressing the Social Investment Fund to provide employment services, training for acquiring qualification, support for small business, local communities, etc.;
- Prepare a draft Action Plan;
- Implement the approved Action Plan;
- Prepare periodic and annual reports on implementation of the Action Plan;
- Develop forecast performance, and if necessary make a proposal to adjust the approved Action Plan;
- Develop, where appropriate, action plans for the implementation of specific tasks;
- Participate in the preparation of the annual activity plan of the Employment Agency, as a member of the network EURES;
- Prepare periodic and annual reports on the implementation of those included in the approved Action Plan programs and measures to promote employment and training, vocational guidance and training for adults;
- Collect, process, store and provide statistical information on the state of employment and unemployment on the territory they serve. Exchange information with other administrations;
- Perform duties in accordance with signed agreements and protocols on cooperation with agencies, organizations and social partners related to the provision of employment services;
- interact with the "District Labor Inspectorate" in connection with the Agreement signed for coordination, cooperation and collaboration between the Executive Agency "General Labor Inspectorate" and Employment Agency;
- Participate in the operation and development of the automated information system of the Employment Agency;
- Prepare analyses on the status and trends in the local labor market and unemployment projections;
- Engage in research and observation of the labor market;
- Organize reception of citizens and provide answers on applications, complaints and reports of citizens within the framework of their competences;
- Organize, coordinate and participate in the implementation of activities in service of job seekers and employers to the Labor Office revealed outsourced jobs;

- Perform quality delivery of services;
- Support the organization of workshops, information days, job fairs and events related to the tasks of EURES;
- Organize regular press conferences to inform the public about the activities of the Labor Offices;
- Apply measures to prevent and combat corruption.

In response to the priorities of the social policy of the country, expressed in the activities in competent institutions, is the need for new approaches and actions for effective management of social processes tailored to the dynamic social environment on the basis of economical, effective, efficient transformation of extremely limited budgetary resources in social skills for active social policy.

4. Development of a Process Model of Work in PES

In recent decades in each EU member state there is an increasingly strong view that public employment services should play a more active role on labor markets. In response to fundamental changes in economic and social sphere a new set of functions is assumed to them which impose the search and the application of new approaches. Problems concerning employment and unemployment should be considered as complex and multilayered. The adequacy of responses by institutions on the labor market is directly related to technologies used at work and applied models to rationalize decision-making and to improve the quality of services provided. A solution is the application of a process model of work in the labor offices taking into account the necessary resources (in terms of time required to perform certain actions) and determining the required capacity. The model presented is a flexible tool for better management and efficient use of human resources²⁴.

The introduction of a process model of service provision in the Labor Office is a versatile tool for better management of activities in different LOD by providing the necessary human resources and its use in the most efficient manner. The model is created in electronic form (Excel-tables), which allows developing of various scenarios based on different starting conditions and assumptions in different LOD. The main processes (Table 1)²⁵:

1. Information;
2. Registration;
3. Placement;
 - 3.1. Placement - working with job seekers;
 - 3.2. Placement - selection and selection;
 - 3.3. Placement - working with employers;
4. Vocational education and training;
5. Implementation of programs and measures;
6. Termination and renewal of registration;
7. Management of suggestions, complaints and signals;
8. Psychological support

24 Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Opportunities of Quality and Efficiency Improvement in Public Employment Services: Application of a new process model in Bulgarian labor offices. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 146-151.

25 Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

- Describe one or more activities in all the main processes - in this sense technology to work around the process or individual activity in the process;
- Contain applied to each activity or whole process forms, questionnaires, etc.;
- Guidance technology work and sequence of activities and operations;
- Visualize customer service;
- Assist the interaction between experts in different processes or workers in various activities of the same process;
- Provide space for creativity when working with clients;
- Assist to avoid duplication of data collection and duplication of additional activities and forms;
- Create conditions for regulating service time;
- Support the creation of knowledge and expectations for uniformity of service to different customer characteristics;
- Create confidence of specialists;
- Clients learn mode of operation, which improves relations (reduced stress);
- Place on a standardized service, which is the first condition for providing quality services.

Table 1. Basic processes in the Directorate "Labor Office"

Process	Goals
Information provision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Ensure equal access to information and services and provide different access channels. ➤ Fast and quality customer service by providing a clear, easy to understand, complete and accurate information and explanations. ➤ Uniform flow distribution of persons seeking for a job and directing them to obtain services to staff competence. ➤ Fostering independent work habits and search of useful information through various information sources. ➤ Directing the attention of customers to use alternative sources of information (web-site, e-mail, kiosks, town halls, libraries, etc.).
Registration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Registration of the individual for the subsequent use of services by LOD. ➤ Fast and quality service by providing a clear, easily understood, complete and accurate information, explanations and forms necessary for the registration of persons. ➤ Collecting complete and accurate information about the persons seeking for jobs and storage with a view on its repeated use and updating. ➤ Faster inclusion of seeking jobs on the labor market, by offering suitable vacancies on the day of registration. ➤ Reduce unevenness of the flow through even distribution of the various contingents for subsequent visits to labor brokers.
Placement – working with job seekers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Provide information on available vacancies in order to quickly realize on the labor market. ➤ Display the characteristics of the seeking jobs in order to improve and facilitate the selection and recruitment vacancies. ➤ Increase the number of hired throughout unemployed persons by encouraging them to participate actively in the labor market. ➤ Supporting employment of the unemployed, by assessing the shortage of skills, counseling and referral to training for acquiring professional qualification, technical or social skills, and skills for independent job search.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Supporting young people under 29 years of age for employment and / or inclusion in the training. ➤ Development of an individual plan for finding work for the unemployed in an optimally short term.
Placement - working with employers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Expanding the scope of employers using the services of directorates "Labor" by: ➤ Implementation of active, personalized service to each employer and the grounds that providing employment for job seekers; ➤ Preliminary analysis of business performance and segmentation, depending on their economic activity and capacity for announcement of vacancies in the LOD. ➤ Increasing vacancies in order to more opportunities for job seekers through: ➤ Active contacts with employers announcing vacancies; ➤ Proactive contacts with employers and proposing appropriate profiles of job seekers, even without the vacant job. ➤ Achieving full specification of vacancies for subsequent fast and qualitative selection and recruitment of job seekers.
Psychological support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Applying individual approach to job-seekers to overcome the psychological obstacles in search of employment. ➤ Adapting to the demands of the labor market of job seekers by increasing their motivation to actively search for employment and the formation of presentation skills when applying for vacancies. ➤ Supporting employment intermediaries for quality service to employers in the selection for appointment to vacant jobs. ➤ Support communicative competence consulting the employees of the LOD.
Implementation of programs / projects for employment and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Provide employment to unemployed persons in an disadvantaged position on the labor market. ➤ Increasing the employability of unemployed people by involving them in programs for employment and training. ➤ Increasing the number of the hired among unemployed persons through their inclusion in existing employment programs and training. ➤ Helping the unemployed to start their own business. ➤ Encouraging employers to participate in existing programs / projects for employment. ➤ Acquisition of permanent work habits by job seekers, reducing their dependence on the social assistance system and their return to the labor market.
Implementation of measures for employment and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Methodological and technological unification of LOD's activity related to the implementation of active employment measures: ➤ Inclusion of employers in training measures and employment; ➤ Increasing the employability of the unemployed through participation in active measures for training and employment; ➤ Providing employment to unemployed persons disadvantaged on the labor market; ➤ Encouraging entrepreneurship among the unemployed; ➤ Promoting mobility of unemployed persons with a view to finding a job in another place. ➤ Promoting unemployed, subject to monthly social assistance, who start work ➤ Improving the organization of activities. ➤ Improving the quality and efficiency of services for the unemployed and employers.

Termination of registration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Fast and quality service to job seekers by providing a clear, easily understood, complete and accurate information, explanations and forms. ➤ Correct application of the provisions of the Law on Employment Promotion and the Implementing Regulations of the Law on Employment Promotion.
Management of proposals, alerts and complaints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Responsibility of the administration to the public and the proposals and signals, legality and appropriateness of decisions. ➤ Fast and quality customer service by providing information, explanations and advice. ➤ Establishing mechanisms for customer feedback and changes in accordance with those comments. ➤ Encouraging customers to improve administrative services.

Initial conditions are bound by the policies and objectives of the Employment Agency. To allow maximum fine, the prerequisite to use the model input data is to comply with the National Employment Plan for the current year. Assumptions related to changes in how the Labor Office and the implementation of the new process model. Much of the planned implementation activities require additional time and effort. In order to achieve better performance of the LOD, the new process model should be provided with the necessary capacity.

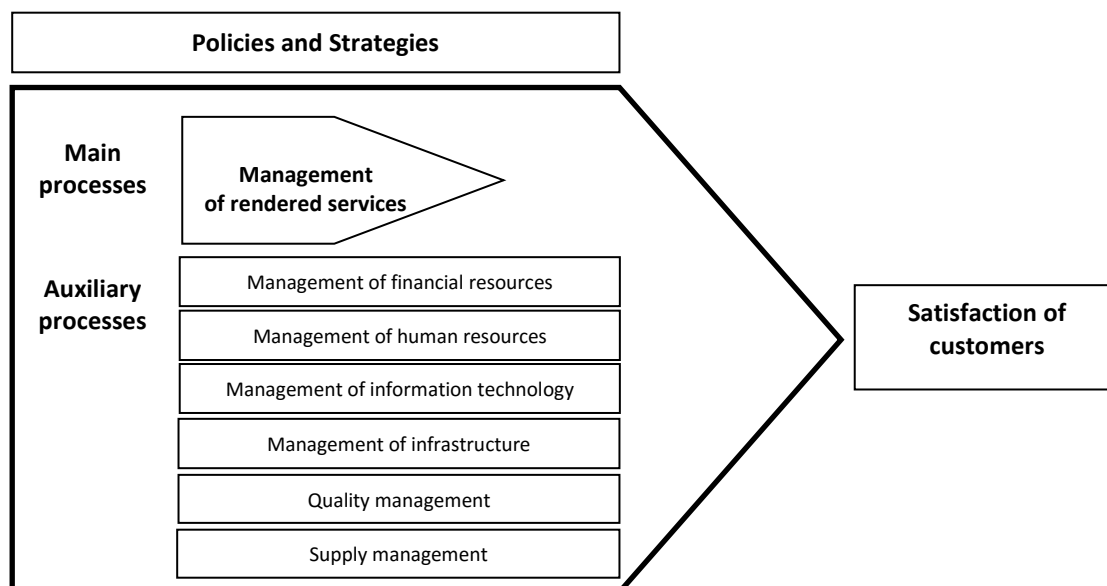


Fig. 1. The new process model²⁶

The processes outlined above, can develop and be improved to varying degrees. In order to achieve results as quickly as possible, however, it makes sense to focus on the following four specific areas called "four levers of change".

The change embraces:

- Improving the key processes;
- Feedback;
- Public Relations;

²⁶ Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

- Interior design;
- Location of access.

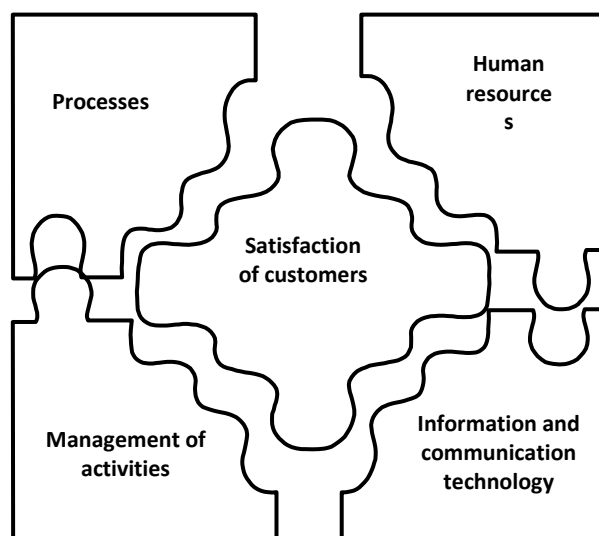


Fig. 2. The four levers of change²⁷

During the creation of the algorithm the following logical framework is used²⁸:

- Initial starting point for the created algorithm are the results to Employment Agency should achieve within the strategic plan or a budget year (Action Plan for Employment). These results represent the concretization of the agency's mission and its objectives, which are generally formulated as: reducing unemployment and increasing employability of the workforce to the requirements of the labor market; achieve financial sustainability in the provision of services by ensuring sufficient resources and proper timing and regions; achieving the correct and proper balance between the benefits of services and for providing their costs; customer satisfaction of services rendered;
- These strategic objectives are defined with specific quantitative and qualitative indicators, which must be guaranteed output of the system such as achieving a certain amount of services rendered, number of clients served, limits used for the implementation of specific programs and measures for employment, etc.; achieve a certain amount of service through fixed amounts of expenditure in legislation and defined optimal costs;
- To achieve revenues from fixed fees paid services.
- The created algorithm to determine the necessary resources, their costs and their allocation to the relevant processes is in the widespread Excel format, making it easy to implement and to simulate scenarios. This supports a reasonable budget preparation and flexible adaptation of resources to the LOD requirements of the labor market during the budget year.

The algorithm fully reflects the way the services are rendered. As services are realized through workflow organization, the algorithm is based entirely on the model for determining the current and future capacity. Information on the detailed operation of the algorithm is available in each table.

²⁷ Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

²⁸ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

Table 2. Model for determining the necessary resources²⁹

Input 1	Process 2	Output 3	Result 4
Physical resources	Productiveness	Quantity	Fulfill the mission and achieve the objectives
quantity	Expenditures per service unit	Quality	Financial sustainability
quality	Coefficients	services	Expenditures / Benefits
time schedule	3.1.1.	way of rendering	Satisfaction of customers
value	3.1.2.	Cost	3.1.3.
3.1.4.	3.1.5.	Price (fee)	3.1.6.
Financial resources	3.1.7.	Satisfaction of customers	3.1.8.
quantity	3.1.9.	3.1.10.	3.1.11.
time schedule	3.1.12.	3.1.13.	3.1.14.
Logic scheme of the model to determine the resources is: The results are determined (column 4). Defined service quality and amount of estimated output of the system (column 3). The processes by which services are rendered are described and measured (column 2). Determine physical and financial resources with which services will be rendered at the parameters set (column 1).			

At the highest level created algorithm has the following main components:

- Human resources and costs; this includes direct expenditures of time and labor services-wage labor costs for administrative services and the cost of staff training;
- Material resources and costs; It includes direct material costs for services and indirect material costs for services;
- Capital expenditure;
- Costs for financing programs, measures for employment, training and qualification of projects and business benefits.

The main objective of the developed algorithm is to create a means of allocating costs to the basic services of the agency. This makes it easy to justify the resources required at different starting points as available capacity, existing and expected period of service, available resources, and to determine the value of each service.

By created algorithm can define and justify the following processes:

- To justify the necessary human, material, financial and information resources to provide services and objectives of the Agency;
- Identify factors for performance, economy and efficiency of activity of the Agency as clients served per time unit, unit cost of service, number of employees of 1,000 registered unemployed persons, number of employees to 100 in a job, etc., To serve as a set norms for the implementation of activities in the Agency;
- Monitor and control costs against services rendered to the Agency and undertake adjustments in case of market equilibrium between supply and demand of labor.

The proposed new instruments for improvement of effectiveness of work of public employment services focus on an algorithm of spending resources and assurance of the necessary flexibility of the process model (Table 2). Opportunities are also presented for rationalization of management solutions for effective social policy based on a process model of directorates „Labor Office”, defining processes and

²⁹ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

based on detailed metric measurement of activities in the Bulgarian Employment Agency with the objective of standardizing and defining the necessary resources provision of processes³⁰.

Table 3. Main differences between past and new work model³¹

Process	Before	After
Registration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Segmentation of job seekers is an isolated case; ➤ Triple input of registration data; ➤ Availability of duplicate attributes in the registration documents; ➤ Unable to direct the reopening of the file in the case of re-registration; ➤ Loss of traceability for prior work with job seekers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Primary segmentation/ prioritization of the contingent - integration with the process "Placement"; ➤ Immediately supply of available vacancies at registration and each subsequent visit; ➤ Optimizing introduced-net information by reducing the number of data sets and repetitive details.
Training and qualification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mismatch between available skills of job seekers and sought those of employers; ➤ Campaign promoting the limits on topics and allocation; ➤ Non-related to labor intermediation forming groups for training; ➤ Lack of specific commitments of job seekers in connection with new skills and qualifications; ➤ A separate tender procedure for each theme - a waste of time. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Focus on shortage of skills in the labor market; ➤ Dynamic planning and organizing the trainings; ➤ Diversification of forms and training opportunities; ➤ Greater freedom and regional diversity of the training; ➤ Monitoring the implementation of the commitments of the person in connection with newly acquired skills and qualifications.
Programs and measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Variety of measures and programs can not effectively serve the existing available capacity; ➤ Premature financial support of established strategic programs; ➤ The development and launch of new measures and programs is not accompanied by the closure or change in such with a weak social impact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Participation of experts from labor offices in the development of new programs; ➤ Preliminary testing programs; ➤ Timely financial, informational and methodological provision of programs; ➤ Optimizing existing portfolio of measures and programs to focus on those with the greatest social impact; ➤ Dynamic management and change of the existing portfolio of measures and programs to reflect changes in the contingent.
Placement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Lack of proactive search for other sources of vacancies advertised outside in the LOD; ➤ Lack of segmentation of employers; ➤ Lack of proactive management of relationships with employers; ➤ Lack of active management and detailed specification of registered vacancies; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Better knowledge and specifying the needs and requirements of employers; ➤ Offered vacancies available whenever a visit of a job seekers; ➤ Secondary segmentation of the contingent; ➤ Better knowledge and specification of owned and missing qualities of each job seeker;

30 Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

31 Processes in labor mediation in Directorates "Labor office". Ministry of Labor and Social Policy of the Republic of Bulgaria. Center for human resources development and regional initiatives: <http://distancelearning.ncpedu.net/>.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Recruitment and selection of appropriate job seekers on formal grounds; ➤ Lack of opportunity to sort candidates on key characteristics; ➤ Outdated nomenclature of professions and levels of education; ➤ Establish and maintain relationships with employers only in relation to their activity; ➤ Formal and mechanical preparation of the action plan of the job seekers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Segmentation and active work with employers; ➤ Actively seeking alternative sources of job vacancies; ➤ More efficient selection of job seekers respecting not only formal, but also the specific requirements of employers.
Administrative processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Weak discretion of the LOD; ➤ Existing culture of dependency in the organization of work of the EA; ➤ A large number of informal inquiries; ➤ Excessive detail of the package standard reports; ➤ Insufficient active advertising and information activities of the LO level. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Reduce the document turnover in the system; ➤ Establish a culture of responsibility and decision-making; ➤ Clearly specified the powers of the directors of the LOD; ➤ Stimulating a certain discretion; ➤ Creating optimal management processes to improve decision making.

It should be noticed however that there are a number of risks that may impede the proper definition of the capacity and use of the model in the Employment Agency. Among them the attention deserve the following³²:

- Inefficient use of the model due to a misunderstanding of its basic parameters;
- Estimated capacity concerns only activities engaged in the fundamental processes of LOD. Some of them - participation in the development of new programs and measures, employee participation in the "import" and "export" of labor force participation in cooperation councils, etc., are not included and should be taken into account when calculating the total human resources needed for a LOD.
- Because of its specificity, activities associated with the implementation of resource processes of a LOD are not possible to be included in the scope of the model. Although decentralization initiative taken, outside the scope of the model remain the processes for managing information resources, supply management and all management activities of planning, communication, control and others.

Knowledge of risk situations is the basis of possible solutions for risk management in the implementation of the model and effective action for their prevention, or in case of failing - to bring them to reasonable limits.

Optimization, quality and efficiency improvement can be accomplished with the use of complex and systematic approaches that take into account available resources and capacity needed in the construction and improvement new tools to streamline management decisions, effective management and control. The presented model to determine the required capacity is a flexible tool for better management of activities in different labor offices by providing the necessary human resources and their use in the most efficient manner. The model allows consideration of the initial conditions which are bound to the policies and objectives of the Employment Agency and gives opportunity to develop different scenarios based on different starting conditions and assumptions in different labor offices. The application of the process model of work in terms of the main activities (in particular training and qualification, implementation of programs and implementation of measures) provides opportunities for optimal use of available resources

³² Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

and improve the capacity of work, and hence the efficiency of the social policies by providing tools for analyses, evaluation of alternative scenarios, rationalization of management decisions and standardization.

5. Increasing Effectiveness of Management in PES on Regional Level

Considering the underlined need of effectiveness in decision taking, implementation and control current study makes a proposal is made of a model of increasing the effectiveness of management of PES as presented on fig. 3. The model concerns goals, activities, resources, results and people in the stages of planning, implementation and control. Starting with problem analyses and analyses of effectiveness of work in PES, the needs and some solutions are identified, available and necessary resources are estimated before decision taking, elaboration of a plan and preparation of activities to implement. The implementation is foreseen to start first in pilot offices and thus provide opportunities to make analyses of the implementation, make some proposals for improvements, improve and motivate the staff before the overall implementation. The key point in the model is the control which requires the adoption of a procedure, incl. indicators for measurement of efficiency in particular, conducting regular monitoring activities, assessments of effectiveness, undertaking some corrective activities if needed (e.g. change, add something or stop the implementation), control over the whole implementation and tracking out the “late” effects.

The model is oriented towards regional employment services directorates according to the main activities implemented. It identifies the general processes needing timely, adequate and effective decision making (Table 4).

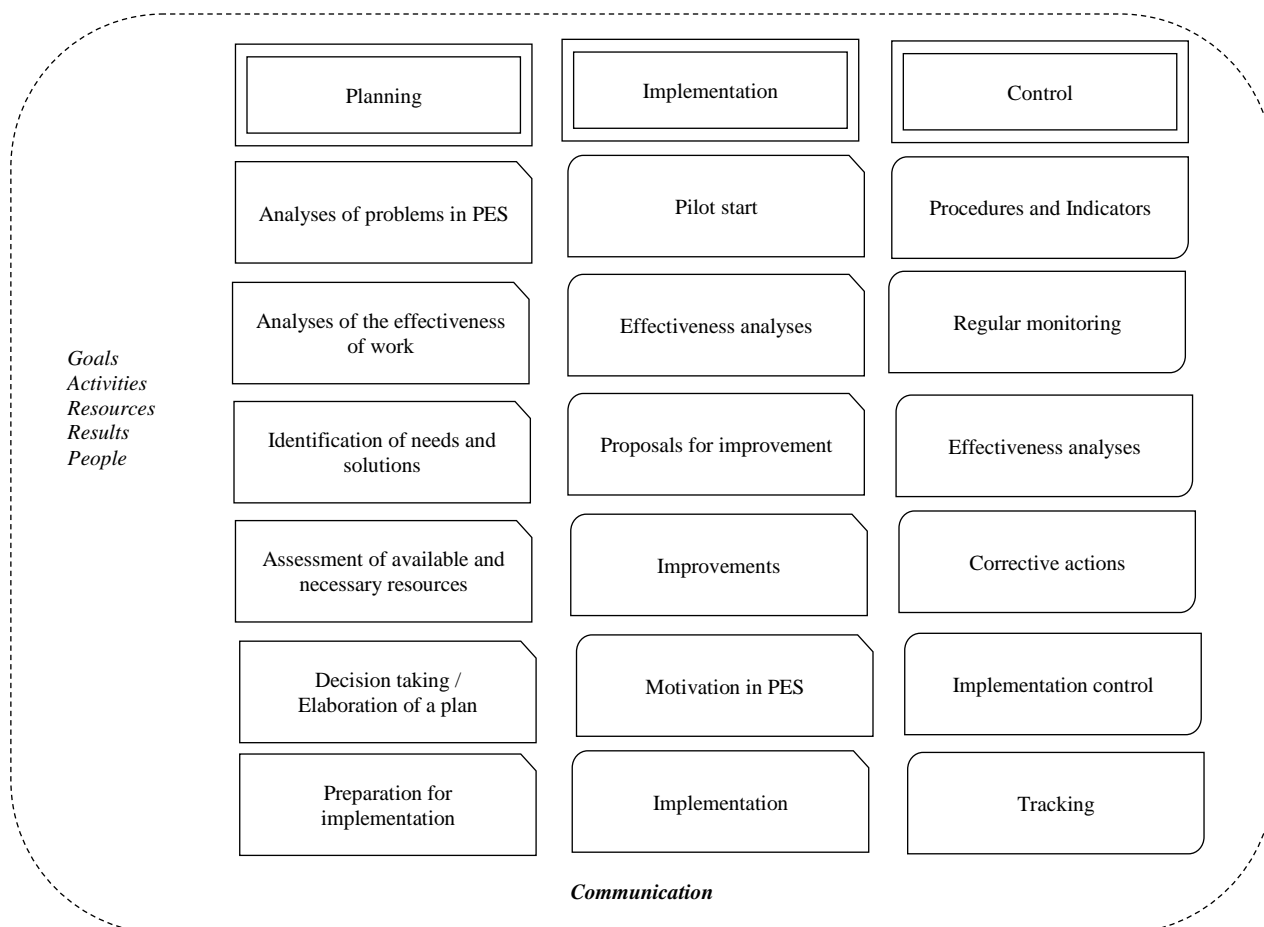


Fig. 3. Model for raising effectiveness of management in PES

Table 4. Processes and activities / goals implemented by regional employment services and expected results of the implementation of the model

Processes	Activities / goals	Results
Management of resources	Planning of financial and material resources of regional directorates and corresponding labor offices	Increase in the effectiveness of resources' use in PES
Management of human resources	Motivation and development of human resources in PES	Increase in the effectiveness of work in PES
Coordination of activity	Coordinating, summerizing and supporting the activities of labor offices	Increase in the effectiveness of work of labor offices and the active policy implemented
	Study, analyses and prognoses on the state and the development of the regional labor market	Substantiated empirical base which is necessary for the strategic planning on national and regional level and decision taking
	Regular exchange of information between labor offices and territorial departments of the National statistical institute, social assistance services, etc.	Assurance of coordination and control for effective impacts of the regional labor market
	Coordination, implementation and control of programs and projects in the sphere of employment, financed by international sources	Increase in the effectiveness of impact on the labor market
Monitoring of programs and projects	Monitoring and evaluation of the impacts of the implementation of active policy's measures and programs in the region	Increase in the effectiveness of the implementation of active policy's measures and programs in the region
	Support to the elaboration and the implementation of regional strategies for development	Regional development strategies oriented towards the real needs
Strategic planning and management on regional level	Support to the elaboration and the implementation of regional action plans on employment	Regional action plans on employment which are regularly changed according to the actual needs in the region
	Interactions with the municipalities and rendering support to them in the elaboration and the implementation of strategies and plans in their parts concerning employment	Municipal strategies and plans embracing adequate measures on employment

The proposed model includes the main stages in management processes in PES and it is based on the following principles in decision taking: openness, flexibility, continuity, reality, inclusion, motivation, added value, monitoring and sustainability. It offers the framework of planning, management and control of goals, activities, resources and results underlining the importance of human resources in PES and accenting on the processes of motivation, communication and coordination.

6. Conclusion

Contemporary changes in economic and social environment pose a number of challenges before public employment services and development and implementation of social policies. New realities on labor

market and dynamic environment require adequate actions, rational and timely decision making and optimization of work. In direct relation with the implementation of the Europe 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth is the introduction of a common strategy for public employment services in the EU, reflecting the intensification policy with sustainable results consistent with the challenges of social environment, provoked by the labor markets. This does not mean that the operational consequences for each of the public employment services will be the same. It should not be overlooked that in different countries there are specific conditions that have impact on those consequences. And to respond flexibly and precisely to the numerous internal or external changes, public employment services are subjects to conversion and renewal, according to the individual elements to ensure continuity, available in different member states.

The adequacy of responses by institutions on the labor market is directly related to technologies used at work and applied models to rationalize decision-making and to improve the quality of services provided. Improving processes and the quality of the administrative services in the Bulgarian employment agency, taken as an example, is seen as a prerequisite for effective implementation of employment policies. A solution is the application of a process model of work in the labor offices taking into account the necessary resources (in terms of time required to perform certain actions) and determining the required capacity. The model discussed in the paper is a flexible tool for better management and efficient use of human resources.

The dynamic changes of the social environment that determine the changes in attitudes and actions on labor markets and public service providers face policymaking in the field of employment in the coming years with serious challenges. Particular importance is assigned to the ability of the public employment services for vigorous action aimed at ensuring the maximum impact of policy on the labor market. Public employment services are expected to handle both current and future challenges. Rapid response to changing conditions and the combination of short-term interventions with sustainable solutions require flexibility, organizational response capability and creativity. Evolution from bureaucratic oriented organizations to more flexible, open, market-oriented networks and structures requires intellectual and cultural change as the business model and management, and individual ways of working.

Efficiency - economic and social, of functioning and developing social system is the result of the actions of all the factors of the system as a whole. Results of the creation of a model for effective social policy conducted on the labor market and employment define the basic processes in the implementation of the activities of the directorates "Labor Office". For this purpose, the activities and the steps contained in each of the processes carried out by the Labor Office should be carefully defined and specified. Optimizing and improving the quality of administrative services to improve the effectiveness of social policy pursued by the directorates "Labor Office" can be accomplished with the use of complex and systematic approaches that take into account available resources and capacity needed in the construction and improvement of new tools to streamline decisions, effective management and control.

The model to determine the required capacity as presented in the current paper is a flexible tool for better management of activities in public employment services by providing the necessary human resources and their use in the most efficient manner. It provides the opportunity to develop different scenarios based on different starting conditions and assumptions in different labor offices in Bulgaria. Initial conditions are bound by the policies and objectives of the Employment Agency. Rationalization of management decisions to improve the effectiveness of social policy pursued by the directorates "Labor Office" created by a process model is based on defined processes, detailed metric measurement activities in the Employment Agency with a view to their standardization and determining necessary resource security processes, developing a model for determining the current and future capacity, an updated balance of time for each of the directorates "Labor Office" and algorithm for allocation of costs on basic processes of the Employment Agency. The algorithm fully reflects the way the services are functioning. It is convenient to implement and simulate scenarios, thus supporting a reasonable budget preparation and flexible adaptation of resources to the requirements of the labor market during the budget year.

Defining the main processes and the implemented activities is the initial point in modelling which in the current study is supported by capacity measurements and assessments. Optimization, quality and efficiency improvement can be accomplished with the use of complex and systematic approaches that

take into account available resources and capacity needed in the construction and improvement new tools to streamline management decisions, effective management and control.

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Günümüz Modern İşletmelerinde İnsan Kaynakları Departmanları Açısından Hayati Önem Taşıyan “Kariyer Yönetimi” Kavramı Ve Modern Örgütlerde Entropiye Neden Olan Kariyer Engellerinin İncelenmesi

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Özet: Sanayi devriminden itibaren üretim alanında yaşanan hızlı teknolojik gelişmeler aynı zamanda ülkeler arasında hızlı ulaşımın gelişmesi ve ticaretin tarihte hiç olmadığı kadar canlanmaya başlaması yönetim biliminin de gelişmesine önemli katkıları olmuştur. Küreselleşen dünyada artık sınırlar ve sınırlamalar ortadan kalkmaya başlamış, sermaye ön plana çıkmıştır. Bu noktada örgütsel bağlamda çalışanlara karşı işletme sahiplerinin ve yöneticilerin tutumları da değişmeye başlamıştır. Kurumsal yapılar en önemli sermayeyi günümüzde insan sermayesi olarak görmektedir. Çalışanların işe alım sürecinde işin gereği olan vasıfları ve yetenekleri kendi bünyesinde toplaması işletme amaçlarının gerçekleştirilmesi açısından hayati önem taşımaktadır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, örgütlerde değişen insan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışının ortaya çıkardığı kariyer yönetimini örgütsel ve bireysel boyutlarıyla incelemektir. Klasik yönetim anlayışıyla birlikte ortaya çıkan personel yönetimi anlayışı, çağdaş gelişmelerin gereği olarak yerini insan kaynakları yönetimi yaklaşımına bırakmıştır. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi, personel yönetimini de kapsamakta olup insanı bütün yönleriyle ele almaktadır. Bilimsel ve teknolojik yeniliklerin doğurduğu çağdaş yönetim teknikleri insan odaklı bir yönetim anlayışına sahiptir. İnsanın etkin ve verimli kılınması için, onun ihtiyaçlarının ve beklentilerinin karşılanması gerekmektedir. Bu bağlamda onun temel ihtiyaçlarından birisi de kariyer yapmaktır. Örgütler kariyer yönetimini etkin bir şekilde kullanarak çalışanların motivasyonunu artırabilir ve kendi amaçlarını etkin ve verimli bir şekilde gerçekleştirebilirler. Kariyer yönetimi, çalışanların örgüte bağlanması, geliştirilmesi ve performanslarının artırılmasında kullanılan önemli ve etkili bir yöntemidir. Kariyer Yönetimi, örgütlerde bireylerin performansını düşüren, pek çok çatışmayı ve stresi de önleyebilir. Böylece uyumlu, etkili, verimli ve başarılı bir örgüt yaratılabilir. Kariyer yönetimi insan kaynaklarını etkili ve verimli kullanmanın en etkili yöntemlerinden birisidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kariyer Planlaması, Kariyer Yönetimi, Ay Işığı, Stres ve Tükenmişlik Sendromu

In Modern Business Human Resources Department In Terms Vital "Career Management" Concept and Modern Organization Causing Career Obstacles in Investigation of Entropy

Abstract: Rapid technological developments in the production area since the industrial revolution, but also between countries, the rapid development of transport and trade in history ever to start revival of management science has made important contributions to the development. Globalizing began to disappear in the world no longer limits and restrictions, capital came to the fore. Attitudes of business owners and managers against employees in the organizational context at this point began to change. The most important corporate capital structures as today sees the human capital. Skills and abilities that are needed to work in the recruitment process of employees is of vital importance for the realization of its own collection of business objectives.

The aim of this study examine career management in an organizational and individual dimensions. Human resources management replaced personnel management understanding as a result of modern developments. Human resources management involves personnel management and deal with people in every aspect. Modern management techniques born by scientific and technologic developments are focused on people. In order to make people efficient and effective, their expectations should be met. Within this context, one of the needs of people is developing in career steps. Organizations can increase motivations of their employees and make their aims efficient and effective by using career management in an efficient way. Human resources management is directly effective on the management of organizations. Successful organizations are centered on people and use means to motivate their employees. Organizations which can't satisfy their employees can't manage their human resources in an efficient and effective way. Qualities, abilities and competence of employees is necessary, but not enough for managing the organization in an efficient and effective way. Motivation means to increase their motivations are necessary. Within this context, career management can be used as an efficient means. One of the ways to connect individuals to the

organization is providing them career opportunities. Career is directly connected to individual and organizations targets and is a process connected to business experience and activities that people can partly and completely live during life. Career management is providing organization support to realise individual career targets with activities directed to bring up personnel in a way organization will need later.

Key Words: Career Planning, Career Management, Moodlighting, Stress and burnout Syndrome

1. Giriş

Her şeyin hızla değiştiği günümüzde örgütler bu değişime ayak uydurmak ve rekabet avantajı sağlayabilmek için değişmek ve kendilerini yenilemek zorundadır. Bu bağlamda örgütler nitelikli çalışanlara ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Değişim sürecinde başarılı olmak isteyen örgütler, elindeki insan kaynağının niteliklerini artırırken, aynı zamanda örgütün ihtiyaç duyduğu nitelikli elemanları bünyesine katmaya çalışmaktadır. Ayrıca örgütlerin elindeki nitelikli elemanları kaybetmemek için de çaba sarf etmeleri gerekir.

Klasik yönetim yaklaşımıyla örgütlerde ortaya çıkan personel yönetimi, bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmelerin etkisiyle oluşan çağdaş yönetim yaklaşımlarıyla birlikte değişime uğrayarak, yerini insan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışına bırakmıştır. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi, personel yönetiminin üstlendiği tüm görevleri yapmakla birlikte, insanı bir kaynak olarak, hatta işletme için en önemli kaynak olarak gören bir anlayışa sahiptir. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi muhtemel iş gören havuzlarının oluşturulmasından örgütten ayrılan ya da emekli olan çalışanlarını da kapsayan geniş bir çalışma alanına sahiptir. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi, yalnızca çalışanlarla ilgili kayıtları tutan ve onu sıradan bir üretim elemanı olarak gören personel yönetimi anlayışının tersine, insanın bütün ihtiyaçlarını göz önüne alır ve onu tatmin etmeye çalışır.

Örgüt yöneticileri örgütsel amaçları etkili ve verimli bir şekilde gerçekleştirebilmek için çalışanların ihtiyaç ve beklentilerini de göz önünde bulundurmak zorundadırlar. Çalışanların ihtiyaçları yere, zamana ve örgüte göre değişmekle birlikte, onların pek çok temel ihtiyaçları bulunmaktadır; bunlardan birisi de kariyer yapmaktır. Personel yönetimi anlayışından, insan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışına geçiş sürecinde kariyer yönetimi anlayışı da değişmiştir. Artık örgütler kendi kariyer planlarını yapmakta ve çalışanların kişisel kariyer planlarını gerçekleştirmelerine destek olmaktadır.

Başarılı örgütler insan merkezlidir ve çalışanlarını motive edecek çeşitli araçlar kullanmaktadır. Bu bağlamda çalışanların her birinin önceliğinin farklı olduğunu dikkate alarak hareket etmek gerekir. Çalışanlarını tatmin etmeyen örgütler insan kaynaklarını etkin ve verimli yönetemezler. Çalışanların nitelik, yetenek ve yeterlilikleri örgütün etkin ve verimli yönetilmesinde gerekli olmakla birlikte yeterli değildir. Onların performanslarını artıracak motivasyon araçlarının devreye konulması gerekmektedir. Bu bağlamda kariyer yönetimi etkili bir araç olarak kullanılabilir.

Günümüz örgütlerinin en temel sorunlarından birisi, örgütsel enerjinin boşa harcanmasıdır. Bir başka deyişle çalışanlar enerjilerinin büyük bir bölümünü örgütsel amaç ve hedefler dışında kullanmaktadır. Dolayısıyla insan kaynağı etkin ve verimli bir şekilde kullanılamamakta, ondan azami verim elde edilememektedir. Örgütlerde bu duruma sebep olabilecek pek çok faktör bulunmakla birlikte, kariyer yönetiminin başarılı bir biçimde uygulanması bu sorunu çözecektir. Aynı zamanda başarılı bir kariyer yönetimi, bireylerin performansını düşüren, örgütteki pek çok çatışmayı ve stresi de önleyebilir. Aksi takdirde aynı kariyer basamaklarına tırmanmak isteyen insanlar arasındaki mücadele örgütsel performansı artırmak yerine örgüte zarar verir hale gelecektir. Bu nedenle kariyer yönetimi örgütsel etkinliği ve verimliliği artırma da önemli bir motivasyon yönetimi ve aracı olarak kullanılabilir. Diğer yandan küreselleşme işgücünü de küresel hale getirmiştir. İletişim ve ulaşım teknolojilerinde meydana gelen müthiş değişim ve gelişme, pek çok alanda olduğu gibi, insan kaynağını da akışkan bir hale getirmiştir. Bu nedenle örgütler nitelikli elemanlarını ellerinde tutmakta zorlanmakta ve onlara yeni imkânlar sunmak zorunda kalmaktadırlar. Nitelikli elemanların kariyer beklentilerine cevap verilememesi ve bu sürecin iyi yönetilememesi nitelikli elemanların kaybına neden olabilmektedir.

Özetle her örgütün başarısının temelinde iyi yetişmiş insan kaynağı bulunmaktadır. Artık insan kaynağı sermayeden de önemli hale gelmiştir. Örgütler değişime ayak uydurmak için kendilerini sürekli yenilemeli ve geliştirmelidirler. Bunun için öncelik insan kaynaklarına verilmelidir. Güçlü örgütler güçlü çalışanlara sahiptirler. Çalışanına değer vermeyen ve ihtiyaçlarını tatmin etmeyen örgütlerin başarılı olması

düşünülemez. Her şey insan için insanla birlikte yapılmalıdır; onun temel ihtiyaçlarından birisi olan kariyer hedefleri unutulmamalıdır.

2. İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi Kavramı

İnsan kaynakları kavramı kurumsal hedeflere ulaşmada örgütlerin kullanmak zorunda oldukları temel kaynaklardan biri olan beşeri kaynağı ifade eder. Bu kavram, örgütün bünyesinde bulunan en üst yöneticiden en alt düzeydeki iş görenlere kadar tüm çalışanları kapsadığı gibi, örgütün dışında bulunan ve potansiyel olarak yararlanılabilecek işgücünü de kapsar (Öğüt, Akgemci ve Demirsel 2004, 278).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi, örgütün stratejik amaçlarının gerçekleştirilmesinde ve çalışanların bireysel ihtiyaçlarının karşılanmasında insan kaynağının etkili kullanımını içerir (Bingöl 2006, 6). Ayrıca, çalışanların örgüte alınması, yerleştirilmesi, yetiştirilmesi ve etkinliğin sürekli artırılması için tüm destek faaliyetlerin devreye sokulmasıdır (Sabuncuoğlu 2000, 4). Bilhassa, örgütlerin belirlenen stratejik amaçlara ve hedeflere ulaşmaları noktasında, “çalışanların memnuniyeti, motivasyonu, gelişimi ve yüksek performansının sürekliliğinin sağlanması için üstlenilmiş etkinliklerin yönetimidir.” (Dolgun 2007, 2).

Kavram, başlangıçta yeni bir anlam katılmadan sadece personel yönetimi kavramının yerine kullanılmıştır. Zamanla, işgücünün yapısal değişimine hizmet verebilecek yeni personel politikalarının oluşturulması ihtiyacı ortaya çıkmıştır (Akoğlu Kozak 2009, 24). Böylece içeriği zenginleşmiş ve kapsamı genişlemiştir. Örgütün amaçlarına etkili bir biçimde ulaşmak için, kişisel, örgütsel ve çevresel faktörleri dikkate alan bir faaliyet olan (Aykaç 1999, 27), İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin temel amaçları şöyle sıralanabilir:

- Bilgi ve becerilerini en iyi biçimde kullanmalarını sağlayarak, çalışandan maksimum verim elde etmek, iş yaşamının kalitesini yükselterek çalışanların sağlıklı ve güvenli bir ortamda, yaptıkları işten zevk almalarını sağlamak (Yılmaz ve Eroğlu 2008, 24-25)
- Bireysel amaçlarla örgütsel amaçları bütünleştirmek,
- Çalışanların istek, ihtiyaç, beklenti ve motivasyonlarını göz önünde tutarak sürekli gelişmelerine imkân tanımak (Dolgun 2007, 2).

Yöneticilerin örgüt amaçlarına ulaşabilmek için yarandıkları kaynaklar para, personel, malzeme, yer ve zamandır. Bu kaynaklar içerisinde en önemlisi, en zor sağlanana insan kaynağıdır. Teknolojik gelişmeler insan kaynağının verimliliğini artırmış ve çalışma yöntemlerinin değişmesinde etkili olmuştur. Ancak hiçbir teknolojik gelişme insan kaynağını ikame edememiştir. Son yıllarda robot kullanımının yaygınlaşması bu gerçeği değiştirmemiştir (Aykaç 1999, 15-17). Zira gelişmiş teknolojik aletlerin kullanılması için nitelikli çalışanlara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Bu durum insan kaynağının önemini azaltmak yerine artırmıştır.

İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin olmadığı bir örgütte; yanlış kişilerin işe alınması, personel devir hızının yükselmesi, personelin verimsiz ve düşük performansla çalışması gibi problemler yaşanır. Ayrıca bu örgütte yararsız tartışmalarla zaman kaybedilir. Bazı çalışanların işten çıkarılması nedeniyle maliyeti yüksek ve zaman alıcı davalarla uğraşılır. Personelin çoğu sürekli adil olmayan ve yetersiz ücret aldıklarından şikâyet eder. Endüstriyel ilişkiler bozulur; genel performans düşer (Benligiray 2007, 7).

İnsan kaynakları yöneticisi, örgütte çalışanlar arasındaki ilişkileri yönetmek için, çalışanlar ve yönetim arasındaki ilişkiler etrafında gelişen çok çeşitli ve geniş dış gruplar ve örgütlerle ilgilenmek zorundadır (Scarpello ve Ledvinka 1988, 4). Hiç şüphe yoktur ki insan kaynakları yönetimi, örgütün insan yönüyle ilişkili problemleri ve endişeleri üzerinde çalışmaya, çok fazla zaman harcar. Bu yüzden, pek çok insan, insan kaynakları yöneticilerinin sadece örgütün insanî yönüyle doğrudan ilişkili konularla alakadar olduklarını düşünür. Bu bakışın tersine insan kaynakları yönetimi, örgütün verimliliği üzerinde doğrudan etkilidir. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin örgüte pek çok faydası ve bunu gerçekleştirmenin de kendine has pek çok yolu vardır (Byars ve Rue 1991, 17):

- Normal bir çalışma gününde üretimi yükseltmek suretiyle, gereksiz fazla mesai, harcamalarını azaltır.
- Çalışılmayan zaman için harcanan parayı azaltmak için tasarlanan kurum programlarını uygular ve çalışanların devamsızlık yapmamalarını sağlar.

- Sağlam iş planları vasıtasıyla işçiler tarafından israf edilen zamanı azaltır.
- İş tatminini yükselten, sağlam insan ilişkileri ve iş atmosferi yaratmak suretiyle, işçi devrini ve masrafları minimize eder.
- Zaman kayıplarını azaltmak, tıbbi ve işçi tazminat masraflarını düşük tutmak için, etkili sağlık ve güvenlik programları tesis eder ve izler.
- Bütün çalışanları özel olarak eğitir ve geliştirir. Bu yolla onlar işletmeye olan faydalarını geliştirebilirler ve mümkün olan en düşük masrafla yüksek kaliteli ürünler ve hizmetler üretip satma işini daha iyi yapabilirler.
- Kötü çalışma koşullarının, ihmalin, dikkatsizliğin ve hataların yol açtığı tutumlar ile kötü çalışma alışkanlıklarını elimine etmek suretiyle, üretim maliyetlerini azaltır.
- Gittikçe onlardan daha fazla istifade etmek ve fazla personelden kaçınmak için her düzeyde piyasada bulunan en iyi insanları kiralar.
- Çalışanlar için motive edici bir ortamın/iklimin oluşturulmasında önemli faktörler olan; rekabete dayalı ücret uygulamaları ve faydalı programları sürdürür.
- Uzman çalışanları, maliyetleri azaltmak, fiyatları indirmek ve üretimi artırmak için fikirler ileri sürmeleri hususunda teşvik eder ve onları cesaretlendirir.
- Normal bir çalışma gününde üretimi yükseltmek suretiyle, gereksiz fazla mesai, harcamalarını azaltır.
- Çalışılmayan zaman için harcanan parayı azaltmak için tasarlanan kurum programlarını uygular ve çalışanların devamsızlık yapmamalarını sağlar.
- Sağlam iş planları vasıtasıyla işçiler tarafından israf edilen zamanı azaltır.
- İş tatminini yükselten, sağlam insan ilişkileri ve iş atmosferi yaratmak suretiyle, işçi devrini ve masrafları minimize eder.
- Zaman kayıplarını azaltmak, tıbbi ve işçi tazminat masraflarını düşük tutmak için, etkili sağlık ve güvenlik programları tesis eder ve izler.
- Bütün çalışanları özel olarak eğitir ve geliştirir. Bu yolla onlar işletmeye olan faydalarını geliştirebilirler ve mümkün olan en düşük masrafla yüksek kaliteli ürünler ve hizmetler üretip satma işini daha iyi yapabilirler.
- Kötü çalışma koşullarının, ihmalin, dikkatsizliğin ve hataların yol açtığı tutumlar ile kötü çalışma alışkanlıklarını elimine etmek suretiyle, üretim maliyetlerini azaltır.
- Gittikçe onlardan daha fazla istifade etmek ve fazla personelden kaçınmak için her düzeyde piyasada bulunan en iyi insanları kiralar.
- Çalışanlar için motive edici bir ortamın/iklimin oluşturulmasında önemli faktörler olan; rekabete dayalı ücret uygulamaları ve faydalı programları sürdürür.
- Uzman çalışanları, maliyetleri azaltmak, fiyatları indirmek ve üretimi artırmak için fikirler ileri sürmeleri hususunda teşvik eder ve onları cesaretlendirir.

3. Değişen İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi Anlayışı

İnsan kaynakları kavramı ilk defa 1817 yılında, ünlü ekonomist Springer tarafından kullanılmıştır. Ancak insan kaynakları yönetimi kavramının içerik olarak bir bütünlüğe kavuşması Taylor ve Fayol tarafından yönetim alanında ortaya atılan fikirlerle birlikte gerçekleşmiştir (Aykaç 1999, 18). Personel yönetimi, Sanayi Devrimi'yle birlikte üretimin topraktan makineye yönelmesi ve yaşanan değişimler sonucunda ortaya çıkan ihtiyaçların bir sonucu olarak doğmuştur. Bazı işverenlerin çalışanlarının ekonomik refahlarına ilgi göstermeye başlamalarıyla doğan “refah sekreterliği”, personel yönetimi anlayışının

başlangıcı sayılır. Ancak personel yönetimi Birinci Dünya Savaşı'na kadar bir uzmanlık alanı olarak görülmemiştir (Benligiray, 2007: 4-5).

20. Yüzyılın ikinci yarısında yeni teknolojiler, artan rekabet ve diğer çevresel unsurların etkisiyle çalışanlar üretim ve hizmet sürecini belirleyen, yönlendiren ve koordine eden bir güç olarak öne çıkmıştır (Dolgun 2007;7). Üst yönetim, insan kaynakları yönetimine maliyet azaltıcı ve rekabet üstünlüğü sağlayıcı, firma değerini artırıcı unsur olarak bakmaya başlamıştır. Stratejik kararların alınmasında insan kaynakları ön plana çıkmıştır (Yüksel, 2007: 22).

1960'lı yıllarda ABD ve 1970'li yıllarda Avrupa'nın gelişmiş ülkeleri insana önem verilmesinin gerekli olduğunu fark ederek işveren, insana bakış açısını yeniden gözden geçirme ihtiyacı duymuştur. Çünkü artık sadece iş, çalışma psikolojisi, eğitim ve endüstriyel ilişkiler açısından bakışın yeterli olmadığı, insana ilişkin olgu ve olayların bir bütün halinde ele alınması gerektiği ortaya çıkmış, ayrıca gelişen teknoloji, artan rekabet ve diğer çevresel unsurlar işletmelerin nitelikli personel talebini artırmıştır. Bu bağlamda insan kaynağının niteliği, işletmelerin başarılarını belirleyen temel unsur haline gelmiştir (Benligiray, 2007: 5-6).

1980'li yıllardan itibaren personel yönetimi kavramı yerine, bireylerin yeteneklerini, bilgisini, yaratıcılığını ve ihtiyaçlarını karşılama ve geliştirme esaslarına dayanan insan kaynakları yönetimi kavramı kullanılmaya başlanmıştır (Güler, 2006: 18).

Günümüzde örgüt kültürü alanında meydana gelen gelişmeler, tam rekabet ortamı, değişim, yenilikçilik, teknolojik yenilikler, küreselleşme, çok uluslu şirketlerin yaygınlaşması, uluslararası işletmeciliğin gelişmesi, klasik anlamda personel yönetimin yeni bir anlayışla ele alınmasını, içeriğinin önemli ölçüde değiştirilmesini ve bu yeniliklere uyum sağlanmasını zorunlu kılmıştır. İşte bu nedenle ortaya çıkan yeni yaklaşım, örgütte çalışan bütün insan unsurlarına bütüncül bir açıdan bakılmasını gerekli kılmıştır (Aykaç, 1999: 20: 36).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ve personel yönetimi tamamen zıt kavramlar olmayıp aralarında önemli benzerlikler mevcut olup, insan kaynakları yönetimi, daha kapsamlı bir kavram olarak ele alınmaktadır. Günümüzde özellikle de ekonomi, istihdam, çalışanların örgütlenmeleri, toplu pazarlık görüşmeleri, çalışma hayatında meydana gelen değişim ve gelişmeler, sendikal haklar ve genel nüfus gibi iş ve çalışma alanlarında meydana gelen değişim ve gelişmeler sonucunda iş örgütlerinde çalışan personel ile ilgili olarak kullanılan "Personel Yönetimi" kavramının yerini insan kaynakları yönetimi almaya başlamıştır. Bu yeni anlayış, personel yönetimine dönük çağdaş bir yaklaşımı temsil eder. Bu anlayış insan ögesini örgütün merkezine koyarak onu ön plana çıkarır (Şimşek ve Öge, 2009: 2).

İnsana ilişkin konuları, insanın sosyal bir varlık olma özelliğine paralel olarak çok yönlü bir bütünlük içinde ve sistematik olarak ele alır. Ayrıca örgüt ortamı ve çevresi kavramlarını da kullanır (Mercin, 2005: 130).

Personel yönetiminden insan kaynakları yönetimine geçiş uzun bir dönemde ve çeşitli aşamalardan geçtikten sonra mümkün olabilmektedir. Başlangıçta personel yönetimi çalışanlar hakkında kayıt tutma faaliyeti olarak görülüp personelin ücreti, yan ödemeleri, sigorta kesenekleri gibi muhasebe kayıtları ile aldığı izinler, raporlu olduğu gün sayısı, işe devamsızlık ve geç kalma gibi konuları kapsamıştır. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi; personel yönetiminin konusu olan; işe alma, sınav yapma, sınıflandırma, atama, sicil düzenleme, yükseltme gibi faaliyetlerle ilgili uygulama ve tekniklerle ilgilenirken, ayrıca insan kaynağına ilişkin politikalar, planlar, işçi-işveren ilişkileri, çevresel ve örgütsel gelişmeler karşısında personelin durumu gibi daha geniş kapsamlı stratejileri de üretip uygulamıştır (Yüksel, 2007: 9-10).

Personel yönetimi ilk zamanlarda sadece belgeleme ve dosyalama gibi işlemler üzerinde yoğunlaşırken, endüstri ilişkilerinde yaşanan gelişmeler sonrasında çalışanlara ve onların kazandıkları sosyal haklara yönelik kayıtları tutan bir bölüm olarak kendini göstermiştir (Dolgun, 2007: 7).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi geleceğe dönüktür; yetenekli ve iyi motive edilmiş elemanlar sağlayarak örgütün bugünkü amaçları yanında gelecekteki amaçlarının da gerçekleştirilmesine hizmet eder. Aynı zamanda eyleme dönüktür; yalnızca kuralları uygulama ve rapor yazma gibi rutin faaliyetleri değil, insan kaynaklarına ilişkin sorunlara eğilmeyi de içerir. Bu anlayış, bugüne kadar personel yönetiminde görülen tepkisel (reaktif) sorun çözme davranışı, yani sorunlar ortaya çıktıktan sonra onları çözmeye çalışma

davranışı yerine, önceden ileriye görerek sorunların oluşmasına meydan vermeyen öngörülü (proaktif) davranışın geliştirilmesini esas almaktır (Yüksel, 2007: 29-32).

Doğal olarak yeni gelişmelere ayak uydurulması sonucunda doğmuş olan İnsan kaynakları yönetimi yaklaşımı, konu itibarıyla personel yönetimine nazaran oldukça çeşitli ve kapsamlıdır (Tortop vd. 2006, 18-19). İnsan kaynakları yönetimi süreci; eğitim, değerlendirme, işçi tazminatları (işçi ücretleri), çalışanların ilişkileri, sağlık ve güvenlik ile diğer ilgili konuları kapsar. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi örgütlerde çalışanların stratejik amaç ve hedeflere ulaşmak için nasıl daha etkin bir şekilde yönetilebileceği konusuyla ilgilenir. Oysa personel yönetiminin böyle bir amaç ve hedefi yoktur. Çalışanların iş yaşamlarında daha mutlu, dala üretken olabilmeleri için ne yapıldığı, ne yapılabileceği ve ne yapılması gerektiği üzerinde duran (Yılmaz ve Eroğlu, 2008: 28), İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin kapsadığı konular şöyle sıralanabilir:

- İş analizi yönetimi,
- Çalışan ihtiyacını planlama,
- Yeni adayları istihdam etme,
- Adayların seçimi ve istihdamı,
- Yeni çalışanların oryantasyonu ve eğitim,
- Maaş ve ücret yönetimi (çalışanların tazminatları),
- Çalışanların motivasyonu,
- Performans değerlendirme,
- İletişim (kurumsal bilgi akışı ve insan ilişkileri),
- Çalışanların sağlığı ve güvenliği,
- Eğitim ve geliştirme,
- Sendikalarla ilişkiler (Dessler 2008, 2).
- Kurumsal kültürün yerleştirilmesi,
- Çalışanların koordinasyonu,
- Ortak hedefler ve amaçlar oluşturmak,
- İnsan kaynaklarının örgütsel değişime hazırlanması,
- Örgütsel kararlara katılımı sağlamak,

İnsan kaynakları sorunları ve yönetimi (Sabuncuoğlu 2000, 9-10). İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ile personel yönetimi arasındaki farklar; genel yapı, stratejik yaklaşım, yönetim ve temel fonksiyonlar olmak üzere dört başlık altında toplanabilir. Genel yapı bakımından personel yönetimi, kural, prosedür ve normlara dayalı geleneksel bir yönetim anlayışı içerisindedir. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminde ise genel yapı, kişisel beceriler, örgütsel kültür, değerler, hedef ve amaçlar çerçevesinde belirlenir. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminde örgütsel başarı, uzun dönemli yüksek performans ve stratejik yaklaşıma dayalıdır.

Personel yönetiminde ise, hedefler stratejik yaklaşımdan uzak planlama, personel programları, örgütlenme ve kontrol etme faaliyetleri ile gerçekleştirilmeye çalışılır (Gök 2006, 23-25).

Personel yönetimi politikaları; geleneksel, kuralcı, statik, işe odaklı ve sadece ilgili bölüm çalışanlarına yönelik şekilde kısıtlayıcı özellikler arz etmektedir. Stratejik yaklaşımı benimseyen İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ise, rekabet üstünlüğünü sağlamaya yönelik olarak yenilikçilik ile yaratıcılığı öne çıkaran, sürekli dönüşüm içindeki mal ve hizmet pazarlarında dinamik bir yapı sergilemeyi şart koşan, odağına insanı yerleştiren, bütüncül bir anlayışla işyerinin tümünü kapsayan, çalışanlara oto-kontrol ve sorumluluk duygusu yanında vizyon kazandırma amacıyla da olan bir karakteristik sergiler (Dolgun 2007, 10).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ile personel yönetimi arasındaki farklar yönetim boyutunda ele alındığında ise; personel yöneticilerinin sorumluluğunun; ücret ve ücretlendirme, endüstri ilişkileri ve toplu pazarlık politikalarının hazırlanmasında tavsiyelerde bulunmak, üst yönetimin ihtiyaç ve isteklerine göre periyodik raporlar hazırlamak gibi standart ve kayıtlamaya dayalı konuları içerdiği görülür. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminde ise; liderlik, yüksek iletişim becerisi ve yaratıcılık gibi niteliklere sahip olması beklenen yöneticiler, insan kaynaklarının geliştirilmesinden de sorumludurlar. Personel yönetimi temel işlevler bakımından; işbölümü ve prosedürlere dayalı bir yapı içinde personel seçim ve yerleştirilmesi yanında eğitim ile bürokratik uygulamalar önemli bir yer tutar. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminde ise; takım çalışması ve örgüt kültürü son derece önemli olup, iletişim, performans, bilgi yönetimi ve bireysel yetki önemli bir yer tutmaktadır (Gök 2006, 25-26).

Personel yönetimi anlayışından İnsan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışına geçişteki etkenler şöyle özetlenebilir (Yılmaz ve Eroğlu 2008, 27):

- Ekonomik, sosyal ve kültürel gelişmeler,
- Yetişkin insan gücünün artması,
- Davranış bilimlerinde gözlenen gelişmeler,
- Refah seviyelerinin artması,
- Sendikacılığın gelişmesi,
- İstek ve beklentilerin değişmesi,
- İletişim ve bilişim teknolojilerinin gelişmesi.
- Çalışma koşullarını düzenleyen yasaların yürürlüğe girmesi,
- Çalışanların eğitim ve kültür düzeylerinin yükselmesi.

Bugün örgütler özellikle insan kaynaklarının nasıl yönetildiği ile daha yakından ilgilenmektedirler. İnsan kaynaklarının etkili yönetimi; kazaların, devamsızlığın ve hata oranının azalması demektir. Bunun sonucunda da ürün ya da hizmetlerin kalitesi artacaktır. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin artan bir biçimde önemini korumasını sağlayan sosyal, ekonomik ve politik gelişmeler; insan kaynaklarının maliyeti, değişimin hızı ve karmaşıklığı, küreselleşme, işgücü çeşitliliği, üretkenlik krizi, beceri gereklerinde değişme, küçülme ve sayı azaltma, yetkilendirme ve toplam kalite yönetimi şeklinde sıralanabilir (Can ve Kavuncubaşı 2005, 10-12).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi, personel yönetimi işlevlerini de kapsayan fakat bunlarla sınırlı kalmayan bir perspektife sahiptir. Personel yönetimi, çalışan ile örgüt, örgüt ile devlet arasındaki ve daha çok çalışanlar ile ilgili malî ve hukukî ilişkileri içeren bir bölüm niteliğindedir ve insan kaynakları yönetiminin bir alt çalışma alanını oluşturmaktadır (Şimşek ve Öge 2009, 23).

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ile personel yönetimi arasındaki farkları şöyle özetlemek mümkündür (Benligiray 2007, 6-7; Sabuncuoğlu 2000, 11; Dolgun 2007, 12-13):

- Personel yönetimi iş odaklı, insan kaynakları yönetimi, insan odaklıdır.
- Personel yönetimi insanı temel bir maliyet unsuru; insan kaynakları yönetimi ise, insanı değerlendirilmesi ve geliştirilmesi gereken bir kaynak olarak görür.
- Personel yönetimi, insan kaynakları yönetiminin önemli bir alt çalışma alanıdır; insan kaynakları yönetimi ise personel yönetimini de kapsar.
- Personel yönetimi anlayışı daha çok geleneksel, hiyerarşik örgüt yapıları için geçerlidir ve ast-üst ilişkilerini esas alır. Bu bağlamda daha çok yönetici olmayan personelle ilgilenir. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi ise, örgütteki tüm çalışanların işbirliği içinde örgüt performansına azamî katkıyı yapmaları için çalışır.
- Personel yönetimi kısa vadeli ve günlük işlerle uğraşırken, insan kaynakları yönetimi uzun vadeli ve stratejik bir bakış açısına sahiptir.

- Personel yönetiminin etkinliği, önceden belirlenmiş personel politikalarının başarıyla uygulanmasıyla ölçülür. İnsan kaynakları yönetiminin başarısı ise, örgütsel performansın artmasıyla ortaya çıkar.

4. Kariyer Evreleri

Birey hayalindeki iş yaşamı ile gerçek iş yaşamını uyumlaştırmaya çalışırken, çalışma hayatı boyunca çeşitli evrelerden geçer. Bu evreler yaşam dönemleri ile yakından ilişkilidir. Yani, bütün çalışanlar açısından işe belli bir noktadan başlama ve belli bir süre sonunda da işe geçme aşamaları söz konusudur. Kariyer evrelerini şöyle özetlemek mümkündür (Çiftçi 2007, 143):

1. **Keşfetme-Arama (0–25 yaş):** Bireyler açısından kariyerlerine ilişkin pek çok kritik seçimin yapıldığı dönem okuldan işe geçiş dönemidir. Bu dönemde başta ailenin yönlendirmeleri ve aile üyelerinin sahip oldukları meslekler olmak üzere, öğretmenler, arkadaşlar ve medya, bireyin okul seçimi ve sonrasındaki kariyer tercihlerinin belirlenmesi açısından önemli bir rol oynar (Argon, Eren 2004, 256). Kendini tanımaya çalışan birey, hangi işte daha fazla başarılı olabileceğini araştırır. Kendi kendini keşfetmeye, güçlü ve zayıf, yeterli ve yetersiz yönlerini tespit etmeye çalışır. Kişiliğini tanıır ve geliştirir (Bayraktaroğlu 2008, 147-148).
2. **Kurma (26–35 yaş):** Birey artık aradığı işi bulmuştur. İşle ilgili fırsatları kollamaya ve değerlendirmeye bakar. Geri bildirim mekanizmalarını işleterek tutum ve davranışlarını denetler, düzenler. Bu dönem ilk iş bulma, işe yerleşme, yetenek kazanma, işi öğrenme ve akranları tarafından kabul edilme süreçlerini kapsar.
3. **Kariyer Ortası (36–50 yaş):** Bu aşamaya gelen kişi, kariyerinde belli bir noktaya ulaşmıştır; konusunda söz sahibidir. Sorumlulukları, görevleri artmış, daha fazla inisiyatif kullanmaya başlamış ve bir uzman haline gelmiştir (Dündar 2009, 270). Bu süreçte mesleğinde ilerleme içinde olan kişi, kariyer planlarını ve hedeflerini yeniden gözden geçirir. Başarılarını belli kıstaslar doğrultusunda yeniden gözden geçirerek, gerekli düzeltmeleri yapar ve kariyer hedeflerini değiştirerek yeni bir iş arayışı içine girebilir (Çiftçi 2007, 144).
4. **Kariyer Sonu (51–65 yaş):** Geç-kariyer düzeyi de denilen bu dönem; bireye genellikle bir parça rahatlamayla birlikte tecrübeli bir çalışan rolünü oynama imkânı sağlar. Bu evrede birey, geçmişte düşündüğü gibi dünyayı değiştiremeyeceği ya da sonsuza kadar etkili olarak kalamayacağı gerçeğini görmeye başlar (Argon ve Eren 2004, 257).
5. **Azalma / Emeklilik (65–75 yaş):** Bu aşamaya çözülme aşaması da denir. Kişi birçok nedenden dolayı gerileme dönemine girer. Bireyler çalışma ve çalışmama arasındaki denge değişikliğine hazırlanırlar. Çözülme aşamasında emeklilik, spor, hobiler, seyahat gibi aktivitelere yönelen yaşlı personel akla gelmektedir (Güzel 2005, 124). Emeklilik, bireyin yaşamında yeni kariyer yollarının, yeni hedeflerin başladığı, yeni rollerin geliştirildiği dönemdir (Bayraktaroğlu 2008, 150).

5. Kariyer Planlamasının Tanımı

Batıda giderek önemli bir insan kaynakları yönetimi aktivitesi haline gelen kariyer planlama ve geliştirme, insan-gücü planlamasıyla ilişkili olmakla beraber, oldukça farklı bir insan kaynağı yönetimi aktivitesidir. İnsan gücü planlamasının temel hedefi, gelecekteki net personel ihtiyaçlarının yordanması ve bu ihtiyaçlara cevap vermek üzere gerekli seçme, eğitime ve yönlendirme fonksiyonlarının yerine getirilmesidir.

Son yıllarda kariyer geliştirme ve planlamaya olan ilginin artmasının birçok nedeni bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenlerden belki de en önemlisi işin tanımındaki ve işe yönelik yaklaşım ve tutumlardaki temel değişikliklerdir. Kariyer planlaması, bir iş görenin sahip olduğu bilgi, yetenek, beceri ve güdülerinin geliştirilmesiyle, çalışmakta olduğu örgüt içindeki ilerleyişinin ya da yükselmesinin planlanmasıdır. Kariyer planlamasının iki boyutu vardır. İlk boyut, kariyerini planlama durumunda olan bireyin kendi kişiliğinde oluşacaktır. Birey, çalışma yaşamında yerini bilme, anlama ve gelecekte nerede ve nasıl olmak istediğini belirleme durumunda olacaktır. Birey açısından bu olgu sağlıklı bir gelişmeyi simgeler. Böylelikle birey

kendi kariyerini planlama fırsatı bulur. İkinci boyut ise, kariyerin örgüt açısından irdelenmesi ve yönlendirilmesidir. Burada örgüt kendi amaçlarını ön planda tutarak bireysel amaçları kendisine uyarlamaya çalışmaktadır. Bir bakıma burada amaçların bütünleştirilmesine gidilmektedir.

6. Kariyer Yönetimi

Kariyer Yönetimi, çalışanların işlerinde ilerlemek, üst düzeylere gelmek istemeleri, aldıkları eğitim, zihinsel yetenekleri, kişilik özellikleri, kendilerini geliştirme düzeyleriyle yakından ilişkilidir. Çalışanın iş yaşamında ve mesleğinde sağlıklı bir şekilde ilerlemesi Kariyer Yönetimi sayesinde olabilmektedir. Kariyer Yönetimi en basit bir anlatımla; kişilerin iş hayatlarına ilişkin planlamalar yapmalarıdır. Bu planların bir süreç olarak oluşturulması hedefe ulaşmada önemlidir. Kariyer Yönetimi'yle çalışanların kurum içindeki hareketlilikleri sağlanır ve böylece kişiler motive edilir. İyi bir kariyer yönetimi uygulanan organizasyonlarda kişiler bir süre sonra hangi statüde olacaklarını bilebilir veya tahmin edebilirler. Kişinin bunu bilmesi, onu işine ve kuruma bağlar, motivasyonunu sağlar.

Kariyer Yönetimi, bireyin kariyer planının, organizasyonun kariyer geliştirme araçları ile desteklenmesidir. Kariyer yönetimi kariyer kavramına bireysel ve kurumsal bakış açılarını bütünleştirir. Diğer bir deyişle kariyer yönetimi, bireysel hedeflerin ve organizasyon ihtiyaçlarının uyumlaştırılması sürecidir. Bu süreçte birey ve organizasyon karşı taraflarda değil, birbirlerini destekleyici roller üstlenirler ve her iki tarafa düşen sorumluluklar vardır.

Kariyer yönetimi için yapılan bir başka tanımda; "işletmenin, kişilerin kendi kariyer hedeflerine ulaşmasına izin verirken insan kaynağı gereksinimini karşılamak üzere hedefler, planlar ve stratejiler dizayn edip, bunları yürürlüğe koyma olgusudur", şeklindedir. Kariyer yönetimi, bireyin organizasyon kültürünü benimsemesi, organizasyonun amacı ile örtüşmesi, iş doyumunu ve işte kalması için temel belirleyici bir faktördür ve bu yönetsel yaklaşım çalışanın potansiyelini maksimize etmek için başvuru bir uygulamadır. Günümüzde artık kariyer planlaması işletmeler tarafından değil, daha çok çalışan tarafından yapılmaktadır. Bunun için de her şeyden önce bireyin kendisini çok iyi tanıması gerekmektedir.

7. İşletmelerde Kariyer Sorunları

7.1. Ay Işığı Sorunu

Ay ışığı sorunu, bir kişinin gelir yetersizliği, tecrübe kazanmak ya da başka birtakım nedenlerle ikinci, hatta üçüncü bir işte çalışıyor olmasıdır. Örneğin, bir lise öğretmeni, hem bir dershanede çalışıyor hem de özel ders veriyorsa "ay ışığında" demektir. Bazı işletmeler bu tip çalışanları işten atmakla tehdit ederler, ancak yine de bu oluşum engellenemez. Bazı örgütler ise, doğrudan kendilerine rakip olmadıkları takdirde bu kişilerin kendi hesabına da çalışmasına izin vermektedir (Budak 2008, 279).

Ay ışığı kavramı, düzenli istihdam içerisinde birinin, çalışma saatleri dışında haftada 12 saat ya da daha fazla bir süre başka bir işte çalışmasını ifade eder. Böyle bir aktiviteye kişi, daha çok iş güvenliği için ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Ayrıca esas işten ayrılma döneminde bu ikinci iş kişinin işsiz kalmasını önlemektedir. Bunun bir kariyer engeli olması ise, temel işte kullanılması gereken enerjinin diğer bir işte kullanılıyor olmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu durum, yöneticiler tarafından bireylerde düşük performansa, işe geç gelme, erken ayrılma ya da devamsızlığa ve iş sadakatini azaltmaya yol açtığı iddiasıyla pek kabul görmemekte ve iki işte çalışanların işletme içindeki kariyer ilerlemeleri engellenmektedir. Bu durumun getirdiği diğer bir sorun ise; kişinin yaptığı her iki işi de aynı önemde görmesi ve çift kariyerli bir ilerleme kaydetmeye çabalamasıdır (Akoğlu Kozak 2009, 93).

7.2. Stres ve Tükenmişlik

Stres sözcüğü, Latince "estricia"dan gelmektedir. Stres, 17. Yüzyılda felaket, bela, musibet, dert, keder, elem gibi anlamlarda kullanılmıştır. 18 ve 19. Yüzyıllarda ise, kavramın anlamı değişmiş ve güç, baskı, zor gibi anlamlarda objelere, kişiye, organlara ve ruhsal yapıya yönelik olarak kullanılmıştır. Buna

bağlı olarak da stres, nesne ve kişinin bu tür güçlerin etkisi ile biçiminin bozulmasına, çarpıtılmasına karşı bir direnç anlamında kullanılmaya başlamıştır.

Selye (1956), stres konusuyla ilgilenen öncü bilim adamlarındandır ve stresi, "vücuda yüklenen herhangi bir özel olamayan isteme karşı, vücudun tepkisi" olarak tanımlamaktadır (Johnstone, 1989: 4).

Cüceloğlu'na göre, stres, "bireyin fizik ve sosyal çevredeki uyumsuz koşullar nedeniyle, bedensel ve psikolojik sınırlarının ötesinde harcadığı gayrettir" (Cüceloğlu, 1994: 321). Selye, stresi, bireyi etkileyen çevresel uyarıcı olarak görmüştür. 1950 yılında yaptığı bir çalışmadan sonra stres terimini, organizmanın içindeki çevreye karşı aldığı bir durum olarak tanımlamıştır. Bu yaklaşımda Selye, stres ve stresör kavramlarını ön plana çıkarmış, bireyde bir dizi tepki yaratan çevresel uyarıcıyı stresör, bireyin bu tür uyarıcılara karşı gösterdiği tepkiye de stres demiştir. Sonuç olarak Selye, stresi "bireyin çeşitli çevresel stresörlere karşı gösterdiği genel bir tepki" olarak tanımlamıştır (Erdoğan, 1999).

Gerilim, stres durumunun sistem üzerindeki etkisidir. Zorlanma ise, dengeye dönme süreci içinde sistemin ödediği bedel ya da harcadığı enerjinin miktarıdır (Şahin, 1995).

Stresin oluşması için insanın içinde bulunduğu ya da hayatını sürdürdüğü ortam ve çevrede meydana gelen değişimlerin insanı etkilemesi gerekir. Stresi, insanın yaşadığı ortamda meydana gelen bir değişimin veya insanın ortamı değiştirmesinin onun üzerinde etkiler bırakması ile ilgilidir.

7.2.1. Stres Sırasında Organizmada Meydana Gelen Değişiklikler

Selye, bedenin stresli durumlarda verdiği üç aşamalı tepkiyi "Genel Uyum Sendromu" olarak adlandırmıştır. Bu kurama göre, organizmanın strese tepkisi üç aşamada gelişir. Bunlar alarm tepkisi, direnme ve tükenme aşamalarıdır (Johnstone, 1989: 4; Baltaş ve Baltaş, 1999: 26; Balcı, 2000: 21-23).

Alarm Aşaması: Birey bir stres kaynağı ile karşılaştığında, sempatik sinir sisteminin etkin hale gelmesi nedeniyle beden *savaş* ya da *kaç* tepkisi" gösterir. *Savaş* ya da *kaç tepkisi* sırasında bedende oluşan fiziksel ve kimyasal değişimler sonucunda kişi, stres kaynağı ile yüzleşmeye ya da kaçmaya hazır hale gelir. Bu durum kalp atışlarının hızlanması, tansiyonun yükselmesi, solunumun hızlanması ve ani adrenalin salgılanması biçiminde gelişir. *Savaş* ya da *kaç* tepkisinin ortaya çıktığı aşama, "alarm aşaması" olarak adlandırılır.

Direnme Aşaması: Alarm aşamasını, "uyum ya da direnme aşaması" izler. Stres kaynağına uyum sağlanırsa her şey normale döner. Bu aşamada kaybedilen enerji, yeniden kazanılmaya ve bedendeki tahribat giderilmeye çalışılır. Stresle başa çıkıldığında parasempatik sinir sistemi etkin olmaya başlar. Kalp atışı, tansiyon, solunum düzene girer, kas gerilimi azalır. Direnme aşamasında birey, strese karşı koymak için elinden gelen tüm gayreti ortaya koyar ve stresli bir insanın davranışlarını göstermektedir.

Tükenme Aşaması: Uyum aşamasındaki gerilim kaynakları ve bunların yoğunluk dereceleri azalmadığı sürece ya da artış gösterdikleri durumlarda bireyin gayreti kırılır ve davranışlarında ciddi derecede sapmalar ve hayal kırıklıklarının yaşandığı bir evreye girilir. Eğer stres kaynağı ile başa çıkılamaz ve uyum sağlanamaz ise, fiziksel kaynaklar kullanılamaz ve tükenme aşamasına geçilir. Tükenme aşamasında, parasempatik sinir sistemi etkindir. Kişi tükenmiştir ve stres kaynağı hala mevcuttur. Bu aşamada uzun süreli stres kaynakları ile mücadele edilemez ve kişi başka stres kaynaklarının etkilerine de açık hale gelir.

7.2.2. Stresin Belirtileri

Stresin kendine özgü bazı belirtileri vardır. Bu belirtiler; gerginlik hali, sürekli endişe duyma, aşırı derecede alkol ve sigara kullanımı, uykusuzluk, işbirliğine girilmede yaşanan zorluklar, yetersizlik duygusu, duygusal dengesizlik, sindirim sorunları, yüksek tansiyondur (Davis, 1984: 439. Akt. Pehlivan, 1995: 45).

Stresle ilgili belirtiler, fiziksel, duygusal, zihinsel ve sosyal olmak üzere dört grupta toplanabilir (Braham, 1998: 52-54):

1. **Fiziksel Belirtiler:** Baş ağrısı, düzensiz uyku, sırt ağrıları, çene kasılması veya diş gıcırdatma, kabızlık, ishal ve kolit, döküntü, kas ağrıları, hazımsızlık ve ülser, yüksek tansiyon veya kalp krizi, aşırı terleme, iştahta değişiklik, yorgunluk veya enerji kaybı, kazalarda artış.
2. **Duygusal Belirtiler:** Kaygı veya endişe, depresyon veya çabuk ağlama, Ruhsal durumun hızlı ve sürekli değişmesi, asabılık, gerginlik, özgüven azalması veya güvensizlik hissi, aşırı hassasiyet veya kolay kırılabilirlik, öfke patlamaları, saldırganlık veya düşmanlık duygusal olarak tükendiğini hissetme.
3. **Zihinsel Belirtiler:** Konsantrasyon, karar vermede güçlük, unutkanlık, zihin karışıklığı, hafızada zayıflık, aşırı derecede hayal kurma, tek bir fikir veya düşünceyle meşgul olma, mizah anlayışı kaybı, düşük verimlilik, iş kalitesinde düşüş, hatalarda artış, muhakemede zayıflama.
4. **Sosyal Belirtiler:** İnsanlara karşı güvensizlik, başkalarını suçlamak, randevulara gitmemek veya çok kısa zaman kala iptal etmek, İnsanlarda hata bulmaya çalışmak ve sözle rencide etmek, haddinden fazla savunmacı tutum, birçok kişiye birden küs olmak, konuşmamak.

Olağan durumlar dışında bu belirtiler sık görülmeye başlarsa, bireyler stres altında demektir. Stresi kontrol etmenin ilk adımı, stresin farkında olmaktır. Yapılması gereken, bireyin kendi fiziksel, duygusal, zihinsel ve sosyal özelliklerini iyi analiz etmesi ve normal dışı durumlardaki bu belirtilerin farkına vararak stres yaratıcı durumla en iyi şekilde başa çıkabilmesidir.

7.2.3. Strese Yol Açan Faktörler

Stres oluşumunda birçok çevresel faktör, rol oynamakta ve stres yaratıcı ortam oluşturmaktadır. Günümüzde çalışanlar ve yöneticiler çok rekabetli, değişken, belirsizlik ve hatta muğlaklığın hâkim olduğu iş ortamlarında çalışmaktadırlar. Özellikle stres yaratan faktörler, yönetici ve çalışanların kontrol altına alamayacakları nitelikte, diğer bir deyişle, yakın ve genel çevre koşullarından kaynaklanmakta ise, yönetici ve çalışanlar bu ortamlara özveri ve uyum göstermekte zorlanmaktadırlar. Kendi plan ve programlarını düşündükleri gibi gerçekleştiremeyen ve dış koşulların zorlamasıyla değiştirmek zorunda kalan insanlar büyük stres ya da gerilim yaşamaktadırlar. Stres yaratan faktörleri başlıca üç grupta toplayabiliriz. Bunlar; (1) bireyin kendisi ile ilgili stres kaynakları, (2) bireyin iş çevresinin yarattığı stres kaynakları, (3) bireyin yaşadığı genel çevre ortamının oluşturduğu stres kaynakları (Pehlivan, 1995).

7.2.4. Kişisel Stres Kaynakları

Stres ve örgütsel ilişki arasındaki bağ incelendiğinde işgörenin kişiliğinin de bir örgütsel stres kaynağı olduğunu görmemiz mümkündür. Kişinin çevresini nasıl algıladığı, çevresel değişimlere ve ilişkilere nasıl bir tepki gösterdiği belirli sınırlar içerisinde ilgili kişinin kişiliği ile de ilgilidir. İşgörenin otokratik yapılı biri olması, cinsiyeti, duygusal olarak içe dönük veya dışa dönük bir yapı göstermesi, duygusal açıdan çok çabuk incinmesi, olumsuzluklar karşısında gösterdiği direnç ve genel olarak başarı ihtiyacı, örgütsel yapı içinde birer stres kaynağı olarak karşımıza çıkabilir (Erdoğan, 1999).

İşgörenin örgüt içindeki davranışında kişilik ne kadar önemliyse, bireylerin örgütsel stres kaynaklarından etkilenmesinde de o kadar önemlidir. Genellikle bireyler, strese eğilimli olma düzeyleri açısından birbirlerinden farklıdırlar. İş görenleri, strese eğilimleri bakımından sınıflandıracak olursak A Tipi, B Tipi ve Karma Tip Kişilik özellikleri olmak üzere üç farklı işgören kişiliği ortaya konulabilir (Baltaş ve Baltaş, 1987: 222; Pehlivan, 2000).

A tipi davranış özellikleri genellikle acele konuşmak, diğer insanlar konuşurken acele etmek, hızlı yemek, sırada beklemekten nefret etmek, asla bir şeye yetişmek durumunda olmamak, zamanın elverdiğinden daha fazla etkinlikte dolu bir programa sahip olmak, zamanı boşa harcamaktan nefret etmek, aynı anda bir çok şeyi yapmaya çalışmak, çok yavaş insanlara karşı sabırsızlık, dinlenme, dostluk veya zevk verici şeyler için çok az zaman ayırmaktır. Örgütlerin çoğu A tipi davranışlar gösteren kişileri ödüllendirmekte ve kendi yöneticilerinden A tipi davranış modellerini benimsemelerini beklemektedir. Bu nedenle de örgütlerdeki pek çok birey, fiziksel ve zihinsel sağlığı pahasına bu özellikleri göstermektedir (Pehlivan, 1995).

B tipi davranış özelliği gösteren bireyler, A tipindeki bireylerin tam tersidir. B tipi insanlar, katı kurallardan arınmış ve esnektirler. Zamanı sorun etmezler, rahat ve sabırlıdır. Başarı konusunda aşırı hırslı değildirler. Kolay kolay sinirlenmez ve tedirgin olmazlar. Yaptıkları işten zevk almayı bilirler. İşleriyle ilgili rahatlıkları onlara suçluluk duygusu vermez, sakin ve düzenli çalışırlar. B tipi birey, A tipi bireyin tersine kolay yaşayan bir tiptir. Oldukça açık ve rahattırlar. Zamanla pek ilgilenmezler. Başarı onlara pek fazla bir şey vermez. Başkaları ile yarışa girmezler. Konuşmaları bile daha rahat ve sakin bir tondadır. B tipi birey, kendisinden ve çevresinden emin bir tiptir (Pehlivan, 2000).

Örgütlerde çalışan bireyler, A ve B tipinin özelliklerini karışık olarak da taşıyabilirler. Bu tip bireylere karma tip denmektedir. Ancak önemli olan, bireyin hangi tipin özelliklerine daha yakın davranışlar sergilediğidir. Amaç, iş görenlerin kendisine zarar vermeden, işle ve iş ortamındaki diğer insanlarla barışık bir biçimde çalışmasını sağlamaktır (Pehlivan, 2000).

A ve B tipi kişilerin belirgin özelliklerini aşağıdaki tabloyla özetleme mümkündür (Erdoğan, 1999):

Tablo 1. A ve B Tipi Kişilerin Belirgin Özellikleri

A Tipi Kişilik Özellikleri	B Tipi Kişilik Özellikleri
Sürekli hareket eder.	Zaman ile ilgilenmez.
Hızlı yürür.	Sabırlıdır.
Hızlı yer.	Eğlenmek için oyun oynar.
Hızlı konuşur.	Suçluluk duymadan dinlenir.
Sabırsızdır.	Acelesi yoktur.
İki şeyi aynı anda yapar.	İşi bitirmek için zaman saplantısı yoktur.
Başarıyı, miktarı ile ölçer.	
Rekabeti sever.	
Zaman baskısını hisseder.	

7.2.5. Örgütsel Yapıya Bağlı Stres Kaynakları

Bir örgütteki işgörenleri etkileyen farklı stres kaynakları bulunabilir. Bu kaynaklardan bazıları şunlardır (Pehlivan, 2000):

- İş yükünün fazlalığı
- Zamanın sınırlılığı
- Denetimin sıkı ve yakından olması
- Yetkinin sorumlulukları karşılamada yetersiz olması
- Politik havanın güvensizliği
- Rol belirsizliği
- Örgüt ve bireyin değerleri arasındaki uyumsuzluk
- Engellenme
- Rol çatışması
- Sorumlulukların yarattığı endişe
- Çalışma koşulları
- İnsan ilişkileri
- Yabancılaşma

Çalışma hayatı ile ilgili stres kaynakları, yöneticiler için sürekli sorun yaratırlar. Kaynaklar fark edilmeyince, etkili bir şekilde yönetilmeleri mümkün olamaz, bunun sonucunda da kronik stres kaynakları haline dönüşürler (Şahin, 1995).

Örgütsel stres kaynakları şöyle sıralanabilir (Schafer, 1987. Akt. Pehlivan, 1995; Ertekin, 1993):

1. Örgütsel Politikalar:

- Adaletsiz veya yetersiz performans değerlendirme
- Adaletsiz ödeme
- Keyfi ve belirsiz politikalar
- İşin dönerli olarak verilmesi
- İdealist iş tanımları

2. Örgütsel Yapı:

- Merkezilik, karara katılmada yetersizlik
- Gelişme veya ilerleme fırsatının azlığı
- Aşırı biçimsellik
- Emeğin bölünmesi ve aşırı uzmanlaşma
- Örgütün, birimlerin birbirine bağımlılığı

3. Örgütsel Süreç:

- Zayıf iletişim
- Performansa ilişkin dönüt eksikliği veya zayıflığı
- Amaçların belirsizliği veya çatışması
- Yetiştirme programları

İş gerekleri ve rol özelliklerine ilişkin stres kaynakları ise, şöyle sıralanabilir (Schafer, 1987. Akt. Pehlivan, 1995):

1. Çalışma Koşulları:

- Kalabalık
- Gizliliğin korunamayışı
- Mekân düzenlemesinin kötü oluşu
- Zehirli kimyasal maddelerin varlığı

2. İş Koşulları:

- Güvenlik tehlikesi
- Hava kirliliği
- Radyasyon

3. Kişilerarası İlişkiler:

- Adaletsiz veya saygısız deneticiler
- Kabul ve tanınma yoksunluğu
- Güven yoksunluğu
- Yarışma (Rekabet)
- Temsil sorumluluklarında güçlük
- Gruplar arası ve grup içi çatışmalar

4. İş Gerekleri:

- Tekrarlı çalışma
- Zaman baskısı ve iş teslimatı
- Beceri gereğinin azlığı
- Başka kişilerden sorumlu olma
- Eksik veya fazla istihdam

5. Rol Özellikleri:

- Rol çatışması
- Rol belirsizliği
- Rolün az veya fazla oluşu
- Rol-statü uyumsuzluğu

7.2.6. Örgüt Dışı Stres Kaynakları

İş görenlerin örgüt içinde çalıştıkları çevrenin dışında bir de toplumsal yani genel çevresi vardır. Toplumsal çevrenin iş görenden istediği eylem ve işlemler, iş görenlerle ilgili diğer bireylerin

beklentileriyle şekillenir. Birey üzerinde toplumsal bir baskı vardır. Bu baskı, yasal yollarla olabileceği gibi, gelenek ve göreneklerle de olabilir (Başaran, 1982).

Modern dünyanın insanı açısından stres kaynaklarını işe bağlı olup olmaması bakımından ayırmak her zaman kolay olmamaktadır. Çünkü günümüzde birey, iş, aile ve sosyal çevre üçgeni arasında yaşantısını sürdürmekte, zaman zaman iş hayatını iş dışı yaşantısı etkilemekte veya tersi durumlarla karşı karşıya kalmaktadır.

İş dışı olan ancak bireyi işinde de etkileyen stres kaynakları, genellikle yeni bir çocuğun doğumu, şiddetli geçimsizlik, ekonomik yetersizlikler gibi ailevi olaylar; beklenmedik bir harcama yapmak zorunda kalınması, düşük ücretle çalışmak gibi ekonomik sorunlar ve daha önce uğraşılan bir hobiden vazgeçilmesi ya da kişinin düzenli bir hayat yaşayamaması gibi kişisel ilişkilerdir (Pehlivan, 2000).

Ekonomik yetersizlikler ve ücretlerin düşüklüğü nedeniyle iş görenlerin ekonomik ve sosyal ihtiyaçlarını karşılayamamaları ilgili kişilerin ikinci bir iş bulup çalışmak zorunda kalmalarına neden olmaktadır. Özellikle gündüz çalışan bireylerin, gece ikinci bir işe devam etmeleri ya da hafta sonları çalışmak zorunda kalmaları, bu bireyler üzerindeki iş baskısını artırmakta doğal olarak da stres kaynakları yoğunlaşmaktadır. Ekonomik nedenlerden dolayı gelecek endişesi yaşayan bireylerdeki stres durumları daha da ileri boyutlara ulaşmaktadır.

7.2.7. Stres Yönetimi

Stresle başa çıkmak ve yaşam kalitesini artırmak amacıyla, durumu ya da duruma verilen tepkileri değiştirmeye stres yönetimi denir.

Bireysel olarak kullanılan bazı stratejiler, stresle başa çıkmada çok gerekli ve önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Bu stratejilerin ortak yönü, hemen hemen tümünün kişisel alışkanlıklar ile fiziksel, psikolojik ve davranışsal yapıların kontrol altına alınmasını öngörmeleridir. Böylece bedende başlayan ve zararlı olan stres tepkisi karşı önlemler alınarak etkisiz kılınmaya çalışılmaktadır. Bireysel olarak stresle başa çıkmada, bedensel hareketler (egzersiz), solunum egzersizi, meditasyon, biyo feedback (biyolojik dönüt), gevşeme (relaxation), beslenme ve diyet, toplumsal destek alma, sosyal, kültürel ve sportif etkinliklere katılma, masaj, dua ve ibadet, zaman yönetimi gibi teknikler yararlı olabilir (Pehlivan, 1995).

Erdoğan (1999) ise, stresle başa çıkmada bireysel stratejiler olarak, etkili bir zaman yönetimi, rahatlama uygulamalarını, olumlu hayal kurmayı, egzersiz ve beden hareketlerini, davranışsal açıdan kişinin kendini kontrol etmesini, iletişim kurmayı, meditasyon, gıda kontrolü ve masajı, bireyin kendine özgü bir hobi edinmesini ve dışı dönüklüğü önermektedir.

7.2.8. Stresle Başa Çıkmada Örgütsel Stratejiler

Stresle başa çıkmada yararlanılabilecek örgütsel mücadele yöntemleri, bireyler üzerindeki iş stresini azaltmak veya önlemek amacıyla geliştirilmelidir. Örgütsel stresörler arasında yer alan genel politikalar, işletmenin yapısal bozuklukları, fiziksel ortam yetersizliklerine ilişkin olumlu düzenlemeler stres yönetiminin örgütsel boyutunu ilgilendirmektedir (Erdoğan, 1999).

İş yaşamından kaynaklanan stresle başa çıkma stratejileri, işgörenlerin iş stresini azaltmak ya da önlemek için örgüt düzeyindeki stres kaynaklarının kontrol edilmesi ve azaltılması için yapılan yönetsel düzenlemelerdir. Örgüt düzeyinde ortaya konan siyasalar, yapılar, fiziksel koşullar ve süreçle ilgili stres kaynaklarının azaltılması veya önlenmesi gerekmektedir. Örgütsel stresin azaltılması için kullanılabilecek genel stratejiler arasında şunları saymak mümkündür (Ertekin, 1993; Erdoğan, 1999; Pehlivan, 2000).

1. **Destekleyici Bir Örgütsel Hava Yaratmak:** Birçok örgütte, bürokratik ve resmi bir yapı ile birlikte katı ve kişisel olmayan bir hava vardır. Bu durum önemli bir stres kaynağıdır. Daha az merkeziyetçi, kararlara katılımı sağlayan, yukarıya doğru iletişime izin veren bir yapı kurulması, örgütsel stresle başa çıkmada etkili bir yöntem olabilir. Yönetim, işgörenler için destekleyici bir organizasyonel yapı geliştirmelidir. Örgütün işleyişi planlanırken yapıyı merkeziyetten uzak,

katılımı destekleyici, ortak karar vermeyi özendirici biçimde oluşturmak örgütsel stresi azaltacaktır.

2. **İşin Zenginleştirilmesi:** İş zenginleştirme, hem işin içerdiği sorumluluk, tanınma, başarı fırsatı gibi etmenlerin hem de farklı beceriler, görevin kimliği, anlamlılığı, özerklik gibi işin özüne ilişkin niteliklerin geliştirilmesini içerir. Zenginleştirilmiş görevler, daha rutin ve yapılandırılmış işlere nazaran stres kaynaklarının azaltılmasını sağlayacaktır. Bazı işgörenler için zenginleştirilmiş işlerin daha çok sters yarattığı da unutulmamalıdır. Dikkatle yapılmış görevsel düzenlemeler, iş stresi ile başa çıkmada etkili bir yoldur. İş, içerik olarak zenginleştirilip kişiye daha fazla sorumluluk verilebilir, önüne başarı fırsatları çıkarılabilir, kendi gayretine göre yükselmesi sağlanabilir. Bu durumda işgörende aranan becerilerde çeşitlilik yaratılır, yapılan işlerin önem derecesi belirlenir, kişilerin anlamlı işler yapmalarına olanak sağlanır.
3. **Örgütsel Rollerin Belirlenmesi ve Çatışmaların Azaltılması:** Rol çatışması ve belirsizlikler, bireysel stres kaynaklarının başında gelmektedir. Yöneticiler, örgütsel rollerin belirsizliğini ve çatışmalarını ortadan kaldırarak bunun neden olduğu stresi azaltabilirler. Her görev, işgörene destek olacak açık beklentileri ve gerekli bilgiyi içermelidir. İyi bir organizasyon, yeterli hizmet içi eğitimi ve bizzat iş üzerinde verilecek bilgi ve eğitim, kişilerin ne yapacaklarını gösteren görev tarifleri ve çalışanlardan zamansız bilgi istemeyi engellemeye dönük düzenlemeler rol belirsizliğini ve kişilerarası çatışmayı önemli ölçüde azaltabilir. Çatışmayı önleyici düzenlemeler, işin yapısına, işgören ve yöneticinin beklentilerine uygun olmalıdır.
4. **Mesleki Gelişim Yollarının Planlanması ve Danışmanlık:** Örgütlerde genellikle, işgörenlerin mesleki gelişim planlaması ile ilgili geçişlerin ve yükselmenin geleneksel yollarla yapıldığı görülmektedir. Bireylerin yükselme ve ilerlemeleri, genellikle bir yönetici tarafından yapılmaktadır. Büyük örgütlerde, bireylerin sonraki pozisyonlarının ne olacağı ve ne yapacaklarını bilmemek, büyük bir stres kaynağıdır. Oysa mesleki planlama tekniklerinin kullanılması, örgütlerde stresle mücadele etmede önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. İşgörenlere kendilerini değerlendirme ve kendini anlama becerisini geliştirmeye yönelik yardımların sağlanması gerekir.
5. **İşyerinde Neşeli Bir Ortam Yaratmak:** Büyük örgütlerin çoğu, işyerinde neşeli bir ortam yaratmanın önemini kavramış olduğundan, bu örgütlerde işgörenler arasında mizah ve şakanın kullanılması teşvik edilmektedir. İşyerinde mizahın ve insanları güldüren etkinliklerin artırılması, mevcut stres kaynaklarını azaltmakta ve işgörenlerin verimliliklerini arttırmaktadır.

Örgüt kaynaklı stresle başa çıkmada ve örgütsel kararlılığı sürdürmede yöneticilerin önemli etkileri olduğu kuşkusuzdur. Etkili yöneticiler, verimliliği yalnızca kısa dönemde istemez sağlıklı, iş doyumunu yüksek işgörenlerin örgütün uzun dönemli yararları için hayati bir öneme sahip olduğunu bilir. Başarılı yöneticiler, optimal iş stresininin verim için gerekli olduğuna inanır. Örgütlerde yöneticilere, işgörenlerin stresle başa çıkmalarını sağlayacak ve aşırı stres altında kalmalarını önleyecek bazı görevler düşmektedir (Schafer, 1987: 323. Akt. Pehlivan, 2000: 162):

- Örgütte çalışmak için yeterince çekici bir ortam sağlayarak iş doyumunu yükseltmek.
- Rol çatışmaları ve rol belirsizliğini en aza indirmek için olabildiğince açık ve uyumlu rol beklentileri sağlamak.
- Sürekli olarak ne aşırı işyükü ne de işyükü azlığı olması konusunda duyarlı olma ve uygun yöntemler kullanarak çalışmalarını yönetmek.
- Örgütte değişme ve süreklilik arasında iyi bir denge kurmak.
- Çalışanları sürekli destekleyerek, teşvik etmek, personelin gereksinimlerini karşılayarak onları değerlendirmek, çalışanlar arasında grup çalışmalarını desteklemek ve gruba bağlılığın sağlanmasını teşvik etmek.

- Mümkün olduğu ölçüde, her işgörene kısa dönemli verimlilik kadar, uzun dönemli sağlıklı iş doyumunu, kendini ifade etme olanağı sağlayarak, işyerindeki yöntem ve ilerlemenin gerçekleştirilmesi için en üst düzeyde esneklik göstermek.
- Bütün çalışanlara, onların kararlarında etkili olacak fırsatlar sağlamak.
- Gereksiz strese yol açabilecek iş koşullarına ve örgüt içindeki stres düzeyine karşı dikkatli olmak.
- Stres içindeki işgörenler için stres yönetimi hizmetlerinin desteklemek.
- Bütün çalışanlar için, stres kaynaklarının neler olduğunu öğrenme ve mücadele etme fırsatları sağlamak.

Ayrıca yöneticiler, örgütlerinde çalıştırdıkları işgörenlerin örgüt dışı stres kaynaklarının, örgütsel strese de yol açacağını düşünüp gerekli önlemleri almalıdırlar. Birey, sosyal bir varlık olduğundan ister istemez iş dışındaki yani ister aile ile ilgili olsun, isterse genel çevre şartlarıyla ilgili olsun stres verici durumları iş ortamlarına taşıyabilirler. Bu durumda yöneticiye düşen görev, işgörenini çok iyi tanıyıp hangi koşulların strese neden olduğunu öğrenmek ve stresle başa çıkmada etkili yöntemleri uygulamaktır.

7.2.9. Stres Yönetiminde DKBY (Değiştir-Kabul Et-Boşver-Yaşam Tarzını Yönet) Modeli:

Stres yönetimi son safhada ‘yaşam tarzı yönetimi’dir. Stresi yönetmeye karar vermek demek, bireyin duygusal, fiziksel ve ruhsal yaşam kalitesini yükseltmeye karar vermesi demektir. Braham’ın geliştirdiği DKBY, bireylerin yaşadıkları stresi kontrol altına almaları, yönetmeleri için geliştirilen dört aşamalı bir modeldir. Bu yaklaşım aşağıda kısaca açıklanmaktadır (Braham, 1998: 57-59).

İlk adım olan D (Değiştir), imkanınız varsa, içinde bulunduğunuz olumsuz durumu değiştirmektir. Olumsuz durumu değiştirebilirdeniz, bu durumun sebep olduğu stresi tamamen ortadan kaldırmayı başabilirsiniz.

İkinci adım, K (Kabul et)’dir. Kontrol edemeyeceğiniz durumlarla karşılaşabilirsiniz. Bu adımda, kontrol edemeyeceğiniz koşulları öfkelenmeden kabul etmeyi ve pozitif yaklaşımınızı kaybetmemeyi öğrenmelisiniz.

Üçüncü adım olan B ‘Boşver’i temsil etmektedir. Boş vermek duygusal, zihinsel ve ruhsal açıdan işe yarayan güçlü bir yöntemdir. Değiştiremeyeceğimiz durumları kontrol etmeye çalışmak bizi kontrol saplantısına götürür. Bu durum da strese sebep olur.

Dördüncü adım ise, Y, ‘yaşam tarzını yönet’dir. Bu adımda egzersiz, diyet, rahatlama ve duygusal destek yoluyla, gelecekte stres oluşturabilecek unsurlarla bu günden mücadele etmeyi sağlar.

8. Sonuç Ve Değerlendirme

Klasik yönetim anlayışı bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmeler neticesinde etkinliğini yitirmiş ve yerini çağdaş yönetim tekniklerine bırakmıştır. Bu gelişmelere paralel olarak örgütler de personel yönetimi anlayışını terk ederek insan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışına geçmiştir. İnsan kaynakları yönetimi personel yönetimine nazaran daha kapsayıcıdır ve insanı bütün yönleriyle değerlendirmekte ve dikkate almaktadır. Çağdaş yönetim teknikleri insan merkezlidir ve bu anlayışın yansımalarını her alanda görmek mümkündür.

İnsan kaynakları yönetimi anlayışına göre, insan üretim araçları içinde en değerlisidir. Örgütsel etkinlik ve verimlilik bu kaynağın etkinliğine ve verimliliğine bağlıdır. O halde bu kaynağın bütün ihtiyaçları dikkate alınmalı ve tatmin edilmelidir. Ancak bu şekilde onun etkinliği, verimliliği ve performansı artırılabilir. İnsanın etkinliği ve verimliliği onun ihtiyaç, istek ve beklentileriyle paralellik göstermektedir. Çalışanların en önemli ihtiyaçlarından birisi de kariyer yapmaktır. Örgütsel amaç ve hedeflerin gerçekleştirilmesinde kariyer yönetimi önemli bir araç olarak kullanılabilir. Bu nedenle örgütler kendi kariyer planları ile çalışanların kariyer planlarını uyumlaştırmalı, hem kendi kariyer planlarını hem de çalışanların kariyer planlarını geliştirmek için esaslı bir kariyer yönetimi sistemi oluşturmalıdır.

Kariyer yönetimini etkin bir biçimde kullanamayan örgütler pek çok sorunla karşı karşıya kalabilirler. Pek çok çalışan kendi kariyeri için bir gelecek görmediği örgütü en kısa sürede terk etmek isteyecektir. Bu durum örgütsel iklimin, kültürün, iletişimin ve güvenliğin bozulmasına yol açacaktır. Sonuçta örgütsel etkinlik, verimlilik ve performans düşecektir. Etkin bir kariyer yönetimiyle örgütsel etkinlik, verimlilik ve performans yükseltilebilir.

İnsan kaynağının yönetimiyle ilgili ortaya çıkan gelişmeler neticesinde örgütlerin kariyer yönetimi anlayışı da değişmiş, planlı ve bilinçli bir uygulama çerçevesinde çalışanların kariyer ihtiyaçları birlikte, bireyleri kariyer geliştirmede kendi haline bırakan personel yönetimi anlayışı terk edilerek, hem örgütsel kariyer planlanmış hem de bireysel kariyer planlarına örgütsel destek sağlanmıştır. Ayrıca bütün bu çalışmalar geniş bir perspektifle ele alınmakta ve değerlendirilmektedir.

Örgütsel faaliyet yaşamında önemli sorunlardan biri olan stresin oluşumunda birçok çevresel faktör, rol oynamakta ve stres yaratıcı ortam oluşturmaktadır. Günümüzde çalışanlar ve yöneticiler çok rekabetli, değişken, belirsizlik ve hatta muğlaklığın hâkim olduğu iş ortamlarında çalışmaktadırlar. Özellikle stres yaratan faktörler, yönetici ve çalışanların kontrol altına alamayacakları nitelikte, diğer bir deyişle, yakın ve genel çevre koşullarından kaynaklanmakta ise, yönetici ve çalışanlar bu ortamlara özveri ve uyum göstermekte zorlanmaktadırlar.

Stresle etkili bir biçimde başa çıkılması gerekir. Stresle başa çıkmada herkes için iyi olan ortak bir çözüm yolu yoktur. Her insanın zayıf noktası, devamlı olarak strese maruz kaldığı zaman açık veren zayıf bir yönü vardır. Bundan dolayı, kişi kendi kişilik ve yaşam tarzına uygun olan yöntemleri bulup denemelidir. Bir başka deyişle birey stresinin yönetimini ele almalıdır.

Öneriler: Yöneticiler örgütteki en değerli kaynağın insan olduğu bilinciyle hareket etmeli, örgütsel etkinlik ve verimliliğin insan kaynakları yönetiminde gösterilecek başarıya bağlı olduğu unutulmamalıdır. Örgütsel amaç ve hedefler gerçekleştirilirken, bireysel talep ve beklentiler de tatmin edilmeli, çalışanların yalnızca maddi değil aynı zamanda manevi ödülleriyle de motive edilebileceği göz önünde tutulmalıdır. Bireylerin pek çoğu için kariyer yapmanın maddi ödüllerden daha önemli olduğu akıldan çıkarılmamalıdır. Etkili bir kariyer yönetimiyle çalışanların motivasyonları sağlanabilir ve performansları artırılabilir. İyi bir kariyer yönetimi adil, şeffaf, tarafsız ve destekleyici olmalı, aynı zamanda hakkaniyeti göz önünde bulundurmalıdır. Kariyer yapma imkân ve fırsatı herkese tanınmalı, kariyer kanalları tüm çalışanlar için açık olmalıdır. Kariyer yapma imkânları personeli örgütüne bağladığı gibi, dışarıdaki nitelikli insanları da örgüte çekecektir. Kariyer basamakları için gerekli olan nitelikler önceden belirlenmeli, örgütün kariyer basamakları için kullanılacak bireysel veriler gerçekçi ve doğru olmalıdır. Kariyer yönetimi sürecinde sübjektif değerlendirmelerden kaçınmak gerekir.

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The Relationship between Foreign Direct Investment and Employment: The Case of Balkan Countries

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Abstract: The cross-border production activities of Multi-National Companies (MNC) in the 19th century can be accepted as the starting point of the capital mobility on the global level. Afterwards the improvements in transportation technology and especially the stunning improvements in the information and communication technologies in the last quarter century make this process to reach to very high levels. At the point this process has reached so far, new investment and production methods have arisen. Globalization, improvements in information and communication technologies and financial deregulation are the important economic facts that affect all economies in the World. Over-accumulation of capital in the advanced industrialized countries is directed to other countries through multi-national companies for the purpose of earning high profits through the capital factor. FDI can be defined as the physical investment that moves from one country to another. FDI generally moves from developed countries to developing countries. FDI can be seen some kind of new investment that increases the production and employment capacity of a country and also in comparison to financial capital investment its long-term contribution to economy is likely to be more. In this research, the sample size covers twelve Balkan states. Based on the findings, theoretical approaches will be evaluated and also some policy recommendations will be presented about the effect of FDI on employment.

Key Words: Foreign Direct Investment, Employment, Dynamic Panel Data Analysis

JEL Codes: F21, J21, C23

1. Introduction

The result of Feldstein and Horioka's studies (1980) that the majority of the savings are prone to be kept within the country as disagreeing the hypothesis of indefinite capital movement throughout the world gave rise to discussion in the related literature. The study results increased the interest in the financial integration and financial openness degree among countries so that direct foreign capital movements attracted more importance.

Following the globalization and financial liberalization movements, a new period in which capital movements dramatically increased is started. Globalization and capital movements gained an important degree of acceleration in global manners after the cold war period. The interest shifted to developing economies in which return on capital might be higher and to the regions which offer cheaper labor force following the financial freedom. (Sever at. all., 2010). After the year of 1990, planned economies which are also known as transition economies are transferred to free market economies and this increased the international product and service movements.

Capital movements offer facilities to eliminate insufficient saving and investment shortage being one of the most important problems of developing countries. The importance of direct foreign investments steadily increased in developing countries as parallel to the fact that borrowing from international markets is hardened. The shortage in investment and saving give reason to insufficient resource utilization in the economy and likewise result in insufficient employment situation and unemployment.

Investments are undoubtedly the leading factor in countries' developments and growing. In the countries, which capital accumulation is insufficient, investment level is low and this fact reduces the country's development efforts, competitiveness ability against the other countries and the countries' own citizens' living standards and welfare. Furthermore, necessary level of national capital saving is required for investment and development. However, the countries which have saving difficulties and shortages, can handle their capital requirements through either borrowing or direct foreign investment ways. (Ayaydin, 2010, 134; Hon, 2015).

In the recent years, FDI is considered as the leading factor of growing for especially developing countries. This important side of foreign investments gives reasons for many academics to produce studies about this subject. In this phase, the subjects of that to which countries FDI is made and what kind of effects the countries experience became highly popular. Additionally, it also offers new markets to FDI for also the planned economies which are disunited after the year of 1990. Many advantages might be had for increasing export rates, developing economies, prices and more quality goods and services (Strata et al, 2015).

The thoughts about direct foreign capital investments are not solely positive and may differentiate. Economic policy makers and academics have worries about that the increase in international trade and direct foreign capital movements can create serious effects on labor demand for developed countries. The results of operations of firms which have foreign investments might dramatically increase salaries of especially qualified workers and this might produce pressure on the general payment structure (Driffielda, Taylor, 2000). Foreign investors caused some sort of macroeconomic effects on the economies they made investments. Foreign firms have advantages on relatively new technologies, on cost and competition subjects comparing to local firms. This condition creates serious differences on local and foreign firms' productivities. The productivity differences between local and foreign firms are defined in international business literature as technological or asset superiority which foreign firms carry (Driffielda, Taylor, 2000; Blomstrom, Fors, and Lipsey 1997). Another effect of foreign-owned firms is spreading effect. It is about the degree of how local firms internalize the technologies which are utilized by the foreign-owned firms. The productivity of unqualified workers might also be increased if local firms are able to internalize the technological developments (Driffielda, Taylor, 2000).

FDI is generally evaluated as either the produced positive effects for increase in employment opportunities and increase in country production capacities or negative effects as for country disturbances and market instability conditions created by foreign investments (Shahrestani 1984). Till the recent years, FDI was considered as a negative condition for host countries. The competition between foreign-owned firms and local firms gave reason to see the FDI as negative conditions in the market. In spite of all the negative factors, many countries want to turn their economies more attractive for foreign investments making structural and legal amends. In particularly, many countries offer many financial incentives as making necessary regulations in tax systems for these purposes (Dooley and Kletzer, 1994; Abor, Harvey, 2008; Omprasad, 2015).

In the analysis of the direct foreign investor indicators, macroeconomic stability is found as the leading factor. However, nowadays only macroeconomic stability is not enough to attract foreign investors to countries so that political stability, level of corruption and straightforwardness in bureaucratic operations are also important factors. Inflation rate, employments and unemployment rates are the leading factors for evaluating the macroeconomic stability (Strata et al, 2015). Other leading indicators could be listed as market magnitude and trade openness, acquisition, purchasing and corporate finance, exchange rates and production costs (Andersen, Hainaut, 1998; Topal, Gül, 2016; Wang, et al., 2015; Hussain & Haque, 2014).

Direct foreign capital movements can enter an economy in several different means. As acquiring an existing firm, establishing a firm from the beginning or making portfolio investment, direct foreign capital movements could have place. Direct foreign capital movements create many macroeconomic effects regardless of the way they enter into the economy.

Foreign-owned firms might affect host country's economic growth in negative means as having unfair competition superiority against the local firms which could not have competition chance because of foreign-owned companies' superior qualifications including their capital, advanced technological and

management skills; and while creating technological dependence as creating the technology their own countries and bringing and selling them to the host investment countries (Ayaydin, 2010, 135).

2. Balkan Countries Employment and Direct Foreign Capital Movements

Another indicator of the economic integration which is increased in the globalization world is direct foreign capital investments. These investments are taken place much over the numbers including growth, distance, foreign trade after 1980s (Andersen, Hainaut, 1998). Balkan countries are considered as the potential countries for many countries after the year of 1990. Geographic advantages and transition economies countries became new market opportunities for foreign capital investments.

On the other hand, nowadays, Balkan countries include the countries which have the highest level of poverty within Europe. The regions of Europe and especially Kosovo region in which education level is low and infant mortality rates are high are far behind the developed Western Europe. However, the conditions do not require that all of the Balkan countries are undeveloped. There are more developed Balkan countries as compared to developed planned economies like Czech Republic and Poland. They only include the less-developed countries comparing to developed Western Europe countries. In the historical perspectives, Balkan countries generally are the late industrialized and developed in agricultural sectors countries. Nowadays, Balkan countries and their economies have experienced hard and slow transition. There have been many transformations in many subjects including planned economies' privatization operations, sustaining the monetary balance, transition in banking sector, social security problems (Economics, 2015). This kind of transition, on the other hand, creates many opportunities for new global capital. Real sector investments of the banking and finance sectors related to the regions and the interest of the foreign investors are on the region. In the analysis of the rates of foreign investments to Gross National Products, shown in table-1, serious increases between the two periods bring forward this result.

Balkan countries had important changes and development processes. After 1990, serious reforms and regulations were applied. Structural regulations including increasing the importance of private sector, industrialization attempts emphasizing the export and increasing the investments; and establishing free market institutions to be able to be a part of the global trade, establishing the banking system from the beginning and the reforms made in regional level. As a result of these reforms, strong economic growth in the region, improvements in the macroeconomic indicators and the increase in the personal welfare levels are experienced (Regional Economic Issues, 2015).

Growth rates of the Balkan countries in the year of 2005 were higher than the EU countries average. In the year of 2007, due to the crisis starting in USA, Balkan countries started to have economic difficulties on financial access and social security problems (Balkan Economic Forum, 2015). 2008 Global financial crisis affected the Balkan economies and reduced the reform speed so that the improvements are slowed down. The region's economic weaknesses and the reforms which were nearly stopped brought forward high level of unemployment (Regional Economic Issues, 2015). The spreading of the economic crisis throughout the Balkan was taken place in two channels as one international trade and the other was direct foreign capital channels. Global crisis caused the increase in the public borrowing for Balkan countries. Since the crisis, big amount of saving exits to other countries were taken place and the demand for Balkan products and raw materials were reduced (Balkan Economic Forum, 2015).

Table 1. Balkan Countries FDI and Employment Data

Countries	Employment		Unemployment		FDI/GDP	
	1991-2000	2000-2014	1991-2000	2000-2014	1991-2000	2000-2014
Albania	15.65	14.28	15.65	14.28	2.73	6.85
Bosnia and Herzegovina	33.93	32.61	25.68	27.02	0.59	4.20
Bulgaria	45.9	46.22	15.86	11.76	2.04	9.97
Croatia	49.61	45.35	10.62	13.67	1.63	4.71
Greece	46.31	45.86	9.36	13.59	0.70	0.80
Kosovo	N.A.	30.52	N.A.	30.52	N.A.	4.78
Macedonia	36.9	36.4	32.23	32.93	0.91	4.70
Montenegro	42.32	41.06	20.16	19.51	N.A.	10.07
Romania	58.41	53.28	7.22	7.06	1.66	4
Serbia	46.95	44	14.87	18.21	0.50	6.25
Slovenia	52.81	54.38	6.95	6.89	0.50	1.85
Turkey	49.1	42.95	7.76	10.1	0.43	1.68

Source: Calculated in World Bank Data for the years of 1991-2014.

Employment, unemployment and direct foreign capital movements belong to Balkan countries could be seen in Table 1. In spite of 2008 global crisis, a serious increase in direct foreign capital movements related to the period of 2000-2014 could be seen.

Balkan economies became dependent to direct foreign capital movements since they have had internal saving shortages and they have not had necessary amount of capital required for economic growth. Foreign firms froze their investments in the period of crisis and public privatization projects were canceled due to low level proposals. The sectors which direct foreign investors generally had interest on are energy, telecommunication, banking, finance and insurance, real-estate; industrial production and retail trade sector (Balkan Economic Forum, 2015).

The leading countries which made direct foreign capital investments to Balkan Countries are Netherlands, Austria, Britain, Germany, Norway, Belgium, France, Cyprus, Russia, Switzerland, USA, Italy, Luxembourg and Spain. The region countries which had important amount of foreign investments before the 2007 financial crisis experienced a reduction in the foreign investments after the crisis. Although foreign investments were reduced since of the crisis, some of the Balkan counties continued to receive foreign investments because of their geographical conditions. For example, Bulgaria is an attractive country in terms of FDI because of the fact that it had low level of inflation in the year of 2014, had a growth performance higher than the EU counties' average, its public borrowing rate to gross domestic product as 18,9%. On the other hand, cheap and qualified labor force, being member of EU, consistent prices under the monetary committee and low level of tax rates are the other leading factors being Bulgaria attractive for FDI (Balkan Economic Forum, 2015).

3. Literature

Çinko (2009) emphasized that FDI causes increase in national earning and improvements in macroeconomic data in his study of FDI's macroeconomic effects to Turkey. One of the macroeconomic effects of FDI is that demand for labor force is increased. The study was conducted as a literature research. Bülbül and Emirmahmutoğlu (2010) in their study, which they evaluated the effect of FDI to employments through banking sector case study, determined a positive and statistically meaningful relationship between FDI and employment through a model established for only foreign-owned banks.

Chaudhuria and Banerjeeb (2010) analyzed the effects of FDI which are made for agricultural sector to both qualified and unqualified labor force unemployment. In the study, FDI was found as not a factor that increases the national welfare however it reduces both kinds of unemployment.

Saray (2011) evaluated the relationship between FDI and employment for Turkish Economy for the period of 1970-2009. In the study, meaningful relationship between two variables could not be found according to ARDL co-integration test and error correction model.

Thangavelu and Narjoko (2014) evaluated the effects of foreign investments made in ASEAN countries for the period of 2009-2009 utilizing the gravity model. In the study, the factors which affect FDI flow including humanitarian development and whether being a member of dual or regional trade agreements conditions were also especially taken into account.

Schmerer (2014) tested the relationship between FDI and unemployment utilizing the Diff-GMM method and the data belong to 19 OECD countries during the period of 1982-2003. In the global economies where access to global financial markets are relatively easier, investments made to foreign countries cause serious advantageous in terms of employments and low level of unemployment. Positive effect of direct foreign investments to employment is dependent to the net FDI. As a result of the study, it was found out that net FDI causes lower level of unemployment. In the study, unemployment was utilized as a dependent variable. FDI and other macro variables were used as independent variables. In the study, it was emphasized that the negative relationship between turbulences of net FDI and employment was rooted from the amount of net FDI and this also has similarities with the study suggestions.

Jude and Silaghi (2015), in their studies, evaluated the effects of direct foreign capital investments made in 20 Middle and East Europe Countries belong to the period of 1995-2012 as utilizing the dynamic labor force demand model. In the study, Dynamic Panel Data method was utilized as the main method. In their study, they stated that FDI causes to creative disruption as a phenomenon. Foreign investment causes a negative effect to labor savings at the first place. However, in the long run, it creates positive effects with the vertical combination. On the other hand, they depicted that these negative effects are only experienced in the EU countries. Furthermore, FDI has a dominant effect on the employment; FDI produces positive effects for employment. As a result of the study, employment is positively affected by depending on the foreign production. Employment data was utilized as a dependent variable in the study. Real national earning growth rate, real price, FDI, Import and Export, transition index, crisis dummy, European Union membership dummy, humanitarian capital and income per capita (as taking the logarithm) variables were utilized as independent variables in the study. There could not be found a relationship between employment and FDI as a result of the study. However, meaningful and positive relationship was found out in four models when FDI values are applied as one period late. In the study, it was determined that in the long run, meaningful relationship becomes stronger.

Strata, Davidescu and Paul (2015), in their study, evaluated the relationship between FDI and unemployment in the short run using the world bank data set belong to 13 countries which were the latest members of EU, for the period of 1991-2012. In the study, causality relationship between the two variables was found out in the short run. Unemployment rate was considered as macroeconomic consistency indicator in the study.

4. Methodology and Data Set

In this study, the period of 1991-2014 and 12 Balkan countries are taken as sample. The panel data sets belong to these countries are organized as taking from World Bank. The study is established over mainly three models. In the study, i and t are the concepts for country and time periods and λt is the concept showing the unit effects, ϵ_{it} is error term which has zero average, constant variance and independent distribution. The model used in this study is established as developing the models which are used in the studies of Abor and Harvey (2008); Schmerer (2014); Rubio and Mora (2015). Dynamic Panel Data Model (Generalized Method of Moment-GMM) which was developed by Arellano and Bond (1991) is utilized in the study. Dynamic data method is preferred because of the fact that investments create employment opportunities and also the dynamic process and delays of economic effects.

$$\text{Model 1a} : \text{Empy} = \alpha_1 \text{Empy}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{Lfdi}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Model 1b} : \text{Empy} = \alpha_1 \text{Empy}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{Lfdi}_{it} + \alpha_3 \text{Grow}_{it} + \alpha_4 \text{Lgdppc}_{it} + \alpha_5 \text{Inf}_{it} + \alpha_6 \text{R}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Model 2a} : \text{Empy} = \alpha_1 \text{Empy}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{fdiGdp} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Model 2b} : \text{Empy} = \alpha_1 \text{Empy}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{fdiGdp}_{it} + \alpha_3 \text{Grow}_{it} + \alpha_4 \text{Lgdppc}_{it} + \alpha_5 \text{Inf}_{it} + \alpha_6 \text{R}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Model 3a} : \text{Empnt} = \alpha_1 \text{Empnt}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{Lfdi}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Model 3b} : \text{Empnt} = \alpha_1 \text{Empnt}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \text{Lfdi}_{it} + \alpha_3 \text{Grow}_{it} + \alpha_4 \text{Lgdppc}_{it} + \alpha_5 \text{Inf}_{it} + \alpha_6 \text{R}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Model 4} : \text{Unp} = \alpha_1 \text{Unp}_{i,t-2} + \alpha_2 \text{Unp}_{i,t-1} + \alpha_3 \text{Grow}_{it} + \alpha_4 \text{Lgdppc}_{it} + \alpha_5 \text{Inf}_{it} + \alpha_6 \text{R}_{it} + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (7)$$

The variables used in the model represent the following: Empy: employer, Empnt: employment, Lfdi: direct foreign capital movement, Grow: GDP growth, Lgdppc GDP per capita, Inf: customer price index, R: reel interest rate.

Table 2. Variables and Expectancy Indicators

Variables	Definition	Expectancy Indicator	Related Study
Empy	Employer		Bitzenis, Vlachos (2013)
Empnt	Employment		
Unp	Unemployment		Brady, Wallace (2000); Hassan, Mitra, Ranjan, Ahsan, (2012): Schmerer (2014); Rubio, Mora (2015); Abor, Harvey (2008), Waldkirch, Nunnenkamp, Bremont (2009)
Fdi	Foreign Direct Investment	-/+	Bitzenis, Vlachos (2013); Jenkins (2006); Schmerer (2014); Rubio, Mora (2015), Abor, Harvey (2008); Waldkirch, Nunnenkamp, Bremont (2009); Franco, Gerussi (2013)
Grow	GDP Growth	-/+	
Lgdppc	GDP Per Capita	-/+	Jude and Silaghi (2015)
Inf	Inflation Consumer Price Index	-/+	Franco, Gerussi (2013)
R	Real Interest Rate	-/+	Schmerer (2014)

It is expected that the way of making direct foreign movements as investment and firm acquisition would produce different effects. However, the idea that the increase in the capital stock of a country reduces unemployment and increases the employment is in compliance with both economist' and politics' expectations. In the analysis of the inflation effect, it is known that investors will increase their productions and focus on the profit maximization while experiencing the price increases and other variables are constant. Although the interest rates are the important factors determining the investments' costs, they cause hot money movements as making FDI on the government bond or stock markets.

The variables belong to descriptive statistics used in the study are provided in Table-3. Customer price index is an important descriptive statistics with 1500%. Very high level of inflation was experienced in the period of transition of planned economies to free market economy structure and the adaptation period of the planned economies' prices on the free markets. On the other hand, in the growth indicator, Bosnia and Herzegovina produced very big growth as 88.957 in the year of 1996 because of the reformation movements after the war. The extreme numbers in the reel interest rates were experienced in Bulgaria in the years of 1996 and 1997 successively and it was caused by the economic recession following the transition period.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Employer	148	10.559	12.206	0.9	41.1
Employment	180	44.848	8.167	23.8	62.4
Unemployment	200	15.864	10.866	4.4	57.7
FDI(%GDP)	236	4.257	5.018	-0.689	37.410
Fdi (\$)	244	1.880	3,440	-3.460	2.200
Growth	249	3.177	7.864	-29.589	88.957
Lgdp Per Cap	255	3.636	0.422	2.339	4.500
infC	235	34.160	131.050	-2.410	1500
Reel int	186	6.771	15.204	-70.432	93.937

5. Analysis and Findings

Employer variable was used as a dependent variable in Model 1a and FDI was used as a dependent variable. In the application of the regression model, a strong and positive relationship which is statistically meaningful in 1% level is found out between FDI and employer. As developing the Model 1a, in the re-application of it as Model 1b, a strong and positive relationship which is meaningful in 1% level is found out between FDI and employer. In the same model, there found out a statistical relationship in 5% level between the dependent variable and GDP. A strong relationship between employer variable and GDP growth, customer price index and reel interest rate could be found.

On the other hand, in the Model 2a, the model is re-applied as the rate of FDI in the GDP is added to the model as independent variable and there found a positive relationship in 1% meaningful level between employer variable and the rate of FDI in the GDP. In the re-application of the model as developing it, there found a positive and strong relationship in 1% level between employer variable and the rate of FDI in the GDP and also a positive relationship in 5% level between employer variable and GDP per capita, and a negative relationship in 10% level between employer variable and customer price index. A strong relationship could be found between the dependent variable and GDP growth and reel interest rates. For all models, excessive determination limit problems related to autocorrelation and tool variables were not experienced.

Table 4. Dynamic Panel GMM Expectation Results

	Dependent Variable Employer			
	Model 1a	Model 1b	Model 2a	Model 2b
Employer _{L-1}	0.7151*** (0.000)	0.8277*** (0.000)	0.7551*** (0.0000)	0.7404*** (0.000)
Lfdi	0.0640*** (0.000)	0.5450*** (0.000)		
FDI(%GDP)			0.0640*** (0.000)	0.0727*** (0.000)
Growth		0.0129 (0.364)		-0.0159 (0.271)
Lgdp Per Cap		-0.9384** (0.003)		-0,6461** (0,009)
infC		-0.0028 (0.318)		-0.0050* (0.075)
Reel int		0.0013 (0.805)		0.0008 (0.869)
Sargan Test (p-value)	136.1833 (0.2143)	110.7413 (0.1145)	136.1833 (0.2143)	94.30385 (0.5009)

Arellano-Bond Order (p-value) 2	-1.0415 (0.2977)	0.01276 (0.9898)	-1.0415 (0.2977)	-0.35441 (0.7230)
Amount of Observation	128	100	128	101
Amount of Country	8	8	12	12
Wald chi2 (Prob>chi2)	448.30 (0.0000)	341.50 (0.0000)	448.30 (0.0000)	363.93 (0.0000)

*, ** and *** shows the importance in terms of statistics in the levels of %10, %5 and %1 respectively.

Employment is used as a dependent variable in Model 3a in the study and its relationship with FDI and the direction of relationship is determined. In the application of 3a regression model, a strong and positive relationship in 1% level of importance is found out between FDI and employment. Our study supports the study results of Schmerer (2014); Rubio, Mora (2015), Abor, Harvey (2008); Franco, Gerussi (2013). On the other hand, Jude and Silaghi (2015) found a negative and statistically meaningful relationship and this result is not in compliance with our study results' directions. In the re-application of the model as 3b, after developing 3a, there found a strong and positive relationship in 10% importance level between FDI and employment. On the other hand, a positive and strong relationship in 5% level between employment and GDP growth, a positive and strong relationship in 10% level between employment and per capita income, a positive and strong relationship in 1% importance level between employment and customer price index. There could not be found a strong relationship between employment and reel interest rates.

Table 5. Dynamic Panel GMM Expectation Results

	Dependent Variable EmploymentN, UnemployedN,		
	Model 3a	Model 3b	Model4
EmplomentN _{L-1}	0.9017*** (0.000)	0.7697*** (0.000)	
Unemployed _{L-1}			1.2120*** (0.000)
Unemployed _{L-2}			-0.4966*** (0.000)
Fdi	7.4600** (0.020)	1.2900* (0.061)	2.2600 (0.556)
Growth		0.0927** (0.034)	-0.1620*** (0.000)
LGdp Per Cap		1.8183* (0.057)	-0.0000 (0.218)
infC		0.0614*** (0.001)	
Reel int		0.0607 (0.201)	
Sargan Test (p-value)	196.2789 (0.2072)	124.9659 (0.1131)	170.066 (0.2251)
Arellano-Bond Order (p-value) 2	-0.7652 (0.4441)	-0.4012 (0.6883)	-0.1066 (0.9151)
Amount of Observation	212	113	162
Amount of Country	12	12	12
Wald chi2 (Prob>chi2)	539.03 (0.0000)	368.31 (0.0000)	544.87 (0.0000)

On the other hand, in Model 4, the relationship between unemployment and FDI is analyzed. In the application of regression model as two periods late, a strong relationship between unemployment and FDI could be found. A negative and strong relationship in 1% importance level is found out between unemployment and GDP growth.

6. Conclusion and Discussion

Direct foreign capital investments carry high importance for many economies in the globalizing world. FDI is one of the leading factors of growth and development for many developing countries. Developing countries need FDI in order to eliminate insufficient capital stock, high rate of unemployment and balance of payment deficit. On the other hand, the cost of borrowing in the international markets is high and difficult for these kinds of countries therefore the conditions increase the importance of FDI. FDI seeks some sort of qualifications to make investments in the countries. They research countries which have potential to increase their profits including legal, economic, bureaucratic structure, macroeconomic stability, discarded and cheap labor, supply of raw material and proximity to the markets. In the this concept, FDI is not a mechanism which works unreciprocated and provides funds and capital for countries but financial movements which intent to increase the capital's marginal productivity and aim to provide profit maximization.

In the evaluation of the analysis results, there is a positive relationship between employment and direct foreign capital investments. The direction of relationship between employers and FDI is the same. Both of the two variables produce statistically strong relationship. There is not a strong relationship with unemployment. The result of the study is that the foreign capital movements which are made in Balkan countries do not reduce the unemployment but affect the employment in positive manners.

The situation that FDI which are made in the sample countries affect the employment in positive ways however do not decrease the unemployment is closely related to the way of FDI enter into the economy. The foreign investment coming through the ways of privatization, becoming partners with the current firms or acquiring an existing firm do not product many effects on the employment market. Unemployment might also be increased while privatization the public institutions and increasing their productivity in the planned economies. These countries change their employments in order to attract FDI however are not able to produce solid solutions for structural problems in their economies. Direct foreign capital investments can inevitably affect the labor force market in the countries. However, the main problems in the economies cannot be recovered while depending on these policies. Foreign capital only decreases the effects of these problems while the problems still exit in the background (Driffielda, Taylor, 2000).

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Repairs in the Agricultural Sector of Bulgaria

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Abstract: For the rapid restoration of the efficiency of agricultural machinery it is necessary to build a system for servicing of machinery, including the effects of maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery, the supply of spare parts, training of staff and others. Under the system in general systems theory means an organized set of interacting elements forming a unified whole. An analysis of the operating system in particular and sales-service can be done through modeling. Under the model system will not understand the whole multitude of interconnected characteristics of a real object, but only a number, in which the relationship between the characteristics of the present stage of the study of the system can be finalized and reported using mathematical and logical formulas or rules.

Keywords: agricultural machinery, the supply of spare parts, basic numerical inflow

1. Introduction

In the process of use of the machines, different random factors, the size of the structural parameters of the individual elements extend beyond the limit value, resulting in disturbing their performance. Naturally aspiration is possible to quickly return performance of the machine you are going through adjustments, replacement of abandoned items or whole units. We often have cases where failures in complex systems such as tractors are of unknown nature. For their discovery is the use of special diagnostic equipment and sophisticated diagnostic equipment. For the rapid restoration of the efficiency of agricultural machinery it is necessary to build a system for servicing of machinery, including the effects of maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery, the supply of spare parts, training of staff and others.

Under the system in general systems theory means an organized set of interacting elements form a whole. Repair - service system, such as station maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery is a set of interrelated elements (vehicles, repair and maintenance contractors) required to maintain and restore the operability of the objects entering the system.

2. Research and Results on the Topic

2.1. Designation load station maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery

System status can be changed under the influence of many factors, including in and purposeful human activity (maintenance and repair). The nature of these amendments is judged primarily by the state of the outputs of the system. Sets of variables by which the output of the system can be brought into a desired position, will call management, and some general characteristics of management - management strategy or only strategy.

The analysis of the system, in particular and sales-service can be done through modeling. Under the model system will understand not all the multitude of interconnected characteristics of a real object, but only a number, in which the relationship between the characteristics of the present stage of the study of the system can be finalized and reported using mathematical and logical formulas or rules.

In a study of complex objects it is assumed that they are characterized by the availability of a significant number of input parameters, each of which affects the values of the output parameters. This feature requires the study and management of the site is based on experimental studies and modeling them to use different approximations and partial or complete ignorance of dependence associated with the source inputs; continuous nature of the dependencies of input and output parameters. This means that the parameters of the site are expressed mathematically by continuous functions of the factors affecting the state of the technological system; negligible duration transients and possible existence of time delays, significantly exceeding this duration; availability of uncontrollable parameters and noise that determine

the random nature of the amendment to the baseline. This feature requires mandatory to use statistical methods in modeling and management of sites.

The general methodology adopted the necessary number of workers moving units with the help of which perform maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery is given by the following formula (1):

$$N_P = \frac{\sum T}{\Phi_{P.B}}$$

Where $\sum T$ is the total labor intensity of all effects;

$\Phi_{P.B}$ is Fund of time a worker for the planned period of time.

Stream of requests coming from the m number of machines in a random point in time. Some of the machines are in the system and on them the service is performed, others wait in line to be served, and the remaining work. The closed nature of the system is characterized by limited amount attached to the department of agricultural machinery. Shown scheme is characterized by certain conditions (Figure 1.6.) under which it can accept $(m + 1)$ meanings. Each of them has a probability, ie. \therefore when the park machines is rampant and needed services; we have failures in 1, 2 m machines and they must be removed in specialized units. Each of the typical conditions $P_k(t)$ ($0 \leq k \leq m$) can be described with the relevant equations.

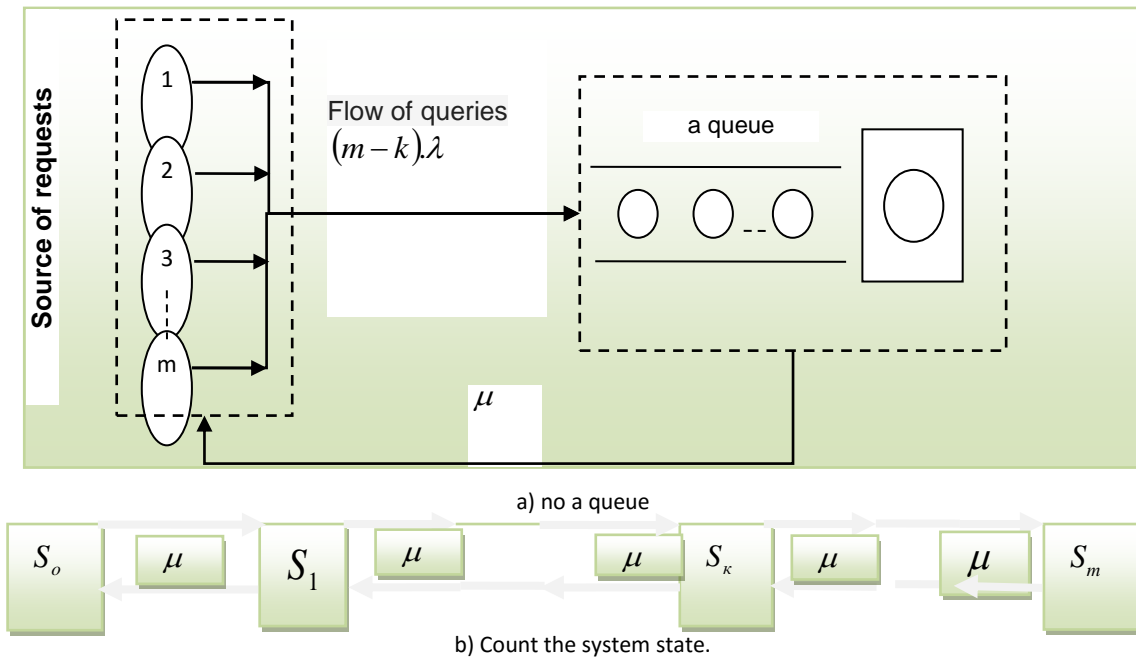


Fig.1. Model of organization of work of system maintenance.

Probability in the service system to find "k" number of machines, can be represented by the formula (2).

$$P_k = \frac{m!}{(m-k)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^k P_o \quad (2)$$

where the probability of good condition of the park machines. For the determination of the value of it is necessary to use the condition (3)

$$\sum_{k=0}^m P_k = 1$$

$$P_o = \left[\sum_{k=0}^m \frac{m!}{(m-k)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^k \right]^{-1} \quad (3)$$

The resulting equations allows finding any state of the system maintenance and repair. With the help of probability can be defined quantitative characteristics, evaluating the quality of the organization of preventive and repair work, namely the length of stay in the system and related losses.

Machine downtime can be estimated by using a factor of technical use (КТИ) and service unit with its load factor (K). (4):

$$K_{TH} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m k \cdot P_k}{m} \quad (4)$$

Employment of the specialized unit is characterized by the use of working time and reporting the probability of the absence of a request in the system (PO). The load factor extraction follows (5):

$$K_H = 1 - P_o \quad (5)$$

The feature amount of allowances Z (m), falling on a machine is defined by formula (6)

$$Z(m) = \frac{1}{m} (C_a \cdot g + C_3 P_o) \quad (6)$$

where the average number of machines in the queue for service; Accordingly downtime of the machine unit and per unit of time of their work.

The length of the tail depends on Sport adopted in order to conduct scheduled maintenance.

If the machine requiring scheduled maintenance is called for it at a time when sport is not busy, the number of machines in the queue can find the following formula (7):

$$g = \frac{\lambda_p}{\lambda_p + \lambda_{TO}} \cdot \sum_{k=2}^m (k-1) \cdot P_k \quad (7)$$

where they are respectively the intensity of requests for repair and maintenance.

Insofar as in this case-stay waiting for planned repairs, no place, then the coefficient of technical use CTI can be found by using the formula (8):

$$K_{TH} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m K \cdot P_k - \frac{\lambda_{TO}}{\lambda_p + \lambda_{TO}} \sum_{k=2}^m (k-1) P_k}{m} \quad (8)$$

The waiting time in the queue, by virtue of the probabilistic nature of submission of applications and duration of service, also appears to be a random variable. Therefore the likelihood waiting time in the queue to neprevishi TD can find a formula (9):

$$P\{t_v \geq t_d\} = \sum_{k=1}^m P_k \sum_{s=0}^{k-1} \frac{(\mu t)^s}{s!} \cdot e^{-\mu t} \quad (9)$$

Light of the aforementioned analysis can draw the following conclusion: Displayed quantitative characteristics sufficiently fully reflect processes of IT and P machines and on their basis can establish optimal loading stations for maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery, as well as their quantitative composition.

2.2. Organization maintenance of machine-tractor fleet

The main criterion for evaluation of forms of maintenance organization (MO) of the machine-tractor capital (MTC) have brought the minimum cost, calculated in accordance with the following (10):

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (B_i \alpha_p + B_i E_H) \gamma + \sum_{i=1}^m C_i}{N_L L} + \sum_{j=1}^m C_j + 2\alpha K P_k L + \frac{2d_i K P_k L}{V_e} + d_i \left(\frac{1}{\mu} + \varpi \right) K P_k \rightarrow \min \quad (10)$$

where B_1 is the carrying value of the plant for maintenance and repair of equipment, lv;

α_p - Coefficient taking into account deductions for renovation

E_H -; normative efficiency factor of capital investments

$\sum_{i=1}^n$ - the amount of the value of objects (buildings and equipment) lev;

γ - concentration ratio of work;

$\gamma = \frac{\sum t_i}{T}$ -where overall labor intensity of the work performed ind. / hours;

L - The average distance of travel of the tractor km;

$\sum_{i=1}^m C_i$ - conditional permanent elements of operational maintenance work lev;

N_L - the density of distribution of the cycles of maintenance of one kilometer real distance to the service area,

$\sum_{j=1}^m C_j$ - conditional proportional elements of operational maintenance work, lev

α - indicator of transport costs brought idling tractor lev / km;

d_i - value stay the tractor lev / hour;

$\frac{1}{\mu} t_{cp.}$ - the average time to service to the tractor;

ϖ - The average waiting time for service of the tractor

P_K - likelihood of being carried out "K" season of service to a tractor;

V_e - Operating speed of the tractor during transport

Using the parameters of service station maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery can make a quantitative assessment of its activities. So their knowledge and determination are essential for us.

Using the theory of mass servicing of agricultural machinery can present it as a system of mass service (SMS) on the parameters that identify it.

The activity is related to the receipt and processing of requests for maintenance and repair of machines. The random nature of the submission of applications and their service need to have a random character.

It is likely that at any point of time in the queue is formed at the entrance to have a certain number of queries. In theoretical consideration these probabilities is one of the key parameters to be determined. In turn, they will provide an opportunity to get an idea: the average number of requests queued (expected queue length); for the average waiting time of one application and possible deviations from it.

The period of employment channels (P) is another important parameter. This is the length of the time interval at any time during which at least one of the channels for the service is busy.

Another important parameter is that the number of serviced requests in the period of employment (P). This parameter is essential in the design of the production activity of individual channels of sports. When you know what will be the size of the flow of requests, the channel must be ready for continuous service.

It was found that the stationary mode, there is not any system. Systems with many channels and extremely limited number of seats for waiting always stationary mode when the average duration of service and the average time between two consecutive admissions applications are final.

When are final and queues is not limited, fixed mode does not exist at while otherwise the system is always stable over time. In magnitude and probability P unit are limited (end).

The number of requests d by the time the system $\mathcal{Q}(t)$ is another important parameter. Then we can divide such applications are currently being serviced and others waiting in line to be served. This is a random variable and has all mobile feature. If a is n number of channels, it is therefore $\mathcal{Q}_1(t) = \max(0, \mathcal{Q}(t))$

(11)

and represents the number of requests waiting in queues at the entrance of the shop. it is customary to call a virtual queue length. The parameter may take the value of 0, 1, 2 n, therefore, is defined by the distribution of probabilities

$$P_k(t) = P\{\mathcal{Q}(t) = k\} \quad (12)$$

The determination of $P_k(t)$ is a reason to believe that we know the transient mode In service systems, such as for agricultural machinery with n number of channels is valid the following relation (13), which determines the probability of all channels are busy:

$$\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} P_k(t) = 1 - [P_0(t) + \dots + P_{n-1}(t)] \quad (13)$$

The average number of requests waiting to be serviced at a point in time t can determine additive (14):

$$\bar{\mathcal{Q}}_1(t) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} (k - n) \cdot P_k(t) \quad (14)$$

The average number of channels present in the stay is equal to (15)

$$\bar{n}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n (n - k) \cdot P_k(t) \quad (15)$$

The average number of applications found in the service node (in the queue and channels) can be determined using the dependence (16)

$$\bar{\mathcal{Q}}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \cdot P_k(t) \quad (16)$$

In $n \cdot b < a$, where a is the average time between arrivals of bids; b - the average service time of individual requests from one channel and t - time.

If, $m \rightarrow \infty$ then,

$$P_k = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P_k(t), \quad (17)$$

From the foregoing it follows that here:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \bar{g}_1(t) = \bar{g}_1, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \bar{n}(t) = \bar{n}, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \bar{g}(t) = \bar{g}, \quad (18)$$

in single-line (single channel) system $n = 1$ in which, the employment rate ρ can be determined by the following relationship (19):

$$\rho = \frac{b}{a}, \quad (19)$$

Likelihood channel idle we can determine from dependence (20)

$$\rho_o = 1 - \rho, \quad (20)$$

For n number of channel service system, the employment rate is defined by the relationship

$$\frac{nb}{a} \left(n \mu \frac{nb}{a} < 1 \right) \text{ system is called nonstationary.}$$

The waiting time of the application, if arrive in time t, called the possible (virtual) waiting times. This element is one of the nonstationary characteristics of the system. When the system is stationary characteristics. The waiting time of the request to be handled, appears to be one of the main variables presented by inflow requests. It is most often involved in the possible economic performances in solving the problems of the theory of mass service.

These indicators and others such as load factor of channels (K) Economic indicator for selecting the best option in design and Gzag. and others. describe probabilistic behavior of the workshop for agricultural machinery. For their determination to make the necessary mapping service center which examined by the Earl of states showing the various states and incoming (outgoing) flow of events (Fig. 2.)

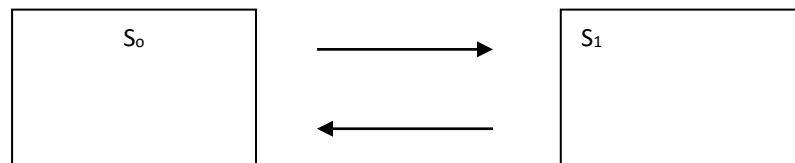


Fig. 2. Count the state

Fig. 2 shows an example of a dispute that goes from state S_0 in S_1 , a stream of requests having the density and vice versa - from the state S_1 able S_0 , with intensity. If we assume that we know all possible states reporting of all states of the studied sports, we can build corresponding graph of states reporting of all characteristics of the incoming and outgoing flows.

3. Conclusion

Using these calculations can draw the following conclusions: With the increase in the number of machines attached to a specialized unit, level of load increases and the rate of technological use reduced. Optimal ratio is determined by economic criterion for minimization of allowances stay of machines and units. From made to this analysis can draw the following conclusion: Displayed quantitative characteristics enough fully reflect processes of IT and P machines and on their basis can establish optimal loading stations for maintenance and repair of agricultural machines, as well as their quantitative composition.

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Increasing E-Trust in E-Government Services: A Case Study on The Users of Internet Tax Office

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Abstract: In the last quarter century, governments around the world have been working to capture the vast potential of the Internet to improve government processes. Turkish government has increasingly benefited from information technology to enhance their services, known as electronic government (e-government). However, the success of these efforts depends, to a great extent, on how well the targeted users for such services, citizens in general, make use of them. Tax e-paying system is one of the critical e-government services, which assists taxpayers in paying their tax debts electronically each pay period. Since citizens' acceptance of tax e-paying system is influenced by their trust to this system, there is a need to understand the factors that predict the users' trust on internet tax office. For this reason, the purpose of the presented study was to identify what factors could affect the citizens' trust in e government services. The study was conducted by surveying 426 citizens from all Turkish regions. The theoretical and practical implications of the study are discussed.

Keywords: E-Government, Adoption, E-Trust, Perceived Risk, Internet Tax Office

1. Introduction

Since the early 1990s development of information and communication technology (ICT) began to affect people significantly. ICT is at the human center and level of people's dependence on these technologies increased (Yildiz & Ayyildiz, 2014). On the other hand, these developments have been perceived as changes that can be transformed into an opportunity by many actors. In order to exploit these opportunities almost all states have increased attempt to put into practice online processes and other ICT under e-government. However compliance with these transactions raises a number of difficulties due to some concerns of people. Uncertainty and risks in the electronic network, vulnerabilities such as attacks by fraud software and identity hunting and lack of legal and technical measures taken to safety causes of dissatisfaction to e-government applications. On the other hand this kinds of vulnerabilities are not the only obstacle to compliance with the citizens' e-services. Besides; many factors such as perceived usefulness (Davis, 1989), social and cultural differences, site infrastructure, access to services (Ozkan & Kanat, 2011), trust to public institution offers service and state (Colesca, 2008), privacy, security, ease of use (Papadomichelaki & Mentzas, 2012), transparency (Marche & McNiven, 2003) have effect on citizens' compliance. Many people who use internet actively are still not prefer to use e-government transactions. One of the most important factor acting on this situation is trust. To build trust in the e-services that offered to reduce national and local administrations costs, improve services and respond all citizens is an inevitable responsibility. Trust that is an abstract and comprehensive cases has been the subject of many social science research. The aim of this research is to determine the components of the e-trust. Scope is limited to internet tax office that is one of the e-government services. It is a mandatory civic duty to fulfill tax obligations in the country. But it was left to the personal preferences whether to fulfill these obligations. In this context, determine the factors affect trust to internet tax office is important.

2. E-Government

The shortest definition of the e-government is the usage of internet applications in public services (Lee et al., 2011). By technological approach, e-government refers to efficient, effective and transparent information sharing between citizens and government. E-government makes it easier for citizens, businesses and also other governments to participate to public services by internet and wireless technologies (Siau & Long, 2005). E-government aims to strengthen the quality of the relationship between citizens and businesses, to develop by provide better access, to provide quality services and

bring out better process and systems (Lean et al., 2009). Online services, cheaper, faster, and in particular to facilitate access to the more remote areas. Also it prevents the occurrence of errors originating from humans when there are accumulation. Online transactions in the taxation process is fast, efficient, and is a service that do it from anywhere (Warkentin et al., 2002). A well-established e-government may also provide all the information via the web to citizens all the information they need like firms do on e-commerce. Citizens have the opportunity to access some of the services via internet for 24 hours like payment of taxes, to look for documents and usage of other services and also they can ask questions and receive answers.

The increase in the use of the Internet has brought various opportunities for the public sector as well as in other areas. Public administrations that use digital access systems offer hierarchical and non-linear, interactive and accessible services to citizens. E-government offers opportunity to citizens to research and gather useful information (Chang et al., 2005). Transactional nature of e-government offer equivalent benefits to citizens and bureaucrats (Schaupp, et al., 2010). Thus, e-government in the economic approach, can defined as a new market and a new government that distributes public services with a strong interactive channel (EP, 2015).

Table 1. Summary of E-Government Portfolio

EXTERNAL	G2C <i>Objective:</i> To provide satisfactory service to citizens in order to improve government-customer (citizen) relationship <i>Activities:</i> -Information access, such as benefits, policies, loans and educational materials -Individual business, such as social services, grants/loans and taxes	G2B <i>Objective:</i> To provide beter services to business, such as eliminating redundant collections of data and reducing transaction costs <i>Activities:</i> -Providing a single portal and integrated database -Entering the e-market to gain cost-efficient benefits
	G2E <i>Objective:</i> To improve internal efficiency and effectiveness of government administration <i>Activities:</i> -Reorganizing internal operational processes to adopt the best commercial practices -Providing services to internal employees such as training, payroll, travel and reimbursement	G2G <i>Objective:</i> To enhance cooperation and collaboration between governments of different levels and various physical locations <i>Activities:</i> -Sharing or integrating federal, stage & local government databases, as well as integrating separate systems -Enhancing collaboration or cooperation such as, grants, law enforcement, public safety and emergency management
INDIVIDUAL		ORGANIZATION

Source: Siau & Long (2005)

Importance, applications and strategic views of e-governments can be summarized in three categories; (1) citizen-oriented instead of bureaucracy-oriented, (2) result-oriented and (3) market oriented (Siau & Long, 2005). Strategic views shows itself in four areas of e-government services. These are; government to customer (G2C), government to business (G2B), government to government (G2G) and government to employers (G2E). E-government is an integrated portal that consist of in-house (internal) and external (external) users. Scope of government services is shown in Table 1.

Compared to the traditional understanding of public service processes e-government is characterized as a process that reflects (1) usage of more common communication technology (2) the impersonal nature of the online environment, (3) information sharing that collected, processed and can be able to used by third units (4) the technological structure for handling partially accommodate the uncertainty and (5) the new version of the communication media (Warkentin et al., 2002). Uncertainty in e-government services, risks posed by the use of internet and perception of citizens as the monitoring of themselves causes temporary division between government and citizens and reduce the use of e-government services. On the other hand, the online service displaced by traditional services also leads to the some risks. This risks arise as a result of two processes; (1) information is sent electronically, and (2) the information is stored

electronically. These situations may lead to prevent, read and change informations by third units (Horst et al., 2007).

World countries on the one hand try to take measures relating to privacy and security vulnerability that reveals obstacle in the process of adaptation to e-government services, on the other hand they also intended to increase the scope and number of users of e-government services. Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) calculates an index for the world's countries as Government E-Payment Adoption Rating (GEAR). EIU, makes calculations for 16 important e-government services in 7 categories with the help of 37 indicators.

Table 2. Turkish Government E-Payment Adoption Rating

Category and Indicators			Rank	Score	Category and Indicators			Rank	Score
CITIZEN TO GOVERNMENT (C2G)					INFRASTRUCTURE				
Income tax payment			12	80.0	Number of ATMs per 10,000 people			28	49.9
Social security contributions					Number of POS terminals per 10,000 people				
Obtaining/paying for an ID card					Diffusion of broadband				
Automotive costs: tolls and fi nes					Public-access terminals per capita				
Public transit payments					Mobile subscriptions per 100 people				
GOVERNMENT TO CITIZEN (G2C)			Rank	Score	Level of development of stored value cards				
Income tax refunds			14	87.5	Level of development of 3G and other technologies				
Social security benefi ts					Level of development of contactless and mobile payments				
Unemployment, workers' comp and welfare benefi ts									
Government health benefits									
BUSINESS TO GOVERNMENT (B2G)			Rank	Score	SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONTEXT			Rank	Score
Income tax payments			14	93.8	Literacy level			42	50.7
VAT/sales tax payments					Educational level				
Social security and other contributions					Internet/technology savviness				
Company registration and payment of fees					Percentage of population using banks/other fi nancial institutions				
					Percentage of businesses using banks/other fi nancial institutions				
GOVERNMENT TO BUSINESS (G2B)			Rank	Score	Provision of fi nancial education				
Income tax refunds			6	93.8	Proportion of businesses placing orders via the Internet			40	66.7
VAT/sales tax refunds					Proportion of consumer orders of goods via the Internet				
Payments for goods and services					Percentage of population with payment card(s)				
Disbursement of loans									
OVERALL SCORE			Rank	Score	POLICY CONTEXT				
			24	74.6	Government commitment to e-payment security			40	66.7
					Government commitment to integrating the informal economy				
					Government commitment to the Financial Action Task Force (FATF)				

Economist Intelligence Unit (2012)

According to report in 2007, Turkey was on the eighth place among 43 countries with a score of 61.6. According to a report recently published; United States (93.6), United Kingdom (91.6), Norway (91.0) are the countries that have the best e-government performance in the World. Turkey takes place twenty-fourth in 62 countries by removing the scores level 74.6 in five years (EIU, 2012). Turkey's place in rankings on the basis of category and level scores for each category are given in Table 1.

In this study it is focused on tax e-paying system. Fulfillment of tax obligations with internet tax office system is so important. Because tax revenues have the highest share of public revenues. Internet tax office application in Turkey (<https://intvd.gib.gov.tr>) started in 1999 and it is the first and one of the most important step taken in the field of implementation of e-government and services and transparency in the public administration. With this application it is aimed to make the process much faster and more

accurate over the internet and as such provide both taxpayers and tax office save time and resources. Taxpayers can benefit from all services offered by internet tax office by taking password and user number from tax office they depend on.

3. Trust

Trust is a phenomenon shaped by human and social relations. Confidence, abstract and complex concepts, are used in different meanings in each discipline. Trust give opportunity to people to live in life where there are risks and uncertainties (Deutsch, 1962; Mayers et al., 1995). Trust concept is related to risk perception and acceptance: trust is used as opposed to the risk but also the trust itself produces a risk (Colesca, 2008). Trust avoid the confusion by reducing the options to be considered in the complex life (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Trust provide work sharing and cooperation between people by acting like a social capital. Trust in business, is a key for successful process and long-term relationships. Trust acts as a control mechanism as an alternative to authority and cost. Also trust is important in economic relations, because it reduces the risk of harm posed by the opportunistic strategic behavior (Guerra et al., 2003).

Table 3. Some Definitions of Trust

Philosophy	✓	Trust is a view of human nature
	✓	Trust is to feed love and sympathy to others for more peace and cooperation
	✓	Trust is to accept that others unprotected
	✓	Trust is the social capital charges
Psychology	✓	Trust is a component of personal development, institutional collaboration and social life
	✓	Trust is a view of personal characteristics, early experience and interpersonal relationships
	✓	Trust is result of written acceptance between people and groups
	✓	Trust, is an indicator of corporate decision-making process
Management Science	✓	Trust is a control mechanism that allows employees work more efficient and productive
	✓	Trust is a phenomenon that enhances the business performance
	✓	Trust is an informal management structure that increase the relations in the market and management
	✓	Trust is a phenomenon that provide producers and distributors fulfill their responsibilities and increase their potential
Marketing	✓	Trust ensures the safety of exchange of goods and services between supplier and customer

There are basically two reasons for making a lot of different definitions of trust. First, trust is abstract phenomenon and frequently confused with other similar concepts such as credibility, reliability and confidence. It is because of that it is difficult to define trust and describe the differences between concepts related to trust. Second, trust is a multifaceted concept with cognitive, emotional and behavioral content. In general if other units acting safely as expected, it can be said that people fulfill their social responsibilities and do what must be done. Therefore, trust is a phenomenon that reduces social complexity. On the other hand it enhances the interaction between people, reducing the risk and uncertainties.

4. E-Trust

E-trust (online trust) is defined as reliability to electronic service marketers and obey them in integrating with them. E-trust has similar characteristics with offline trust because trust is with the offline media. In both risk, fear, complexity and cost reduction changes are shared. In offline life trust allows work sharing and collaboration between people as a social capital. This is also similar to the online environment (Corritore et al., 2003). But online environment has some different properties. These are (Wang & Emurian, 2005);

1. There are two parts as confident and trusted in both. But parts are separate in offline trust. In online trust confident is the service user, trusted is web site where the service is provided. Therefore, some authors admit the trusted directly as technology (Corritore et al., 2003).
2. Due to the high sensitivity in the online environment, people are more difficult to build trust. Because people think that after transactions they do their information will collect, change and captured by others. Therefore they are afraid to face with a number of casualties.
3. While trust provide to people to take more risk in offline environments, two experiences revealed in the online environment (1) using credit card and/or individual informations in transactions (2) controlling web interface. These experiences strengthens the willingness of people to use the e-services.
4. Trust in online environments is affected by individual characteristics as well as in offline environments. Effectiveness of these characteristics varies from person to person. Because people are in different positions against the machines and technology.

With the development of e-government dimensions of trust in the government's online services have increased. Trust is an important factor in e-services. E-service customers are more dependent. Potential risk and uncertainties affect transaction processing behavior, inquiry trends and personal information sharing. Privacy and controlling information are the most important dimensions to command the trust (Fu et al., 2006). Also, perceived usefulness, perceived quality, trust in government and internet, trust trends and internet experience affect e-trust. E-trust directly affect the citizens tend to use e-government services (Parent et al., 2005).

5. The Components of E-Trust and Research Hypotheses

Privacy Concerns (PC)

In online environment individuals need to share personal informations to make transactions. In this situation privacy is related to retention, store and reuse of informations by service providers. Privacy concern is related to the user of websites are in confidence that they are protected from threat and risk of e-service processes (Belanger et al, 2002). For protecting privacy some assurance in e-government services must be provided on the website. These are; (1) not sharing personal information with third parties, (2) submission of warranty identity protection, (3) blocking access to personal information and (4) requesting informed consent during process. According to the belief of the citizens, e-government in the fulfillment of the public service e-government strengthen the interaction process. But citizens are concerned about the sharing of personal information with the state via internet and also they are afraid that the information collected will be abused and their privacy will be revealed. This concerns weaken e-trust. (Belanger et al, 2002; Pavlou, 2003; Carter & Belanger, 2005; Fu et al, 2006)

H₁: Privacy concerns affect Trust in E-government negatively

Perceived Risk (PR)

Perceived risk is an attitude towards outcomes revealed by uncertainty. Perceived risk is defined as a concern that citizens are faced with a loss if they allow to act (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003). Perceived risk level is in inverse relationship with the perceived benefit. The increase in the perceived risk level reduces the perceived usefulness of technology. It is believed that the risk is reduced in the case where the trust is. Risk is an important dimension of trust. Person must take risk to commit an act. On the other hand risk is to control the behavior situation includes (1) economic losses, (2) emergence of personal information and (3) unfair inquiry. Risk is both includes uncertainty and vulnerability. Risk awareness of individuals affected by many factors. These factors are perceived risk level, potential benefit related to perceived importance and sanctions. Commercial sense, the primarily risk of process is financial losses.

Internet service is beyond the control of the consumer (Pavlou, 2003). Hence, the perceived risk is depicted along with behavioral and environmental uncertainty. Behavioral uncertainty arises from the nature of the internet. Online service providers may allow opportunistic behaviour such as open to remote

access and can take away the user's benefit. Environmental uncertainty raised by the unpredictable nature of Internet-based technologies. According to researchs perceived risk weaken e-trust, exchange of information and transaction processing trends (Pavlou, 2003; Fu et al., 2006; Schaupp et al., 2010; Beldad et al., 2011).

H2: Perceived risk affect Trust in E-government negatively.

Propensity to Trust (PT)

To be willing to trust or propensity to trust is a personal trait. Different life experiences, personal characteristics and cultural values have effect on propensity to trust (Mayer et al., 1995). According to the psychological approach propensity to trust is a result of positive experience in early childhood (Glanville & Paxton, 2007). According to the organizational behaviorists in the formation process of propensity to trust institutional factors play a decisive role. The two different approaches lead to different conclusions. If propensity to trust is shaped by personal factors in early childhood, the trust would be restricted by internet or state creation. However, if propensity to trust is a phenomenon can be built over time, trust can be created by government or in the internet (Bannister & Connolly, 2011). According to some research high propensity to trust weakens the perceived level of risk (Schaupp et al., 2010). Citizens are aware for the risk of complete electronic transactions, but they are still willing to use electronic services. Propensity to trust is the most effective factor on this situation. (Carter & Belanger, 2005).

H3: Propensity to trust affect Trust in E-government positively.

Perceived Usefulness (PU)

When citizens think about their own experiences of being a novelty, they tend to be insensitive to the potential benefits of this innovation. One reason of this trend is that the worst of the perceived usefulness (Ozkan & Kanat, 2011). Perceived usefulness is the judgement of citizens related to obtain benefits after using e-services (Davis, 1989). In general, potential users are aware of the risk of e-services. But perceived usefulness reduces risk perception by increasing the level of trust (Chang vd 2005; Horst et al., 2007; Hung et al., 2013). If web services provides users what they desire, it increases the level of trust (Colesca, 2008).

H4: Perceived usefulness affect Trust in E-government positively.

Trust in Government (TTG)

Citizens must trust to government providing e-services. Acceptance is based on the belief that they can use the e-service effectively. According to a definition, trust in government refers to satisfaction level of citizens with the government. The reflection of this satisfaction is that politicians and civil servants are perceived as individuals doing correct, treating as needed and acting to public interest (Barness & Gill, 2000). According to another definition trust in government is perceived as a reliable unit that offers the service. (Belanger & Carter, 2008). From a different context, trust in government is the compliance between preference of citizens and perceived real function of government (Bouckaert & Van de Walle, 2003). Trust to government is affected by three factors; (1) characteristics of individuals (social-cultural history), (2) professional and ethical standards (institutional trust) and (3) individual experiences (the process of trust). According to Warkentin et al. (2002) trust in public agency offer e-services is related to the guarantees offered by the third unit guarantor. Compared to other services, because this guarantees is higher in e-government services, citizens e-trust is higher in e-government services. The low trust of citizens leads to less trust in transactions over the internet and this exceptional situation may expose in tension against technology as well as the state. Trust in government increases the e-trust in e-government services (Parent et al., 2005; Welch et al., 2005; Carter & Weerakkody, 2008; Ozkan & Kanat, 2011). But, Goldfinch et al (2009) examining Australia and New Zealand in their study found that individuals that trust less to government prefer to use e-government services more.

H5: Trust in government affect Trust in E-government positively

Service Quality (SQ)

Service quality is the subjective assessments of the consistency between the benefits of service quality users are expected and benefit from the services (Parasuraman et al., 1991). Service quality in public services is an important dimension of compliance between citizens and government. Users do not come

face to face with public agency in e-government services. Service quality may change attitude of citizens. High satisfaction in e-government services affect e-trust directly. Because service quality provides trust to service users for both the site and service (Gefen & Straub, 2004; Al-Dwairi & Kamala, 2009; Ghane et al., 2011; Islam et al., 2012; Papadomichelaki & Mentzas 2012).

H6: Service quality affect Trust in E-government positively

Trust in Internet (TI) and Internet Experince (IE)

Trust to internet related to perception of environmental risks posed by the nature of the Internet. Trust reflection of this environmental factors are structural assurance and situational normality that emerged during the process. Trust in order to be at the desired level, there must be trust in both service provider and technology. (Belanger et al, 2002). Past experiences are so important in the confidence building and the consolidation process. Invididuals control on the results of internet experience and risk affect risk perception. The greater the experience, accepting the risk of those levels also increased. In this context, in the process of usage of e-government services individual's experiences of coping with risk and benefit from internet must be increased. Sharing of personal information in the Internet increases with the internet experience (George, 2002). It is believed that there is a positive relationship between the high internet experience and risk taking to make transactions on the internet (Warkentin et al., 2002; Bannister & Connolly, 2011). But relationship between internet experience and trust of internet users is not fully clear. According to Yao et al (2007) users who have more internet experience have less trust. According to Miyazaki & Fernandez (2001) individuals who have high experience find more secure to transact on the internet. Because user's information increases with the internet experience both studies found this results.

H7: Trust in internet affect Trust in E-government positively

H8: Internet experience affect Trust in E-government positively

6. Methodology

Research Model

The research model developed in the context of the assumption of the study aimed to examine the factors that affect trust in e-government services. For testing these relationships analysis model was used as shown in figure 1. There are many researches examine the effects of independent variables in the model on e-services and e-commerce compliance. But in this study it is aimed to explore the effects of these variables, given dispersed in previous studies, on trust in online environments. In this context, the application domain has been an e-government services.

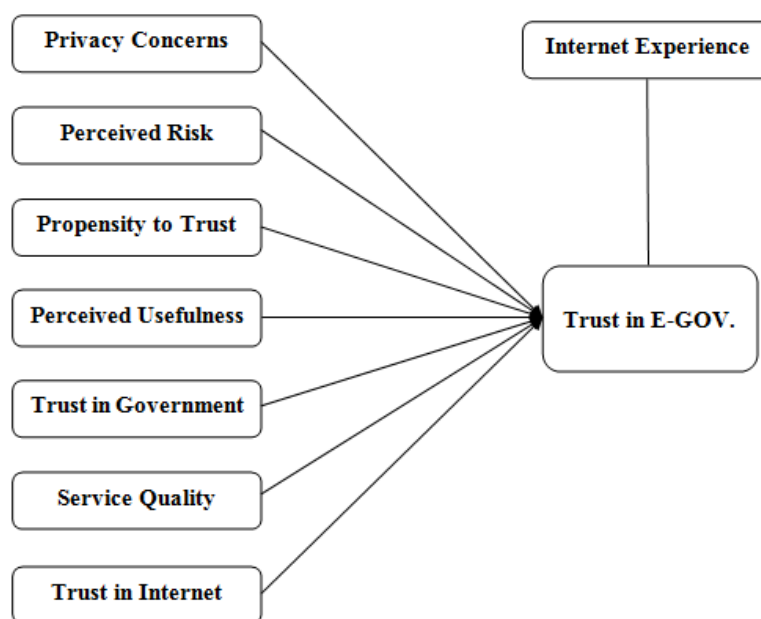


Fig. 1. Research Model

Sample

Analysis at the individual level of the study was carried out on the internet tax office users. Main phases of the study are the taxpayers using internet tax office in all regions of Turkey. To facilitate data collection a questionnaire has been prepared and published on a website. Forms obtained as a result of data collection has been evaluated and a total of 426 questionnaires from different regions of Turkey were included in the sample.

Measuring

Data were collected by questionnaire method. First questions in the questionnaire included trust in e-government and questions about the factors affecting confidence. All questions were measured by five-point Likert scale. For instance, "1" expressed as strongly disagree, "2" expressed as disagree, "3", expressed as neutral, "4" expressed as strongly agree, "5" expressed as strongly agree. The second part of the questionnaire included demographic variables such as age, education, occupation and internet experience.

Data Analysis Method

It has been proposed that for producing information scientific qualifications, interpreting analysis results and acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis, first it should be made reliability and validity. In this context, in the first phase of data analysis process, reliability and validity analyzes of the scale were performed. To test the reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. For the adoption of the scale reliable, the calculated reliability coefficient must be over 0.70. The exploratory factor analysis was conducted to test the construct validity of the scale. To test the research model Structural Equation Modelling was used. To assess compliance between the models determined in SEM and data various fit index are used. Chi-square (χ^2) is the most common fit index and it is expected to be insignificant. Another criteria used when this statistic is not insignificant is the interpretation of the ratio obtained by dividing to degree of freedom (df). This ratio is expected to be below 3 in order to have good model goodness. Common alternative fit index use to assess the data compliance of the model are; Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Normed Fit Index (NFI) ve Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Data fit model to be "acceptable", CFI, TLI, NFI expected to be above ,90, RMSEA expected to be below ,08. To test H8 ANOVA was used and Tukey's test results and the significance level was taken into consideration .

7. Results

The Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4. Demographic Profile of All Respondents

Variable		Count	Percent %
Gender	Male	219	51,4
	Female	207	48,6
Education	Elementary Education	65	15,3
	High School	123	28,9
	Vocational High School	113	26,5
	Under Graduate	82	19,2
	Graduate	43	10,1
Income	Under 1500 TL	86	20,2
	1501 – 3000 TL	148	34,7
	3001 – 4500 TL	99	23,2
	Upper 4501	93	21,8
Age	Under 17	32	7,5
	18-28	111	26,1
	28-39	130	30,5
	40-50	103	24,2
	51 and Upper	50	11,7
İnternet Experience	Under 3 years	54	12,7
	3-6 years	141	33,1
	6-9 years	102	23,9
	Upper 9 years	129	30,3
Occupation	Puplic Employee	101	23,7
	Employee	93	21,8
	Self Employment	56	13,1
	Retired	42	9,9
	Housewife	22	5,2
	Student	85	20,0
	Others	27	6,3
Total		426	100

Table 4 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents for the present study. The proportion between male and female is close to 1. Most of respondents are young and middle age (% 80.8). The large proportion of respondents is from middle income (% 57.9) and low education (70.7) Most of them are working in public and private sector (% 45.5). In the terms of internet experience level, on the half of respondents have being used the internet more than six years.

Results of Validity and Exploratory Factor Analysis

Results of exploratory factor analysis that used to test the construct validity of the scale of the research and reliability analysis are shown in table 4. “Varimax orthogonal rotation” that is the most common rotation method and allowing easier interpretation of factors was used in exploratory factor analysis. When examined items, it is seen that the structure of these factors have a certain consistency.

Table 5. Results of the Validity and Reliability Analysis

	Item	Std. Loading	Eigen value	VEE*	Composite Reliability
Privacy Concerns (PC)	PC1	.915	3.766	75.322	.917
	PC2	.871			
	PC3	.843			
	PC4	.872			
	PC5	.836			
Perceived Risk (PR)	PR1	.903	4.508	75.13	.936
	PR2	.850			
	PR3	.890			
	PR4	.871			
	PR5	.805			
	PR6	.878			
Propensity to Trust (PT)	PT1	.958	3.510	87.757	.953
	PT2	.924			
	PT3	.925			
	PT4	.940			
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	PU1	.873	2.994	74.859	.887
	PU2	.846			
	PU3	.807			
	PU4	.931			
Trust in Government (TG)	TG1	.939	3.396	84.9	.939
	TG2	.932			
	TG3	.916			
	TG4	.899			
Service Quality (SQ)	SQ1	.848	3.005	75.129	.888
	SQ2	.853			
	SQ3	.832			
	SQ4	.931			
Trust in Internet (TI)	TI1	.881	2.234	74.450	.826
	TI2	.857			
	TI3	.850			
Trust in E-Government	TEG1	.853	3.158	78.951	.901
	TEG2	.919			
	TEG3	.863			
	TEG4	.918			

*VEE: Variance Extracted Explained

Results of Structural Equation Modelling and Hypothesis Tests

Research model was tested by Structural Equation Modelling (Table 5). Model gives trust dimensions that affect trust in e-government services. According to fit index values, it can be said that compliance between model and data is very strong. ($\chi^2/df = 1.987$; CFI=.961; TLI=.956; NFI=.926; RMSEA=.048).

Table 6. Model Fit Summary for the Proposed Research Model

Fit Index	Recommended	Model
χ^2/df	<3.0	1.987
NFI	>0.9	92.6
RFI	>0.9	91.6
IFI	>0.9	96.2
TLI	>0.9	95.6
CFI	>0.9	96.1
RMSEA	<0.8	0.48

Trust in e-government services is affected negatively by privacy concerns ($\beta = -.158$; $P < .01$) and perceived risk ($\beta = -.082$; $P < .05$); affected positively by propensity to trust ($\beta = .079$; $P < .05$), perceived usefulness

($\beta=.198$; $P<.01$), trust in government ($\beta=.109$; $P<.05$), service quality ($\beta=.142$; $P<.05$) and trust in internet ($\beta=.207$; $P<.05$). So, all hypotheses are supported.

Table 7. Coefficients of the Variables for the Proposed Model

	Path	Hypothesized Direction	β	SE	p-Value	Supported
H1	PC TEG	-	-.158	.046	.000*	Yes
H2	PR TEG	-	-.082	.033	.012**	Yes
H3	PT TEG	+	.079	.033	.016**	Yes
H4	PU TEG	+	.198	.046	.000*	Yes
H5	TG TEG	+	.109	.033	.001**	Yes
H6	SQ TEG	+	.142	.039	.001**	Yes
H7	TI TEG	+	.207	.046	.012**	Yes

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

Results of ANOVA

In table 8, it is seen whether respondents' level of trust in e-government services change by internet experience. There are significant differences between groups ($p < .05$). According to Tukey test results there is no differences between those that have internet experience between 6-9 year and above 9 year only. According to ANOVA results, H8 was supported. So, it can be say that when internet experience increase, also level of trust in e-government services increases.

Table 8. The Differences Between Groups According to Internet Experience

Variable	Groups	N	X	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference*
Internet Experience	<i>Under 3 years (1)</i>	54	2,5741	.902	47.604	.0000	1-2, 1-3
	<i>3- 6 years (2)</i>	141	3,3475	.925			
	<i>6-9 years (3)</i>	102	4,0098	.938			1-4, 2-3
	<i>Upper 9 years (4)</i>	129	4,1938	.976			2-4
	<i>Total</i>	426	3,6643	1.085			

8. Conclusion

E-trust in the use of e-government services is an important component. Citizens want to share their personal information in a secure environment and complete their transaction to feel more comfortable. Public administrations may increase compliance to e-government services by raise the trust level and allows the realization of services in online environment. Higher compliance to e-government services provides important advantages both citizens and government.

This study explores the factors that affect e-government services. In this context, many research hypotheses has been developed and tested. According to analysis results, trust in internet ($\beta=.207$; $P<.05$) is the most effective factor on trust in e-government services. Perceived usefulness ($\beta=.198$; $P<.01$), privacy concerns ($\beta= -.158$; $P<.01$), service quality ($\beta=.142$; $P<.05$) and trust in government ($\beta=.109$; $P<.05$), are the other strong effective factors on online trust. Propensity to trust ($\beta=.079$; $P<.05$), and perceived risk ($\beta= -.082$; $P<.05$) are factors that have a little effect on trust in e-government services.

Citizens have doubt whether internet is reliable. They are not feeling confident when trading via internet. Due to the uncertain nature and risks of internet, they are uncomfortable about their personal informations may be get by third patties. Persuading citizens about internet is reliable and personal informations are protected contribute significantly to usage level of e-government services. Not only reliability is important for citizens, but also quality is important. On the other hand, reliability of the authorities that provide online services also positively affects the perception of trust.

According to the results, there is a perception that there is no risk to transact in internet tax office. Users of internet tax office worry about the use of informations demanded from them. In fact, even if perceived risk of internet tax office users affect trust in e-government services, this effect is weak. According to general belief in turkey, mutual trust between individuals and institutions are very weak Therefore, the level of propensity to trust of Turkish public is very low. The most interesting result is that even if this

factor affects online trust, this effect is very weak. It can be say that this is due to the difference between real life and nature of virtual environments.

Turkish citizen's trust to internet is so weak. Especially, they are worry about virtual fraud, to get personal informations by third parties, suffer economic and legal losses. Internet tax office does not demand personal informations that could damage them if it gets by others. But, because credit card is used for tax payment in internet tax office, they may be right about privacy concerns. Therefore, it the security infrastructure of the credit card operations should be ensured and citizens need to be convinced. Also, provision of services such as increasing trust level, keeping powerfull communication with users, making feedback, providing payment alternatives and financial incentives will be beneficial.

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Ethics in Politics: Political Virtues of Citizens and Politicians

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Abstract: Today, “ethics” is an important and widely used concept. Generally it points out what is good and what is bad. Nowadays, most societies in the world are complex and they have complex problems. These complex problems may not always be held in check by sanctions. Therefore, another concept that would be helpful to solve such a problem is the concept of “virtue.” When these two concepts are brought together, the concept of “virtue ethics” emerges. Virtue always requires the accompaniment of the law. Thus, even though virtue ethics may not replace the law, it is a necessary complement. In that regard, a democratic state and a lawful state can only be functional with virtuous and ethical citizens and politicians. Since democracies promote all citizens to participate in the politics, the citizens must carry the basic qualities of political virtue. It is even more important for the politicians who assume active positions in politics. Additionally, other political powers who have the power to influence the politics, such as journalists in the media or representatives of various interest groups must also have political virtue. When everybody acts virtuously in its respective environment, most of the problems may be overcome. At that point, certain elements that are required to act virtuously gain prominence: Adopting democracy as a lifestyle and a democratic education, applying democratic decision making processes (at home, at work, etc.), offering successful experiences of democratic politics, etc. In this declaration, the concept of political virtue, which is vital to having virtuous and ethical politicians and citizens, is emphasized and its basic qualities are studied. Afterwards, information is shared on things that can be done to spread political virtue in a society.

In short, democracy needs virtues and in particular political virtues. For this, some demands are have to be made from certain actors in the society.

Keywords: Political Virtues, Political Ethics, Citizens, Politicians, Democracy.

1. Introduction

In a period where the democracy is faced with a crisis and the people's interest in politics is reduced, the ethical foundations of democratic political systems are becoming more and more important. The education should play an important role in gaining the virtue to the citizens and the politicians. Cultivating virtuous people through education shall be an effective way to solve amoral of the problems of the countries. The citizens and politicians are bestowed a virtue ethics through education and thus a successful governance can be achieved, which is discussed since ancient Greek.

In achieving a democratic government system and sustaining this system, both citizens and politicians should have virtue ethics. The importance of virtue ethics is progressively increasing in a time where the trust in politicians is progressively decreasing. Therefore, in this study the ethics, the virtue, and virtue ethics are explained. Then, we shall construe the political virtue ethics with emphasis on its link to the democracy.

2. Ethics, Virtue and Virtue Ethics

The Ethics is a branch of the philosophy; it is moral philosophy or philosophical thinking on morality, moral problems and moral judgments (Frankena, 2007: 20). The Ethics word comes from “Ethos” of the word which means traditions in the Greek. The general definition of ethics is responsibility to the ability to distinguish right from wrong and doing the right thing. Ethic; is related to moral, philosophical values and behavioral norms of society. General ethical norms contain accuracy, honesty, respect against other people and justice (Ayaydin, 2013: 64).

The "Morality" is a word we aren't stranger to, that we often hear and use in our daily life. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that: what we often hear or use in our daily life isn't "morality", but "immoral" or "immorality". Because what mobilize our thoughts about morality is the immorality or the actions we deem as immoral. Let's continue with a word of the last sentence: the action. The immoral (ity) is used as an attribute of an action, a human action. The objects, the incidents, the situations may not be

considered moral or immoral. Likewise, the actions of the animals may not concern the morality, either. What is moral or immoral are solely human actions. The morality is the set of judgments, attitudes, behaviors, principles and rules which enable the human actions to be expressed in value judgments such as right and wrong. The ethics are a deep thinking activity that deals with the morality. The morality is about the human actions. It points out the general rules that direct the human actions towards good. The morality includes the idea of freedom by necessity. The freedom is the prerequisite of the morality. The morality occurs in the actions of the individual in one hand and depends on the will of the individual. But on the other hand, it is based on a continuous social basis. The idea and structure of the morality is already present in the society in which we participate by birth (Uzun, 2015: 3).

Although the morality concerns the actions, the "immoral" is an attribute conferred to the individuals. By characterizing an individual as immoral, we mean to have made a habit of acting against certain rules that we think that they should be complied with. The "immoral" also refers to the wickedness in some cases. "Immoral" evokes by definition negative thoughts about the individual attributed. Such use of immoral points out a lack by its nature: the lack of morality. When we think in those terms, the morality that the characteristic "immoral", first of all, makes reference to the personality, the character, the temperament. So while the immoral means wicked, bad character, weakling; the morality or having morals means, being moral indicates the good nature, the integrity, the good character, and the strong personality. Having good morals and its antonym poor morals is included in the same meaning (Uzun, 2015: 4). Besides that, another important concept of the morality is the "virtue".

The virtue is the skills, capacities and qualifications that an individual should possess in order that a moral situation could be materialized. The virtue is a personality trait. But this trait becomes visible only through the actions. You can not call an individual liar if you don't witness any of his/her actions, however, you can not call him/her honest, either. To be honest, it is necessary to act honestly (Uzun, 2015: 4). The virtues such as courage, rationality, moderation, show the individuals how to act. So, what's to be done is to try to improve these virtues. Because the virtues aren't innate, but acquired personality traits, developed by practice. Predictably, an individual who adopts such justification, shall direct his/her interest to the character and education in ethical issues. In short, the proponent of virtue ethics is in the pursuit of being a "good person". In summary; the virtue ethics is an ethical theory that emphasizes to the personality traits instead of the actions of the individuals in determining the moral action. So the virtue ethics enounce that we should be a good person for moral actions, therefore, we should try to improve the virtues (Uzun, 2015: 24).

3. Political Virtue Ethics and Democracy

European politicians are presently displaying a pretty bad image. In the most general sense, many former and new heads of state, ministers or members of parliament, who involved in corruption, are held accountable for the scandals one way or another. Although this bears on the money, it is closely associated with maintaining and sharing their important positions in the state apparatus and political parties. The reactions of the corrupt senior politicians when they are caught for corruption, are quite interesting. Or they deny their guilt, or they say they aren't aware their crime. Silvio Berlusconi has been portrayed for years as a victim of the conspiracies (Terkessidis, 2014). The virtue is required to overcome the problems of political corruption.

There is neither a political objective nor a strategy. However, it is an important prerequisite for "Good Governance". In the primordial era of the civil society, the "virtue" was a revolutionary idea. The French Revolution transformed the corruptions of the ruling order relied on inheritance, not on success, and tried to provide the food products that weren't sufficient to meet people's needs. Maximilien Robespierre in his discourse "On the Principles of Political Morality", defined "public virtue" concept. The public virtue can be possible only in democracies, because only in democracy, the individuals can fulfill their equality with interest in the common good. Thus, Robespierre sees the virtue and the equality as the "Spirit of the Republic". This also gives a particular responsibility to the politicians representing the sovereignty: The laws must be effective first and foremost on the politicians who promulgate those laws. The government also should check itself. If the government doesn't have any proper virtue, who will keep it in legal limits?" According to Robespierre, this virtue should be used to guarantee the livelihood of the citizens. However,

with this term, not just food should be understood, but all "means of life" should be understood. When we read Robespierre's discourse at that time, the problems seem surprising (for instance, the increasing prices of the foodstuffs because of speculation) (Terkessidis, 2014).

When we expect that the politicians display a virtuous behavior in the political arena, in fact we are expecting of them to do "praised and proud" things by "temperament". In this sense, we can say that the qualities such as self-awareness, being free from envy, being ambitious and hardworking, fairness, honesty and patriotism etc. are accepted and approved by the general public as "praised and proud" virtues. In short, we must underline that it is vitally important to expect of any administrator to realize such virtues that enable them to demand highest good both for themselves and all members of society (Sam, 2010: 31).

Today, meeting the basic needs of the people can take a dramatic turn: food, rent, electricity, water, education or public transport costs have been considerably increased. Hanging posters everywhere in election campaigns is an important indicator of particular mistakes. Many citizens don't believe that the politicians having "public virtues" will not pursue those objectives any longer once they come to power (Terkessidis, 2014).

In recent years, the virtue is implicitly seen as a threat to democracy. But the lack of virtue erodes slowly the democracy from inside (Terkessidis, 2014). Therefore, the virtue can also be used for evil purposes even though it is essential for the democracy.

The contemporary democracy paradigm offers a new approach to the perception of personal ethics. Accordingly, the information society built on free and creative thinking requires the expansion of individual freedom, while it envisages the creation of internal control mechanism in the individual instead of external control in the sake of freedom. The difficulties experienced in the control of expanding individual freedom also supports this prediction. Therefore, in modern society, personal ethics should be established before the institutional ethics, in the sense of *being virtuous*, which is related to the social structure and education. Thus, while the individual adapts to the environment on the one hand, by gaining social values, on the other hand, internalizes universal values such as human rights, equality, rights, justice, freedom based on ethics, molding in personality, developing right and principles (Uluğ, 2009: 9).

The virtues are of great importance for all citizens, in particular for politicians. There are four "cardinal virtues": Wisdom, justice, courage and temperance. Everyone, but especially politicians need to use wisdom, so logic and reasoning skills. For standing behind the ideas and putting the ideas into action, everyone needs courage and boldness - with a modern expression courage-. For weighing conflicting demands and interests proportionality with each other, everyone needs the temperance, that is to say common sense. And finally this weighing should be carried out according to the principles of justice, in essence, rely on fairness and this should direct the behavior (Schmidt, 20002: 163).

For living together concentrated in a narrow space in a democratic and social state, such a catalog of course can not be considered sufficient. For example, where are the virtues such as honesty and honor - which especially should be demanded from the politicians? Where is peace? Anyone with state responsibility as politician should to ask for peace. Some civic virtues can be misused. Any virtue can be abused by anyone whether a higher authority or the state itself. It is possible to exploit the virtues so to speak; for example, The Nazis exploited the courage of countless people. However, the current and future values of virtue aren't reduced because the Nazis and the Communists abused them (Schmidt, 20002: 167). It is necessary to safeguard the fundamental rights of the people so that they display virtuous behavior. An individual who isn't free can not be expected to be virtuous. There are many democratic documents relating to the basic rights of the people.

According to the Virginia Declaration of Rights, all men have inalienable rights such as the enjoyment of life and liberty, pursuing and obtaining happiness. The governments (States) are established to guarantee these rights and take their powers from the consent given by those governed. When a government begins to act contrary to the purpose of its establishment, the public has the right to amend or depose the said government (Kara, 2015: 14). In this sense, the Declaration of Independence emphasizes that a state's duty is to protect and safeguard the inalienable rights of the people and if the governments don't fulfill those duties, the people has the right to revolt against these governments.

4. Conclusion

The political virtue is one of the key concepts of our time. The political virtue is also an effective way of making politics moral. Both citizens and politicians should display ethical behavior in accordance with the virtue ethics for an ethical politics. The education can be used as a tool so that the citizens and politicians can be virtuous. The people can be made virtuous through education. The people can not be expected to exhibit virtuous behavior by leaving them to their own. The important issue to tackle here is by which ethical rules we can make the people virtuous? Each country has its own set of ethical code. A virtue ethics should be created according to the tradition, and the customs, in which the conscience of the individuals might be activated. With the ethical rules acceptable to everyone, the individuals can be made to act virtuously by using families, school as well as mass media.

The political virtue and the ethics committee established by AK Parti is an important step in order to make the politics ethical. In this regard, the political parties may play a role as important political socialization tools in cultivating their members in a virtuous way. In short, there are many tools for the countries to have a democratic political virtue. If those tools are used successfully, it will be easier for both citizens and politicians to have the virtue ethics. Political virtue is needed by not just undemocratic political systems but also democratic political systems.

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Tekirdağ İli Marmara Ereğlisi Martaş Limanı Lojistik Faaliyetlerinin Analizi^{1,2}

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Özet: Dünya ticaret hacminin büyük bir kısmının denizyolu taşımacılığı ile yapılması, limanların uluslararası ticaretteki önemini arttırmıştır. Yeni ticaret koridorları ve yeni pazarlar ortaya çıkaran limanlar, ülkenin dünyaya açılan kapısı olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Limanlar, hem bölgesel ekonomiye hem de ülke ekonomisine katkı sağlamaktadır. Denizyolu taşımacılığı, diğer taşıma şekillerine oranla büyük hacim ve ağırlıktaki ürünleri, en düşük birim maliyetle, güvenilir bir şekilde teslim edilmesi nedeniyle; uluslararası ticarete en çok tercih edilen taşıma şekli olmaktadır.

Teknolojinin gelişmesi ve küresel ticaretin artışıyla yük hareketlerini kontrol altına alabilmek için daha gelişmiş ve yeni teknolojilere sahip limanlar planlanmaktadır. Bölgedeki gelir ve istihdam kaynağı olan limanlar, çeşitli bölgeler arasında sosyal ve ekonomik ilişkilerin gelişmesine de katkı sağlamaktadır.

Bu çalışmada öncelikle, Türkiye'deki denizyolu taşımacılığı ve limanların analizi yapılmış, Martaş Limanı'nın bugünü ve gelecek projeleri analiz edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Denizyolu taşımacılığı, Tekirdağ limanları, Martaş limanı, liman ekonomisi

Analisis of Logistic Activities of Martaş Port in Marmara Ereğlisi

Abstract: Sea transportation is used for the high percentage of World trade and this situation increases the importance of ports in terms of international trade. Ports, that reveal new trade corridors and new markets, are defined as the country's gateway to the world. Ports contribute to not only regional economy, but also countries' economies. Sea transportation is the most preferred transportation mode for international trade because of providing the least cost and safest shipment of higher bulk and mass products compared to the other modes.

Through technologic developments and increasing global trade, more sophisticated and hi-tech ports are planned for better control of loading movements. Ports, that are the foundation of revenue and employment, also contribute to the development of social and economic relationships among regions.

In this study, first of all sea transportation and ports in Turkey are analyzed, then the projects of Martaş Port are analyzed.

Key words: Sea transportation, Tekirdağ ports, Martaş Port, port economy

1. Giriş

Şirketler için rekabetten korunmak için en önemli unsur maliyet avantajı yaratmalarıdır. Taşımacılık ve depolama operasyonu lojistik maliyetlerinde önemli bir yere sahiptir. Türkiye'de taşıma operasyonunda yurt içinde yapılan yük ve yolcu taşımalarının büyük bir kısmı karayolu ile sağlanmaktadır. Bu durum hem maliyet, hem de çevreye olan duyarlılık açısından olumsuzluk yaratmaktadır. Demiryolu taşımacılığı ağır ve hacimli ürünlerin taşınmasında maliyet ve çevre unsurları açısından avantajlı olsa da; Türkiye'de altyapı çalışmaları ve ulaşım ağı yeterli olmamaktadır. Uluslararası ticarete havayolu taşımacılığı hız faktörü avantaj yaratırken, birim maliyeti çok fazla olduğu için, acil, küçük ve değerli ürünlerin taşınmasında daha elverişli olmaktadır.

Denizyolu taşımacılığının diğer taşıma türlerine göre ulaşım kolaylığı, güvenilir bir taşıma şekli olması; maliyet avantajı ve birçok ürünü hacim ve ağırlıklarına bakılmaksızın, tek seferde taşınmasının sağlanması gibi avantajları olsa da; teslimat ve elleçleme sürelerinin uzun olması gibi dezavantajları da vardır.

¹ Namık Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü'nde yapılan Mustafa Çebi'nin yazdığı Martaş Limanı isimli yüksek lisans proje ödevinden türetilmiştir.

² Namık Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü'nde yapılan Selin BAHAR'ın yazdığı "Limanların Ülke Ekonomisindeki Yeri ve Sosyo-Ekonomik Etkilerinin Analizi: Tekirdağ İli Örneği" yüksek lisans tezinden türetilmiştir.

Uluslararası ticaretin büyük çoğunluğu denizyolu ile yapıldığı için, limancılık faaliyetleri küresel ticarete önemli bir yere sahiptir. Denizyolu taşımacılığı diğer taşıma şekillerine oranla büyük hacim ve ağırlıktaki ürünleri en düşük birim maliyetle güvenilir bir şekilde teslim edilmesi nedeniyle uluslararası ticarete en çok tercih edilen ulaşım şekli olmaktadır.

Türkiye üç tarafı denizlerle çevrili olması ve dünya taşıma koridorlarında yer almasıyla, limancılık faaliyetleri alanında önemli bir konuma sahiptir. Limanlar, gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte depolama ve elleçleme hizmetlerinin yanında çeşitli hizmetler de sunaktadırlar. Artık limanlar sadece yük yükleme boşaltma alanı olmaktan çıkmış, lojistik merkez yapılanmasının önemli bir unsuru haline gelmiştir.

Başlangıçta gemilerin korunma yeri olarak düşünülen limanlar, şimdi ticaretin merkezinde yer alan hublar olarak görülmektedir. Günümüzde yeni teknolojilerin kullanıma girmesiyle, limanların barınma işlevi önemini yitirmiş, yerine aktarma ve dağıtım merkezlerinin, aynı zamanda gümrüklü depolama alanları oluşan ara durak konumuna dönüşmüştür. Limanın fiziksel şartları, demiryolu bağlantıları, elleçleme ekipmanları ve hizmet kalitesi gemilerin liman seçiminde etkili bir faktördür.

Denizyolu yük taşımacılığı ile uluslararası ticaretin gelişimi arasında yakın bir ilişki bulunmaktadır. Denizyolu taşımacılığında yaşanan teknolojik ilerlemeler taşıma kapasitelerini artırarak dünya ticaretinin genişlemesine yol açmıştır. Özellikle konteyner gemilerinin ortaya çıkması, elleçleme tekniklerindeki gelişmeler ve depolama ile bilgi ve iletişim teknolojisinde yaşanan dönüşümler bu süreci hızlandırmıştır (Grossmann vd., 2006).

Limanlar, ülkelerin gelişmişlik ve sosyo-ekonomik yapıların ölçümünde de önemli bir kriter olmaktadır. Limanlara gelen gemi sayıları ve yük kapasiteleri, ülkenin ticari gücünü gösteren önemli bir unsurdur. Limanların bölgesel istihdam yaratması bölgenin sosyo-ekonomik değerleri açısından önem arz etmektedir.

Liman yatırımları teknolojik yeniliklere ayak uydurması amacıyla fazla sermaye gerektiren yatırımlar olmasına rağmen; ülkenin yeni pazarlar arayışları için dünyaya açılan kapıdır.

Bu çalışmada, öncelikle Dünya'da ve Türkiye'deki denizyolu taşımacılığının ülke ekonomisine katkısı anlatılmış ve Martaş Limanı detaylı olarak incelenmiştir.

2. Türkiye'de Denizyolu Taşımacılığı

Türkiye konum itibarıyla Akdeniz çanağında, Doğu-Batı, Kuzey-Güney eksenlerinde kavsak noktasında hinterlandıyla Atlantik'e, Arap Yarımadası'na, Ortadoğu'ya, Uzakdoğu'ya Avrupa'dan ulaşımın odağındadır. Bu coğrafi avantaj ayrıca 4.500 (8.333km) deniz millik sahil şeridi ile deniz ulaşımının ülke içinde her bölgeye etkili olacağı bir durumu ortaya koymaktadır. Dünya deniz ticaretinin % 90'ı, Türkiye'nin dış ticaretinin yaklaşık % 85'inden fazlası denizyoluyla yapılmaktadır. (İmeak, 2013)

Dünyada olduğu gibi Türkiye'de de uluslararası ticaretin büyük bir kısmı limanlarımızda deniz yolu taşımacılığı ile gerçekleşmektedir. Türkiye'de deniz yolu taşımacılığı, ülkenin ekonomik, ticari ve sosyal yapısı aynı zamanda küresel pazarlara ulaşması konum itibarıyla jeo-stratejik açıdan son derece uygundur. Ülke ekonomisinin gelişmesindeki rolü göz önüne alındığında taşıma zincirinin deniz ayağı olan limanların yatırımların ve hizmetlerin en iyi şekilde yapılması planlanmalıdır. Küreselleşmeyle birlikte limanlar bölgesel yük hareketlerinden çıkmış aktarma merkezleri olarak yer almaktadır.

2.1. Türkiye'nin Limanları

8333 kilometre kıyı şeridinde sahip ülkemizde 172 adet liman bulunmakta olup, bunlardan 6 tanesi Türkiye Denizcilik İşletmeleri tarafından, 2 tanesi de Türkiye Devlet Demir Yolları tarafından işletilmektedir. Limanlar işletilen Kurumlar açısından 3 kısma ayrılmaktadır: (İmeak, 2014)

- Kamu Limanları: 21 Liman
- Belediye Limanları: 23 Liman
- Özel Limanlar: 128 Liman vardır.

Bölgeler	Toplam Yükleme	Yükleme Payı (%)	Toplam Boşaltma	Boşaltma Payı (%)	Toplam Elleçleme	Toplam Payı (%)
Karadeniz	7740587	4,76	28556489	12,84	36297081	9,43
Marmara	57651596	35,46	106087675	47,71	163739306	42,54
Ege	24849413	15,29	32445145	14,59	57294573	14,88
Akdeniz	72319171	44,49	55280682	24,86	127599897	33,15
Toplam	162560767	100,00	222369991	100,00	384930858	100,00

Türkiye 2013 yılı limanlarımızda, 162.560.767 ton yükleme ve 222.369.991 ton boşaltma olmak üzere toplamda 384.930.758 ton yük elleçlenmiştir. Yüklemenin (% 44.49)'u Akdeniz Bölgesinde, sırasıyla Marmara(%35,46), Ege (%15,3) ve Karadeniz (%4,76) bölgeleri yer almaktadır.

Altas Ambarlı*

- Akçansa*
- Kumport*
- Mardas*
- Marport*
- Total

Altas Nemrut

- Ege Gübre*
- Nemport*
- Batuçim*
- Petkim*
- iDÇ*
- APM Terminalleri*
- Ege Çelik
- Habaş
- Petrol Ofisi
- Total
- Ege Gaz
- Tüpraş

Altas Körfezi

- Ak-Taş*
- Poliport*
- Altıntel *
- Solventas*
- Kroman*
- Diler Demir Çelik*
- Nuh Çimento*
- Evyap*
- Igsaş*

Altas Körfezi

- Koruma Klor*
- Aksa*
- Limaş*
- Ford Otosan*
- Rota*
- Yilport*
- DP World*
- Autoport*
- Efesanport*

Altas Körfezi

- Total Gebze
- Çolakoğlu
- Tüpraş
- Milangaz
- Aygaz
- Derince
- Shell&Turcas

İskenderun

- İsdemir*
- Toros Ceyhan*
- Delta Rubis Petrol*
- MMK Metalurji*
- Limak İskenderun*
- Assan*
- Botaş
- Ekinciler
- Denbirport
- Yazıcı

Altas Körfezi

- Port Akdeniz*
- MIP*
- AVES*

* Türklim Üyesi Limanlar

2014 yılında Türkiye'deki limanlarda toplam 383 milyon ton elleçleme gerçekleşmiştir. Bu yükün %41'i yükleme, %59'u ise boşaltmadır. Özellikle yükleme rakamlarında bir önceki yıla göre %3 oranında bir azalma gerçekleşirken, bu düşüş ağırlıklı olarak genel kargo ve sıvı yüklerde kaydedilmiştir. Bu düşüşün etkisiyle, toplam yük miktarı bir önceki yıla göre sadece %0.5 oranında gerilemiştir. Yük bazında bakıldığında; dökme yüklerde, konteyner yükünde ve RO-RO yükündeki artış sürmüştür. (Türklim, 2015)

Tekirdağ'a 35 km. uzaklıkta, otoyol ve E-5 karayoluna 1 km mesafede, Çorlu havalimanına 20 km uzaklıkta olup, sanayi bölgelerine çok yakın konumdaki limanda, 70.000 dwt'ye kadar olan gemilerin yanaşabileceği, azami 20 metre derinlikte 8 rıhtım bulunmaktadır.

3.1. Hizmetler

Atık Su – Arıtma: Martaş liman tesisleri atık kabul tesisinde sintine suyu, atık, yağ, slaç, pis su ve çöp hizmeti uluslararası MARPOL kurallarına göre verilmekte ve çevreye verilen etkiye dikkat edilmektedir. Tesiste atık tank kapasitesi 340 m³tür.

Romörkör: 1999 model 35,58 bollard çekme gücüne sahip, son teknoloji Kaptan Çebi isimli römorkör ile limanda en emniyetli şekilde manevra yapılabilmektedir.

Kılavuzluk: Ulusal ve uluslararası kurallara uygun olarak deniz örf ve adetlerini tamamen uygulayan kılavuz kaptanları ile 7gün 24saat güvenli, kesintisiz kılavuzluk hizmeti verilmektedir.

Dökme Sıvı: Limanın 1, 2 ve 3 nolu iskeleleri denizcilik müsteşarlığı tarafından kimyasal tankerlerin yanalması ve kimyasal yüklerin elleçlenmesi iznini almış olup Trakya bölgesindeki %90 sıvı yük elleçlemesi limandan yapılmaktadır.

Dökme Yük: Limanda her türlü dökme katı yükün elleçlemesi yapılabilmektedir.

Genel Yük: Limanda; genel yükler için tahmil-tahliye en güvenli ve hızlı şekilde yapılmaktadır.

Proje Yükleri: Limandaki mevcut Sennebogen vinçler 180, 120, 25 MT, Gottwald 35 MT kapasitede olup Trakya bölgesindeki proje hizmetleri limandan yapılmaktadır.

Ro-Ro: Limanda 5 adet Ro-Ro rampası mevcut olup, ulusal ve uluslararası RO-RO gemilerine hizmet verebilmektedir.

Su-Yakıt: Limanda 24 saat tatlı su ve yakıt hizmeti karadan tanker yoluyla verilebilmektedir.

Antrepo: Liman bünyesinde antrepo kodu A2200001 olan 1.065 m² kapalı ve 17.212 m² açık alana sahip A tipi genel antrepo mevcut olup, Antrepodaki eşyaların stok ve sevkiyatları, müşteri memnuniyetini yüksek seviyede tutmaya yönelik süreklilik ve güvenilirlik çerçevesinde yapılmaktadır.

3.2. Liman Tesislerinin Özellikleri

- Pozisyon: Lat. 40° 57' N Long. 27° 55' E
Mevki: Martaş Liman Marmara Denizinin Kuzey kıyısında yer almakta olup İstanbul'un 48 mil batısındadır.
Harita:B.A.1005
- Deniz suyu yoğunluğu: 1017
- Pilotaj: Mecburidir. Pilot demir sahasına veya iskeleye 0.5 mil uzaklıkta servis verebilmektedir. Pilot manevra kanalı VHF Kanal.06/16.
- Dahili gemiler tüm iskelelere yanaşabilmektedir,
- ISPS koda tabidir,
- Yıllık 5.000.000 ton yükleme-boşaltma kapasitesine sahiptir,
- Uluslararası gemilere tüm iskelelerde hizmet verilmektedir,
- Arıtma tesisi mevcut olup, gemilerin atıkları MARPOL kapsamında alınmaktadır,
- Yangına acil müdahale imkanı vardır,
- 2 adet 100 ton kapasiteli araç tartım sistemi mevcuttur,
- Elektrik-Mekanik Tamir-bakım atölyesi mevcut olup, elektrikli ve mekanik arızalara anında müdahale edilmektedir,
- 7 gün 24 saat hizmet verilmektedir.
- 3 lü vardiya düzenine göre çalışılmaktadır,
- Lashing hizmetleri verilebilmektedir,

- Gemilere ihtiyaçları halinde kullanma suyu temin edilmektedir.

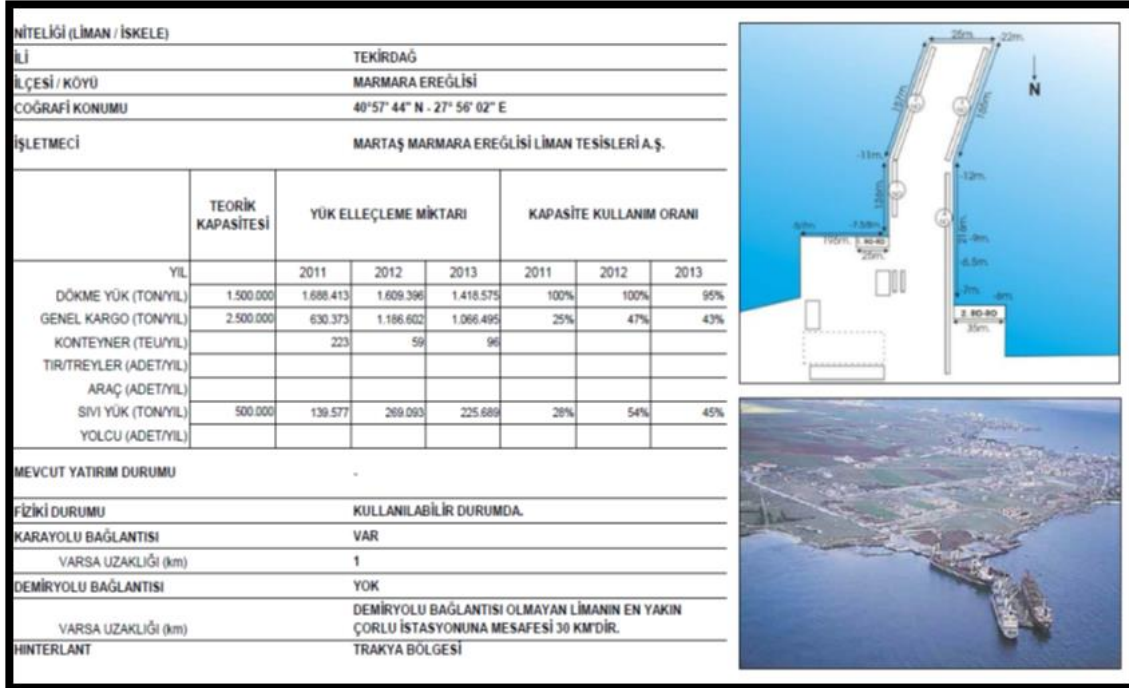
Tablo 2. İskele Bilgileri

İskele No	Uzunluk (m)	Genişlik (m)	Derinlik (m)
1	136	25	7 - 14
2	228	25	14 - 18
3	218	25	12 - 18
4	216	25	6 - 12
5	200	40	4 - 7
6	106	50	4 - 10
7	170	30	10 - 18
8	230	30	6- 18

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

Tekirdağ Martaş Limanı'nda ortalama 3.000.000 ton/yıl yük, yurt içine ve dışına elleçlenmektedir. Yılda 2.500.000 ton dökme yük, 1.000.000 ton genel kargo ve 1.000.000 ton sıvı yük elleçleme kapasitesine sahip olan limanda, dökme yük, genel kargo, TIR/treyler ve sıvı yük elleçlenmektedir. Elleçlenen ürün cinsleri, ağırlıklı olarak hurda demir, taşkömürü, buğday, portland çimento, katranlar, ağaç parçacıkları ve yongalarıdır. Gelen ve giden yükün %80'i karayoluyla Çorlu, Çerkezköy ve Silivri'den gelmekte ve gitmekte, %20'si deniz yoluyla İzmir ve İskenderun'dan gelmekte ve gitmektedir. (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı, 2014)

Ayrıca ABD, Rusya, Romanya, Ukrayna ve Avrupa limanın hinterlandını oluşturmaktadır. Limanda toplam uzunlukları 1.400 m'nin üzerinde 8 adet yanaşma yeri bulunmaktadır. Su derinlikleri -4 m ila -18 m arasında değişmektedir. Liman, Çorlu Havaalanı'na 35 km, İstanbul'a 70 km ve Avrupa Serbest Bölgesi'ne 45 km mesafededir. Martaş Liman tesislerinin ana karayoluna uzaklığı 1,0 km'dir. Bu yolun asfalt kaplama yapılması gerekmektedir. Limanın 36 km mesafede bulunan demiryolu hattına bağlanması, limanın kapasitesini önemli ölçüde artıracaktır. Liman işletmesinin görüşüne göre; karayolu ana artere bağlantısı için istimlak uygulaması yapılmamıştır. Tesise demiryolu bağlantısı bulunmamakta, demiryolu ağına bağlantı ihtiyacı her geçen gün artmaktadır. Limana demiryolu bağlantısı şarttır. (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı, 2014)



Şekil 2: Martaş Liman Planı

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

3.3. Martaş Limanı Yük Değerleri

Tablo 3. Martaş Limanı 2012-2015 Yılları Arası Yük Değerleri

YILLAR	MARTAŞ LİMAN İŞLETMESİ A.Ş.		
	KAPTAN DEMİR ÇELİK	DİĞER FİRMALAR	TOPLAM
2012	1.543.090,65	1.618.811,53	3.161.902,18
2013	1.177.229,40	1.510.441,72	2.687.671,12
2014	1.095.242,40	1.531.375,64	2.626.618,04
2015	1.038.568,60	1.099.330,32	2.137.898,92
Toplam	4.854.131,05	5.759.959,21	10.614.090,26

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

Martaş Limanından alınan verilere göre, Kaptan Demir-Çelik firmasının ithal ettiği hurdalar, antrasit kömür, kütük demir, ferro siliko manganez ve ihracatını yaptığı her türlü inşaat demiridir. Martaş Limanı 2012-2015 yılında yüklerinin yaklaşık yarısını Kaptan Demir Çelik firması için elleçlemiştir.

Tablo 4. Martaş Limanı 2015 Tahmil- Tahliye Miktarları

	KAPTAN DEMİR ÇELİK		DİĞER FİRMALAR		TÜM YÜKLER
	(TON)	%	(TON)	%	(TON)
Ocak	86.275,20	49,48	88.091,80	50,52	174.367,00
Şubat	141.722,55	59,84	95.118,61	40,16	236.841,16
Mart	139.511,65	61,10	88.821,25	38,90	228.332,90
Nisan	93.944,70	52,59	84.696,85	47,41	178.641,55
Mayıs	86.944,45	36,28	152.712,35	63,72	239.656,80
Haziran	114.020,85	50,54	111.602,41	49,46	225.623,26
Temmuz	75.013,95	44,18	94.787,55	55,82	169.801,50
Ağustos	84.423,25	33,83	165.157,85	66,17	249.581,10
Eylül	131.663,45	51,87	122.182,80	48,13	253.846,25
Ekim	85.048,55	46,93	96.158,85	53,07	181.207,40
Kasım					-
Aralık					-
Toplam	1.038.568,60	48,58	1.099.330,32	51,42	2.137.898,92

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

Tablo 5: Martaş Limanı 2015 Yılı Yük Çeşitleri (kg)

Yük	Kantar
Buğday	219.443,11
Petcoke	130.600,95
Klinger	118.608,85
Kağıt hamuru	102.760,40
Kömür	76.148,80
Ağaç yongası	59.645,35
Aluminyum	57.927,00
Filmaşın	45.960,20
Kostik soda	45.086,95
Çuvallı un	34.328,80
Pik demir	29.721,15
Dökme çimento	25.695,55
Asetik asit	24.704,30
Mısır	21.506,00
Sodyum ligno sulphanat	20.939,60
Sülfürik asit	13.527,65
Cam kumu	13.075,45
Dökme cüruf	6.842,35
Aspir tohumu	5.293,35
Melas	4.556,50
Ambalajlı soda	4.295,05
Kasalı cam	4.151,50
Paletli alçı	3.316,40

Kaolin	3.286,15
Fosforik asit	2.720,15
Boru	2.504,45
Proje yük	2.296,06
Cam	2.061,95
Dolomit	1.861,15
Tomruk	1.606,70
Torbalı çimento	1.478,75
Genel kargo	1.073,90
Canlı hayvan	819,45
Diğer	613,95
Yonca balyası	579,45
Toplam	1.089.037,38

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

Martaş Limanı 2015 yılı (ocak- ekim) yük değerleri incelendiğinde, 249.581,10 ton yük ile, Ağustos ayında en yüksek yük kapasitesine sahip olmuştur. Kaptan Demir Çelik ağustos ayında %33.83'lük pay ile 2015 yılında en düşük payını almıştır.

Martaş Limanı'nın yük dağılımında en çok buğday, klinker, petrocok ve kağıt hamuru, en az canlı hayvan ve yonca balyası yer almaktadır.

Tablo 6: Martaş Limanı 2015 Yılı Firma Bilgileri ve Yük Değerleri (kg)

Firma Adı	Ton
Adoçim	112.349,50
Marmara Pamuklu Mensucat	102.760,40
Likit kimya	96.264,20
Ulusoy Un San.	88.471,20
Odak İnşaat	70.543,00
Erişler Gıda	63.160,46
Taçim Çimento San.	61.054,90
Turna Nakliyat	59.645,35
Mechem S.A.	57.927,00
Süper Enerji	49.216,75
Özyaşar Tel San.	40.456,15
Muhammet Gümüştaş	32.537,90
Turun Gıda	27.487,80
Tursa Tarım	21.506,00
Trakya Döküm San.	21.497,05
Karahan Değirmencilik	21.189,05
Göksular Un San.	15.778,85
Marmara Cam San.	14.936,60
Atay Madencilik	14.448,00
Hicri Ercili	13.527,65
Eksun Gıda	10.566,65
Unay Un San.	9.857,70
Akun	8.260,95
Alyak Katı Yakıt	7.280,80
Çimentaş	6.259,35
Schott Orım Cam San.	6.213,45
Koruma Klor	6.038,35
Ulaş Gıda	6.016,45
Ahmet Kılıç Tarım	5.293,35
Sibiryak Maden	5.203,25
Arda Müh	5.025,45
Hema End. A.Ş.	4.609,40
Aveks	3.104,55

Ektaş Tarım	2.982,80
İskeçeli Çelik Yay	2.821,25
Adana Çelik Hasır	2.682,80
NK Çelik	2.272,85
Makyol İnşaat	2.162,86
Durer	1.029,40
Haznedar	1.017,20
Namet	707,70
Diğer	4.873,00
Toplam	1.089.037,37

Kaynak: Martaş Limanı, 2015

2015 yılı Martaş Limanı firma bilgileri incelendiğinde, Kaptan Demir Çelik firmasından sonra ilk sırada %10'luk payla Adoçim şirketi gelmektedir. Adoçim firmasını sırasıyla Marmara Pamuklu Mensuacat, Likit Kimya takip etmektedir.

2015 yılı Martaş Limanı firma bilgileri incelendiğinde, Kaptan Demir Çelik firmasından sonra ilk sırada %19'luk payla TRAÇİM ÇİMENTO SAN. şirketi gelmektedir.

4. Sonuç

Önemli ticaret merkezlerinden biri olan Tekirdağ ili, sahip olduğu lojistik avantajların yanında yoğun bir sanayi bölgesi olması, bir adet serbest bölgenin bulunması dış ticaretteki önemini arttırmaktadır. Tekirdağ ili ihracat ve ithalat rakamlarına bakıldığında vergi numaralarının kayıtlı illere göre hesaplandığı için olması gerekenden düşük gözükmemektedir. Geleceğe dönük ithalat ve ihracat rakamlarımızda değer ve tonaj olarak büyük artışlar beklenmektedir. Bu rakamlarda Tekirdağ limanlarının payı çok fazla olacaktır. Özellikle konteyner taşımacılığının her yıl artması Asyaport'un bir hub liman olarak dünyanın her yerine daha az aktarma ile daha ucuz mal getirtilip gönderilmesinde faydalı olacak ve maliyetler düşecektir.

Tekirdağ TDİ limanında demiryolu bağlantısı yapılarak etki alanı genişlemiştir, İntermodel terminaller için ülkemizin en uygun yeri haline dönüşmüştür. Yapımı devam eden Asyaport'un ve Marmara Ereğlisi'nde yer alan Martaş Limanı'nın demir yolu bağlantısı planı, İstanbul-Kapıkule Yüksek Hızlı Tren ve İstanbul-Çanakkale otoyol projelerinin de tamamlanması ile Tekirdağ ili Asya-Avrupa arasındaki bağlantı sağlayan Lojistik üs haline dönüşecektir.

TCDD Tekirdağ limanına iskeleyle kadar demiryolu hattı çekmiştir. Bu hat vagon ferilerle bandırma limanına bağlanmıştır. Uluslararası demiryolu taşımacılığımızın gelişmesi için bu vagonların katar oluşturacağı merkez yine Tekirdağ olacak ve bu hattın geri dönüşünde Trakya bölgesi ürünleri vagonlarla ege bölgesine taşınabilecektir. Tekirdağ limanlarına konteyner hatlarının bağlanması, demiryolu bağlantıları artık tıkanmakta olan İstanbul sanayisinin Tekirdağ'a yeni OSB projeleri ile birlikte gelmesine yol açacak ve Tekirdağ bölgesi bir sanayi merkezi haline gelecektir. Bunun da ekonomik ve sosyal yaşama olumlu etkileri olacağı kesindir.

RO-RO gemilerinin Tekirdağ limanlarına da hat koyması ile Batı İstanbul bölgesine ulaşımında maliyet avantajı sağlanacaktır. Trakya'dan Avrupa'ya gidecek olan TIR'ların İstanbul Ambarlı'ya kadar gitmeden Tekirdağ'dan gemiye binmeleri maliyet ve zaman avantajı yaratacaktır.

Tekirdağ ili tüm ulaşım modlarını bir arada bulunduran, güçlü ulaştırma altyapısıyla birlikte rekabet avantajı yaratan, yoğun sanayi bölgeleri içerisinde Asya'yı Avrupa'ya bağlayan koridor üzerinde yer almaktadır. Bu stratejik konum, Tekirdağ ilini ülkemizin önemli bir Lojistik Merkezi haline dönüştürecektir.

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Ulaştırma Bakanlığı (2015) Ulaştırma, Denizcilik Ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı Altyapı Yatırımları Genel Müdürlüğü 08 Ocak 2015 Ankara Limanlar Geri Saha Karayolu Ve Demiryolu Bağlantıları Master Plan Çalışması, 1. Ara Rapor

Martaş (2015), Martaş Limanı yayınlanmamış veriler

Türkiye’de Kırsal Kalkınma: Kütahya Örneği

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Özet: Kalkınma birçok bilim insanının yıllardır üstünde çalıştığı, az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerde sorun halinde olan bir kavramdır. Çeşitli planlar çerçevesinde Türkiye’de daha iyiye gidilebilmesi için birçok girişimde bulunulmuştur. Tüm bunların sonunda anlaşılmıştır ki kalkınmayı sadece ekonomik göstergeler ışığında değil sosyal yaşamın unsurları dahil edilerek incelemeli ve kırsal kalkınma ön plana çıkartılmalıdır. Küçük birimleri kalkındırarak iç göçlerin önüne geçilebileceği, bu sayede de yaşanan toplumsal kaos ve çarpık kentleşmenin de engelleneceği görülmüştür. Kırsal kalkınmada özellikle başta tarım sanayinin geliştirilmesi olmak üzere örneğimizi göz önünde bulundurduğumuzda turizm, çinicilik ve porselencilik sektörleri gibi sektörlerin geliştirmesinin gerek ekonomi, gerek istihdam gerekse sosyal hayata büyük katkı sağlayacağı anlaşılmıştır. Bunlara ek olarak Kütahya’da ilçeler arası ulaşım problemi çözümlenmeli ve özellikle sağlık ve eğitim daha kolay ulaşılabilir hale getirilmelidir. Çalışmamızda bahsi geçen konular sırasıyla kalkınmanın ne olduğu, az gelişmiş ülkelerin özellikleri, kalkınma yaklaşımları, kalkınma stratejileri, Türkiye’de kalkınma planları, Kütahya hakkında genel bilgiler ve Kütahya’da kırsal kalkınma için yapılabilecek unsurlar belirtilmek suretiyle bir inceleme gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kırsal Kalkınma, Tarımsal Sanayi, Göçler

Rural Development in Turkey: The Case of Kütahya

Abstract: Development is a concept that many scientist has been working about it over the years and problem in underdeveloped and developing countries. In Turkey under several plans it has been several attempts to get better. All understood that development is not only a result of these economic indicators but also it should be examined in the light of social life and included elements of rural development should be highlighted. Migration can be prevented, by uplifting the small units, that also experienced social chaos and unplanned urbanization has been seen to be blocked. Rural development, especially when we consider our example, including the development of the agricultural industry in particular tourism, the economy should be the development of the sector, such as pottery-making and Porcelain manufacture industries and employment as well as social life is understood to contribute a lot. In addition, it should solve the transportation problems in Kütahya between counties and should be made more accessible, especially health and education. In our study mentioned issues are; what is the development, features of least developed countrie, development approaches, development strategies, development plans in Turkey, general informations about Kütahya, elements that can be done for rural development in Kütahya were carried out by a study said.

Keywords: Rural Development, Agricultural Industry, Migration

Giriş

Kalkınma, bir ülkenin gelişmişlik düzeyiyle doğrudan ilgili olan bir kavramdır. Az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerin başlıca sorunlarından biridir. Kalkınmanın ülke genelinde değerlendirilmesi önem arz ederken, asıl unsurun ise bölgeler ve bunları oluşturan birimlerin kalkınması gerekliliği olduğu gözden kaçırılmamalıdır. Kalkınmanın birçok unsuru yer almaktadır. Kırsal alanlar için bu unsurları şu şekilde sıralayabiliriz. Bölgenin durumuna uygun ekonomik faaliyetler, yatırımlar, adil gelir dağılımı, tasarruflar, eğitim, sağlık, sosyal yaşam, nüfus ve çevresel faktörler. Bu unsurlar gözetilerek yapılacak çalışmaların kalkınma hedeflerinde nihai sonuca ulaşmada başarı sağlamaya neden olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Ülkenin kalkınmasını bir dağın zirvesine benzetirsek aşağıda kalan yamaçlar zarar gördüğünde heyelanın nihai bir sonuç olacağı ve zirve noktasının da bundan zarar göreceği aşikârdır.

Çalışmamızda öncelikle kalkınmanın ne olduğu, kalkınmanın azgelişmişlik düzeyi göz önüne alındığında bunu açıklayan yaklaşımları, kalkınma stratejilerini, Türkiye’de yapılmış olan kalkınma planlarının özetleri incelenmiştir.

Tüm bu unsurlar ışığında çalışmamızda Kütahya şehri ve bağlı ilçeleri incelenmiştir. Bu incelemeler de tarımsal sanayiye dikkat çekilmiş, yatırım ve istihdam ile ilgili boyutu ilişkilendirilmiş ve farklı yatırımlar sayesinde de daha iyi bir düzeye gelinebileceği konusunun üzerinde durulmuştur. Ayrıca eğitim, sağlık, sosyal yaşam, ulaşım gibi unsurların kişilerin yaşamlarını hangi yönleri ile etkilediği belirtilmiştir.

Kalkınma, Az Gelişmişlik ve Büyüme

Kalkınma, salt üretimin ve kişi başına gelirin arttırılması demek olmayıp, az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan¹ bir toplumda iktisadi ve sosyo-kültürel yapının da değiştirilmesi, yenileştirilmesidir. Kişi başına düşen milli gelirin artması yanında, genel olarak üretim faktörlerinin etkinlik ve miktarlarının değişmesi, sanayi kesiminin milli gelir ve ihracat içindeki payını artması gibi yapısal değişiklikler, kalkınmanın temel öğeleridir.

Dünya Bankası 2001 yılı itibariyle dünya ülkelerinin gelir düzeyini temel alarak yaptığı gruplandırma şöyledir: Düşük gelirli ülkeler (kişi başına milli geliri 745\$'a kadar olanlar), orta gelirli ülkeler 746-9205 \$ arası) ve yüksek gelirli ülkeler (kişi başına milli geliri 9205 \$ üzerinde olanlar). Türkiye bu sınıflandırmada orta gelirli ülkeler içinde, üst ve orta gelirli ülkeler sınıfına girmektedir.²

Az gelişmişliğin Tanımlanması

Ünlü iktisatçı Kuznets az gelişmişliği üç temel kıstasa göre tanımlamıştır. 1.Uluslararası Gelişme Farklılıklarına Göre: Az gelişmiş ülkeler mevcut tüm ülkelere ilişkin gelişme skalasının en alt sıralarında yer alan ülkelerdir. 2. Kaynak Kullanım Durumuna Göre: Ülkelerde gerçekleştirilen (fiili) üretim düzeyi, potansiyelden düşük ise bu ülke az gelişmiş ülke sayılabilir. 3.Toplumsal Bireysel Temel ihtiyaçların Karşılmasına Göre: Bir ülke, nüfusunu büyük çoğunluğu toplumsal ve bireysel ihtiyaçlarını gideremeyecek durumdaysa, o ülke az gelişmiş bir ülkedir.⁽²⁾

Az gelişmişliğin Ölçülmesi

Az gelişmişliğin Ölçülmesinde Kullanılan Parasal Ölçütler: En çok kullanılan ölçüt, GSMH değeridir. GSMH büyüklüğü, uluslararası karşılaştırmalarda kullanılan en önemli ölçüttür. Kişi başına GSMH, az gelişmişliğin ölçülmesinde kullanılan ölçütlerden biridir. Az gelişmişliğin ölçülmesinde Kullanılan Parasal Olmayan Ölçütler: Fiziksel tüketim düzeylerini gösteren endeksler, elektrik enerjisi tüketimi, çimento üretim ve tüketimi, petrokimya ürünleri üretim ve tüketimi sayılabilir.³

Az Gelişmiş Ülkelerin Ortak Özellikleri

Nobel ödüllü Meksikalı şair Octavia Paz, “Üçüncü Dünya” diye adlandırılan az gelişmiş ülkeleri en çarpıcı bir ifade ile şöyle tanımlamaktadır. “ Güçlülerin zayıflara sürekli egemen olduğu, siyasetin ekonomiye, hiyerarşinin yeteneğe, gizli ilişkilerin hak ve hukuka baş eğdirdiği, eleştirilerin mutlaka bir şekilde ceza gördüğü, insanın hor görüldüğü yer...”⁽³⁾

Bu tanımlamadan da anlaşılacağı gibi az gelişmiş ülkelerin sorunları yalnız ekonomik değil, aynı zamanda siyasal ve toplumsaldır.⁽⁴⁾ Bu bilgiler ışığında az gelişmiş ülkelerin özelliklerini inceleyelim.

¹ TÜMAY, E., (2014), “Türkiye Ekonomisi, Beta Yayınları, İstanbul

² SAVAŞ, F.V., (1979), “Kalkınma Ekonomisi (İkinci Baskı)”, İ. İ. T. İ. A. Nihad Sayar Yardım Vakfı Yayınları, No:315/547, İstanbul, Türkiye.

³ OAKLEY, P. ve GARFORTH, C., 1985. Guide to extension training, FAO Training Series, No: 11, FAO, Rome, Italy.

Düşük Gelir Düzeyi

Az gelişmiş ülkelerde kişi başına düşen gelir gelişmiş ülkelere göre düşüktür. Bunun bir istisnası politik, sosyal ve kurumsal yönden az gelişmiş olmasına rağmen önemli petrol kaynaklarına ve üretimine sahip bazı ülkelerde kişi başına düşen gelirin oldukça yüksek olmasıdır. ⁽⁴⁾

Gelir Dağılımında Eşitsizlik

Ülkeden ülkeye farklılıklar göstermesine karşın, genelde az gelişmiş ülkelerdeki gelir dağılımı gelişmiş ülkelerdeki gelir dağılımına göre daha eşitsizdir. ⁴

Yoksulluk

Düşük gelir düzeyi ve dağılımındaki eşitsizliğin bir sonucu olarak az gelişmiş ülkelerde yoksulluk büyük boyutlardadır. Özellikle Afrika ülkelerinin bir kısmında zaman içinde kişi başı gelirin artması yerine azalması bu ülkelerde yoksulluğu ve açlık nedeniyle ölenlerin sayısını önemli derecede arttırmıştır. Özellikle Pakistan, Hindistan, Bangladeş, Endonezya, Burma, Filipinler gibi Asya ülkeleriyle Afrika ülkelerinin çoğunda yoksulluk büyük boyutlardadır. ⁽⁴⁾

Sanayi Sektörünün Gelişmemiş Olması

Gelişmiş ülkeler aynı zamanda sanayileşmiş ülkelerdir. Az gelişmiş ülkeler ise sanayileşmemiş ve tarım sektörünün ekonomide önemli bir yer tuttuğu ülkelerdir.

Gelişmemiş ülkelerde tarım sektöründe modern teknolojiler kullanılmakta ve verimlilik az gelişmiş ülkelerin tarım sektöründeki verimliliğe göre çok daha fazladır. Gelişmiş Batı ülkelerinin çoğunda nüfusun % 10'undan azı tarım sektöründe çalışırken az gelişmiş ülkelerde bu oran ortalama olarak %35 düzeyindedir. ⁵

Hızlı Nüfus Artışı

Az gelişmiş ülkelerde nüfus artış oranı gelişmiş ülkelerdeki nüfus artış oranına göre daha fazladır. Özellikle kırsal kesimde nüfus artışı daha da fazla olup bu az gelişmiş ülkeler için ciddi bazı sorunlara neden olmaktadır. Hızla artan nüfusu tarım sektörü istihdam edememekte, kırsal kesimden şehirlere devamlı bir göç olmaktadır. Bu ülkelerin çoğunda sanayileşme yeterince hızlı olmadığı için kırsal kesimden şehirlere göç eden nüfusa yeterli iş olanakları yaratılamamakta, bu insanlar hizmetler sektöründe iş olanakları aramakta ve çoğu işportacılık gibi işlerde bir kazanç sağlamaya çalışmaktadırlar. Dolayısıyla bu ülkelerde işsizlik önemli bir sorundur. Hızlı nüfus artışı konut, yol, su, elektrik, sağlık ve eğitim gibi altyapı sorunlarının ortaya çıkmasına, ayrıca plansız bozuk bir şehirleşmeye yol açmaktadır.

Düşük Eğitim Düzeyi

Az gelişmiş ülkelerde okuryazarlık oranı gelişmiş ülkelere göre daha düşük düzeydedir. Özellikle yükseköğrenim görenlerin toplam nüfusa oranı oldukça düşük seviyede olup, eğitim sistemi de yetersizdir. Bu ülkelerde düşünmeyi sorgulamayı ve araştırmayı vurgulayan ve olaylara ilgili insanlar yetiştirmeye yönelik bir eğitim sistemi yerine düşünmeye, sorgulamaya ve araştırmaya yeterince önem vermeyen ezberci bir eğitim sistemi hâkimdir. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti 80 yıldan fazla bir geçmişine karşın eğitim sorununu hala çözebilmiş değildir. ⁶

⁴ İLKİN, A., (1979), “Kalkınma ve Sanayi Ekonomisi (Üçüncü Baskı)”, İ.Ü. Yayın No: 2691, İk. Fak. Yayın No: 453, İstanbul, Türkiye.

⁵ GÜNGÖR M., (2004), “Nereye Gidiyoruz”, Vatan 25 Temmuz, 2004- Prof. Dr. Tümay Ertek, Temel Ekonomi, s.548

⁶ GERAY, U., (1991), “Ekonomi”, İ.Ü. Orman Fakültesi Yayınları, İ.Ü. Yayın No: 3633, Or. Fak. Yayın No:408, İstanbul, Türkiye.

Yetersiz Sağlık Hizmetleri

Az gelişmiş ülkelerde maddi olanaksızlıklar ve yeterli sayıda sağlık elemanı bulunmaması nedeniyle sağlık hizmetleri de yetersizdir. Dolayısıyla bebek ölümü oranı yüksektir. Ömür uzunluğu, gelişmiş ülkelerdekinden daha kısadır. Fakat doğurganlık oranı çok daha fazla olduğu için, nüfus artış oranı yine de gelişmiş ülkelerdekinden çok daha fazladır.⁷

Kırsal Kalkınma Yaklaşımları

Geleneksel İktisada Dayalı ve Yapısalcı Yaklaşımlar

Kalkınmamışlığın nedenini; ekonomilerde arz ve talepten kaynaklanan kimi önemli yetersizliklere, üretim faktörlerinin dağılımında görülen aksamalara, girişimci eksikliğine, piyasaların darlığına, kıt ekonomik kaynakların yanlış dağılımına, gerekli üretim teknolojisinin yokluğuna, insan sermayesindeki eksikliklere vb. bağlamaktadırlar. Kısır döngü, belli sayıda faktörler arasındaki örgütsel bir neden-sonuç ilişkileri sistemidir. Gelişme konusunda ilk kısır döngü modeli, klasik iktisatçılar tarafından ortaya atılmıştır.⁸

Bağımlılık Yaklaşımı

Az gelişmişliği de gelişmişliği de yaratan kapitalist gelişme ve yayılmadır. Geri kalmış ülkelerin içinde bulundukları durum, doğrudan kapitalist gelişmenin ve onun iç çelişkilerinin sonucunda ortaya çıkmıştır. Kapitalist yayılmanın az gelişmiş ülkelerde kapitalist gelişmeye uygun koşulları yaratmak bir yana; bu ülkelerde sadece kapitalist az gelişmişliğinin koşullarını yarattığı ileri sürülmektedir. Bu yayılma, merkeze kapitalist gelişmeye uygun bir ortam yaratırken, çevrede bu tür ortamın oluşmasını engellemektedir.⁹

Demografik Yaklaşımlar

Bu yaklaşımlara göre, az gelişmişliğin nedeni; nüfus artış hızının nispeten yüksek olması, dolayısıyla bağımlı kabul edilen genç nüfusunun hızla artması ve bunların doğurduğu olumsuz sonuçlardır.¹⁰

Sosyo- Kültürel Yaklaşımlar

Az gelişmişliğin tipik özelliklerinden birisi iktisadi ikiliktir. İktisadi ikilik, bir ekonomi içinde yapısal olarak farklı ekonomik kesimlerin (kim zaman bölgelerinin) yan yana bulunmasıdır. Sosyal İkilik Kuramı: Boeke'ye ait sosyallik kuramı, doğulu ve batılı toplumların temel özelliklerinin araştırılmasına dayanır. Kuram, sosyal sistem kavramından hareket edilerek tanımlanmıştır. Bir toplumda tek bir sosyal sistem varsa, o toplum homojendir. Boeke'ye göre, az gelişmiş ülkelerde iki ayrı sistemden öbürüne geçiş halinde bulunan sosyal sistem çatışma içindedir. Az gelişmiş toplumlarda genellikle insanların çalışma ve tasarruf eğilimi düşüktür. Rasyonel düşünce gelişmemiştir. Az gelişmiş ülkelerde, Schumpeter anlamında, dinamik bir gelişimde bulunması gereken ürün ve üretim yöntemlerinin iyileştirilmesi düşüncesi de yeterince gelişmemiştir. Hirschman, az gelişmiş ülkelerin temel sorununu bu ülkelerin

⁷ BRADEN, P., V. And LOUSE., (1980) "Bringing Travel, Tourism and Culturel Resource Activities in Harmony With Regional Economic Development" Tourism Marketing and Management Issues, George Washington University, Washington.

⁸ DORNBUSCH, R., and STANLY, F., (1998), "Macroeconomics", Mc Graw-Hill Inc. Newyork.

⁹ Friedman, J., (1973), "Urbanistaion Planning and National Development", London

¹⁰ MCCANN, P., (2001), "Urban and Regional Economics", Oxford University Press

sahip oldukları potansiyel kaynaklarını harekete geçirme ve anlamlı olarak değerlendirme becerinde girmektedir. Weber, Katolik inançlarla ekonomik gelişmenin sağlanamayacağını savunmuştur.¹¹

Coğrafi-İklimsel Yaklaşım

Ilıman iklim bölgelerinde bulunmayan toplumların gelişmeye yatkın olmadığı, (çoğu az gelişmiş ülkelerin yer aldığı) tropikal bölgelerin toprak üstü zenginliği çok düşük olduğu ve tropikal iklimin, insan davranışları üzerinde olumsuz etkiler yaptığı savunulur. Tropikal bölgelerde doğal kaynaklar da pek zengin değildir. Doğal kaynaklar yönünden sahip olunan yoksulluk gelişmeye engelleyici bir durumdur. Ancak, üretim faktörlerinin bolluğu ile sonuçlanacak “doğal kaynaklar zenginliğinin”, kalifiye iş gücü, sermaye ve teknolojinin, büyümenin – gerekli olsa bile – yeterli koşulu olduğunu söylemek zordur. Öyle olsaydı, doğal kaynak (petrol) zengini Nijerya gelişmiş bir ülke olmalı Berlin Duvarı yıkılmadan önce Doğu Almanya’nın kalifiye işgücü, Batı Almanya ile aralarında var olan gelişmişlik farkının ortaya çıkmasına engel olmalı teknoloji yeterli olsaydı, bugün Sovyetler Birliği hala var olmalıydı.¹²

Türkiye’de Yapılan Kalkınma Planları

Devlet Planlama Teşkilatının kurulduğu tarihten bu güne kadar 10 adet Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı uygulanmaya konulmuştur. Bu planların ortak özelliği sanayileşmeye öncelik vermeleridir. Planların iktisadi felsefeleri ve yaklaşımları kapsamında; 1960 öncesi planlar devletçi, kısmi, 1960- 1980 planları: karma ekonomi, bütüncül, 1980- 2000 planları : liberal, stratejik olarak nitelendirilebilir. 1980 öncesinde sanayileşmede << ithalat ikamesi politikaları>>, 1980 sonrası ise << açık ekonomiye geçiş >> yönlendirici olmuştur. Türkiye, 1963 yılında planlı döneme girerken, ülkenin sosyoekonomik potansiyelini değerlendirmek ve bu potansiyeli orta dönemde planlarla en iyi şekilde yönlendirebilmek için, amaç ve hedeflerin önceliklerini tespit eden 15 yıllık perspektif plan hazırlama gereğini duymuştur. II. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı (1968-1972) özellikle sanayi sektörünün ekonomide sürükleyici sektör niteliği kazanması ilkesini benimsemiştir. Değişen dünya şartları ve Türkiye’nin Avrupa Ekonomik Topluluğu ile ilişkileri dikkate alınarak 1973-1995 dönemini kapsayan yeni bir perspektif plan hazırlanmıştır. Yeni perspektif plan 1995’te ulaşılmak istenen gelir seviyesi ve üretim yapısını belirlemiş, mevcut potansiyelin en yüksek seviyede değerlendirilmesini amaçlamıştır.¹³

Yeni perspektife göre hazırlanan III. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı (1963- 1977), gelir seviyesinin artırılmasını, sanayileşmenin özellikle ara ve yatırım malı üreten sektörlerde hızlandırılmasını ve dış kaynaklara bağımlılığın azaltılmasını amaçlamıştır. IV. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı(1979-1983), kamu kesimi ağırlıklı sanayileşme stratejisini benimsemiş ödemeler dengesini iyileştirmeyi ve ekonominin kendine yeterli hale getirilmesini hedef almıştır. V. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı (1985-1989), Türk ekonomisinin dışa açılmasına ve ihracata öncelik veren kalkınma politikalarının uygulanmasına ağırlık vermiştir. Ekonomiye kamu müdahalesinin asgari seviyeye indirilmesini, liberal bir dış ticaret ve yabancı sermaye politikasının uygulanmasını, alt yapı ve konut yatırımlarını artırılmasını ve bölgeler arası gelişmişlik farklılıklarının azaltılmasını öngörmüştür. VI. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planının (1990-1994) temel önceliklerini ise birbiriyle ilişkili üç ana noktada toplamak mümkündür. Bunlar, enflasyonu tedricen düşürmek, kaynakları artan oranda imalat sanayisine yönlendirmek ve sosyal politikalara daha fazla ağırlık vermektedir. Türkiye’yi 2000’li yıllara hazırlamanın gerekli alt yapısını oluşturmak amacıyla hazırlanan ve 1996 yılında uygulamaya giren VII. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı yaklaşımın ortaya koyduğu perspektif ise öncelikleri ve politikaları itibarıyla çağın değişen ekonomik ve sosyal gelişmelerini dikkate almaktadır. 1970’lerin ortasından itibaren gelişmiş ülkelerin önemli bir bölümünde, özellikle teknolojik gelişimi yavaşlayan ülkelerde bazı tıkanmalar yaşandığı ve bu somut durumun izlenmekte olan müdahaleci devlet ve refah devleti politikalarının

¹¹ Kaul, L., GOULVEN, K., and SCHNUPF, M., (2002), “Global Public Goods Financing: New Tools for New Challenges”, UNDP Office of Development Studies.

¹² KANBUR R., SANDLER T. and MORRISON K., (1999), “The Future of Development Assistance: Common Pools and International Goods”, Policy Essay, No: 25, Washington D.C., Overseas Development Council.

¹³ DPT, (2000), “Sekizinci Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı, Bilim ve Teknoloji Özel İhtisas Komisyonu Raporu, Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı, ÖİK:544, Ankara

sorgulanmasına yol açtığı görülmektedir. Artık, bu politikaların küreselleşmenin hızlandığı rekabetçi bir dünyada sürdürülmesinin mümkün olmadığı, bunun bölgesel entegrasyonlara katılmanın temel gereği olduğu ve bu gelişime ayak uyduramayan ülke ekonomilerinin marjinalleşerek küçüleceği ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu çerçevede, ortaya çıkabilecek dar boğazları öngörüp gidermek ve dünyanın değişen koşullarının gereği olarak, Avrupa Birliği ile ya da genel olarak dünya ile bütünleşmek sürecinde uyumda yaşanabilecek sıkıntıları aşmak için yapısal ve kurumsal nitelikte önlemler almak büyük önem kazanmış, VII. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı bu temel anlayışla hazırlanmıştır. VIII. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı (2001-2005) ekonomik istikrarın sağlanması yanında, yapısal ve kurumsal düzenlemeler, rekabet gücünün artırılması, AB'ye uyum, bilgi çağına geçişin altyapısının oluşturulmasına başlanması, teknoloji üretimi ve gelir dağılımındaki farklılıkların azaltılmasında etkileşimli yaklaşımla bölge ve il planlamalarına öncelik verilmesine göre hazırlanmış ve TBMM onayı ile yürürlüğe girmiştir. VIII. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı küresel ve ülke düzeyinde orta ve uzun dönem stratejileri kapsayan dinamik ve sürekli yinelenen bir yapıya sahiptir. VIII. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı dönemi toplumun yaşam kalitesinin yükseldiği, kesintisiz ve istikrarlı büyüme sürecine girildiği, Avrupa Birliği üyeliği sürecindeki temel dönüşümlerin gerçekleştirildiği, dünya ile bütünleşmenin sağlandığı ve ülkemizin dünyada ve bölgesinde daha güçlü etkili ve saygın yer edindiği bir dönem olmuştur. IX. Kalkınma Planı (2007-2013), değişimin çok boyutlu ve hızlı bir şekilde yaşandığı, rekabetin yoğunlaştığı ve belirsizliklerin arttığı bir döneme rastlamaktadır. Küreselleşmenin her alanda etkili olduğu, bireyler, kurumlar ve uluslar için fırsatların ve risklerin arttığı bu dönemde, Plan Türkiye'nin ekonomik, sosyal ve kültürel alanlarda bütüncül bir yaklaşımla gerçekleştireceği dönüşümleri ortaya koyan temel politika dokümanıdır. Bu kapsamda IX. Kalkınma Planı "İstikrar içinde büyüyen, gelirini daha adil paylaşan, küresel ölçekte rekabet gücüne sahip, bilgi toplumuna dönüşen, AB'ye üyelik için uyum sürecini tamamlamış bir Türkiye" vizyonu ve Uzun Vadeli Strateji (2001-2023) çerçevesinde hazırlanmıştır. Türkiye'yi 21. yüzyıla hazırlamanın gerekli alt yapısını oluşturmak amacıyla hazırlanan 2001-2023 yıllarını kapsayan Uzun Vadeli Gelişme Stratejisinin ortaya koyduğu perspektif, öncelikleri ve politikaları itibarıyla çağın değişen ekonomik ve sosyal gelişmelerini dikkate almaktadır.¹⁴

Bu bilgiler ışığında Kütahya ili ve özellikle Pazarlar ve Şaphane ilçelerini baz aldığımız örneğimizi inceleyeceğiz.

Kütahya Hakkında Genel Bilgiler

Kütahya merkez ilçesi ile beraber 13 ilçeye, 27 belediyeye, 541 köye sahip olan bir ilimizdir(15) 393.115 il ve ilçe nüfusu, 178.348 belde ve köy nüfusu olmak üzere toplam 571.463 kişilik nüfusa sahiptir.¹⁵

Kütahya'nın Tarihi ve Kültürel Değerleri

Müzeler

Arkeoloji Müzesi, Çini Müzesi, Lagos müzesi, Anadolu Kültür, Sanat ve Arkeoloji Müzesi, Jeoloji Müzesi, Dumlupınar Müzesi, Tavşanlı Belediye Müzesi, Kütahya Belediyesi Kent Tarihi Müzesi, Kütahya Belediyesi Milli Mücadele Müzesi, Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Arkeoloji Müzesi.⁽²⁹⁾

Antik Kentler

a) Aizanoi Antik Kenti; Zeus Tapınağı, Tiyatro. Stadyum, Borsa Binası (Dünyanın ilk ticaret borsası olarak tanımlanmaktadır.) Antik Köprüler, Sütunlu Cadde gibi önemli bulgulara rastlanmıştır.

b) Frigya Vadileri

¹⁴ <http://www.kalkinma.gov.tr/>

¹⁵ Kütahya Kültür ve Turizm İl Müdürlüğü, Kütahya Tanıtım Broşürü 30 Kutsa Faaliyet ve Tanıtım Dergisi 184. Sayı ve Kütahya Valiliği

Camiler ve Türbeler

Ulu Camii, Mevlevihane- Dönenler Camii, Tavşanlı Ulu Camii, Çinili Camii, Simav Ağa Camii Yeşil Camii, Şaphane Koca Seyfullah Camii, Hıdırlık Mescidi, Muvakkithane, Menzilhane, Şeyh Buhari (Gümüşeşik) Türbesi, Ana Sultan Türbesi, Dedebalı Türbesi, Hayme Ana Türbesi, Sunullah Gaybi Türbesi, Paşam Sultan Türbesi, Kara Ahmet Bey Türbesi.

Termal Turizm Merkezleri

Ilica, Emet, Gediz Murat Dağı, Gediz Ilicasu, Simav, Eynal, Çitgöl, Naşa, Tavşanlı, Hisarcık Esire, Emet Dereli Termal Turizm Merkezleri ve Yoncalı Kaplıcaları, Hisarcık Hamamköy Kaplıcaları, Emet Yeniceköy Kaplıcaları.

Organize Sanayi Bölgeleri

Kütahya beş tane organize sanayi bölgesine sahiptir. Bir tanesi ise yapım aşamasındadır. Bu bölgeler merkezde 2 tane ve Gediz ve Tavşanlı da 2 tane olarak konumlandırılmıştır. Yapım aşamasındaki ise Zafer Organize Sanayi Bölgesi olarak Altıntaş'ta'dır. Ayrıca Simav da bir Organize Sanayi bulunmaktadır. Bütün bölgeler yatırım teşvikleri olarak 4.bölgenin olanaklarından yararlanır. Aynı zamanda bölgeler arası farklılıklarla 5. Bölge avantajlarından da yararlanmaktadır. Bu teşvikler şöyledir; Yatırıma Katkı Oranı, Vergi İndirimi Desteği, Sigorta Primi İşveren Desteği Primi, Faiz Desteği Kredisi, Dış/ Döviz Kredisi, KDV İstisnası, Gümrük Muafiyeti. Yatırım teşvikinden yararlanmak için yatırımın 500.000 -1000.000 TL lik yatırım olması gereklidir.

Birinci Organize Sanayi Bölgesi: Çeşitli imalat sanayi kollarının olduğu toplam 64 firmaya sahip olup, ilin en yoğun OSB'si konumundadır.

İkinci Organize Sanayi Bölgesi: İçinde Maden, Kimya Sanayi, Kağıt Sanayi, Seramik Sanayi, Ahşap Mobilya Sanayi, Makine Sanayi kollarının olduğu toplamda 16 firma bulunmaktadır.

Tavşanlı Organize Sanayi: Çeşitli imalat sanayi kollarının olduğu toplam 19 firma bulunmaktadır.

Gediz Organize Sanayi: Çeşitli imalat sanayi kollarının olduğu toplam 26 firma bulunmaktadır.

Kütahya ilinde Türkiye'nin en büyük Bor ve Manganez yataklarının yanı sıra, Linyit kömürü, Demir, Manganez, Kaolin, Dentonit, Kireç Taşı, Feldspat, Gümüş, Altın, Alonit, Mermer, Antimuan, Krom, Bakır, Kurşun, Çinko ve Florür madeni çıkarılmaktadır.

Ayrıca Kütahya Türkiye'nin en büyük Jeotermal kaynaklarına sahiptir.

Kütahya ili bitkisel üretimde de Buğday (durum), Arpa (diğer), Şekerpancarı, Vişne, Nohut, Haşhaş (kapsül), Haşhaş (tohum), Kestane, Sivri Biber üst sıralarda yer almaktadır. Yine Kırmızı et, İnek, Manda, Koyun Sütü gibi hayvansal ürünler yer almaktadır. 2015 yılı illerde yaşam endeksi il sıralamalarında Kütahya genel sıralamada 4. Sırada yer almaktadır. Ancak konutta 15., Sağlıkta 24., Eğitimde 20., Çevrede 19., Sivil Katılım da 39., Alt Yapı Hizmetlerine Erişimde 42. olması kalkınmanın bu yönlü unsurları için daha fazla yatırıma ihtiyaç duyulduğu yönünde göze çarpmaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra istihdamda 0,7023 endeksi ile 3. Sırada yer alması iyi olmakla beraber, gelir ve servet endeksinde 16. sıraya düşmesi istihdamın yeterli gelir sağlamaması yönüyle manidardır ve uygulanan ücret politikalarının etkin bir şekilde gözden geçirilmesi gerekliliği önem arz etmektedir. Sosyal yaşamda ve yaşam memnuniyetinde 5. sırada, güvenlikle 6. sıradadır. Kırsal da kalan ilçelere bu yönleriyle yapılacak yatırımlarla daha Kütahya'nın üst sırada olabilmesi sağlanmalıdır. Genel olarak Kütahya ilimiz Kültürel, Turizm, Sanayi, Madenler ve Tarım Ürünleri ile çeşitli zenginliklere sahiptir. Yalnız biz çalışmamızda Şaphane ve Pazarlar İlçelerini farklı yönleriyle inceleyeceğiz. Her iki ilçemizde meslek yüksekokulu var. Aslında bunun olması tabii ki ilçeler için olumlu bir durumdur. Ama bir hastane ihtiyacı ortaya çıktığında ya da öğrencilerin merkez kampüste bir şeye ihtiyaç duydukların da bundan faydalanmaları için Pazarlar da başka bir ilçeye aktarma yapıp Kütahya'ya ulaşmaları, Şaphane' de ise bir sabah bir akşam seferleriyle ya da yine belirli saatlerde farklı ilçelerden aktarma yaparak Kütahya'ya gitmeleri gerekiyor. Kütahya'nın bu ilçelerle arasındaki mesafesi iki saattir.

İşte belki kötünün iyisi bile denebilecek bir durum bu ama istenilen hizmetlere ulaşmadaki sıkıntıyı ortaya koyan bir tablo. İlçelerin içinde öğrenciler olmasına karşın yine de okul dışında fazla sosyalleşme şansı bulunmayan bir öğrenci kitlesi ve halk var. Bireyler ulaşım sorununu devlet desteğiyle çözerek, belediye çeşitli kurslar, tiyatro ve sinema gibi programlar uygulayarak kısa vadede bunlara müdahalede bulunabilir. Ayrıca her iki ilçemizde vişne ve kirazıyla çok iyi üretim yapan ihracatta sıkıntı gözlemlenmeyen, ancak ilçe nüfusunun az olduğu aşıkâr olan ilçelerimizdir. Kadın nüfusu, erkek nüfustan yüksektir. Şöyle ki Şaphane; toplam nüfus 6762, erkek nüfus 3234, kadın nüfus 3528 . Pazarlar’ da; toplam nüfus 5258, erkek nüfus 2547 , kadın nüfus 2711(15) dir. Rakamlar da gösteriyor ki göç veren ilçeler den bahsediyoruz. Bu ilçelere de merkez ilçelerde olduğu gibi yerin de yatırımlar yapılsa kalkınmaları için çok daha iyi bir yol kat edilebilir. Yukarıda bahsedildiği gibi vişne ve kirazı ile ünlü olan bu ilçelerimiz fire riski yüksek olan bu meyveleri yakınlarında verebilecekleri bir fabrika bulamamaktadırlar. Ürünlerin iyi olanları ihracat pazarına giderken daha düşük kalitedekiler iç pazarda zorlu ulaşım koşulları ile fabrikalara gönderilmektedir. Aradaki yol maliyeti ve fire farkı fabrikalar tarafından nihai tüketiciye yansıtılarak fiyatlar ile tüketicinin bu yükü omuzlarına yüklemektedir. Bu nedenle fabrikalarımız hammaddeye yakın bölgelerde olursa hem yatırımcı, hem üretici hem de tüketici bu durumdan pozitif fayda sağlayacaktır. Bir diğer yanı ise çalışma yaşında olan nüfus bu fabrikalar da istihdam sağlayacaktır ve herkes bu dönüşüm yolu ile kazanç sağlamış olacaktır. Ayrıca Pazarlarda bulunan sanayi esnafının ilçe girişindeki prefabrik iş yerler inde çalışıyor olması da bölgenin organize sanayiye olan ihtiyacını ortaya koymaktadır.¹⁶

Sonuç

Kalkınma için yıllar itibarıyla birçok proje ve planlar yapılmıştır. Bunlar; Beş yıllık kalkınma planları dahilinde, merkezi düzeyde Bölgesel Gelişme Yüksek Kurulu ve Bölgesel Gelişme Komitesi kurulmuş, bölgesel düzeyde 26 kalkınma ajansı 81 ilde yatırım destek ofisleri faaliyete geçirilmiş, tüm ülke için bölgesel gelişme planları hazırlanmış ve uygulamaya konulmuştur. GAP, DAP, DOKAP, KOP, KÖYDES, BELDES, SUKAP, SODES programları uygulamaya konulmuştur.⁽³⁵⁾

Ancak değişen yaşam koşulları, insanların daha yoğun teknoloji unsurunu içinde barındıran, gelişmiş düzeydeki bölgelerde yaşama isteği nedeniyle göç etmelerine sebep olmuştur. Bu durum da kalkınma planlarının insan odağı çerçevesinde yoğunlaştırılmasının ne kadar yerinde olduğunun göstergesidir. Altyapının iyileştirilmesi, doğalgazın daha fazla il ve ilçede dağıtılabilmesi , sağlık ve eğitim hizmetlerinin ileri teknoloji ile bütün il ve ilçelerimizde yapılması, yatırımların bölge koşullarına uygun şekillendirilmesi, sosyalleşmek için düzenlenebilecek yerlerin ve etkinliklerin sayısının çoğaltılması gibi bir çok unsur kırsal kalkınma için önem arz etmektedir.

Bu unsurları örneğimiz çerçevesinde ise şu şekilde değerlendirebiliriz. Kütahya Tarihi, Kaplıcaları, Çinileri, Porselenleri, Yetiştirilen Meyveleri ile doğru yatırımlar sayesinde çok iyi konumlara gelebilecek bir ilimizdir. Biri yapımı devam eden toplamda 6 tane OSB’si olan ilimizde sayıların az olduğu ve diğer ilçelerde OSB olmamasının doğal olan olumsuz koşullarının ortaya çıktığı görülmüştür. Bu olumsuzlukların ortadan kaldırılması gerekliliği bölge kalkınması için ciddi bir önem arz etmekte dir .

Bunlara bağlı olarak geliştirilmesi öngörülebilecek unsurları şöyle sıralayabiliriz. Öncelikle tarihinde bu kadar derinlik taşıyan bir ilin kültür turizmi için daha fazla yatırım yapılmalıdır. Aynı şekilde kaplıca turizminde daha fazla imkânların içinde olduğu büyük oteller tarafından yapılacak yatırımlar önem arz etmektedir. Çinicilikte yeni yetişebilecek kalifiye personelin yetiştirilmesi için gereken önem en iyi şekilde gösterilmelidir. Diğer sektörler ise OSB’ler tanıtılmalı, devletin teşvik programları en iyi şekilde sunulabilmeli, gerek yerel yöneticilerin gerekse OSB yöneticilerinin, firma sahiplerinin ve ilgili odalarının bölgeyi daha cazip hale getirebilmeleri için kolektif çalışmalar yaparak yatırımcı için olanaklar genişletilmeli ve var olan OSB’deki firma sayıları arttırılmalı, OSB sahibi olmayan ilçelere ise yenileri açılmalıdır.

¹⁶ <http://www.kutahyaosb.org.tr/>

Bu öneriler ışığında bölgedeki istihdam sıkıntısı asgari düzeye indirilerek özellikle erkek bireylerin farklı ilçe ve illere iş için göç etmelerinin önüne geçilebileceği ortaya konmuştur. Bu yolla da yatırım ve istihdam bölge içinde sağlanacaktır.

Böylece buradan sağlanan gelir yine bölge içinde tüketim ve yatırım harcamalarına dönüşecek, tasarruflar artmış olacak tüm bunlarda Kütahya'nın kalkınmasını sağlayacaktır.

Bu çalışmada Kütahya ili çerçevesinde kırsal kalkınmanın yerinde yatırımlara ihtiyaç duyulan ve insan odaklı bir unsur olduğu sonucuna varılmaktadır.

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Adana’da Demokrat Parti Dönemi’nde Gündelik Hayatın Yerel Basına Yansımaları

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Özet: Günümüz toplumunda kendi hayatlarına ilişkin programlanmış bir düzenlemeye uymak zorunda olan insanlar daha iyi yaşama, daha sağlıklı beslenme, modaaya uygun giyinme, evni dekore etme yani var olma yolları konusunda sürekli ve ayrıntılı bir şekilde etkiye maruz kalmaktadır. Bu yol göstericilerden biri de kitle-iletişim araçlarıdır. Gündelik hayat çalışmalarıyla ön plana çıkan Henry Lefebvre’ye göre; modernite ve gündelik hayat birbirlerini çevreleyerek ve birbirlerinin üstünü örtterek bireyi şekillendirir, yapılandırır. Lefebvrebu yönlendirme/şekillendirmede medyaya önem atfeder ve medyayı neye inanıp nasıl olmamız gerektiğini bize gösteren “göstergelerden oluşan bulutlar” olarak ifade etmektedir.

Bu çalışmada, gündelik hayat kavramının moderniteyle birlikte hayatımıza girdiğini düşünen Lefebvre’nin yaklaşımından yola çıkarak Demokrat Partili yıllarda Adana’da gündelik hayatın yerel basındaki yansımalarıirdelenecektir. Bu çerçevede dönemin öne çıkan 6 yerel gazetesi incelenecek, gazetelerde yer alan haber, reklâm ve köşe yazılarında gündelik hayat, erkek ve kadın kimlikleri, çeşitli mekânsallıklar ve incirlik Üssü üzerinden ele alınacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Adana, gündelik yaşam, boş zaman

Local Media Reflections of Daily Life in Adana Under Government of Democrat Party

Abstract: In today’s society, compelled to comply with a programmed design concerning their lives, people are being subjected to a constant and detailed influence about how to live better, have better nourishment, wear according to the fashion and decorate their houses; shortly, about the ways of self-realization and existence. One of the guides in this process of influence is the mass media. Henry Lefebvre, who stands out with his works on daily life, argues that modernity and daily life construct and shape the individual by overlapping and encircling each other. In this process of construction, Lefebvre attributes a notable importance to media and defines media as "clouds of indicators" which show us what to believe and how to be.

In this work, by taking off from Lefebvre’s approach to daily life as a notion that came along with modernity, representation of daily life in the local press of Adana during the years of Democratic Party rule will be assessed. Within this frame, having six of the local newspapers in focus, daily life, as well as male and female identities will be examined through different localities and incirlik military base, tracing the news, advertisements and columns in these papers.

Keywords: Adana, everyday life, free time

Giriş

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Demokrat Partili (DP) yıllarda (1950 – 1960) Adana’da gündelik yaşamı bazı konu başlıkları üzerinden incelemektir. Çalışmaya konu olarak özellikle bu dönemin seçilme nedeni, 1950 yılının Türkiye için bir dönüm noktası sayılmasındandır. 1946 yılında çok partili hayata geçişin “nihayet” sağlanması ve 1950’de Demokrat Parti’nin iktidara gelmesi Türkiye’de yeni bir dönüşüm süreci başlatmıştır.

II. Dünya savaşı sonrası CHP ile başlayıp DP iktidarıyla tavan yapan Amerikanlaşma, sanayileşme ve dolayısıyla kapitalistleşme süreci Türkiye’yi siyasi, ekonomik ve sosyal yönden etkilemiş bu doğrultuda gündelik yaşamın pratikleri de dönüşmeye başlamıştır.

Çalışmada Adana’nın seçilme nedeni, ülkede bu dönüşümün yoğunluklu olarak gerçekleştiği bir şehir olmasındandır. DP’nin tarım ve sanayi politikaları Adana’yı bölgede cazip hale getirmiş, Çukurova’nın bereketli toprakları, iklim koşulları ve coğrafi konumu bu bölgeye yönelik iç göçü başlatmıştır. Bu göçlerin

gündelik yaşama doğrudan etkileri söz konusudur. Bununla birlikte ele alınan dönemde Türkiye’de başlayan “Amerikanlaşma”, “Hollywood etkileri”, “magazinelleşme”, “kültürel kapitalizm” gibi ‘akımların’ Adana’ya İncirlik Hava Üssü kapısından girmesi, şehirde moda, eğlence hayatı, tüketim ve boş zaman değerlendirme alışkanlıklarını etkilemiş, bu yönüyle Adana’daki gündelik hayata farklılıklar kazandırmıştır.

Çalışmada gündelik hayat, Adana’da yayın yapan altı yerel gazetenin(Yeni Adana, Demokrat, Türk Sözü, Bugün, Hür Fikir ve Köylü Sesi) 1950-1960 yılları arasındaki sayılarının taranması sonucunda öne çıkan olay, olgu ve tartışmalar üzerinden ele alınmaktadır. Buna göre çalışmanın birinci kısmında gündelik hayata ilişkin teorik bir çerçeve çizilecektir. İkinci kısımda, 1950-1960 yılları arasında Adana’da gündelik hayatın “kadın” ve “erkek” cinsiyet kimlikleri üzerinden görünümü yansıtılacaktır. Bu noktada, Batı dışı toplumlarda yaşanan modernleşme pratiklerinin Adana’da “Kemalizm”ve “Amerikanlaşmak”salınımı içinde nasıl yaşandığı örnek olaylarla tespit edilmeye çalışılacaktır. Modernleşme sürecinde kamusal alan kadınlara açılmış olsa da kamu alanı esas itibarıyla erkeklere aittir. Dolayısıyla ilgili dönemde Adana’da erkeklerin gündelik hayatlarına ilişkin örnekler “Gündelik Yaşamda Kadın ve Erkeğin Görünümleri” başlıklı ikinci bölümde ve “Gündelik Hayat ve Mekânın Yeniden Düzenlenmesi” başlığını taşıyan üçüncü bölümde ele alınan mekânsallıklar içinde değerlendirilecektir. Dördüncü ve son bölümde ise 1954’te açılan İncirlik Üssü’nün Adana’nın gündelik hayatında yarattığı değişim üzerinde durulacaktır.

Gündelik Hayatın Teorisi

Basın, sosyal bilimlerin her alanı için kıymetli malzemeler sunmaktadır. Özellikle söz konusutarih disiplini olduğunda basın arşivinden yararlanmak kaçınılmaz hale gelebilmektedir. Elbette, her günün tarihini yazdığını söylemek abartılı olsa da basın; geçen zamana ilişkin göz ardı edilemeyecek zenginlikte belge ve veri içermektedir. Bir dönemde yaşayan insanların neyi önemsedikleri, neleri tartıştıkları, hangi olguları göz ardı edip hangilerini sahiplendikleri basın aracılığıyla irdelenebilir. Toplamların üzüntü, sevinç ve öfkeleri gazetelerden çıkartılabilir(Cantek, 2005:1). Ancak burada tarih yazımında zaman zaman düşülen hataya düşülmemeli; arşivdeki her belge “hakikat” olarak alınmamalıdır. Örneğin yararlanılan gazetenin, politik tutumu, kurduğu maddi ilişkiler, ilgili dönemin kendine özgü koşulları olayları değerlendirme biçimini etkileyebilecektir.

Klasik tarih yazımında, basına dair yapılan çalışmalarda, özellikle siyasi haberler çalışma konusu edilirken, gündelik yaşama dair kısımlar “önemsiz” sayılmış ve bu haberler genellikle konu dışı bırakılmıştır. Önemsiz sayılan bölümlerin çoğunu “gündelik yaşam”ın ayrıntıları oluşturmuştur. Oysa gündelik yaşamın kendisi, yani siyaset dışı sayılan yaşam tam da siyasetle ilişkili ve içiçedir. Gündelik yaşam, toplumu oluşturduğu düşünülen temel değerlerin yaygınlık ve meşruluk kazandırılmaya çalışıldığı alandır. Söz konusu değerlerin farklı sınıf ve konumlardaki insanlar tarafından paylaşılması ya da reddedilmesi nedeniyle bir mücadele alanıdır da. Bir başka deyişle ideolojinin alenileştiği bir alandır gündelik yaşam (Cantek, 2005:1).

Gündelik hayatın önemli kuramcılarında Henry Lefebvre, tarihi olayları incelerken gündelik yaşamın es geçilmesinden rahatsızlık duyar. Çünkü tarihin kaynağını bizzat gündelik hayattan aldığını söyler. “Bedenimizde ve ruhumuzda olup bitenden çok atomlarda ya da yıldızlarda olanları biliyoruz” ifadesinde, tarihi, dünyayı yahut evreni anlamanın bireyin kendisine ve içinde yaşadığı gündelik hayata bakmasıyla mümkün olabileceğini söyleyerek gündelik hayatın araştırılmasının önemini vurgulamıştır. Ona göre; “Bir günün hikâyesi dünyanın hikâyesini ve toplumun hikâyesini kapsar” (Lefebvre, 2013: 12). İnsanların kullandıkları nesneleri, yedikleri ve giydiklerini onların kim oldukları ve nasıl yaşadıkları hususunda birer bilgi malzemesi olmalarından ötürü araştırılmaya değer bulan Lefebvre, “olayların tarihlerini saptamakla yetinmeyen tarihçi için”, bu malzemelerin gruplara, toplumsal sınıflara, ülkelere, dönemlere göre kullanılmasının önemi üzerinde durmuştur (Lefebvre, 2013: 41).

Gündelik hayatın yalnızca üretim toplumlarında görüldüğü dolayısıyla bu kavramın moderniteden ayrılmayacağını savunan Lefebvre’ye göre; gündelik yaşam modernitenin sonucudur ve ikisi birbirinin üzerine örterek bireyi şekillendirip yapılandırır. Bu şekillendirme ve yönlendirmede medyaya önem atfeder; “sizin neye inanmanız ve nasıl olmanız gerektiğini size göstermeye yardımcı olan propagandalara, tumturaklı sözlere ve açıklamalara bağlayarak birçok seraba kapılırsınız. Şu halde eğer televizyonda, radyoda, sinemada, basında göstergelerden oluşan bulutların üzerinizden geçmesine izin verir ve sizi

yönlendiren yorumları benimerseniz, var olan durumun edilgen bir kurbanı oluyorsunuz demektir” (Lefebvre, 2013: 36). Bu durumda kurban olmamak için gündeliklik ile modernlik ayrımını uygulayabilmek, içinde bulunulan kuşatmayı fark etmek ondan sıyrılmak için yeterli olacaktır ki, Lefebvre de bunu savunur.

Modernizmin ortaya çıkardığı “gündeliklik”, “boş zaman” kavramını da beraberinde getirmiştir. Oysa modernizm öncesi toplumlarda, çalışma yaşamı ile boş zaman arasında keskin bir ayrım yoktu. Çalışma aile ve topluluklar içinde yapılırken, ayrıca renkli ve şenlikli ritüellerle birleştirilmişti. Ancak modernite çalışma ile boş zaman arasına keskin bir duvar ördü. Önce çalışmayı yüceltip boş zamanı küçümsedi. Daha sonra ise boş zamanı yönetip iktisadi bir gelir kaynağına çevirdi. Eğlence yerlerinin, turizm sektörünün, spor salonlarının varlığı buna örnektir (Argın, 1992: 33). Lafargue (2011), kapitalizmin çalışmayı önceleyen zihniyetini şu sözleriyle eleştirmiştir: “Çalışın, çalışın, proleterler, toplumsal serveti büyütmek ve bireysel sefaletinizi arttırmak için çalışın; çalışın ki, daha da yoksullaşarak, çalışmak ve sefil düşmek için daha fazla gerekçeniz olsun. Kapitalist üretimin insanın gözünün yaşına bakmayan yasası budur.”Dolayısıyla Lefebvre’nin dediği üzere; “Gündelik kelimesi, bir programlama nesnesidir, ve işleyişi piyasa tarafından, eş değerlilikler sistemi tarafından pazarlama ve reklâmcılık tarafından dayatılır” (Lefebvre-Regulier, 2005: 80).

Gündelik yaşamın bir diğer kuramcısı, Michel De Certeau, sıradan insanların alışveriş etmek, mahallede yürümek, ev eşyalarını düzenlemek ya da televizyon seyretmek gibi gündelik pratiklerini çözümlemiştir. Tüketimi bir üretim biçimi olarak tanımlayan Certeau, bireylerin dükkânlarda sergilenen kitlesel-olarak-üretilmiş nesneler arasında yaptıkları seçmelerin ve okudukları ya da televizyonda seyrettikleri şeyleri özgürce yorumlamalarının üzerinde durmuştur (Burke, 2008: 111).

De Certeau, gündelik yaşamın sıradan insanların taktik ve stratejileriyle örülü olduğunu, bu taktikler yoluyla sıradan insanın iktidarı, yöneteni, güçlüyü ihlaller ve kaçamaklar yoluyla alt ettiğini söyler; “‘zayıf olanın’, ‘güçlü olana’ (erk sahipleri, hastalık, şiddet ya da bir düzenin uyguladığı şiddet vb.) karşı başarıları, dolap, oyun ve dümen çevirme sanatı, avcılara özel hileler, tuzaklar, el çabukluğu...hepsi taktiktir” (Certeau, 2009: 55). Bu taktiklerden birine De Certeau, La perreque (peruk) adını vermiştir. Buna göre sıradan insanlar otorite karşısında dikkati başka yöne çekerek davranmaktadır. Patronun karşısında çalışıyor gibi davranan sekreterin aşk mektubu yazması ya da işçinin malzeme çalmasını ve kendisi için bir şeyler üretmesini buna örnek olarak verir. De Certeau, bunu bir tür ‘nefsi müdafaa’ olarak açıklar, her geçen gün daha disipline edilen, kuralları ve kontrol etme yöntemlerini sürekli geliştiren modern toplumlarda bu tür nefsi müdafaaların bir tür isyan olduğunu savunur (Cantek, 2005: 8).

Bu durumda Lefebvre’den farklı olarak De Certeau, sıradan insanın, modernizm, iktidar ve onun getirdiklerine dair kuşatılmışlığını kendi taktikleriyle aştığını ve deldiğini düşünür. Bunu yapması için de bir farkındalığı olması gerekmez.

Gündelik Yaşamda Kadın ve Erkeğin Görünümleri

Tanzimatla başlayan Türkiye toplumunun modernleşme sürecinde, Jön Türkler birden fazla kadınla evlenmeyi yasaklamak, fes yerine şapka, eğitim ve yargı sistemlerinin tümünden laikleştirilmesi, dil reformu vs. gibi konular üzerinde tartışmalar yürütmüş; Birinci Dünya Savaşı öncesi ve sırasında İttihat ve Terakki Hükümeti hukuksal düzenin laikleşmesi ve kadın hakları alanlarında bu fikirlerden bazılarını hayata sokmuştur (Kazancıgil, 2000: 148). Kemalist modernleşme ise kadınların sosyal, siyasal ve ekonomik hayata dahil olmalarına ilişkin köklü düzenlemeler gerçekleştirmiştir. Bu değişiklikler sadece biçimsel özgürlükten (oy hakkı) oluşmamakta, ayrıca meslek sahibi kadınları; kadın pilotlar, opera sanatçıları ve güzellik kraliçeleri gibi yeni ve hayli farklı örneklerin etkin biçimde özendirilmesini de içermektedir (Zürcher, 1999: 273). Tunçay’a göre, (2005: 155-156) giyim kuşam devrimleriyle ilgili olarak yapılabilecek iki önemli gözlem vardır. Birincisi, kadınların giyimi hakkında, -hiç kuşkusuz, büyük tepkiler yaratmamak amacıyla- peçe ve çarşafın yasaklanması gibi herhangi resmi bir karar alınmaması, ikincisi de yasa yapılmadan önce bir hava yaratmak, hiç değilse aydınların giyim alışkanlıklarında fiili değişiklikler meydana getirmek çabalarına girişilmesidir. Böylece modernleşmenin taşıyıcı unsuru olan aydınlar gündelik hayat pratiklerinin değişmesi bakımından bir rol model olacaklardır.

Modernleşme ile birlikte toplumsal yaşamda kadına yüklenen misyon, gündelik hayatın içinde kadınların kapladığı alanı genişletmiştir. Ev işleri, çocuk bakımı, alışveriş, “güzel olma zorunluluğu” gibi kadına yüklenen görevlerle aynı zamanda kadın birer tüketim nesnesi haline gelmekte dolayısıyla piyasa ekonomisi içerisindeki metalar dünyasında kendilerine birer karşılık bulmaktadırlar. “Gündelik hayatın ağırlığı kadınların üzerindedir” diyen Lefebvre, kadınların gündeliklik içinde hem özne hem de gündelikliğin kurbanı oldukları için nesne ve ikame (güzellik, dişilik, moda) olduklarını söyler (Lefebvre, 2013: 87). Gündeliklik içinde reklâmlarda bedeni ve gülen yüzüyle nesneleştirilen, kadın, kendisine özel hazırlanan sayfalarda modadan alışverişe, güzellikten ev işlerine kadar hem tüketici hem de meta konumuyla yer almıştır. Dönemin gazetelerinin kadın ve moda köşelerine bir hayli yer ayırdıkları görülmektedir. Örneğin Demokrat gazetesinde kadınlara verilen güzellik tavsiyelerinde modernizmin kadın bedeni üzerindeki şablonlaştırıcı tahakkümünün izlerini bulmak mümkün, sürekli gülümsemek gerektiği, kadının zayıf olması gerektiği gibi... (Demokrat, 30.03.1956)

Modernleşme Batı toplumlarının kendi iç dinamikleriyle son dört yüzyılda yaşadıkları bir süreç iken Türkiye gibi “Batı dışı toplumlarda” bu süreç çok daha kısa sürede ve dış dinamiklerin de etkisiyle gerçekleşmiştir (Köker, 2007). Bu süreçte referans noktası Batı olduğu için hayat tarzının da Batılı hayat tarzına göre düzenlenmesi gerekmektedir. Dolayısıyla dönemin gazetelerinde okuyucuya Avrupa modasına ilişkin bilgiler verilmekte (Yeni Adana, 03.09.1956), kadınların modaya uygun olarak gündüzleri ve geceleri hangi kıyafetleri giyecekleri üzerinde durulmaktadır. “Sabahları giymek için beyaz çizgili gri kumaştan bir döpiyes etekte bir pli vardır...Gece kokteyle giymek için parlak gri kumaştan şık bir tayyör” (Yeni Adana, 08.09.1956).

Kadın bedeninin şekillendirilmesi ve güzelliğin yüceltilmesi, Avrupa ve Amerika ülkelerinden yıldızların referans alınmasıyla, egzersizlerin ve diyet programlarının yerleşmesini beraberinde getirmiştir. Bir güzellik yarışmasıyla artist olduğu vurgulanan Jane Arliss’in önerileriyle, genç kızların güzel bir vücuda sahip olabilmeleri için fiziki çalışmalara kendilerini alıstırmaları önerilmiştir. Okuyuculara zayıflamak, göbek bağlamak veya göbek eritmek konusunda yaptıkları yanlışlar hatırlatılarak bu konularda tavsiyelerde bulunulmuştur. (Yeni Adana, 29.10.1956). Burada referansın güzellik yarışmasını kazanmış bir artistten alınmış olması, egzersizlerin sağlıklı yaşama kavuşmaktan ziyade güzellik ve estetik için öğütlendiğini göstermektedir.

Kadın bedenine ilişkin dönemin modasına uygun olarak “standartlar” belirleme konusunda başka bir örneği Yeni Adana Gazetesi’nde (23.01.1957) “Geceleri Nasıl Giyinmelisiniz” başlığıyla yayınlanan yazıdagörüyoruz: “Bu sene gece elbiselerinde daha ziyade saten kullanılmaktadır. Biçimlere gelince göğüsler ve sırtlar oldukça açıktır. Göğüsleri basık gösterecek biçimlere daha fazla iltifat edilmektedir. Bu arada bütün vücut hatlarını ortaya koyacak dar ve uzun tuvaletler de görülüyorsa da bunları giymek için çok muntazam bir vücuda sahip olmak lazım geldiğinden pek tavsiye edilmez.” Bu ifadeler kadının yalnızca nasıl giyinmesi gerektiğini değil, bir güzellik nesnesi olduğunu ve mümkünse olması gerektiğini yansıtır. Karaktere göre giyim konusunda bilgi veren bir yazıda, nezih ve utangaç kadınlara; “kozunuz olan kadın kadıncık halinizi tebarüz ettirmek için bol etek, dar bel ve küçük yüksek yakalı elbiseler yaptırın” (Yeni Adana, 21.04.60) şeklinde önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Bu öneride, kadınlığın araçsallaştırılması ve kadın bedeninin bir meta olarak görülmesindeki alçaltıcı dil kendini göstermektedir.

Kadının vazifesi günün modasına uygun olarak güzel görünmek olabilir, ancak “asli vazifesi” ev işlerinde maharet göstermesidir. Dönemin yerel basınında ev işlerinin kadına asli vazifesi olduğu sıkça vurgulanmaktadır. Süpürge tekniği başlığı altında evin nasıl süpürülürse zamandan tasarruf edileceği ve daha pratik olacağı anlatılırken, “her ev kadını süpürmenin gelişigüzel yapılmayacağını bilir” alt başlığı bu zihniyeti açık etmektedir (Demokrat, 18.12.1955). Kadın, ev işlerinde zamandan tasarruf ederek ne yapacaktır? Kapitalizmin çalışma zamanını “dolu zaman”, çalışma dışındaki zamanı “boş zaman” olarak telakki etmesindeki mantıkta olduğu gibi “kazanılan zaman” yine çalışmak için yani ev işlerini yapmak için harcanacaktır.

Bir sabun reklâmında ise “Sayın Bayanlara” başlığıyla; “Sizleri yormamak ve sabahtan akşama kadar evlerinizin ve çocuklarınızın her işini ihmal ederek çamaşır leğeninin başında saatlerce yorulmaktan ve kilolarla sabun sarfetmekten kurtaran fennin son icat ettiği kokulu Erdoğan sabun suyunu kullanmanızı

tavsiye ederim” (Köylü Sesi, 09.04.1954) ifadeleri yer almaktadır. Burada da “zaman” kazanmaya yönelik vurgu dikkat çekmekte, kazanılan zamanın ihmal edilen çocuklar için kullanılabileceği vurgulanmaktadır.

Modernleşme sürecinde kadınlar sosyal hayatın çeşitli alanlarında kendilerine yer bulmaya başlamıştır. Fakat kadının okur-yazar olması iş hayatında ve politik hayatta aktifleşmesi, ona yüklenen görev tanımını değiştirmedeği gibi “ahlâki” normları da değiştirmemiştir. Demokrat Parti- CHP çekişmesinin “kadınların namusu” üzerinden yürütüldüğünü dönemin gazetelerinde görmekteyiz. Selahattin Canka imzasıyla Demokrat Partiye yakınlığı ile bilinen Demokrat gazetesinde yayınlanan “Kadın Hakları” (13.03.1954) başlıklı yazıda, “Türkiye’de ihdas edilen ekmek karneleri ile hatta günlük istihkak karşılığı olarak yüzlerce kadının namusu kirlenmişken; yıllarca ihmal edilen asker ailelerinin fakru zaruretten namusları payumal olurken...” ifadeleri yer almakta, başka bir deyişle CHP’nin politikaları yüzünden kadınların namuslarının kirlendiği iddia edilmektedir. Demek ki, gündelik hayat içerisinde kadının görünür olması kadına ilişkin geleneksel bakış açısının sona erdiği anlamına gelmemektedir. Modernleşme içerisinde politik alanda karşılığını bulan “muhafazakârlık” tam da bu noktada kadını geleneksel rolü içerisinde “annelik” vazifesiyle kutsallaştırmaktadır. Demokrat Parti’nin Kadın Kolları’nın açılışında yapılan konuşmada da bu vurgu ziyadesiyle bulunmaktadır: “600 senelik Türk imparatorluğu, bütün dünyaya hükmeden saffet ve haşmete kadınlarının hamaset ve fedakarlığı ile ulaşmıştır. İstiklal savaşını kazanan, Kore kahramanlarını yetiştiren bir milletin anaları olarak ne kadar övünsek hakkımızdır” (Demokrat, 21.03.1954).

Kadın bir taraftan cemiyet hayatına dahil olurken bir taraftan da kadınların iffetini kaybedeceğinden endişe duyulmuştur. Bugün gazetesinde Ruhi Tek imzasıyla yayınlanan “Adana Eğleniyor: Barlar” (30.07.1954) başlıklı yazıda barlarda çalışan kadınlar için “saadeti yıkan bir mikrop” ifadeleri kullanılmıştır. Görüldüğü üzere bu dönemde de kadın hem bedeniyle hem de davranışlarıyla erkeklerin denetiminde ve kontrolünde olmayı sürdürmüştür.

Batı dışı toplumlarda modernleşme iktisadi alanda hızlı sanayileşmek için devlet desteğine ihtiyaç duymak, siyasal alanda “sınıfsızlık” söylemini dolaşıma sokmak, kültürel alanda ise “yozlaşmış” Batılı değerler yerine, “halk”ın saf, eşitlikçi kültür özelliklerine bağlanmak şeklinde tezahür etmektedir (Köker, 2007: 118). Kısaca Tanzimat’tan bu yana devam eden Batı’nın tekniğini alalım ama ahlâkını almayalım düşüncesini dillendirenler kültür alanında yaşanan değişime her zaman şüpheyle yaklaşmıştır. Dönemin yerel basınında Avrupa ve özellikle Amerika’nın kâh modası, kâh medeniyeti hususunda sıkça alıntılar yapıp, Türkiye ile kıyaslanırken bu ülkeleri yücelten dil, söz konusu geleneksel ve “ahlâki” kalıplar olduğunda yön değiştirmiştir. Colette adlı bir Fransız dansçının Ankara’daki gösterisiyle ülkeye yayılan, Adana’da ise ilk olarak Kristal Palasta görülen striptiz dansı, emniyet mensuplarını harekete geçirmiş, sonunda bu dansı “sanattan uzak, müstehcen ve ahlâka mugayir” bularak yasaklamışlardır (Yeni Adana, 19.12.1956).

Kemalist modernleşme pratiği içerisinde inkılapçılık ilkesi “halk için halka rağmen” ve “yukarıdan aşağıya inkılapçılık” sloganlarıyla muasır medeniyetler seviyesine varmak için halkı eğitmek düşüncesine yaslanmaktadır (Köker, 2007: 137-176). Bu ilkenin hayata geçmesi için “tek bir yürek gibi çarpan ulus” olmakta bazı direnişler gösteren, sakalını, bıyığını kesmeyen, geleneksel kıyafetini bir çırpıda sıyrıp atmayan, kullandığı dili, yazdığı yazıyı hemen değiştirmeyen cemaatlere, yeni kuralların ne pahasına olursa olsun benimsetilmesi bu anlayışın icaplarından. (İnsel, 1990: 24).

Bu dönemde yerel basında Adana halkının kılık kıyafetini konu alan birçok yazıyla karşılaşmaktayız. Bu yazılarda genellikle Adana insanının gündelik yaşamda kullandığı kıyafetlerin eleştirildiğine ve bu kıyafetlerin Batı medeniyetini temsil etmediği görüşünün yaygın olduğuna tanıklık etmekteyiz. Örneğin şehirde “hâlâ” şalvar giyiliyor olması, Şapka Kanunu’na muhalefet olarak görülürken bu “kıyafet laubaliliğini” daha çok Arapların yaptığı belirtilmektedir. Ve ardından bugün de benzerlerini gördüğümüz duygu hali ortaya çıkar: “hadi bizi bırak Amerikalılar’a ayıp oluyor!” “Daha kötü olan taraf, Adana’da misafir bulunan Amerikalıların, bizden olmayan bu fesli, sarıklı, agelli, meşlahlı, entarili, beyaz donlu, siyah donlu insanların fotoğraflarını çekerek Amerika’ya göndermeleridir” (Yeni Adana, 20.08.1951).

Bir çiftçi ve işçi muhiti olan Çukurova’da erkekler geleneksel olarak şalvar giymektedir. Dolayısıyla kılık kıyafet konusundaki düzenlemeler bu coğrafyada hemen karşılık bulmamıştır. Türk Sözü gazetesinde

(11.07.1957) yayınlanan bir haberden kılıf kıyafet konusuna sadece kamu görevlilerinin değil esnafın yani halkın da tepki gösterdiğini görmekteyiz. Bu habere göre sinemaya gitmek isteyen bir köylüye, üzerinde şalvar olduğu için sinema bileti verilmemiş ve içeriye girmesinin yasak olduğu söylenmiştir.

Erkeklerin şehirde dolaşırken şalvar giymeleri “Atatürk inkılaplarının ruh ve manasını açıkça ihlal eden hadiseler”den biri olarak görülmüş ve bu yasağın yeniden uygulanması için yetkililere seslenen yazılar yazılmıştır. Kemal Göksel “Şalvar Yasağı” başlıklı yazısında; “...karadon ve şalvar yasağının bundan böyle müsamahasız şekilde tatbik edileceğine ve inkılap kanunlarını pervasızca çiğneyenlerin ceza tertibi dışında bırakılmayacağına muhakkak nazarı ile bakabiliriz ” (Bugün, 06.01.1952) ifadelerini kullanmaktadır. Nitekim Emniyet Müdürlüğü’nün zaman zamankaradon giyenlerle mücadele ettiğini hatta para cezaları kestiğini bununla da yetinmeyip civar illerin emniyet müdürlükleriyle görüşüp bu yasağı tatbik etmek için çağrılarda bulunduğunu yine dönemin gazetelerinden öğreniyoruz. (21.02.1952).

Gündelik Hayat ve Mekânın Yeniden Düzenlenmesi

Tiyatro

Modernleşme sürecinde zaman ve mekân yeniden işlev kazanmıştır. Zaman, çalışma zamanı olarak ele alınıp ondan arta kalan vakitler “boş zaman” kavramının içerisine sıkıştırılırken mekân ise hem üretim hem de gündelik hayat bakımından yeniden düzenlenmiştir (Harvey, 1992). Dolayısıyla saray kamusalılığından burjuva kamusalılığına geçişte cemiyet hayatının aktığı mekânlar hem değişmiş hem de bambaşka bir anlam kazanmıştır (Habermas, 1991).

Adana’da bir şehir tiyatrosu kurulması fikri ilk gündeme geldiğinde bu olay; “muayyen bir medeniyet ve fikir olgunluğuna erişmiş cemiyetlerin başta gelen ihtiyaçlarından birisi de estetik zevklerdir” (Göksel, Bugün, 12.03.1952) yorumuyla karşılanmış, tiyatro şehre medeni bir boyut kazandıracağı için hevesle desteklenmiştir.

Şehir tiyatrosunun kurulması medeniyete dair atılmış önemli bir adım olarak telakki edilmiş adeta Kemalist devrimin bir devamı olarak müjdelenmiştir. “Atatürk’ün yüksek direktifi ile Türk Tiyatrosunun ileri seviyede vücut bulması, milletimiz için en büyük hizmetlerden biri halinde karşılanmıştır. Tiyatrosuz memleket geri kalmış demektir. Tiyatrosuz milletlerin medeni alem içinde saf tutması mümkün değildir” (Ayhan, Yeni Adana, 14.02.1957). Elbette Şehir Tiyatrosu’nun bir anda yeterli ilgiyi görmesini beklememek gerekir. Nitekim Yeni Adana gazetesi yazarı Hakkı Gülman, (17.03.1959) Şehir Tiyatrosu’nun yeterince ilgi görmemesini, “kahvehaneler dolup taşarken bir öğretim müessesesi olan Şehir Tiyatrosu ise, ilgisizliğin kör bıçağı ile tehdit edilmekte, yaşama çabasının son basamaklarına gelmiş bulunmaktadır” ifadeleriyle dile getirmekte, toplumun bilincinde bu husustaki “noksanlığı” vurgulamaktadır. Gazetenin ertesi günkü sayısında yine aynı konuya yer verilmekte, cumartesi ve pazar günleri dahi salonun büyük bir kısmının boş kalmasının sanatkarların şevkini kırdığı gibi sanatseverleri de üzdüğü bu nedenle, ilgisizliğin önüne geçilmesi için Şehir Tiyatrosu’nun bir an önce önlem alması gerektiği belirtilmiştir (Yeni Adana, 18.03.1959).

Tiyatroya karşı varolan ilgisizliğin nedeni olarak; şehirdeki tiyatro seyircisinin yeni olması ve bazı oyunları anlayamaması, kimi seyircilerin ünlü oyuncu olmayınca oyun izlemek istememesi ve bazı aydınların oyunları görmeden eleştiri yapmasından kaynaklandığı düşünülmüştür (Uçarol, Yeni Adana, 19.03.1959). Nitekim oyunları izleyen bazı çevrelerin ve Belediye’nin de görüşleri dikkate alınarak, taşralı seyirciye uygun daha hafif oyunlardan oluşturulan bir repertuvar istenmiştir. Tekerek, 1958-59 sezonundan 1964-65 sezonuna kadar merak ve heyecan ögesinin ağır bastığı, bazen de polisiye ve melodramlardan oluşan bir oyun politikasının olduğunu, bu politikanın tiyatronun kökleşmesinden çok kısa vadede gişe amaçladığını bu nedenle de ülkenin ve Adana’nın gündemini yakalayamadığını söyler. Bu oyunlar başlangıçta ilgi uyandırmış olsa da, bir göç kentinde, nüfusunun % 80’i gecekondualarda yaşayan Adana’nın sosyal gerçeğiyle örtüşmediğinden zamanla oyunlara ilgi azalmıştır (Tekerek, 1997: 179). Bu ilgi azlığına rağmen 1958 yılından 65 yılına dek, belediye desteğinde varlığını sürdüren Adana Belediyesi Şehir Tiyatrosu, çeşitli dernek, meslek örgütü ve sendikalar aracılığıyla getirtilen turne toplulukları Adana halkının eğlence dünyasını ve sosyal yaşamını aktif tutmuştur (Tekerek, 2012: 317).

3.2 Sinema

Adana'da dar gelirli halkın, eğlence ve boş zamanı değerlendirme adına 50'li yıllarda yapabileceği çok fazla etkinlik yoktu. Ancak sinema tek başına bu boşluğu doldurabilecek kadar aktif ve güçlüydü. Daha ekonomik olduğu için bilhassa tercih edilen ve iklimin getirdiği uzun yaz gecelerinin biricik eğlencesi yazlık sinemalardı.

Adana sinema hayatının önemi ve niteliği bakımından, Ali Özgentürk'ün ifadeleri önemli bir göstergedir:

Eski İstanbullu hayatının içerisinde yazları sinemaya gitmek yoktu. Ama Adana'da yapılabilecek tek şey yazlık sinemalarda film seyretmekti. Film dağıtım şirketleri Adana'ya kopya yetiştiremezdi. Yılda yapılan 300-400 filmin tamamı Adana'da gösterilirdi... Sadece Yeşilçam filmleri değil, Türkiye'ye gelen çoğu filmi yazlık sinemalarda seyrederdik. Potemkin Zırhlısını ilk kez Adana'da yazlık sinemada seyrettiğimi söylersem, ne demek istediğim anlaşılır sanırım (Özgentürk, 2012: 31).

Yazlık sinemaların Mayıs ayında açılmasıyla sinemasever halk sevinmeye başlamıştır zira sinemaların sayısı artınca fiyatlar düşecektir (Yeni Adana, 15.05.1959). Hür Fikir gazetesinde de (25.11.1955) sinema bileti fiyatlarının makul seviyelerde olduğu dile getirilmektedir: “Adana'nın eğlence yerlerinin azlığı malum. Bilhassa orta gelirli vatandaşların yegane eğlence yerleri sinemalardır. Bugün için altmış kuruşa üç saat müddetle film seyretmek, hiç de pahalı bir eğlence olmasa gerek.”

Bu dönemde halkın sinemaya ilgisi öylesine yoğun olmuştur ki kimi zaman biletlerin karaborsaya düştüğü görülmüştür. Fakat bu durum bazı kişilerin sinemadan memnun olduğu anlamına gelmez. Köylü Sesi gazetesi yazarı Erol Aykaş, “Sinemalar” (12.05.1954) başlıklı yazısında sinemaların rahatsızlığından ve halkın kurallara uymamasından dem vurur: “bari rahat bir yer olsa insan verdiği paraya acımaz. Ama bakıyorsunuz ki sinemanın ön kısımlarından bir köşesi size düşüyor. İnsanların yüzleri uzuyor, gözleriniz bozuluyor, rahatınız kaçıyor. Bir de bu kalabalık içerisinde önünüzde oturanın gizli gizli sigara tütürdüğünü düşününüz. Fakat böylelerine müdahale etmeye gelmez. Perde yanlarında istediğiniz kadar ‘sigara içilmez’ ibaresi yazsın aldırmasın o.” Burada De Certeau'nun sıradan insanların silahı olarak gördüğü direniş potansiyeli anlam kazanmaktadır. Sıradan insanlar, disiplin ya da disipline etme çabaları karşısında sürekli ihlaller, kaçamaklar yapmakta, fırsatını bulduğu an kuralları kendine göre değiştirmekte, bozmaktadır.

Eğlence Mekânları

Boş zaman kapitalizmle gelen ve onun tarafından belirlenip yine onun tarafından değerlendirilen bir kavramdır. Zamanı metalaştıran kapitalizm, başlangıçta çalışmayı yüceltip boş zamanı küçümserken, artık her şeyden önce kendi ekonomik çıkarları nedeniyle herkes için daha fazla boş zaman istemek noktasındadır –yeter ki bu boş zaman kültür endüstrisi içerisinde tüketim yapılarak değerlendirilsin- ancak yine aynı nedenlerle bu zamanı “boş” bırakmaya da niyetli değildir. Bu sistemin en önemli hedeflerinden biri, “ister toplumsal mücadeleler ister doğrudan teknolojik ilerlemeler yoluyla yaratılmış olsun, her türlü boş zamanı fethetmektir” (Argın, 1992; 36). Lefebvre'nin ifadesiyle; “Boş zaman artık şenlik veya emeğin ödülü değildir, kendisi için ifa edilen özgür bir faaliyet de değildir. Genelleştirilmiş göstergedir: Televizyondur, sinemadır, turizmdir” (Lefebvre, 2013: 66).

Modernleşme ile birlikte çalışma ile boş zaman birbirinden net bir şekilde ayrılınca boş zamanın, eğlencenin dahi çalışmak, enerji toplamak için gereken bir zaman dilimi olduğu fikri yerleşmiştir. Nitekim Ruhi Tek'in Bugün gazetesinde yer alan “Adana Eğleniyor; Sinemalarda” başlıklı yazısında, boş zaman etkinlikleri bir nevi çalışma hayatına hazırlanmak için deşarj olmak şeklinde yorumlanmıştır. Eğlenmek, adeta çalışan insanın daha iyi çalışması için kazandığı bir haktır. “Çalışmak kadar eğlenmek de lazım. Çalışan insanın sinirleri gergindir. Onun için istirahat, onun için eğlenmeye ihtiyacı vardır. Yorgunluğunu gidermek, sarf edilen enerjiyi toplayabilmek için eğlenmesi, işine yeni bir kuvvet ile başlayabilmesi için eğlenmesi lazımdır.”

Adana'da ekonomik yaşamın canlanması eğlence yaşamını da canlandırmıştır. Adana “sinemaları, lokantaları, otelleri, gazinoları, barları ile zengin paytoncuların yolda pazarlık kestiği özel aşk evleriyle bekar erkek hayatının hayli renklendiği bir yer olup çıkmıştır” (Tanju, 1985: 161). Menderesli yılların

meşhur devalüasyonu sonucu zenginleşen toprak sahipleri, ağalar ve çocukları paralarını harcayacak yer bulamayınca barlar ve pavyonlar dolup taşmaya başlamıştır. Bunun üzerine Adana’da bar sayısı da artmış ve eğlence anlayışı öyle bir noktaya gelmiştir ki bol bulunan içkiler sulamak üzere okalıptüs ağaçlarına dökülmüş, İstanbul’dan çalıştırılmak üzere kadınlar getirilmiştir (Canka, 2011: 170). Ancak bu eğlence anlayışı Adana sakinleri ve basındaki yazarlar tarafından eleştirilmiş, yeni ortaya çıkan eğlence yerleri şehrin asayiş ve güvenliğini tehdit eden mekânlar bütünü olarak görülmüştür. Bu mekânların basındaki aksi; kavgâ ve cinayetler, sarhoş naraları ve fuhuş olayları şeklinde olmuştur.

Bugün gazetesinde (14.10.1953) Umum Müdürlüğü’nün yayımlanan bir raporundan alıntıyla eğlence yerlerinin ahlâki çöküntü yaratacağı gibi bu gibi yerlerde harcanan paranın milli servet kaybı olduğu vurgulanmıştır:

Seyhan ilindeki bilhassa Adana şehrindeki büyük iktisadi kalkınmanın vermiş olduğu refahla aşağı bir zevk ve eğlence ruhunun isteğini yıkmak, ahlâk ve estetik bakımından yükseltmek için çareler aranması lazımdır. Çok kazanan Adanalılar İstanbul’dan ve başka yerlerden getirilmiş alelade kadınlara (bar) tabir edilen yerlerde bir gecede binler, on binler, hatta yüzbinlerce lira harcayarak memleket servetini yok etmektedirler. Bu aynı zamanda aile müessesesinin sarsılmasına ve ahlâki zaafın çoğalmasına da vasıta olmaktadır.

Barlarda yaşanan olayların şehir halkının yaşamının içine kadar sirayet ettiğini anlıyoruz ki halk bu konuda sürekli olarak şikâyetlerde bulunmuştur. Bu şikâyetlerin nedeni ise barların sokak ortasında, mahalle arasında olmasındandır. Örneğin bu konuda Türk Sözü gazetesinde (11.09.1957) barların sosyal bir ihtiyaçtan sayılmayıp aksine, içki içilen, dost tutulan hatta kadın dövülen yerler olduğu için sert tedbirler alınması ve bu tedbirlere halkın da destek olması istenmiştir.

Bu dönemde barlara girişte yaş sınırı 21 olmasına rağmen, kimlikten ziyade bıyık esas alındığı için yaşı küçük olanlar da bıyık bırakmaya başlamıştır. Hal böyle olunca bir takım mizahi durumlar ortaya çıkmış; gençler yeni çıkan bıyıklarını koyulaştırmak için yakılmış fındık ve mantar kullanmaya başlamışlardır (Tek, Bugün, 30.07.1954).

Kahvehaneler

Mayol, kahvehaneleri bazı geleneksel toplumlardaki “erkekler evi”nin eşdeğeri olarak görür ve onu “Yoksulun Salonu” olarak tanımlar. Erkeklerin bu salonda iş hayatı ile özel hayat arasındaki boşluğu dengelediğini belirtir ve ekler “bu nedenle çalışma günlerinde akşamüstleri ve neredeyse sadece erkekler tarafından bu kadar düzenli bir biçimde kuşatılır...” (Mayol, 2015: 48). Adana’da kahvehaneler erkeklerin sosyalleşme mekânı olmanın ötesinde boş zamanların geçirildiği, kumar oynanan ve gayrı meşru işlerin çevrildiği yerlerdir. Dönemin yerel basınında kahvehaneler bu yönleriyle bir bakıma modern hayata ayak direyen, tembelliğin ve suçun özendirildiği köhnemiş yerler olarak resmedilmiştir. “Kahvehane adı altında iş gücünü öldüren, birer uyuşturma merkezleri haline gelmiş olan yerlerimiz gün geçtikçe artmakta, genişlemekte ve tembelleri sığamaz hale gelmektedir” (Yeni Adana, 17.03.1959).

Kahvehaneler tembellik yuvası olarak eleştirilirken, esnaflar dahi bu eleştiriden nasibini almıştır. Çalışmanın yüceltildiği bir çağda esnafın dükkânının önünde tavla oynaması tembellik olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Yeni Adana gazetesinde yayınlanan “O Afişlerin Arkasında” adlı yazısında Ahmet Tahir, bu meseleyi şarklı olmamıza bağlar. Yazarın eleştiri için kaleme aldığı bu yazının arka fonunda dönemin Adanasının sokakları bütün canlılığıyla resmedilmektedir.

Siz de bilirsiniz Adana’nın iç sokaklarını: sabahları saat dokuz sularında daha gecenin serinliği uçup gitmemişken, hala evlerin gölgelerinde gizlenirken. Dükkân önleri sulanmıştır; bastırılan tozların ıslak kokusu havaya yükselir. Terziler iskemlelerini kaldırıma atmışlar, dizlerinde ceket yakaları habire çalışırlar. Bir eskici kendine has bir nağme ile gelir geçer. Kunduracılar, kalıplar üstüne gerilmiş, çivilenmiş ayakkabıları gölgeli yerlere dizmişler. (...) Batılı olduk diye yazıp çizeriz ya, O afişlerin arkasından sırtan şarklılığımızın bir yüzü: tembellik, tevekkül ve hepsinin ardında yatan topluma, başkalarına ve hatta kendimize karşı bir mesuliyetsizlik (Ahmet Tahir, “O Afişlerin Arkasında”, Yeni Adana, 17.05.1958).

Bu dönemde kahveler bir kumarhane işlevi gördüğü için sürekli kahvelere baskınlar düzenlenmiş, yakalananlar adliyeye götürülmüştür (Demokrat, 24.09.1954). Şehirdeki birçok asayiş sorununun kumardan kaynaklandığı düşünülmüştür ki basında; “İnsanlığı günbegün ahlâksızlığa, sefalete sürüklemek suretiyle cemiyet hayatımızdaki sahasını genişleten kumar, ne yazık ki memleketimizde de at oynatmakta ve birçok faciaların da zühur etmesine sebep dahi olmaktadır” (Demokrat, 18.01.1955) ifadelerine rastlanmaktadır.

Bir boş zaman ve eğlence aracı olarak kumar yalnızca kahvelerde değil, sokak aralarında hatta okul önlerinde dahi oynatılmıştır. Demokrat gazetesi bu duruma dikkat çekerek okuyucularını; şeker, portakal vs. satar gibi görünen bazı kişilerin çocukları toplayıp “nasip kismet” adı altında bir nevi kumar oynattıkları konusunda uyarmıştır (Demokrat, 27.01.1956).

Cemiyet hayatında yaşanan bu dönüşüm kentte hızla büyüyen bir asayiş sorununu da beraberinde getirmiştir. Bu dönemde cinayetlerden kahvehanelerde oynatılan kumara (Yeni Adana, 01.02.1957), bar kavgalarından fuhuşa (Demokrat, 29.01.1954) kaçakçılıktan (Yeni Adana, 31.01.1958) karaborsaya (Yeni Adana, 21.08.1957) gürültü meselesine kadar şehirdeki asayiş meseleleri yerel basında en çok yer bulan konular arasındadır. Bu asayiş olaylarının önüne geçmek için fuhuş şikâyetleri üzerine barlar kontrol altına alınıp ışiksiz yerlerin ışıklandırılmasına dair barlara emniyet tarafından tebligat verilmiş (Yeni Adana, 27.06.1958), kahvelerde kağıt oynanması yasaklanmıştır (Yeni Adana, 27.02.1958). Alınan bu tedbirlerin çoğunlukla boşa çıktığını yine yerel basından öğrenmekteyiz. “Kahvelerden oyun kağıtlarının kaldırılmasına rağmen, kumar salgını devam etmektedir” (Yeni Adana, 23.08.1958).

Edebiyat Matineleri

Adana’da edebiyat son derece zengindir. Şehir bu yönüyle Türkiye edebiyat ve sanat hayatına birçok isim kazandırmıştır. 1950’yle 1960 yılları arasında en fazla edebiyat dergisi yayımlanan şehirlerin başında Adana gelmektedir.

Edebiyat alanındaki faaliyetler edebiyat dergileri ve düzenlenen edebiyat matineleri üzerinden sürdürülmüştür. Şiir matineleri de Muhsin Ertuğrul’un kurduğu şehir tiyatrosunda gerçekleştirilmiştir (Özgentürk, 2012: 29). Zaman zaman bu edebiyat matinerine devlet sanatçıları katılmış Türk ve Batı edebiyatından şiir ve hikâyeler okumuşlardır (Türk Sözü, 11.04.1958). Bu zengin edebiyat ortamına rağmen yerel basında halkın edebiyata ilgisinin yetersiz olduğu üzerinde durulmuştur. Adana’nın ilk kitap editörü Mehmet Olgunbaşbir röportajında Adanalı sanatçılarla ilgili olarak; “Çalışan göremiyorum, daha doğrusu okuyan. Okumaktan çok yazmayı düşünüyorlar. Şüphesiz ki Adanalılar arasında kıymetliler var. Bunları ortaya çıkarmak istiyoruz işte. Ayrıca heveslileri toplamak” (Uçarol, Yeni Adana, 26. 05. 1959) demektedir.

Yerel basında halkın barlarda ve kahvelerde zaman geçirip tembelleşmesi ve parasını boş yere zayi etmesinin sebebi olarak şehirde yapılacak başka bir etkinlik bulunmamasıyla açıklanmaktadır. Türk Sözü gazetesinde (10.09.1957) çıkan bir yazıda Halkevleri’nin kapatılması bu durumun sebebi olarak gösterilir. Demokrat Parti iktidara gelir gelmez Halkevleri’ni kapatarak kurumun tüm mal varlığını hazineye devretmiştir. “Sanki kapatılmazlarsa Demokrasinin bel kemiği kırılacakmış gibi, ne kadar tez davranmak mümkünse o kadar tez davranıp Halkevlerini kapattılar...Yedi, sekiz yıldır gençlik, halk, köylü bir başıboşluk içinde (...) İlk, orta, lise öğretimini bitiren gençler nerelerde toplanıyorlar, nerelerden neler öğreniyorlar acaba farkında mıyız?”

Bu görüştekiyazarlara göre Kemalist modernleşmenin kesintiye uğraması boş zaman uğraşının içini boşaltmış, gençlerin sanat olaylarından uzak kalmasına yol açmıştır. “Gençliğin, halkın boş vakitlerini faydalı bir şekilde geçirebilmeleri için şu koca şehirde devlet eliyle olsun, özel kurumlar eliyle olsun kurulmuş bir müessesemiz var mıdır? Nerede bu şehrin medeni şehirlere yakışan kitaplığı? Nerede bu şehrin güzel sanat yuvaları? Nerede sergi salonları, halk dershaneleri?” (Türk Sözü, 05.12.1959). Kültür ve sanat olaylarını teşvik etmek ve gerçekleştirmek için devletin düzenlemeler yapması gerektiğini savunan bu yazılardan da anlaşılacağı üzere kültür sanat ortamı siyasal alanın müdahalesinden azade değildir. Bu alanda inisiyatif alması veya almaması siyasal iradenin sonuç olarak “boş zaman etkinliklerine” doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak müdahale ettiğini göstermektedir.

İncirlik Üssü ve Amerikan Varlığının Getirdiği Değişim

Adana'nın sekiz kilometre doğusunda kurulan İncirlik Üssü, 1954 yılında Türk Silahlı Kuvvetleri ve Amerikan Hava Kuvvetleri'nin ortak kullanımına açılmıştır. İncirlik Üssü, 1952 yılında NATO üyesi olan Türkiye'nin Batı paktında yer almasının bir sembolü olarak soğuk savaş yıllarında komünist Sovyetler Birliği'ne karşı Batı'nın ön karakolu işlevini görmüştür. İncirlik Üssü'nün Adanalılar için siyasal ve askeri olmaktan çok kültürel bir karşılığı bulunmaktadır. Zira üs nedeniyle Adana'ya taşınan Amerikan askerleri şehrin sosyo-ekonomik ve kültürel hayatını bir hayli değiştirmiştir.

1950 yılında iktidara gelen Demokrat Parti Adana'da büyük destek görmüş, bu ildeki 11 milletvekilliğinin tamamını kazanmıştır.¹⁷ Dolayısıyla Amerikan yanlısı politikalarıyla bilinen Demokrat Parti'nin önüne koyduğu "Küçük Amerika" olma hedefinin ilk provalarını yaptığı yerlerden biridir Adana...

Daha İncirlik Üssü açılmadan Yeni Adana dergisinde Marshall Planı'nın Türkiye için ne denli önemli olduğu ve ülkeye katacakları sadece köşe yazılarında değil paylaşılan fotoğraflar aracılığıyla da vurgulanmıştır (Yeni Adana, 07.08.1951).

İncirlik Hava Üssü'nün kurulmasıyla şehre yerleşen Amerikalıların yaşam tarzları şehrin çehresini değiştirmiştir. Adanalı işadamları Sakıp Sabancı'da *Hayatım* adını taşıyan anılarını kaleme aldığı kitabında Adana'da Amerikan askerlerinin yarattığı değişimi şöyle ifade eder:

Onların Adana'ya gelmesi şehrin hayatını değiştirdi. Amerika'lı askerler, askeri satış mağazaları PX'lerden kaçak çıkardıkları yiyecek içecek maddelerini, giyim eşyalarını, buzdolaplarını, kullanılmış arabaları satıyorlardı. Birçok kimse Amerikalılarla dost olmak için İngilizce öğreniyordu... (Sabancı, 1985; 47).

İngilizcenin öğrenildiği yer ise Türk ve Amerikan halkı arasında, kültürel ve sosyal faaliyetleri geliştirmek hedefiyle Adana'da açılan Türk-Amerikan Derneği'dir. Bu dernekte Amerikan halk danslarının tanıtıldığı folklor geceleri (Bugün, 15.04.1960), İngilizce kursları, resim ve müzik sergileri düzenlenmiş, ayda iki defa Türk ve Amerikan kadınlarını kaynaştırmak üzere yemekli toplantılar gerçekleştirilmiştir (Türk Sözü, 21.05.1958). Türk- Amerikan Derneği'nde yer alan kütüphanede; Amerika'nın zenginliğine dair kitap, harita ve broşürlerin yer aldığı belirtilmiştir. Fevzi Yetkiner, Bugün gazetesinde yayınlanan "Amerikan Propagandası" başlıklı yazısında bütün bunları Amerikan propagandası olarak nitelendirerek bunlara ek olarak Amerikalıların isteyenlerin evine ücretsiz olarak haber bülteni gönderdiğini yazmaktadır (Yetiker, 26.03.1954).

Dönemin yerel gazetelerinden bu yıllarda Amerikan kültürünün daha iyi tanıtılması için çeşitli sanatsal faaliyetlerin de yürütüldüğü görülmektedir. Türk-Amerikan Derneği'ndeki etkinliklere ek olarak Şehir Otel'i'nde Amerikan resim sanatından örnekler veren bir sergi açılmıştır. Sergideki tablolarla, çeşitli ülke ve ırklardan gelerek milli varlığını oluşturan, görenek ve adetleri beraberinde getirmiş olan Amerikan halkının özellikleri anlatılmıştır (Hür Fikir, 06.04.1955).

NATO'nun yıldönümlerinde ilk ve orta dereceli okullarda bilgilendirme toplantılarının yapılması, lise öğrencileri arasında 500 lira ödüllü kompozisyon yarışmalarının düzenlenmesi (Yeni Adana, 29.03.1957), "Amerika Daima Türkiye'nin Yanındadır" başlığının manşetlerde verilmesi (02.08.1951) bu dönemde politikada izlenen "Amerikancı" çizgiye ilişkin örneklerdir.

Basında Amerikan kültürünün örnek kültür olarak gösterildiği yazılara da rastlamaktayız. Bir önceki bölümde "modernleşmeye ayak direyen kahvelere" ilişkin verdiğimiz örneğin Demokrat gazetesinde Amerikan erkeği ile kahvelerde vakit geçiren Adana erkeği kıyaslanarak sunulduğu görülmektedir. Yazıda evine bağlı Amerikan erkeğinin boş zamanlarını verimli geçirdiği, el sanatlarıyla ilgilendiği oysa Adana'daki erkeklerin vakitlerini kahvehanelerde geçirdikleri vurgulanmaktadır. "Vakti boşu boşuna kahvelerde geçirmektense evde oturup bir şeyler yapmak çok daha faydalıdır elbette" (Demokrat, 28.06.1955).

¹⁷ 1954 seçimlerinde DP Adana'daki 13 milletvekilliğinin tamamını kazanmış fakat 1957 seçimlerinde Türkiye'nin içine düştüğü ekonomik ve siyasi kriz sandığa yansarak parti 16 milletvekilliğinin tamamını CHP'ye kaptırmıştır (ysk.gov.tr).

Amerika'daki çocukların vakitlerini nasıl değerlendirdikleri Adana'daki çocuklara emsal olmak üzere yerel basında yer bulmaktadır. Örneğin Bugün gazetesinde (03.09.1955) yer alan bir haberde, Amerika'da çocukların okul ile ev arasındaki zamanını değerlendirmek için hayvanat bahçesine, mandıralara, ilgi çekecek yerlere gittikleri, buralarda kendilerine hikâye ve şiir okunduğuna ilişkin bir haber yer almıştır.

Amerikan kültürünün gündelik hayat üzerindeki etkisi çok geçmeden kendisini göstermiş; bele halka dolanarak oynanan HulaHoop oyunu kısa zaman içerisinde Adana sokaklarında “iyi kıvrırsalla yavrum sallarsalla” nidaları eşliğinde oynanmaya başlamıştır (Yeni Adana, 27.12.1958). Türk Sözü gazetesinde Amerika'dan alınan bu oyunun çifttelliiden bir farkı olmadığı, üstüne bir de göbek erittiği için faydalı olduğuna işaret edilmiştir (Türk Sözü, 28. 12. 1958).

Bununla birlikte Amerikalılar'ın şehirdeki varlığı bütünüyle de olumlu karşılanmamıştır. Bir takım asayiş olaylarının yaşanması ve eğlence hayatında yaşanan kimi gelişmeler nedeniyle Amerikalılar'ın Adana'daki varlığının eleştiri konusu edildiğini görmekteyiz. Örneğin İncirlikte çalışan bir Amerikalı'nın taksiciye bıçak çektiği Yeni Adana gazetesinde (05.09.1956) haber olmuş, Amerikalılar'a tanınan imtiyazın onları şımartıp kanun dışı hareketler yapmaya teşvik ettiği vurgulanmıştır.

Amerikalılar'a ilişkin şikâyetlerden biri de gürültü yaptıklarına ilişkindir. Yeni Adana gazetesi bu hususta kanun karşısında Amerikalılar'a iltimas geçildiği düşüncesindedir.

Amerikalılardan bazılarının bindikleri arabalarda gürültü çıkararak dolaşmaları men edilmemekte, polisler bir şey yapamayacaklarını söylemektedirler. Hadiselere şahit olan polisler ancak arabacıları durdurmakta, bunları sıkıştırılmaktadırlar. Bir Türkün gece yarısından sonra gürültü çıkararak sokakta dolaşması bir suç iken, bir Amerikalının yüksek sesle haykırması da bir suçtur. Bu memleketin kanunları, nizamları, örf ve adetleri bunu emreder (Yeni Adana, 23.08.1958).

Bu dönemde yerel basında Amerikan kültürünün örnek teşkil ettiğine ilişkin haberlerle Amerikalıların Adana'da ahlâkı bozduğuna ilişkin haberler birbirine karışmaktadır. Eleştirilerden biri de Amerikalıların sarhoş haldeyken verdikleri rahatsızlıklardır. Amerikalılar'ın bekçilerin ve polislerin ihtarlarına uymayıp onların otoritesini sarstığı, şehrin huzurunu geceleri nara atarak bozduğu söylenmektedir (Türk Sözü, 18.05.1957). Yalnızca geleneksel ve “ahlâki” konularda değil, söz konusu dini hassasiyetler olduğu zaman da Adana sakinleri Amerikalılara mevcut politik iklimden farklı yaklaşarak sınır koymaya, onları durdurmaya çalışmışlardır. Öyle ki Ramazan ayında Amerikalılara barlara gitmemeleri tembih edilmiştir (Yeni Adana, 17.03.1959).

Kemal Göksel, “Amerikalı” (10.09.1953) başlıklı yazısında ironik bir dille Amerikalılara sağlanan imtiyazları eleştirir: “İncirlik hava alanındaki mühendisin, Türk işçisine tatbik ettiği kanunsuz işlemle reva gördüğü ağır hakaret ve tecavüz, Amerikalılara tanıdığımız hudutsuz bir dostluk imtiyazının pek hazin bir eseri, bir neticesidir.”

Bütün bu çatışmalarda meseleye Amerika'nın tarafından bakan yazılar da yok değildir. Yeni Adana gazetesi İncirlik Havaalanı'nda Amerikalılarla yapılan bir görüşmeye yer vererek bütün yaşanan bu çatışmaları; Amerikalılar'ın Adana halkıyla aralarındaki yaşam ve dil farkı bulunmasına, Amerikan personelinin genç olmasına ve halkımızın yabancılara karşı aşırı meraklı oluşuna bağlamaktadır. Yazara göre barlarda yaşanan kavgalarda “zaten tatmin olamayan Türklerin” Amerikalılarla rekabet etmesi sonucunda yaşanmaktadır (Yeni Adana, 11.08.1958).

Sonuç

Demokrat Partili yıllarda Adana'da gündelik hayatın seyrini belli konu başlıkları üzerinden irdelediğimiz bu çalışmadan çıkan sonuçları şöyle sıralayabiliriz:

Modernleşmenin ekonomik görünümü kapitalizm ise, modernleşmeyi bir bakıma kapitalistleşme süreci olarak değerlendirebiliriz. Bu süreç Batı dışı toplumlarda devlet teşviğiyle sanayileşmek, iktisadi kalkınmayı öncelikli hedef olarak koymak şeklinde tezahür etmiştir. Adana, Türkiye'de “sanayileşmiş” kentlerin başında gelmektedir. Şehir ayrıca Çukurova bölgesinde bulunması nedeniyle verimli tarım arazilerinin de üzerinde yer almaktadır. Sözü ettiğimiz dönemde yoğun göç alan Adana'da bir taraftan işçileşme süreci

yaşanırken, diğer taraftan topraktan geçim de devam etmiştir. Dolayısıyla ortaya çıkan eklektik kentlileşmenin izlerini tüm renkliliğiyle Adana’daki gündelik hayat içerisinde bulmak mümkündür.

Kemalistideolojinin “muasır medeniyetler” seviyesine ulaşma ülküsü sosyal ve kültürel hayatın belirli kriterler çerçevesinde yeniden dizayn edilmesi gerekliliğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Her ne kadar CHP iktidardan olmuş DP iktidarı başlamış olsa da sözünü ettiğimiz dönemde bu anlayışın bazı yönleriyle devam ettiğini görmekteyiz. Şalvar giyen köylünün kılık kıyafetinden dolayı sinemaya alınmamış olması buna bir örnektir. Bu da tek partili yapının ortadan kalkmış olmasına rağmen onun modernleşme zihniyetinin ortadan kalkmadığını göstermektedir.

Modernleşme ile birlikte kadın kamusal alanda daha fazla görünür olmuştur. Ele aldığımız dönemde yerel basına baktığımızda kadınlara verilen moda, güzellik, sağlık tavsiyelerinin referanslarının Batı’dan alındığını görmekteyiz. Ancak burada geleneksel Türk modernleşmesinde rastladığımız tavır yine karşımıza çıkmakta, kadının esas yerinin evi olduğu, “Batı’nın ahlâkı”nı alırsa iffetini kaybedeceği vurgusu defalarca tekrar edilmektedir.

Kapitalist üretim ilişkileri içinde zaman ve mekân yeniden işlevlendirilirken, çalışma zamanının dışındaki zaman “boş zaman” olarak ifade edilmektedir. Çalışmanın öncelenmesi ve çalışkan olmanın güzellenmesimodernleşen toplumların genel özelliklerinden biridir. Bu bağlamda dönemin yerel basınında Adana’daki erkeklerin tembelliğinden sıkça şikâyet edilmektedir. Boş zaman geçirme mekânlarının başında gelen kahvehaneler bu şikâyetlerin odağında yer almaktadır. Bu “miskinliğin” karşısına konulan değer ise Batı toplumundan özellikle de Amerika’dan alınmakta; yerel basında Amerikan erkeği ile Türk erkeği kıyaslanmaktadır.

Amerikan yaşam tarzıyla gelen tüketim toplumu kavramı ilk defa 1948 yılında Naim Tıralı’nın “25 Sente Amerika” adlı öykü derlemesinde ve Fehmi Başkut’un “Paydos” adlı tiyatro oyununda ele alınmış, bu eserlerde paranın en yüce değer olarak görülmesinin yarattığı toplumsal ve kültürel yozlaşma eleştirilmiştir (Büken, 2001: 43-53). Benzer eleştiriler Adana camiasında da görülmekle birlikte, sürecin Amerikanlaşmayı yüceltme, güzelleme şeklinde tezahür ettiği gözlenmektedir.

İncirlik Üssü Adana halkının Amerikan kültürü ile doğrudan temas kurmasını sağlamıştır. Bu temasta bir taraftan gıpta etme, onun gibi olma saiki varken, diğer taraftan ise yozlaşmayalım, değerlerimizi kaybetmeyelim endişesi birarada görülmektedir. Dönemin siyasi iklimine de uygun olarak AmerikanlaşmakKemalist ideolojinin önüne koyduğu Batılılaşma ilkesinin somut dayanak noktası olmuştur.

Esas olarak ele alınan dönemde Adana’nın gündelik yaşamı düzenlemeye yönelik tepeden inme müdahalelere karşı De Certeau’nun kastettiği anlamda bir karşı koyuş yaşandığını (“direniş”) söyleyebiliriz. Yasalarla, düzenlemelerle set vurulmaya çalışılsa da köylü şalvar giymeye, sarhoş nara atmaya, kahvehaneler kumar yuvası olmaya devam etmiştir. Bu da “sıradan insanın” direnişi şeklinde ifade edilebilir.

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Kuzey Saroz Körfezi'nin Kırsal Turizm Potansiyelinin Belirlenmesi

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Özet: Şehir merkezlerinde olduğu gibi kırsal alanda da yaşayanların yaşam seviyesinin sosyo-ekonomik olarak geliştirilmesini sağlayacak faaliyetlerden biri turizmdir. Turizm, ülkelerin ve bölgesel kalkınmanın arttırılmasında önemli bir iş kolu haline gelmiştir. Bu çalışmada öncelikle turizmin ekonomik kalkınma ve kırsal kalkınmaya olan etkileri incelenmiş ve Saroz Körfezi üzerinde değerlendirilmiştir. Saroz bölgesinin tarımsal yapısı, tarım ve diğer tarım dışı faaliyetleri turizm açısından değerlendirilerek bölgede yapılan mevcut turizm faaliyetleri incelenmiş ve bölgeye uygun yapılabilecek turizm faaliyetlerine öneriler getirilmiştir. Bölgede uygulanabilecek turizm aktivitelerinin kırsal kalkınma ve halkın refahını arttırmaya yönelik avantajları belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Bölgenin İstanbul, Çanakkale gibi büyük illere ve sınır kapılarına yakın olması, tarihi taş evlerinin varlığı, İbrice limanı, Gala gölü gibi doğal oluşumların varlığının doğada yapılan kırsal turizm türlerine fırsat vermesi gibi turizm açısından değerlendirilecek birçok avantajı belirlenmiştir. Söz konusu özellikler SWOT analizi ile açıklanmıştır. Bu kapsamda bölgenin güçlü yönleri ve bu güçlü yönleri avantaja çevirecek fırsatlar sıralanırken, zayıf yönleri ve bölgenin karşılaşılabileceği tehdit unsurları da irdelenmiştir. Ayrıca yerel halkın sosyo-ekonomik kalkınmasını sağlayacak alternatif turizm türlerinin bölgede uygulanabilirliği değerlendirilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kuzey Saroz Körfezi, Kırsal Turizm, Kırsal Kalkınma

Determination of Rural Tourism Potential in the North Saroz Gulf

Abstract: Tourism as in urban centers is one of the activities leading to the development of socio-economic living level of the people in rural areas. Nowadays it has become an important business branch for promoting regional and country development. In this study, primarily, the effects of tourism on economic and rural development were examined and evaluated on the Gulf of Saros. From the point of tourism it was evaluated the agricultural structure of Saros Region and agricultural and non-agricultural activities then it was investigated and evaluated the present tourism activities in the region and finally recommended some suitable tourism activities to do for the region. It was tried to determine the advantages of suitable activities for the region to improve the welfare of the people and rural development. It was also determined many regional advantages as the proximity not only to the major cities like İstanbul, Çanakkale but also the border crossings; as the presence of historical Stone houses and also as the natural beauties like İbrice Port and The Lake Gala which give opportunity to the rural tourism types. These features were described with the SWOT analysis. In this context not only was it listed the region's strengths and the opportunities to turn these strengths to advantage but also it was analyzed the elements of possible threats to be faced and the regional weaknesses. In addition, it was also evaluated the applicability of alternative types of tourism in the region to ensure socio-economic development of the local population.

KeyWords: Northern Gulf of Saros, rural tourism, rural development

1. Giriş

Ülkelerin ekonomik kalkınmasının sağlanması politika ve uygulamalarında en temel hedeflerden olmuştur. Birçok ülke mevcut ekonomik ve üretim yapısına göre kalkınma modelleri oluşturmuştur. Arazi ve nüfus bakımından kırsal alanların daha fazla olması kırsal kalkınmayı zorunlu kılmıştır. Kırsal alanlardaki arazilerin yanlış kullanımı, istihdamın düşmesi ve göçlerin artması, kırsal yoksulluk, doğal çevrenin tahribinin artması, plansız yerleşim, gibi sorunlar kalkınmayı güçleştirmiştir. Kırsal kalkınmada kırsal alanda yaşayan halkın gelirlerinin artması anında sosyal, kültürel ve eğitim anlamında da gelişmesini, kalkınmasını ifade eder. Turizm kırsal alanda yaşayanların yaşam seviyesinin sosyo-ekonomik olarak geliştirilmesini sağlayacak en önemli faaliyetlerden biridir. Turizm, bölgesel kalkınmanın arttırılmasında önemli bir iş kolu haline gelmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı Saroz Bölgesi'nin sahil şeridindeki yerel halkın sosyo-ekonomik olarak kalkınmasını sağlayacak, özellikle kıyı (deniz) turizmi ve diğer doğal alanlara yönelik kırsal turizm türlerinin uygulanabilirliğini araştırmak, sonuçları değerlendirmektir.

Teknolojinin ve iletişimin hızla artmasıyla insanların turizm alışkanlıkları da değişmeye başlamıştır. Kişilerin ihtiyaçları ve beklentileri yönünde turizm tercihleri değişmektedir. Yoğun iş temposu, stres diğer psikolojik fiziksel etkenler insanları turizm etkinliklerine biraz daha yaklaştırmaktadır. Doğayla baş başa kalma isteği, yorgunluğu atma değişik yerler görme ve farklı kültürlerle tanışma isteği insanları sürekli gidilen turizm yerlerinin dışında yerlere yönlendirmiştir. Saroz körfezi sahil kesimi son zamanlarda turizm bakımından özellikle yakın illerin ilgisini çekmiştir. Ancak bu ilgi bir takım yetersizlikleri ve eksikleri beraberinde getirmiştir. Kırsal alanlardaki turizm faaliyetleri alanın yapısına bağlı olarak farklılık göstermektedir.

Ziyaret alanının çeşitli özellikleri açısından ziyaretçi sayısını ve ziyaret sıklığını etkilemektedir. Bunlar; doğal ve kültürel kaynakların potansiyeli, kalitesi, ulaşım, güvenlik, konaklama olanaklarıdır (Özkan ve Kubaş, 2012).

Ülkemizde kırsal alandan şehir merkezlerine göçler devam etmektedir. Özellikle Trakya bölgesinde kırsal alanda genç nüfusun giderek azalmaya başlamıştır. Kırsal kalkınmanın hızlı bir şekilde sağlanabilmesi için turizm faaliyetlerinden yararlanılmadır. Kırsal turizm bölge için önemli bir fırsattır. Kırsal turizm bölgedeki doğal varlıklardan yararlanmayı ve onları korumayı sağlayan bir turizm türüdür. Kırsal turizm bölgeye çeşitli yollardan ek kazanç sağlayacaktır. Bölgedeki geleneksel ürün ve tarım ürünlerinin pazarlanmasında ek pazarlar yaratılmış olacaktır. Geleneksel ürünlerin ulusal ve uluslararası tanıtılması sağlanacaktır. Bölgeye yapılacak günübirlik veya konaklamalı turlarda birçok kesime istihdam sağlanacaktır. Konaklama tesislerinin kırsal turizmi veya tarım turizmine hizmet edebilecek şekilde düzenlenmesi yeni işletmelerin açılmasına olanak verecektir. Ülkemizin birçok bölgesinde olduğu gibi Saroz Körfezi'nde de kırsal turizm potansiyeli yüksek ancak örgütlenme ve organizasyon konularında eksiklikler vardır.

Dünyada ve Avrupa'da örneklerle bakacak olursak Gündüz (2004)'e göre Örneğin Fransa'da konaklamalar yalnızca çiftliklerde olmayıp "Tarım Odaları" oluşumu altında farklı mekanlar da katılımcılara sunulur konaklama olanaklarıyla birlikte çiftlik bazlı yiyecek ve ürünlerden satın alma imkanları sağlanmaktadır. Kanada da Tarım Turizmi Komitesi, Yunanistan da "Agroturizm Kooperatifi", Polonya'da "Ekolojik Tarım ve Turizm Merkezi", ABD'de "Gıda Kooperatifi", İspanya'da "Balear Agroturizm Birliği" gibi kuruluşlar oluşturularak tarımsalturizm girişimlerine destek vermişlerdir.

Bölgenin sosyo- kültürel yapısı, fiziki şartları, taşıma kapasitesi göz önünde bulundurularak gelecek nesillere aktarılabilen sürdürülebilir bir anlayışla turizm faaliyetleri uygulanmalıdır. Uygulamadan önce ülkenin genel turizm plan ve politikaları dahilinde yerel yönetimlerin de katılımıyla halkın bilinçlendirilmesi, yönlendirilmesi ve teşvik edilmesi sağlanmalıdır.

Türkiye'de çoğunlukla olduğu gibi Saroz'da da turizm aktiviteleri birkaç aya sıkıştırılmış, turizm daha çok sahil şeridinde yoğunlaşmıştır. Ancak zamanla insanların değişen ilgi alanları turizmin de çeşitlenmesine neden olmuş doğadan yararlanılan spor ve özel ilgi alanları artmıştır.

Edirne ve Çanakkale illeri gerek tarihi gerek doğal yapısıyla yaşanması gereken bir coğrafyadadır. Buradaki değerler kaderine terk edilmemeli ve kırsal turizm planlaması yapılmalıdır.

2. Yöntem

Çalışmada öncelikle bölgenin kırsal turizm potansiyeli belirlenmesi hedeflenmiştir. Gözlem ve yoruma dayanan kalitatif yöntemlerden biri olan SWOT analizi yapılmıştır.

3. Araştırma Bölgesi

Çalışma alanı Edirne ili sınırları içinde Marmara bölgesinin güneybatısında, orta-kuzey Saroz Körfezinde yer alır. Ege Denizi'nin kuzey kesiminde yer alan Saros Körfezi Antik çağdaki adıyla Melas Kolpos; güneyde Gelibolu Yarımadası, kuzeyde Trakya kıyıları arasına yaklaşık 60 km. kadar sokulan üçgen biçimli bir girintidir. Kuzey ve güneyde jeomorfolojik açıdan yalı yarlı ve düzenlenmiş kıyılarla çevrili olan körfezin

giderek daralan doğu ucunda Kavak Deresi'nin yığıldığı alüvyonlarla kaplı bataklık bir ova (Kadıköy-eski Evreşe ovası) yer alır (Anonim 2016a). Kuzey Saroz Körfezi, Çanakkale'nin Evreşe semtine bağlı Adilhan köyü, Edirne'nin Keşan ilçesine bağlı Sazlıdere, Gökçetepe, Danişment, Erikli, Yayla köyü ve sahilleri ve Mecidiye mahallesi ile Enez ilçesine bağlı Karaincirli, Vakıf, Büyükevren, Gülçavuş, Sultaniçe köyleri ve sahillerinden oluşturmaktadır.

Araştırmalara göre Kuzey Anadolu fay hattının uzantısı olan iki kırık arasında çökmüş bir graben alanı sayılan körfez, bazı araştırmacılara göre de gerileme ve açılma sonucunda oluşmuştur (Anonim 2016a).

Edirne ili merkezinde karasal iklim özelliklerine sahiptir. İlin güneyinde ve Ege denizi Saroz körfezinde yer alan Enez ve Keşan ilçelerinin sahil şeridinde yazları sıcak kurak, kışlar ılık ve yağışlı geçer. Bölgenin D-100 karayolu ile Avrupa'ya bağlayan Bulgaristan ve Yunanistan sınırına ve Çanakkale, Tekirdağ ve İstanbul illerine yakın olması ulaşım açısından avantaj oluşturmaktadır. Bölge geçiş yolları üzerinde olduğundan tarih boyunca farklı medeniyetlerin savaşlarına ve göçlerine sahne olmuştur. Bu etken farklı tarihi yapıların bulunmasına ancak istilalar ve diğer nedenlerle birçoğunun zamanla yok olmasına neden olmuştur. Dinçer(2005)'e göre, Günümüzde ancak birkaç kale kalıntısı, Osmanlı Dönemi hamam kalıntısı ve hala kullanılan Herzekzade Ahmet Paşa Camii bulunmaktadır. Hala ayakta kalabilen taş evleri bulunmaktadır. Sanayi tesislerinden yoksun olan Keşan geçmişte de ülkenin genel konumuna paralel olarak sadece sayılarının 45'e ulaştığı söylenen buğday öğüten yel değirmenlerine sahipti.

Bölgenin mevcut turizm potansiyelini belirlemek için; turizm işletmelerin sayısı ve niteliği, mevcut alt-üst yapı yatırımları, turistlerin yaptıkları harcamalar, bölgedeki turizminden beklentileri ve mevcut sıkıntıların analiz edilmesi gerekir.

Kırsal turizm faaliyetleri ve popüler bir kavram olan ekoturizm, sadece doğada zaman geçirmek olarak değil bir çok çeşitli etkinliği kapsayan etkinlikler bütünüdür. Turizm bakanlığı ekoturizmi; yayla turizmi, doğayı keşfetme-yol bulma gezileri orienteering ornitoloji (kuş gözleme) turizmi, foto safari, akarsu sporları (kano-rafting) çiftlik turizmi, botanik (bitki inceleme) turizmi, bisiklet turları, atlı doğa yürüyüşü, kamp-karavan turizmi, mağara turizmi, dağ turizmi ve doğa yürüyüşü, botanik (bitki inceleme) gibi başlıklar altında değerlendirmektedir.

Bölgede yapılan kırsal turizm faaliyetlerine örnek verecek olursak; yamaç paraşütü Uçmakedere de yapılmaktadır. Uçmakedere Köyü'nün sırtını dayadığı GANOS DAĞI (950 m),Trakya'nın ikinci büyük yükseltisidir (Anonim 2016b).

Saroz körfezi kıyıları orman, yeşil alan kaynakları ve flora-fauna bakımından oldukça zengindir. Keşan'ın güneydoğusunda bulunan Kuru dağları Edirne'nin en yüksek yeridir (yerlisu tepesi 725 m.) trekking için uygun parkurlar bulunur. Gökçetepe, İbrice sahil kesimi ve orman alanları yürüyüş için uygun parkurlar oluşturmaktadır (Türksoy, 2015).

Enez, İpsala, Keşan ilçeleri hudutları içinde Gökçetepe ve Danişment orman içi dinlenme yeri olmak üzere iki adet dinlenme yeri vardır. Sadece yaz mevsiminde hizmet veren bu yerler çadırli kamp alanı ile günü birlik kullanım alanları, kır gazinosu ve büfeden oluşmaktadır (Anonim,2016c). Danişment orman içi dinlenme yeri çadırli kamp alanı 6 ha olup 5000 kişi kapasitesindedir (Anonim, 2012a).

Edirne ilinin faunasıOrnotoloji (Kuş Gözlemciliği) ve Ornito Turizmi açısından zengin alternatiflerle doludur. Özellikle Saros Körfezi ve Enez çevresinde bulunan göllerde çeşitli kuş türleri yaşamaktadır.Gala Gölü Milli Park alanında yaklaşık olarak 200 farklı kuş türü yaşamaktadır (Anonim, 2012b). Bölgede ayrıca bisiklet turları düzenleyen (Doçek-Keşan doğa, çevre ve kültür derneği) bulunmaktadır.

Bölgenin flora ve fauna bakımından zengin olması henüz planlanmamış atlı doğa yürüyüşü, doğada yön bulma (orienteering), doğa fotoğrafçılığı gibi sporlara son derece elverişlidir.

Saroz Körfezi'nin Edirne,Çanakkale gibi kültürel ve tarihi eser bakımından zengin illere yakın olması avantajdır. Kültürel amaçlı yapılan gezilerde kırsal turizm olanaklarından da yararlanılması sağlanabilir. Keşan ilçesi Mecidiye mahallesinde bulunan taş evler ekopansiyon olarak değerlendirilebilir. Keşan'da bulunan Hersekzade Ahmet paşa camii,Enez'deki kale ve kilise kalıntıları tur programlarında değerlendirilmelidir. Gastronomi turizmi olarak birçok yiyecek ve içecek bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan

bazıları; Mavzana, tarhana, ciğer sarması, akıtma, badem ezmesi, lokma, gaziler helvası, deva-i misk, borani, kaçamak, satır ettir.

Satır et 2008 yılında coğrafi işaretli ürün olarak tescillenmiştir (Anonim, 2016d).

Bölgede bir çok kültür ve sanat festivalleri düzenlenmektedir (Çamlıca beldesinde Bocuk gecesi, Mecidiye dallık şenlikleri, Kurtbey dallık şenlikleri, Uzunköprü belediyesi tarım ve kültür festivali, İpsala Çeltik (Pirinç) Kültür ve Sanat Festivali, Enez Av ve Balık Festivali, Edirne Tarihi Kırkpınar Yağlı Güreşleri ve Kültür Etkinlikleri vb.)

4. Kırsal Turizm Potansiyeli: SWOT Analizi

Bölgenin Güçlü Yönleri	Fırsatlar	Tehditler
Kültür ve doğanın iç içe bulunması	Ekoturizm/Agroturizm Faaliyetleri olarak değerlendirilebilir.	Doğal yapı tahribatı olabilir.
Tarihi ve kültürel yapıları bozulmamış taş evleri	Ekopansiyon olarak turizme kazandırılabilir.	Tarihi evler yanlış planlarla tahrip edilebilir.
Su kaynaklarının zenginliği	Kuş gözlemciliği, doğa yürüyüşü gibi faaliyetler düzenlenebilir.	Su kaynakları uzun süreçte kirlenebilir.
Orman arazilerinin varlığı	Kamp alanları, piknik alanları, milli parklar kurulabilir.	Orman tahribatı, kirlenme ve yangınlar görülebilir.
Bölgenin sınır kapılarına ve İstanbul, Çanakkale, Tekirdağ gibi büyük illere yakın olması	Çevre illerden bölgeye gelen turist sayısı reklam ve tanıtım yoluyla artırılabilir.	Bölgede nüfusun fazla olması kirlenmeyi, kültürel yozlaşmayı, tahribatı beraberinde getirebilir.
Halkın kırsal turizme olumlu yaklaşımı	Halk çeşitli eğitim programlarıyla eğitilip ekoturizm olgusuna dahil edilebilir ve istihdam artışı sağlanabilir.	Turizm halkın sosyo-kültürel yapısını olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir.
Endemik türlerin bulunması	Bölgenin reklam ve tanıtımında yararlanılabilir.	Türlerin nesli yok olabilir.
Bölgenin Zayıf Yönleri		
Altyapı eksiklikleri(elektrik, su, kanalizasyon sistemindeki eksiklikler)	Yeni modern yapılan yapılabilir	Yetersiz alt yapıyla birlikte üst yapı yatırımlarının yapılması
Konaklama işletmelerinin azlığı	Çevreyle uyumlu konaklama işletmeleri yapılmalıdır	Plansız yapılan konaklama işletmeleri sebebiyle çarpık yapılaşma görülebilir
Yetersiz reklam ve tanıtım	Yeni reklam ve tanıtım yollarıyla insanların ilgisini bölge çekmek. Köyün ana yolları ve sahil yolları düzenlenip gerekli tabelaların konulması gerekir	Tanıtım eksik ve yanlış yapılabilir. Yolların bozuk olması
Köy yollarındaki eksiklikler	Ekonomik gelişme turizm faaliyetleriyle hızlandırılabilir ve istihdam sağlanabilir.	potansiyel turist talebini etkileyebilir.
Köylerin ekonomik bakımdan geri kalması		Köyden şehre göçlerin artması

Saroz körfezinde birçok sahil bulunmaktadır. Bunlar; Edirne'nin Keşan ilçesine bağlı Gökçetepe, Mecidiye, Erikli, Danişment, Yayla, Enez ilçesine bağlı Karaincırı, Vakıf, Gülçavuş, Sultaniçe ve Enez plajlarıdır. İbrice limanı yakınlarındaki İtalyan koyu ve uzun kum Saroz'un güzel plajlarındandır. Kıyı-deniz turizmi açısından özellikle yazın yoğunluk yaşanmaktadır. Bölgede yüzme, sportif olta balıkçılığı, rüzgar sörfü (Erikli, Gülçavuş plajları çevresinde), dalış turizmi (daha çok Sazlıdere -Üç Adalar, Gökçetepe, Mecidiye -İbrice, Erikli, Danişment'te) yapılmaktadır.

Saros Körfezinde 144 çeşit balık, 170 çeşit sualtı canlısı toplam 378 deniz canlısı vardır. Saros Körfezi otoepürasyon denilen dünyanın kendi kendini temizleyebilen iki körfezinden biridir (Anonim 2016e).

5. Sonuç ve Tartışma

Bölgenin sınır kapılarına ve İstanbul, Tekirdağ gibi büyük illere yakın olması turizm potansiyeli açısından önemlidir. Bu potansiyel sürdürülebilir turizm ve kırsal turizm paralelinde değerlendirilmelidir.

Saroz Körfezi 22 Aralık 2010'da özel çevre koruma bölgesi ilan edilmiştir (Anonim, 2016f). Erikli plajı 2014 ve 2015 yıllarında Mavi Bayraklı Plaj almaya hak kazanmıştır (Anonim, 2016g). Bu kazanımlar turizm açısından çok önemlidir. Bölgedeki eksiklikler, problemler belirlenmelidir. Bölgenin zayıf yönleri fırsata dönüştürülmelidir.

- Ulaşım (yolların bozuk olması, seferlerin az olması, ulaşım kanallarının az olması),
- Yollarda uyarı levhaları ve bilgilendirme eksiklikleri,
- Kiralanan ikincil konutların pahalı olması ve az olması, ihtiyacı karşılayamaması, gerekli denetimlerin yapılmaması,
- Konaklama, yeme- içme işletmelerinin eksikliği
- Turizmde istihdam sorunu,
- İçme suyunun az olması, temiz olmaması ve su kesintileri,
- İnşaat sayısının fazlalığı, görüntü ve ses kirliliği,
- Eğlence imkanlarının eksikliği,
- Satılan yerel gıda ürünlerinde denetim yok,
- Çöp, atık sistemi eksik, kirli suların denize verilmesi, deniz kirliliği,
- Alışveriş yapacak yeterli yerin olmayışı,
- Altyapı eksiklikleri (su, kanalizasyon, internet),
- Çevre temizliği ve plaj düzeni konularında eksiklikler,
- Çarpık yapılaşma,
- Tatil sezonunun belirli aylara sıkışması sonucunda nüfusun artması, aşırı kalabalığın getirdiği altyapı ve üst yapı sorunları,
- Sahillerde aşırı çöp atımı, çevre kirliliği, duş-wc-şezlong-şemsiye eksikliği,
- Reklam ve tanıtım eksikliği,
- Çevre temizliği konusunda bilinçsizlik, deniz ve sahil temizliği konusunda duyarsızlık,
- Sinek gibi haşerelerin verdiği rahatsızlık,
- Kamp alanları ve imkanlarının azlığı,
- Kalabalığın artmasıyla kırsal yaşamının bozulması, ormanların tahrip edilmesi,
- Yeterli güvenliğin sağlanamaması,
- Araçlar için park yeri bulunamaması, Araç yakıt istasyonlarının azlığı,
- Yayla köyü sahiline yapılan balıkçı barınağıyla birlikte sahilin bozulması, kumsalın kalitesinin bozulması,
- İbrice limanı çevresindeki taş ocaklarının çevreyi tahrip etmesi.

Öneriler

- Merkez ilçelerde daha sık sefer (minibüs, otobüs) düzenlenmesi,
- Köy-sahil yollarının yapılması, kötü yolların düzeltilmesi, trafik işaretlerinin, uyarı levhalarının asılması,

- Turistik tesisler arttırılmalı, yatırımlar çoğaltılmalı,
- Kiralanan yazlık (ikincil konut) fiyatlarının belediyeler kanalıyla sabitlenmesi, haksız kazancın ortadan kaldırılması, gerekli denetimlerin yapılması,
- Üst yapının, ikincil konutların belirli bir düzen ve sistem içerisine oturtulması (planlama yapılması),
- Eğlence, rekreasyon, festival gibi aktivitelerin arttırılması,
- Satılan yerel gıda ürünleri temizlik ve fiyat konularında denetim altına alınmalı,
- Belediyenin halk pazarı açması, alış veriş, hediyelik eşya işletmelerinin arttırılması, yerel gıda ürünleri satılan standların ve pazarların açılması ve bununla ilgili düzenlemelerin yapılması
- Atık toplama sistemindeki problemlerin çözülmesi (kirli suyun denize dökülmesinin önüne geçilmesi-atık su sisteminin oluşturulması),
- Su ihtiyacının karşılanması, yerleşim yerlerinde su depo alanlarının oluşturulması,
- Çevre ve plaj düzeninin sağlanması (sahil temizliği, tuvalet, duş ve soyunma kabinlerinin sağlanması),
- Bölgede belirli noktalara olan yoğunluğun geniş alana yayılması,
- Gününbirlikçiler için İhtiyaçlarını karşılayacak imkanların arttırılması,
- Piknik alanları ve yeşil alanlar arttırılmalı,
- Bisiklet ve diğer motorlu araç kiralama imkanının sunulması,
- Yerel halkın, ziyaretçilerin ve işletmelerin turizm ve çevre temizliği konularında eğitilmeli ve bilinçlendirilmeli,
- Bölgeyle ilgili reklam ve tanıtımların arttırılması,
- Haşere ilaçlama ve temizleme konusunda eksikliklerin giderilmesi,
- Belediyenin kamp alanları düzenlemesi,
- Betonlaşmanın önlenmesi, kırsal hayatın ve doğanın bozulmasının önlenmesi ile ilgili faaliyetler yapılmalı, yeşil alan tahribatının engellenmesi,
- Bölge halkı bu sorunların çözümüne duyarlı olmalı ve yerel yönetimlerle işbirliği içinde olmalı,
- Bölgede huzurlu yaşam için güvenliğin arttırılması,
- Tarihi yapıların restorasyonunun yapılması,
- Araç park yerlerinin düzenlenmesi,
- Yürüyüş ve bisiklet gezisi için uygun yollarının yapılması,
- Deniz dibi ve sahil çevre temizliğinin yapılması,
- İbrice'deki taş ocaklarının tamamen kaldırılması,
- Doğada yapılan özel ilgi turlarının arttırılması,
- Tarım turizmi, deniz ve doğada yapılan alternatif turizm türlerinin arttırılmasıyla bölgenin daha çekici hale getirilmesi,
- Alış veriş imkanlarının arttırılması ve daha ucuz hale getirilmesi.

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Opportunities for cultural exchange between the countries of Southeastern Europe (following the example of Bulgaria and Turkey)

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Abstract: The complete exposure, classification and protection of the Thracian heritage have emerged as contemporary issues to be addressed by the academic community. The practice of cultural tourism faces the problems of the usage of Thracian culture phenomenon. The paper aims to disseminate the results of author's previous studies regarding creation of an independent cultural corridor "Thracian heritage" in the territories of Bulgaria and Turkey. The study analyzed two Thracian regions in Southeastern Europe where 10 objects are located in Bulgaria and 7 - at the territory of Turkey. For detailed elaboration of the purpose of the paper the methodology for assessing the resources is used, developed by the author. Determinant value is an index of use of anthropogenic resources. Its parameters allow determining the use of objects of mass tourism or alternative tourism practice. An essential aspect of the work is the rediscovery of the functional significance of the symbolism of the emblematic objects and phenomena of Thracian culture in affirming them as a fundamental dominant in the cultural space of Europe.

Key words: cultural corridor, tourism, index of use of anthropocentric resources

Introduction

The temples, the cult and holy places are landmarks of pilgrimage in the world. They perceive and connect with opportunities to experience the mythical and religious feelings, achievement of spiritual revelation and even search for answers to intellectual challenges. Motivational grounds for the first pilgrimages are documented in Ancient Egypt. It is noted in a papyrus of organized visits in a temple, build by King Menes in 3110 BC. (Hristov, 2010). The launch continues and become a tradition on the territory of South-Eastern Europe after 2000 BC. The megalithic complexes, temples and localized Orpheus places, created from sanctuaries, are the leading benchmarks for traveling in the Thracian territories of the Balkans. A significant part of anthropogenic sites in the subsequent centuries are preserved to this day in Bulgaria, Turkish Thrace and North-Eastern Greece. With the continuation of excavations and the discovery of new sites, essential questions arise about the preservation and contemporary integration into Thracian spirituality. The required contemporary reflection directly corresponds with the problems to uncover opportunities for socialization and practical use of cultural and historical sites. Finding possible solutions is an immediately continuation of the modern trend - the inclusion of preserved heritage in the tourism practice.

Every second tourist visits cultural and historical landmarks in the developed tourist destinations of Europe. Based on them, various tourist practices are formed. For their effective use, in the last years anthropogenic resources are elaborated in the border regions of the countries. On basis of this, in 2002 on the territory of the European Union were formed 12 individual cultural corridors to be used by the tourist practice (EU, 2002). But in none of them were included sites from the Thracian heritage, although the spiritual horizon of the Thracians is consistently infiltrated into European culture. That confirms the need of critical analysis of landmark Thracian sites. Pointing the key nodes in the Thracian territories of Bulgaria and Turkey will be essential references to conceptualize an independent cultural corridor.

The formation of the Thracian cultural corridor and its imposition in the practice of tourism is directly dependent on two main groups of factors. The first is spatially identifying major sites in Thrace regions of Bulgaria and Turkey. This requires analysis of the problems of accessibility and accommodation facilities for tourists. The second group of factors is directly related to the implemented policies for conservation measures and promotion of the Thracian heritage in Bulgaria and Turkey.

The development of new tourist destinations and routes is just a continuation of the current recommendations of the World Tourism Organization. According to the organization it is necessary to develop tourist packages to keep tourists at least four days in the regions. This will give an answer and support to overcome the current financial and economic crisis in both countries. The inclusion of new

sites in the tourist routes, according to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) is possible because the means for detecting a workplace are least in the tourism. The industry is able to provide additional income of the active population or employment of 8 -10% of the unemployed. In support and a policy of the World Organization are the programs for regional development of the EU.

The main purpose of this article is a critical analysis of the possibilities of cultural and historical sites in the Thracian territories of Bulgaria and Turkey to create an independent cultural corridor, which is an alternative to the modern tourist practice. Its clarification determines the specific objectives to be:

- Identification and display the landmark sites in both countries, functioning as supporting structural units of the route;
- Defining the functional significance of the symbolism of anthropogenic resources and phenomena of Thracian culture in affirming them as the fundamental dominant in the cultural space of Europe.

The importance of the article is directly related to updating, promotion and practical use of the heritage of the Thracians in South-Eastern Europe. The analysis of the preserved sites in Thrace regions of Bulgaria and Turkey is a prerequisite for intensified development of tourism in both countries. The development of the sites in their border areas will help the tourist organizations for intermodal use of cultural and historical heritage. By finding the solutions for the practice of tourism will indirectly be established the concept of a unified Europe - "unity through diversity". Focusing in modern times towards the Thracian heritage is kind of rethinking the grounds structuring modern European culture.

Literature review

Earliest researches on preserved Thracian sites from the late nineteenth century are Shkorpil (1890) and Slaveykov (1891).

In their publications, authors have made first attempts to define specific functions, characteristics and sanctuaries spatial location, megalithic complexes and numerous loose mounds. In the early twentieth century systematic studies of Thracians cultural heritage began. At that time, an active organizer and researcher is prof. I. Venedikov. Under his leadership, more than 150 studies on various sites, mostly in the mountainous areas of the Eastern Rhodopes are conducted. Based on this, he published "The Secret of Thracian hills", which is the only monograph on Thracian chariot (Venedikov, 1960).

Fundamental importance its researches about time of creation and specifics of symbolism of excavated artifacts have Venedikov and Gerasimov (1973).

Over the last century the interest in Thracian heritage raised and are fully recorded in studies, published by prof. Aleksander Fol (Fol, 1973). He examined various objects in Bulgaria, as well as aspects of Thracian customs and culture. In his article "Studies on the Greek Sources for Ancient Thrace" (Fol, 1973-74) comprehensively defined the meaning of Thracians. Prof. Fol contributed to the clarification of questions about the formation and characteristics of Thracian culture.

At the same time issues related to Thracian mythology are analyzed by many authors. Contributions to desacralization of symbolic meanings and in-depth analysis of artifacts are made by prof. Iv. Marazov (Iv. Marazov, 1992). Critical analysis of the Thracian heritage in modern times is continued by many authors (Boteva-Boyanova, 2000; Fol, 2008). Moreover accidental discoveries in the last century and studies of archaeologists have helped to shape the overall picture of the cultural heritage of the Thracians (Kitov, 2002).

Based on the research and publications of the researcher in Bulgaria today were established approximately 10,000 Thracian mounds. Some of them are fully researched, as these, located near village of Starosel, Plovdiv; village of Mezek, Svilengrad; village of Sveshtari, Isperih; Mogilanska mogila near Vratsa; Kazanlak tomb and etc. 600 stone suns have been identified, situated mostly in Sakar Mountain. Many megalithic complexes, remaking the structure of the human body, have been investigated near Asenovgrad, Primorsko and etc. The sanctuary of Orpheus near village of Tatul, district

of Kardzhali is localized (Hristov, 2012). Tourists interest is raising after discovering several treasures in Panagyurishte, Rogozen, Borovo, Lukovit and Letnitsa.

Studies on the territory of Turkish Thrace intensified in recent decades. In the 80s of the last century a study of 25 megalithic complexes was organized by the Department of Ancient history at the Istanbul University. But study results, with the exception of the complex Kirikkoy, are not published in detail (Erdogu, 2003).

In his book "Megalithic monuments in Turkish Thrace" (2005) R. Erdogu summarized the objects in Turkish Thrace. He detailed analyzes megalithic complexes near the settlements (1) Yagcili, located about 40 kilometers northeast of the town. Edirne; (2) Keremettin, located 60 kilometers northeast of the town. Edirne; (3) Lalapasa, 25 km north of Edirne; (4) Kizlar Kayasi, not far from the village Kofçaz; (5) Vaysal, close to the border of Bulgaria and etc.

Contribution to the study of Thracian sites in Turkish Thrace have other Turkish writers (Akman, 1998; Kansu, 1963) and English-speaking scholars (Chapman, 2000).

In light of the scientific literature the fundamental thesis has been outlined - Thracian objects and phenomena of culture have the potential to attract visitors nowadays. Their quantity and diversity at a territory are prerequisites and opportunity for organized cultural tourism. In this connection and a project between the Bulgarian city of Yambol and the Turkish city of Edirne was implemented in 2010. The leading objective of the project was to intensify the integrated development of cultural tourism in both countries, including some of the Thracian objects. The continuation of cross-border cooperation in modern times requires expansion of the spatial area with practical development of independent cultural corridor on the basis of the Thracian heritage.

Methodology

Description of the Study Area

Bulgaria and Turkey strive to conquer new positions for their tourism markets. In the program for cultural tourism in Bulgaria (Bulgarian Cultural Tourism Development Plan, 2007) the focus is put on the possibility to increase the share of the cultural tourism. In this regard, the inclusion of anthropogenic objects of the Thracians will overcome its 4% barrier. At the same time, the Strategy for Tourism of Turkey ("Tourism Strategy of Turkey - 2023", 2007) the development of new cultural products is highlighted for the period until 2023. As a result of the implemented measures, there is an increase of tourist arrivals in recent years in the country. Istanbul consolidates its position among the 10 most visited city in the world.

Thracian territories of Bulgaria and Turkey occupy a central place on the road from the western and central parts of the continent to Asia Minor and the Middle East. The preserved Thracian objects are a potential basis for the formation of a new cultural product. The spatial analysis of landmark sites in Bulgaria allows Kazanlak, Plovdiv, Kardzhali and objects from the Strandzha region to become supporting areas. In Turkish Thrace priority are considered megalithic complexes near Edirne, Kofçaz and Tekirdag. Putting them as pillars of the itinerary is directly related to transport accessibility of sites across the two countries.

An essential part of the study is revealing the characteristics of cultural and historical sites, the time of their establishment and functions that are performed logically related to contemporary cultural product with the practice of orphism - spiritual purification, enrichment, expansion of knowledge. This, in turn, directly corresponds with the modern needs of tourists - overcoming daily tensions, stress and even aggressive and demonized relations between people.

Sample

European Union policies for the inclusion of cultural and historical heritage through the establishment of cultural corridors are a prerequisite for the realization of the study. In this regard, a model to follow in this study is the functioning cultural corridor between France and Germany: Historical and Legendary Figures of Europe, The Schickhardt Route (XVI-XVII century.). It includes castles, cathedrals and hydraulic structures designed and built by H. Schickhardt. A similar is the cultural corridor "Day of Hansa." It includes 170 villages, from all the countries near the Baltic Sea (Hristov, 2013). Direct continuation of the policies of the European Union is the development of the region Tyrol, in the border area between Italy and Austria. Cross-border project covers also the district of Silesia, located in Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

Instrument

For detailed development of the purpose of the study, the methodology for assessing the resources is used (Hristov, 2011). Determinant value is an index of use of cultural resources. Its parameters allow determining the use of sites of mass tourism or alternative practice.

The index of the use of anthropogenic resources in tourism practice (Hristov, 2011) is defined by the following formula:

$$I_i = \sum_{j=1}^3 P_j - P_4 - K \times P_5$$

където $\sum_{j=1}^3$ е сумата от $P_1 + P_2 + P_3$

The values of the first indicator / P_1 / functionally dependent of the type of site. For religious site the value is 0.4, and the rest - 0.6. These values are theoretical calculations of data about tourists' visits, imposed social models for travel in modern times and data, received by the religious organizations.

The second indicator / P_2 / has values that are dependent on the characteristics of resource. In the presence of unique symbolic forms the value is 0.7 and 0.3 respectively in the absence of such forms. The theoretical determination of these values is needed when considering the impact of advertising and promotion of an object through information means.

The values of the third indicator / P_3 / depends on long-established patterns of visiting sites of tourists - active and passive knowledge. For this reason, advocates three-stage differentiation of knowledge - preliminary information, direct knowledge and subjective assessment. From surveys conducted in the southern European type of culture theoretical value for the active attitude of tourists to explore the site is 0.2 and 0.8 for passive knowledge.

The fourth indicator / P_4 / is determined by the time of use of anthropogenic object. Limitations imposed by climate technique in some objects are not reported, but it is reported its use per month during the year. Moreover, the values of the indicator are from 0.01 to 0.12.

For the full determination of the Index of use the objects of cultural heritage the values fifth indicator / P_5 / is used. For ease of operation, and often a lack of information about equipment and infrastructure can be used by a constituent - transport accessibility. For simplicity and often because of a lack of information about accommodation facilities and infrastructure a constituent can be used – eg. Transport accessibility. Values in accessibility to highway is 0.6; a lower category road, including trails - 0.4. The coefficient K is determined by the presence or absence of accommodation facilities. Its value is 0.3 when within a radius of 10 square kilometers has 100 beds in accommodation facilities and 1 when the number of beds is more than 100 in the same territory.

The final theoretical values of the index for the use of cultural resources are from 0.66 to 1.38. Theoretical values for alternative tourism are from 0.66 to 0.80 and for the massive tourism - 0.81 to 1.38.

Thracian sites located near larger settlements have index values of their use from 0.90 to 1.10. This determines their practical involvement in mass tourism practice. At the same time sites such as sanctuary near village of Tatul or megaliths near Lalapasa, Adrianople have low values below 0.80 for their index of use. This predetermining their use for alternative tourism practice. But the opportunity to include them in the cultural corridor "Thracian Heritage" will enable their permanent presence on the tourist map.

Results and Discussion

The diversity and high level of knowledge on the Thracian sites in Bulgaria predetermine the conceptualization of cultural corridor is on its territory. Its beginning starts from the Valley of the Kings. It is located around the city of Kazanlak in South Central part of Bulgaria. In its areal It is formed Thracian town Sevtopolis and reserved approximately 1000 bulk tombs (mounds).

Object № 1 - Kazanlak Tomb. It is part of a larger necropolis, located near the capital city of Odrysian kingdom Sevtopolis. Kazanlak Tomb was created in the late IV century - early III century BC. 1979 is included in the list of protected cultural heritage sites by UNESCO.

Object № 2 – Archaeological Park, near the village Starosel Plovdiv. This is one of the largest religious complexes reserved by the Thracians. It consists of six temples. One of them is the temple "Horizon", which is one of the few objects of Thracian monumental architecture. It was covered with earth (ground, dust), which is direct evidence of (indirect proof of) the Thracian beliefs in the afterlife and their understanding that the desire for living should be placed alongside them at funerals. Both output objects were restored and adapted by tourist practice now a day.

Object № 3 - Cromlech in Staro Zelezare village. It was discovered during archaeological excavations(diggings) in 2002. Archaeologist leading the excavations defines it as a Thracian Astronomical Observatory. Stone monuments are two meters height. Their total number is 24 and sitting in a circle with a diameter of 7 meters. In recent months steps have been taken to strengthen the site and therefore for its socialization.

By conceptualizing and especially with the practical use of cultural corridor will accelerate and exhibition of Thracian city Sevtopolis (created a project), which is now under the waters of the dam of "Koprinka".

Object № 4 - Cave "Womb" near Nenkovo village, Kardzhali. It is part of the Thracian objects that gets prominence only in 2002. Its extra styling is a direct expression of beliefs and veneration of the sun by the Thracians. Its natural base is processed so that the sun's rays is to penetrate to the altar in the cave during the days of spring and autumn equinox. A similar phenomenon can be observed also in the Thracian mound near Starosel village of Plovdiv.

Object № 5 - Thracian city Perperikon, located near the town of Kardzhali. It revealed the sanctuary of the Thracian God Zagreus created during the II millennium BC. Conservation work have been carried out on the fortress and royal palace at Perperikon as well as the temple of God - Sun.

Object № 6 - The Sanctuary of Orpheus near Tatul village. The place is located 20 km from Perperikon. Even in ancient times, it perceived as a landmark for one of the practices of Orphism - purification. Thracian singer is perceived as an intermediary for the attainment of truth through knowledge. In this regard, it affected the people in ancient times. Places associated with him were familiar to Pythagoras, Heraclitus, Empedocles, Plato and their followers. For many contemporary artists is "impossible without Orpheus and Orphism to explain our vision of the world." The sanctuary of Orpheus as a unit within the cultural corridor is a fundamental reference point for approach and horizon to rediscover grounds of our contemporary culture and understanding of the world.

Object № 7 - The Bulgarian Stonehenge is near Gaberovo village, Haskovo. Cromlech (cult object formed by verticals stone blocks) is located 40 km north of Perperikon. It was created VIII - VI century BC. It is known for contemporaries since 1998. It is engaged in religious rites to V - I century BC. Vertical set (13)

stone blocks have an average width of 1 m and their height is from 1.20 to 1.50 m. Park architectural concern and two smaller cromlech.

Object № 8 - Thracian megalithic complex "Gluhite kamani" (Deaf Stones). It is situated near Malko Gradiste village , Haskovo district. The archaeological park includes two tombs and over two hundred trapezoidal niches carved into solid rock. On top of the rock complex is reserved water tank as there are other Thracian objects. The complex "Gluhite kamani" (Deaf Stones) was surrounded by a solid wall, the foundations of which have been preserved until today.

Object № 9 - Sakar Mountain. It is a kind of symbol of the Thracian beliefs in God – Sun. The stone suns are carved on the mountain slopes in his honor. There are 150 of them between the town of Topolovgrad and Hliabovo village. Near the fortress Paleocastro, Topolovgrad discs are with a diameter of 20 to 90 cm. The "Head of Sun" was found at this place and is now housed in the Yambol Regional History Museum. It was oriented to the east and on the place itself, scientists say it is the oldest religious center in the land of the Thracians.

Object № 10 - Strandzha Mountain. Thracian sites in Strandzha reveal interesting sides of life and beliefs of the Thracians and foundations are among the tangible evidence of real Thracian Orphism. In the Bulgarian part of Strandzha reserved fire-dancing features of Orphic rites, which over the centuries have infiltrated a Christian rituals.

On the territory of the Bulgarian Strandzha Mountain landmark Thracian objects are stored in Mishkova field and Vodica, near Malko Tarnovo and Tumba, south of Zvezdets. Most of them have remained untouched until II - III Ff. Hr. Discovered near the villages Zabernovo and Evrenozovo dolmen complexes functioned as "cities of the dead" during the Hellenistic and Roman eras.

For Thracians, Strandzha mountain is sacred, mystical territory where people (person) communicate with the Gods. In Turkey, the mountain today is called Yildiz – Starry(Stellar) Mountain. Bulgarian and Turkish territory on the mountain have been preserved among the first burial and ritual megalithic structures known as Strandzha dolmens. Stone tombs from the Thracian times can be seen everywhere in the mountains. They are constructed of whole stone plates (3 - 3.5 m). Dolmens in Strandzha mountain are created in the period XII - VII century BC. After this period the Thracians cease to build dolmens but the tombs of their subsequent centuries retain the basic principles of megalithic architecture.

Turkish Thrace, south of Strandzha mountain to the Marmara Sea and the east of the river Maritsa to the Black Sea has preserved objects primarily from anthropogenic I millennium BC. Settlements, dolmens, cromlechs, tombs and shrines of Odrysian royal dynasty were created at that time.

Object № 11 - Kofçaz village . A significant landmark of the objects of the Thracians in Turkey are dolmens, ritual sites, tombs and stone fortress near Kofçaz (Kofcas). They are created in the period from XIII to VIII century BC. dolmens near the village Kapakayya today are stored in complete form.

Object № 12 - The area of the settlement of Turbe. Near the border with Bulgaria, near the village Hasidanisment (Hacidanisment) was discovered Thracian complex Turbe (Turbe). In his area revealed 269 megalithic monument and near the village of Kircheshme (Kircesme) they are about 360.

Object № 13 - Kirikkyoy (Kirikkoy). Located 20 km northwest of Lyuleburgas. The megalithic complex is formed by 130 megaliths, and some of them have a height of 2.60 m. In the upper part of the rocks in relief presents the V symbol.

Object № 14 - Lalapasa settlement. It is located north of the city Edirne. This is the largest Thracian complex in the area. On the slopes of Mount Baba reserved about 2,000 megalithic monument. This defines the territory, the second largest open air museum in the world after Karnakas in Egypt. Most of them are in Berberoglu Ayazmashi (Berberoglu Ayazmasi) - 590. The complex was created in the period from VIII to I century BC. According to the Turkish scientist R. Erdogu it's Thracian Stonehenge. The author defines it as a center in "spiritual path" of modern visitors (R. Erdogu, 2003).

Object № 15 - Enos village, south of Edirne field. In the studies of Thracian heritage in the 80s of the last century it is fully explored Thracian royal tomb near Enos. Thracian fortress Doriskos also has been investigated, which is a Turkish-Greek border. Fortress has possessed by the Thracians from V c. BC.

Object № 16 - Heraion Teyhios near Tekirdaag. The main object of cultural corridor is fortress settlement - residence Heraion Teyhios. It is the possession of the fourth century BC., On Odrysian ruler Teres. Preserved Thracian mound is included in the local routes of Turkish Thrace. At the beginning of the fourth century BC are starting to issue coins in the settlement.

Object № 17 – The city of Tekirdaag. The banks of Marmara Sea are the endpoint of cultural corridor. At the site(place) of the present town of Tekirdag was located an ancient village with Thracian name Byzanti. It is one of the centers of Odrysian kingdom. The published results of excavations of the Turkish archaeologists show that at this place existed Thracian royal residence. In the west of the ancient city Byzanti are partly preserved six residences. At the museum of the town Tekirdaag reconstruction has been made of the Thracian tomb. Essential objective for the region is Mount Hieron Oros - Holy Mountain of Thracians.

Conclusions and implications

Consistent presentation of Thracian sites in Bulgaria and Turkey is the basis for validation of the supporting units of the itinerary. It includes objects that are created from the second millennium, to the VI century. This in turn allows to include objects that expand and define meaningful cultural tourism product.

The significance of the analyzed Thracian objects, designed in modern European culture, is the foundation for conceptualizing autonomy of cultural corridor "Thracian heritage". Its structural units of the territory of Bulgaria are: town of Kazanlak; village of Starosel, Plovdiv region; Perperikon and the Sanctuary of Orpheus near village of Tatul, both in Kardzhali district; Cromlechs near village of Dolni Glavanak and Glihite kanami (deaf stones) near village of Malko Gradishte, Haskovo district; town of Topolovgrad, Yambol district and the town of Malko Tarnovo, Burgas region. The route continues on the territory of Turkish Thrace as follows: town of Kofçaz, village of Turban and village of Kirikkoy, part of Lyuleburgas area; village of Lalapasa and village of Enos, part of Edirne region; town of Tekirdag, Marmara Sea - the end point of the itinerary.

The future development of this corridor allows more Thracian sites to be added, including North Bulgaria and the Black Sea coast of Turkish Thrace.

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Evaluation of Tekirdag Province Tourism Potential With Swot Analysis

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Abstract: Tourism comprises the fundamental sections of development strategies in Turkey concerning both marketing and introduction activities as well as economy, likewise in many deal of countries. Tourism is an economical issue on matters of destinations and managements, it enables the balance within natural, social and cultural values in terms of local and foreign tourists participating in touristic activities and make up a higher sense of recognition and understanding for societies and individuals.

Although, Turkey, possesses the potentiality of various crucial values, both from the scope of location, image and touristic attractions, touristic activities are densely carried out on the trinity of sea, sand and sun. This case causes the depreciation of natural, archeological and cultural values.

This study is examined the point of existing resources to evaluate the natural, cultural and archaeological richness of province Tekirdag. Swot Analysis was made on the comprehensiveness of qualitative and literature technique by using secondary data's.

Key words: Tourism, Tekirdag, Swot Analysis

1. Introduction

Today, millions of people travel from their dwellings for a temporarily period of time to other destinations. Throughout their trips or journeys, they benefit from boarding, refreshments (food & drink) and entertainment places of the establishments. Although travelling is regarded as a new nation peculiar to 20th century, the movement of displacement is as ancient as human history (Kozak et. al., 2015). Throughout centuries, people have travelled for different purposes and reasons from their settlings to other geographical destinations. The notions of travelling and tourism have changed along with progressing technology. The main factors of tourism such as nature, history, culture and art possess indispensable quality. Natural, historical and cultural values surpass the qualities of tourism establishments (Kozak, 2014).

Tourism is the set of activities engaged in by persons temporarily away from their usual environment, for a period of not more than one year, and for a broad range of leisure, business, religious, health, and personal reasons, excluding the pursuit of remuneration from within the place visited or long-term change of residence. Tourism has bloomed as a major economic element of the world market and has become one of the largest industries in the world, since World War II. There are different categories and varieties of tourism occurs recognized by EU-Committee of the Regions, Such as coastal tourism, urban tourism, island tourism, rural tourism and mountain tourism (Norhasimah, et. al., 2014).

Tourism activities have densely progressed on the comprehensiveness of coast tourism during recent past fifteen-twenty years. As a result of high demand to coast tourism, overuse of tourism resources in touristic regions have caused damages and destructions (Zengin et. al., 2014).

For the reason, international tourism arrangements concerning international tourism activities have got an inclination to respond individual's wishes and needs rather than the activities for mass cluster of tourists. Formerly, tourism was described as with 3S (Sea, Sun and Sand), but this description has changed to 3E (Education, Environment and Entertainment). For this reason, dependent or independent tourist data should be evaluated efficiently in order to keep pace with the ever changing tourism demands (Yeşiltaş et. al., 2009).

The main purpose of this research is, to point out weak and strong aspects regarding Tekirdag's tourism potential, to evaluate the threats and opportunities via SWOT Analysis and suggest ideas for

contemplating studies about the progression of the city via tourism supported. There have been observed numerous studies concerning the tourism potential of Thrace Region but very scarce researches. From this point of view, a contemplating research is crucial and is needed to be realized.

2. The Notion of Tourism and Description

Related to its roots, tourism notion is dated back to ancient times. In accordance to Latin Language, “turn around” is diverted from the word “tornus” meaning “come back”. In order to explain tourism notion, we should put emphasis on the act of movement and returning. In the range of tourism activities, it is imminent that a kind of travelling is not transformed to a permanent stay, but regarded as a transient staying, aiming come and go to fro traveler’s dwellings. In today’s, tourism and tourists’ notions was first used in the first half of the 19th century and is contributed to scientific knowledge (Usta, 2012).

Besides, tourism is a free time activity, any activities that are done in leisure times such as listening to music, running for a sport or training are not within the scope of tourism. Moreover, the aim of whole travelers may not be entertainment or resting. The relations between these notions are shown in the figure (Roney, 2011).

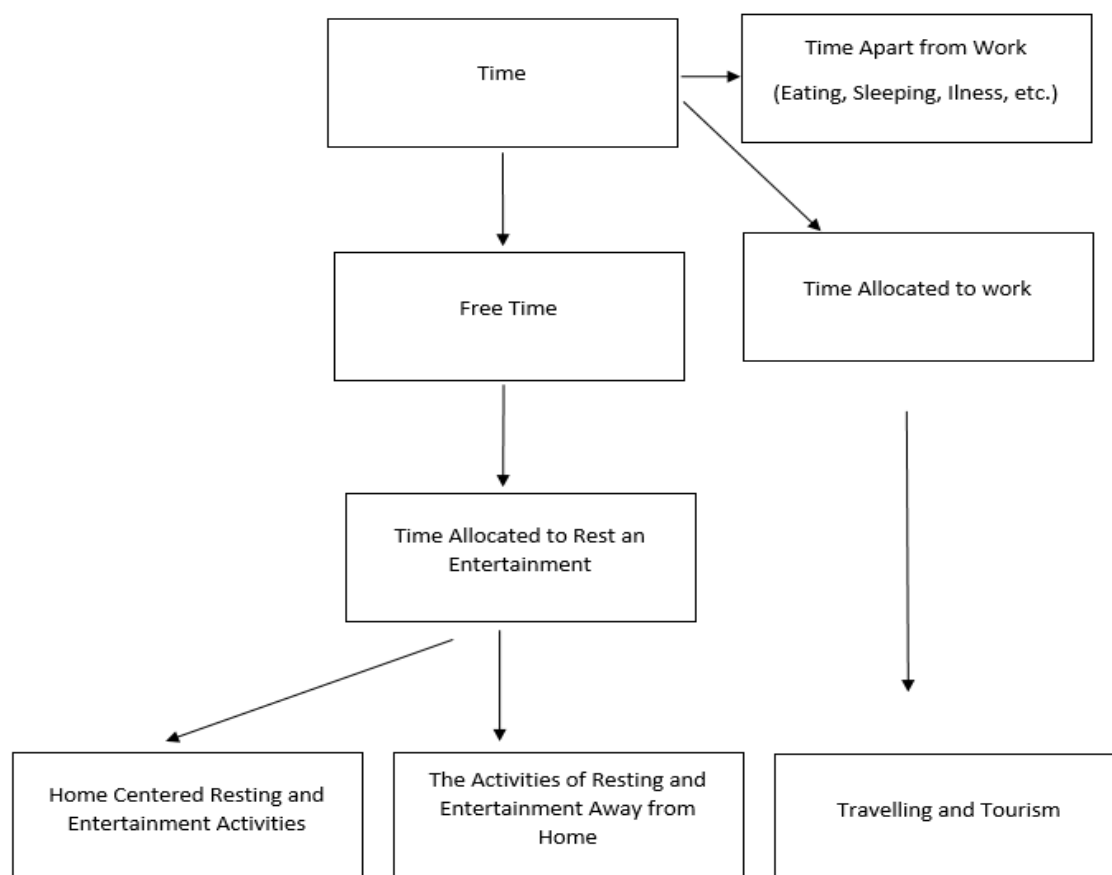


Figure 1. Tourism and Free Time

First definition of tourism was put forward by Guyer-Feuler in 1905. According to this description, “Tourism is a new notion peculiar to modern era, ergo to the increase in need for taking fresh air and

resting; the wish to testify the flourishing flowers, get in touch with the beautifulness breaded by nature and art; especially developments in trade and industry besides improvements a transportation facility lessons the distances and enables nations to get closer to each other” (Kozak et. al., 2015).

Hunkizer and Kraph identified tourism on an account of displacement as in “Not to turn out to a permanent stay and not to deal with gaining revenue; tourism is the inter-relations emerged due to man’s short-term stay (Kozak et. al., 2015).

According to Australian economist Sohuller, “Tourism is the accumulation of entire touristic activities concerning economic aspects that are consequences of travelling foreigners from different cities or regions for a short-term stay (Ceken, 2014).

Why tourism has not got a sole definition is due to the reason that the notion of tourism has got numerous interrelations with many disciplinarians as well as sectors. The continuation of tourism notions belonging to the different disciplinarians and sectors researches’ studies done for their individual subjects, have caused not unique definition of tourism. Economics regard tourism as industry or sector; whereas marketers regard it as a marketing-place; on the other hand, environment scientists’ point out the overall effects of tourism upon environment (Kozak et. al., 2015).

3. The Tourism Potential of Province, Tekirdag

3.1. The History of Tekirdag

Evliya Çelebi, in his book of “Travelers” mentioned Tekirdag as the world’s a chard garden; in other words, “The Garden of Eden”. According to Roman Greeks, Tekirdag is a location in where the Byzantine Kings possess the vineyards and in every season, the King, Tekfur, departs for a galley trip to get some comfortless and revising; enjoy the performances of the local artists and then returned back to Istanbul (Bayraktar, 2011).

The very ancient name of Tekirdag in history is, Bisanthe. The name of Tekirdag is mentioned as Rhodothus in Roman Era; on the other hand, it is mentioned as Rodosto in Roman-Byzantine Era. On the conquest of Ottoman Empire, the name little Rhodes was given to the province; later it was named as Tekfur Mountain. In the Republic Government, its name was changed as Tekirdag on the 10th November of 1924 (Serez, 2014).

The first history of Tekirdag is known as, the settlement of the tribes emigrated from North Asia and South Russia and that later took the name Tracs in BC. 4000. The tribe branches that emigrated from Phunace brought out the Mine Period along with them, and these tribes ran against with the Greeks, were largely effected by their culture. The region was gone under the possession of Persian Government that was established in Iran, in 546; then it was gone under the governance of Tracks in the period of “The Great Alexander”. With the collapse of Macedonian Kingdom by Romans in 168 BC, the Roman’s got the possession of the region. Perinthos is that the Romans built today Marmara Ereglisi district of the city center, but then the M.S. 322 years have passed in the hands of the Goths. The lands of province remained under the governance of Byzantine in year 962. The Ottoman Sultan the first Murat, surpassed Rumeli in 1362 and he conquered Tekirdag mounted orderly the settlements of The Turk emigrated from Karasi, Sivas, Kayseri and Ermenek (Tekirdag Doğa Turizmi Master Planı, 2013).

After this date, the city developed on the cultural aspects of Ottoman Empire The province was ruled by the governance of Ottoman Empire for a long time until 1828; from 1828 to 1878 it was subject to Russian’s attacks. After the San Stefano Treaty, the province, again was gone under the governance of Ottoman Empire. The Bulgarians invaded the city during the Balkan’s wars in 1913, but their attacks were defeated back by the accomplished raiders of Turks on the command of Esref General. Tekirdag has got its noble title for its establishment by the 19th Regiment that gained brilliant success during the Dardanel’s War and wrote down the greatest ballads of mostly-known history legends (Tekirdag Doğa Turizmi Master Planı, 2013).

3.2. The Geographical Condition of Tekirdag

Tekirdag, located in the borders of Thrace, still holds the possession of being distinctive city due to its location, climate and sea transportation. Since the breaded products are of a high quality, the carriage of the transportation of the goods to Istanbul and accession of the products from other regions accomplished via the harbor. As a consequence, Tekirdag bears the characteristics of agricultural as well as harbor town.

Tekirdag is the neighborhood of Istanbul in the east, adjacent to Edirne in the west and the north side Edirne and Çanakkale (Dardanel). The lands embrace the Marmara Sea, stretching out northwest Camlikoy and districts the grounds extending to black sea plates the area of 6333km. (Serez, 2014).

There have been high altitudes belonging to the Mountains of Istranca some plainness merging around the Middle Field River; south regions mostly consist of small hills and unsmooth territory properties. Ganos Mountain constitutes the highest point of Tekirdag starting from the Marmara Coast reaching to 945 highness. Outside of Ganos Mountain, the foothills of Istranca is meadow. These mountains in the range of northeast and west south direction, lies along 50 km. far away from Kumbag near to Galipholi Peninsula (Bayraktar, 2011).

It is the transaction district between the two seas, Mediterranean and Black Sea. carries different climate characteristics. the Marmara Groove called north-west wind blows in very season the temperature in shadow rise up to thirty-eight Celsius degrees. The coldest mountain is January; its average temperature is thirty -three degree Celsius. The main rivers are the running waters that flow down the mountains and hill to Mine-Field River-basin. The rivers risen up in the summer, retreat in the beginning of fall. Although they haven't got high altitudes, because of the reason for their kindness to the coast makes them appear magnificent. (Bayraktar, 2011).

The region is between the two big seas, the Blacksea and the Mediterranean Sea is in the transaction between two districts. It is called, the Marmara groove The region that, have got a permeable soil is some erosions between Buyukkaristiran and Corlu it gains the characteristics of a low plateau, nearly to all its lands are convenient to agriculture; the soil is first and fourth class of soil. The Province Tekirdag is 120 km. far away from city center and 50km.from town has got charming, decent coast and wide hinterland. Because of its hinterland is 150-200 meters above from sea-level and its possession of a dominant overlooking seaside hilliness caused it to be in a protected situation for the attacks of enemies coming forward sea, that is regarded crucial in ancient times. It has been chosen as a settlement place due to its transportation, for centuries (Bayraktar, 2011).

3.3. Tourism Values of Tekirdag

a) Cultural Heritage Tourism

Cultural and heritage is a very complex terms. It may be viewed as taking on the identity of an interest in the past, an interest in cultures, buildings, artefacts and landscapes of both the past and present (Boyd, 2001).

It is a tourism flow merging standing as a protector of concrete and all abstract values of a society. In short term, cultural heritage defines edifices, relics of edifices, mosques, churches, monasteries functional houses boroughs, humankind, historical places, mythological and deeds aroused from human being working along with nature, historical places, religious and political events that took place other words the whole trace carrying the traces of bygone time relics as wells as ruins. (Kozak et. al., 2015).

According to the American Travel Industry Analysis results, cultural travelers spend more time than general tourist for visiting historical and cultural places and accommodate more nights than the general majority. (Kozak and Bahçe, 2012).

Tekirdag in Ottoman Period, the significant two cities, due to its location on the way to Istanbul-Edirne, it is considerably rich in aspect of cultural heritage as a result of the excursions of the numerous excursions of the Ottoman Sultans.

Rakoczi Museum

It is a characteristic Turkish house carrying the Ottoman Period Architecting qualities in where Hungary prince, the second Ferenz RAKOCZI wells from his arrival to Tekirdag in 1720 till to his death in 1735. It was restored according to the Hungarian Architecture features by the Hungary Government in 1932 and transformed into museum in the book -stand on the entry, when and for what purpose it was restored was written. The oil-painting replicas of the hero who showed great braveness in the Hungary Independence Struggle, certain commodities, wood carvings done by himself are displayed in the museum. (İl Kültür Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2015).

Archelogy and Ethnography Museum (Tekirdag Museum)

It's among the first brick-stone edifices of Republic Period was assigned to the Ministry of Tourism by the provincial governance in 1977; was later restored to its original shape. The compositions exhibited from the prehistoric times till survived in the course of present time have been found out in Tekirdag region are displayed in the museum.

The House of Namık Kemal

It is built in the memory of Namık Kemal and reflects the 19th century Ottoman's Architecture features. The edifice is open to public in order to serve as a museum 1993 and is made up of wooden structure and consists of six chamber. It has got an open-air stage and a space for watching. In its garden there is an exhibition room in the basement. There can be seen ethnographic goods in his master-bedroom, his personal photographs and his proses and compositions are displayed.

Ancient Perinthos Provincial, Water-Course and Basilica

It was established by the communities came from Samos Isle in B.C. in Marmara Ereglisi. The ramparts of the provincial surrounds the city in north way and east-side especially, the north-west of the ramparts were protected up to 6-7 meters. There have been any kinds of tombs and funerary monuments beginning to surround from north west in the shape of demilune. The fortress of the city surrounds the town in two branches, Acropolis on the north side and down-town fortresses, on the west-side. The ancient watercourse is made-up of for meeting the needs of the Perinthos city either in some places especially on the north-west side of Acropolis built above ground or passed over the wall made up of rubble stone and brick according to the topographic structure of the land. There is a tomb inside of the funerary monument. The Basilica was built up in B.C. five. It is fifty-three meters' length and twenty-five meters with and has got five entries. It was used as a tomb after the collapse of the Basilica in the end of the seventh century (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

Hora Lighthouse

Hora Lighthouse, located in Saray's town of Hoskoy was built up by French in the governance of Sultan Abdülmecit, composed of ninety -six crystals. In the construction of the lighthouse that is completely made up of metal is not used metal-welting. Metals are attached by bolts. Formerly, it was runned with gas lamp; but today it is runned with electricity. The lighthouse rotates 360 degrees around its own axis. Full rotation finishes up to twenty seconds and this was flint-knapping four times. During the construction of the lighthouse completely made up of metal-welting is not used. Metals are attached with bolts. Formerly, it is runned with gas lamp; but today it is runned with electricity (Web:1).

Ayaspaşa Bath

The bath placed next to the mosque is decorated plainly in the features of ordinary neighborhood bath. It is the bath of the complex mosque that was built up by Grand Vezier Ayas Mehmet Sultan (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

The Caves of Guneskaya and Gungormez

Palace located north of the town of caves and rock-cut tomb was used as a settlement in prehistoric times. Chalcolithic in the cave, the first Bronze Age, Roman and Byzantine pottery.

b) Faith Tourism

Religion and tourism share a close relationship in which the former motivates travel and is a source of assorted visitor attractions (Henderson, 2011). The tendency of visiting holy places by the convectors of these religions can be described as faith tourism. sacred edifices rituals, religious ceremonies beliefs, religious events all effects touristic movements and of their inclination to faith tourism (Karaman et. al., 2011). The chief faith tourism centers in Tekirdag are stated as in follows.

Rüstem Pascha Mosque and Its Complex

It was built up by Architecture Sinan; owns the name of Rüstem Pascha. The composition with Theological Muslim School, bath covered market is a composition. The mosque placed in a spacious courtyard was constituted of cut-stones Its wooden roof was settled on top of a twenty -second columns is covered with twice domes.

Old Mosque (Zahire Nazırı Ahmet Aga Mosque)

Zahir was built in 1831 by the Minister Ahmet Aga. The minaret was demolished in 1912, was rebuilt during the Republican era. The minaret is stone cutting and one balcony. The two-story narthex of the mosque, there are two windows (Web: 2).

The Middle Mosque

The Middle Mosque is on the way to Government Street after the collapse of the mosque built by Furrier Sinan and it was restored then rebuilt in its old place with the help of charitable folk. Because it is between the Old Mosque and Rustem Pascha Mosque.

Suleymanpasa Mosque

It was built up by Rations Ministry in the year of 1831. It is among the most prominent historical achievements in Corlu constructed in 1521. First communion place is covered up with three domes and the main space is covered up in one dome. The first time of its construction, it had got twenty-two chambers; in other words, it was mentioned as the logical Muslim School.

New Mosque (Synagogue)

A two-story brick structure in Corlu. Until the mid-20th century, the building was used as a synagogue was converted into a mosque in 1970. pediments rising gradually gives way in the north and south sides of the building a monumental identity (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

Güzelce Hasanbey Mosque

According to the records found in Hayrabolu. the magnificent mosque is mentioned as Hasanbey Mosque. It was built-up by the son-in-law-of Sultan 2nd Bayezid the construction of the edifice began in1486; it was open to worshipin1499 (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

Wounded Veterian Ömer Mosque

It was constructed by the commanders of Sovereign Conqueror Fatih Sultan Mehmet, Turhal Bey between1493-1494It was designed in the shape of rectangular similar to cut-stone; surface of which was supported by the dome of four tromp. (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

Wounded Süleymanpasa Mosque

The edifice located in Malkara was first built up as a church in Byzantine Period; then turned out to mosque in the sovereign of Yıldırım Bayezid. Its initial structure was done by the technique of one sequence stone and three sequence brick, where as in the Abdülhamit Period, stones and bricks were used together Its northern face was covered with granite stone. (Tekirdağ Kültür Envanteri, 2014).

Ayaspasha Mosque

The palace was built in 1539 by Grand Vizier Ayas Pasha. There were gravestones in the courtyard belonging to the Crimea Giray Sovereign.

Hacerzade İbrahim Mosque

Hacerza mosque was built in 1406 by İbrahim Bey. Structure entirely from cut stone, built in single-domed mosque plan. It has been renovated according to the original in 1959. (Tekirdag Turizm Haritası, 2015)

Wounded War Dad's Shrine

It is located in the village of Karacahalil. Due to the tales surrounding among folk, a saint was fallen martyr while he was battling in the Apple Fortress, he fled spreading lights on his horse up upon to a hill near to Karacahalil Village. Then it was called wounded Dad's Shrine. Local people regarded this place and send their wishes to God visited the Saint (Web:3).

Sarbani Ahmet's Shrine

It is the shrine of The Camel Arm's Commander, the subordinate officer of the Magnificent Süleyman's Army and eminent poets of his era.

The Church

The church located in Malkara is a Bulgarian Church that was made in 19th century The rubbles were used in the wall; whereas straight cut stone was used in the edges. The edifice was constructed on eight pillars.

St. İonnis Thelogos Monestry

It is among the sole relics remaining today which is located on a sea overlooking view far away Sarkoy's borough Hoşkøy. the construction of the monastery was done by pastor Kalafakis was completed in 1865. The monastery finished in 1865 was constructed on the relics byzantine monastery (Web:4).

c) Tourism Dependent on Nature

Tourism, besides meeting the needs of the rest of the most basic needs of modern man, people's specific interests, there has been social and a means of transport to satisfy the requirements arising from the natural needs and people to address these needs in different places and they want to renew themselves. In particular, lost in the crowd were members of a modern and advanced society, more free and more independently in nature and its desire to renew themselves turning to perform the request, activities that can be performed based on nature makes it attractive. Nature-based tourism in general, eco-tourism, sustainable tourism, green tourism, it can be used synonymously with terms such as alternative tourism and responsible tourism (Kozak and Bahçe, 2012). Nature-based tourism is frequently used synonymously with terms such as eco, sustainable, green, alternative and responsible tourism (Priskin, 2001). Tekirdag kinds of nature-based tourism in the provinces and districts are listed below.

Sailing and Windsurfing

Tekirdag is an area where sailing is popular and is a maritime city that trains sportsman's in this field. Tekirdag sailing specialization with its facilities and organization of activities trains new sportsman's in Tekirdag.

Tekirdag's borough, Sarkoy is a very convenient place due to its blowing winds. Wind blowing parallel to the sea makes this region very attractive for surfers. Sarkoy district is one of the most preferred in windsurfing across Turkey (Küçükaltan, 2012).

Paragliding

Uçmakdere Village connected to the borough of Sarkoy in Tekirdag is one of the Thrace's a Turkey's most prominent points of paragliding. Uçmakdere in where all kinds of blueness and greenness unites with its historical and cultural richness remains from Greek-Romans to present time is a place worth to see. The most suitable place in paragliding is 25 km. far away from Tekirdag; in the southwest, in Ganos Mountains its name coming from ancient Uçmakdere in this region connected to the Sarkoy's in the region of borough. In the region of Ayvasil Village (Küçükaltan, 2012). There is a paragliding track of a 600 meters' highness in the area that has got Marmara Island along with Hayırsız Island and in the Sea of Marmara's landscape paragliding festivals are held

Off – Road and Motorcross

Kartaltepe and its surroundings that constitute the peak point of Ganos Mountains and Corlu Kirazlidere have got suitable race-tracks for off-road sport the regions hosted the contests of the off-road clubs that are held every year.

One pace of motor-cross contests that are organized by Turkish Motor Sports Federation is in Hayrabolu brought; the other is in the motor-cross course near the edge of the Lake of Hayrabolu (Tekirdag Turizm Haritasi, 2015).

Horse-Riding and Rehabilitation

There are horse farms that give horse-riding and rehabilitation facilities in Corlu and Tekirdag.

d) History and Nature Walks

Kartaltepe sanctuary in where the presence of Hellenistic period and byzantine ruins, antique hireon Ores in where the fortresses belonging to Hellenistic era are found out, the monastery relicsof hoşköy, the water-courses of Roman -Byzantine-Ottoman Era reaching to Istanbul, water vaults seen in Pazarlı, Çakıllı, Ayvacık, Saray, picnic site near the fountain at Kartalkaya; the magnificent landscape ridges of Ganos, Güzelköy (Melen), water resources seen Çakıllı (Vize) the natural and prehistoric caves that are found in Ergene's Valley, Ergene Plateau, GalataRiver, Trekking areas in where history and nature intervenes. Twenty-seven kilometres far from the Black Sea to the point of which contact with Kastro location (Çamlıköy) is used for Trekking area.

e) Rural Tourism

Since the 70s of 20th century, tourism activity in rural areas has remarkably increased in all the developed countries worldwide, which has played a key role in the development of rural areas that were economically and socially depressed (Perales, 2002). According to Nilsson, rural tourism is based on the rural environment in general whereas farm tourism is based on the farm and farmer. This means that within the framework of rural tourism, farm tourism enterprises are more closely related to agriculture than other rural tourism operations (Nilsson, 2002).

According to Avcıkurt and Koroglu; rural tourism is seeing more attention in accordance with sustainable approach for its contribution to the development to rural areas in aspect of economic and social in the study of European union, rural tourism is defined as to meet the satisfaction of tourists on their expectations with providing accommodation, entertainment and other facilities whose purpose is to be intermediate with agricultural and local values and illiteranting and the whole activities carried out in small settlements in which smallscaled establishments take place (Avcıkurt and Köroğlu, 2011).

Rural tourism can be defined with three different perspectives. First geographical and demographical, concerning the product and relating the experience of tourist's rural tourism, in concern of geography is carried out in rural areas outside the city and mostly touristic products are composed by local folk. According to the definitions done by the tourist experiences whether to spend their time outskirts of the city or is a type of tourism realized by the tourists who are interested in rural life (Albayrak, 2013).

Tekirdağ's brough Saray possesses varies sources. Besides due to one of the crucial vineyard centers of Trace, it carries importance in aspect of rural tourism. There are 18 tenth hectares of vineyards in the villsges which pay their cost of livings from wine-selling. except for the south locations such as Çınarlı, Kirazlı, İğdebağları ve Yayla breed the grapes made for wine (Küçükaltan, 2012). In aspect of thethe tours of harvesting grapes, olive harvest, the collecting of medical aromatic herbs has got a crucial situation in the region

f) Botanic Tourism

Tekirdağ's province has a high potential vegetation The regions situation is aresult of the places intersection point facing the areas such as Mediterranean, Euro-Siberian and Irona Turanian. As a consequence, this region has a wide diversity flourine collection. (Çakır, 2013). The forests in which larch pine, beech, oak, lambeam, ash, maple, plumpare commonly found and wild plant diversity is another

issue, ganos mountains with its endemic plants diversity such as weasal muscat drops snowdrops, pinewood (İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2015).

g) Coast Tourism

Due to it has got a coast-line, it has got the advantages of which sand-pits used as a beach area. The beach shores of Kumbağ, Dereagzi, Değirmenaltı, Topağaç, Yeniçiftlik Uçmakdere, Karaevli, Alkaya, Sarkoy, Mürefte, Eriklice, Hoşkoy, Gaziköy& Marmaraereğlisi have got the advantages of crucial potential in summer tourism. Sarkoy's brough is the Turkey's longest sea-shore; and it is on the 12th range throughout the world. Sarkoy's Municipality Beach has been awarded with the Blue-Flag every year since 2006 (Çakır, 2013).

Besides, the brough of Tekirdağ, Saray, can be considered as a crucial coast-center. Its former name, Kastro and its present name, Çamlıköy, the small cove with 2,5 meters' length of coast shore have got the benefits of in where the Bahçeköy River of Thrace flows down. The Suleymanpasa's brough Ormanlı Village Situation, has got the fishing-line potential in the large and small afrosted waters in Sarkoy's brough, Gaziköy.

h) Local Cuisine of Tekirdag

Along with the immigrants from blacksea, Crimea settled on the lands of Balkans after the war 1876-1877; Bulgarians, the immigrants from Salonica, Seres, Yenice, the sailonik; the folk who were subject to immigrate settled down the towns and surrounding Thrace. Against the rich dining culture of the local people they preseved their own kitchen culture. This, a considerably rich dining cultue was formed in Tekirdağ and its surroundings the main products going ahead of Tekirdağ are, Tekirdağ Meatball, Circassian shoes, Circasion shoes Meatball, Malkara Cheese, Saray's Water-buffalo Yoghurt and Hayrobolu's Dessert (Web:5).

3.4. Tourism Establishments in Tekirdag

Tourism establishment in Tekirdag operational certified hotels are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Tourism Establishments in Tekirdag Operational Certified Hotels

Number	Room	Bed	Type	Adress
Ramada Tekirdag Otel	129	258	*****	Suleymanpasa
The Silverside Otel	211	432	*****	Corlu
Divan Corlu Otel	120	233	****	Corlu
Çerkezköy Business Otel	76	152	****	Çerkezköy
Golden Palas Otel	89	178	****	Çerkezköy
Hilton Garden Inn Corlu	113	260	****	Corlu
Sefa Otel	70	136	***	Corlu
Otel Sefa(2)	33	51	***	Corlu
Golden Yat Otel	53	84	***	Suleymanpasa
Shilla Otel	52	104	***	Corlu
Gabralı Otel	51	102	***	Çerkezköy
Yayoba Otel	40	94	***	Suleymanpasa
City Otel Çerkezköy	62	124	***	Çerkezköy
Jasmin Hotel&Restaurant	34	60	***	Marmara Ereğlisi
Çerkezköy Pasha Otel	61	122	***	Çerkezköy
Karaevli Otel	20	40	**	Suleymanpasa
Beyaz Balina Otel	36	80	**	Sarkoy
Coşkun Otel	51	82	**	Sarkoy
Burç Best Otel	35	70	**	Corlu
Grand Eren Otel	32	64	**	Corlu
Güneşler Otel	69	142	**	Çerkezköy
Başol Otel	29	50	*	Hayrabolu
Total	1466	2918		

Reference: Tekirdağ İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2016

According to the datas of the Culture and Tourism Directorate in total amount of 60,725 foreign and 282,849 local torists visited our country. In this notion of tourism by 2016, there are 22 operational certificated tourism accomodations, 2 food&drink, 1 daily establishmentand 50 travel agencies in Tekirdag.

Table 2. The Number of Nightly Boarding in Accommodation Establishments in Tekirdag

Years	Operational Tourism Licensed		Municipality Licenced	
	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local
2004	15 184	69 654	1 916	56 124
2005	14 763	68 597	2 068	55 925
2006	16 183	69 408	7 159	59 081
2007	7652	41 838	3 106	58 017
2008	6354	31 914	1 854	52 042
2009	24 507	82 275	3 500	63 329
2010	34 800	90 979	1 333	53 050
2011	18 334	65 936	313	25 978
2012	17 097	81 897	450	21 900
2013	22 868	81 965	248	18 362
2014	66 155	237 454	597	37 649
2015	60 305	243 550	420	38 499

Reference: Tekirdağ İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2016

According to the datas of Culture and Tourism Directorate in total amount; 60,725 foreign tourists and 282,649 local torists visited Tekirdag in 2015.

4. The Evalution of Tourism Potential of Tekirdag with Swot Analysis Consolidation

Swot analyse is astrategic technique determining the strengths and weaknesses of an establishment, technique, situation and the distict the opportunities as wellas the threata arising from external environment. This tecnique thaat requires the determination of the commercial enterprises's targets and identify whether contingent or negative factorsThis method was developed by the Harwad universityprofessors, Learned, Christensen, Andrew an Gulth in the 1960's (Pahl and Richter, 2007).

Firstly, Swot Analysis was begun to be used for the business manegement and in the following years is a means to make analysis and scheming devise. In principle with the method that enable the throughout exmination of the four parameters connecting with existing configuration both quantiitve and qualitative structures that can be formed strategic outview concerning current programme as aresult of observing Swot Contingent Matrix taht occured as the consequence of the analysis (Unakitan et. al., 2010).

5. Conclusion And Suggestions

Tourism industry along with its economical contributions is going ahead and its importance is gradually increasing. The existence of tourism industry is very crucial in order to develop nations economies and reach the level to compete in the international area. Tourism industry effects the food&drink, accomadation, transportation, entertainment sectors. In the first hand, especially, it contributes due to in aspect of currency input, it contributes to the external payment balance with its development an demployment support. The existence of tourism is connected with natural assets. In this sense, Turkey is completely a tourism paradise. Turkey holds the capacity to servemany tourism types such as nature, cultural heritage, cave, heath, faith, sea, sports tourism.

In present time, the regions whether with unspoiled beauty or environmental, offers the opportunity to gain more revenue from tourism. At this point, we should care great attention to use nature in a consciously way not to disturb ecological balance and prevent valuable habitats and attractiveness from extinction.

Tablo 3. Swot Analysis

POWERFUL ASPECTS		WEAK ASPECTS	
➤	Related to the geographical location, nearby places of the target market.	➤	Defective at promotion and marketing.
➤	The rich history of the city, nature and cultural possessions.	➤	Not adequately formation of the consciousness of tourism among local people.
➤	Possessing of unspoilt nature and undestroyed environment.	➤	Lack of people leading for the development tourism.
➤	Rich culture, traditions and customs	➤	The deficiency of international trade-marks; especially investments of the local-chain.
➤	and the traditional hospitality of the local people.	➤	The presence of secondary residence along seashore and askew dwelling-site.
➤	The policy of Tourism and Culture Ministry to spread all year and province's contribution to alternative tourism.	➤	The deficiency, especially meeting the arising needs of the tourists in summer times such as security, health, car-park, transportation.
➤	The existence of skilled work-force to lead tourism.		
➤	Flora and fauna richness of the city.		
➤	It has the capacity of to serve many types of tourism such as pragliding, fishing, camping, cave and nature tourism.		
➤	The presence of the feasts that are held at certain times of the year.		
OPPORTUNITIES		THREATS	
➤	The presence of university in the city		
➤	The deficiency of tourism agencies in the province.	➤	The low occupancy rate of the establishments the possible terrorists events that may occur in Turkey; the publications against democracy and the problems caused by them.
➤	He presence of authentic products and bazaars.	➤	Domestic tourism encouragement strategies of the members of European Union
➤	The supporting of the Development Agencies the tourism projects of the municipalities and the Culture and Tourism Directorate	➤	The sustainability of contamination and lack of tourism awareness.
➤	Owing the tourism attractions for the high income 3 Aged Tourism.	➤	The immigration of the youthful to cities such as Istanbul holding the potential of enterprise due to the lack of opportunities in the city, country, town.
➤	The proximity of the province to the borders of Greece and Bulgarian.		
➤	The increasing attractiveness of the city due to its proximity to Istanbul.		
➤	The presence of higher education units in the city.		
➤	In aspect of Gastro tourism, the local dining culture of the city is considerably rich.		
➤	The presence of the first transit container port in Tekirdağ.		
➤	The increasing demand for the alternative tourism types owing the high competitive features.		

The importance of the development of tourism remaining outside 3S (sea, sand and sun) is stated by the specialists in the field of tourism, institutions, establishments, academics as well as political otorities. The main subject of the work is Tekirdağ along with its broughs, variety of fauna and flora species, exursion places, natural site areas and caves is wating to be discovered. The first step to realize tourism activities is to organize informative assemblies concerning the opportunities and earnings will be gained economical development and employment.

The accommadation and eat&drink facilities are at adequate level, but especially in rural areas, support can be given to entrepreneurs who will make investment to the region concerning increasing on the number of establishments that can accomadate tourists. The restoration of the edifices that carry the traces of history done decent with its original shape can be a crucial income for the region. On the formation of the rich structure of culture is effected by the geographical location and its hosting of

numerous civilization throughout history. In spite of the fact that, Tekirdag has got high potential of natural and cultural values, it doesn't attract large numbers of tourists. It is detected that there is not enough inclination to the types of alternative tourism. This state manifests the awareness to the tourism and the deficiency of the establishments.

Besides, Tekirdag has a high potential in aspect of faith and culture tourism, a crucial income for the region. Apart from, relating the development of the tourism types, the increasement of the establishments, underground services both in private and public sector yet. The concreteness which will disturb the natural and cultural features to make obstacle for the sustainability of the city in tourism and eliminate the negative effects of the contamination. natural site areas, hunting grounds and certain animal species should be taken under protection.

In addition to these, the increasement of the certain alternative tourism types in Tekirdag such as sports and culture tourism, besides giving priority to the cuisines of Tekirdag's kitchen which will contribute to the development of the city.

The realization of the necessary investments, with the effective promotion activities the touristic activities will revive and the district will have the rising potential both in national and international relations. As a consequence, in case of the usage of domestic and foreign tourists, it will support the province of Tekirdag in terms of economy as well.

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Türkiye’ De Özel Güvenlik Sektörünün Ekonomik Boyutlari ve Geleceği

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Özet: Özel güvenlik (private security), genel kolluğa tamamlayıcı ve sadece kendi görev alanındaki yetkileriyle sınırlı bir özel kolluk birimidir. Dünya’da olduğu gibi Türkiye’de de güvenlik hizmetleri çarpıcı bir hızla gelişmekte ve sektörel pazar payı artmaktadır. Küresel ve ekonomik gelişmeler yeni güvenlik ve tehdit algılarını da beraberinde getirmektedir. Bu büyüyen ve gelişen sektörün yıllık pazar payı, ulaştığı ekonomik ve mali boyut bu gelişmelere paralel olarak sürekli artmaktadır.

Bu çalışmada, özel güvenlik sektörünün gelişimi, doğuran nedenler, yapılanması, eğitimi, ulaştığı pazar payı ve ülke ekonomisine katkıları üzerinde durulmakta ve sektörün bugünkü durumundan hareketle geleceği ampirik ve analitik bir yaklaşımla incelenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özel Güvenlik Ekonomisi, Türkiye Ekonomisi, Özel güvenlik piyasası.

JEL Code: F10-J28-J40

The Future of The Security Sector Economy in Turkey

Abstract: Special security, special police units of the police forces is limited and only complementary powers in their areas of competence. Turkey as well as in the world’ s rapidly developing security and industry market share is increasing. global economic developments, brings new security and threat perceptions. This growing and growing annual market share is constantly increasing economic and financial dimension reaches parallel to these developments.

In this study, the private security industry in the development of, causing reasons, configuration, training, are focused on contributing to reach the market share of the country’ s economy and move in to the future of it present being examined by empirical and analytical approach.

Key Words: Private Security Economy, Turkey Economics, Private Security Market

JEL Codes: F10-J28-J40

1. Giriş

Tarihin her döneminde bir arada yaşayan ve yaşamak zorunda olan insanoğlu için en önemli ihtiyaçlardan bir tanesi şüphesiz can ve mal güvenliğidir. İnsanoğlu bilim ve teknolojiye ne kadar ilerlerse ilerlesin, beşeri hayat ne kadar gelişirse gelişsin muhakkak güvenlik ihtiyacı her dönemde olacaktır.

Günümüzde modern ve gelişmiş ülkelerde bile güvenlik önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Toplumlar güvenlik ihtiyacının önemli ve hayati bir kısmını devlet eli ile sağlamaktadır. Ancak devletlerin her alanda olduğu gibi güvenlik alanında da her zaman ve her yerde da sürekli personel bulundurabilmesi imkânsızdır. Bu boşluğu dünyanın her yerinde ilave koruma ihtiyacı hisseden kişi, kuruluş ve organizasyonlar ilave tedbirlerle karşılamaktadır. Bu tedbirler genellikle özel eğitim görmüş kişilere veya bu alanda uzmanlaşmış kurumsal firmalara yaptırılmaktadır. Dünyada ilk ortaya çıkışı ise 1830’lu yıllarda Amerika’da atlı posta arabalarının korunması amacı ile başlamıştır. Zaman içerisinde dünya genelinde pek çok ülkede bu işleyiş temelde aynı kalmakla beraber gelişerek yaygınlaşmıştır.

Ülkemizde durum dünyadaki örneklerinden pek farklı değildir. Önceleri çok dar anlamda ve basit şekilde ele alınan özel güvenlik kavramı yani işyerleri ve sitelere Bekçi denilerek işe alınan ve özel olarak eğitilmeden geçirilmeyen ve iş gücü olarak niteliksiz işgücü kategorisinde değerlendirilen özel güvenlik olgusu zamanla bu görünümünden çıkmıştır. Türkiye’de özel güvenlik anlayışı yaklaşık olarak 34 yıllık bir serüvene sahiptir. Yasal olarak ilk defa 1981 yılında 2495 sayılı yasa ile temelleri atılmıştır. Ancak bu yasa istenilen ve arzu edilen şekilde ihtiyaca cevap verememiştir.

Kanunlarımızda özel güvenlik görevlileri özel kolluk olarak tanımlanmıştır (Kolluk ikiye ayrılır. Genel Kolluk ve Özel Kolluk. Genel Kolluk tanımı Polis, Jandarma ve Sahil Güvenlik Komutanlığını kapsar. Özel Kolluk ise Genel kolluk dışında kalan ve ancak belirli bazı kolluk görevleri ve özel yasalarına göre kurulup belirli görev ve yetkilerle donatılan kolluktur. Örneğin; Köy korucuları, Köy bekçileri, Belediye zabıtası v.b.). Özel Güvenlik ise sivil kolluk olarak tanımlanabilir.

2. Kavramsal, Hukuki Ve Diğer Boyutlarıyla Özel Güvenlik Sistemi

Özel Güvenlik Görevlisi ise, Kanun kapsamında özel koruma ve güvenlik hizmetlerini yerine getirmek amacıyla istihdam edilen kişileri ifade eder. Özel güvenlik personelinin görev alanı, esasen genel kolluğun sorumluluğunda bulunan ve komisyon tarafından sınırları belirlenmiş alandır. Özel güvenlik görevlileri 5188 sayılı Kanunun 7. maddesinde sayılan yetkilerini, sadece görevli oldukları sürede ve görev alanlarında kullanabilirler. Özel güvenlik görevlilerinin; silahlı görev yapabileceği koruma hizmetleri, bulundurabilecekleri silahların özellikleri ve miktarları özel güvenlik komisyonu tarafından belirlenir. Özel güvenlik görevlileri, silahlarını görev alanı dışına çıkaramazlar. Ancak zorunlu hallerde, görev alanı, komisyon kararıyla genişletebilir. Ayrıca güzergâh ifade eden durumlarda, güzergâh boyu, görev alanı sayılır. Kamuya açık yerler: Belli koşullara uymak suretiyle herkesin girebileceği yerlerdir. Kamuya ait yerler: Sokak, cadde, parklarla akarsu, göl, deniz kıyıları ve benzeri yerlerdir.

Ülkemizde Kişilerin silahlı personel tarafından korunması, kurum ve kuruluşlar bünyesinde özel güvenlik birimi kurulması veya güvenlik hizmetinin şirketlere gördürülmesi özel güvenlik komisyonunun kararı üzerine valilik iznine bağlıdır. Toplantı, konser, sahne gösterileri ve benzeri etkinliklerde; para veya değerli eşya nakli gibi geçici veya acil hallerde, komisyon kararı aranmaksızın, vali tarafından özel güvenlik izni verilebilir.

Komisyon, koruma ve güvenlik hizmetini yerine getirecek personelin, bulundurulabilecek veya taşınabilecek silah ve teçhizatın azami miktarını ve niteliğini, gerekli hallerde diğer fiziki ve aletli güvenlik tedbirlerini belirlemeye yetkilidir. Havalimanı ve liman gibi yerlerde alınacak güvenlik tedbirlerine ilişkin uluslararası yükümlülükler saklıdır.

Geçici haller dışındaki özel güvenlik uygulaması, en az bir ay önce başvurulması şartıyla komisyonun kararı ve valinin onayı ile sona erdirilebilir.

2.1. Özel Güvenlik Komisyonu

Özel güvenlik komisyonu, özel güvenlikle ilgili kararları almak üzere valinin görevlendireceği bir vali yardımcısının başkanlığında, il emniyet müdürlüğü, il jandarma komutanlığı, ticaret odası başkanlığı, sanayi odası başkanlığı temsilcisinden oluşur. Sanayi odasının bulunmadığı illerde komisyona ticaret ve sanayi odası başkanlığının temsilcisi katılır. Özel güvenlik izni verilmesi ya da bu uygulamanın kaldırılması için başvuran kişi ya da kuruluşun temsilcisi ilgili komisyon toplantısına üye olarak katılır. Komisyon, kararlarını oy çokluğu ile alır; oyların eşitliği halinde başkanın bulunduğu taraf çoğunluk sayılır; çekimser oy kullanılamaz.

2.2. Özel Güvenlik Şirketleri

Şirketlerin özel güvenlik alanında faaliyette bulunması İçişleri Bakanlığının iznine tabidir. Faaliyet izni verilebilmesi için şirket hisselerinin nama yazılı olması ve faaliyet alanının münhasıran koruma ve güvenlik hizmeti olması zorunludur. Özel güvenlik şirketleri, şubelerini bir ay içinde Bakanlığa ve ilgili valiliğe yazılı olarak; hisse devirlerini bir ay içinde Bakanlığa bildirirler.

Yabancı kişilerin özel güvenlik şirketi kurabilmesi ve yabancı şirketlerin Türkiye’de özel güvenlik hizmeti verebilmesi müteakabiliyet esasına tabidir.

Özel güvenlik şirketlerinin kurucu ve yöneticilerin ayrıca dört yıllık yüksek okul mezunu olmaları, 5188 sayılı Kanunun 10 uncu maddesinin (e) bendinde belirtilen şartı taşımaları ve 14 üncü maddesinde belirtilen özel

güvenlik temel eğitimini başarıyla tamamlamış olmaları gerekir. Muvazzaf subaylarda dört yıllık okul mezunu olma şartı aranmaz.

2.3. Özel Güvenlik Görevlilerinin Yetkileri

Özel güvenlik görevlilerinin yetkileri şunlar olarak özetlenebilir:

- a) Koruma ve güvenliğini sağladıkları alanlara girmek isteyenleri duyarlı kapıdan geçirme, bu kişilerin üstlerini detektörle arama, eşyaları X-ray cihazından veya benzeri güvenlik sistemlerinden geçirme.
- b) Toplantı, konser, spor müsabakası, sahne gösterileri ve benzeri etkinlikler ile cenaze ve düğün törenlerinde kimlik sorma, duyarlı kapıdan geçirme, bu kişilerin üstlerini detektörle arama, eşyaları X-ray cihazından veya benzeri güvenlik sistemlerinden geçirme.
- c) Ceza Muhakemesi Kanununun 90 ıncı maddesine göre yakalama.
- d) Görev alanında, haklarında yakalama emri veya mahkûmiyet kararı bulunan kişileri yakalama ve arama.
- e) Yangın, deprem gibi tabii afet durumlarında ve imdat istenmesi halinde görev alanındaki işyeri ve konutlara girme.
- f) Hava Meydanı, liman, gar, istasyon ve terminal gibi toplu ulaşım tesislerinde kimlik sorma, duyarlı kapıdan geçirme, bu kişilerin üstlerini detektörle arama, eşyaları X-ray cihazından veya benzeri güvenlik sistemlerinden geçirme.
- g) Genel kolluk kuvvetlerine derhal bildirmek şartıyla, aramalar sırasında suç teşkil eden veya delil olabilecek ya da suç teşkil etmemekle birlikte tehlike doğurabilecek eşyayı emanete alma.
- h) Terk edilmiş ve bulunmuş eşyayı emanete alma.
- i) 1) Kişinin vücudu veya sağlığı bakımından mevcut bir tehlikeden korunması amacıyla yakalama.
- j) Olay yerini ve delilleri koruma, bu amaçla Ceza Muhakemesi Kanununun 168 inci maddesine göre yakalama.
- k) Türk Medeni Kanununun 981 inci maddesine, Borçlar Kanununun 52'nci maddesine, Türk Ceza Kanununun 24 ve 25 inci maddelerine göre zor kullanma.

2.4. Özel Güvenlik Görevlilerinin Silah Bulundurma Ve Taşıma Yetkisi

Hangi koruma ve güvenlik hizmeti için ne miktar ve özellikte ateşli silah bulundurulabileceği komisyon tarafından belirlenir.

Ancak eğitim ve öğretim kurumlarında, sağlık tesislerinde, talih oyunları işletmelerinde, içkili yerlerde silahlı özel güvenlik görevlisi çalıştırılmasına izin verilmez. Özel güvenlik görevlileri, özel toplantılarda, spor müsabakalarında, sahne gösterileri ve benzeri etkinliklerde silahlı olarak görev yapamazlar.

Koruma ve güvenlik hizmetinde kullanılacak silah ve teçhizat, ilgili kişi veya kuruluş tarafından temin edilir. Özel güvenlik şirketleri ateşli silah alamaz ve bulunduramazlar. Ancak özel güvenlik şirketlerine, para ve değerli eşya nakli, geçici süreli koruma ve güvenlik hizmetlerinde kullanılmak üzere, özel güvenlik eğitimi veren kurumlara, silah eğitiminde kullanılmak üzere, komisyonun kararı ve valinin onayı ile silah alma, kullanma ve taşıma izni verilebilir.

2.5. Özel Güvenlik Görevlilerinin Görev Alanı

Özel güvenlik görevlileri silahlarını görev alanı dışına çıkaramazlar. İşlenmiş bir suçun sanığı veya suç işleyeceğinden kuvvetle şüphe edilen kişinin takibi, dışarıdan yapılan saldırılara karşı tedbir alınması, para ve değerli eşya nakli, kişi koruma ve cenaze töreni gibi güzergâh ifade eden durumlarda güzergâh boyu görev alanı sayılır. Görev alanı, zorunlu hallerde Komisyon kararıyla genişletilebilir.

Zor kullanma ve yakalama yetkilerinin kullanılmasını gerektiren olaylar en seri vasıta ile yetkili genel kolluğa bildirilir; yakalanan kişi ve zapt edilen eşya genel kolluğa teslim edilir.

2.6. Özel Güvenlik Görevlilerinde Aranacak Şartlar

Özel güvenlik görevlilerinde aşağıdaki şartlar aranır:

- Türkiye Cumhuriyeti vatandaşı olmak.
- Silahsız olarak görev yapacaklar için en az sekiz yıllık ilköğretim veya ortaokul; silahlı olarak görev yapacaklar için en az lise veya dengi okul mezunu olmak.
- 18 yaşını doldurmuş olmak.
- Türk Ceza Kanununun 53 üncü maddesinde belirtilen süreler geçmiş olsa bile; kasten işlenen bir suçtan dolayı bir yıl veya daha fazla süreyle hapis cezasına ya da affa uğramış olsa bile devletin güvenliğine karşı suçlar, Anayasal düzene ve bu düzenin işleyişine karşı suçlar, cinsel dokunulmazlığa karşı suçlar, kamunun sağlığına karşı suçlar, zimmet, irtikâp, rüşvet, hırsızlık, dolandırıcılık, sahtecilik, güveni kötüye kullanma, hileli iflas, ihaleye fesat karıştırma, edimin ifasına fesat karıştırma, suçtan kaynaklanan malvarlığı değerlerini aklama, kaçakçılık veya fuhuş suçlarından mahkûm olmamak.
- Görevin yapılmasına engel olabilecek vücut ve akıl hastalığı ile özürli bulunmamak.
- Verilecek özel güvenlik temel eğitimi başarıyla tamamlamış olmak.

2.7. Çalışma İzni

Güvenlik görevlisi olarak istihdam edilecekler ile özel güvenlik şirketlerinde, alarm izleme merkezlerinde ve özel güvenlik eğitimi verecek kurumlarda kurucu ve/veya yönetici olarak çalışacaklar hakkında valilikçe güvenlik soruşturması yapılır. Soruşturma sonucu olumlu olanlara, özel güvenlik temel eğitimi başarıyla bitirmiş olmak şartıyla, valilikçe çalışma izni verilir. Ateşli silah taşımayacak özel güvenlik görevlileri hakkında sadece arşiv araştırması yapılır. Güvenlik soruşturması ve arşiv araştırması bir ay içinde tamamlanır. Güvenlik soruşturması ve arşiv araştırması her beş yılda bir yenilenir.

Göreve başlayan özel güvenlik görevlileri işveren tarafından on beş gün içinde valiliğe bildirilir.

Çalışma izninin yenilenebilmesi için, güvenlik soruşturmasının olumlu olması ve belirtilen özel güvenlik yenileme eğitiminin başarıyla tamamlanmış olması zorunludur.

Özel güvenlik görevlilerinde aranan şartlardan herhangi birisinin kaybedilmesi halinde çalışma izni iptal edilir.

Genel kolluk kuvvetinden ve Milli İstihbarat Teşkilatından emekli olanlar ile en az beş yıl fiilen bu görevlerde çalıştıktan sonra kendi istekleriyle görevlerinden ayrılmış olanlarda, görevlerinden ayrıldıkları tarihten itibaren beş yıl süreyle özel güvenlik temel eğitimi şartı aranmaz.

2.8. Kimlik

Özel güvenlik görevlilerine valilikçe kimlik kartı verilir. Kimlik kartında görevlinin adı ve soyadı ile silahlı ya da silahsız olduğu belirtilir.

Kimlik kartı görev alanı ve süresi içerisinde herkes tarafından görülebilecek şekilde yakaya takılır. Üzerinde kimlik kartı olmayan özel güvenlik görevlileri 5188 sayılı Kanunda sayılan yetkileri kullanamazlar.

Herhangi bir sebeple görevinden ayrılan özel güvenlik görevlileri işveren tarafından on beş gün içinde valiliğe bildirilir.

2.9. Kıyafet

Özel güvenlik görevlileri görev alanı içinde ve süresince üniforma giyerler. Görevin ve işyerinin özelliği nedeniyle gerekli görülen hallerde sivil kıyafetle görev yapılmasına komisyon izin verebilir.

2.10. Tazminat

Özel Güvenlik Görevlileri görevleri yerine getirirken yaralanan, sakatlanan veya ölen özel güvenlik görevlisinin kanuni mirasçılarına, iş sözleşmesinde veya toplu iş sözleşmesinde belirlenen miktar ve esaslar çerçevesinde tazminat ödenir.

Kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarında bu Kanunda yazılı görevleri yerine getirirken yaralanan, sakatlanan özel güvenlik görevlilerine veya ölen özel güvenlik görevlilerinin kanuni mirasçılarına; iş sözleşmesi, toplu iş sözleşmesi veya 2330 sayılı Nakdi Tazminat ve Aylık Bağlanması Hakkında Kanun hükümlerinde belirtilen tazminat miktarlarından hangisi yüksek ise o miktar ödenir.

Özel güvenlik personeli, Kanunda belirtilen koruma ve güvenlik hizmetleri dışında başka bir işte çalıştırılmaz. Özel güvenlik personeli greve katılamaz. Özel güvenlik görevlileri lokavt dolayısıyla işten uzaklaştırılmaz.

2.11. Suçlar Ve Cezalar

2.11.1. Özel Güvenlik Personeli İçin Öngörülen Adli Suçlar Ve Cezalar

- Özel güvenlik iznini almadan özel güvenlik görevlisi istihdam eden kişiler veya kuruluşların yöneticileri üç aydan bir yıla kadar hapis veya adli para cezası ile cezalandırılır.
- Belirtilen faaliyet iznini almadan özel güvenlik faaliyetinde bulunan şirketlerin kurucu ve yöneticilerine, çalışma izni almadan özel güvenlik birimi oluşturan kurum ve kuruluşların yöneticileri, izni almadan özel güvenlik eğitimi veren kurum ve kuruluşların yöneticileri, üç aydan bir yıla kadar hapis ve beşbin güne kadar adli para cezası ile cezalandırılır. Bu şekilde cezalandırılan kişiler, özel güvenlik şirketlerinde ve özel güvenlik eğitimi veren kurumlarda kurucu ve yönetici olamazlar.
- Çalışma izni verilmeyen kişileri özel güvenlik görevlisi olarak istihdam eden kişi, kurum, kuruluş veya şirketlerin yetkilileri, üç aydan bir yıla kadar hapis cezası ile cezalandırılır. Bu kişilerin silahlı olarak çalıştırılmış olması hâlinde, verilecek ceza bir kat artırılır. Bu suçun bir tüzel kişinin faaliyeti çerçevesinde işlenmesi hâlinde ayrıca bunlara özgü güvenlik tedbirlerine hükmolunur.
- Özel güvenlik malî sorumluluk sigortasını yaptırmadan özel güvenlik görevlisi istihdam eden kişi; kurum, kuruluş veya şirketlerin yöneticileri istihdam ettikleri her kişi için yüzelli gün adli para cezası ile cezalandırılır.
- Faaliyet iznini almadan özel güvenlik hizmeti veya özel güvenlik eğitimi verdiğini ilân eden veya reklam yapan kişi; kurum, kuruluş veya şirketlerin yöneticileri, altı aya kadar hapis ve elli günden az olmamak üzere adli para cezası ile cezalandırılır.

2.11.2. İdari Para Cezasını Gerektiren Fiiller

- a) Grev yasağına uymayan, ateşli silâhını bu Kanuna aykırı veya görev alanı dışında kullanan veya özel güvenlik kimlik kartını başkasına kullandıran özel güvenlik görevlisine bin Türk Lirası idarî para cezası verilir ve bu kişilerin çalışma izni valilikçe iptal edilir. Bu kişiler bir daha özel güvenlik görevlisi olamazlar.
- b) Diğer kişi, kurum ve kuruluşlara sağlanacak özel güvenlik hizmetini yeterli süre içinde ilgili valiliğe bildirmeyen özel güvenlik şirketlerine her bildirim için bin Türk Lirası,
- c) Mülkî idare amirlerince istenen ilave tedbirleri almayan kişi, kurum, kuruluş veya şirketlerin yöneticilerine iki bin Türk Lirası,
- d) Eksik tespit edilip, giderilmesi istenen eksiklikleri gidermeyen kişi, kurum, kuruluş veya şirketlerin yöneticilerine iki bin Türk Lirası,
- e) Özel güvenlik görevlisini koruma ve güvenlik hizmetleri dışında başka bir işte çalıştıran kişi, kurum ve kuruluşlara her eylemleri için bin Türk Lirası,
- f) Gerekli bildirimleri süresinde yerine getirmeyenlere bin Türk Lirası, idarî para cezası verilir. Özel Güvenlik sektöründe öngörülen idarî para cezaları mahallî mülkî amir tarafından verilir.

2.12. Özel Güvenlik Mali Sorumluluk Sigortası

Özel hukuk tüzel kişileri ve özel güvenlik şirketleri, istihdam ettikleri özel güvenlik görevlilerinin üçüncü kişilere verecekleri zararların tazmini amacıyla özel güvenlik malî sorumluluk sigortası yaptırmak zorundadır. Özel güvenlik malî sorumluluk sigortasına ilişkin esas ve usuller Hazine Müsteşarlığınca belirlenir.

Öngörülen özel güvenlik malî sorumluluk sigortası, Türkiye’de ilgili branşta çalışmaya yetkili olan sigorta şirketleri tarafından yapılır. Bu sigorta şirketleri özel güvenlik malî sorumluluk sigortasını yapmakla yükümlüdürler. Bu yükümlülüğe uymayan sigorta şirketlerine Hazine Müsteşarlığınca sekiz bin Türk Lirası idarî para cezası verilir.

2.13. Denetim

İçişleri Bakanlığı ve valilikler özel güvenlik hizmetleri kapsamında, özel güvenlik birimlerini, özel güvenlik şirketlerini ve özel güvenlik eğitimi veren kurumları denetlemeye yetkilidir. Denetim sonucu tespit edilen eksikliklerin ilgili kişi, kurum, kuruluş ve şirketlerce verilen süre içinde giderilmesi zorunludur.

Amacı dışında faaliyet gösterdiği veya suç kaynağına dönüştüğü tespit edilen şirketlerin ve özel eğitim kurumlarının faaliyet izni iptal edilir. Bu şekilde faaliyet izni iptal edilen şirketlerin veya kurumların, kurucu ve yöneticileri, özel güvenlik şirketlerinde ve özel güvenlik eğitimi veren kurumlarda kurucu ve yönetici olamazlar.

2.14. Ceza Uygulaması

Özel güvenlik görevlileri, görevleriyle bağlantılı olarak işledikleri suçlardan dolayı kamu görevlisi gibi cezalandırılır. Özel güvenlik görevlilerine karşı görevleri dolayısıyla suç işleyenler kamu görevlisine karşı suç işlemiş gibi cezalandırılır.

3. Özel Güvenlik Sektörünün Ulaştığı Ekonomik Ve Mali Boyut

Ülkemizde 10 Haziran 2014 tarihinde çıkarılan 5188 sayılı Özel Güvenlik Hizmetlerine dair Kanun’un çıkarılması ile önemli bir atılım yapılmıştır. Sektör önce şirketleşme ve sonrasında eğitim faaliyetleri kapsamında hızla büyümüş ve büyük bir sektör haline gelmiştir. Sektörün sadece eğitilmiş kişi sayısı olarak 23 Ekim 2015 tarihi itibarıyla ulaştığı toplam büyüklük; 1 256 366 kişidir. Eğitim olarak kimlik alanların

toplam sayısı ise 739 876 kişidir. Ülkemizde toplam verilen kadro oranı 539 571 kişidir. Sektörde aktif olarak istihdam edilen personel sayısı ise 245 358 kişidir.

Yine 2014 yılı verilerine göre 67199 birim Özel Güvenlik birimleri tarafından korunmaktadır. Ülkemizin Nüfusu 1 Ocak 2015 tarihi itibari ile 77 milyon 695 bin 904 kişidir. Bu durumda ülkemizde her 317 vatandaşımıza 1 özel güvenlik personeli düşmektedir.

(Ülkemizde Genel kolluk olarak tanımlanan Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğünün personel sayısı ise 256.904 kişidir. Bu duruma göre her 302 vatandaşımıza 1 polis düşmektedir. (Kaynak: EGM Faaliyet Raporu, Erişim Tarihi: 13.11.2015)

Jandarma Genel Komutanlığı personel mevcudu ise Ekim 2015’de 169.252 kişidir. Her 459 kişiye 1 Jandarma personeli düşmektedir. Bu Oran sorumluluk alanı ve hitap edilen nüfus göz önüne alınca normal seviyededir.)

Sahil güvenlik komutanlığı personel miktarı ise Ekim 2015’de 4.596 kişidir. Her 16905 kişiye bir Sahil güvenlik personeli düşmektedir. Bu oran görev alanı ve hitap edilen nüfus göz önüne alınca normal seviyededir.)

Tüm bu rakamlar ülkemizde özel güvenlik sektörünün büyüklüğü ve önemini gözler önüne sermektedir.

Tablo 1. Yıllara göre özel güvenlik görevlisi istatistiği.

YILLAR	ÖZEL GÜVENLİK GÖREVLİSİ (ÖGG) İSTATİSTİĞİ			
	VERİLEN SERTİFİKA SAYISI	VERİLEN ÖZEL GÜVENLİK KİMLİK KARTI SAYISI	TAHSİS EDİLEN ÖGG KADRO SAYISI	ÇALIŞAN (İSTİHDAM EDİLEN) ÖGG SAYISI
01.01.2008	312,025	215,809	112,961	86,574
01.01.2009	415,471	276,49	212,407	113,832
01.01.2010	554,354	351,341	266,071	123,129
01.01.2011	690,546	427,967	306,159	135,616
01.01.2012	832,813	486,652	348,279	147,474
01.01.2013	958,192	557,989	401,912	167,088
01.01.2014	1.066.781	596,121	434,781	199,707
01.01.2015	1.186.070	682,323	534,742	233,457
23.10.2015	1.256.366	739,876	539,571	245,358

KAYNAK: EGM Özel Güvenlik Daire Başkanlığı, (<http://www.ozelguvenlik.pol.tr/Sayfalar/%C3%B6gg-istatistikleri-link.aspx>). Erişim Tarihi: 13.11.2015

Tablodan da anlaşıldığı gibi şu an Özel güvenlik sektöründe istihdam edilen personel sayısı hemen hemen Emniyet teşkilatının personel mevcuduna yaklaşmıştır.

Özel güvenlik sektöründe istihdam edilen personel sayısı 2008 yılında 86 574 iken bu sayı 2015 yılı Ekim ayında 245 358 kişiye ulaşmıştır. Yaklaşık 7 yıllık süreçte Yüzde 283’lük bir artış göstermiştir. Sektörün önümüzdeki yıllarda da istihdam edilen personel sayısını arttıracığı beklenmelidir.

Tablo 2. Türkiye geneli özel güvenlik firmalarının durumu

YILLAR	ÖZEL GÜVENLİK İZNİ VERİLEN YER SAYISI	ÖZEL GÜVENLİK ŞİRKETİ SAYISI		ÖZEL GÜVENLİK EĞİTİM KURUMU SAYISI		ALARM İZLEME MERKEZİ SAYISI	
	FAAL	FAAL	KAPANAN	FAAL	KAPANAN	FAAL	KAPANAN
01.01.2008	28.660	914	19	313	21	114	3
01.01.2009	34.268	1.005	41	371	35	131	6
01.01.2010	42.906	1.108	63	437	47	150	9
01.01.2011	47.501	1.212	82	471	76	194	17
01.01.2012	53.635	1.247	130	480	109	224	34
01.01.2013	58.283	1.279	206	495	153	269	44
01.01.2014	61.045	1.299	293	506	195	302	65
01.01.2015	67.199	1.330	369	514	258	321	73
23.10.2015	69.248	1.369	427	473	303	343	81

KAYNAK: <http://www.ozelguvenlik.pol.tr/Sayfalar/%C3%B6gg-istatistikleri-link.aspx>, Erişim Tarihi: 15.11.2015.

Ülkemizde son 7 yılda faaliyet izni verilen yer miktarı 40 000 aratarak 70.000 civarına ulaşmıştır. Bu alanda faaliyet gösteren firma ve eğitim veren kurum sayıları artışı az olsa da faaliyet gösterilen alan 3 kata yakın artmıştır.

Tablo 3. Ülkemiz genelinde özel güvenlik sektörü istatistikleri

	SORUMLULUK BÖLGESİ	23.10.2015	TOPLAM
	JANDARMA	3.260	1.259.626
SERTİFİKA VERİLEN SAYISI	POLİS	1.256.366	
ÖZEL GÜVENLİK KİMLİĞİ VERİLEN SAYISI	JANDARMA	132.668	872.544
	POLİS	739.876	
TAHSİS EDİLEN ÖGG SAYISI	JANDARMA	85.712	625.283
	POLİS	539.571	
ÇALIŞAN (İSTİHDAM EDİLEN) ÖGG SAYISI	JANDARMA	58.174	303.532
	POLİS	245.358	
ÖZEL GÜVENLİK İZNİ ALAN YER SAYISI	JANDARMA	10.287	79.535
	POLİS	69.248	
FAAL ÖZEL GÜVENLİK ŞİRKETİ SAYISI	JANDARMA	3	1.372
	POLİS	1.369	
FAAL ÖZEL GÜVENLİK EĞİTİM KURUMU SAYISI	JANDARMA	1	474
	POLİS	473	
ALARM İZLEME MERKEZİ SAYISI	JANDARMA	1	344
	POLİS	343	

KAYNAK: EGM Özel Güvenlik Daire Başkanlığı, (<http://www.ozelguvenlik.pol.tr/Sayfalar/%C3%B6gg-istatistikleri-link.aspx>). Erişim Tarihi: 13.11.2015

Sektörde görev yapmak için kimlik alan kişi sayısı ile sektörde istihdam edilen personel sayısı arasında yaklaşık 500 000 kişilik fark vardır. Bunda en önemli etken mevcut firma oranının azlığı ve yurt dışı pazara açılmada yaşanan sorunlardır.

Ülkemizde Özel Güvenlik sektöründe istihdam edilen personel mevcudu 23 Ekim 2015 itibari ile 245,358 kişidir. Çalışan tüm personelin statü ve maaş farkını bir tarafa bırakarak yaklaşık olarak asgari ücret (Hesaplama Kasım 2015 Brüt asgari ücret değerleri kullanılmıştır.) aldığını var sayarsak 245 358 x

1273,50= 312 463 413,00 TL Aylık değere ulaşmıştır. Bu da yıllık bazda 3 749 560 956,00 TL'lik bir Pazar payına ulaştığını gösterir.

Bir diğer ifade ile 1 284 316 134,95 ABD Dolarlık bir Pazar payına sahip olduğu görülmektedir (27 Kasım 2015 T.C.M.B. 1 ABD doları 2.9195 TL kullanılmıştır).

Önümüzdeki yıllarda yapılmakta olan ve yapılması planlanan stratejik ve ekonomik tesislerin hizmete alınması ile bu rakamların çok daha fazla artacağı ön görülmektedir (Bu tesisler Barajlar, İstanbul'a yapılmakta olan 3'üncü Hava limanı, Nükleer santraller vb.dir).

4. Özel Güvenlik Sektöründe Eğitim Durumu Ve Maliyeti

Ülkemizde özel güvenlik personelinin büyük çoğunluğu ruhsat alınarak açılan okullarda eğitim görmektedir. Bu eğitim silahlı ve silahsız olarak 2 bölümden oluşmaktadır.

Tablo 4. Eğitim programları

ÖRNEK EĞİTİM PROGRAMI		
Temel Eğitim	Silahlı 120 Saat/ Silahsız 100 Saat	
Yenileme Eğitimi	Silahsız 50 Saat /Silahlı 60 Saat	
Gözyaşırtıcı gaz spreyi kullanma eğitimi	3 saat teorik / 3 saat uygulama	
Dersler	Temel Eğitim Saat	Yenileme Saat
Özel Güvenlik hukuku ve Kişi Hakları	20	10
Güvenlik Sistem ve cihazları	5	3
Güvenlik Tedbirleri	20	10
Temel ilk yardım	10	4
Yangın güvenliği ve Tabii Felaketler	8	4
Müdahale Tarzı 8 4		
Uyuşturucu madde bilgileri	2	1
Etkili iletişim	12	8
Kişi Koruma	9	4
Kalabalık yönetimi	10	4
Silah Bilgisi ve Atış	20	10
Genel Kollukla İlişkiler	4	2

KAYNAK: Veriler mevcut müfredat dataları derlenerek oluşturulmuştur.

Eğitim süresi ve eğitim müfredatı aynı olsa bile, eğitim ücretleri illere ve eğitim veren okul/kurumlara göre değişim göstermektedir. Yıllar içerisinde değişiklik gösterse de son 5 içerisinde ortalama yıllık 589 000 kişinin eğitim aldığı görülmektedir.

Ortalama bir kişinin eğitim ücreti yaklaşık bir değerle 445,00 TL kabul edilirse. Eğitim olarak toplamda yıllık ortalama 262 105 000,00' TL'lik rakamsal değere eşittir. Sınav ücreti Silahlı için 60 TL, silahsız için 40 TL'dir. Bu da ortalama 26 505 000,00 TL'dir. Rapor ücreti için ortalama 175 TL. Alınmaktadır. Yıllık ortalama 589 0000 kişinin rapor aldığı düşünülünce sağlık sektörüne katkısı 103 075 000,00 TL'dir. Alınan her sertifika için devlete 474,49 TL harç parası ödenmektedir. Buda yıllık ortalama 279 474 610,00 TL'dir.

Tüm bu rapor alma, Sertifika yenileme eğitimi ve 5 yılda bir lisans yenileme şartı düşünüldüğünde, Özel Güvenlik Sektörü'nün eğitim maliyeti olarak Yıllık ortalama rakamsal değer yaklaşık 671 159 610,00. TL'dir.

4.1. Özel Güvenlik Sektöründe Yükseköğrenim Durumu

Özel güvenlik sektörünün en büyük sorunlarından bir tanesi ise kaliteli eğitim ve profesyonel bakış açısıdır. Bu eksikliği gidermek için ülkemizde ilk olarak 2002 yılında İstanbul Üniversitesi bünyesinde savunma ve güvenlik bölümü açılarak eğitime başlamıştır. Şu anda ülkemizde yaklaşık olarak 42 üniversitede Mülkiyet Koruma, Özel Güvenlik ve Koruma bölümleri eğitime devam etmektedir. Bu bölümlerin amacı; nitelikli ara eleman ve şef kadrosu için personel yetiştirmektir.

Ülkemizde 2015 yılı verilerine göre 41 adet Üniversitede MYO seviyesinde yükseköğrenim veren okul bulunmaktadır. Bu rakam sektörün önümüzdeki yıllarda ulaşacağı tahmin edilen ticari ve istihdam edilen kişi rakamları düşünüldüğünde ihtiyaca cevap vermekten çok uzaktır. Özellikle son yıllarda yurt dışı pazarına açılma ve Türk iş adamlarının ticaret yaptığı ülke sayılarındaki artışlar göz önüne alınınca bu sayı yetersiz kalacaktır.

5. Sonuç

Türkiye son yıllarda ekonomik verileri son derece hızla artan ve gelişen bir ülke olmuştur. Özellikle kıtaları bir birine bağlaması, enerji koridorları üzerinde bulunması, ham maddelere ulaşmada köprü olması sebebi ile cazibe merkezi olma yolunda hızla ilerlemektedir. Artan turizm geliri ve son dönemde vizyonel yatırımları (İstanbul'a yapılmakta olan 3.havaalanı ve nükleer santral yatırımları) ile ticaret rakamlarını hızla arttırma eğilimindedir.

Özel güvenlik işletmelerinin hizmet sektöründeki pazar payı her geçen gün büyümekle beraber hızla marka olma yolunda ilerlemektedir. Türk firmaların çok yakın bir gelecekte uluslararası arenada da faaliyetlerinin artış göstermesi beklenmektedir. Bölgesel ve dünya bazında yaşanan siyasi gelişmeler sonucu ortaya çıkan kaynakların üretim, depolama ve nakillerinde korunması büyük önem arz etmektedir. Petrol ve diğer değerli madenlerin üretimi yapılan bölgelerde üretim tesislerinin korunması, nakil hatları ve araçlarının korunması giderek artan bir sorun oluşturmıştır.

Buna örnek olarak uluslararası sularda yaşanan deniz haydutluğu verilebilir. Bu konuda bazı Türk firmaları girişimlerde bulunarak Azerbaycan'da petrol ve doğalgaz yatakları ve boru hatlarının korunması, Afganistan, Irak'ın kuzeyi ve diğer ülkelerde inşaat sektörü, gemi taşımacılığı yapan firmalara ve havayolu şirketlerine başarılı olarak güvenlik ve müşavirlik hizmetleri vermektedir. Bu görevlerde genellikle emekli veya istifa etmiş TSK ve Emniyet personeli görev almaktadır. Ancak sektörün hızla büyümesi ve bölgesel etkenler çok yakında iyi eğitim almış özel güvenlik personelinin de görev alacağı öngörülmelidir. Bu alanda dünya genelinde güçlü firmalar olsa da Türk firmalar hızla artmakta ve bu pazarda paylarını arttırmalıdır. Bunun en önemli sebebi ise Türkiye'nin çatışma bölgelerine olan yakınlığıdır.

Türkiye'de stratejik öneme sahip nükleer santraller ve uluslararası havaalanının korunması gibi kritik görevler için üstün eğitim almış ve donanımlı personele ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Bu personel ise sağlam alt yapısı bulunan eğitim kurumlarında yetiştirilebileceği için eğitim önem arz etmektedir. Bu konuda yüksek eğitim veren meslek yüksekokulu sayısı 41'dir. Bu sayı sektörün mevcut büyüklüğü ve gelecekte ulaşabileceği pazar payı incelendiğinde yetersiz kalmaktadır.

Hızla artan nüfus, kontrolsüz olarak ülke geneline dağılan dağınık göçmenler ve sığınmacılar güvenlik ihtiyacını arttırmaktadır. Suç ve suçlu profilinin hızlı değişimi ekonomik düzeyi iyi olan kişi ve kuruluşları tedbir almaya itmektedir. Çok yakın bir gelecekte geçmişte mahalle bekçilerinin yaptığı göreve benzer görevleri özel güvenlik personelinin yapacağı öngörülmelidir. Önümüzdeki dönemde Özel güvenlik hizmetlerinin ve oluşturacağı pazar payının Türkiye'de hızlı bir şekilde artması beklenmelidir.

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Project Management for Students From University of Agribusiness and Rural Development and Software for Its Application

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Abstract: In this article to present the schooling course of Project Management in University of Agribusiness and Rural Development - Bulgaria (UARD). Academic leadership of the university aims to introduce students to this new and promising discipline. Explained the key points in teaching Project Management. Emphasis is placed on training using free software for Project Management.

Keywords: Project management, Microsoft Project, OpenProj, ProjectLibre, Gantt, Project Network, WBS (Work Breakdown Structure), RBS (Resource Breakdown Structure)

JEL Class: A2,B4,C1,C6,C8,I2

1. Introduction

Project management is the discipline that is widely practiced in the training of many universities in the world. In UARD, Plovdiv, Bulgaria - the discipline "Project Management" is teaching from 2011, and is compulsory for most student courses. The training is in correspondence with project management's standard ISO 21500: 2012 "Guidance on project management". Except for bachelors, in 2014, such training is introducing also for the master programs. The same year and has such a master programs of UARD, Plovdiv.

2. Goal achievement

In contemporary conditions, the computer-management of projects is widespread and we can even say that is mandatory for world's leading companies and organizations. Bulgaria, as a member of the World Economic Area and now a full member of the European Union must be up to date both with the new realities in economic terms, and also in educational aspect. Studying the principles of project management, as well as their computerized support could greatly help the future activities of students, teachers and others parties which are involved in the business.

3. Project management in UARD

Project management is a choosing subject the curriculum of all specialties. The educational subject Project Management is also teaching by the students from the specialty Economics of the Tourism.

It is teaching in all educational forms: regularly, by correspondence, distance-type.

The hour pack for the subject is consisted by lectures – 30 school hours, practice 15 school hours, individual work 20 school hours. 75 school hours in total.

After successful completing the teaching course of the school subject, the student receives 4 credits.

The purpose of this school subject is to give the students basic knowledge and skills for efficient managing the different types of projects.

The lectures shows the basic steps of the setting up managing each project: developing a realistic plan of the project, planning the range, costs, and the time for developing, managing the developers team, risk management, controlling the implementation of the project and managing the communication and documentation.

In content of the subject is included also a practical part: working and using of tools for planning and project management, more precisely the products Microsoft Project 2007&2010 or ProjectLibre.

The expected results from the educational course of the successfully graduated students will be:

1. How to organize the work on a project ?
2. How to plan the costs, resources and the time for developing?
3. To consider the planning of their further projects with rest elements from the Project Management.

The students will can:

1. To develop a micro project on student level.
2. To use actively the learned software during dev loping their project.
3. To use the received knowledge not only in their future work, but also in other similar subjects.

The education as I said before is taken with lectures and practice in computers laboratories.

The lectures include two main parts. They treat the possibilities for implementing automation in the managing of projects.

The first parts treat some theoretical formulations concern basic moments from the theory for Project Management. The name of the first part is: "Main theoretical directions of project management "[13], [16].

The separate topics of the lectures are:

- Theme 1: Project management concept.
- Theme 2: Project life cycle and organization.
- Theme 3: Project Management processes.
- Theme 4: Integration management in projects.
- Theme 6: Project time management.
- Theme 7: Project expenses management.
- Theme 8: Project quality management.
- Theme 9: Project human resources.
- Theme 10: Project communication management.
- Theme 11: Project risk management.
- Theme 12: Project supplies management.

The name of the second part is: "Automated control systems project management ". The separated topics of the lectures are:

- Theme 13: Why ProjectLibre?
- Theme 14: Project planning.
- Theme 15: Project framework description.
- Theme 16: Project Completion.

After the lecture cycle ends, are following practices with the students, and the trainings are based on their business plans. After that the students are preparing a course work for Project management

The subject finishes with completing an exam, which starts with a test and ends with argument of the course work in front of the examiner.

4. Automation of Project management

After passing the theoretical course students pass practical one, using project management software. Initially, training was conducted using proprietary software -Microsoft Project. Subsequent to discussions with the students passed the open source software. Consistently over time it was OpenProj, but by 2015 ProjectLibre.

The basic moments while using the tools of Automation of the Project management and the possibilities which they can provide.

The product OpenProj was developed by Marc O'Brien, Howard Katz and Laurent Chretienneau in 2007 by Serena Software [3]. It moved out of beta with the release of Version 1.0, on January 10, 2008 [2]. As of early 2009 support for OpenProj and communication about development of OpenProj seem to have been suspended [4]. There has been no improvement in the past four years and it is not longer compatible with new versions of Microsoft Project and in particular there was good compatibility of new versions 2007 and 2010.

Recently, the original founders of OpenProj started to develop a complementary server for OpenProj, comparable to Microsoft Project Server for Microsoft Project. During development they realized, that the fact that OpenProj had not been updated anymore by Serena Software during the last four years will become problematic to their goal, so they needed to develop first an significantly updated version of OpenProj. This version was released as a fork called ProjectLibre in August 2012[4]. Source forge has issued a note that ProjectLibre <http://www.projectlibre.org> has superseded ProjectLibre and is the new replacement.

ProjectLibre project management software is an open source alternative to Microsoft Project [10],[11]. It has been downloaded in 146[5] countries the first month of release and was just voted "Project of the Month". ProjectLibre is compatible with Microsoft Project 2003, 2007 and 2010 files. ProjectLibre runs on the Java Platform, allowing it to run on a variety of different operating systems [1]. You can simply open them on Linux, Mac OS or Windows and if desired save results back.

A ProjectLibre is envisaged that in the future to moan could be used as an alternative to a cloud/server replacement of Microsoft Project Server.

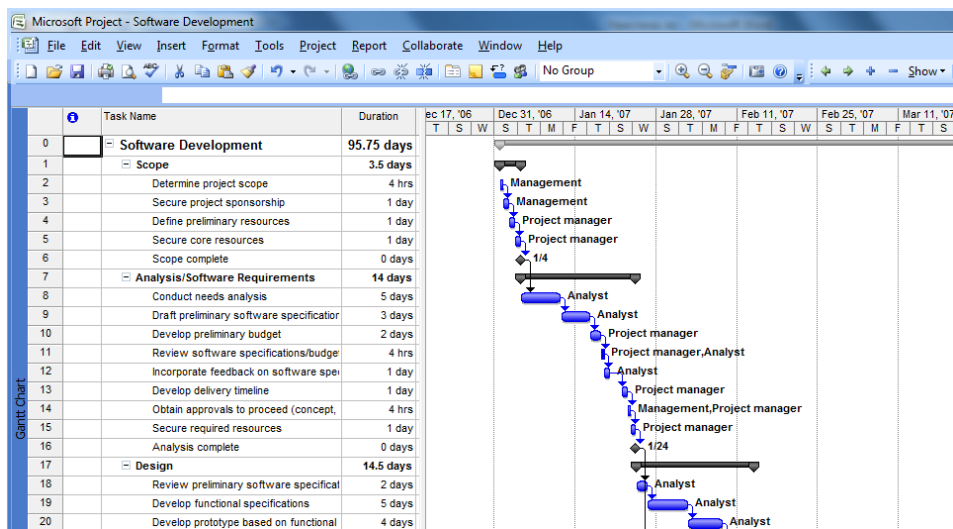
On the site of OpenProj / ProjectLibre can find various examples of projects. You can take advantage of opportunities to download, for each subproject that you remember, and the overall management of your business.

Working with the program is very intuitive and hardly difficult even people who are not engaged in project planning. From a technical point of view, we do not comment on the performance of the program.

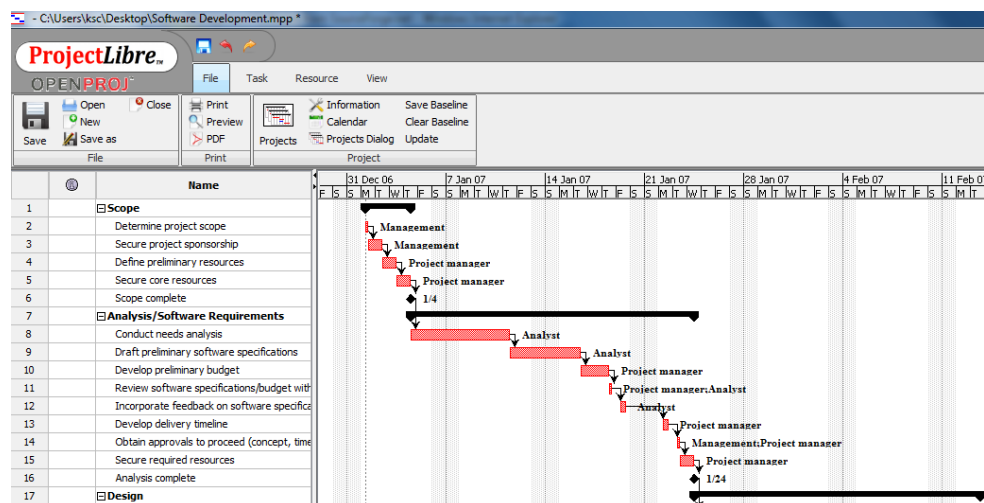
Example proximity of MS project 2007 (GRAPH 1) with ProjectLibre (GRAPH 2) is the design of the task solved with both product the conclusion is "it's the same." When comparing MS Project and ProjectLibre (GRAPH 1 and GRAPH 2) clearly visible large external similarities between the two products.

GRAPH 1 shows the Gantt chart for project implementation, it is used to test for compatibility option.

The most popular program in the field of project management is undoubtedly the package Microsoft Project [12],[15]. Microsoft Project is suitable for everyone it meets basic needs for project management and has a very large set of highly complex tools for collaboration and management. There is however one of its features, which certainly is not positive and this is the price - \$ 999. Naturally for such a price, one has to wonder if there is any other program with similar functionality that is compatible with MS Project and with a lower price. The answer is there and the price is so low that less cannot be - they are free.



Graph 1. Gantt chart of MS Project 2007



Graph 2. Gantt chart in ProjectLibre

What are the main differences in the two platforms of Project management, implemented on the basis of open and proprietary software, which also belong to the advantages / disadvantages comparing two packages?

- Application based on open source is free. Everyone would have loved to use the free software that is legally free, not pirated. In the case of ProjectLibre it is, and in the words of its creators, will always be free.
- Updates open source application is also free. This is a direct consequence of the philosophy of the license under which it is running these applications. Microsoft updates are also generally free, but they can make them pay when they want without due explanation to someone about it.
- Application code open source is outside the control of a single company. This makes applications independent of the current developers of these products and if the company disappears behind application code will be lost and the product can continue to live.

The application uses open source open standards. ProjectLibre file formats such as publicly documented, consistent and affordable [10],[17]. Many people do not understand what the advantage of file formats that are open is and their specifications are not known, but it is a great advantage in terms of transparency of what makes your computer data. It is also a great convenience for anyone who wants to create a product that is compatible with that format.

Now let's get to the actual comparison of the two software Project package.

Microsoft Project and ProjectLibre are two very powerful desktop applications for project management with the following features [4],[12],[14],[15],[17],[18]:

- Gantt chart. This is a bar chart that is used for project planning. It divides the design task into several subtasks and shows their relationship, start and end dates - GRAPH 1 and GRAPH 2.
- Project Network. It shows "pre", "next" and "intermediate" tasks in graphical mode. And called PERT chart. Is shown in GRAPH 3 and GRAPH 4. Again seen close to the same product of MS.
- Resources Chart. These are the entries for the available resources are listed to the right of the bars.
- WBS (Work Breakdown Structure). Component structure of the work. It shows the structure of subordination and systematic breakdown of tasks into subtasks.
- RBS (Resource Breakdown Structure). Resource breakdown or RBS is the categorization of resources according to different functions.
- Output. Microsoft Project and ProjectLibre offer several methods for tracking consolidated financial statements and for the use of tasks / resources

Note: In this article we are not given any figures with diagrams near, but above are analogous according to the authors of the article to those of GRAPH 1-4.

Some advantages of Microsoft Project:

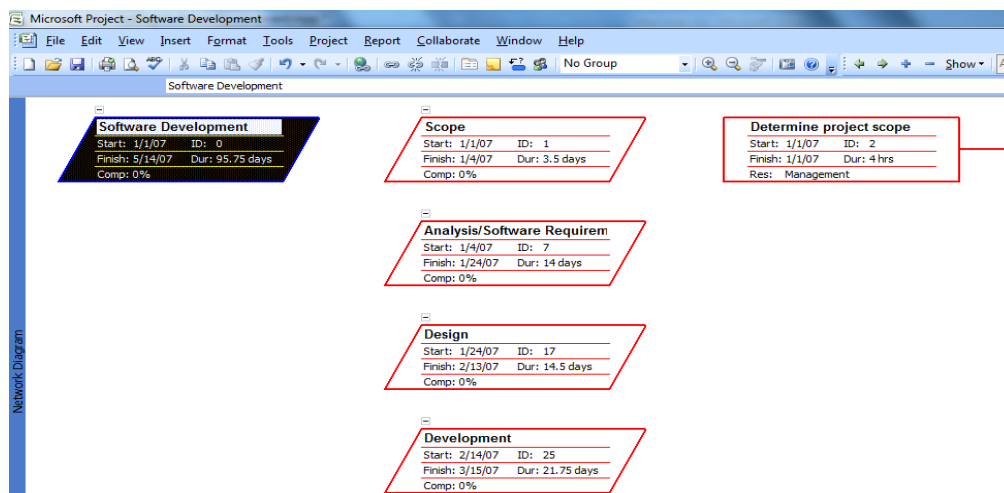
- Rich supporting documentation. Microsoft Project has a really good support documentation that is available both online and offline, so that learning is easy.
- Java is needed (debatable advantage). Unlike ProjectLibre, no need to install Java on your machine to run Microsoft Project.

Some of the advantages of ProjectLibre:

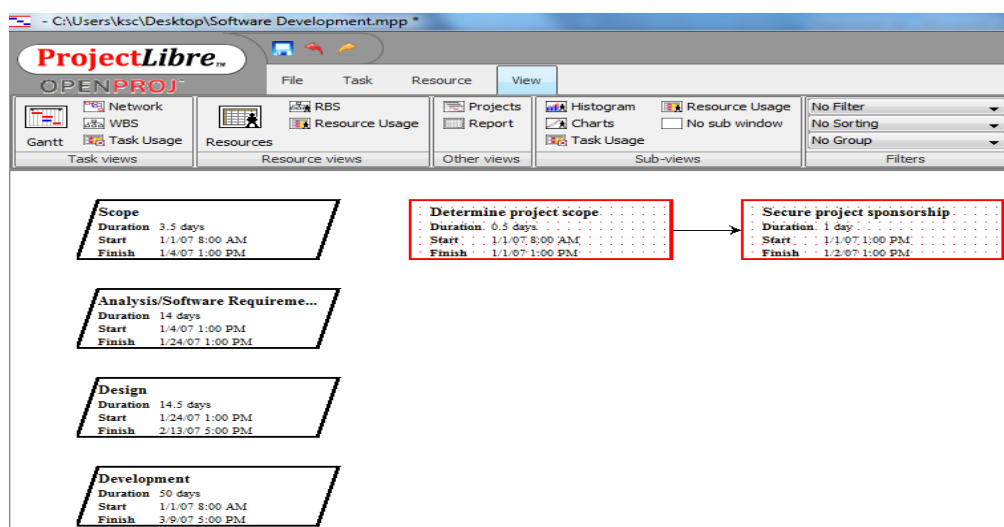
- ProjectLibre is a free software project management, so you will save \$ 700-1000.
- Easy to system requirements. In most computers and ProjectLibre and Microsoft Project 2007 & 2010 will go smoothly. In older computers ProjectLibre will have a significant advantage. Its minimum requirements are a Pentium 166 MHz and 128 Mb RAM, while Microsoft Project 2007 & 2010 are Pentium 450 MHz with 266 Mb Ram. Which is more important, ProjectLibre and will run Linux (and Solaris and BSD), and Linux runs much more efficiently than older computers running Windows 2000 or XP. This makes Linux ProjectLibre practical combination even for old computers.
- Independence of the operating system. Multiplatform. This is undoubtedly one of the biggest advantages of ProjectLibre. It is available for each architecture, the three major platforms (Windows, Linux, and Mac). It relies on its Microsoft formats, and many others. Own file formats are extremely effective and generally the same document is smaller than the format as MS format. By comparison, Microsoft Project 2007 & 2010 only supports its own formats and is available only for Windows.
- Usability, Training, Support. In general, anyone who has used MS Project 2003 & 2007 & 2010 will be feeling comfortable with ProjectLibre. Interfaces are almost identical, see. GRAPH 1 and GRAPH 2., even in ProjectLibre syntax is identical. You can think of migration as ProjectLibre

migration to Microsoft Project 2007 & 2010. While this is slightly different, but the concepts are the same.

- Part of Star Office. OpenProj by 2008 it was part of Star Office at Sun Microsystems; we assume a large percentage of security as its successor and ProjectLibre become part of the package.



Graph 3. Networking diagram of MS Project 2007



Graph 4. Networking diagram of ProjectLibre

Be asked "if there are other programs like ProjectLibre ?", can confidently answer "Yes" and such are Ganttter, Teambox, Rally Community Edition, FreedCamp and many others[4],[6],[7],[8],[9],[18].

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, we emphasize three things.

First, the differences between the philosophies of open and closed software mentioned in the beginning, is perhaps the most important argument in favor of this application. These are advantages which cannot be neutralized or removed, no matter how change its competitors.

Second, the flexibility of open source software should be used to implement partial least in the beginning, if possible overall migration. Many open source programs have versions for Windows. Using ProjectLibre under windows, it saves money, even windows have to be paid or otherwise. Sometimes a person just needs the specific commercial applications. But he does not have to use them on Windows. One can use commercial software, without having to pay extra for Windows.

The third thing I want to say is that financial arguments in favor of open source are far from the most important. Since so much of open source programs are free, some people it creates a false impression that these are decisions for poorer ones, and as such are incomplete. These people carry the logic of the material world, where it has no place. And since we're talking about higher education, I can say that even Harvard began steps for the introduction of open source software in their curricula (for we are not ungrounded - news can be found at http://news.cnet.com/8301-13505_3-9916323-16.html) and they all would agree, is certainly not suffering from a shortage of funds, so the example is quite telling, considering the topic of this report.

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Social Activity of Human Factor for Security and Defence

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Abstract: The research of the author is aimed at studying of the role of human factor for the security and defence and the factors determining its social activity according to the specifics of the security sector.

Key words: management; Management of human resources; social activities; security and defence; Human Resources for security and defense.

JEL: M10; M20; M50; H50; N56.

1. Introduction

The dynamic changes in the security environment characterized by the contradictory and, often, unpredictable nature of the risks and threats to humanity, represent a serious trial for the defense capabilities of the member countries of the Euro-Atlantic structures. The terrorist acts provoked by the actions of the Islamic State and the permanent threat of such acts, the migration flows that create conditions for a significant alteration of the habits and traditions of the Old Continent and its economic stability, the threat of spreading and instilling radical Islam, and the "redrawing" of state boundaries are the challenges that put to test the "great powers", the actions of politicians, and the public opinion.

And, if until recently the attention of the public was mostly occupied by the positive effects of a globalizing world, today more than ever it is necessary to focus the discussions on the negative ones and their impact on the national and international security. Moreover, along with the conflicts that in recent years have become, figuratively speaking, "constant" in nature, i. e. "conflicts in Afghanistan, the Middle East and North Africa, the asymmetric threats and mainly transnational terrorism, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, the organized crime, the illegal trafficking of people, weapons and drugs, the cyber threats, the demographic, energy and environmental issues, the risks of technical and natural catastrophes, etc. "[5] generate new risks and threats. These include cyber-attacks against social and economic institutions of strategic importance for the security, the so-called "hybrid war", not last the threat of World War III, the development and use of nuclear and missile programs beyond international monitoring and control.

Taking in consideration the abovementioned, the legitimate question is whether our country's defense capabilities, as part of the collective capabilities if the Alliance, are capable of protecting the territorial integrity of our country, of defending the national and international security, and of achieving Capability Targets 2013?! In order to answer this question, not only the factors of the security environment should be taken into account, but also environment and security imperatives, one of which is the people involved in defense. This means the human resources, i.e. the staff trained in readiness for the execution of missions and achievement of national goals [1]. Moreover, one of the priorities of the Development Plan of the Armed Forces of our country until 2020 is fill the shortfall in manpower in the declared military formations and those subject to certification as a contribution to the NATO collective defense in accordance with the agreed capabilities targets 2013 [13] . And here we face another question - Is this resource sufficiently motivated and what is its social activity, so that it can respond to the challenges of the dynamic changes in the security environment with the necessary professionalism, profile, combat capability and combat readiness? This is what has provoked our scientific quests, the purpose of which is the study of the role of human factor in security and defense and the factors which determine its social activity according to the specifics of the security sector.

2. Material and Methods

The starting point of the scientific research in this area is the slogan that first appeared in Japan and has since then enjoyed great popularity in the management theory and practice - "People decide everything." With their actions and skills, people are the most important key factor for the defense [4]. They are the factor that synthesizes and multiply the other components of the defense resources and thus turn them into a finished product in the process of planning the objectives for achieving a high level of combat readiness of the Armed Forces. This is supported by the fact that 2/3 of the cost of the defense department are related to the maintenance of personnel. Moreover, research shows that "70% of the world's wealth is constituted by human capital - the skills and knowledge of the people - and not by physical or financial capital. The strategy of many companies today is clearly guided by the idea of human resources, stressing on individualization, service and innovation "[7].

To put it in another way, the human resources are the people in an organization who, due to their professional and personal qualities, make it possible to achieve its strategic objectives. Along with the other resources, they should meet the needs of the organization and the way they are transformed into abilities predetermines the effectiveness of their use. This means that they – the human resources, together with the financial, material and information ones, appear a function, a subsystem and an object of management. The reason for this is that in terms of goal setting, they are a function of management. The implementation of accumulated scientific knowledge on general system theory, based on the systematic approach, while interacting with the other management subsystems, constitute them as a management subsystem. They are an object of management since, through the direct and reverse information links, they are subjected to management, to influencing in order for a certain result to be obtain. Hence the human resource management (HRM) is defined as "a system of principles, methods, means, norms, rules, criteria, standards, procedures, policies, plans and programs for the formation and use of human resources in the organization in accordance with its immediate interests and strategic objectives "[15,16]. Or, HRM is an activity resulting from strategic goals of the organization, which requires the implementation of the strategic management approach in making management decisions related to this resource.

It is in light of the foregoing and in accordance with the mission, goals and objectives of the Armed Forces, that the specifics of Human Resources for security and their management are defined. They, as a major factor in building of the Armed Forces, can be considered a reflection of the particular social relations in the interests of national and international security. That is why, in a rapidly changing environment that requires the Armed Forces to participate in various types of operations, the maintenance and development of defense capabilities adequate to these changes, more than ever necessitates the establishment of "an effective system of attracting, recruiting, training, preparation, motivation, retention, relief and social adaptation"[10] of human resources for the security and defence.

The input data for the research includes the Defence and Armed Forces Law (DAFL), strategic documents/publications, the Doctrine for human resource management in the AF, the "Concept for human resource management at the Ministry of Defense, the Bulgarian Armed Forces and the structures subordinated to the Minister of Defence," the "Plan for the development of the armed forces until 2020", the accompanying strategies

supporting the HR for the security, regulations and methodologies.

The general framework for HRM for defence in the security sector (legal, regulatory, social) is determined by the Doctrine for human resource management in the AF, which further develops the provisions of the "Concept for human resource management at the Ministry of Defense, the Bulgarian Armed Forces and the structures subordinated to the Minister of Defence" in accordance with the changes in the security environment.

3. Result and Discussion

Human resources for security and defence are the military personnel on active duty, the reservists and the civilian employees, with the exclusion of those appointed as civil servants under the Civil Servants Act and those employed in administrative structures under the Labour Act[6].

The effective management of human resources for the security and defense requires compliance with fundamental rules, and, according to the Capabilities Targets 2013, these fundamental principles are as follows [6]: predictability, which means synchronization of the HRM with the long-term strategic requirements and operational needs of the AF for human resources; integration whose viability is in integrating the HRM into a single framework that consolidates the planned strategic goals of the AF on the basis of fair and impartial treatment of staff; synchronization, which is expressed in the planning, organizing, and coordinating the HRM activities; information protection, which complies with the requirements for personal data protection, integrity and security of information; empathy, which is to ensure the recognition of the needs of staff and their satisfaction in reality; flexibility, on the basis of which HRM is to adapt to the changes in the security environment.

Those principles are the basis for achieving the required operational capabilities of the Armed Forces in line with the new realities as a direct expression of the needs of the defence system. And the satisfaction of these needs depends on the organizational changes, the modernization of weapons and equipment, the intensity of the action, the international cooperation and the individual characteristics. All this is within the scope of the management of defense processes, and achieving the goals of this management is a result of the activity of the human factor, perceived both as individuals and a team, and the relations of people in this team on the basis of self-awareness. [2,3] As a priority, the social nature of this activity necessitates the definition of the general and specific factors [8] for social activity of the human resources for the defence and security. Among the general factors the following should be pointed out: shared culture, which is important for the behavior of the human factor in the team; specific functional culture, which results from the behavior of the individual in the course of professional interactions; motivating factors, related to incentives and taking into consideration the interests of individuals in the team.

The specific factors of social activity include:

- the approach to management decision making, in which two elements take precedence: firstly, when ensuring the personnel participation in the execution of the decision and, secondly, when it is important to take actions immediately in order to achieve the respective goal within a tight timeframe.
- the approach to management communication, which in the defence system structures is often defined by the principle of one-man management and execution of orders and instructions that not always comply with specific conditions. What is of vital importance here is the management responsibility, manifested by the so called 'ruling five' [11], and illustrated by the fingers of the hand. This method provides answers to the following questions: more pressure (thumb); who is to blame (index finger); whose choice (middle); whose instructions (ring finger) and who controls (little finger).

Applying this approach to management communication is essential in the implementation of management decisions in the structures for defence and security, which very often have to be made according to the particular situation and whose implementation is the result of the contribution of each member of the team and their team interaction.

Achieving motivation of the subordinates sometimes determines the practice the questions of the ruling five to receive "face to face" [12].

Knowledge of and conformity with these factors for the social activity of the human factor in the structures for defence and security is the foundation of formation of leaders at all levels in the management hierarchy of the defence system (strategic, operational and tactical levels) with built leadership based on collective training and team activities [8]. This means the formation of the ability to: manage change by bringing together experts with different qualifications for the achievement of the

objectives; linking the objectives with personal interests; motivating highly efficient communication between specialists; merging collective and personal responsibility in the performance of tasks; optimal use of the skills of the participants in the team in correspondence to the nature and complexity of the tasks performed.

The implementation of the model for collective qualification reveals the potential both of the individual and of the team as a whole in achieving outcomes, united by the global goal. This, in leadership theory, is the core rationale for focusing "on the release of human talent and implementation the potential of the people" [14].

Adapting the model for collective qualification and team activities [9] allows the determination of the role and place of the human factor in the AF in terms of the dependency 'objective – results', as shown in Fig.1

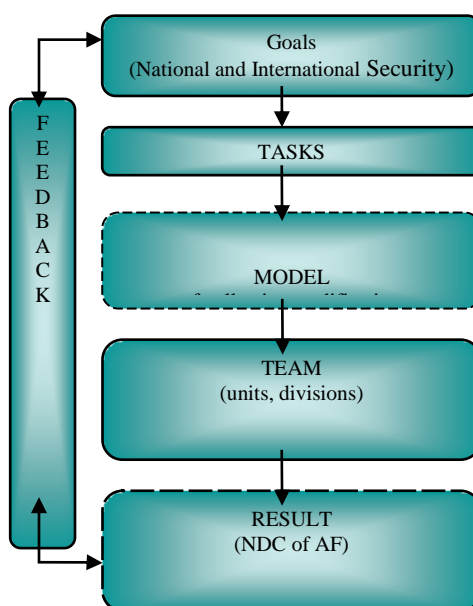


Fig. 1. Model of HRM for security and defence based on collective training

A specific feature of the defense and security system is the clear and unwavering reflection of the supremacy of society over the individual, the importance of the field manuals, discipline and strict hierarchy. The human resources (officers, sergeants, professional soldiers, civilians) involved in it, apart from being professionals, are also individuals consciously committed to responsibility and dedication to serve the community with their individual qualities. They are people with high education, qualifications and extensive international experience. At first glance, they do not create capital, but they ensure the stability of the established business capital. Their inclusion into society should be considered a factor that ensures the economic stability and national security.

This necessitates the formation of public evaluation and self-assessment of the internal army environment for human resources for defense and security that is both objective and motivating for their career development. Perceiving those human resources as individuals who possess managerial knowledge and skill and leadership qualities and who achieve the optimal combination between professional and personal interests is crucial.

It is appropriate that increasing the social status and achieving public recognition of the personnel employed in the defence system be accompanied by a set of actions that aim at overcoming the decrease of personal confidence and decline of the professional image. The transformation of defence structures aim at developing armed forces that are small in numbers, but modern and combat-ready. Simultaneously, they should be consistent with the planning, analysis and design of posts, recruitment, selection and assignment, induction, performance appraisal, training and career development,

remuneration management, safety and occupational health conditions, human relationships and the dismissal of personnel as functions of human resource management. The execution of these functions needs to be based on objective and explicit criteria, consistent with the quality, professionalism and expertise of the human resources for the defense and security. They are the ones who should be able to assess the risks and threats and to make management decisions informed by politico-military, economic and social point of view and adequate to the new defense capabilities. The presence of such criteria is directly related to motivating the human factor and raising its social activity. The underlying motivation is: the establishment of regulated profession "an officer at the strategic, operational -strategic and tactical levels of command" in accordance with Ministerial Decree 205 / 30.08.2012; raising of the social status and improving the quality of life of the people employed in defence structures; return of the investment in their training and focusing on retention on continuous service by raising the qualifications and education; opportunities for career development and advancement; social adaptation at the end of their career and preparing for adequate integration in the public-private sector of the economy. And all of the above complying with the principles of voluntariness, systematism, determination. Hence, the key fields for the role and place of the human factor in the management of defence resources are defined. These are as follows: creating an effective link between different levels of management of human resources for defence and security; establishing the management of human resources for defense and security as a strategic activity and determining the priority of management; clear definition of responsibilities in the implementation of operational and strategic objectives; delegation of powers to implement the strategy for human resources in the defence and security system; the establishment of key indicators and measurements for human resource management for defence and security; development of the capability for human resources management for defence and security with an emphasis on the formation of leaders at all levels of management in the defense sector and the development of leadership skills; implementation of a system for career development and succession planning through staff mobility and rotation; development of education and training programs that meet the real needs of the defence capabilities and creating conditions for informal training in order to form the necessary competences; implementation of a coordinating mechanism for accountability, monitoring, control and transparency of results; financial management and return of the investment in human resources for defence and security.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we believe that the human factor for security and defence appears central to the formation of defence capabilities. The social activity of the human factor is a major potential for the success of the defence activities in the security sector and a factor for the competitive advantage of the military department in the dynamic security environment, which necessitates the application of systematic and strategic approaches with clearly defined mission, vision, objectives and priorities consistent with the priorities in the development of the armed forces until 2020 and the Capabilities Target. It is the adapted model of collective qualification, allowing management by results based on qualifications and competence, that ensures achieving them.

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Ticari Taşımacılıkta Kullanılan Gemi Fiyatları ve Örümcek Ağı Fiyat Dalgalanmaları İlişkisi- Türkiye Örneği

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Özet: Dünyada gerçekleşen ticaretin taşınması ağırlıklı olarak denizyolu ile gerçekleşmektedir. Bazı kaynaklar, tüm ticaretin %90' ından fazlasının bu yolla taşındığını ifade etmektedir. Yani ticari deniz taşımacılığı ve en önemli unsuru olan gemiler, ekonomi açısından son derece önemli olgulardır.

Bir gemi inşasının tamamlanma süreci yaklaşık 18 aydır. Yani banda ilk girdiği tarihten, tersaneden çıkıp suya indirilene kadar geçen süre bir buçuk yıldır. Oysa taşımacılık talebi piyasası koşullarında kısa dönem kabul edilemeyecek bu sürede Gemi Arz ve Talebinde ciddi değişiklikler olabilir. Gemi suya indirildiği tarihte arz fazlası konumuna düşülebileceği gibi talebi karşılayamayacak konumda da kalınabilir. Bu yüzden zaten, imalat öncesinde taşıma anlaşmaları yapılmaktadır. Ancak önceki tarihli anlaşmalar çoğu zaman konjunktürün doğurduğu risklerin bertaraf edilmesinde yetersiz kalmaktadır. Zaman zaman ileri tarihli sözleşme iptalleri yaşanmakta, bir gemi tersaneden çıkarılmaz satılmak durumunda kalılabilmektedir.

Gemi arzının talebe hemen uyum sağlayamaması sorunu, akıllara gemi piyasalarının ne tür bir dalgalanma gösterdiğini getirmektedir. Bu soruya verilecek yanıt, denge fiyatının ve bunun ne kadarlık bir zaman alabileceğinin tahmini açısından önemlidir. Bu yanıt, aynı zamanda deniz taşımacılık şirketlerinin bilançolarına ve dolayısıyla da ulusal ekonomiye etkisi açısından önem kazanmaktadır. Çalışma, dikkat çekilen bu hususlar hakkında Türkiye özelinde bir analiz yapmaya yöneliktir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Deniz Taşımacılığı, Ticari Gemi Fiyatları, Cobweb Theory

The Relationship Between Commercial Ship Transport Prices and Cobweb Price Fluctuations: The Case of Turkey

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Anahtar Sözcükler: Deniz Taşımacılığı, Ticari Gemi Fiyatları, Cobweb Theory

1. Giriş

Global ekonomide tüketime yönelik mal ve hizmet akımları, çoğunlukla üreticiden tüketiciye doğru gerçekleşmektedir. Üretici zengin ülkeler, zenginliklerinin kaynağı olan mal ve hizmetleri, bir şekilde alıcılarına ulaştırmaktadırlar. Üretim gücü yüksek olmasa da hammadde kaynaklarına sahip olan coğrafyalardan da sözkonusu üretim üslerine bir akım sözkonusudur. İşte bu unsurların taşınmasında ticari deniz taşımacılığı, günümüz için de belirleyici bir rol oynamaktadır. Zira, dünyadaki ticaret hacmi her geçen gün büyümekte ve alışverişe konu olan mal ve hizmetlerin ulaşımında taşımacılık büyük önem

kazanmaktadır. Maliyetleri düşürmek isteyen üreticiler, ulaşımı da mümkün olan en kısa zamanda ve en az parayla gerçekleştirmek istediklerinden, gemicilik bütün dikkatleri üzerinde toplamış, alternatif kanallara göre üstünlüğü ile tercih edilen bir yol olmuştur.

Farklı taşımacılık modları olmakla beraber denizyolu taşımacılığı, dünyamız için en rasyonel seçenektir. Çünkü, yerkürenin neredeyse %75' i sularla kaplıdır. Bu yüzden hemen her coğrafyaya ulaşmak mümkündür. İklim koşulları aşırı zorlayıcı olmadığı sürece düz bir denizyolu hattı boyunca kimi zaman da kanallarla kısaltılan su yollarını kullanarak sağlanan deniz ulaşımı, zaman ve para tasarrufu sağlamaktadır. Bu yüzden dünya ticaretinin % 90' a yakın bir bölümü, denizyolu taşımacılığı ile gerçekleşmektedir (Tümertekin, 2005:514)

Gemicilik ve denizyolu taşımacılığı dünyada ve Türkiye'de sürekli değişim ve gelişim halindedir. Özellikle, son yıllarda su yolu taşımacılığının gelişimindeki en önemli faktör taşımacılıkta konteyner sisteminin keşfedilmiş olmasıdır. Böylelikle, yer kazancı daha fazla yükün taşınmasına imkân tanımıştır. Taşıma sistemlerinin gelişimi teknoloji ile de birleşince son 50 yılda yük taşıma kapasitesinde önemli artışlar sağlanmıştır. Kuru yük gemilerinin taşıma kapasitesindeki bu artış oranı elli yıl öncesine nazaran neredeyse 20 kattır.

2. Türkiye' de Denizyolu Taşımacılığı ve Ticari Deniz Filosu

Küreselleşmenin de etkisiyle dünya ekonomisi son yıllarda ciddi ölçüde büyümüştür. Bu büyüme denizyolu taşımacılığını da tetiklemiş ve hacmini önemli miktarda artırmıştır. Daha düşük maliyetle, daha hızlı ve daha emniyetli ulaştırma imkânı sağlayan denizyolu taşımacılığına ait son yıllarda gerçekleşen dünya geneline ve Türkiye'ye ait bazı rakamlar aşağıdaki gibidir:

Tablo1. Yıllar itibariyle Türk Deniz Filosu

Yıllar	Gemi Sayısı	Tonaj (Dwt)	Değişim (%)	Tonaj (Grt)	Değişim (%)	Dünya Sıralaması
1980	-	2032	-	-	-	35
1981	-	2696	17,5	-	-	34
1982	675	4105	74,7	2440	-	32
1983	726	4855	18,3	2890	18,4	27
1984	780	6051	24,6	3509	21,4	25
1985	802	5802	-4,1	3445	-1,8	24
1986	835	5234	-9,8	3182	-7,6	24
1987	821	5240	0,1	3172	-0,3	25
1988	830	4911	-6,3	2943	-7,2	24
1989	839	5123	4,3	3048	3,6	28
1990	868	5639	10,1	3356	10,1	28
1991	899	5968	5,8	3575	6,5	23
1992	954	6503	9	3887	8,7	22
1993	1012	8255	26,9	4843	24,6	23
1994	1050	8545	3,5	5093	5,2	19
1995	1143	10310	20,7	6239	22,5	17
1996	1179	10893	5,6	6622	6,1	16
1997	1197	10563	-3	6525	-1,5	17
1998	1204	9760	-7,6	6463	-1	17
1999	1242	10322	5,8	6778	4,9	18
2000	1270	9489	-8,1	6044	-10,8	18
2001	1261	9307	-1,9	6002	-0,7	20
2002	1185	8666	-6,9	5736	-4,4	19
2003	1152	7627	-12	5113	-10,9	20
2004	1209	7055	-7,5	4772	-7,1	23
2005	1379	7603	7,2	5229	-9,6	24
2006	1429	7271	-4,4	5083	-2,8	26

2007	1551	7269	-0,03	5194	2,18	22
2008	1649	7521	3,47	5658	8,93	18
2009	1722	8150	8,36	6139	8,50	17
2010	1777	8773	7,64	6502	5,91	15
2011	1832	9759	11,24	7092	9,07	15
2012	1879	10257	5,10	7496	5,70	15

Kaynak: Denizcilik ve Ulaştırma Bakanlığı Resmi İnternet Sitesi, erişim: 02.03.2016

Tablo 1’de de görüldüğü gibi Türk Ticari Deniz Filosu, küresel ekonomi ile entegrasyona da bağlı olarak sürekli bir gelişme halindedir. Sayısal nitelikteki artışla beraber gemilerin teknolojik gelişimi de benzer bir seyir göstermektedir. Ekonomik büyümenin istenilen düzeyde gerçekleştiği dönemlerde özellikle büyük tonajlı pek çok gemi, ticari filoya dahil olmuştur.

Konjonktüre bağlı olarak dünya genelinde ticari deniz filolarında da durum farklı değildir. Ekonominin daralma dönemlerinde, taşımacılık faaliyetleri de yavaşladığı için filolarda sayısal nitelik statik bir hal almaktadır. Ekonomik büyümenin artış gösterdiği dönemlerde ise filolarda gerek tonaj ve gerekse de sayısal açıdan ciddi artışlar kaydedilmektedir.

Dünya ekonomisindeki gelişmelere paralel olarak, bayraklara göre dünya ticari deniz filosu (300 Grt üzeri) 154 ülke bazında 39.932 adet gemi ile 888.000.000 Dwt’dur. (DWT: Dead Weight Ton). Dünya filosunun % 22’sine sahip Panama birinci sırada, % 9,4’üne sahip Liberya ikinci sırada ve % 6,2’sine sahip Yunanistan ise, üçüncü sırada yer almaktadır. Türk deniz ticaret filosu dünya sıralamasında tonaj olarak bakıldığında 1980-2006 yılları arasında taşıma kapasitesi 2 milyon DWT’den 7,2 milyon DWT’ye ulaşmıştır. Tonaj olarak Türk deniz ticaret filosu artış göstermesine rağmen, sıralama olarak zaman zaman dünya ortalamasının gerisinde kalmaktadır. Örneğin, Çizelge 1.1’de görüldüğü gibi 1996 yılında onaltıncı sırada iken, 2006 yılında yirmi altıncılığa kadar gerilemiştir (<http://www.ubak.gov.tr>).

Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu’nun verilerine göre 2011 yılında Türk dış ticaret taşımalarında ihracatın yaklaşık % 80’i ve ithalatın yaklaşık % 90’ı toplamda ise % 88’i (ithalat daha fazla olduğu için) denizyolu ile yapılmaktadır. Dış ticaretin çok büyük çoğunluğu denizyolu ile taşınmaktadır ancak taşıma faaliyetlerinin büyük kısmı yabancı bayrak siciline kayıtlı Türk gemileri ve doğrudan yabancı bandıralı gemiler tarafından gerçekleştirilmektedir. Yani Türk bayraklı gemilerin taşımacılık faaliyetlerinden almış oldukları pay azalmaktadır. 1995 yılında ithalatın % 42’si ve ihracatın % 39’u Türk bayraklı gemilerle yapılırken günümüzde bu oran ithalat için yaklaşık % 27 ve ihracat için yaklaşık % 21’dir. Buradan anlaşılmaktadır ki, yabancı sicile ve yabancı bandıralı gemilere çok yüksek rakamlarla Navlun bedeli ödenmektedir. Bu yüzden, navlun giderlerinin artmaması için filonun gençleştirilmesi ve devlete ait yüklerin taşınmasında ulusal sicile kayıtlı gemilere öncelik verilmesi yönünde adımlar atılması gerekmektedir (www.dtm.gov.tr).

Türkiye, limanlarından yeterli ölçüde yararlanamamaktadır. Korkmaz’ın (Korkmaz, 2012:105) 2012 yılında yapmış olduğu bir çalışma, Türk limanlarına giriş- çıkış yapan gemi sayısının ekonomik büyümeye etkisini ortaya koymaya yöneliktir. Buna göre, 2004-2010 yılları arasında Türk limanlarına ticarî amaçlı uğrayan gemi sayısının sanayi üretim endeksini ve toplam ticareti pozitif yönlü olarak etkilediği belirlenmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, ülkenin ekonomik kalkınması, küresel ticarete payının artırılması ve uluslar arası rekabette geri kalmaması için ulusal deniz taşımacılık filomuzun artırılması gerekmektedir. Bunun için de ticaretin gelişmesi ile beraber tersanelerimizin de geliştirilmesi bir zorunluluktur. Bu aynı zamanda istihdam sorunlarına da kalıcı bir çözüm bulmak demektir.

3. Örümcek Ağı Teoremi, Denge Fiyatından Sapmalar Ve Gemi Fiyatlarında Benzer Dalgalanmalar

Günümüzde egemen olan ekonomik model, bilindiği gibi liberal, kapitalist modeldir. Bu modelin varsayımı, piyasaların tam rekabetçi olması durumunda, ekonomideki karar birimlerinin tamamının optimal refah seviyesini yakalayabileceği ve tam istihdam seviyesinde üretimin gerçekleşebileceğidir.

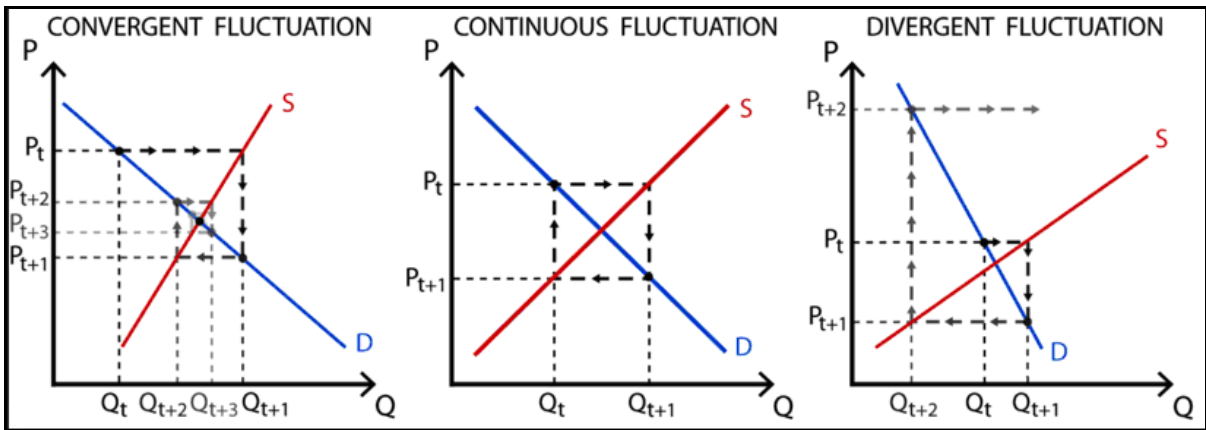
Rekabetçi tarım malları piyasalarında, ürün fiyatları ve üretim miktarları ile ilgili olarak sürekli iniş ve çıkışların olduğu gözlenir. Fiyatlarla üretim miktarları ters yönde olmak üzere bir yükselir bir düşer. Bu piyasalarda kısa dönemde istikrar bir türlü sağlanmaz. İstikrar ancak uzun dönemde sağlanabilir. Bu durumu açıklayan şekiller örümcek ağına benzediği için bu olaya Örümcek Ağı Teoremi adı verilmektedir (Parasız, 2003: 84)

Örümcek Ağı Teoremi (The Cobweb Theory) tarım sektöründe fiyat dışı bir nedenden bozulan denge fiyatları ile ürün miktarları arasındaki ilişkiyi inceler. Denge fiyatından bir defa sapma oldu mu, hep önceki dönem verileri ile hareket eden çiftçiler, bir sonraki döneme ekim yaparken aldanırlar ve yüksek kazanç sağlayan ürün üzerine odaklanırlar. Dolayısıyla, hasat döneminde, aynı güdü ile hareket eden çiftçiler yüzünden ilgili ürünün miktarında beklenmeyen bir artış olur ve bu da ürünün fiyatının beklenen düzeyin altında oluşması sonucunu doğurur. Çünkü miktarı, tahmin edilemeyecek kadar çok artan bu ürün, çiftçinin beklediği fiyattan alıcı bulamaz. Bu aynı zamanda ikinci bir yanlışlığın başlangıç noktasıdır. Çünkü beklediği fiyattan ürünü satamayan çiftçinin gelir beklentisi istediği düzeyde gerçekleşmeyince, bir sonraki dönem ekim kararında bu defa son işlediği ürünü terk eder. Yine görece yüksek kazanç sağlayan farklı bir ürüne odaklanır. Bu da, üretiminden kaçılan ürünün miktarında, bir sonraki dönem ciddi bir gerilemeyi beraberinde getirir. Miktarı bu şekilde şiddetli bir düşüş yaşayan söz konusu ürün tahmin edilenden çok daha yüksek bir fiyattan alıcı bulunca, yine ekim zamanında çiftçinin ilk ekim yapacağı ürünler arasına girer. Eğer çiftçinin toprağı bir ürün sepeti yapmaya elverişli değilse, riskin dağıtılması söz konusu da olamayacağı için bu dalgalanma azalarak ya da artarak devam eder.

Bu teori, tarımsal üretim miktarının kısa dönem içerisinde ürünün piyasada oluşan fiyatına uyum sağlayamamasını açıklar. Gerçekten de tarımsal üretimi, fiyat hareketlilikleri ile uyumlaştırma imkânı yoktur. Çünkü bir tohumun ürün haline gelmesi için uzun bir zaman gerekmektedir. Bu zaman neticesinde ortaya çıkabilecek üretim miktarı da tahmin edilebilir bir olgu olmadığı için, fiyatlandırmada sorunlar ortaya çıkar.

Ürünün fiyatı bir defa denge fiyatından saptı mı, fiyat dalgalanmaları başlar. Bu dalgalanmalar, kimi zaman artan oranlı bir yapı gösterirken kimi zaman da (genellikle) daralan bir yapı arz eder. Nadir olarak da eğrisel (bir kısır döngü biçiminde) bir yapı görülür. Bu dalgalanmanın yaşanabilmesi için en önemli koşul, fiyatı oluşan meta ile ilgili piyasanın rekabetçi bir yapı sergilemesidir (Samuelson, 1966: 443).

Dalgalanmalar zamanla daralan, şiddetini yitiren bir özellik gösteriyorsa, bu durumda azalan dalgalanma söz konusu olacaktır. Devam eden süreçte, belirli bir zaman dilimi sonrasında, piyasa tekrar denge fiyatını bulacaktır. Ters durumda, yani şiddetin artması halinde, denge fiyatından sapma giderek kontrol edilemez hale gelecek ve denge fiyatından artarak uzaklaşacaktır.



Şekil 1. Örümcek Ağı Teoremi (the cobweb theory)

Kaynak: <http://www.policonomics.com/cobweb-model/>

Şekillerde artan, azalan ve süreklilik arzeden dalgalanmalar görülmektedir. Kısa dönemde değişen talep koşullarına hemen arzı artırarak uyum sağlamak mümkün olmadığından, sözkonusu ürünlere ait arz- talep denge süreci yukarıdaki tarzda hareket arzeder.

Örümcek Ağı Teoreminin ortaya koyduğu dalgalı yapı, benzer bir şekilde gemi fiyatlarının oluşumunda da görülmektedir. Bunun sebebi, yine gemi miktarının değişen talep koşullarına anlık olarak uyum sağlayamamasıdır. Gemi sektöründe pazar, tıpkı tarım sektöründe olduğu gibi, kısa dönemde arz ve talep arasında uyumsuz bir yapı gösterir. Kısa dönemde değişen pazar koşullarına, gemi üreticilerinin ve gemi talep edenlerin uyum sağlaması mümkün olmamaktadır.

Gemi sektöründe pek çok farklı gemi türü bulunmaktadır. Yük taşımacılığında en çok tercih edilen türlerden biri konteyner gemileridir. Konteyner, yük taşımacılığında, Dream Box olarak anılan ve taşımacılığı çok farklı bir boyuta götüren önemli bir olgudur. Dünyadaki konteyner stoklarının büyük çoğunluğu deniz nakliyat şirketlerine aittir (Solmaz ve Saygılı, 2008: 5)

Gemi finansmanı da özellik arzeden bir yapıya sahiptir. Çoğu zaman birer proje kredisi olarak planlanan finansman süreci için bankaların ayrı birer departman oluşturduğu görülmektedir. Kredinin tahsisinden bitimine kadar yüksek bir risk sözkonusu olduğu için, bu tarz kredilerin değerlendirilmesi ve sürekli kontrolü, mali kayıp riskini minimize etmek için elzemdir. Hatta bazı kreditorlerin, krediye konu gemilere ortak olmaları bile sözkonusu olmaktadır.

Branch’a göre, serbest piyasa ekonomisi içindeki ülkelerin tamamında, gemi finanslamasının dört ortak özelliği vardır; (Branch, 2007: 296- 297)

- Sermaye Yoğunluğu:** Gemicilik endüstrisi en yoğun sermayeli endüstrilerden birisidir. Bir geminin faaliyet ömrü yaklaşık 15 yıldır. Ancak, gemi sahipleri piyasa koşullarını ve verimlilik şartlarını gözönüne alarak filolarını (gemilerini) 10- 12 yılda bir yenilemek isterler.
- Varlıkların Mobilitesi (Seyyarlığı, Hareketliliği):** Gemiler global olarak faaliyet gösterme potansiyeline sahiptir, bu nedenle farklı yerlere kayıtlı olabilir, işine gelen bayrağı taşıyabilir.
- Pazarın Oynaklığı (Volatilitesi):** Genel olarak gemicilik piyasası çok oynaktır. Özellikle, dökme yük piyasasında gemilerin fiyatları ve gemilerin günlük kazançları çok büyük değişiklikler gösterir. Bu durum, derin su konteyner gemileri için de geçerlidir.
- Çok Sınırlı Bilgi Vardır (Bilgilerin Kısıtlılığı):** Pek çok gemicilik işletmesi bireyler tarafından işletilir ve bu firmalar örgüt yapıları ve denetimden geçmiş muhasebe verilerini paylaşmak istemez ve yayınlamaz. Bu da, bankaların üzerinde çok durdukları ve güvendikleri geleneksel “Kredi Analizleri” nin yapılmasını zorlaştırır.

Bir geminin inşası için gerekli sürenin uzunluğu, talep edilecek kredilerin büyüklüğü, inşa sırasında yaşanabilecek fiyat dışı hareketliliklerin piyasaları etkileme gücü, sektörün arz ve talep dengesinin ne kadar hassas olduğunun önemli göstergeleridir. Bu durumda, denge fiyatından bir kere sapılmasının ne tür bir dalgalanmaya neden olacağının tespiti büyük önem arz etmez. Çünkü bu kadar önemli bir sektörde yasal düzenleme yapma yetkisine sahip olan kurumlar, piyasa yapısının artan dalgalanma yaşamasına izin vermezler. Zira bu, sektörün sonu anlamına gelir. İlgili kurumlar, gerek yasal düzenlemelerle ve gerekse de finansal çözümlerle, mümkün mertebe dalgalanmayı “Azalan” bir yapıya dönüştürmeye çalışırlar ve bunda da başarılı olurlar. Öyleyse gemi sektöründe önemli olan, denge fiyatındaki daralan dalgalanmaların ne kadar sürebileceğini ve hangi düzeyde yeni dengenin oluşabileceğini tahmin etmektir. Bu tahminin sağlıklı yapılması, ileri tarihli gemi siparişlerinin de daha sağlıklı kararlara bağlanmasını mümkün kılar. Böylece sektörde gemi arzı fazlasının önüne geçilebilir. Bu da armatör firmaların mali yapılarının korunması açısından son derece önemlidir. Elbette doğru sayıda verilmiş gemi siparişleri, kreditorlerin riskini de minimize edecektir.

Türkiye koşullarında bir geminin inşa süresi minimum 12- 14 aydır. Bu en küçük çaplı kuru yük gemisi için geçerli olan bir süredir. Diğer tür gemilerle beraber incelendiğinde, bir geminin inşası için gereken asgari süre 18 ay olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır(web.itu.edu.tr). Gemi inşa süresinin bu şekilde görece uzun olması, gemi arz ve talebi ile ilgili piyasada dalgalanmalara neden olur. Tarım sektöründe denge fiyatından

sapmanın temel nedeni, ürünün talebinde fiyat dışı bir nedenin etken oluşu ve fiyat dengesini bozmasıdır. Yurtdışından gelen bir talep artışı, mevsimsel değişiklikler, sözkonusu fiyat dışı nedenlere örnek gösterilebilir. Gemi fiyatlarında denge fiyatlarının bozulmasının temel sebebi de yine aynıdır. Özellikle konjonktürel ekonomik dalgalanmalar, dünya ticaret hacmindeki değişiklikler, dünya ölçeğinde ekonomiye yön veren ülkelerin büyüme rakamlarındaki sapmalar, gemi piyasasında denge fiyatından sapmalara yol açabilir. Tabii bu sebeplere, siyah kuğu olarak tasvir edilen, bölgesel veya küresel hiç beklenmeyen olayların da dahil edilmesi gerekir. Örneğin yaşadığımız coğrafyada gerçekleşen siyasi, politik ve askeri hareketler, ekonomik sonuçlar doğurmakta ve sadece gemi fiyatları değil küresel ölçekte tüm dünyayı etkilemektedir. O yüzden bu faktör ceteris paribus kabul edilebilir.

4. Sonuç

Çalışmada Türkiye’ de gemi arz ve talebinin yapısı incelenmiştir. Zaman zaman ortaya çıkan gemi arzı fazlalığının deniz taşımacılık şirketlerine verdiği zarar, sektöre getirdiği mali yük araştırılmıştır. Artan gemi sayısı hem gemi fiyatlarını etkilemekte hem de Navlun fiyatlarına etki etmektedir. Gemi arzı fazlalığı, gemi henüz inşa aşamasındayken de ortaya çıkabilir. Geminin ilk sipariş verildiği sırada bir arz fazlalığı sözkonusu değilken değişen koşullar, yapım aşamasındaki gemiyi arz fazlası haline getirebilir. Bu da, henüz sefere çıkmadan, inşa aşaması biter bitmez geminin ikinci el konumuna düşmesine neden olabilmektedir. Gemi, suya indirildiğinde el değiştirilmek durumunda kalmış olabilir. Hatta inşa safhasında geminin siparişinden cayılabildiği bile görülmektedir. Böylece daha inşa aşaması tamamlanmadan gemi atıl hale düşebilir. Taşımacılık sözleşme iptalleri ve bunun getirdiği ağır tazminatlar sözkonusu olabilmektedir. Bu çalışmada, son on yıllık zaman diliminde Türkiye de alım satım konu ticari gemi fiyatlarının seyir analiz edilmiş ve dalgalı yapısı ortaya konulmuştur. Böylece, ileriye dönük olarak bazı tahminler yapmak mümkün olabilecektir. Yani, gemi siparişlerinin daha sağlıklı bir şekilde verilebilmesi, arz fazlalığının azaltılmasının mümkün olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Azalan dalgalanmanın, hangi fiyat seviyesinde ve tahmini ne kadarlık zaman zarfında dengeye gelebileceği hakkında fikir yürütülebilir.

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Muhasebe Paket Programlarının Yönetim Muhasebesinde Kullanımı: Karşılaştırmalı Bir Araştırma

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Özet: İlk zamanlar muhasebe modülüyle sınırlı tutulan muhasebe paket programları günümüzde artık finansman, satın alma, personel, üretim vb. modülleri de kapsamaktadır. Firmalar ve özellikle yöneticiler verecekleri çoğu kararda doğru ve istediği an ulaşabilecekleri bilgilere gereksinim duymaktadırlar. Bunun için yönetimin gereksinim duyduğu bilgilerin çoğu firmaların mali verilerinin toplandığı muhasebe paket programlarından sağlanmaktadır. Çalışmamızın amacı da muhasebe paket programlarından elde edilecek raporları belirlemektir. Yapılan araştırmalar ile firmaların mevcut sistemlerinde kullandıkları muhasebe paket programların yönetim muhasebesi açısından raporlarının ve analizlerinin karşılaştırılmaya çalışılmıştır. Bunun sonucunda, elde edilebilecek bilgilerin her paket programda birbirinden oldukça farklı raporlama seçeneklerinin mevcut olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Muhasebe, Yönetim Muhasebesi, Raporlama, Muhasebe Programları.

Use of Accounting Software Packages in Management Accounting: A Comperative Study

Abstract: Accounting software modules which was limited only to accounting module in the earlier years, covers now financing, procuring, personnel, production etc. modules, as well. Companies and especially the managers require dependable information for desicion making. Due to this reason, most of the information required by the management is obtained from the accounting software modules in which financial data of the companies are collected. The aim of our study is to determine the reports to be obtained from accounting software modules. With the conducted researches, a comparison attempt has been made, in terms of management accounting, between reports and analyses of accounting package software which is used by the companies. As a result of this, it has been determined that the information to be gained have a lot of different reporting options in each package software.

Key Words: Accounting, Management Accounting, Reporting, Accounting Software.

1. Giriş

2000'li yıllarla beraber, tüm dünyada, her alanda çok büyük ilerlemeler yaşanmaktadır. Özellikle teknolojiyeleki değişimler inanılmaz bir hızla gerçekleşmektedir. Gelişen ve ilerleyen dünya ile birlikte büyük gelişmeler kaydeden muhasebe sistemi, yöneticilere rekabetin çok çetin olduğu bir ortamda önemli bir kılavuz olmaktadır. Muhasebe paket programları, firma verilerinin muhasebe fişlerine kaydedilmesini sağlayan ve sınıflama, raporlama ve analiz kapsamında muhasebeciye ve yöneticiye kolaylıklar sunan programlardır. Yönetimin gereksinim duyduğu bilgilerin çoğu firmaların mali verilerinin toplandığı muhasebe paket programlarından sağlanmaktadır. Rekabet hızla arttıkça ve teknolojik gelişmeler de çoğaldıkça kullanıcıların programlardan beklentileri de artmıştır. Yöneticilerin, verileri belirli bir düzende raporlama isteği programların gelişimini arttırmıştır.

Firmalarda kullanılan muhasebe paket programlarının yapılan incelemelerde birçok tezde araştırıldığı tespit edilmiştir. Ama şimdiye kadar yapılan araştırmaların daha çok durumu, işleyişleri gibi açıklayıcı bilgileri kapsadığı görülmüştür. Bu durumda paket programların yönetim muhasebesinde ne durumda olduğunun incelenmesi ihmal edilmiştir. Bu çalışmada firmaların bünyelerinde kurdukları; kimi tüm departmanlarla entegre, kimi sadece muhasebe departmanı verilerini takip eden muhasebe paket programların yönetim muhasebesi alanında verimliliği ve etkinliği analiz edilmeye çalışılacaktır. Çalışmamızın amacı da firma yönetiminin toplanan bu bilgilerden nasıl ve ne ölçüde yararlanabildiği konusudur. Firmanın yönetim muhasebesi açısından gereksinim duydukları bilgileri muhasebe paket programlardan elde edebilme durumları çalışmamızın amacını oluşturmaktadır.

2. Muhasebe Bilimi ve Muhasebe Bilgi Sistemleri

Muhasebe, bir ekonomik birimin parayla ifade edilebilen işlemlerin ilgili belgeleri toplandıktan itibaren kaydedilmesi, sınıflanması, özetlenmesi ve analiz edilerek yorumlandıktan sonra bu bilgiyi kullanacak olan ilgililere raporlar halinde sunulmasıdır(Erdoğan vd. 2014: 3).

İşletme ile ilgili mercilere gerekli olan bilgileri sunmak amacını taşıyan muhasebe, tanımda belirtilen fonksiyonlar gerçekleştirerek verileri bilgiye dönüştürmektedir. Bu vasfıyla muhasebe, bir bilgi sistemidir(Gürdal 2004: 91). Bir bilgi sistemi olan muhasebe, bilgi kullanıcılarının en uygun kararları almalarına etki edecek olan verilerin, toplanması, işlenmesi ve gerekli kişi ve kurumlara iletilmesinden oluşan bir süreci anlatır(Yazıcı, 2010: 203). Bilgi sisteminin ilk kullanılış sebebinin yönetim ile muhasebe arasındaki ilişkiden ileri geldiği iddia edilmektedir (Rom ve Rohde, akt. Yazıcı, 2010: 203). Muhasebe bilgi sistemi; örgütün planlamasına, ilerlemesine ve finansal durumun geliştirilmesine yönelik bilgi üretmekte (Bushman ve Smith, 2001) ve yöneticilere örgütleri için karar vermelerine yardımcı olacak bilgileri sağlamaktadır(Postolache, 2010: 55).

Muhasebe bilgi sistemi tüm örgütler için önemlidir ve büyük olasılıkla kar odaklı olan veya olmayan bütün örgütler muhasebe bilgi sistemine ihtiyaç duymaktadır(Soudaniakt. Soylutürk, 2014: 44).

Muhasebe Bilgi Sisteminde, veri veya bilgiler Girdi- İşleme-Çıktı sırasını izler (Gökdeniz, 2005: 87). Bu sıraya uygun olarak bilgiler veya veriler kurum içinden ve/veya dışından belgeler ile sisteme alınmakta, bilgi işlem ile kayıt edilmekte (işlenmekte) ve çıktı halini alarak raporlanmaktadır.

Muhasebe bilgi sistemi üç bölüm olarak ayrı ayrı olarak tanımlansa da birbirinden bağımsız olarak düşünülemez. Her bölümde birbiri ile bağlantılı olarak işlemleri yapmaktadır. Finansal muhasebe ile maliyet muhasebesi birbiriyle karşılıklı bilgi/veri alışverişinde bulunur ve birbirinden bağımsız olamazlar. Yönetim muhasebesi ise birçok verisini/bilgisini finansal muhasebeden almaktadır. Aldığı bu veri veya bilgileri yine maliyet muhasebesinden aldığı bilgi/verilerle birlikte tasarruf etmekte ve işletme yöneticilerinin kararlarında faydalı olacak yeni bilgiler üretmektedir. Muhasebe bölümleri arasında çok yoğun bir şekilde bir bilgi alışverişi vardır ve işletmenin kararlarında verimli ve başarılı olması için bu alışverişin düzgün, doğru, zamanında ve etkin olmasına bağlıdır. Muhasebe bilgi sistemini oluşturan fonksiyonları 5'e ayırabilmekteyiz. Veri toplama fonksiyonu, veri işleme fonksiyonu, veri yönetimi fonksiyonu, veri kontrolü ve bilgi üretimi fonksiyonudur.

Muhasebe bilgi sisteminin esas amacı geniş ve farklı bilgi kullanıcılarına muhasebe bilgisini sunmaktır. Bu bilgi kullanıcıları işletmenin yöneticileri gibi iç bilgi kullanıcıları olabileceği gibi alıcılar ve bankalar gibi dış bilgi kullanıcıları da olabilir (Wilkinson ve diğ. 2000: 8). Muhasebe bilgi sisteminin ana hedeflerini genel olarak beş başlık altında açıklayabiliriz (Anasız ve Bozdayı, 2007: 29,30); Harici Raporların Hazırlanması, Günlük Faaliyetleri Desteklemek, Planlama ve Denetimi Desteklemek, Karar Almaya Destek Sağlamak ve Yürütme ve Dâhili Kontrol.

Karar alma, alternatifler arasından seçim yapma olarak tanımlanabilir. Alternatiflerle ilgili bilgiler toplanır ve yöneticilerin kullanmasına uygun hâle getirilirse, en doğru kararlar alınabilir. Muhasebe bilgi sisteminin, önemli görevlerinden biri, işletmenin amaçlarına uygun, doğru kararlar almayı sağlayan ve basitleştiren bilgileri sağlamaktır (Kartal vd, 2013: 25). Kararlar alınırken muhasebe bilgisinden yararlanmanın sebeplerini üç grupta toplarsak; İlk olarak, diğer bilgi kaynaklarından farkı, muhasebe bilgisi önceden üretilmiştir ve istenilen zamanda kullanılabilirler. Böylelikle yöneticiler, başka bilginin araştırması ve hazırlanması yerine var olan muhasebe bilgisine daha kolay olarak ulaşıp kullanabilirler. İkincisi muhasebe, kararla ilgili olmayan ilgililere, ortak finansal dil olan muhasebe cümleleriyle kararların açıklanmasında kolaylık sağlayabilir. Üçüncüsü ise muhasebe çoğunlukla tarafsız, doğal ve güvenilir olarak algılanır ve bu da kararların alınmasında güvenilir bir kaynak sağlamış olur (Hall 2007: 14).

Yönetim muhasebesini, örgüt yöneticilerine, örgütün yönetiminde verecekleri kararlarda ihtiyaç duydukları bilgi ve verileri hazırlayan, yorumlayan, yıllık bütçe uygulaması ve iş programlarıyla kontrol imkanı veren sağlayan, muhasebe türü olarak tanımlamıştır (Şakrak, 1997: 14).

Institute of Management Accountants'a (IMA) göre "yönetim muhasebesi", yönetimin karar alma, planlama ve performans yönetim sistemlerine eşlik eden ve örgüt stratejisinin formüle edilerek

uygulamaya konmasında uzman finansal raporlama ve kontrol sağlayarak yönetimi destekleyen bir meslektir.” (Özdoğan, 2010: 28).

Yönetim muhasebesinin dört boyutu bulunmaktadır. Bunlar; kapsam, entegrasyon, toplama ve zamanlılıktır. Kapsam boyutu kısa dönem bilgi (iç odaklı, geleneksel muhasebe ile ilişkili) ve uzun dönem bilgi (dışa dönük, finansal olmayan ve geleceğe dönük) olarak değerlendirilir. Entegrasyon boyutu, bilginin ve herhangi bir kısımda alınan kararın diğer kısımların performansını hangi yönde, ne kadar etkileyebileceği ile ilgilidir. Zaman boyutu ise, yöneticilerin verilen kararların sonuçlarını daha iyi değerlendirmelerine olanak verir. Zamanlılık boyutunun raporlama sıklığı ve raporlama hızı olmak üzere iki alt boyutu vardır. Raporlama hızı yöneticinin bilgiyi istemesi ile bu isteğinin gerçekleştirilmesi arasındaki gecikme zamanı ile alakalıyken; raporlama sıklığı ise bilginin yöneticiye ne sıklıkta verildiği ile ilişkilidir (Bouwens ve Abernethy 2000: 224) .

Finansal (genel) muhasebe, maliyet muhasebesi ve yönetim muhasebesi muhasebe biliminin alt dalları olarak birbiriyle sürekli etkileşim, iletişim içerisinde. Bazı yönleri ortak, bazı yönleri ise birbirinden farklıdır. Yönetim muhasebesi finansal (genel) muhasebenin işlediği bilgileri kullanır. İşletmeye gelen finansal her resmi belge, finansal (genel) muhasebede sisteme kayıt edilerek, bilgi haline getirilir. Finansal muhasebe ve yönetim muhasebesinin ayrılacağı temel nokta, finansal muhasebede yer almayan ve finansal muhasebeden elde edilen verilerin, bilgilerin istenildiğinden diğer verilerle, bilgilerle birleştirilerek değerlendirilmesini hedefleyen yönetim muhasebesi analizleri ve analiz sonuç raporlarıdır (Yoruldu, 2009: 23). Finansal (genel) muhasebe, dış raporlamayı esas alırken, yönetim muhasebesi, yöneticilerin kullanacakları iç bilgileri hazırlamayı amaçlar. Finansal muhasebe kurallara bağlanmıştır, yönetim muhasebesi de işletme başarısının artırılması için gerekenleri işaret eder (Cokins, 2001: 73). Finansal muhasebe geçmiş bilgilerle ilgilenirken, yönetim muhasebesi geleceğe dönük olduğundan finansal muhasebeden farklıdır (Özkan, 2013: 155). Yönetim muhasebesi, maliyet muhasebe sistemi tarafından hazırlanan bilgilere genellikle ihtiyaç duyar. Örneğin fark hesaplamalarının yapılması ve bu farkların pozitif mi veya negatif mi olduğunun belirlenmesi maliyet muhasebesi tarafından yapılırken, bu farkların nedenlerinin analiz edilerek çözümlenmesi ve gerekli tedbirlerin alınması görevi yönetim muhasebesi tarafından yapılmaktadır (Elmacı, 2007: 16). Maliyet muhasebesi, üretim yapan örgütlerde bir dönemde maliyetlerin hesaplanması, ölçülmesi, kayıt edilerek sınıflandırılması; üretimle alakalı maliyetlerin satılan mamullere, elde bulunan ürünlere ve yarı mamul stoklarına aktarılması işlemleridir. Bu işlemler olmazsa, gelir tablosu ve buna bağlı olarak bilanço düzenlenemeyeceğinden dolayı, maliyet muhasebesi finansal muhasebenin bir alt kümesini oluşturur. Diğer bir açıdan maliyet muhasebe sistemi tarafından kayıt edilen veriler ve elde edilen bilgiler, yöneticilerin alacağı kararlarda ihtiyaç duyduğu bilgilerin önemli bir kısmını oluşturduğundan, yönetim muhasebesinin de bir alt kümesi maliyet muhasebesidir (Özdoğan, 2010: 37-38).

“İçe Dönük Muhasebe” veya “Analitik Muhasebe” adlarla da anılan muhasebe dalının ana amacı, işletme yöneticilerinin sağlam kararları verebilmeleri için ihtiyaçları olan sayısal bilgileri oluşturmaktır. Yönetim Muhasebesi, yöneticilerin işletmenin şimdisi ve sonrası için yöneticilerin vereceği önemli kararlarda elde bulunan verileri/bilgileri analiz ederek, doğru karar almalarına yardımcı olarak en önemli işlevini yerine getirmektedir (Büyükmirza, 1998: 16).

3. Rapor ve Raporlama Kavramları

Muhasebe raporları, örgütün muhasebe sistemi tarafından toplanan, kayıt altına alınan ve saklanan verilerin sistemli bir şekilde sınıflandırılarak bilgi haline çevrildikleri araçlardır (Arıkan, 1978: 32). Bu hazırlanan raporları kullanılarak işletme sermayedarları/yöneticileri işletmeyle alakalı kararlar alacaklardır. İşletme ile ilgili bilgiler işletme sermayedarlarına/yöneticilerine türlü değişik raporlar vasıtasıyla iletilmektedir (Ağca vd., 2013: 119-120). İşletmede olan önemli ve önemsiz ayrımı olmaksızın tüm bilgiyi önünde bulan ya da karar için gerekli olanı değil de hiç ilgisi olmayan bilgiyi bulan karar vericinin seçim yapmakta çok zorlanacağı gayet açıktır. Bunun için işletme içi (ve dışı) raporlama ile karar verme arasında çok sıkı bir ilişki vardır (Koçel, 2013: 132).

Raporlama ise; veriye ve/veya bilgiye erişme, onu şekillendirme ve örgüt içinde veya dışında kullanıma hazır hale getirme süreci olarak açıklanabilir (Yücel, 1986: 25). İşletmelerde raporlama sistemi finansal raporlama ve yönetim raporlaması olarak iki kategoride açıklanabilir. Finansal raporlama sistemi kısmında rapor şeklinde hazırlanan bilgiler kanuni olarak üretilmesi mecburi bilanço, gelir tablosu gibi raporlardır. Yönetim raporlama sistemi ise işletmenin yönetiminde gereksinim duyulan işletme iç kullanıcılarına yönelik olarak bilgiler üretir. Yönetim raporlama sisteminde üretilen bilgiler bütçeler, maliyet-hacim-kar analizleri, sapma raporları, maliyet verileri benzeri raporları içerir (Ağca, 2013: 13-14). Raporlama sisteminin temel özellikleri düzenli aralıklar, zamanında hazırlanabilirlik, anlaşılabilirlik, uygun sunuş, doğruluk, karşılaştırılabilirlik ve organizasyon yapısına uygunluk olarak sayılabilir (Yücel, 1986: 43; Arıkan, 1978: 34).

Raporları amaçlara göre farklı şekillerde kategorilere ayırmak mümkündür. Bununla birlikte, hangi kategori şekli seçilirse seçilsin bütün raporların ortak noktası işletmeyle ilgili kişi ve grupların bilgi gereksinimlerinin giderilmesine yönelik olmalarıdır (Yücel, 1986: 27). Bazı bilgilerinin hazırlanması yasal düzenlemelerle zorunludur ki bunlar işletme dışı raporlama ile; diğer bazı bilgileri ise işletme tarafından yararlı olduğundan dolayı ki bunlar ise işletme içi raporlar ile temin edilir (Yücel, 1986: 28).

İşletme dışı raporlar, finansal raporlama sisteminde hazırlanan rapor biçimindeki bilgiler kanuni olarak hazırlanması zorunlu olan bilanço, gelir tablosu gibi raporlardır. Bu tür raporların hazırlanmasındaki temel sebep, yöneticilere ve işletmeyle ilgili üçüncü kişilere/gruplara, işlerin nasıl gittiğinin belirtilmesidir. Bunun için bunlara “nasıl gidiyor?” raporları olarak da bahsedilmektedir. Bu raporları inceleyenlerin asıl amacı, rapordaki bilgiler altında işletmenin finansal etkinlikleri hakkında bilgilenmek ve işletmede aksaklıklar ya da hedeften ayrılmalar varsa bunları bulmaktır (Sevgener ve Hacırüstemoğlu, 2000: 431). İşletme içi raporlar diğer bir deyişle yönetim raporları, yöneticilere karar almaları için gerekli olan bütçeler, sorumluluk raporları, sapma analizleri ve başka özel amaçlı raporları hazırlayan bir alt sistemdir (Sürmeli, 2007: 203). Diğer bir anlatımla işletme içi raporlar, bir işletmenin yönetilmesi için ihtiyaç olan bilgileri hazırlar.

Raporlar, yöneticilerin karar almasında, planlamada ve denetim sürecinde aktif rol oynayan muhasebenin özetleme fonksiyonundandır. Bu rollerini gerçekleştirmek için raporlar, geçmişe yönelik bilgiden beslenerek doğru bilgi vermeyi hedeflemektedir.

Raporlar birçok kullanıcı için oldukça önemlidir. Örneğin, işletme hissedarları veya yöneticiler önemli kararlar alabilmek için güvenilir, zamanında ve doğru bilgilere raporlar aracılığıyla ulaşabileceklerdir. Bir de yöneticiler, geçmişte gerçekleşen performansla alakalı değerlendirme yapmak, şu anki durumunu izlemek ve gelecek ile ilgili planlar yapmak için bilgiyi özetleyen raporlara gereksinim duymaktadırlar. İşletmeye borç veren kredi kuruluşları, işletmenin mali yapısıyla ilgili bilgileri işletme dışı raporlar aracılığıyla elde edebilmekte ve devlette vergilendirme ve kontrol fonksiyonunu işletme dışı raporlarla sağlayabilmektedir. Raporlar planlamada, mamul veya hizmetler ile ilgili kararların alınmasında, karlılık ve maliyet hesaplanmasında ve performans ölçümlerinde, stratejik açıdan önemli kararların alınmasında, planlanan ile gerçekleşen arasında karşılaştırma yapılmasında, geçmiş yatırım kararlarının değerlendirilmesinde, gelecek yatırım kararlarının alınmasında, mamul, pazar ve satış ile ilgili kararlarda, fiyatlama ve vade ile ilgili kararlarda, tasfiye ve birleşme kararlarında, duran varlık alım kararlarında etkin bir şekilde kullanılmaktadır.

4. Muhasebede Paket Programları

Muhasebe paket programları, Tekdüzen Hesap Planının ana hesapları ve hazırlanacak yardımcı hesapları sayesinde muhasebe fonksiyonlarını gerçekleştiren, raporların hazırlanmasına destek olan programlardır (Ömürbek ve Bekçi, 2006: 78). Yazılım sektörü ilerledikçe ve muhasebe paket programlarının kullanımı ve önemi arttıkça, bu programları kullananlar için çeşitli kolaylıklar sağlanmış ve bu programlara yeni özellikler ilave edilmiştir. Programdaki modüller arasında ve kullanıcılar arasında entegrasyonun yapılması, tüm kullanıcılara internet üzerinden raporların transfer edilebilmesi, döviz kur bilgilerinin internet üzerinden güncellenebilmesi, birden fazla kullanıcı tanımlanabilmesi gibi yeni özellikler programların kullanımını kolaylaştırmaktadır (Aslantaş vd., 2007: 96).

Muhasebe işlemlerinde kullanılan LOGO, MİKRO, ETA v.b. olan birçok muhasebe paket programı piyasada bulunmaktadır. Görüntülerde bazı değişiklikleri haricinde taban yapıları aynı olan muhasebe paket programlarından biri öğrenildiğinde, diğer muhasebe paket programları da kullanmak kolaylaşmaktadır (Küçüksavaş, 2005: 179).

Teknolojinin olanakları işletmelerdeki muhasebenin yoğunluğunu azaltmada da kullanılmış ve muhasebe için paket programlar yapılmıştır. İşletmeler muhasebe için çoğunlukla hazır olan bu paket programları tercih etmektedirler. İşte bu muhasebe paket programların bazıları Eta, Logo, Mikro muhasebe paket programlarıdır. Piyasada kullanılan programlardan sadece Eta, Mikro ve Logo muhasebe paket programları incelenmiştir. Bu programları seçerken kullandığımız kısıtımız ise demolarına erişebilme olanağımız ve piyasada en çok olarak tercih edilen muhasebe paket programlarından olmalarıdır.

Çalışmada Mikro V15, Logo Tiger Plus, Logo Go3 ve EtaSql V8 muhasebe programları incelenmiştir.

Tablo:Muhasebe Paket Programların Sayısal Olarak Raporlar Listesi

ETA	LOGO GO3	LOGO TİGER PLUS	MİKRO
Stok - 21 adet Stok II - 42 adet	Stok - 48 adet	Malzeme yönetimi - 42 adet	Stok yönetimi - 107 adet
Cari - 36 adet Cari II - 45 adet Kasa - 18 adet Banka - 19 adet Çek/senet - 27 adet	Cari hesap - 26 adet Kasa - 3 adet Banka - 11 adet Çek ve senet - 7 adet	Finans - 83 adet Cari 23 adet Kasa 5 adet Banka 16 adet Çek/senet 8 adet	Finans yönetimi - 177 adet Cari hesap 30 adet Kasa 7 adet Banka 5 adet Çek/senet 43 adet
Fatura - 50 adet Fatura II - 14adet	Fatura - 29 adet	Satınalma - 54 adet Satış ve dağıtım - 102 adet	Satınalma yönetimi - 125 adet Satış yönetimi - 152 adet
Demirbaş - 7 adet	Sabit kıymet - 14 adet	Duran varlık yönetimi - 15 adet	Sabit kıymetler yönetimi - 14 adet
Muhasebe - 35 adet Muhasebe II - 44 adet Muhasebe IV - 13 adet	Muhasebe - 38 adet	Genel muhasebe - 61 adet	Genel muhasebe - 119 adet

Mikro V15 muhasebe paket programın stok yönetimi modülünde 107 adet, Logo Tiger Plus programının malzeme yönetimi modülünde toplam 42 adet, Logo Go3 programının stok modülünde 48 adet ve EtaSql V8'in stok modülünde 21 adet ve stok II modülünde 42 adet olmak üzere toplam 63 adet rapor taslağı mevcuttur. Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programının stok yönetimi modülünde diğer raporlarının içinde renk kırılımlı stok raporları, satış ve alış dağılım analizleri ile stok analiz raporları bulunmaktadır. Logo tigerplusta ise diğer raporlarının içinde abc analiz raporu bulunmaktadır. EtaSql v8 muhasebe paket programında ise diğer raporlarının içinde dövizli raporlar, depo ve parti raporlarını elde edebilmek mümkündür.

EtaSql v8 de cari modülünde 36 ve cari II modülünde ise 45 adet cari ile ilgili toplam 81 adet, Logo Go3 programının cari hesap modülünde 26 adet rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. EtaSql v8 kasa modülünde 18 adet, Logo Go3 kasa modülünde 3 adet rapor mevcuttur. EtaSql v8 banka modülünde 19 adet, Logo Go3 banka modülünde 11 adet rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. EtaSql v8 çek/senet modülünde 27 adet, logo Go3 çek/senet modülünde 7 adet rapor bulunmaktadır. Logo Tiger Plus programının finans modülünde 83 adet rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. Mikro V15 programının finans yönetimi modülünde 162 adet rapor ve 15 adet analiz bulunmaktadır. EtaSql v8 muhasebe paket programının diğer raporlarıyla birlikte cari modüllerinden dövizli raporlar, kefil listeleri; ; çek/senet modülünde ödeme raporları bulunmaktadır. Logo go3 muhasebe paket programının diğer raporlarıyla birlikte cari hesap modülünden adet raporlarına ve

taksit hareketleri raporlarına ulaşılabilir. Logo tigerplus muhasebe paket programının finans modülünde diğer raporlar birlikte döviz raporları, teminat raporları, kredi kartı işlemleri, kredi taksitleri raporları, leasing kayıtları listesi raporlarını elde edebilmektedir. Mikro 15 muhasebe paket programının finans yönetimi modülünde ise diğer raporlarıyla birlikte adet durum raporları, müşteri ve firma kredi kartları raporları, ödeme sözleri ve havale emirleri raporları, teminat mektupları ve depozito senetleri dökümü, hizmet raporları, masraf hesapları raporları, ithalat raporları, kur raporları kdv durum raporlarını elde etmem mümkündür.

Eta V8 fatura modülünde 50 adet ve fatura II modülünde 14 adet olmak üzere toplam 64 adet, Logo go3 programının fatura modülünde 29 adet rapor mevcuttur. Mikro V15 satınalma yönetimi modülünde 114 rapor ve 11 analiz, Logo Tiger Plus programının satınalma modülünde 54 adet rapor çeşidi bulunmaktadır. Mikro v15 satış yönetimi modülünde 137 rapor ve 15 analiz, Logo Tiger Plus programının satış ve dağıtım modülünde 102 adet rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. Etasql v8 muhasebe paket programının fatura modüllerinden diğer raporlarla birlikte dövizli raporları elde edebilmektedirler. Logo go3 muhasebe paket programının fatura modülünde diğer raporlarla birlikte finansal uygunluk analizlerine, satış elemanı performansına, en çok / en az satılan mallar listesi raporları elde edilebilmektedir. Logo tiger satış ve dağıtım modülünde diğer raporlarla birlikte çekli listesi, hizmet raporları, plasyer satış raporları, teklif, dağıtım, kampanya, paketleme raporlarını elde edebilmektedir. Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programının satış yönetimi modülünden diğer raporlarla birlikte satış şartları raporları, stok ve demirbaş sipariş raporları, fiyat değişikliği ve promosyon raporları, en çok / en az satılan ürünler raporları, taksit durum raporu, plasiyer raporları, hal için beyanname ve raporları temin edebilmektedir. Logo tigerplus muhasebe paket programının satınalmamodülünde diğer raporlar birlikte mal fazlası raporu, hizmet, sipariş, kampanya ve teklif raporlarını alabilmektedir. Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programının satınalma yönetimi modülünden diğer raporlarla birlikte stok ve demirbaş satınalma raporları, stok ve demirbaş satınalma şartları raporları, stok ve demirbaş sipariş raporlarına ulaşılabilir.

Eta v8 programının demirbaş modülünde toplam 7 adet, Logo go3 programının sabit kıymet modülünde 14 adet, Logo Tiger Plus programının duran varlık yönetimi modülünde 15 adet, Mikro v15 programının sabit kıymetler yönetimi modülünde 14 adet, rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. Etasql v8 muhasebe paket programının demirbaş modülünde diğer raporlarla birlikte demirbaş mizanı, amortisman defteri raporlarını elde edebilmektedir. Logo go 3 muhasebe paket programının sabit kıymet modülünde diğer raporlar birlikte sabit kıymet ve amortisman tabloları ve yeniden değerlendirme alınabilmektedir. Logo tigerplus muhasebe paket programının duran varlık yönetimi modülünden diğer raporlarla birlikte zimmet kayıtları, amortisman ve yeniden değerlendirme tablolarını alabilmek mümkündür. Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programının sabit kıymet modülünde diğer raporlarla birlikte yeniden değerlendirme raporları, amortisman raporlarını elde edebilmektedir.

Eta V8 programının muhasebe modülünde 35, muhasebe II modülünde 44 ve muhasebe IV modülünde 13 olmak üzere toplam 92 adet, Logo Go3 programının muhasebe modülünde 38 adet, Logo Tiger Plus programının genel muhasebe modülünde 61 adet ve Mikro v15 programının genel muhasebe modülünde 119 adet, rapor taslağı bulunmaktadır. Etasql v8 muhasebe paket programının muhasebe modüllerinde diğer raporlarıyla birlikte dövizli raporlar, miktarlı raporlar, masraf merkezi raporları ve kıymetli maden bildirimli listesine ulaşılabilir. Logo go3 muhasebe paket programının muhasebe modülünde diğer raporlarla birlikte masraf merkezi raporları, proje raporları ve bütçe raporlarına ulaşmak mümkündür. Logo tigerplus muhasebe paket programının genel muhasebe modülünde diğer raporlar birlikte masraf merkezi raporları, proje raporları ve bütçe raporlarını alınabilmektedir. Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programının muhasebe modülünden diğer raporlar birlikte birleştirilmiş şirketler bazında mizan, bilanço ve gelir tablosu elde edilebilmektedir.

5. Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bilgi, yönetim fonksiyonlarının esasını oluşturan, yönetim başarısını kolaylaştıran veya engelleyen oldukça önemli bir güçtür. Diğer bir açıdan bilgi “yöneticilerin karar vermesine yardımcı olan öğeler” dir. Globalleşen dünyada firmaların yöneticileri, rekabette üstünlük sağlayabilmek için bilgi kaynaklarından en üst düzeyde fayda sağlamak zorundadır. Yönetim düşüncesindeki değişimle bilgi, iş hayatının en önemli

stratejik silahı haline gelmiştir (Ağca vd., 2013: 126). Mekânsal uzaklığın ve sınırların ortadan kalktığı küreselleşme ile dünyamızda her geçen gün artan rekabet karşısında yöneticilerin doğru, zamanında ve verimli bilgiye olan ihtiyaçları artmıştır. Günümüzde en büyük rekabet bilgiyi kullanmayı bilmektir. İşletmeler bilgiyi kullandığı sürece başarılı olabilecektir. Gün geçtikçe artan bilgi ihtiyacı işletmelerde genellikle muhasebe raporlarından karşılanmaktadır. Bilgileri özetleyen raporlar işletme yöneticileri için bir rehber konumundadır. Bu durumda muhasebenin de ülke sınırlarına bağlı kalmayıp küreselleşmesine ve tüm dünyada kullanılan bir ortak bir muhasebe dilinin doğmasına sebep olmuştur. Bu durum, dünyada bulunan işletmelerin aynı dili kullanmalarını ve bununla birlikte birbirlerini anlamalarını da sağlar. Uluslararası Finans Raporlama Standartları ile sınırları olmayan, globalleşen muhasebe dilini oluşturmak hedefine ulaşılmaya çalışılmaktadır. Devletler ise uluslararası yakınsama (convergence) ile bu yeni muhasebe dilini öğrenmeye ve kullanmaya çalışmaktadır. Uluslararası Finans Raporlama Standartlarının yalnız uluslararası işletmeler için faydalı olduğu ve böyle işletmelerin Türkiye’de az olduğunu kabul edip standartları tercüme ederek sadece neler olduğunu görmemiz ama kullanmamamız ülkemizin dünyada yaşanan gelişmelerin dışında kalmasına neden olacaktır. Bu standartlar finansal raporların karşılaştırılabilirliğini ve şeffaflığını arttıracaktır.

Ülkemizde Yeni Türk Ticaret Kanunu’nun kabulü ile birlikte Türkiye Muhasebe Standartlarına uygun olarak hazırlanan tablolar işletmenin tüm ilgililerine daha anlaşılır, doğru ve şeffaf bilgi sunmaktadır. Ayrıca bu şekilde hazırlanan finansal tablolar Uluslararası Finansal Raporlama Standartları ile uyumlu olması işletmelerin globalleşen dünyada ortak dili konuşabilen, daha anlaşılabilir ve rekabet edebilirliği daha fazla olan bir pozisyon almalarına imkân verecektir. Bununla beraber Yeni Türk Ticaret Kanunu’nun kabulü ile Avrupa Birliği ile uyumun ve muhasebe ve raporlama standartlarının daha ilerlemesi sağlanmaya çalışılmaktadır (Menteş, 2009: 183-184).

Muhasebe programları elle hazırlanması çok uzun süre alan ve hatta imkân olmayan detaylı raporlamaya da olanak sağlamış, karar alıcılara ve muhasebecilere çeşitli olanaklar sağlamıştır. Firmanın yönetimi aşamasında yöneticilerin ihtiyaç duydukları finansal olan veya olmayan bilgilerin elde edildiği muhasebe paket programlarından elde edilebilecek raporların hangileri olduğu çalışmamızın amacını oluşturmaktadır. Bir çok muhasebe paket programı işletmelerin ihtiyaç duyduğu raporları istenildiğinde programlarına entegre edebilmesine karşın çalışmanın konusu muhasebe paket programlarda hazır olarak bulunan raporlar oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmada muhasebede kullanılan paket programlardan sadece Eta, Mikro ve Logo muhasebe paket programlarının modüllerinden elde edilebilecek raporlar incelenmiştir. Teknolojinin sürekli ilerlemesi, küreselleşme ve bilginin öneminin her geçen gün artması raporların önemini de arttırmıştır. Yönetimin karar almasında, denetimde ve planlamada gerekli ve yararlı bilgileri elde etmek için raporlar sürekli olarak gelişmektedir. Çalışmamızın sonucunda karşılaştırmaya dahil edilen Etasql V8, Logo go3, Logo Tiger Plus ve Mikro V15 muhasebe paket programlarından hazır olarak elde edilebilecek rapor format sayısı Mikro v15 muhasebe paket programında sayıca en fazla olarak bulunmaktadır. Tabii bu sayıca üstünlük nitelik olarak üstündür demek olmamakla birlikte bu durumda ayrıca bir çalışma konusu oluşturabilmektedir. İlerleyen zamanda yapılacak muhasebe paket programlarından elde edilebilecek raporların içerik (nitelik) olarak da analizi, raporların kullanım etkinliği ve verimliliği gibi çalışmalarda, yapılan bu analizin iyi bir zemin oluşturması beklenmektedir.

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Problems of Women in Working Life

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Abstract: It is a fact that women who works at agriculture and industrial sectors should be specially protected because of problems encountered. Women's employment is increasing year by year in the production area and this situation brings positive or negative effects on their health. In addition to the positive effects of working life like economic independence and self-confidence, long working hours and workplace physical conditions cause physical impairment. In addition to that, the male hegemony at management and women's specific health characteristics leads to psychological problems. Despite the increase in the number of women in employment, working environments are commonly structured for men's form and as a result of that, business conditions are made difficult for women that use the same tools and machines as men. Whole this reasons increase the work risk of female employees.

Keywords: female employees, employment, occupational health and Safety

JEL Codes: I15, J1, J7

1. Introduction

In Turkey, female labor force participation rate increased to 26% in 2009 and 30,3% in 2014 from 23,3% in 2004. Female employment also increased to 22,3% in 2009 and 26,7% in 2014 from 20,8% in 2004 (TUIK, 2014).

Muscle and joint system disorders are seen more in women who work in industries that require more physical force since work in such industries is heavier, and also in women who work in office works due to continuous immobility and spending a long time in front of computer. Their skeletal structure that is more susceptible is affected more easily. They also need to balance time and interest between their family and work. Since housework is more women-weighted, it puts another load on women. These cause stress and lead to psychological disorders in women. Chemical substances and dust in certain lines of work create a toxic effect and increase various dermatological disorders, birth defects and cancer more in women. Especially in industries that are women-intensive, work conditions are extremely hard. In agricultural industry, they are exposed to animal-borne diseases or allergic disorders due to various chemical substances and animal care.

Women also live with pregnancy and a menstrual cycle and go through a more stressful menopausal period than men, and this also leads to health issues.

Certain jobs and professions are not accepted by the society as suitable work for women, tasks are not distributed fairly, and certain discrimination examples are seen such as keeping wages low in shadow industry or dismissal of women first during crisis times. Women are intensified in traditional female professions only, and forced to work in lower-status and lower-wage jobs. Such jobs bring along fixed-term or temporary employment as well as social insecurity.

Female workforce is intensified in cheap-labor but labor-intensive branches of industry including textile, food, ready-made clothing and tobacco.

Most women in agricultural industry are unable to participate in social security system although there is no legal obstruction but because they work as a free family worker and therefore do not receive any wage, or because of low income.

The reason why women who can join work life have a short work life and are unable to build a career are the problems they encounter in reconciling their domestic and work life.

2. Risk Classes

Physical risks: Physical force of women is one-fourth less than men. Since women who work in industrial and agricultural works have lower professional knowledge, experience and educational level, strength and endurance, they are exposed to a greater risk.

Biological risks: Biological risks include various infections, allergies and contagious diseases caused by exposure to bacteria, parasites or viruses in work environments. Women are employed more especially in agricultural, textile and health industries. It is a known fact that lead, mercury, nickel and manganese have a toxic effect on reproduction. Studies demonstrate that such effects lead to preterm delivery and birth defects in women and also entail menstrual disorders.

Social risks: Since women cannot reach to status they wish to achieve because of “Glass Ceiling Barriers” (Kulualp, 2015), they are less effective in society and unable to participate in decision-making bodies. Glass ceiling barriers include many factors including lack of support of their spouse, maltreatment of top management, male-dominant business world, child care and domestic responsibilities, sexual harassment, income injustice, and fear of failure. Enforcement of laws on improvement and promotion of educational and work conditions for women is delayed. We also need to consider that women give birth to and mother individuals, and how determinant individuals are for family, environment and society, and how they can affect society either positively or negatively.

Economic risks: Families in which women are not employed will try to live on a single wage. They have a harder time in subsisting compared to double-waged families. Male who brings the wage will feel superior. He will consider woman as an element that looks after children and does housework only. Women who do not have economic independency cannot define themselves as sufficiently effective within society. These pose a risk to education and future of children.

Psychological risks: Since women suffer from physical or verbal harassment by their superiors or male coworkers in work life, it is quite natural for such humiliated women to be affected psychologically. Psychological disorders in women have a negative effect both in their work and family life. Such psychological disorders may lead to diseases or even to death.

“The main factor that affects women generally in social life and specifically in work life and makes us consider women as a risk group is the social gender roles formed under social sexist division of labor. According to such roles, primary area of responsibility for women includes birth-giving, child care and domestic work, which are called reproduction activities. Those responsibilities make it harder for women to participate in work life while women participating in work life somehow due to economic difficulties appear as a risk group due to responsibilities arising from both production and reproduction activities. Since women are assessed by such a social construction, it results in female labor to be considered secondary in work life and therefore it justifies their employment with low wages and under negative working conditions in a sense. Since women who face to various risks in work life are symbolized by fertility, risks related to their reproduction system are considered as risks of primary importance. The reason for this is that occupational risks having an effect on female reproduction system are not restricted to women only but their effects are transferred to future generations. Therefore, such risks mean a pledge on future of a healthy society” (Gokbayrak, 2016).

Some local meetings, workshops and seminars are organized on occupational health and safety related to women even though little in number.

Potential hazards and risks in work life are considered as factors threatening women as much as men. Although female labor force participation rate is low in Turkey, women can be employed intensively in many areas including service and cleaning, especially in textile-confection industry. In work life, women face to significant physical, biological, social, economic and psychological risk factors.

3. Conclusion

In this study we try to analyze the situation of women in business and the problems faced by women in the employment in Turkey. Generally it is seen that there are not shown diligence for women in employment. The laws about occurred problems and the faced risks are inadequate, though there is a pleasing increase in women's employment in recent years. Traditional structures must be changed in society and women can reach well-educate, receive vocational training and retraining and access to information technology should be provided for women's economic independence. As a result, it must be strength of women's economic achievements in working life, changed the approach of society to gender and it is necessary to generate new business policies that are specific to women for minimize business risks level of women.

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Productivity Effects of Privatization: Panel Study Evidence from Transition and Balkan Countries

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Abstract: We examine the relationship between various indicators of privatization and labor productivity. By exploiting a panel data set including the period 1989 to 2008 and 19 transition economies and using three labor productivity indicators and six privatization indicators, we test the hypothesis that privatization contributes to increase in productivity in transition economies. We identified a positive correlation between privatization and labor productivity. This finding is statistically significant and valid for three different productivity indicators and five different privatization indicators for transition and Balkan countries. Our results suggest that privatization increases productivity in transition and Balkan economies, controlling for other factors that may contribute to labor productivity. Our results also suggest that increasing share of the private sector via the channel of privatization may have positive impact on labor productivity.

JEL codes: F14, L12, P2, C2;

Keywords: Productivity, Privatization, Transition Economies, Balkan Countries, Panel Study

1. Introduction

Privatization has become an integral element of short term stabilization and long term structural adjustment policies implemented by many developing and transition countries since 1990's. Generally privatization policies are implemented simultaneously with the policies such as decrease in the level of interference of government to price mechanism, encouragement of free trade and free capital flow, and financial sector reform. Reforms aimed at reducing public sector deficit, increasing firm efficiency and productivity, and making domestic products internationally competitive (Brown, Earle and Gehlbach, 2009).

The ownership structure of the Eastern and Central European economies has changed rapidly and significantly with the breakup of the Soviet Union and the start of market-oriented reforms in many former socialist economies of Central and Eastern Europe. 60,000 medium- and large-scale enterprises were privatized during the 1990's, which was nearly 10 times the number of privatizations in the rest of the world (Havrylyshyn and McGettigan, 1999).

One of the aims of privatization in developing and transition economies was to improve economic efficiency and productivity by reducing the role of the state. Privatized firms are expected to inject new capital, make investment and lay off surplus labor whereby labor productivity and total factor productivity will improve (Kaufmann and Siegelbaum, 1994).

However, at the theoretical level, the relationship between privatization and productivity is ambiguous. Standard economic models of privatization imply that privatization can lead to increased competition and thus productivity due to improved entry of private enterprises into the economy (Brown, Earle and Telegdy, 2010). While the managers of publicly owned companies may run the their company according to political goals since they are accountable to politicians, managers of privately owned companies run their companies according to economic goals since they are accountable to their share holders. Moreover, public companies and firms would not be as productive as private firms due to corruption, political influence, and the lack of financing, capital, and market discipline (Dessy and Florio 2004; Gronblom and Willner, 2008).

However, privatization does not necessarily cause increased competition and productivity (Brojvatn and Soreide, 2005). Political preferences, privatization strategies, and the degree of corruption in the government level affect the outcome of privatization.

The government officials may design privatization process to maximize their benefit instead of the efficiency of the economy. Privatization under a corrupt regime may result in a highly concentrated industry structure and therefore reduced economic efficiency and productivity. Brojvatn and Soreide (2005) report that privatization process in Russia in the 1990s and many cases of privatization in South America resulted in monopolistic tendencies and very limited improvements in productivity.

Economic performance of the privatized firm depends on the personal commitment of the new owner to the efficient management of a privatized enterprise. Some forms of privatization may require the new owner to maintain certain levels of employment and/or to make specified investments in the privatized enterprise whereby the goals of privatization are to stimulate investment and to preserve employment. These methods of privatization may be associated with lower productivity in the post-privatization environment (Kaufmann and Siegelbaum, 1997).

There are several studies examining the impact of privatization on firm productivity in transition countries. Djankov and Murrell (2002) and Estrin, Hanousek, Kogenda and Svejnar (2009) reviewed the previous studies on the impact of privatization in transition economies. Djankov and Murrell (2002) reviewed the previous 23 studies in transition economies focused on the effect of product market competition on enterprise productivity and conclude that increased competition as a result of privatization is associated with raised efficiency in Eastern Europe (CEE) with but not in the former Soviet Union (CIS). Estrin et al. (2009) reviewed literature regarding the effects of privatization and ownership in transition countries. They detected 24 studies estimating the effect of ownership on labor productivity and conclude that the effect of private ownership is primarily positive or insignificant in CEE and the CIS, and mostly insignificant in China on the labor productivity. Estrin et. al. (2009) argue that their conclusions are richer and more nuanced, as well as more robust than those available to Djankov and Murrell (2002) since they focus on studies taking into account the endogeneity and selection issues associated with ownership and firm performance.

Earlier productivity analyses on transition economies are typically firm-level studies, rely on cross-section data or very short panels from a wide variety of sources, focus on the impact on company performance of different types of owners, and use different econometric methods from one another. Thus, they offer mixed evidence and do not offer an analysis based on sufficient long time series.¹

Recently, EBRD have started publishing Structural Change Indicators covering the period between 1989 and 2008 which provides us with five different privatization indicators. This data enable us to analyze the productivity effects of privatization using country-level variables, more privatization indicators, much longer time series, and more comprehensive coverage of countries than were available in earlier studies. Much longer time series may allow us to find stronger and more uniform finding since privatization takes several years to have an effect as strong owners take control and markets start to function as stated by Estrin et al. (2009). Also this data allows us to make comment on the impact of large private sector on labor productivity. Detailed discussion is given in section three.

Our findings point out a positive impact of privatization and increasing share of the private sector via the channel of privatization on labor productivity. This finding remains valid for three different productivity indicators. Hence, the results imply that privatization increases labor productivity in transition economies.

2. Empirical Framework

By using three labor productivity indicators and six privatization indicators, we investigated the impact of privatization on labor productivity in Transition Economies. The period under study is between 1989 and 2008 which is the period EBRD provides uniform data regarding productivity indicators with us. Our largest sample includes 19 transition economies.²

By using unbalanced panel data and a sample including transition countries, we estimate the following multivariate fixed effect (FE) model:

$$\text{Productivity}_{it} = \alpha_{0i} + X_{it}'\beta + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

And the following multivariate random effect (RE) model:

$$\text{Productivity}_{it} = \alpha_0 + X_{it}'\beta + \varepsilon_i + u_{it} \quad (2)$$

where

$$X_{it}'\beta = \beta_1 \text{GROSFIXCAP}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{OPENNESS}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{DOMCREDIT}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{AWWH}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{PRIV}_{it}$$

where it subscript stands for the i-th country's observation value at time t for the particular variable. All variables are in logarithmic forms. α_{0i} represents country specific factors not considered in the regression, which may differ across countries but not within the country and is time invariant. ε_i is a stochastic term, which is constant through the time and characterizes the country specific factors not considered in the regression. u_{it} is error term of the regression. All variables are in logarithmic form. The variables used in our analysis were chosen in the light of previous studies found in the literature (Djankov and Murrell, 2002; Estrin et al. 2009; Belorgey, Lecat, and Maury, 2004), data availability for panel study, and our main hypothesis.

Our dependent variable is labor productivity. We gathered and used different data sources of labor productivity indicators to evaluate the sensitivity of our empirical results. We used three labor productivity indicators of two different data sources (See Table 1). Results may vary depending on which productivity indicator is used. If the results hold across different productivity indicators, it will be an indication of their robustness.

Explanatory variables are as follows. The level of privatization (PRIV) in above models is represented by six distinct variables defined below in Table 2. Five of total six privatization indicators are gathered from EBRD while one indicator is collected from ILO; as such all available privatization indicators with long time series are used in our study.

We expect to have a positive association between productivity and PRIVREVENUE, PRIVEMP, PRIVSHARE, SMALL, and LARGE whereas a negative association is anticipated between productivity and POESHARE. While SMALL, LARGE, and PRIVREVENUE variables may be considered as real privatization variables, PRIVEMP, PRIVSHARE, and POESHARE are not really indicators of privatization variables and can be considered as proxy privatization variables. That is why, when making comments on the estimation results, privatization indicators can be divided in two groups: 1) SMALL, LARGE, PRIVREVENUE 2) PRIVEMP, PRIVSHARE, POESHARE. Positive coefficients on SMALL, LARGE and PRIVREVENUE variables tell us regarding positive impact of privatization on labor productivity. However, PRIVEMP, PRIVSHARE and POESHARE variables essentially say something regarding how large the private (or public) sector is. The private sector shares of GDP (PRIVSHARE) and of employment (PRIVEMP) include both privatized firms and de novo private firms, i.e. firms that were never state owned. This means that the source of an increase in the share of the private sector could be either the entry of new private firms³ or privatization, or both together. So these measures mix privatization and liberalization. Thus, positive coefficients on the private indicators and negative coefficients on the public indicators can be interpreted as "increasing share of the private sector via the channel of privatization have positive impact on labor productivity" or "increasing share of the private sector via the channel of the entry of new private firms, i.e. liberalization, have positive impact on labor productivity" or both. These two scenarios are observationally equivalent. Although results are the same, policy recommendation from these results would be different. This means that if the purpose of the authority is to increase labor productivity, then the authority faces two options. While the first option is to increase the share of private sector through privatization, the second option is

to increase the share of private sector through facilitating the entry of new private firms. In this case, the authority may prefer facilitating the entry of de novo private firms instead of rapidly privatizing State Owned Enterprises.⁴

The coefficient on PRIVREVENUE variable should also be carefully interpreted. Privatization revenue mixes the quantity of privatization with privatization methods. Some methods involves the selling or giving the shares to managers and workers of the firm with payment accepted in the form of vouchers, deferred payment arrangements or for free (management and employees buyouts), some methods involve the transferring shares of the enterprise to the general population for free or a nominal fee (voucher-based mass privatization), some methods involves the selling shares of the enterprise on the domestic capital markets (initial public offering), some methods involve the selling controlling shares of the enterprise to strategic investors (asset sale privatization), some methods involves the transferring shares of the enterprise to the managers of the enterprise and/or to high officials and politicians (spontaneous privatization), some methods place restrictions on what could be done with the assets or on investment or employment, and there are sometimes restrictions on foreign investor participation⁵. Thus, some of these privatization methods yields no revenue but creates private employment which is missed by privatization revenue variable.⁶ If the results hold across different privatization indicators, it will be an indication of their robustness.

We also introduced four more determinants of productivity into our analysis to see how robust our finding is:

GROSFIXCAP refers to the logarithmic value of gross fixed capital formation (percent of GDP) of the relevant country. The data come from World Development Indicators of the World Bank. The coefficient on the GROSFIXCAP is expected to be positive since investment in both human and fixed capital improves the labor productivity.

AWWH refers to the logarithmic value of average working week in manufacturing (in hours) of a worker in the relevant country. The data are from World Marketing Data and Statistics of Euromonitor International. The coefficient on AWWH is expected to be positive since an increase in the average weekly working hours increases the productivity of a worker.

OPENNESS refers to the logarithmic value of openness (namely, the ratio of imports of goods and services (current USD) plus exports of goods and services (current USD) to GDP (current USD)) of the relevant country. The data come from World Development Indicators of the World Bank.

We expect a positive relationship between OPENNESS and the labor productivity. Increased openness to trade may boost the labor productivity through improving investment in human capital, market size, and diffusion of more efficient production techniques.

DOMCREDIT refers to the logarithmic value of domestic credit to private sector (percent of GDP) of the relevant country. The data are from World Development Indicators of the World Bank.

Financial depth represented by GDP share of domestic credit to the private sector plays an important role in the determination of labor productivity. When banks provide funds for investment projects, they try to allocate resources efficiently and to select the most productive and innovative ones as far as they deal with imperfect information and adverse selection problems (Belorgey, Lecat, and Maury, 2004). Thus, the coefficient on the DOMCREDIT is expected to be positive in our model.

3. Estimation Results

Estimation results are reported in Table 3, 4, and 5 below for three different labor productivity indicators.⁷ Each Table has 6 models for 6 different privatization indicators. Tables also present Hausman test statistics for choosing between Fixed Effect and Random Effect models at the 5% significance level and proposed models by Hausman Test Statistics.

- 1) Estimation results by using labor productivity per person engaged in 1990 US\$ (converted at Geary Khamis PPPs) as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant (except SMALL variable) and take the expected signs. LARGE and PRIVREVENUE variables have consistently positive and significant coefficients, indicating that privatization process seems to increase labor productivity. PRIVEMP and PRIVSHARE variables have positive and significant coefficients while POESHARE variable has a negative and significant coefficient

Thus, positive coefficients on PRIVEMP and PRIVSHARE and negative coefficient on the POESHARE essentially tell us that an economy with larger private sector has larger aggregate labor productivity which may indicate that increasing share of the private sector via the channel of privatization can have positive impact on labor productivity.⁸

In regard to other variables in the model, the coefficient of the GROSFIXCAP variable is positive and statistically significant in all models except Model 3. Thus, investment seems to increase labor productivity in transition countries. The estimated coefficient of OPENNESS variable takes the expected positive sign and is statistically significant in all models but Model 1. The results support the proposition that trade openness is positively correlated with productivity. The coefficients on AWWH variable are positive and statistically significant in all models. It shows that the average working hours in manufacturing sector is positively correlated with the productivity of a worker. The coefficients on DOMCREDIT are significant and have expected positive sign in all models. This result indicates that domestic credit has a positive and significant effect on labor productivity.

- 2) Estimation results using GDP per person employed (constant 1990 PPP \$) as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant (except SMALL variable) and take the expected signs. The coefficients of AWWH and DOMCREDIT variables are positive and statistically significant in all models while the coefficients of GROSFIXCAP and OPENNESS variables are positive and statistically significant in all models except Model 3 for GROSFIXCAP and Model 1 for OPENNESS.

- 3) Estimation results using gross value added at factor cost (constant 2000 US\$) divided by total employment as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant (except SMALL variable) and take the expected signs. The coefficient of AWWH variable is positive and statistically significant in all models while the coefficients of GROSFIXCAP, OPENNESS, and DOMCREDIT variables are positive and statistically significant in all models except Model 3 for GROSFIXCAP, Model 2 for DOMCREDIT, and Model 1, 4 and 6 for OPENNESS.

4. Robustness Tests

As a part of robustness test our model without AWWH variable for Balkan countries.⁹ Our sub-sample includes 7 Balkan countries; namely, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, FYR Macedonia, Romania, and Slovenia.

By using unbalanced panel data and a sample including transition countries, we estimate the following multivariate fixed effect (FE) model:

$$\text{Productivity}_{it} = \alpha_{0i} + X_{it}'\beta + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

And the following multivariate random effect (RE) model:

$$\text{Productivity}_{it} = \alpha_0 + X_{it}'\beta + \varepsilon_i + u_{it} \quad (2)$$

Where

$$X_{it}'\beta = \beta_1 \text{GROSFIXCAP}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{OPENNESS}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{DOMCREDIT}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{PRIV}_{it}$$

where i subscript stands for the i -th country's observation value at time t for the particular variable. All variables are in logarithmic forms. α_{0i} represents country specific factors not considered in the regression, which may differ across countries but not within the country and is time invariant. ε_i is a stochastic term, which is constant through the time and characterizes the country specific factors not considered in the regression. u_{it} is error term of the regression. All variables are in logarithmic form.

Estimation results are reported in Table 6, 7, and 8 below for three different labor productivity indicators. Each Table has 6 models for 6 different privatization indicators. Tables also present Hausman test statistics for choosing between Fixed Effect and Random Effect models at the 5% significance level and proposed models by Hausman Test Statistics.

- 1) Estimation results by using labor productivity per person engaged in 1990 US\$ (converted at Geary Khamis PPPs) as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant and take the expected signs. The coefficient of OPENNESS and DOMCREDIT variables are positive and statistically significant in all models while the coefficient of GROSFIXCAP is not significant in all models.

- 2) Estimation results using GDP per person employed (constant 1990 PPP \$) as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant and take the expected signs. The coefficient of DOMCREDIT variable are positive and statistically significant in all models, the coefficient of OPENNESS is positive and statistically significant in only one model, and the coefficient of GROSFIXCAP is not significant in all models.

- 3) Estimation results using gross value added at factor cost (constant 2000 US\$) divided by total employment as dependent variable indicate that:

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant and take the expected signs. The coefficient of OPENNESS and DOMCREDIT variables are positive and statistically significant in all models while the coefficient of GROSFIXCAP is not significant in all models.

Thus estimation results for Balkan countries perform better than estimation results for transition countries in regard to privatization indicators.

For further robustness tests, 1) We re-estimated our models by using lagged variables to confirm the robustness of our findings 2) We re-estimated our models by including some time dummies that control for changing macroeconomic environment during the long period of transition. 3) We make distinction between Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) transition countries, and the CIS transition countries since these three regions have different trajectories to some extent. 4) We re-estimated our models by including regional dummies. 5) Besides three labor productivity indicators, we estimated our models using total factor productivity as dependent variable. Our main findings remain unchanged.¹⁰

Overall, our results indicate that privatization contributes to increase in labor productivity in transition and Balkan economies over the period 1989 to 2008. We would like to discuss our contribution relative to the past work at the country level; however we don't detect any past multi-country studies using country-level data like what we do on the relationship between privatization and labor productivity. On the other hand, we detect four multi-country empirical studies on the relationship between privatization and economic growth focusing on transition economies separately. Since growth and productivity are closely related, it may be useful to compare our results with results of those studies.

Zinnes, Eilat, and Sachs (2001) examined the relationship between privatization indicators (large-scale and small-scale privatization indices), the private sector share of GDP, the percentage of state firms privatized, and the private sector share of employment) and macroeconomic performance measures (real GDP per capita, foreign direct investment (FDI) per capita, FDI per unit GDP in 1989, and exports per unit GDP in 1989) in twenty-five transition countries. They found that privatization does not by itself but with

interaction with institutional reforms increase GDP growth. Estrin, Bennett, Maw, and Urga (2004) investigated the impact of different privatization methods on national economic performance in transition economies by using dynamic panel data methods and a growth equation over 23 countries for the period 1990-2001. They find that mass privatization has significant positive effect on growth across a wide variety of definitions and specifications especially after 1995, i.e., once the period of early transition and recession was over. Also they find GDP growth is significantly influenced by investment, employment growth and the growth of labor quality. Bennett, Estrin, and Urga (2007) examined the relationship between methods of privatization and economic growth in twenty-six transition economies by using GMM estimation method. They find that only voucher privatization to have been significantly associated with faster growth by estimating a cross-country panel growth model for 1990-2003. In regard to privatization variable they employ three time-specific dummy variables, SALE, VOUCHER and MEBO, each taking the value of zero in the years prior to privatization and the value of unity in the year of privatization and subsequent years in countries that adopted sale, voucher and MEBO privatization, respectively, in their model. Cieslik and Tarsalewska (2013) analyzed the empirical relationship between privatization, income convergence, and economic growth for transition countries using the open economy versions of two competing growth models and static and dynamic panel data estimation techniques. Their results indicate that only small-scale privatization is positively associated with growth. Our study contributes to studies on the relationship between privatization and economic growth by suggesting that privatization may stimulate economic growth thorough increasing labor productivity.

5. Conclusion

In addition to other determinants of labor productivity, this study examines the explanatory power of privatization. By using three labor productivity indicators and six privatization indicators, we test the hypothesis that privatization contributes to increase in labor productivity in transition economies over the period 1989 to 2008. The sample includes 19 transition and 7 Balkan countries. We identified a positive correlation between privatization and labor productivity. This finding is statistically significant and valid for three different productivity indicators and five distinct privatization indicators. Thus, the results suggest that privatization has a positive and significant effect on labor productivity in transition and Balkan economies, controlling for other factors that may contribute to labor productivity. Our results also suggest that increasing share of the private sector thorough privatization may have positive impact on labor productivity. Our stronger and more uniform findings than results of previous studies may be attributable to much longer time series we used since privatization takes several years to have an effect as strong owners take control and markets start to function as stated by Estrin et al. (2009).

Notes

- 1) To save space, we broadly state reasons of why different studies reached different conclusions and we do not overview them in detail. Besides Djankov and Murrell (2002) and Estrin et al. (2009) comparatively overview previous studies.
- 2) The sample includes the following countries: Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Ukraine. Availability of the long-term data for transition countries at the data sources restricted our sample with 19 transition countries.
- 3) If a transition country has a lot of entry of de novo private firms but a slow privatization effort, we would get large shares on the private indicators and a low share on the public indicators. Thus, positive coefficients on the private indicators and negative coefficients on the public indicators tell us that an economy with larger private sector has larger aggregate labor productivity rather than the impact of privatization itself. In this case, what really matters is the size of the private sector and not privatization per se.

- 4) The available data do not differentiate the source of enlargement of private sector such as privatization and the new entry. Further research should be conducted on this subject upon data availability.
- 5) See Kaufmann and Siegelbaum (1997) for the review of privatization methods implemented in transition countries.
- 6) Privatization quantity and methods could each matter. Ideally, we want to see the effect of each separately. However, the available data do not differentiate methods of privatization.
- 7) Note that numbers in Table 3 and 4 looks like similar. However, numbers differentiate generally after third digits due to dealing with log numbers. Since we only report until fourth digits, numbers in both tables looks like similar except column 1 in both tables.
- 8) On the other hand, if the increase in the share of private sector is due to the facilitation the entry of new private firms instead of privatizing SOEs, then positive coefficients on PRIVEMP and PRIVSHARE and negative coefficient on the POESHARE can be interpreted as increasing share of the private sector through the entry of new private firms, i.e. liberalization, have positive impact on labor productivity.
- 9) We exclude AWWH variable in order to increase the number of observations and countries. Otherwise, we have too little data to make robust estimation (4 countries and 51 observations).
- 10) To save space, these results are available upon request.

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Appendix

Table 1: Labor Productivity Indicators Used in the Study and Their Data Source

Labor Productivity Indicator	Data Source
labor productivity per person engaged in 1990 US\$ (converted at Geary Khamis PPPs)	The Conference Board and Groningen Growth and Development Centre, Total Economy Database
GDP per person employed (constant 1990 PPP \$)	World Bank, World Development Indicators
Gross value added at factor cost (constant 2000 US\$) divided by total employment	World Bank, World Development Indicators (Gross Value Added at Factor Cost) The Conference Board and Groningen Growth and Development Centre, Total Economy Database (Total Employment)

Table 2: Privatization Indicators Used in the Study and Their Definition and Data Source

Variable	Definition	Data Source
PRIVREVENUE	Privatization revenue (cumulative, in per cent of GDP)*	EBRD
PRIVEMP	Private sector share in total employment (in per cent)*	EBRD
PRIVSHARE	Private sector share in GDP (in per cent)	EBRD
SMALL	Index of small-scale privatization created by EBRD on a scale of 1 to 4.33, with higher numbers indicating higher levels of achievement in the effort to privatize small-scale enterprises.	EBRD
LARGE	Index of large-scale privatization created by EBRD on a scale of 1 to 4.33, with higher numbers indicating higher levels of achievement in the effort to privatize large-scale enterprises.	EBRD
POESHARE	The ratio of employment in publicly owned enterprises to total employment.	ILO

* Since some observation values of privatization revenue take the value zero, we add 0.1 to the all observation values in the variable in order to take the logarithmic transformation.

Table 3: Estimation Results Using Labor Productivity per Person Engaged in 1990 US\$ (Converted at Geary Khamis PPPs) as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	4.7596	5.0045	3.9126	3.9432	4.1840	4.1957
Standard Error	0.5937	0.5733	0.7367	0.5959	0.5966	0.5859
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	0.1834	0.5321	0.1050	0.3229	0.3610	0.3128
Standard Error	0.0718	0.0732	0.0661	0.0689	0.0697	0.0692
P-value	0.0114	0.0000	0.1143	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
OPENNESS	0.0661	0.2403	0.4463	0.1176	0.1903	0.1277
Standard Error	0.0607	0.0937	0.0530	0.0637	0.0675	0.0614
P-value	0.2773	0.0115	0.0000	0.0661	0.0052	0.0386
AWWH	1.0800	0.6592	0.9643	1.0466	1.0608	1.0546
Standard Error	0.1580	0.1691	0.1909	0.1597	0.1623	0.1589
P-value	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DOMCREDIT	0.0984	0.0536	0.1820	0.1594	0.1584	0.1541
Standard Error	0.0228	0.0311	0.0233	0.0226	0.0230	0.0226
P-value	0.0000	0.0869	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIVREVENUE	0.0595					
Standard Error	0.0094					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.2567				
Standard Error		0.0376				
P-value		0.0000				
PRIVEMP			0.3157			
Standard Error			0.0380			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.0995		
Standard Error				0.0350		
P-value				0.0048		
SMALL					0.0073	
Standard Error					0.0547	
P-value					0.8931	
LARGE						0.1555
Standard Error						0.0513
P-value						0.0027
Number of Observations	239	158	189	265	264	265
Number of Countries	19	17	17	19	19	19
R-squared	0.927	0.9525	0.772	0.599	0.589	0.601
Estimated Model	FE	FE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	24.207	27.401	7.097	8.686	7.4843	9.624

Table 4: Estimation Results Using GDP per Person Employed (Constant 1990 PPP \$) as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	4.7596	5.0044	3.9125	3.9431	4.1840	4.1956
Standard Error	0.5937	0.5733	0.7366	0.5959	0.5966	0.5859
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	0.1834	0.5321	0.1050	0.3229	0.3610	0.3128
Standard Error	0.0718	0.0732	0.0661	0.0689	0.0697	0.0692
P-value	0.0114	0.0000	0.1143	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
OPENNESS	0.0661	0.2402	0.4463	0.1176	0.1903	0.1277
Standard Error	0.0607	0.0937	0.0530	0.0637	0.0675	0.0614
P-value	0.2774	0.0115	0.0000	0.0662	0.0052	0.0386
AWWH	1.0800	0.6592	0.9644	1.0466	1.0608	1.0546
Standard Error	0.1580	0.1691	0.1909	0.1597	0.1623	0.1589
P-value	0.0000	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DOMCREDIT	0.0984	0.0536	0.1820	0.1594	0.1584	0.1541
Standard Error	0.0228	0.0311	0.0233	0.0226	0.0230	0.0226
P-value	0.0000	0.0869	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIREVENUE	0.0595					
Standard Error	0.0094					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.2567				
Standard Error		0.0376				
P-value		0.0000				
PRIVEMP			0.3157			
Standard Error			0.0380			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.0995		
Standard Error				0.0350		
P-value				0.0048		
SMALL					0.0073	
Standard Error					0.0547	
P-value					0.8930	
LARGE						0.1555
Standard Error						0.0513
P-value						0.0027
Number of Observations	239	158	189	265	264	265
Number of Countries	19	17	17	19	19	19
R-squared	0.927	0.952	0.772	0.599	0.589	0.601
Estimated Model	FE	FE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	24.209	27.399	7.097	8.687	7.484	9.625

Table 5: Estimation Results Using Gross Value Added at Factor Cost (constant 2000 US\$) Divided by Total Employment as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	3.8949	4.3849	3.2902	2.9581	3.2392	3.2274
Standard Error	0.6005	0.5619	0.7651	0.6274	0.6258	0.6154
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	0.1749	0.5074	0.0991	0.3106	0.3540	0.3005
Standard Error	0.0726	0.0718	0.0658	0.0705	0.0711	0.0706
P-value	0.0169	0.0000	0.1340	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
OPENNESS	0.0693	0.2220	0.4451	0.0939	0.1796	0.1033
Standard Error	0.0614	0.0918	0.0541	0.0668	0.0708	0.0639
P-value	0.2598	0.0170	0.0000	0.1614	0.0119	0.1073
AWWH	1.0304	0.5524	0.9057	1.0475	1.0501	1.0507
Standard Error	0.1598	0.1657	0.1994	0.1697	0.1720	0.1691
P-value	0.0000	0.0011	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
DOMCREDIT	0.0937	0.0471	0.1796	0.1428	0.1415	0.1370
Standard Error	0.0230	0.0304	0.0232	0.0232	0.0235	0.0231
P-value	0.0001	0.1245	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIREVENUE	0.0555					
Standard Error	0.0095					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.2648				
Standard Error		0.0369				
P-value		0.0000				
PRIVEMP			0.2953			
Standard Error			0.0379			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.1019		
Standard Error				0.0358		
P-value				0.0049		
SMALL					-0.0007	
Standard Error					0.0559	
P-value					0.9897	
LARGE						0.1640
Standard Error						0.0520
P-value						0.0018
Number of Observations	239	158	189	264	263	264
Number of Countries	19	17	17	19	19	19
R-squared	0.982	0.988	0.989	0.975	0.975	0.975
Estimated Model	FE	FE	FE	FE	FE	FE
Hausman-statistics	81.554	48.595	39.001	61.399	63.989	63.621

Table 6: Estimation Results Using Labor Productivity per Person Engaged in 1990 US\$ (Converted at Geary Khamis PPPs) as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	8.9192	9.5340	7.9541	7.3505	8.1874	8.7064
Standard Error	0.1835	0.2195	0.2022	0.2190	0.2258	0.1438
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	-0.0340	-0.0782	0.0909	-0.0856	0.0021	-0.0898
Standard Error	0.0679	0.0790	0.0759	0.0639	0.0721	0.0546
P-value	0.6177	0.3275	0.2346	0.1837	0.9765	0.1036
OPENNESS	0.1660	0.8707	0.3674	0.2676	0.2251	0.1961
Standard Error	0.0869	0.1549	0.0868	0.0724	0.0941	0.0685
P-value	0.0593	0.0000	0.0001	0.0004	0.0187	0.0052
DOMCREDIT	0.2214	0.0671	0.1847	0.2453	0.2579	0.2258
Standard Error	0.0256	0.0383	0.0261	0.0224	0.0297	0.0201
P-value	0.0000	0.0867	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIVREVENUE	0.0698					
Standard Error	0.0078					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.120862				
Standard Error		0.047979				
P-value		0.0152				
PRIVEMP			0.1931			
Standard Error			0.0346			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.4310		
Standard Error				0.0409		
P-value				0.0000		
SMALL					0.4647	
Standard Error					0.0663	
P-value					0.0000	
LARGE						0.4520
Standard Error						0.0340
P-value						0.0000
Number of Observations	99	56	88	106	107	107
Number of Countries	7	5	6	7	7	7
R-squared	0.9582	0.9747	0.9562	0.7951	0.6836	0.9697
Estimated Model	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	9.6874	7.2841	8.1556	453.6014	72.8007	10.4773

Table 7. Estimation Results Using GDP per Person Employed (Constant 1990 PPP \$) as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	8.9190	9.5338	7.9541	7.3504	8.1873	8.7063
Standard Error	0.1835	0.2195	0.2022	0.2190	0.2258	0.1437
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	-0.0339	-0.0782	0.0910	-0.0855	0.0021	-0.0898
Standard Error	0.0679	0.0790	0.0759	0.0639	0.0721	0.0546
P-value	0.6182	0.3278	0.2343	0.1839	0.9760	0.1038
OPENNESS	0.1660	0.8707	0.3673	0.2675	0.2251	0.1960
Standard Error	0.0869	0.1549	0.0868	0.0724	0.0941	0.0685
P-value	0.0594	0.0000	0.0001	0.0004	0.0187	0.0052
DOMCREDIT	0.2214	0.0671	0.1847	0.2453	0.2579	0.2257
Standard Error	0.0256	0.0383	0.0261	0.0224	0.0297	0.0201
P-value	0.0000	0.0867	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIREVENUE	0.0697					
Standard Error	0.0078					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.120864				
Standard Error		0.047976				
P-value		0.0152				
PRIVEMP			0.1931			
Standard Error			0.0346			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.4309		
Standard Error				0.0409		
P-value				0.0000		
SMALL					0.4646	
Standard Error					0.0663	
P-value					0.0000	
LARGE						0.4520
Standard Error						0.0340
P-value						0.0000
Number of Observations	99	56	88	106	107	107
Number of Countries	7	5	6	7	7	7
R-squared	0.9582	0.9747	0.9562	0.7951	0.6836	0.9697
Estimated Model	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	9.6877	453.6588	72.8010	7.2843	8.1560	10.4773

Table 8: Estimation Results Using Gross Value Added at Factor Cost (constant 2000 US\$) Divided by Total Employment as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Constant	8.0973	8.8083	7.3334	6.6200	7.4393	7.9036
Standard Error	0.3673	0.2227	0.3040	0.3310	0.2057	0.3319
P-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
GROSFIXCAP	-0.0641	-0.1170	0.0610	-0.1072	-0.0175	-0.1127
Standard Error	0.0651	0.0802	0.0734	0.0632	0.0723	0.0556
P-value	0.3271	0.1512	0.4080	0.0934	0.8089	0.0453
OPENNESS	0.1682	0.8450	0.3527	0.2477	0.2033	0.1975
Standard Error	0.0833	0.1572	0.0839	0.0717	0.0947	0.0697
P-value	0.0462	0.0000	0.0001	0.0008	0.0343	0.0055
DOMCREDIT	0.2170	0.0786	0.1839	0.2391	0.2458	0.2214
Standard Error	0.0245	0.0389	0.0253	0.0221	0.0295	0.0204
P-value	0.0000	0.0492	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
PRIREVENUE	0.0651					
Standard Error	0.0075					
P-value	0.0000					
POESHARE		-0.1176				
Standard Error		0.0486				
P-value		0.0196				
PRIVEMP			0.1689			
Standard Error			0.0336			
P-value			0.0000			
PRIVSHARE				0.4047		
Standard Error				0.0402		
P-value				0.0000		
SMALL					0.4212	
Standard Error					0.0658	
P-value					0.0000	
LARGE						0.4154
Standard Error						0.0346
P-value						0.0000
Number of Observations	99	56	88	106	107	107
Number of Countries	7	5	6	7	7	7
R-squared	0.7400	0.9909	0.7434	0.7863	0.9739	0.8074
Estimated Model	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	1.2520	1982.9596	4.9991	2.3860	100.6626	1.5273

Certificates of Deposit – The Unknown Instrument of The Money Market in Bulgaria

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Abstract: The questions about the nature and application of certificates of deposit in Bulgarian practice have not been developed extensively and in its entirety. There are primarily theoretical publications in academic textbooks or articles. This fact is explicable as one of the most common, liquid, low-risk financial instruments in the world do not have a place in the national currency market for quarter of a century.

What are certificates of deposit, what kinds are they, how to calculate the yield on them and how are they traded on the money market are just some of the questions the current article would provide with an answer. More importantly for our practice, however, is to seek answers to the questions: "Does deposit certificates have a place on the Bulgarian money market?", "What are the advantages for depositors and banks with their implementation?", and "What proposals can be made in theoretical and practical aspect to facilitate the acceptance and accounting of deposit certificates as securities?". The author strives to give her interpretation and vision on these matters in the current material.

Key words: banks, deposit certificate, fixed money deposit, future value; nominal value of the deposit certificate; annual interest rate on the deposit certificate; contractual term of the deposit certificate

1. Introduction

Deposit certificates are one of the oldest and most well-developed money market instruments in America and Western Europe. Its essence boils down to the possibility of the depositors in term bank deposits to be able to sell their money to someone else before the date of payment, and thus preventing yield losses of interest; also in certain circumstances to make a profit from the difference in market interest rates.

At the time of the totalitarian regime in Bulgaria, term deposits were not known and popular. For the first time they have been introduced in the country a bit after the 90s and have since remain one of the most popular investments for natural persons but also one of the safest investments for legal entities. The lack of alternative due to the underdeveloped capital market and low investment culture of the Bulgarians continue to rank savings to be done in banks notably through term deposits.

During the financial crisis, the interest rates on term deposits reached levels above 10% per annum and banks gathered significant resources from these investments. In case of violation of the promised period on the deposits, the credit institutions imposed a drastically low interest rates. Investors were not happy with this situation, but they had no chance to enter the money market and sell their deposits, as did their counterparts in the western countries. This is because in Bulgaria the market of certificates of deposit has not developed.

The purpose of this paper is twofold. On the one hand, the nature, types, profitability and ways of trading with certificates of deposit is summarised. On the other hand, by highlighting the advantages and disadvantages of some certificates of deposit, an analysis is offered regarding the possibility of their introduction into the Bulgarian practice as necessary short-term instruments useful both to depositors and the banks themselves. Before this, it is necessary to make a number of additions and clarifications concerning the nature and mode of trading in certificates of deposit, in their legal and economic aspects.

2. Emergence and Nature of Certificates of Deposit

Historically, the idea of the emergence of certificates of deposit (CDs) appeared in the 60s in America, and later was seen by banks in Western countries. The aim is to enable investors to profit from their own savings when buying and selling their term deposits on the money market. In the second half of the

twentieth century, new opportunities for investment emerge and more customers of the banks started to withdraw their deposits especially to request and redirect the money out of the credit institution. It is known that banks are joint stock companies that work with a foreign attracted capital and for them it is essential to maintain and increase their bank resources and not to allow customers to withdraw them. In an effort to offer something new and profitable the first banks, which apply certificates of deposit, are Citibank and First National City bank of New York. Although the idea of these instruments dated back to 1961, wider application takes place in 70s-80s when they begin to be traded secondary on the stock exchange. Their development in Japan was very dynamic although the first trade was launched in 1979.

Economically, the certificate of deposit is a certificate having a short-term character of securities issued by a bank or other financial institution and certifying that it has been made a fixed money deposit. Certificate of deposit is paid at maturity as it accrues interest, and when the depositor cannot wait for the deadline, he can sell it to another on the money market.

Deposit certificates can be to bearer or personal. Most often they are issued to bearer, as they are more convenient for trading in the secondary market. In Bulgaria, in 1992 in the adopted then Ordinance № 3 for payments it was stated that to the Bulgarian investors, upon request, may be granted a certificate of deposit, but only the bearer certificates are considered to be a security ones. They are usually short-term - up to 1 year as the most widely used are those from 90 to 270 days.

Interest rates on certificates of deposit shall be determined at the opening of the term deposit and are negotiated between the client and the bank. This rate depends on many factors, as the most important are: the state of the money market, demand and supply of fixed deposits, interest rates and yields on competing banks, financial condition and rating of the credit institution, the characteristics of the specific issue of deposit certificates etc. It is important to note that **once determined, the interest rate on these securities is valid for the entire period of time, i.e. until maturity**. Naturally, for prime clients the banks will provide interest rates higher than the average specific emission. The big, financially sound institutions issue deposit certificates with lower interest rates, i.e. the income from this investment is not as high as it can get when purchasing certificates from a small, unknown banks.

Certificates of deposit are highly liquid. They can be sold at any time on the money market and to take the profitability now or more precisely, to be collected amounts, which according to the factors influencing the market can not only be equal to the promised interest rate of the bank, but even larger.¹

Clearly, the certificate of deposit is a financial instrument derived from the term deposit, which has many advantages. The most important advantages of the certificates of deposit are:

- ability to be traded at any time on the money market thereby not to lose interest, as this may occur when there's a violation of the maturity deposit;
- high liquidity for the investor and the issuer;
- designed for institutional clients who buy them wholesale in large quantities;
- the purpose of having them is investment and the interest rate on them can be negotiated;
- secondary trading in countries, distinguishing between commercial and investment banking, as well as in Japan, is performed by specialized institutions - brokerage firms, discount houses and others.

Unfortunately, this market is not yet widely used in Bulgaria while in developed countries about 30% of all money market operations are carried out precisely with deposit certificates. The importance of certificates of deposit in the cash turnover of developed countries attests to the fact that the U.S. and the UK are part of M3.

¹ Robert W. Important Information about Certificates of Deposit, Baird & Co. Incorporated. Member NYSE & SIPC, 2009

3. Characteristics of The Deposit Certificates

The deposit certificate is a certificate having the character of a short-term security issued by a bank or other financial institution and certifying that it is made a fixed deposit of money. The deposit certificate is paid at maturity as it accrues interest, and when the depositor cannot wait for the deadline, he can sell it to another money market.

Deposit certificates may be to bearer or nominal. Most often are issued to bearer, as they are more convenient for trading in the secondary market. In Bulgaria, in 1992 in the adopted then Ordinance № 3 of the payments was recorded that the Bulgarian investors upon request to issue a certificate of deposit, but only the bearer certificates are considered to be a security. They are usually short-term - up to 1 year as the most widely used are those from 90 to 270 days.

The interest rates on the deposit certificates shall be determined at the opening of the fixed deposit and are negotiated between the client and the bank. This rate depends on many factors, as the most important are: the state of the money market, demand and supply of fixed deposits, interest rates and profitability of competing banks, financial condition and rating of the credit institution, the characteristics of the specific issue of certificates of deposit and etc. It is important to note that **once determined, the interest rate on these securities is valid for the entire period of time, i.e. until maturity**. Naturally, for prime banks will provide clients interest rates higher than the average defined for the emission. In this case is also true that big, financially stable institutions issue certificates of deposit with lower interest rates, i.e. the income from this investment is not as high as it can get when purchasing certificates from a smaller, unknown banks.

Deposit certificates are **highly liquid**. They can be sold at any time on the money market and be taken into account currently to the profitability or accurately collected amounts, which according to the factors influencing the market can not only be equal to the promised interest rate of the bank, but even larger.

Clearly, the certificate of deposit is a financial instrument derived from the fixed deposit, which has many advantages. Unfortunately, this market is not yet widely used in the country, while in developed countries about 30% of all money market operations are carried out precisely in deposit certificates.² The importance of the deposit certificates in the monetary turnover of developed countries is attested by the fact that the U.S. and the UK are part of M3.

4. Types of Deposit Certificates

Deposit certificates in the world can be grouped by various criteria. Their diversity also depends on the specifics of the money market in those markets.

The most important types deposit certificates are classified as follows:

- I. Depending on the period for which are issued they are:
 - **Short-term**, typically 3,4 and 6 month are the most widely used;
 - **Medium term** - 3 years. In some countries they are called savings deposits and with them only emissions are created, intended for individuals.
- II. Depending on the legal form of the investors there are:
 - **Certificates of deposit for individuals**
 - **Certificates of deposit for legal entities** - companies, pension and investment funds, and others.
- III. Depending on the registration holder they are:

² http://www.banking.us.hsbc.com/personal/deposits/OnlineCD_T&Cs.pdf

- **Certificates of deposit to bearer**
 - **Registered or personal deposit certificates**
- IV. Depending on the degree of risk and the financial condition of the issuer, in they vary:
- **First-rate deposit certificates:** They are issued by institutions with high ratings, which are in good financial condition. The interest rate on them however is not high.
 - **Second-rate deposit certificates:** they are issued from newly formed institutions with little capital whose purpose is to promote the market and attract more customers. So they give higher rates.
- V. Depending on the interest rate on certificates of deposit there are:
- **Certificates of deposit with fixed interest rate:** In these instruments agreed rate remains unchanged until the end of the maturity
 - **Certificates of deposit with a variable interest rate:** In these certificates, the interest rate on them is reviewed by the bank over a period of time or is calculated based on a floating basis such. LIBOR, BIR, etc.
- VI. Depending on the amount of the emission
- **Single deposit certificates**
 - **Serial deposit certificates**
- VII. According to the currency in which it is issued:
- **Certificates of deposit in local currency**
 - **Certificates of deposit in foreign currency**

Often are issued in the currencies of major market-oriented countries. Certificates for which the deposit currency is not local are issued anywhere in the world - Singapore, Hong Kong, USA, Japan. Most of these deposits are in dollars at banks in Europe, hence the name - Eurodollar.

5. Trade with Deposit Certificates

Deposit certificates are preferred as investment from both individual and institutional investors. One of the main advantages of these tools is the high liquidity, low risk and profitability, which in many cases is higher than the interest on fixed deposits. The opportunity at any time to be traded on the money market, as there the price of purchase is determined and therefore the return on them is an attractive attribute, acting from the moment of their occurrence.

Investors in fixed deposits often suffer from a breach of promise of time. For various reasons, depositors cannot wait for maturity and withdraw from the funds that have been left to fixed deposit. This leads to a distortion of maturity and a deficit in an insignificant interest rate, which sometimes, on an annual basis, is a hundred times lower than the annual interest rate promised. To be able to sell to another your own deposit without losing the profitability is a concept transformed in the deposit certificates that appeals to all depositors. So to this day, these financial instruments are much preferred on the money market.

The sale and purchase of a deposit certificate before maturity and calculation of return on it can be illustrated by the following example:³

EXAMPLE

³ See. Default. Assen, M. Financial Markets, Veliko Tarnovo, Faber, 2011, s.76; Videv S. For the money, interest and valuable knizha.S., 1992; Zvi Bodi, Alewx Kane, Alan J. Marcus Essentials of Investments. Fourth edition, McGraw-Hill, 2001

Commercial Bank "ABC" issues a deposit certificate to bearer to person "X", stating that the same person is put on fixed deposit for half a year the sum of 200 000lv. The annual interest rate on the deposit certificate was agreed at 15%. At the end of the fourth month, person "X" needs cash and decides to sell the certificate to someone else on the money market. At that time, the commercial bank offers fixed deposits at 10% annual interest rate. A buyer of the deposit certificate is person "Y", who prefers to buy from "X" the certificate instead of making a separate fixed deposit in the bank for two months. What is the maximum price at which "Y" may agree to buy a certificate of deposit from "X" and what kind of returns for the period to will the vendor "X" and the buyer "Y" have?

It is necessary first to calculate what value would receive the depositor if he waits for maturity. This value would have received any other certificate holder who offered it at the end of the period to encash in the commercial bank. The bank does not care how many times within the period the certificate will be bought and sold, and is interested in how this maturity will pay the one who presents it. The value will be obtained after 6 months that is why we look for the future value of money or FV - Future value.

$$FV = N.(1 + \frac{R.T}{100.360})$$

Where:

FV is the future value;

N - nominal value of the deposit certificate;

R - annual interest rate on the deposit certificate;

T - contractual term of the deposit certificate;

Therefore,

$$FV = 200000.(1 + \frac{15.180}{100.360}) = 200000.1,075 = 215000 \text{ lv.}$$

This shows that anyone who brings the certificate to the bank at the end of the 6th month will receive 215 000 lv.

In this case, the holder of the deposit certificate "X" cannot wait for maturity so he wants to sell on the money market. There is the buyer "Y", who generally has two options to proceed with the investment of his money. The first option is to go to commercial banks and to independently make a fixed deposit for two months on the market annual interest rate of the bank at this point, which is 10%. The second option is to get on the money market and there to buy from "X" the certificate of deposit, which term till maturity, is also two months. If the buyer "Y" chooses the second option, he should pursue such purchase price of the certificate, which would provide him an annual return not less than 10% for two months. Otherwise, it is more profitable to choose the first option - a bank deposit.

Buyer "Y" prefers to hit the money market and to buy a certificate of deposit from "X". For this, he must calculate what is the present value of the certificate, provided that the return, which he realizes for four months, is at least 10%. That is also what the maximum amount "Y" shall pay to "X" so as to achieve at least a return of 10%. Naturally, on the money market, "Y" may seek such purchase price of the certificate, which guarantees him an annual return higher than 10%.

$$PV = \frac{FV}{(1 + \frac{r.t}{100.360})}$$

where:

PV is the present value of future cash flow from a deposit certificate;

FV - future value of the deposit certificate;

r - the current annual interest rate;

t - number of remaining days from the sale to maturity (residual maturity).

Substituting in the formula, we get:

$$PV = \frac{215000}{\left(1 + \frac{10.60}{100.360}\right)} = \frac{215000}{1.0166} = 211489,27 \text{ lv.}$$

The amount of 201 688, 55lv. shows that this is the maximum value "Y" is to pay "X" to realize two months an annual return from 10%.

It is possible that on the money market "Y" to say to "X" that the bank gives him an annual interest rate on fixed deposit equal to 10% and therefore if he buys a certificate of deposit from "X", he wants to realize a higher return. In this case "Y" should seek a price lower than 201 688.55 lv.

Let's look at the next step, namely, what is the financial impact or the profitability for vendor "X" and the buyer "Y" of the deposit certificate?

Annual return for the first holder "X"

The formula for calculation of the profitability of the first holder of the certificate "X" is the following:

$$d_x = \frac{(PV - N).100.360}{N.(T - t)}$$

where:

d_x is return of the first holder of the deposit certificate "X" for the holding period

$(T - t)$ - holding period of the first holder "X"

$$d_x = \frac{(211489,27 - 200000).100.360}{200000.(180 - 60)} = 17,23\%$$

This result indicates that the first holder "X" for the four months of holding realizes annual return much higher than that of the deposit certificate. Bank promises 15%, and he realizes 17.23%. In these calculations, the second holder "Y" has the opportunity to ask to buy the certificate of less than 211,489, 27lv. so as to realize a higher return of 10%.

Annual return for the second holder "Y"

The absolute income, which "Y" will receive for the two months of holding the certificate, given that "X" bought it at a price of 211 489.27lv, is calculated by future value subtracting from the present value of the certificate.

$$\text{Absolute income} = FV - PV$$

$$\text{Absolute income} = 215000 - 211\,489.27 = 3\,510.73 \text{ lv}$$

Relative annual return for the period of holding of the second holder "Y" is called d_y and is calculated using the formula:

$$d_y = \frac{(FV - PV).100.360}{PV.t}$$

Substituting in the formula, we get:

$$d_y = \frac{(215000 - 211489,27) \cdot 100,360}{211489,27 \cdot 60} = 9,96\%$$

i.e. approximately 10%

This result shows that when purchasing a deposit certificate at a price of 211 489.27lv, the second holder "Y" will realize a return of approximately 10%.

6. For and Against The Administration of Certificates of Deposit in The Bulgarian Banking Practice

The banks in Bulgaria decide by themselves whether or not to work with a given instrument. It all depends on the wishes of the customers, the market conditions and the financial benefit of the credit institution.

Twenty-five years after the introduction of the term deposits in Bulgaria, commercial banks still do not offer trading with certificates of deposit on the money market. This means that either there is no interest by depositors or the credit institution itself sees no sense in their development and commercialisation.

The large credit institutions on banking market in Bulgaria are foreign vaults. Out of the first five largest banks in the country only one of them has Bulgarian capital, the other four are Italian, Hungarian, Greek, and Austrian property. In their own countries, the parent banks what a deposit certificate is and trading with it occupies a significant place on the money market. Какво пречи след добрата воля в началото на 90-те години и желанието да се търгува с депозитни сертификати тези инструменти да останат все още непознати за нашия паричен пазар? Many of the new instruments that are offered to individuals and legal entities in Bulgaria are transferred from foreign banks and have found good reception here. What prevents these instruments to still remain unknown to our money market after the goodwill at the beginning of the 90s and the desire for them to be traded?

The reasons may be sought in the theory which from the outset did not properly explain the nature of the fixed or not fixed term investments, as well as in the legislation, which for years could not accurately determine the nature and the difference between term deposits and certificates of deposit. But mostly the rejection of certificates of deposit in practice lies in the fear and lack confidence of investors to trade in funds, and hence the reluctance of banks to develop a methodology for trading with certificates of deposit. Contributory factors for this situation were also - hyperinflation in the country, the bankruptcy of dozens of commercial banks in the 90s, the introduction of the currency board and the unsuccessful attempts at its artificial eliminating the financial crisis and maintaining a five-year period of high interest rates on deposits, respectively. bank deposits, low investment culture of Bulgarians and last but not least our mentality. Why we believe that the introduction of trading in certificates of deposit is beneficial for investors as well as for banks?

From the standpoint of investors - this is an opportunity, an alternative for investment and at the same time, a way to prevent risks. Many depositors in term deposits with a longer period have violated the maturity and have lost from the non-payment of the promised interest. The currency market offers not only prevention of losses, but also an opportunity to profit from trading with depositors' own money. Today, interest rates on deposits are very low, there are even cases of negative interest rates. This is definitely not an incentive for holding money on bank deposit. After the bankruptcy of the fourth largest bank in Bulgaria CCB, depositors in term deposits earnestly thought about new investment opportunities. Part of them focused their interest in real estate, gold, currency, securities and; the more conservative and the ones without deep knowledge of trading in financial instruments left their money at home. Investment preferences depend on many factors, but also on the ability to take risks. Ignorance of securities and stock exchange trade, the lack of a large selection of quality shares of companies, relatively few joint stock companies that offer free shares for sale, the lack of investment advisers, the decline in stock prices, etc. lead to the fact that despite low interest rates, the majority of investors continue to keep their investments in banks. Another reason is the guarantee of investments in banks. In uncertain times, the depositor seeks state guarantee. Like nature, the economy is cyclical. After the crisis and the recession in the European countries, the prognosis suggest that there is a GDP growth and a great revival of production

is expected. Interest rates on deposits remain at low levels, but over time they are expected to go up. The deposit certificate will give new opportunities to depositors which are easy to implement and without risk.

From the perspective of the banks introducing certificates of deposit can have both positive and negative aspects. A positive aspect is that the money invested in the certificate of deposit remain in the credit institution to maturity despite the change of its owner. Thus banks preserve their resources, increase liability and have the opportunity for long-term target of the attracted capital. Also, these tools very well would be used as collateral for loans or other assets. Banks can incorporate them into the portfolio of individual clients and offer various options of risk-free investments. It definitely can bring higher returns to customers and legal tax avoidance of term deposits, which currently exists in Bulgaria. Negative or rather hampering deployment of certificates of deposit we can see in a more complicated procedure of trade, solving the issue of ensuring the investment fund, and the ability to hide the real owner of the money when trading with deposit certificate to bearer. In this aspect it is necessary to study the experience of western countries and to propose a way to track and prevent the attempts of money laundering and financial fraud.

7. Some Suggestions for The Introduction and Trade with Certificates of Deposit on The Bulgarian Money Market

The introduction of deposit certificates as an instrument of the money market and their trading by commercial banks in Bulgaria is clearly not a matter of consistent interpretation and judgment. Therefore, we see that it is necessary to do quite some steps both in theoretical and in practical aspect.

The most important ones can be summarised in the following points:

*1. In theoretical aspect, it is necessary to give a clearer distinction between the terms "bank deposit" and "deposit".*⁴ University professors have long highlighted the substantial differences both in financial and accounting matters in these concepts, but practitioners continue to use the terms bank deposit only for the money placed in a bank without promise of withdrawal after a certain date, ie demand deposit. Those that are made with the express written consent for withdrawal after a certain time are called deposits. In fact, the money left in the bank, whether for fixed or indefinite period, are monetary deposits and banks pay interest on them because the depositors appear as lenders to the banks. The money which were left on deposit, when withdrawn, are not the same neither in quantity nor in denominations. The deposits are a major element of the liability of the bank balance and interest on them are part of banking assets. Deposits mean not only investments left in storage, but also values and other assets that banks hold. In this respect clients seek the services of banks to store their valuables and pay for renting safes, ie these fees for deposit services are reflected in the balance sheet liabilities. It has already been pointed out that due to the literal translation from English, deposits are now referred to exclusively as fixed-term deposits. This is why often when entering a bank we see signs saying "deposits of companies" and "deposits of citizens." The distinction between "bank deposit" and "deposit" in economic terms must be followed by legal changes and consistency in the laws and regulations that use these concepts.

2. When these distinctions are made, it should be proceeded to differentiate between the terms "term deposit" and "certificate of deposit". There are still views, even among some economists, that the deposit certificate is a contract for a term deposit. This view is reinforced by two facts. Firstly, in Bulgaria there are two terms for a savings account and a deposit account. The first is used and comes with the demand savings deposit and the second account is designed precisely for the term investments called deposits. This somewhat legitimised the deposit as a name as synonymous with term deposit. This is why some authors accept that the contract for term deposit as actually a deposit certificate. Secondly, Russian-

⁴ Op.cit., p.72

speaking countries also use the terms savings and certificates of deposit as synonymous with savings and term deposits.

3. *It is necessary to define legislatively what a deposit certificate is and indicate that it is a security traded on the money market.* At the moment what we notice with the changes in some of the laws dealing with trading on the financial markets (the Markets in Financial Instruments) and services carried out by banks (Credit Institutions Act) is more or less a refusal or avoidance of entry into details regarding trading with money market instruments, incl. certificates of deposit. What is meant by this?

- Since 1992, according to the then current Ordinance № 3 of BNB on the payments and banking unified standard 1092 M, a certificate of deposit is defined and admitted in the Bulgarian legal peace as well as in the banking practice. It explicitly states that the bank is obliged to issue a certificate of deposit to every Bulgarian citizen on demand, but only a deposit certificate to the bearer is considered a security and can be traded in the money market. On this basis, in 1994 First Investment Bank started issuing certificates of deposit against deposited cash in Bulgarian lev for a period of one year at an interest rate 8 percentage points above the base rate of the Bank. Then the deposit certificate was officially regulated as a document in which the bank is obliged to repay at maturity the deposited amount on it and interest for the period. Besides having all the features of a usual deposit, through it, it can be performed and other financial operations like transferring it to third parties or making it available as collateral against debt. It is obvious that when the term deposits became popular, our legislature has given an opportunity to use deposit certificates by stimulating their introduction;
- After this first attempt to implement the certificate of deposit in the banking practice in leading law, dealing with this instrumen, changes occurred. For example, in the Credit Institutions Act (amended in 2009) enables towards the banking activities to be attributed also "trading for own account or for the account of customers in money market instruments - checks, bills, certificates of deposit, etc." (Art. 2, para 2, item 8 a). It is clear that the banks allowed trading in certificates of deposit by explicitly mentioning that they are money market instruments. Later, however, with amendments from 2014 in the same law, article, and paragraph, we no longer find the same text, but we see that it has been replaced by "dealing on own account or on behalf of clients with foreign currency and precious metals except for derivative financial instruments on foreign exchange and precious metals." Not only was the ability to trade in certificates of deposit removed, but those changes affect operations with other money market instruments as well. Here the question arises: Why make this change given that commercial banks are major participants in the money market in all countries"? Searching for an answer, we see that trading of financial instruments is not denied, but rather represented in very general manner in order not to oblige the credit institution with similar activities if it does not want to carry them out. We come to this conclusion after pay attention to article 2, paragraph 2, item 9 of the Credit Institutions Act, which stipulates that "the bank can provide services and / or activities referred to in Art. 5 para. 2 and 3 of the Markets in Financial Instruments". These are exclusively investment activities related to the provision of services on its own and for hire of primary and secondary capital markets, as well as giving advice and management of investment portfolios of financial instruments. In other words, towards financial instruments are related primarily equity, debt securities and derivatives that are traded on stock exchanges. Where are the money market instruments left? They are not forgotten but are too well veiled in the text so that the first reading cannot reveal them. This is because the interpretation of art. 3 of the Markets in Financial Instruments Act concludes that financial instruments are a broader concept of securities as financial instruments include securities and instruments other than securities. In recent i.e. in Article 3, Item 2 a) it is written that "towards instruments other than securities are falling money market instruments." That is how the legislature obliquely assumes that banks can carry out activities in the money market and to trade with financial instruments. But do they mention what are these instruments? Yes, but it's done in the additional provisions of the Markets in Financial Instruments Act, where &1, item 13 reads: "Money Market Instruments" are instruments

normally traded on the money market, short-term government securities (treasury bills), certificates of deposit and commercial paper, with the exception of payment instruments".

Here's how after a long walk in the main law governing the activities of commercial banks and proprietary trading we come to the conclusion that the legislature does not prohibit the trade in certificates of deposit, but they are not displayed prominently, and are quite hidden to the average reader. Also we found that in recent years, changes in the laws are made precisely for the purpose to all instruments traded in the money market to be removed as designations of the main text in the law. It remains to guess whether it is done because it is clear that in the Bulgarian banking market the trade in short-term financial instruments is still an unknown phenomenon or because it is unviable and obsolete for the contemporary e-commerce way of investing. We think this is unlikely due to the second reason given that fixed-term deposits definitely go along with certificates of deposit, and no country had abandoned these investments. Rather the first reason remains - an undeveloped service in the money market.

4. Although the deposit certificates are not developed on our market, they exist in the banking balance. *From an accounting perspective they are reflected as debt certificates*. Given the essential proximity of the deposits to certificates of deposit, we come close to the opinion of Prof. Pavlina Dimitrova that "certificates of deposit should be classified as deposits (exclusively term deposits) rather than debt certificates".⁵

5. An important issue is to ensure investments in certificates of deposit. It is noteworthy that nowhere in the Law on Deposit Insurance banks there is a mention of deposits. It characterises only term deposit in their varieties. Without going into details, we note that the fund guarantees full payment up to 196,000 Levs of "a saving product, certified with the deposit certificate issued to a named person and existing on and after July 2, 2014".⁶ This text is further evidence that banks do not exclude trading in certificates of deposit, but because of an undeveloped methodology to work with them, they remain a rather wishful thinking.

8. Conclusion

Introducing deposit certificates as an instrument of money market and trading by commercial banks in Bulgaria is clearly not a matter of consistent interpretation and judgment. We believe that the introduction of trading in certificates of deposit is useful for investors and banks. From the perspective of investors this is an opportunity for alternative investment and at the same time a way to prevent risks. From the perspective of the banks introducing certificates of deposit can have both positive and negative sides. A positive point is that the money invested in certificate of deposit remain in the credit institution to maturity despite the change of its owner. Thus banks preserve their resources, increase liability and have the opportunity for long-term target of borrowed capital. Also, these instruments would be used very well as collateral for loans or other assets. Banks can incorporate them into the portfolio of individual clients and offer various options of risk-free investments. This definitely can bring higher returns to customers and legal tax avoidance in time deposits, which currently exists in the country. Negative or rather hampering deployment of deposit certificates sides we see a complicated procedure of trade, solving the issue of ensuring the investment fund, and the ability to hide the real owner of the money to trade in the deposit certificate to bearer. In this aspect it is necessary to study the experience of western countries and to propose a way to track and prevent the attempts of money laundering and financial fraud.

⁵ Dimitrova, P. Credit market in Bulgaria in the context of a comparative analysis with other countries (financial and accounting aspects) magazine. Management and Sustainable Development, 2010.

⁶ Law on Deposit Insurance banks Additional provisions & 1, item 1 a).

The article proposes a number of theoretical and practical steps to legal and economic justification regarding the essence of deposit certificates, their accounting and trading in the money market.

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Active Social Policies - Insights in Developing a Functioning Labor Market

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Abstract: Development of a functioning labor market is an issue of special consideration in recent years of extensive attempts to make proper assessments of the effectiveness of implemented and implementing social programs and taking decisions for future specifically targeted actions putting ambitious goals in the field of social and sustainable development. The labor market policy in the Republic of Bulgaria in the transition period and nowadays has in different extents reflected the needs of the economy. Initially developing along with the labor market, its character is mainly preventive. Later, it includes more active programs and activities targeted at adequate answers to the changes of macroeconomic environment and periods of economic development. The anti-crisis policy in the country from 2008 till now is mostly directed to the financial stability and consolidation and strongly limits the support to employment. The measures are directed to encouragement of unemployed and social inactive persons to restore labor discipline and that way raising their chances of employment, on one side, and on the other to identify persons receiving social support but at the same time working in the „grey” economy. Current study gives answers to some of the most significant questions posed by the implementation of active social policies, and connected to their effectiveness and makes some important conclusions about the social system and its connection to economic development, social planning, implementation and assessment activities, and some general implications for future development.

Key words: labor market, social policy, active programs

1. Introduction

In a market economy the rate of employment and unemployment of the economically active population is determined by the labor market, by market mechanisms regulating demand and supply of labor. The features of the economic development and the possible impacts on the labor market gradually becomes an inseparable part of the process of policy making on the labor market. In the early periods of the development of labor market its policies are aimed primarily at tackling the effects of economic reforms on employment, it is now when the policy has pronounced active character and is aimed at influencing processes or the formation of behaviour among target groups according to pre-planned targets¹. Functioning labor market in a country is an adequate mechanism of the market environment and policy increasingly based on existing relationships and interactions between the periods of development of the economy and the labor market. The adequacy and timeliness of the policy are crucial for the effective support of the changes in the parameters of labor market and economic development². The time delay effects and changes in its duration should not be ignored in order to develop preventive measures for timely response. The shortening of the period in which the effects of modern crisis transferred on the labor market, respectively the demand for labor, reflects not only the degree of elasticity of demand for labor to primary markets, but also the flexibility of the implemented policies³. This has focused attention

¹ Terziev V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

² Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Analyses of Labor Market Development in Bulgaria: Role of active policies for social and economic development. 3rd HASSACC 2015 - Virtual Conference Human and Social Sciences at the Common Conference, 5-9 October, 2015, 140-145.

³ Terziev V., Dimitrova S. Social programming in the context of stimulating social activity and regulation of social development through active policies. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Bulgarian Experience in Labor Market Development. 18th International Academic Conference, 25 August 2015, London, IISES, 710-733.

on the flexibility of labor markets and opportunities through its increase to strengthen the mobility and adaptability of the workforce to rapidly changing labor demand.

As a whole the active policy has a secondary and temporary role in employment support and could not exchange the investment activities for creation of places of work⁴. Economic development is the determining one for demand and supply on the labor market and the balance during the periods of its development. Consideration of the peculiarities in economic development and of probable impacts on the labor market is consecutively turning into an inseparable element of the development process of labor market policies. In initial periods of labor market development its policies are mainly directed to overcoming consequences of the economic reforms on employment but now the policy is of clearly expressed active character and targeted to impacts on the processes and behavioral development in target groups according to the preliminary set goals. The functional labor market in the country is an adequate mechanism of the market environment and the conducted policy is more and more accorded to the existing dependencies and interactions between economic development and labor market⁵.

Unfavorable negative demographic trends in the country leading to processes of decreasing and aging of labor resources, sustainably unbalanced character of labor market, characterized by high unemployment and low labor demand, the availability of vulnerable groups and significant regional discrepancies in labor market development are the most serious challenges before the country in the XXI century⁶. Among the macroeconomic policies and means a significant place is rendered to the so-called active programs and measures on the labor market which are an object of increasing attention not only because the expectations of tangible effects but also because comparatively significant financial resources necessary for their implementation. Furthermore, the problem of effective spending of resources gains bigger sharpness in the current situation of limited social expenses in the country and poses questions to the effectiveness of the implementation of different programs and control measures. In the practical assessments of the active programs and measures, the problems most often arising are substantiated by their multigoal and multiaspect nature and they are connected to the lack of a common and consolidated methodology for assessment, as well as to mistakes in measurements and the absence of adequate statistical information, resulting in the objective impossibility to trace the persons and state „benefits” of participation in such programs.

The active programs have a multidirectional impact on the labor market. Emerged as a means of unemployment limitation, nowadays expected impacts of their application are too broad⁷. Despite the availability of a number of modifications and concrete varieties for the implementation of the mentioned directions of active policies, the qualification is an important issue of consideration for all the countries, including conducted in the Republic of Bulgaria active policy on the labor market⁸. The active programs could be scrutinized, in the most general plan, as an instrument of support to the effective functioning of the labor market. They contribute to the elimination of barriers and problems in the functioning of market economy⁹. The active programs are a means of raising the competitiveness of labor force, mobilization of

⁴ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Development of Active Social Programs, Journal of Innovations and Sustainability, Vol. 1, No 1, 2015, 27-46.

⁵ Terziev, V. 2015. Theoretical Basis of Development of Labor Market and Social Policy in the Republic of Bulgaria // Наука и современность №36. URL: <http://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/theoretical-basis-of-development-of-labor-market-and-social-policy-in-the-republic-of-bulgaria> (дата обращения: 26.01.2016).

⁶ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Arabska, E. 2015. Assessment of active social policies' impacts on labor market in a period of transformation Bulgarian society. Procedia Economics and Finance 30 (2015) 890 – 902.

⁷ Terziev, V. 2014. Impact of labor market policies on employment. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol 3, No 3, 55-65.

⁸ Terziev, V. 2013. Employment and unemployment policy in Bulgaria- goals and tasks. UNITECH'2013, Gabrovo, Bulgaria, 179-184.

⁹ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2014. The role of the social policy in economic development. Jubilee scientific conference, Vasil Levski National Military University, Bulgaria, 228-239.

labor resources and increase in economic activity of population¹⁰. The active policy also implements a very important socially distributing function, especially in conditions of availability of vulnerable groups on the labor market¹¹. For the last the participation into active programs is the only one chance of employment, avoidance of entering endmost poverty and social deprivation (isolation). Not the least, from the right determination of goals and expected results in active programs and measures and their appropriate announcement in the public space are dependent the extent, trust and support of implemented social and economic reforms¹².

The starting point in the assessment of active programs and measures are the activities of clarification of goals, tasks and expected results for a concrete program¹³. Studies of different active programs in the field of labor market worldwide show ambiguity and often contradictory results regarding their effectiveness. Results are highly influenced by the examined country's peculiarities, period and way of implementation of programs. The outlined great variety of active programs gives evidence that during the assessments of their effectiveness all probable aspects of the effectiveness should be measured, all the impacts should be considered and compared. Furthermore, it is important an analysis of benefits and expenditures to be made which would give an opportunity to provide a clear answer to the question to what extent spent financial resources are economically and socially justifiable. Most of the governments implement permanent monitoring and control over the implementation of programs. Very little, even into the world practice, are the comparative analyses of benefits and expenditures, although namely such a kind of assessment proves the economic effectiveness of spent financial resources under employment programs.

The effectiveness of every one program is generally measured by the implementation of its goals. A program has efficiency when in its implementation a significant part of the target group is covered. On the next place, the direct impact of the active policies on employment and level of incomes is of great interest. For the evaluations of the net impact on employment it is necessary to find out what is the percentage of the program participants succeeded to find job following finishing their participation and how many would not succeed if they weren't included into the program¹⁴. The net impact on the payment is measured as a relative share of program participants which after the end report higher incomes than before participation in the program. That way, the increase in incomes is explained by the participation into the program.

Discussing the situation on the labor market in Bulgaria in connection to the overall economic conditions, the following trends should be mentioned in recent decades of transition to market economy and processes and attempts of establishment a new social system: stagnant labor demand, qualitative misbalance between labor demand and supply, high and lasting unemployment and significant levels of poverty, problems in labor integration of unemployed persons from the risky (vulnerable) groups because of their low competitiveness on the labor market and low flexibility in the changing economic environment. The concentration of unemployed persons from certain risky groups in certain regions and settlements creates additional prerequisites for the high level of unemployment and as a consequence- emerging social tension.

On the national and regional level there is a lack of data in the information systems about the profile features of employed and unemployed persons. That impedes the analyses in employment trends. However, it is commonly accepted that structural changes in the economy strongly touched branches in which socially

¹⁰ Terziev, V. 2013. The role of the social policy in economic development. Proceedings of the Annual scientific conference of Vasil Levski National Military University, Volume 6, 154-164.

¹¹ Terziev, V., Mladenov, J., & Stoichev, M. 2004. Investigation of the preferences of the unemployed persons in capable of working age towards transformation of social support in labor incomes. UNITECH'04, Gabrovo, Bulgaria, 67-72.

¹² Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2014. Transformation in Bulgarian labor market in the years of transition. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol 3, No 3, 38-48.

¹³ Terziev, V., Apostolov, A., Mladenov, J. 2004. Action analyses of the National program „From social support to employment”. Education and art, Volume III. Jubilee scientific conference of Bishop Konstantin Preslavski Shumen University, Bulgaria, 129-136.

¹⁴ Terziev, V. 2014. Impact of labor market policies on employment. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol 3, No 3, 55-65.

vulnerable groups were used to find job- enterprises in processing industry, tailoring industry, food industry, mining industry, agricultural cooperatives, etc. Services' sectors were completely privatized (as cleaning) and the staff significantly decreased. That way this group of unemployed persons has been in a condition of unemployment since the beginning of the transition. It is concluded that a little bit over 50% are the persons in the country having no permanent job for five and more years. Every fifth is in that situation for more than ten years¹⁵.

The results show more pessimistic and negative than optimistic and positive attitudes and expectations. They support the conclusions that economic growth for now is not transformed into some concrete improvements in everyday life and in the material status of the people which is the case in its greatest depth for the poorest people in the community¹⁶.

The analyses of previously existing and implemented programs of temporary employment show the relatively low effectiveness which is easily to be proved by the kept level of unemployment during and after the end of the programs. Such programs are characterized by the following more important peculiarities¹⁷: employment is provided only for a certain period of time and after that the hired unemployed persons are again without jobs and register in labor offices; comparatively identical selection of activities is offered, usually unattractive and non-qualified connected to cleaning, planting, afforestation, communal infrastructure, etc. which do not contribute to acquisition of new and specific professional skills; acquisition of professional qualification is not offered nor through practicing qualified activities, neither through participation in courses of professional qualification; negative attitude of participating employers who isolate the most risky groups in the selection processes.

Objectives and tasks of social policy in the regulation of the labor market productivity and employment are the following¹⁸:

- creation of all necessary conditions for economic growth, structural change in the industry to create new jobs for the employment of the economically active population;
- workforce flexibility, mobility in order to overflow freely between sectors, fields of application of employment and occupation, and also between the territories in the interest of growth of labor productivity and standard of living levels;
- connection of all parameters of demand and supply of labor, securing natural level of unemployment;
- assistance in job placement and social protection for the unemployed and socially vulnerable layers of the economically active population on the labor market;
- formation of a new motivation for highly productive labor of the individual;
- decent level of wages and income adequate to their qualifications, experience and the level of entrepreneurship;
- material interest and civil responsibility of the individual to maintain the standard of living of his family;

¹⁵ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Delibasheva, A. 2014. Analyses of the changes in environment in social and economic development and the negative effects of the financial and economic crisis in the period 2008-2012. Climate Change, Economic Development, Environment and People Conference (CCEDEP), Plovdiv, Bulgaria. Conference Proceedings, Vol. 1, 172-240

¹⁶ Terziev, V. 2013. The role of the social policy in economic development. Proceedings of the Annual scientific conference of Vasil Levski National Military University, Volume 6, 154-164.

¹⁷ Terziev, V. 2013. Employment and unemployment policy in Bulgaria- goals and tasks. UNITECH'2013, Gabrovo, Bulgaria, 179-184.

¹⁸ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

- elimination of the reasons and factors both external and domestic ones governing storage of underemployment and hidden unemployment.

An alignment of objectives and specifying the tasks of regulating relations in the labor market between all levels of government as well as its active agents is also necessary.

The competence of the central bodies of power are related to those to define and control the implementation of social guarantees on employment, securing the volume of centralized investments to deliver the nation-wide social programs, including programs for full employment, and storage jobs, career guidance and other cooperation with the corporate capital at his involvement in the process of investing in employment. Their place in the active policy on the labor market should also take regional bodies. Local authorities determine the status of the unemployed, reveal such citizens and provide them with specific assistance in job placement. In this connection, the group of measures for active policy on the labor market in order to support employment and the so-called "transitional forms" between unemployment and productive employment are therefore among the main goals to regulate the labor market.

Active policy on the labor market includes measures, programs and plans aimed to return the unemployed to work for their inclusion in the workplace. Therefore, it provides¹⁹:

- preventive measures of employment services together with employers for reorientation and retraining of the staff of enterprises and organizations engaged in structural adjustment of production;
- actively seeking a job and job placement in accordance with the profession, personal experience and inclinations of the worker;
- measures in support of self-employment;
- professional counseling to those who want to discover their own company;
- non-monetary forms of support for small and family business.

Thus active policy aimed at strengthening the competitiveness of the workforce, supporting all forms of individual employment, including family businesses and farming. Part of the active policy on the labor market is the support of the unemployed in its active search of methods for inclusion in employment, which would enable it to provide financial yourself and your family with income and other means of subsistence.

The global changes in views on labor force and labor market especially considering establishment of proper social policies are connected to the development of the concept of social programming²⁰ as a social phenomenon and as a part of the broader understandings of the terms of program and programming reflecting on the alterations in the points of view on employment, unemployment and human resources.

¹⁹ Terziev V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

²⁰ Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Some features of institutionalization in the process of social programming. International scientific conference "Post-crisis management in business" - University of chemical technology and metallurgy, Sofia, Vol. 1, 109-113.

Stoyanov, E. Opportunities for development of effective management in social programming. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol. 4, No 3, 21-25.

Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. Management control in social programming: model improvement in the process of social adaptation, Ruse, 2015.

2. Active Policies: Implications in Development of a Functioning Labor Market

The most common events and policy instruments affecting the labor market include:

- Information and counseling for young people and adults in all matters relating to the selection and change of profession, opportunities for training and employment.
- Assistance in finding employment and financial aid for employers and employees.
- Stimulation of professional training activities through continuing education, training, retraining and more.

These events are aimed mainly at regional and especially local labor markets and / or professional specialized labor markets and aim to bridge the imbalance in supply and demand.

The impact of government policy on economic and social development in a market economy is different and is determined principally of the market economy, the state of the economy and employment of the population. In a social market economy and high unemployment and inflation, government intervention in economic development and employment in particular is significant. Action affects mainly the promotion of employment or limiting the exemption of certain categories of the population, determining the amount of the minimum wage and some of the supplements thereto, working conditions, fund of wages, support to the unemployed to get back to work, etc.

Government policy on the employment of unemployed is usually divided into two groups of measures and programs - those of active and of passive policies. The essence of the first is in the boost employment and skills, and the second one deals with financial and informational support of the unemployed (benefits, labor offices, etc.). Active employment policy of the government and its specialized bodies could provide a number of measures and programs to promote employment of the population and employing a workforce of employers, job creation and others- both employed and unemployed. Measures and programs for employment, vocational training and qualification are paid special attention to in a number of strategic and program documents on European and national level.

Measures and programs which can benefit organizations are specific and are determined by the level of unemployment and the degree of imbalance of various private labor markets. Most often these include:

- Stimulation of different categories of unemployed and employers for their employment;
- Encouraging employers to create jobs and increase employment;
- Create temporary, so-called subsidized, employment for certain groups of unemployed by involving them in various programs such as temporary employment programs, youth employment programs, alternative employment program of social assistance to employment, training programs and others.

In the active employment policy a number of measures and opportunities for employment and preparation for it are included from which certain groups of unemployed can benefit. Basically these are the unemployed who experience difficulties to find a job because they are not sufficiently competitive, are not preferred by employers for one reason or another, and this practice leads to their discrimination on the labor market: young people without work experience, persons with disabilities, people with fewer opportunities (disabled) and retirees of working age, long-term unemployed without professional training and others (women, ethnic groups, young people, adults)²¹. With this set of measures and programs the government with the cooperation of social partners (unions and employers) and public funds, the state budget or international programs could encourage employers to hire different groups of unemployed to create jobs for them, even temporarily, but with a guaranteed income in the form of wages, social insurance and the opportunity to prove their professional, employment and personal qualities.

²¹ Terziev V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

Policies and programs of the government in the field of employment and unemployment are of interest to organizations in several ways:

- opportunity to hire relatively cheap labor in conditions of high unemployment;
- to benefit from a series of measures and programs to assist in the recruitment of certain categories of unemployed (young people without work experience, long-term unemployed and others), where the majority of the funds for salaries are borne of the above-mentioned sources, that is much cheaper to hire certain categories of labor;
- to use the offered tax breaks and interest in hiring and/or increasing employment in the organization, which is in fact increases its efficiency by reducing costs and others;
- to prepare, train or retrain unemployed or threatened by unemployment at the expense of external sources.

The active programs and measures are the subject of increasing interest and comment not only because expectations for tangible effects, but also because of the relatively significant financial resources necessary for their implementation. The problem of efficient spending has greater sharpness in the current situation of limited social spending.

Building capacity to conduct regular monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of the active policy is among the priority tasks in the European Employment Strategy. In practical evaluation of active programs and measures researchers often face various problems stemming from their multi-purpose and multi-faceted nature; lack of a unified and well-established methodology for assessment, measurement errors and lack of adequate statistical information, incl. the fact that it is objectively impossible to track persons and the "benefits" of participation in such programs. Conducted studies over more than a hundred different active research programs give ambiguous and often conflicting results on their effectiveness²². The results are strongly influenced by the peculiarities of the country, the time and manner of implementation of the programs.

There was an understanding that employment policy is more economic than social problem or the solution to the problems of high unemployment and poverty is economic, not social policy²³. In fact, employment policies include macroeconomic and regional policies, but most often they have a more regional character expanding to programs that reflect the socio-economic priorities of different regions. Promotion of business and mitigating pro-social problems is one of the main guidelines. The actions are aimed at:

support the construction and operation of small and medium-sized enterprises, particularly in areas in need of diversification of the economic structure (industrial areas in decline, depressed rural areas);

employment projects and restructuring of manufacturing plants mainly in regions with high unemployment and the risk of exacerbation of social problems;

creating entrepreneurial and innovative environment (construction of cooperation networks, regional marketing and distribution of information, supporting the creation and functioning of the market and technological infrastructure, business services, improving the quality of human resources, improving the quality of the environment as general condition for increasing the investment attractiveness, etc.).

The strategic objective of employment policy is to achieve full and productive employment of capable and willing to work. Targets and specific tasks for the realization of this goal are related to the development of the economy by achieving a perfect match between demand and supply of labor, the creation of job opportunities for everyone, and enterprises - to increase their competitiveness and efficiency. In a market

²² Terziev V., Dimitrova S. Social programming in the context of stimulating social activity and regulation of social development through active policies. "East West" Association for Advances Studies and Higher Education GmbH, Vienna, 2015.

²³ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

economy labor market size, rate of employment and unemployment of the economically active population is determined by the labor market, by market mechanisms regulating demand and supply of labor.

The specific objectives of the policy of labor and employment in particular depend on many circumstances. Proceeding from the consequences of unemployment could be formulated theoretically several main objectives:

- preservation and protection of the human resource as the most important element of the productive forces of each country;
- inclusion of new generations to the values of work and labor morality;
- socially equitable division of labor in society;
- comply with the principle that ensures security and the balance understanding that the leading factor is labor and social benefits only replace or supplement income from work;
- preservation of social peace in society;
- solving employment problems not at the expense of higher inflation;
- solving the problems of employment and unemployment through the efforts not only of state, but also of local communities and voluntary associations.

Public employment services are gradually developing activities of the active employment policy:

- recruitment, including informing on jobs and working conditions, vocational guidance, motivation and professional qualification targeted to employment in commercially available jobs;
- stimulation of self-employment and entrepreneurship;
- implementation of programs and measures of state policy regulating the labor market;
- implementation of specialized control over the observance of laws and other normative documents in the field of unemployment insurance, payment of cash benefits and others.

A base of the active policy on the labor market should become the support of the unemployed in their active search of methods for inclusion in employment, which would allow them to secure themselves and their families with income and other means of subsistence. In other words, the active policy on the labor market transfers the responsibility for the situation of the person and their family to themselves. They will live in accordance with their income from their own employment and then the situation of the people who they secure depends only on them.

The active policy on the labor market is aimed at preventing mass unemployment. Therefore, it provides:

- preventive measures of the employment services, jointly with the employers for reorientation and retraining of the staff of the enterprises and organizations, engaged in structural reconstruction of the production;
- active job seeking and employment in accordance with profession, personal experience and aptitude of the employee;
- measures on support of self-employment;
- professional consultation of those who want to set up their own company;
- subsidies amounting to one-year unemployment benefit;
- non-monetary forms of support of small and family business.

Thus, the active policy aimed at improving the competitiveness of the labor force, supporting all forms of individual employment, including family businesses and farming. The difficulties of the transitional period dictate not too high level for implementation of this responsibility in the field of standard of living: the

level of minimum social standards²⁴. Nevertheless, the other trends in the state support of employment: social protection of employed and unemployed, social assistance and support in employment - currently require the respective instruments to assess their own capacity. Giving up its past paternalist positions in the organization of labor and employment, the state should not remain an indifferent observer of the difficulties, which the population faces in relation to the change in the economic model. It should act as an active subject for prediction and regulation of employment and its typical specific functions in the field of employment - remuneration and its social support, social protection and social partnership.

In the world of modern labor legislation, for each individual person, as well as for society as a whole, employment cannot be excessive, of course in the broad social (rather than psychological) interpretation of this concept. The upper, acceptable in itself, limit of the volume and content of employment is individually determined by the person. Hence the non-occupation - which is not unemployment yet. The unemployed person is considered an unoccupied person, willing to work, capable of productive work and actively seeking job. The principle of equal opportunities in realization of the constitutional right to work is not excluded, but assumes a differentiated approach to the choice of forms of assistance and support of the various groups of the economically active population on the labor market. All kinds of assistance should be equally accessible to those who are in need. This requires a thorough job of the structures and employment services in the creation, classification of data for each contingent and specifics of assistance. Moreover, an arrangement of the objectives and specification of the tasks on regulating the relations on the labor market between all levels of government, as well as its active entities, are necessary.

The competences of the central bodies of authority also include determining and control of implementation of social guarantees in the field of employment, securing the volume of centralized investments to implement nation-wide social programs, including programs for full employment, creating and preservation of jobs, vocational guidance and other cooperation with corporate capital at its involvement in the process of investing in employment. The regional structures, responsible for the state of employment, should also take their place in the active policy on the labor market. Local authorities determine the status of the unemployed and the level of low security of the population of the region, find such citizens and provide them with specific assistance in terms of job placement with cash or benefits in kind. In this connection, the group of measures of active policy on the labor market aiming at support the employment, also include the so-called "transitional forms" from unemployment to productive employment and therefore - the tactical aims for regulation of the labor market. Moreover, it becomes necessary, as we believe, to clarify the terms "temporary employment", "basic" (primary) employment, "additional" (secondary) employment, etc.

Great attention is paid to temporary employment as a limited in time demand for labor force. Sometimes the temporary employment is determined by the content of labor, limited by a temporary (seasonal) period. Temporary employment, as a measure of the active policy on the labor market, is very ambiguous in its consequences²⁵. On the one hand, it allows:

- the employee – not to be temporarily unemployed and the associated with this lack of means for existence, but does not cardinally solve their problem;
- the employer - to more effectively select their staff and to manage it in terms of quantity and quality. This type of work helps to significantly reduce the costs of the employer for support of the workforce by minimizing the costs for social guarantees and thus weakens the social protection of the employees at the social environment;
- the labor agencies - to lower the overall level of unemployment, making it possible to avoid chronic unemployment. Currently, temporary employment is widespread in the informal sector of the economy.

²⁴ Terziev, V. Impact of labor market policies on employment provision. Dema Press, Ruse, 2013.

²⁵ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

Along with that, temporary employment often impedes the professional development of the person's career and reduces their potential chances for a better labor readjustment. Therefore, a necessary prerequisite for its use as a tactical objective for regulating unemployment is to recognize the voluntary choice of the people for such a form of employment.

The crisis in the economy, the processes related to changing the forms of ownership and the structural transformations have created the phenomenon of underemployment. It manifests as hidden unemployment, administrative leave and similar phenomena. This, as a rule, does not depend on the wishes of the persons themselves, but is conditioned by the lack of work in the region, the financial difficulties of the production or other reasons, when there are no conditions for workload, sufficient for receiving payments that are sufficient for subsistence. The concept of incomplete or partial employment should be distinguished from the already implemented by us terms of primary and secondary employment. We can discuss them when there is no other option (jobs or suitable work) for development of additional (to the main) employment. According to the criterion of labor productivity, we can separate the relatively excessive employment, where employment is less effective as a result, in other words, the same result could be obtained with significantly less cost and number of employees. In this respect (in terms of obtained results), the costs for living labor and mechanized labor can be redundant. If the activity is characterized by excessive employment, this phenomenon already reveals the scale of the hidden unemployment. This is a consequence of the policy of detention of mass dismissals of employees and threats for sharp increase of the unemployment rate in the region. In any case, the inefficient employment signals the presence of hidden unemployment. Its transition into an open form of unemployment is no longer a purely economic issue for increasing the efficiency of employment, but a socio-economic one.

Depending on the causes for its origin, the economists define frictional, structural and cyclical type of unemployment. Frictional unemployment is related to the dissatisfaction with the old job and the search for a new job or the change of the existing job in the near future. This is a situation where people voluntarily change their jobs. Structural unemployment is associated with changes in the structure of the consumer demand or in the production structure. Overcoming the structural unemployment often requires retraining and adaptation of the employees to another type of work and it takes a longer period. As a rule, the structure of the labor force in significant scale does not match the structure of the jobs. In this and other types of unemployment, the total number of jobs is approximately equal to the number of the economically active labor force. Cyclical unemployment is associated with a uniform repetitive cycle, or with a seasonal decline in production in one or another industry with decrease of the demand for labor force and reduction of the number of jobs.

Some economists consider the frictional and structural unemployment to be absolutely inevitable and somewhat useful in the sense of a stimulus of the subjects of labor for the adoption of preventive measures to regulate employment²⁶. To the preventive measures for regulation of the employment structure, we shall refer the whole system of professional guidance of young people, starting from an early age in order to reduce losses from frequent job change and to create prerequisites for a successful career.

Supporters of the active policy on the labor market consider that equivalent funds spent for payment of unemployment benefits should be targeted for preventive measures for the prevention of "peaks" and economic downturns, in other words for smoothing cyclic recurrence of the production as such that instigates unemployment. The unemployment rate at full employment is equal for example to the amount of the frictional and structural unemployment in the complete absence (prevention) of such cyclic recurrence. This level is called a natural rate of unemployment.

The task of increasing the efficiency of the policy of the labor market is actual not only for the present unemployed (overt and hidden) or the underemployed, but for the employees (underemployed or ineffective) as well. After all, namely they "raise" constantly the number of the "discharged" persons from the labor market. If the measures of an active policy on the labor market manage to achieve if not cutting,

²⁶ Terziev, V. Impact of labor market policies on employment provision. Dema Press, Ruse, 2013.

at least limiting this practice, even if they do not cut, but narrow it down - this will increase the balance of flows on the labor market.

Social technologies are necessary for the transition of the society from one reform stage to another, from individual solutions to a system of measures for the regulation of the cycle of transition of the labor force from one type to another type and rehabilitation of the employment model. There is a need for demand both for individual decisions on urgent problems of hidden unemployment or inefficient employment and the creation of special complex target programs and efficient social mechanisms bound by time, place and provided with resources. Thus, the social programming (i.e. social programs) is a perspective structural form and method of action used in the coordinated interactions directed to socially significant problems in an approach considering time and resources²⁷, i.e. project approach in social problems' solutions implying effective methodologies of management for achieving social effectiveness²⁸.

The relationships between employers and employees should not be simply placed on a legal basis, which is the very important function of state regulation of social and labor relations in general and unemployment in particular, but they must be attributed to the effort of the state impulse for a dynamic, continuous development and improvement. The state is called upon to organize a civilized dialogue on this subject between all entities on the labor market.

3. Labor Market and Policy Development – The Specific Case of Bulgaria

The fundamental change in the role of labor from passive to active gives the economies and cultures a new space, in which the leadership style encourages the employed to behave as "stakeholders", to be well-trained in modern basic skills, to take responsibility for themselves and to be able to make adequate decisions. The countries owing high-quality training systems and effective government style that requires continuous improvement will succeed much more in raising the labor productivity. Increased productivity, in turn, will allow raising both the actual income of the employees and the overall standard of living. The countries and regions that fail in increasing the productivity of their labor force through continuous improvement will face declining competitiveness and lower overall standard of living.

The main challenge today is to create conditions for increasing the employment, reducing the poverty and successful overcoming of social exclusion in conditions of a still unfavorable economic environment. The challenge in still developing economies is to cope with the negative trends on the labor market, where:

- the labor supply exceeds significantly the demand;
- the nonconformity between the qualification of the employees and the needs of the ongoing restructuring of the economy of qualified specialists is essential.

²⁷ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Assessment of the efficiency of social programming in the Bulgaria. State and perspectives in economic development in conditions of uncertainty. Proceedings of international scientific and applied conference 28 February 2015, Ufa-Aeterna, 7-16.

Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Management of the effective social programming or the controlled beginning of the good future. International scientific conference "Post-crisis management in business" - University of chemical technology and metallurgy, Sofia, Vol. 1, 114-120.

Terziev, V., Stoyanov, E. 2015. Management control as an effective instrument in impelmentation of the social program as a product of social programming. Fifth international scientific and applicative conference KNOWLEDGE – WHO AND WHAT, 21-25 May 2015, Bansko, Bulgaria, ISSN 1857-92, Volume 9, 196-207.

Stoyanov, E. 2015. Improvement of non-material factors – the formula of success in social development. New knowledge Journal of science, Vol. 4, No 3, 26-30.

²⁸ Stoyanov, E. 2015. Project control in social programming. UNITECH 2015 International Scientific Conference, Gabrovo, 20 – 21 November 2015.

Stoyanov, E. 2015. Project portfolio management in social programming. UNITECH 2015 International Scientific Conference, Gabrovo, 20 – 21 November 2015.

The scope of the existing policies is aimed at securing minimum salaries, guaranteed minimum income, minimum pension, securing compensations and social benefits in unemployment. Actually, compensatory mechanisms of the existing incomes are sought. The new accents arise from a combination of different policies and instruments based on targeted studies. For example, after a thorough analysis of the structure of unemployment, the approach to programs and active measures in this area, as well as their orientation, have been changed. Efforts are redirected from the receipt of compensations and benefits to employment. Now the emphasis is on the preventive intervention, so that the people who gave lost their jobs not to fall into a state of long-term unemployment and hence the need for social assistance.

In the conditions of insufficient labor demand, the dominating actions are to promote and keep employment by subsidizing the employers and stimulate the entrepreneurship. The emphasis in this social policy is on implementing a more active approach to rather affect the causes than the consequences. This means that the preliminary assessment of the social impacts in connection to significant changes in the legislation has to become an integral part of the social policy²⁹.

New focus in the strategy of social policy is the implementation of effective mechanisms to support specific target groups that are not attractive enough, the provision of subsidized employment for such groups of unemployed persons, to whom this measure is effective. People of working age and in good health shall be given the chance to earn their income, to retain their working habits and not to be isolated from society, as well as to increase their suitability for employment through involvement in literacy courses and professional qualification training³⁰.

The search for ways and methods for forming a market model of employment with a social focus is evidenced by the processes carried out in each of the structure blocks of the socio-labor relations which determine to a large extent the nature of the labor market and the field of employment. Namely: on the labor market, in the field of manufacturing employment, in the block of relations covering remuneration and acquiring the results of labor, and in the relations, mediating consumption as the conditions for forming the standard of living and at the same time the conditions for the reproduction of labor. The effect of all these factors is expressed in the standard of living of the population.

At the same time, the labor market creates a space for manifestation of the objective economic law of interaction between demand and supply of labor, performing primarily the function to balance them. Thus, the mechanism of the labor market also appears to be a mechanism for distribution of individual labor in sectors and areas of socially useful services, a mechanism for converting the potential of labor resources in social work, realizing the human capacities and generating income. Therefore, the productive employment of the person can be considered as the ultimate objective in the regulation of the labor market and its socially acceptable performance³¹. The second and very decisive function and factor of action of the economic law on the interaction between demand and supply of labor, is determining the initial cost of labor force as a major stimulus to employment and a source of guaranteed subsistence of the employee and their family.

At the dawn of the labor market development, as part of the stock market, its single regulator is the mechanism of free competition, based on the law of supply and demand. Under its pressure, the transfer of labor force to more advantageous industries is carried out. However, the processes of specialization and distribution of labor that are carried out under the influence of the scientific and technological revolution, make the labor force even more professionally oriented, which impedes its "transfer" from sector to sector. Objective grounds for the existence of unemployment arise. In addition, the capital begins to unite and focus, aiming at monopolization and change in their spheres of influence. All these

²⁹ Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

³⁰ Terziev, V. Impact of labor market policies on provision of employment. Dema-pres – Ruse, 2013.

³¹ Terziev, V., Dimitrova, S. 2015. Social Programming in the context of stimulating social activity and regulation of social development through active policies. „East West” Association for Advanced Studies and Higher Education, Vienna, 2015.

are socio-economic preconditions for the emergence of state regulation of the labor market as a sphere for guidance of labor force. Besides, the labor force, as a main subject of regulation, is considered as operating labor resources. The labor force, as an ability of the individual to work (otherwise the labor is potential), and the labor as an appropriate human activity (functioning labor force) aimed at securing subsistence resources, are presented as different functional forms of labor resources. In this context, the ratio between these categories is uncontroversial and subject to certain logic of development³².

The employment field and the labor market interact under the law of the "communicating vessels" - the greater the tension on the labor market (when the labor supply exceeds the labor demand), the lower tension in the field of employment and vice versa. Therefore, its condition is one of the key indicators for all government decisions in the socio-labor field and joint (tripartite) agreements in the field of social partnership. The question "Why does the problem of regulation of the labor market become so topical these days?" arises. The problem is that the market transformations cover very unevenly all branches of the economy, penetrate into its internal mechanisms and relationships. Their management, in order to form a unified national labor market, requires coordinated actions³³.

The modern in terms of social significance measures for regulation of the employment of the economically active population, as forms for inclusion of individual work in the public one, in order to generate income and realize creative talents of the individual, are required to carry the main load in the system of measures on the regulation of the standard of living.

The analyses of 2014 data show that in the EU labor market is still determined by the economic crisis but there are some „signs of recovery”³⁴. The negative trend in unemployment has ceased but the discrepancies between national labor markets in member states are significant. This is the case in different member states too where there exist great differences between different regions³⁵. The situation is very alarming about young people (<25 years old) and adults of 55-64 years. Based on the current status, trends and prospects of the labor market within the European area identify the main challenges of employment policy in the field of human resources:

- Substantial reduction in employment and increase in unemployment during the economic crisis, especially among disadvantaged groups in the labor market, especially young people, increasing inactive;
- Delayed exit and very limited creation of new jobs;
- Low educational qualification level of jobseekers and low mobility in a segmented labor market; mismatches in supply and demand for labor in terms of professional qualification structure of the workforce;
- The need for improving the quality of jobs and increase labor productivity, which will lead to increased incomes and expanding domestic consumption;
- The existence of unregulated employment and violations of labor law;
- Significant regional differences in employment and unemployment.

³² Terziev, V. Challenges to social programming in the context of encouragement of social activity and regulation of social development through active policies, Ruse, 2015.

³³ Terziev, V. Impact of active social policies and programs in the period of active economic transformations in Bulgaria, „East West” Association for Advanced Studies and Higher Education, Vienna, 2015.

³⁴ Labour market and Labour force survey (LFS) statistics. Data extracted in April 2015. European Union Labour force survey- Annual results 2014. Author: Martin Teichgraber (Eurostat, Labour market).

³⁵ Terziev, V., Arabska, E. 2015. Connecting jobseekers and employers and more: the contributions of PES to EU social and economic development. 19th International Academic Conference, Florence, 16-19 September, 2015, IISES, 859-873.

Some possible threats are identified improving the match between demand and supply of labor and the functioning of the labor market:

- Belated exit from recession and weak economic growth in the EU and slow economic recovery, which together with insufficient competitiveness of the economy, are a threat to the creation of more and better jobs.
- Globalization, which hides risks associated with job losses, outsourcing of economic activities and loss of income for certain professions, regions and sectors.
- Unfavorable demographic trends - by reducing the number and aging workforce, which limited the supply of labor. Deterioration of the labor force due to the exit of skilled labor and the influx of low-skilled, low education. Influencing are also the external migration, and the gap in the quality and relevance of education, low participation of the population in lifelong learning; regional disparities and imbalances, limited mobility and more.

At the same time there are certain favourable conditions as the financial stability of the country and significant financial resources under operational programs and other EU programs.

Bulgaria and other socialist countries, subject to the notion of "full employment" more than half a century, now suffer the serious consequences of transition and restructuring of the economy that are the most severe in the area of employment. Bulgaria was relatively unprepared to meet the challenges of the market economy in this area and the lack of public attitudes for more personal activity, personal responsibility and entrepreneurship. Expectations for change are linked again and primarily the role of the state.

Employment policy pursued in the country complies with European documents in the field of employment and human resources development: the European Employment Strategy, Strategy "Europe 2020", the Employment Guidelines of the European Commission. The actions of the labor market in accordance with the requirements and recommendations of the International Labor Organisation (ILO), Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and other international organizations. Updated Employment Strategy 2013 - 2020 adoption foresees also implementation of the Council Decision of 21 October 2010 on guidelines for the employment policies of the Member States which are in force in 2013, namely:

Guideline 7: Higher participation of women and men on the labor market, reducing structural unemployment and improving the quality of jobs.

Guideline 8: Developing a skilled workforce responding to the needs of the labor market and promote lifelong learning.

Guideline 9: Improving the quality and effectiveness of education and training at all levels and increasing the number of students in tertiary or equivalent education.

Guideline 10. Promoting social inclusion and combating poverty.

Updated Employment Strategy is in line with the strategy "Europe 2020" and its three complementary priorities in terms of economic growth, which should be intelligent (building an economy based on knowledge and innovation), sustainable (promoting more greener and more competitive economy with more efficient use of resources) and inclusive (stimulating the economy with high employment levels, leading to social and territorial cohesion).

The vision of the updated Employment Strategy 2013 - 2020 is defined as: ensure conditions and opportunities for improving the quality of the workforce and increasing employment in the economy of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth to raise living standards and promote social inclusion .

Along with the main target for employment, Bulgaria has defined two sub-goals in priority areas of development of the labor market³⁶:

- Achievement of employment among older people (aged 55-64) from 53% in 2020.
- Reduce youth unemployment rate for the age group 15-29 to 7% in 2020.

Objectives in the updated Employment Strategy 2013 - 2020, were in line with the Global Employment Strategy, developed by the ILO, as well as key areas of impact of the employment strategy for the ILO Decent Work.

The vision of the updated Employment Strategy 2013 - 2020 has been designated, taking into account a number of factors. EU membership and the need for full integration of the Bulgarian economy in the common market requires continued reforms to achieve set criteria for higher competitiveness and long-term ability to meet the changes. Changes in the labor market require provision of skilled and motivated workforce that will contribute to achieve smart, sustainable and inclusive economic growth and higher productivity.

The main priorities of the updated Employment Strategy 2013 - 2020 include³⁷:

1. Increasing employment in a smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, which implies the presence of sufficient quality workforce with the knowledge and skills according to the needs and requirements of jobs and the capacity for higher productivity. This workforce is formed for an extended period and provided that the access to education and training is improved in time, trainees are largely successful, and those who left early education system are included in the appropriate forms for employment and training. Quality workforce is the product of a quality and efficient system of education and training and throughout the life of man, a system which is necessarily linked to the needs of the economy and employers. Quality workforce is not an end, it is motivated to work on productive jobs, to create high added value intellectual work with the application of new information technologies, with demands for innovation and creativity. In turn, the economy needs to create such jobs. For low-skilled it is important to be trained for training and acquisition of skills for a productive work.
2. Increasing labor supply is a key priority not only for the high inactivity of the working population, but also because of the demographic problems and the need for a higher volume of GDP produced in domination of still extensive development factors. All this requires the active behaviour on the labor market of job seekers and the development of employment services; activation of discouraged and inactive, unemployed from vulnerable groups; creating conditions for reconciling work and family life and providing equal opportunities. Labor supply increases when employment provides enough income linked to individual productivity of labor, education and training of people. Workforce in turn must be sufficiently mobile in terms of flexibility and employment security. A prerequisite for a complete working life is good health and preservation of the capacity and the higher age groups. Priority is also increasing the employability of disadvantaged groups on the labor market, especially young people, long-term unemployed, unemployed Roma, people with disabilities.
3. The slow recovery from the crisis and job losses even in positive GDP growth means that job creation cannot be left solely to market forces. A targeted support for increasing labor demand especially in the priority for economic development sectors with high added value, such that deliver smart sustainable growth, to increase local and foreign investments to reduce regional disparities in employment and market labor; for targeted support for small and medium-sized enterprises; employment creation of "green jobs"; development of a competitive and resource-

³⁶ Updated Employment Strategy of the Republic of Bulgaria 2013 – 2020.

³⁷ Updated Employment Strategy of the Republic of Bulgaria 2013 – 2020.

efficient economy, increased factor productivity, increase employment of "white jobs", including in the field of social services.

The object of the updated strategy are a wide range of individuals, institutions and organizations that participate on the labor market. In this sense essential to the actions of its implementation is ensuring a balance between their interests, rights and responsibilities. Increasing attention will be given not only the unemployed persons from vulnerable groups, and other groups seeking employment (employed who want to change jobs or to work extra, students, retired) employees who need training and more. Crucial role is that of the institutions of the labor market, the capacity of which depends on improving the overall functioning of the whole system of employment and more effective and efficient use of available resources.

In Bulgaria the economic development in 2014 and the growth of the GDP, the highest in the last three years, led to the stabilization of the labor market and allowed to recover positive dynamics in employment, after minimal growth in 2013. For the first time since 2008 several common trends of positive growth of industrial production, consumption and growth in employment as accumulated³⁸.

The main challenge today is to create conditions for increasing employment, reducing poverty and redressing social exclusion in a still unfavorable economic environment and negative trends on the labor market where labor supply exceeds demand and there is a mismatch between workers' skills and the needs of the ongoing restructuring of the economy.

4. Conclusion

The sensitivity of labor market and its main parameters will strengthen in the future and will suffer both positive and negative effects of the cyclic recurrence of economic development. The open character of Bulgarian economy predetermines the influences of outer impacts in the processes of prolonging reforms in the country which set prerequisites for additional inner influences on the labor market. That's why the policy directed to raising the flexibility of labor market should continue as far as it is a main instrument softening the impacts and timely adaptations. If the labor market is more flexible then its adaptiveness towards outer and inner influences will be bigger, and the negative consequences – smaller.

The economic effect of the active policy could be sought in several directions. On the individual level, for an unemployed person the economic effect would comprise of increased level of incomes as a result of finding job after participation in an active policy. On the level of the National employment agency, the economic effect could be measured by the saved resources from compensations for unemployment in cases of ceasing payments because the unemployed person has found a job. For the government the incomes are as saved money of compensations for unemployment and increased incomes in the state budget which the unemployed person and the employer have to pay from the moment of starting the job. For society as a whole, the economic effect is in the increased level of incomes and quality of life.

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Türkiye Bulgaristan Ekonomik İlişkileri ve Gelecek Tahminleri

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Özet: Coğrafi yakınlık, kültürel ve ticari yakınlığı doğal olarak beraberinde getirmektedir. Bu yakınlık potansiyeline uygun değerlendirildiğinde ekonomik açıdan stratejik bir sinerjiyi açığa çıkarmaktadır. Geçmiş dönemler ekonomik sıçrama yapan birçok ülkenin, komşularının emek gücü, kaynak ve ticari potansiyel ve işbirliklerinden yararlanarak büyüyen/kalkınan ve buna bağlı ulusal refahın yükselişi örneklerine sahne olmuştur.

Ekonomik açıdan “İyi Komşuluk”, sadece ölçek ekonomileri açısından yarar sağlamayacak aynı zamanda iki tarafın birbirlerine sağladığı ticari menfaatler neticesinde “kazan-kazan” ilkesi çerçevesinde iktisadi bir kaldıraç etkisi de yaratacaktır. Bu açıdan Türkiye- Bulgaristan ilişkileri standart ticari partnerliğin ötesinde bir anlam taşımaktadır. Çalışmada bu konunun geleceği, küresel ekonomik sistemin sağladığı zemin üzerinde analitik bir betimlemeyle açıklanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Türkiye – Bulgaristan Ekonomik ilişkileri, Dış Ticaret, Küresel Rekabet

Jel Kodu: F10, F14, F15, C01

Turkey - Bulgaria Economic Relations and Future Projections

Abstract: Geographical proximity, brings along cultural and commercial proximity naturally. When this closeness considered potentially suitable, it economically reveals a strategic synergy. In previous periods, many countries that makes economic leap; labor of their neighbors, source and commercial potential and benefiting from collaborations growing / aspiring neighbor countries showed examples of the rise of national prosperity depends on it.

Economically "Good Neighbourly" not only in terms of economies of scale that will benefit two sides also result in commercial benefits it provides to each other and framework of "win-win" principle it will create an economic leverage effect. In this point of view, Bulgaria-Turkey relations have means more than the standard commercial partnership.

In this study the future projections of these subjects, on the ground provided by the global economic system, explained with an analytical description.

Keywords: Turkey - Bulgaria Economic Relations, ForeignTrade, Global Competition

Jel Codes: F10, F14, F15, C01

1. Giriş

Balkan ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasındaki ikili ticari ilişkilerin geliştirilmesi Türk dış ticaret politikasının önemli bir boyutunu oluşturmaktadır. Bu coğrafyadaki ülkeler ülkemizin Batı Avrupa'ya açılan bir kapısı konumundadır. Türkiye'nin bu ülkelerle ticari ilişkilerinin olması bu ülkelerde ekonomik kalkınmanın sağlanması ve bu bölgelerin siyasi istikrarı açısından büyük önem arz etmektedir. Bu çalışmada Balkan ülkelerinden Bulgaristan ile Türkiye'nin dış ticaret ilişkileri analitik bir şekilde incelenip gelecek tahminleri yapılmıştır.

Bulgaristan 2014 yılı verilerine göre 6,9 Milyonluk nüfusu ve % -0,8 nüfus artış hızı ile gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Bulgaristan ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 55 Milyar \$'lık GSYİH değerlerine göre dünyanın 74. büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 29 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 33 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 62 Milyar \$'dır. Bulgaristan'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilerde en çok ihraç ettiği sektörler ise tekstil, ayakkabı, demir- çelik, makineler ve aksamı ve mineral yakıttır. En çok ithal ettiği sektörler ise makineler ve aksamı, metaller, kimyasallar, plastik, mineral yakıtlardır.

Türkiye ise 2014 yılı verilerine göre 75,93 Milyonluk nüfusu ve % 2,3 nüfus artış hızı ile gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Türkiye ekonomisi 2014 yılı verilerine göre 798.4 Milyar \$'lık GSYİH'si ile dünyanın 17. büyük ekonomisi konumundadır. Türkiye 2014 verilerine göre 143 Milyar \$ ihracatı ve 207 Milyar \$ ithalatı ile 399 Milyar \$'lık dış ticaret hacmine sahiptir. Türkiye de uygulanan ekonomik reformlar ve özellikle komşu ülkelerle yapılan bölgesel ticareti geliştirme stratejileri sonrasında dış ticaretin hacmi, yapısı ve yönelimi olumlu yönde değişmiştir.

Uzun bir tarihi birlikteliği ve kültürel mirası paylaştığımız Balkanlar'da en çok soydaş nüfusun yaşadığı komşumuz Bulgaristan'dır. Yıllardan beri Bulgaristan ile orada yaşayan soydaşlarımız ve göç eden vatandaşlarımızdan dolayı iki ülke arasında güçlü bağlarımız bulunmaktadır. İki ülke arasındaki ekonomik bağlara bakıldığında ise; Türkiye için Bulgaristan, Batı, Orta ve Doğu Avrupa'ya, Bulgaristan için Türkiye ise Kafkaslar, Orta Asya ve Orta Doğu'ya açılan bir kapı konumundadır. Ortadoğu bölge ve ülkeleri, değerli rezervleri ve coğrafi konumu gibi nedenlerle dünyadaki çok sayıda ülkenin ilgi odağındadır (Kaymakçı, 2012: 224). Bu yüzden Bulgaristan açısından Türkiye önemli bir konumdur. İki ülkenin coğrafik konumları ve komşuluk ilişkileri ülkeler arasında da ticari ilişkileri de geliştirmiştir. Bu ticari ilişkilerde iki ülke arasında imzalanan aşağıdaki anlaşmalar uygulanmaktadır (Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Dışişleri Bakanlığı, sofya.be.mfa.gov.tr/ShowInfoNotes.aspx?ID=121507, erişim tarihi: 05.12.2015). Bu anlaşmalar özetle :

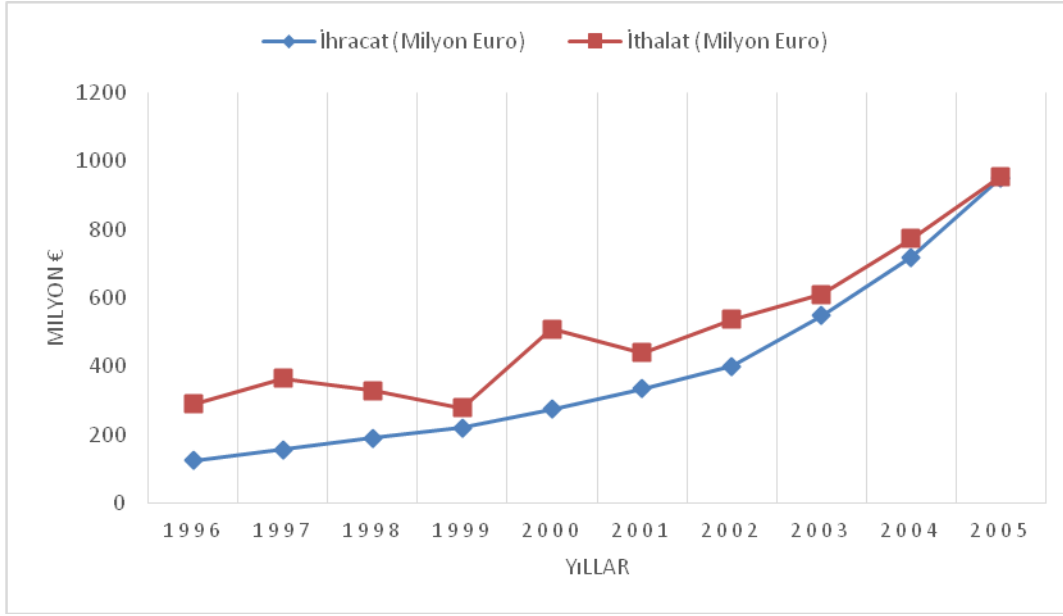
- Türkiye-Bulgaristan Turizm Anlaşması, 28-30 Temmuz 1997
- Türkiye-Bulgaristan Ticaret Anlaşması, 11 Haziran 1974
- Türkiye-Bulgaristan Yatırımların Karşılıklı Teşviki ve Korunması Anlaşması, 6 Temmuz 1994
- Çifte Vergilendirmeyi Önleme Anlaşması, 7 Temmuz 1994, şeklindedir.

2. Türkiye-Bulgaristan Ekonomik İlişkilerinin Dönemsel Gelişimi

2.1. Türkiye-Bulgaristan Dış Ticareti(1996-2005)

Türkiye ile Bulgaristan yıllardır komşuluk ilişkilerinin yanında, siyasi ve ekonomik ilişkileriyle de ön planda olmuştur. İki ülke arasında bu dönemde "Turizm Anlaşması" imzalanmış ve daha önceden imzalanan "Yatırımların Karşılıklı Teşviki ve Korunması Anlaşması ile Çifte Vergilendirmeyi Önleme Anlaşması" yürürlüğe girmiştir. Bu anlaşmalar iki ülkenin dış ticaret ilişkilerinde artışa neden olmuştur. Ayrıca bu dönemde Türkiye 26 Mart 1995'te ve Bulgaristan 1 Aralık 1996'da WTO'ya üye olmuştur (Gümrük ve Ticaret Bakanlığı, <http://ab.gtb.gov.tr/uluslararası-orgutler/dünya-ticaret-orgutu>, erişim tarihi: 15.01.2016). Dünya Ticaret Örgütü 1 Ocak 1995 tarihinde faaliyete geçmiş, dünya ticaretini serbestleştirme çabalarını sürdürebilmek için GATT anlaşmasını değiştirip geliştirerek yeni bir yapı oluşturulmuştur (Seyidoğlu, 2009:157).

1996'dan günümüze Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'la dış ticaretinin seyri de süreç içinde genel bir artış içindedir. Bazı istisna yıllar olmakla birlikte bu çarpıcı artışı görmek mümkündür (Bkz. Grafik 1).



Grafik 1. Türkiye-Bulgaristan İhracat-İthalat Grafiği (1996-2005)

Kaynak: TÜİK (1996-2005) verilerinden derlenerek hazırlanmıştır.

1996 Yılından 2005 yılına kadar olan süreçte Türkiye'nin ihracatı grafikten de görülebileceği üzere sürekli artmaktadır. İthalat rakamlarına bakıldığında rassal bir dağılım söz konusudur. 1996-2001 yılları arasında ithalat rakamları azalarak artmaktadır. Bu dönem ele alındığında 2005 yılı ithalat ve ihracatın maksimum olduğu yıldır. 2005 yılı Bulgaristan ile yapılan ticarete ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı %99 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Ve bu dönemde 1996'da 289.48 (Milyon Euro) olan ithalat rakamları 2005 yılında 956.26 (Milyon Euro) ya ulaşmıştır. İhracat rakamlarına bakıldığında 1996 yılında 125.12 (Milyon Euro)'dan 2005 yılında 951.74 (Milyon Euro)'ya ulaşmıştır. 1996 yılında %43 olan ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı 2005 yılında %99'a yükselmiştir.

Tablo 1. Türkiye Toplam İthalat-İhracat, Bulgaristan'a Yapılan İthalat İhracat (1996-2005)

Yıllar	Türkiye Toplam İhracat-İthalat		Türkiye-Bulgaristan İhracat - İthalat	
	İhracat(Milyar Euro)	İthalat (Milyar Euro)	İhracat (Milyon Euro)	İthalat (Milyon Euro)
1996	18.532	34.834	125.12	289.48
1997	23.339	43.205	156.85	363.92
1998	24.129	41.148	190.99	329.05
1999	24.964	38.351	219.65	278.3
2000	30.181	59.444	275.2	509.6
2001	35.062	46.255	335.03	440.02
2002	38.137	54.478	400.66	538.14
2003	41.76	61.248	548.1	611.19
2004	50.896	78.53	718.36	773.84
2005	59.147	94.015	951.74	956.26

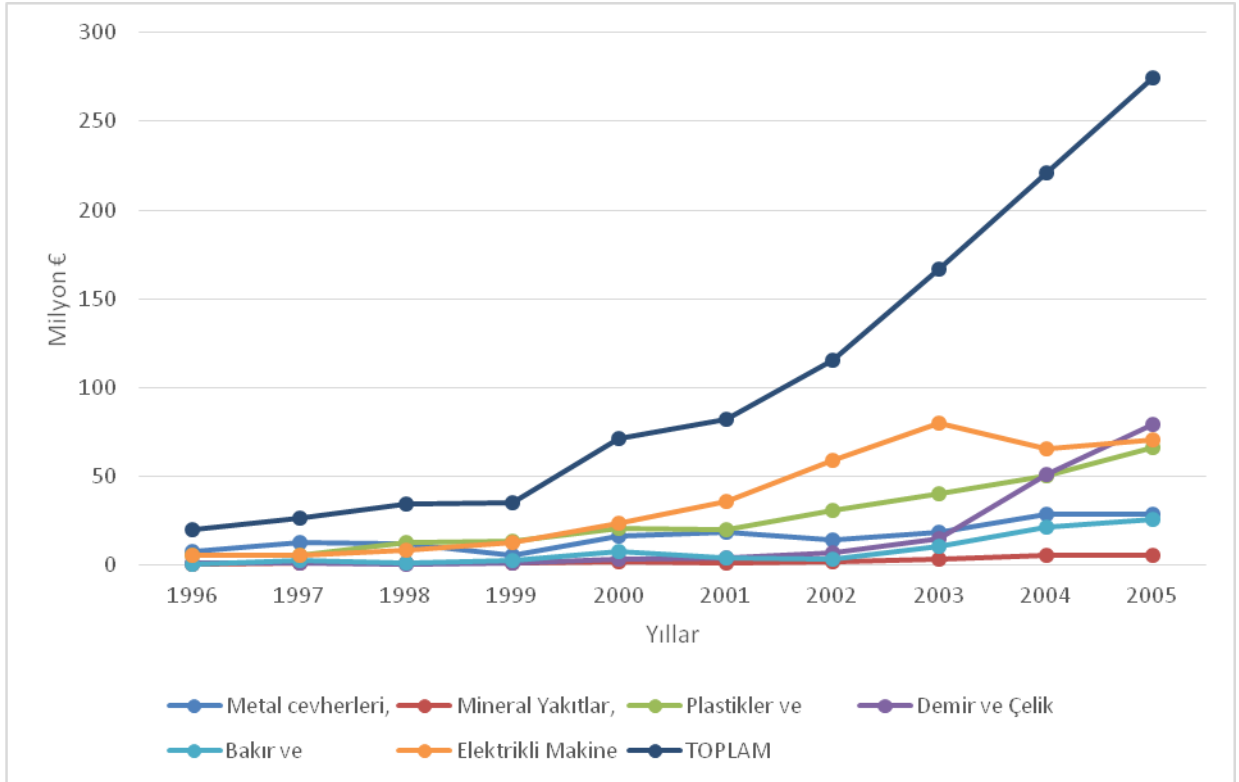
Kaynak: (TÜİK, biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/menu.zul, erişim tarihi: 09.02.2016).

1996 yılından 2005 yılına kadar olan süreçte Türkiye'nin ihracatının logaritmik bir şekilde arttığı görülmektedir. Bu süreçte ithalat rakamlarına bakıldığında "azalarak artan" bir durum söz konusudur. Türkiye'nin toplam ithalat-ihracatında olan artış oranları Bulgaristan'la olan ticaretine bakıldığında yine aynı şekilde, ihracatın logaritmik bir şekilde artışı ithalatın ise azalarak arttığı görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte 1996 yılında Bulgaristan'a yapılan ihracat aynı yıl içindeki toplam ihracatın %0,6'sını

oluşturmaktadır. İki ülke arasındaki ticarete ülkelerin “kazan-kazan” ilkesiyle hareket ettiği görülmektedir. 2005 yılına bakıldığında ise Bulgaristan ile yapılan ticaret toplam ihracat rakamlarının %1,6’sını oluşturmaktadır. 1996 yılında Türkiye’nin ithalatına bakıldığında Bulgaristan’la yapılan ticaret toplam ithalatın %0,8’ini oluştururken, 2005 yılında Türkiye’nin toplam ithalatının %1’ini oluşturmaktadır.

2.1.1. Ürün Grupları Bazında Türkiye-Bulgaristan Dış Ticareti (1996-2005)

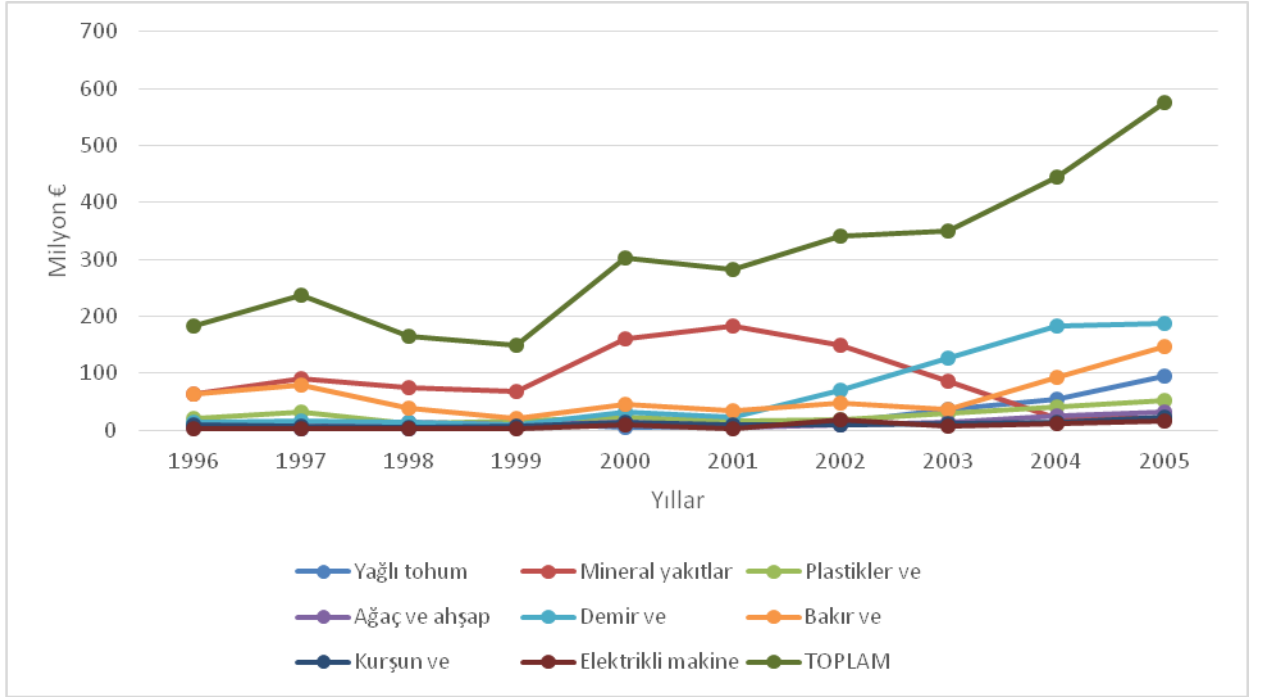
Türkiye’den Bulgaristan arasında yapılan ticarete bakıldığında yaklaşık olarak 94 ürün grubunun ticaretinin yapıldığı görülmektedir. Sofya Ticaret Müşavirliği’nin yaptığı konu ile ilgili bir çalışmada Türkiye’den Bulgaristan’a en çok mineral yakıtlar, mineral yağlar, bakır, plastik, elektrikli makina ve cihazlar, diğer makineler, metal cevherleri, demir ve çelik ürün gruplarının ihraç edildiği görülmektedir. İthal edilen ürünlerde ise mineral yakıtlar, mineral yağlar, bakır, demir ve çelik, yağlı tohum ve meyveler, elektrikli makina ve cihazlar, ağaç ve ahşap eşya, plastik, kurşun gibi ürün grupları hâkimdir (Sofya Büyükelçiliği Ticaret Müşavirliği, 2015: 5).



Grafik 2. İhracat Ürün Grupları 1996-2005 (Milyon €)

Kaynak: TÜİK (1996-2005) verilerinden derlenerek hazırlanmıştır.

Grafikte yatay ekseninde yıllar dikey ekseninde ise ihracat rakamları “Milyon €” cinsinden verilmiştir. Sofya Ticaret Müşavirliğinin belirlediği bu 6 ürün grubunun 10 yıllık dönemdeki verileri ele alınarak grafik oluşturulmuştur. Bu ürün grupları içerisinde en çok ihraç edilen ürün grubu 2004 yılına kadar “Elektrikli Makine ve Cihazlar” olduğu belirlenmiştir. Fakat 2005 yılına bakıldığında Türkiye’nin “Demir ve Çelik” ürünleri ihracatının “Elektrikli Makine ve Cihazlar” ürün grubunun üstüne çıktığı görülmektedir. 1996 yılında bu ürün gruplarının toplam ihracatı 19.49 Milyon € iken, 2005 yılında 274.4 Milyon €’ya yükseldiği tespit edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte 1996 yılındaki 6 ürün grubunun toplam ihracat içindeki payı %15 iken, 2005 yılında bu rakam %28’e yükselmiştir.



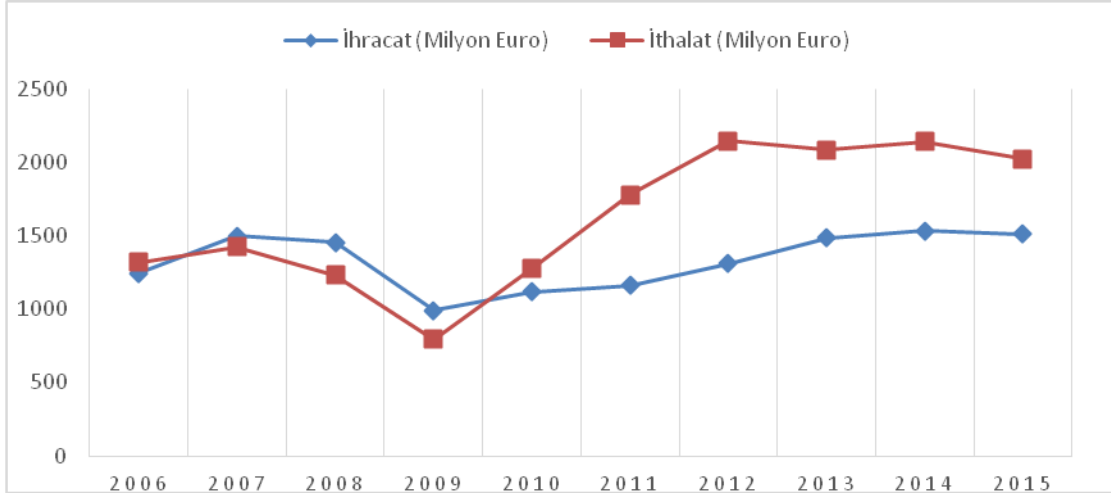
Grafik 3. İthalat Ürün Grupları 1996-2005

Kaynak: TÜİK (1996-2005) verilerinden derlenerek hazırlanmıştır.

Sofya Ticaret Müşavirliği'nin belirlediği en çok ithal edilen 8 ürün grubu ele alınmıştır. Bu ürün gruplarının 10 yıllık dönemdeki verileri grafikte belirtilmiştir. 1996 yılında en çok ithal edilen ürün grubu "Bakır ve Bakırdan Eşya" iken 2005 yılında en çok ithal edilen ürün grubu "Demir ve Çelik" olmuştur. Buradaki ürün gruplarının toplam ithalatına baktığımızda azalarak arttığı görülmektedir. 8 ürün grubunun toplam ithalat içindeki payına bakıldığında 1996 yılında %65 iken 2005 yılında bu rakam %60 olarak belirlenmiştir.

2.2. Türkiye Bulgaristan Dış Ticareti 2006-2015

Çalışmanın ikinci dönemi olarak ele aldığımız 2006-2015 aralığında Türkiye-Bulgaristan ekonomik ilişkileri açısından çok önemli gelişmeler olmuştur. 1 Ocak 2007 tarihinde Bulgaristan'ın AB'ye üye olmasıyla birlikte iki ülke arasındaki Serbest Ticaret Anlaşması yerini Türkiye-AB Gümrük Birliği Kararı'na bırakmıştır(Türk Bulgar Ticaret ve Sanayi Odası, www.tbcci.bg/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=120&Itemid=161&lang=tr, erişim tarihi:01.02.2016). Böylelikle, iki ülke menşeli mallar ile iki ülkeden herhangi birine üçüncü ülkelerden ithal edilmiş olsa dahi gümrük vergileri ödenerek millileştirilmiş her türlü sanayi malının iki ülke arasında ticareti gümrük vergisi vb. diğer kesintilerden muaf olarak yapılmaya başlanmıştır. Gümrük birliği nedeniyle Türkiye ile Bulgaristan AB üyesi olmayan üçüncü ülkelere karşı ortak bir gümrük tarifesi uygulamaktadır (Konya Ticaret Odası, 2008: 22). Gümrük tarifeleri, ülkeler arasındaki ticarete ithal edilen mallar ve ihraç edilen malların üzerine konan ve bu malların ülkeye giriş-çıkışlarında alınan vergilerdir (Kaymakçı, 2010: 51).



Grafik 4. Türkiye Bulgaristan İhracat İthalat Grafiği 2006-2015

Kaynak: TÜİK verilerinden derlenerek grafik oluşturulmuştur.

Grafikte iki ülke arasında 2006-2015 döneminde yapılan ithalat ve ihracat rakamları verilmiştir. Bu dönemde 1 Ocak 2007 yılında Bulgaristan'ın AB'ye girmesiyle iki ülke arasında ithalat ve ihracatta artış yaşanmıştır. 2007 yılından sonra 2009 krizi etkileri ortaya çıkmış ve iki ülke arasındaki ticarete 2009 yılında bu dönemdeki en alt sınıra gelinmiştir. 2009 yılından 2015 yılına kadar olan dönemde ithalat ve ihracat azalarak artmıştır. 2006 yılında ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı %94, 2015 yılında ise bu oran %74 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Tablo 2. Türkiye Toplam İthalat-İhracat, Bulgaristan'a Yapılan İthalat İhracat (2006-2015)

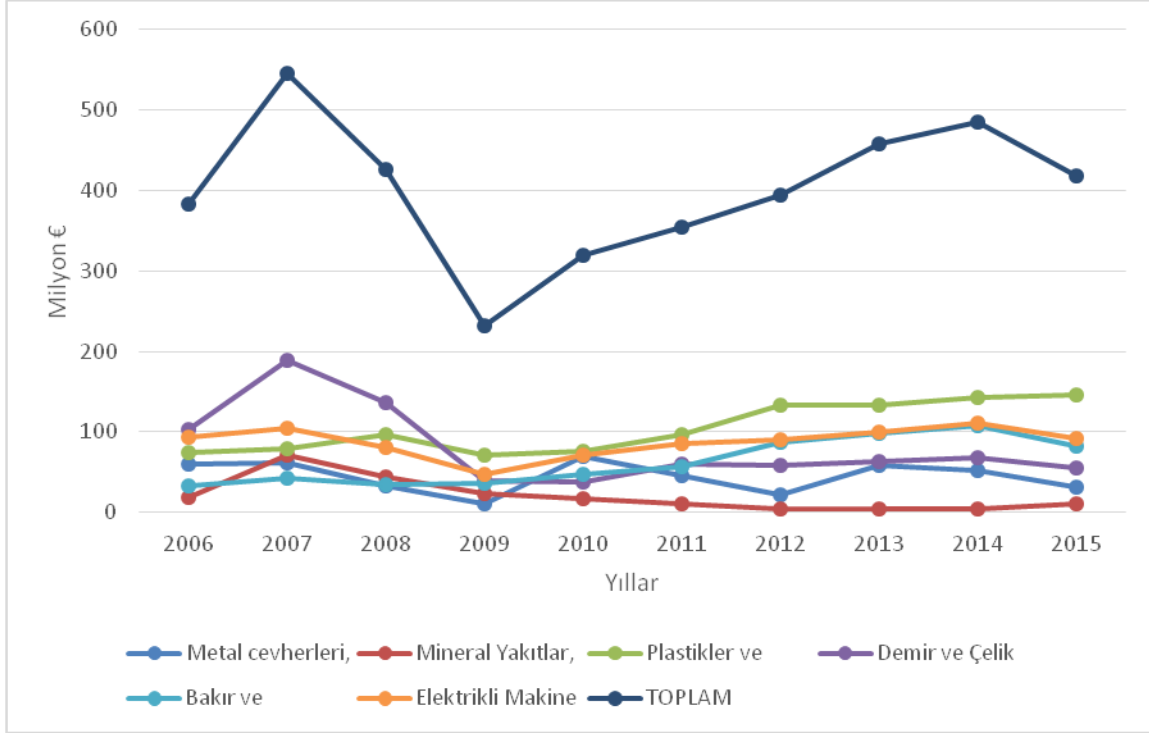
Yıllar	Türkiye Toplam İhracat-İthalat		Türkiye-Bulgaristan İhracat - İthalat	
	İhracat(Milyar Euro)	İthalat (Milyar Euro)	İhracat (Milyon Euro)	İthalat (Milyon Euro)
2006	68.02	111.095	1243.73	1320.35
2007	78.126	123.959	1500.94	1424.13
2008	89.559	136.441	1456.41	1232.12
2009	73.283	100.763	991.31	794.88
2010	85.263	138.813	1120.31	1274.04
2011	96.973	173.098	1163.73	1777.31
2012	118.644	184.086	1311.46	2147.49
2013	114.562	189.784	1487.13	2083.79
2014	118.657	182.337	1533.06	2141.12
2015	129.647	186.508	1511.23	2025.28

Kaynak: (TÜİK biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/menu.zul, erişim tarihi: 09.02.2016).

Türkiye'nin 10 yıllık dönem içerisinde toplam ithalatı ve ihracatı azalarak artmıştır. Bununla birlikte Bulgaristan ile olan ticari ilişkilerinde de ihracat ve ithalat azalarak artmıştır. Türkiye'nin 2006 yılındaki Bulgaristan'a ihracatının toplam ihracat içindeki payı %1.8, toplam ithalat içindeki payı ise %1.1'dir. 2015 yılında toplam ihracattaki payı %1.1, toplam ithalattaki payı ise %1'dir. İki ülke arasındaki ticarete Türkiye'nin ihracatının maksimum olduğu yıl 2014, ithalatının maksimum olduğu yıl ise 2012 olarak tespit edilmiştir.

2.2.1. Ürün Grupları Bazında Türkiye-Bulgaristan Dış Ticareti (2006-2015)

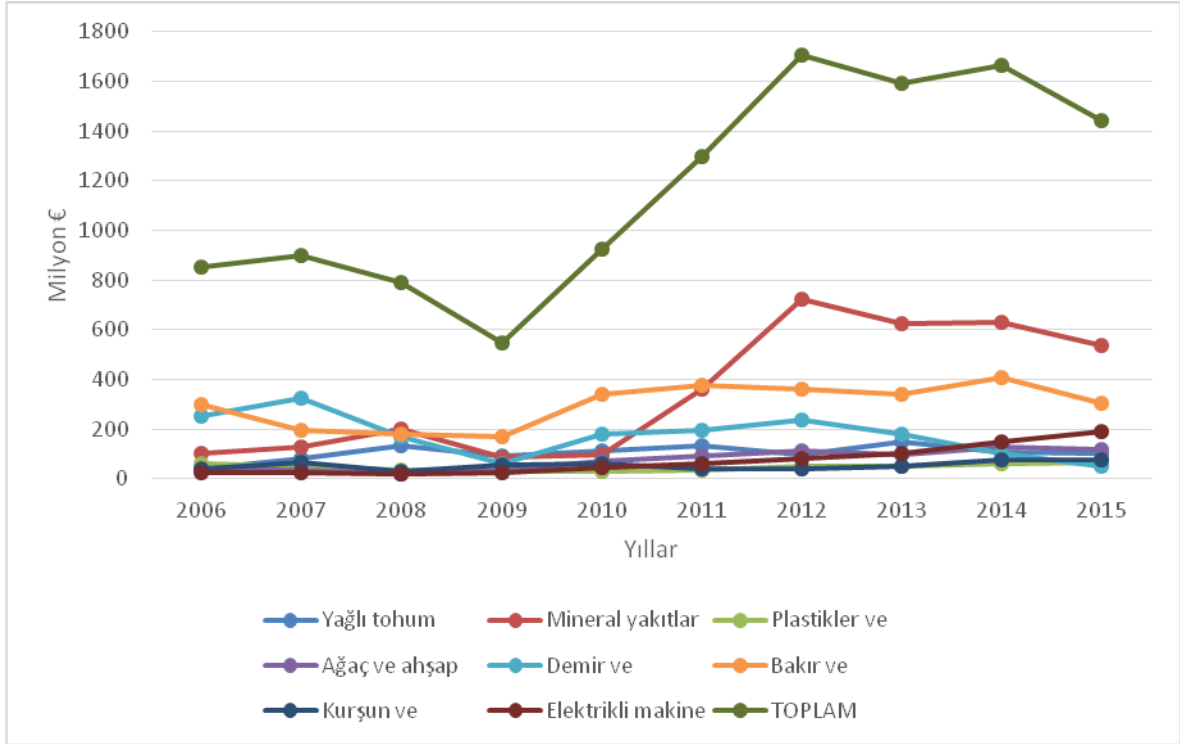
Türkiye ve Bulgaristan'ın ticari ilişkilerinde, Sofya Ticaret Müşavirliğinin belirlediği ihracattaki 6 ürün grubu ile ithalattaki 8 ürün grubu ele alınarak aşağıdaki grafik elde edilmiştir.



Grafik 5. İhracat Ürün Grupları (2006-2015)

Kaynak: TÜİK verilerinden derlenerek grafik oluşturulmuştur.

Belirlenen 6 ürün grubunun yıllara göre ihracat verileri grafikte belirtilmiştir. 2006 yılında en çok ihraç edilen ürün grubu "Demir ve Çelik", en az ihraç edilen ürün grubu ise "Mineral Yakıtlar ve Yağlar" olduğu tespit edilmiştir. 2015 Yılına kadar olan süreçte ürün gruplarının ihracatındaki rakamlar azalarak artış göstermektedir. 2007 yılı "Demir ve Çelik" ihracatının maksimum olduğu yıl olarak belirlenmiştir. 2015 yılına bakıldığında en çok ihraç edilen ürün grubu "Plastikler ve Mamulleri" en az ihraç edilen ürün grubu ise "Mineral Yakıtlar ve Yağlar" olarak tespit edilmiştir. Bu dönem içerisinde belirlenen ürün grupların ihracatının maksimum olduğu yıl 2007 yılı olarak tespit edilmiştir. 2006 yılında belirlenen ürün gruplarının Bulgaristan'a yapılan toplam ihracat içindeki payı %30, 2015 yılında ise %27'dir.



Grafik 6. İthalat Ürün Grupları 2006-2015

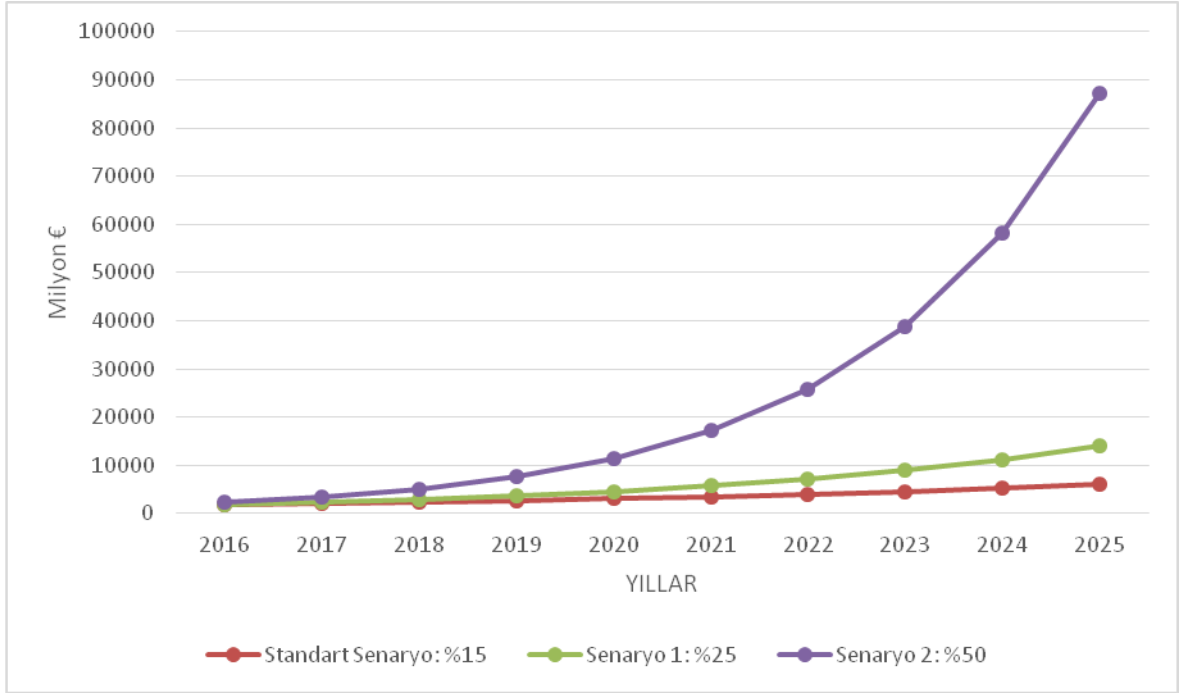
Kaynak: TÜİK verilerinden derlenerek grafik oluşturulmuştur.

Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'dan yaptığı ithalat için daha önceki dönemde ele alınan ürün grupları 2006-2015 döneminde ele alınmıştır. Bu dönemin verilerinden yukarıdaki grafik elde edilmiştir. 2006 yılında en çok ithal edilen ürün grubu "Bakır ve Bakırdan Eşya", en az ithal edilen ürün grubu ise "Elektrikli Makine ve Cihazlar" olmuştur. 2009 yılında ekonomik krizin etkisiyle belirlenen ürün gruplarının ithalatı minimum seviyeye gelmiştir. 2009 yılından 2012 yılına kadar ithalat logaritmik bir şekilde artmaktadır. 2012 yılı Türkiye'nin ithalatındaki maksimum olduğu noktadır. Bu dönemde ve sonraki dönemlerde en çok ithal edilen ürün grubu "Mineral Yakıtlar ve Yağlar" olarak tespit edilmiştir. Belirlenen ürün gruplarının toplam ithalatının, Bulgaristan'dan yapılan toplam ithalat içindeki payı 2006 yılında %64, 2015 yılında ise %71 olarak tespit edilmiştir.

3. Türkiye Bulgaristan Dış Ticaret İlişkilerinin Geleceği

Ortak bir tarihsel ve kültürel geçmişi paylaştığımız komşumuz Bulgaristan, Balkanlarda çok önemli bir stratejik bir coğrafi konuma sahiptir. Bulgaristan Türkiye açısından önemli bir ülkedir. İki ülke arasındaki ekonomik ilişkiler Bulgaristan'ın 2004 yılında NATO'ya, 2007 yılında da AB'ye üye olmasıyla gelişim göstermiştir.

1996 yılından 2015 yılına kadar olan süreci çalışmanın önceki iki bölümünde inceledik. Bu dönemlerde iki ülke arasındaki ticaret hacmi azalarak artmaktaydı. Gelecek dönemlerde iki ülke arasındaki ithalat ve ihracattaki değişimi diğer şartları standart olarak düşünüp 2015 yılından sonraki dönemlerde yıllık artış miktarı %15, %25 ve %50 olarak belirlenip 3 farklı senaryo hazırlanmıştır.



Grafik 7: 2016-2025 Dönemi Türkiye Bulgaristan Tahmini İhracat Grafiği

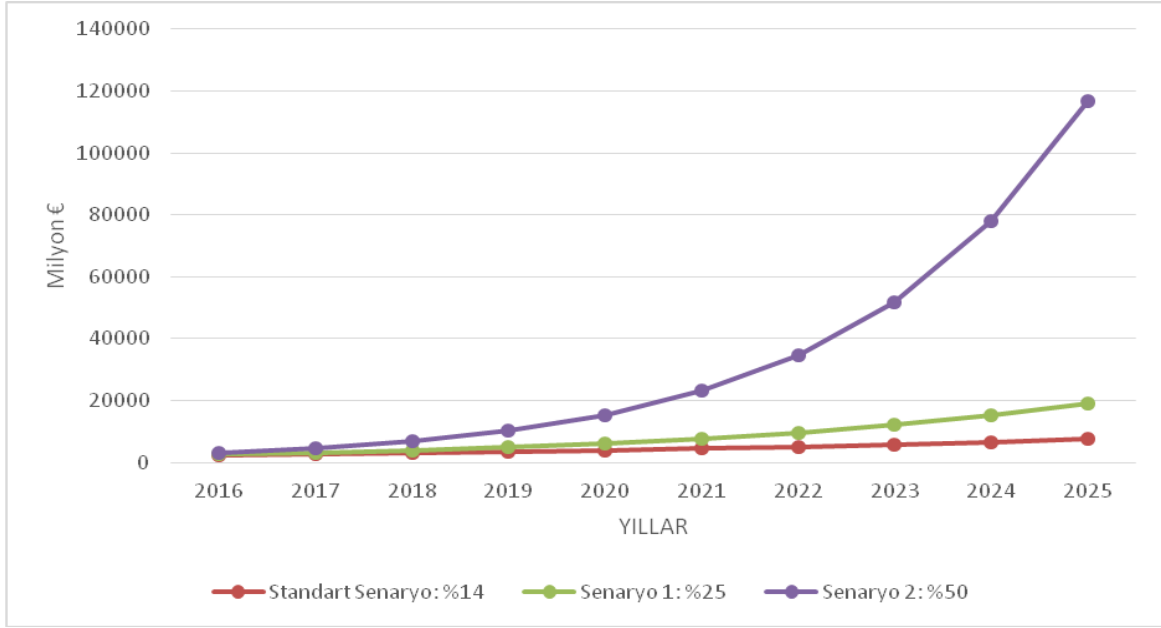
Kaynak: TÜİK verilerinden hareketle tahmini grafik oluşturulmuştur.

*Standart Senaryo: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a 1996 yılından 2015 yılına kadar yaptığı ihracatın yıllık artışlarının aritmetik ortalaması %15 olarak hesaplanmış ve gelecek dönemlerde bu artışın yıllık %15 artışla gerçekleştiği varsayılarak hesaplanmıştır.

**Senaryo 1: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ihracatı yıllık %25 artış oranıyla 2016-2025 yılları arasında tahmin edilmiştir.

***Senaryo 2: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ihracatı potansiyel üst sınır olarak %50 artış oranıyla 2016-2025 yılları arasında tahmin edilmiştir.

Grafikte "Standart Senaryo" turuncu renkte, "Senaryo 1" gri renkte ve "Senaryo 2" sarı renkte gösterilmiştir. Önümüzdeki 10 yıl içerisinde Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ihracatında yıllık %15 artış gerçekleşirse 2025 yılına gelindiğinde ihracatın 6.1 Milyar €'ya ulaşması beklenmektedir. Yıllık artış oranının %25 olduğu diğer bir durumda ise 2025 yılına gelindiğinde Türkiye'nin ihracatının 14 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ihracatında potansiyel üst sınır olarak tahmin edilen yıllık artış oranının %50 olduğu varsayılan durumda ise Türkiye'nin ihracatının 2025 yılında 87.14 Milyar €'ya kadar ulaşabileceği bir durum mevcuttur.



Grafik 8: 2016-2025 Dönemi Türkiye Bulgaristan Tahmini İthalat Grafiği

Kaynak: TÜİK verilerinden hareketle tahmini grafik oluşturulmuştur.

*Standart Senaryo: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a 1996 yılından 2015 yılına kadar yaptığı ithalatın yıllık artışlarının aritmetik ortalaması %14 olarak hesaplanmış ve gelecek dönemlerde bu artışın yıllık %14 artışla gerçekleştiği varsayılarak hesaplanmıştır.

**Senaryo 1: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ithalatı yıllık %25 artış oranıyla 2016-2025 yılları arasında tahmin edilmiştir.

***Senaryo 2: Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ithalatı potansiyel üst sınır olarak %50 artış oranıyla 2016-2025 yılları arasında tahmin edilmiştir.

Grafikte "Standart Senaryo" turuncu renkte, "Senaryo 1" gri renkte ve "Senaryo 2" sarı renkte gösterilmiştir. Önümüzdeki 10 yıl içerisinde Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ithalatında yıllık %14 artış gerçekleşmesi durumunda 2025 yılına gelindiğinde ithalatın 7.5 Milyar €'ya ulaşması beklenmektedir. Yıllık artış oranının %25 olduğu diğer bir durumda ise 2025 yılına gelindiğinde Türkiye'nin ithalatının 18.8 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Türkiye'nin Bulgaristan'a ithalatında potansiyel üst sınır olarak tahmin edilen yıllık artış oranının %50 olduğu varsayılan durumda ise Türkiye'nin ithalatının 2025 yılında 116.7 Milyar €'ya kadar ulaşabileceği verisine ulaşılmıştır.

"Grafik 7" ve "Grafik 8"'de tahmin edilen senaryoların gerçekleşmesi durumunda iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacmindeki değişiklikleri incelediğimizde:

Standart senaryonun gerçekleşmesi durumunda iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacmi 13.6 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Ülkeler arasındaki ticarete yıllık artış oranlarının %25 olarak tahmin edildiği senaryo 1'in gerçekleşmesi durumunda ise iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacminin 32.8 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Ülkeler arasındaki ticaretin potansiyel üst sınır olarak belirlenen senaryo 2'nin gerçekleşmesi durumunda ise iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacminin 203.8 Milyar €'ya kadar ulaşabileceği hesaplamalar neticesinde görülebilmektedir.

İki ülke arasındaki ticarete diğer bir gelecek beklentisi de coğrafi yakınlık ilkesi altında düşünüldüğünde ülkelerdeki yabancı yatırımcıların da artması beklenmektedir. Bulgaristan, Türkiye'deki ticaret merkezlerine yakınlığıyla diğer ülkelere göre avantajlı bir konumdadır. Bu stratejik konum yatırımcıları da beraberinde getirecektir. Bulgaristan'ın AB üyesi olması Türk yatırımcıların AB'ye girmesinde köprü bir rol oynamaktadır. Türk yatırımcılar Türkiye AB'ye girene kadar olan süreçte Bulgaristan'da doğrudan ve dolaylı yatırımlar yaparak AB piyasalarında daha da etkili olabileceklerdir. Bulgaristan'daki Türk yatırımcıların sayısının gelecek dönemlerde giderek artması beklenmektedir.

4. Değerlendirme Ve Sonuç

Türkiye ve Bulgaristan ortak tarihsel ve kültürel bir mirasa sahiptir. Stratejik konum, coğrafik yakınlık ve komşuluk ilişkileri doğal olarak ekonomik ve ticari ilişkileri de beraberinde getirmiştir. Bulgaristan'ın AB'ye girmesiyle birlikte ülkelerin ticari ilişkileri daha da gelişmiştir. Bulgaristan Türkiye için Avrupa Birliği'ne giden önemli bir köprü konumundadır.

Çalışmanın ilk bölümünde Türkiye ile Bulgaristan'ın 1996-2005 ve 2006-2015 dönemlerindeki ekonomik ilişkileri incelenmiştir. 1996 yılından 2005 yılına kadar olan süreçte Türkiye'nin ihracatı logaritmik olarak artmakta, ithalatı ise azalarak artmaktadır. Bulgaristan'ın 2004 yılında NATO'ya üye olmasıyla birlikte iki ülkenin ekonomik ilişkileri daha da gelişmiş ve 2005 yılında ithalat ve ihracat 10 yıllık periyod içerisinde en yüksek seviyesine ulaşmıştır. İki ülke arasındaki ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı açısından incelediğimiz de 2005 yılında ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı en yüksek seviyededir. 1996 yılında %43 olan ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı 2005 yılında %99'a yükselmiştir. 2006-2015 dönemindeki ekonomik ilişkileri incelediğimizde bu dönemdeki en önemli gelişme Bulgaristan'ın 2007 yılında AB'ye üye olmasıdır. Bu iki ülke arasındaki ekonomik ilişkilerde gelişimi de beraberinde getirmiştir. 2007 yılından sonra 2009 krizi etkileri ortaya çıkmış ve iki ülke arasındaki ticarete 2009 yılında bu dönemdeki en alt sınıra gelinmiştir. 2009 yılından 2015 yılına kadar olan dönemde ithalat ve ihracat azalarak artmıştır. 2006 yılında ihracatın ithalatı karşılama oranı %94, 2015 yılında ise bu oran %74 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Çalışmanın ikinci bölümünde ülkelerin ticari ilişkilerinin 2016-2025 dönemi gelecek tahminleri yapılmıştır. Bu verileri elde etmek için üç farklı senaryo tahmin edilmiştir. Standart senaryo ülkelerin 20 yıllık ithalat ve ihracat verilerinden yıllık ortalama artış hızı hesaplanıp önümüzdeki 10 yıl içerisinde ihracatın ve ithalatın ortalama artış hızı kadar artması tahmin edilmiştir. Senaryo 1'de ülkelerin yıllık artış hızı %25 olarak varsayılarak tahmin edilmiştir. Senaryo 2'de ise ülkelerin ithalat ve ihracatında potansiyel üst sınır olarak yıllık artış hızının %50 olduğu durum varsayılarak tahmin edilmiştir. Standart senaryonun gerçekleşmesi durumunda iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacmi 13.6 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Ülkeler arasındaki ticarete yıllık artış oranlarının %25 olarak tahmin edildiği senaryo 1'in gerçekleşmesi durumunda ise iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacminin 32.8 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı tahmin edilmiştir. Ülkeler arasındaki ticaretin potansiyel üst sınır olarak belirlenen senaryo 2'nin gerçekleşmesi durumunda ise iki ülke arasındaki dış ticaret hacminin 203.8 Milyar €'ya ulaşacağı varsayılmıştır. Ülkeler arasındaki ticarete "kazan-kazan" ilkesiyle doğru politikalar izlemeleri durumunda şuanda 3.5 Milyar € olan aralarındaki ticaret hacminin 2025 yılına gelindiğinde 203.8 Milyar €'ya kadar ulaşabileceği sonucuna varılmıştır.

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Küresel Ekonomide Türkiye'nin Yeni Rolü

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Özet: Küreselleşme kavramı birçok şekilde açıklanabilen bir kavramdır. Bu çalışmada küreselleşme, maddi olan değerlerle birlikte oluşan birikimlerin ulusal sınırların ötesinde yayılması, olarak tanımlanmıştır. Bu kavram, gelişmiş ülkelerin elinde şekillenebilen ve gelişmekte olan ile geri kalmış ülkelerde ise uymaları gereken bir süreç olarak yaşanmaktadır.

Türkiye’ de, son yıllarda yapısal reformlara büyük önem verilmektedir. Ülkemizde geçtiğimiz dönemlerde özelleştirme süreci hızlandırılmış ve kamu maliyesine düzen getirilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra mali piyasalar, tarım, enerji ve iletişim sektörlerinde kayda değer reformlar yapılmıştır. Yapılan bu reformlar sayesinde ekonomik kurumların alt yapıları güçlendirilmiş böylece uluslararası piyasalarda meydana gelebilecek dalgalanmalara karşı ekonomi daha dayanıklı hale getirilmiştir.

Bu çalışmada, küreselleşme kavramı ve Türkiye’nin bu kavram içerisindeki rolü ve yapması gerekenler ele alınmıştır. Aynı zamanda, ekonomik anlamda dünyanın başında gelen ülkelerin de küreselleşme sürecinde yaptıkları incelenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Küresel Ekonomi, Dünya’ da Küreselleşme, Küreselleşme ve Türkiye Ekonomisi.

Jel Kodu: F01, F30, O5

Turkey's New Role in Global Economy

Abstract: The concept of globalization is a concept that can be described in many ways. Globalization is defined as composed accumulation of along with material assets spread beyond national borders in this study. This concept can be shaped in the hands of developed countries and which is experienced as a process that must comply with in the developing and underdeveloped countries.

It gives great importance on structural reforms in recent years in Turkey. In prior years, the process of privatization accelerated and was brought to layout the public finance in our country. In addition, it was performed considerable reforms in financial areas, agriculture, energy and communications sectors. The infrastructure of economic institutions thanks to these reforms made reinforced so, economy has become more resistant against fluctuations that may occur in the international area.

In this study, the concept of globalization and Turkey's role in this concept and should do have been discussed. At the same time economically, the leading countries of the world were examined what they do in the globalization process.

Key Words: Global Economy, Globalization All Over the World, Globalization and Economy of Turkey.

Jel Codes: F01, F30, O5

1. Giriş

İlk ortaya atılma tarihi 1959 olarak kabul gören ancak bununla birlikte bazı farklı tarihlerle de anılmakta olan küreselleşme kavramı, gittikçe artan ve hızlanan ekonomik ve siyasi serbestleşme ile birlikte 1980’li yılların sonuna doğru daha büyük boyutlar kazanmıştır. Bu kavram gelişmiş ülkelerde daha kontrollü büyürken, gelişmekte olan ve geri kalmış ülkeler açısından kontrol edilmesi zor bir şekilde ilerlemektedir. Küreselleşmenin en çok ortaya çıkan özelliği, çok boyutlu ve her alanda sınırlarının olmamasıdır.

Bu kavram Türkiye’ de 1980’li yıllarda ki dışa açılma süreciyle birlikte kendini göstermeye başlamıştır. Ülkenin refah düzeyinin artması için siyasi ve ekonomik açıdan küreselleşme sürecinin koşullarına uyabilmesi çok önemli bir gerekliliktir. Küreselleşmenin olumlu etkilerinin yanında olumsuz etkileri de bulunmaktadır. Bu etkilere karşı Türkiye; AB ve diğer komşu ülkelerle olan ekonomik bütünleşme ve dış ekonomik ilişkileri geliştirme çabalarını sürdürülmelidir. Bu sayede hem sıcak para akışının hareketi denetlenmiş hem de doğrudan yabancı yatırımlar teşvik edilmiş olunur.

Çalışma, ekonominin yıllar içerisinde nasıl küreselleştiğinin ve bu küreselleşmenin nasıl bir gereklilik olduğunun açıklanmasıyla başlamıştır ve sürecin ülkeler arasında ve ülkeler içindeki gelir dağılımını nasıl etkilediği ele alınmıştır. Çalışmanın devamında ise Türkiye’nin belirli dönem aralıklarındaki küreselleşmesi ve son yıllardaki yeri tartışılmıştır.

2. Ekonominin Küreselleşmesi

Küreselleşme, maddi olan değerlerin ve bu değerler doğrultusunda oluşmuş birikimlerin ulusal sınırlarının ötesine çıkarak dünya çapında hızla yayılması anlamına gelmektedir (Turan, 2011, s. 8). 1980’lerden bugüne gelişme kat eden küreselleşme olgusunun gerçekleşmesi bazı değişim ve dönüşümlerle beraber olmuştur ve bu olgu dünyayı tek pazar konumuna getirmeye yönelmiştir. Bugünkü küreselleşme, bilgi toplumu ve bilgi ekonomisi ile etkileşim halindedir. Dolayısıyla tek pazar konumuna gelmek daha kolaylaşmıştır. Küreselleşme aynı zamanda, teknolojinin gelişmesi ve tüm dünya da serbestleşmeye dayalı politikaların zamanla artmasıyla ortaya çıkan ekonomik gelişmenin doğrultusunda ülkelerin mal, hizmet ve sermaye süreçlerini anlatan bir kavramdır (Kaymakçı, 2004, s. 252).

Küreselleşmeyle birlikte ülkelerin ekonomilerini birbirinden ayıran gümrük duvarları, tarifeler ve kotalar gibi engellerin giderek azaltılması ile malların, hizmetlerin, işgücünün ve sermayenin ülkeler arasında daha hızlı ve kolay dolaşabilmesi sağlanır. Bu da bütünleşmeyi daha kolay hale getirir.

2.1. Küreselleşmenin Tarihçesi

Küreselleşmenin başladığı tarih tam olarak bilinmese de, göçlerin yapılmaya başlanması, ticarethanelerin kurulması, deniz yollarının kullanılarak yeni yerlerin keşfedilmesi, büyük pazarların kurulması ve binek hayvanlarının evcilleştirilmesine kadar dayanan bir süreç olduğu tahmin edilmektedir.

Bu kavramın bugünkü haliyle ilk kullanımı 4 Nisan 1959 yılında yayımlanan The Economist dergisiyle başlamıştır. Daha sonra Mc Luhan 1962 yılında yazdığı bir yazıda “global village” yani “küresel köy” kavramını ilk kez kullanmış ve dünyanın tek Pazar haline geleceği fikrini ortaya atmıştır (Aktel, 2001, s. 195). 1980’li yıllarda Z. Brzezinski tarafından ele alınıp desteklenmiştir. 1990’ların başlarında ise ilk kez sunarak bu kavramın yaygınlaşmasını sağlayan kişi A. Giddens olmuştur. Küreselleşme başlıklı ilk çalışmanın ise R. Robertson tarafından yazılan “Globalization: Social Theory and Global Culture” isimli kitap olduğu söylenebilir (Elçin, 2012, s. 3).

Küreselleşmeyi temel dönemlere ayırmak gerekirse;

- Birinci dönem olarak; 1453 İstanbul’un fethinden 1800’lü yılların sonu ele alınır. Bu dönemde ilk sömürgecilik hareketleriyle birlikte yeni altın ve gümüş kaynaklarına ulaşılmıştır. Sömürgelerden elde edilen kaynaklar batıya aktarılmış ve batının zenginleşmesini sağlamıştır.
- İkinci dönem, 1870 endüstri devrimi ve 1914 Birinci Dünya Savaşı arasında yaşanan dönemdir. Bu dönemde de Batı’ya kaynak aktarımı devam etmiştir. Buharlı gemi, telgraf, telefon gibi yenilikler artarak işgücü, sermaye ve üretimin hızlı bir şekilde yer değiştirebilmesini kolaylaştırmıştır. Tüm bu gelişmeler Birinci Dünya Savaşı’nın başlamasıyla birlikte hızını kaybetmiştir.
- Üçüncü dönem ise, 1945 İkinci Dünya Savaşı sonrası ve 1989 Berlin duvarının yıkılması, Doğu Bloğunun çökmesi dönemidir. Sömürgeci devletler arasında yaşanan çıkar çatışmaları yüzünden çıkan iki savaş ve kapitalizme karşı doğan Sovyet Bloğu küreselleşmenin hızını azaltmıştır. Ancak sonrasında süren mücadeleler sonucunda Berlin Duvarının yıkılması ve Doğu Bloğunun çökmesiyle küreselleşme yeniden ivme kazanmıştır (Elçin, 2012, s. 7-9). Ekonomik anlamda, uluslararası ticaret hacmi ve uluslararası sermaye akımlarının hızı daha önce hiç görülmemiş seviyelere erişmiş, küresel üretim süreçleri büyük bir dönüşüm yaşamıştır (Bayar, 2011, s. 27) .

Günümüz küresel ekonomisinin yürütülmesinde, uluslararası bankacılık ile uluslararası döviz, tahvil ve bono piyasaları büyük bir role ve öneme sahiptir.

3. Ülkelere Göre Küreselleşme

3.1. Dünyanın Başat Ülkelerinin Ekonomileri ve Küreselleşmesi

Küreselleşmeyle birlikte gündeme gelen Yeni Dünya Düzeni beraberinde, bir türlü çözülemeyen işsizlik, gelir eşitsizliği, suç oranlarının artması, sosyal güvensizlik, yasadışı göç v.b. sorunları da getirmiştir. Bu durum aslında gelişmiş ülkeler için de sorun teşkil etmektedir. Çünkü bu ülkeler küreselleşmelerini, az gelişmiş ülkelerle yaptıkları tek taraflı ticari çıkarlar üzerine kurmakta ve dolayısıyla yaşanan sorunlardan uzak duramamaktadırlar. Ancak diğer bir yandan da, gelişmiş ülkelerle dünyanın geri kalanı arasında uçurum giderek derinleşmekte ve büyümektedir (Kloby, 2005, s. 472).

ABD, 50 yıldır süre gelen Yeni Dünya Düzeni'nin (YDD) kuruluşu, yaşatılması ve geliştirilmesi için öncülük etmiş ve bunun için gerekli kaynakları seferber etmekten imtina etmemiştir. Dolayısıyla döneminin tartışmasız öncüsü durumundadır. Ancak, bugün ortaya çıkan Japonya, Almanya ve Çin gibi rekabetçi rakiplerinin karşısında durumu zorlaşmıştır. Amerikalı ekonomist J. GARTEN, ABD'nin bugünkü durumu için, "Birleşik Devletler otomobil endüstrisinin ölümü, Amerika'nın öncü olduğu yarı iletken üretiminin zayıflaması, yabancı sermayeye artan bağımlılık dev boyutlu sorunlar yaratıyor. ABD bundan on yıl sonra, yirmi yıl öncesinin durumunu yakalayabilirse kendini son derece şanslı saymalı..." demektedir.

ABD'nin dışında Almanya ve Japonya'da da olumsuzluklar baş göstermektedir. Örneğin Almanya'da yoksulluk yardımı alanların sayısı her geçen gün artmakta ve Japonya'da alt yapı yetersizlikleri, konut sorunu ve gelir dağılımındaki ayrımların artmaya başlaması iç siyasetteki gerilimi arttırmaktadır. Japonya'nın ulusal servetindeki hızlı artış nüfusun bir kısmını daha da zenginleştirip diğer kısmının daha da fakirleşmesine yol açmıştır. Diğer yandan bakıldığında ise servetteki bu artış diğer gelişmiş ülkelerle karşılaştırıldığında geride kalmıştır.

Uluslararası para fonu olan IMF'nin ekim ayı itibarıyla güncellediği veri tabanına göre 2014 yılı milli gelirinde ilk 20 ülke sırası değişmemektedir. ABD 17 trilyon 437 milyar dolarla birinciliğini korurken, Çin 9 trilyon 761 milyar dolarla ikinci, Japonya 5 trilyon 228 milyar dolarla üçüncü sırada yer almaktadır. 2013 yılı baz alındığında çok büyük değişimlerin yaşanmadığı görülmektedir. Ülkelerin 2012-2014 cari fiyatlarla GSYH sıralamalarını aşağıdaki tablodan inceleyebiliriz.

Tablo 1. En Büyük İlk 20 Ekonomi 2012-2014 (Cari Fiyatlarla GSYH; Milyar \$)

		2012		2013		2014
1	ABD	16.244.575	ABD	16.724.272	ABD	17.437.856
2	Çin	8.221.015	Çin	8.939.327	Çin	9.761.201
3	Japonya	5.960.269	Japonya	5.007.203	Japonya	5.228.495
4	Almanya	3.429.519	Almanya	3.593.238	Almanya	4.747.066
5	Fransa	2.613.936	Fransa	2.738.676	Fransa	2.862.508
6	İngiltere	2.476.665	İngiltere	2.489.674	İngiltere	2.627.351
7	Brezilya	2.253.090	Brezilya	2.190.218	Rusya	2.169.802
8	Rusya	2.029.813	Rusya	2.117.831	Brezilya	2.147.968
9	İtalya	2.014.078	İtalya	2.068.366	İtalya	2.147.968
10	Hindistan	1.841.717	Kanada	1.825.062	Kanada	1.886.679
11	Kanada	1.821.445	Hindistan	1.758.216	Hindistan	1.749.965
12	Avustralya	1.541.700	Avustralya	1.487.971	Avustralya	1.458.907
13	İspanya	1.323.500	İspanya	1.355.660	Meksika	1.395.563
14	Meksika	1.177.398	Meksika	1.327.021	İspanya	1.394.371
15	G. Kore	1.129.536	G. Kore	1.197.506	G. Kore	1.271.252
16	Endonezya	878.536	Endonezya	867.468	Türkiye	867.325
17	Türkiye	785.753	Türkiye	822.763	Endonezya	863.208
18	Hollanda	770.867	Hollanda	800.535	Hollanda	830.006
19	S.Arabistan	711.050	S.Arabistan	718.472	S. Arabistan	746.819
20	İsviçre	631.183	İsviçre	646.199	İsviçre	671.899

Kaynak: (IMF,TÜİK verilerinden derlenmiştir, <http://www.imf.org/external/index.htm>, <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/UstMenu.do?metod=kategorist>, erişim tarihi:03.05.2015)

3.2. Türkiye Ekonomisinin Küreselleşmesi

Küreselleşme gelişmiş ülkeler ve büyük şirketler açısından daha kontrollü bir biçimde ilerlerken, gelişmekte olan ülkeler ve küçük şirketler açısından kendi kontrollerinin dışında ilerleyen ve yola devam edebilmek için uyulması gereken bir süreç olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (Turan, 2011, s. 1). Bu bağlamda gelişmekte olan bir ülke olarak Türkiye de, barındırdığı şirketlerle birlikte, küreselleşme sürecinin olumlu ve olumsuz etkilerine ister istemez maruz kalmaktadır.

Küreselleşme süreci Türkiye’de özellikle 1980’li yıllarda kendini göstermeye başlamıştır. 24 Ocak 1980 kararlarıyla başlayan dışa açılma sürecinden beklenen şey, ülkenin gelişmişlik düzeyi açısından daha ileri aşamalara hızlı bir şekilde geçmesini sağlayabilmektir. Böyle bir sanayileşme stratejisi sayesinde, ülkenin ihracat gelirleri artacak ve bu artış sayesinde elde edilen gelirler, ülkenin sanayileşmesini dolayısıyla gelişmiş ülkelerin ekonomik gelişmişlik düzeylerine ulaşmasını sağlayacaktır (Öztürk ve Özyakışır, 2005, s. 3). 1996 yılında Avrupa Birliği ve Gümrük Birliği’nin yürürlüğe girmesi, küresel bağlamda yaşanan gelişmeler, 2001 krizi ve sonrasında uygulanan yapısal reform programları, ülkemizde pek çok alanda bir dönüşüm yaşanmasına yol açmıştır. Bu bağlamda özellikle dış ticaret açısından büyük bir dönüşüm yaşanmıştır (Adıgüzel, 2013, s. 7).

3.2.1. Türkiye’nin Küreselleşme Yolunda Yapması Gerekenler

Uluslararası bazda incelendiğinde küreselleşmenin dünyadaki gelir dağılımını ciddi bir şekilde bozduğu ve buna bağlı olarak açlık, yoksulluk, eğitimsizlik ve mülteci hareketlerinin arttığı görülmektedir. Tüm dünya ülkeleri arasında milli geliri en yüksek olan ülkelerin oluşturduğu ilk %20’lik dilim ile en düşük milli gelire sahip ülkelerin oluşturduğu son %20’lik dilim arasındaki farkın son 10 yılda 40 misilden 60 misline yükselmesi bu duruma kanıt olarak gösterilebilir (Tekin, 2013, s. 1).

Ülkeler en çok ihracat yaptığı mallar üzerinde yoğunlaşırsa şüphesiz küreselleşmeden elde edeceği katkılar daha fazla olacaktır. Buradan elde ettiği getiriyi ise gelecek sektörlerine ve katma değeri yüksek sektörlerle doğru kaydırmaları ekonomide sıçramaları için önemlidir. G. Kore’den örnek verecek olursak, önceleri peruk ihracatı yapıyorken sonra tekstil ihracatına başlamıştır, bunun da yetersiz kaldığını düşünüp demir-çelik ihracatına yönelmiştir. Daha sonra otomotiv ve son olarak yarı iletkenler alanında ihracatçı konumuna yükselmiştir. Türkiye’nin benzer bir mantık kurgusunda hareket ederek üretim ve ihracat kompozisyonlarını dizayn etmesi gerekmektedir. Bunun için doğrudan ve dolaylı yatırımları teşvik edici, özendirici ve fırsatlar sağlayan düzenlemelere eskisinden de fazla ihtiyaç vardır.

Kısaca özetlemek gerekirse, küreselleşmenin olumsuz etkilerine karşı, AB ve diğer komşu ülkelerle ekonomik bütünleşme çabalarının sürdürülmesi, hem sıcak paranın hareketlerinin denetim altına alınıp hem de doğrudan yabancı yatırımların teşvik edilmesi, kamusal ve kurumsal düzeyde iyi bir yönetim şeklinin sağlanması, temel hak ve özgürlüklerin güvence altına alınarak katılımcı demokratik ortamın yaratılması gibi önlemler gerekmektedir.

3.2.2. 1923-1980 Dönemi Türkiye Ekonomisi

23 Ağustos 1923 yılında TBMM tarafından onaylanarak yürürlüğe giren Lozan Barış Antlaşması, yabancılara sunulan bazı imtiyazları da sona erdirmiştir. Bunun yanında yeni kurulan Türkiye Cumhuriyeti, Osmanlı Devleti’nin borçlarının %62,5’ini ödemeyi kabul etmek zorunda kalmıştır. Bu borçların ödenmesi 1954 yılına kadar sürmüştür. Bu dönemde bazı güzel gelişmeler de yaşanmıştır. Örneğin; 1923’te toplanan Birinci İzmir İktisat Kongresi’nin ekonomiyi yeniden inşa etmedeki büyük katkıları, 1924 yılında Türkiye İş Bankası’nın kurulması, 1927 yılında Teşvik-i Sanayi Kanununun kabulü ve ilk kâğıt paranın basılmasıyla birlikte altın para sisteminden tedavülü zorunlu kâğıt para sistemine geçilmesi gibi önemli gelişmeler yaşanmıştır. Ancak yine de Lozan antlaşmasının olumsuz etkileri ve beraberinde getirdiği ekonomik yükün ağırlığı tüm bu olumlu gelişmelerin önüne geçmiştir (Karabıçak, 2000, s. 52-53).

1929 yılında dünyada yaşanan ekonomik kriz Türkiye’yi de olumsuz etkilemiştir. Kriz sebebiyle tüm dünya da komünizm ve faşizm tehlikesine karşı devletçilik anlayışının benimsenmesi gerekmiştir (Akyıldız ve Eroğlu, 2004, s. 48-49). Ancak bu devletçilik kavramının sosyalizmle bir alakası bulunmamaktadır. Burada

devletten beklenen fertlerin yapamayacaklarını yapıp gerektiğinde ekonomik ve sosyal hayatı düzenleyen kurallar koymasındır.

1953 yılında ortaya çıkan döviz darboğazı sonucunda, liberal dış ticaret ve sanayileşme stratejisi uygulayan Türkiye, ithal ikamesinin araçları olan kotaları, ithal yasakları ve yüksek gümrük duvarlarını uygulamaya başlamıştır (Öztürk ve Özyakışır, 2005, s. 3). Tüm bu yaşananlar sonucunda enflasyonist politikaların şiddeti giderek arttırılmış ve bu da ülkeyi ekonomik olumsuzluklara sürüklemiştir. 1960 yılındaki ihtilalle birlikte enflasyon durdurulmuş fakat bu seferde ülkede iktisadi durgunluk yılları yaşanmıştır. Yaşanan bu olumsuzlukların giderilmesi doğrultusunda düzenli beş yıllık kalkınma planlarının yapılmasına karar verilmiştir. Böylelikle 1963-1967 yıllarını kapsayan Birinci Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planı hazırlanmıştır. Ülkemizde uygulanan devletçilik politikasıyla birlikte ilk planlı kalkınma denemesi de gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu deneme başarılı olmuş sanayi üretiminin artmasıyla birlikte kalkınma hızı da artış göstermiştir. Her beş senede bir, yapılan plan yenilenerek devam ettirilmiştir. Şu an uygulamada olan kalkınma planı Onuncu Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planıdır. Planları dönemlere ayıracak olursak; 1960 öncesi planlarını: kısmi, devletçi, 1960-1980 planlarını: karma ekonomi, 1980-2000 planlarını ise liberal ve stratejik olarak değerlendirebiliriz (Özdemir, 2014, s. 10). Ele alınan 1980 öncesi dönemin yönlendiricisi "ithalat ikamesi politikaları"dır.

Türkiye’de küreselleşmenin büyüme ile birlikte olabileceği inancı vardır. Bu sebeple de yoksullukla mücadeleye pek fazla yer verilmemiştir. Beş Yıllık Kalkınma Planları, yoksulluk konusunu, konunun uluslararası platformda ön plana çıktığı dönemde dahi, uzun bir süre dikkate almamış ve önemsememiştir (Şenses, 2003, s. 323). Yoksulluk önemsenmeyerek, hızlı büyüme ile alınacak olan olumlu sonuçların toplumun diğer düşük gelirli kesimlerine de ulaşacağı beklentisine yer verilmektedir. Kalkınma Planları’nın bu konuyu önemsemeye başladığı son dönemlerde de bu beklenti tartışmaların odak noktasındadır.

3.2.3. 1980-2000 Dönemi Türkiye Ekonomisi

1980 yılı gerek Türkiye gerekse dünya açısından önemli yapısal dönüşümlerin yaşandığı bir yıl olmuştur. Söz konusu dönemden itibaren tüm dünyada etkisini hissettiren küreselleşme olgusu bütün ülke ekonomilerini derinden etkilemiştir. 1980 sonrasındaki ekonomiler, dışa dönük sanayileşme ve liberalleşme politikalarıyla yönlendirilmeye başlanmıştır. Yani "açık ekonomiye geçiş" yönlendirici olmuştur (Özdemir, 2014). Böyle bir sanayileşme stratejisi sayesinde, ülkenin ihracat gelirleri artarak elde edilen gelirler, ülkenin sanayileşmesini dolayısıyla, gelişmiş ülkelerin bulunduğu, ekonomik gelişmişlik düzeyine ulaşmasını sağlayacaktır (Öztürk ve Özyakışır, 2005, s. 2).

1990'lı yıllarda ihracat ile ithalatta kaydedilen artışlarla dışa açılma devam etmiştir. GSMH harcamalar açısından incelendiğinde 1990 yılında ihracattaki artış nominal %11,5 olmasına karşılık ekonomideki talep ve üretim artışına paralel olarak ithalat hacminde özellikle de yatırım ve ara mallarının ithalatında yüksek artışlar gerçekleşmiştir (Kalyoncu, Sevim, ve Sezgin, 2013, s. 54). Aşırı değerlendirilen TL politikasından 1992 yılı itibarıyla yavaş yavaş vazgeçilmeye çalışılmış, fakat bunun yanı sıra yurtdışından borçlanılan kısa vadeli fonların ülkemize gelişini devam ettirmek için faiz oranları yükseltilmiştir. Özellikle reel faiz oranlarının yüksek tutulması, ülkemize yönelik yabancı kısa vadeli döviz akışını sağlamış, ancak özel sektör yatırımlarını olumsuz yönde etkilemiştir (Parasız, 1995, s. 36). 1993 yılında dış ticaret açığı Cumhuriyet tarihinin rekorunu kırmış, bu durumda devletin yanı sıra bankalar, belediyeler ve özel şirketler de açıklarını ve finansman gereksinimlerini dış borçlanmayla karşılama yoluna gitmişlerdir. Böylece açık pozisyon durumunda olan birçok kurum uygulanan hızlı devalüasyon politikası yüzünden kur farkları nedeniyle büyük zararlarla karşılaşmıştır (Uzunoğlu, 1994, s. 5). Tüm bu yaşananlar sonucunda 1994 yılında kriz patlak vermiştir. 1994 yılında yaşanan istikrarsızlıklara rağmen 1995 yılının dördüncü ayından itibaren ekonomide içsel dinamiklerden kaynaklanan bir iyileşme gerçekleşmiştir. 1997 yılında Güneydoğu Asya ülkelerinde başlayan kriz sebebiyle zarar eden yabancı yatırımcılar bu zararlarını karşılamak için Türkiye'deki yatırımlarını geri çekmiştir bu da istikrarsızlık riskine neden olmuştur. Akabinde patlayan Rusya krizi, Türkiye Ekonomisini Asya krizine göre daha şiddetli etkilemiştir. Yaşanan krizlerin bir sonucu olarak da 1998 yılında uluslararası piyasalardan net sermaye girişi 925 milyon dolara kadar gerilemiştir. 1999 yılında İnterbank ile birlikte birkaç bankanın tasarruf mevduatı sigorta fonuna devredilmesi mali

piyasalarda dalgalanmalar yaratmış tüm bu yaşananların düzeltilmesi adına da 1999 yılında istikrar programı hazırlanıp, 2000 yılında uygulanmaya konulmuştur (Kalyoncu, Sevim, ve Sezgin, 2013, s. 56).

3.2.4. 2000’den Günümüze Türkiye Ekonomisi

Tüm dünya da olduğu gibi Türkiye’de de 2000’li yıllar ekonomik anlamda çalkantılı yıllar olmuştur. 2001 yılında Türkiye de yaşanan finansal kriz ve neredeyse tüm dünya ülkelerini etkileyen 2008 küresel krizi ekonomi uzmanlarını politikalarında değişikliğe gitmeye mecbur bırakmıştır. Yaşanan kriz finansal bir kriz olmasına rağmen sonuçları itibarıyla en çok reel sektörde hissedilmiştir (Acar, 2014, s. 17). 2007 yılında % 10,3 olan işsizlik oranı ise krizle birlikte % 14 seviyesine ulaşmıştır. Bu krizin yaşanmasının birden fazla sebebi bulunmaktadır. Birincisi likitide bolluğunun yol açtığı özensiz krediler, ikincisi menkul kıymetleştirme çabaları yani kredilerin paketlenip tekrar satılışı, üçüncüsü ise saydamlık eksikliği yani, banka ve brokerlerin ne çeşit varlıklara sahip olduklarının bilinmemesi sonucu, yaşanacak bir iflas ile birlikte ortaya çıkacak riskin hesaplanamamasıdır (Alantar, 2008, s. 2-3).

2010 ve 2011 yıllarında kaydedilen yüksek büyüme hızları sonrasında iç ve dış talebi dengelemeye yönelik alınan tedbirler sonucunda 2012 yılında ve 2013 yılı ilk üç çeyrekte büyüme hızı yavaşlamıştır. 2015 ve 2016 yıllarında ise üretken alanlara yönelik yatırımlarla desteklenen, daha çok yurt içi tasarruflarla finanse edilen, verimlilik artışına dayalı bir büyüme stratejisiyle GSYH artış hızı % 5 olarak hedeflenmiştir (Acar, 2014, s. 18).

Bir ekonominin performansını belirleyen en önemli gösterge, o ülkenin GSYH değeridir. Aşağıda verilen tabloda yıllar içindeki GSYH değerlerini inceleyebiliriz.

Tablo 2. Türkiye’nin Cari ve Sabit Fiyatlarla GSYH Büyüme Hızı (%)

Yıl	Cari Fiyatlarla Büyüme Hızı (%)	Sabit Fiyatlarla Büyüme Hızı (%)
2000	59,3	6,8
2001	44,1	-5,7
2002	45,9	6,2
2003	29,8	5,3
2004	22,9	9,4
2005	16,1	8,4
2006	16,9	6,9
2007	11,2	4,7
2008	12,7	0,7
2009	0,2	-4,8
2010	15,4	9,2
2011	18,1	8,8
2012	9,2	2,1
2013	10,6	4,2
2014	11,5	2,9

Kaynak: (TÜİK, www.tuik.gov.tr/PrelstatistikTablo.do?istab_id=2218, erişim tarihi: 23.11.2015)

Tablo da yıllar arasındaki büyüme oranlarını incelediğimizde verilen yıllardaki büyüme oranlarının dalgalı bir şekilde seyir ettiği görülmektedir. 2000 yılında sabit fiyatlarla büyüme oranı %6,8 iken bir sonraki yıl eksiye düşmüştür. Bu da ekonominin küresel anlamda çalkantıda olmasının sebebidir. 2002 yılından 2008 yılı küresel krizine kadar bir artış göze çarpsa da krizle birlikte tekrar bir gerileme görülmüştür. 2012 yılında ki %2,1’lik orana gelindiğinde ise Türkiye’nin iç tüketiminin nispi olarak azaltılıp daha fazla ihracat yapabildiği bir yıl yaşanmıştır (Sermaye Piyasaları Uygulama ve Araştırma Merkezi, 2013, s. 4).

4. Küreselleşme ile Birlikte Türkiye'nin Yeni Rolü

4.1.21. yy. Türkiye'si

21. Yüzyılda Dünyadaki hızlı yapısal değişimler ve bunların ortaya çıkardığı rekabet ve uluslararası bağımlılık sürecinde Türkiye çağı yakalamak için köklü yapısal değişimleri ve toplumsal dönüşümleri gerçekleştirmek durumundadır. Aksi takdirde çağın gerisinde kalır ve gelişim potansiyelinin altında seyrir eder. Bu yüzden küreselleşmenin avantajlarından en üst seviyede yararlanmalıdır. Ancak bunu bir takım ödünler vererek değil, dünya ülkeleri arasında rekabetçi ve seçkin bir yer edinerek yapmak durumundadır.

Türkiye'nin dış ticaretinde Avrupa Birliği ülkeleri ilk sırada yer almaktadır. Dolayısıyla Topluluk ülkelerine olan ihracat ve ithalat sürekli artmaktadır. Bu bağlamda Gümrük Birliği çerçevesinde gerekli kurumsal ve hukuksal alt yapı tamamlanılarak, yerli ve yabancı yatırımlar arttırılarak, Türkiye ile AB ülkeleri arasında var olan teknoloji ve verimlilik farkları kapatılarak Türkiye hak ettiği ekonomik gelişmişlik düzeyine kavuşmalıdır.

4.2. Sektörel Bazda Değişim

Türkiye'nin sektörel bazda diğerlerine oranla daha fazla güce sahip olduğu alanlarda gelişmesini devam ettirmesi elzemdir. Bu alanlardan ikisini özetle ele alırsak; tekstil ve enerji kaynaklarından olan boru hattı yapım ve projeleri önem kazanmaktadır. Tekstil sektörü, 2000 yılında yaşanan ekonomik krizin sektörü olumsuz etkilemesine, ihracat rakamlarında düşüş izlenmesine karşın; 2005 yılında dünyanın en büyük 4. hazır giyim tedarikçisi ve 11. tekstil tedarikçisi konumuna yükselmiştir (Ekti, 2013, s. 11). Tekstil ve hazır giyim sektörü diğer gelişmekte olan ülkelerde olduğu gibi Türkiye'de de gerek üretim ve istihdama katkısı ve gerekse ihracat yoluyla ekonomiye döviz kazandırması nedeniyle ekonominin lokomotif sektörlerinden olma özelliğini taşımaktadır. 2008 yılında yaşanan küresel krizden en çok etkilenen sektörlerden biri yine tekstil olmuştur. Ancak sonraki yıllarda toparlanma sürecine girmiştir. 2009 yılını tekstil ihracatında %19 düşüşle kapatan sektör, 2010 yılında ihracat çitasını yeniden yükseltmiştir. Tekstil sektörü dünya ticaret ihracatındaki payı ve aynı zamanda Türkiye toplam ihracatındaki payı dolayısıyla bugün ülkenin temel sanayilerinden biri olarak kabul edilmektedir (Güleryüz, 2011, s. 65).

Diğer bir sektör olarak petrol ve doğalgaz enerji sektörü 21. yy. Türkiye' sinde önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Bunun sebebi Hazar bölgesi enerji kaynaklarının dünya pazarına naklinde ülkemizin istikrarlı ve güvenilir bir ülke olarak bilinmesi ve doğu-batı enerji koridoru üzerinde stratejik bir rol üstlenmiş bulunmasıdır. Ülkemizin de içinde olduğu ve uygulamada olan bazı projeler ise şunlardır;

- Bakü-Tiflis-Ceyhan (BTC) Ham Petrol Boru Hattı Projesi: Proje kapsamında Ceyhan'dan ilk petrol sevkiyatı 2006 yılında başlamıştır. BTC projesine ev sahipliği yapan Türkiye boru hattından alacağı transit geçiş ücreti ve bağımlı olduğu Ortadoğu petrolüne de bir alternatif bulması sebebiyle bu hattın meyvelerini yemeğe başlamıştır. Türkiye'nin projenin gerçekleştiği tarihten itibaren 16 yıl süresince geçiş vergisi ve işletmecilik hizmetleri karşılığında 140-200 milyon dolar arasında, bir sonraki 25 yıllık dönemde ise 200-300 milyon dolar arasında yıllık gelir elde etmesi beklenmektedir (Ener ve Ahmedov, 2008, s. 8). Tahmin edilen bu rakamlar BTC boru hattının Türkiye açısından önemini vurgulamaktadır.
- Bakü-Tiflis-Erzurum Doğalgaz Boru Hattı Projesi: Bu boru hattının başlıca amacı Şah deniz sahasında üretilen Doğalgazın Türkiye ve dünya piyasasına çıkmasıdır. İlk sevkiyat 2007 yılında yapılmıştır. Sevkiyat sonucu Erzurum' a ulaşan gaz, Türkiye'nin dâhili boru hattı ağlarıyla ülkenin batısına oradan da Avrupa pazarına ulaşmıştır. Azerbaycan ve Türkiye arasında 2001 yılında, bu yıl son bulacak olan bir anlaşma yapılmıştır. Anlaşmaya göre 15 yıl süre ile belli periyodlarla yılda 6,6 milyar m³ doğalgaz alım satımı yapılacaktır (Ener ve Ahmedov, 2008, s. 9).

Tüm bunlardan yola çıkarak gelişmenin vazgeçilmez unsuru olan enerjinin, küreselleşen dünyada üretim kaynaklarından talep merkezlerine ulaştırılmasında boru hatlarının en güvenli ve verimli yollar olarak kabul edildiği görülmektedir. Bu durumda Türkiye'nin, Dünya petrol rezervlerinin %67' sine ve Dünya doğalgaz rezervlerinin %40'ına sahip olan Orta Asya ve Orta Doğu ülkeleri ile Avrupa arasında coğrafi köprü

olması sebebiyle ülkemizden geçmiş ya da geçecek olan boru hatları uluslararası büyüklükte önem taşımaktadır (Yılmaz, 2005, s. 3).

5. Sonuç

1980’li yıllardan itibaren tüm dünya da hissedilen küreselleşme ile birlikte sosyal devlet anlayışı tartışmaya açılmış ve başat ülkelerin diğer ülkeler üzerindeki baskısı artmıştır. Rekabet koşulları değişmiş, önem kazanmış ve ülkelerin kendilerini yenilemeleri bir zorunluluk haline gelmiştir. Bu süreç Türkiye’nin de dışa açılım ve ihracata dayalı bir büyüme gerçekleştirmesine yol açmıştır. Ancak siyasal bir takım sorunlar nedeniyle makroekonomik düzeye ulaşamamıştır. Yine de bu yolda ilerleme çabaları terk edilmemiş, özellikle sektörel bazda küreselleşme adına gelişmeler yaşanmıştır.

Küreselleşmeyi tüm dünya ülkeleri açısından da ele alan bu yazıda, bir ülke de veya bölgede ortaya çıkan ekonomik krizlerin bütün dünyayı etkileyebileceği de ifade edilmiştir. Buradan yola çıkarak küreselleşmenin ne kadar güçlü olduğunu ve tüm gelişmişlik düzeylerindeki ülkeleri derinden bir tesirle etkilediğini görebiliriz. Günümüzde Küreselleşmenin fırsatlarına uyumlu konum alan ülkelerin ekonomik yükselişlerini, diğerlerinin ise küresel krizler ve tehditler noktasında gerilemelerini net olarak izlemek mümkündür. Gelişmekte olan ülkeler için kalkınmanın, gelişmişler içinde büyümenin yolu “küresel aktör” olabilmelerine bağlıdır. Türkiye’nin 21. Yüzyılda yeni ekonomik rolü, ekonomisinin (özellikle öne çıkan bazı sektörleriyle) “küresel aktör” olmasıyla ilintilidir. Bunu yaparken yeni Pazar oluşturma kabiliyeti, “Niş Pazar”ları rakiplerinden daha hızlı keşfetme ve bunun gereklerini yerine getirme, finansal krizlere karşı dirençli olma yeteneği, yatırım çekme ve masetme kapasitesinin arttırılması gibi özelliklerdeki performans artışı Türkiye’yi yeni rolünde başarılı bir aktör yapabilecektir.

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The Determination of The Contentment Levels of The Students in 2-Year-Undergraduate-Vocational-Higher-Schools About Their Education: Tekirdağ Sample

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Abstract: The tourism sector has constantly changing and evolving environment. The development of the tourism sector and businesses in the tourism sector depends on the quality of service to cope with the national and international competitions. One of the most important factors in order to provide quality services to the tourism business is to have a qualified labour force. This is because, tourism is a labor intensive sector and their provision of services depend on the personnel employed by the business. Thus the importance of the tourism education and training to be given for the qualified personnel which tourism needs and the number of the institutions to which this education should be given increases day by day. It is assumed that qualified personnel shall be provided and allocated for the tourism sector to be provided in such institutions by means of the tourism education and training to be provided. As the result of the studies made, it is propounded that there is significant correlation between the quality of the education given by the tourism training institutions to the students and the levels of satisfaction of the students in question. This study should determine the factors of the students' dissatisfaction and it is of importance because it can provide recommendations to such institutions for them to give better education.

The main purpose of this study is to measure the levels of satisfaction which the students receiving tourism education have and to give advises so as to increase the level of the satisfaction. A survey was conducted on the students studying to receive their associate degrees in tourism at Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University. The data obtained were analyzed by using SPSS program. The data obtained were subject to factor analysis and from how many dimensions they consist of were determined. The reliability values (Cronbach Alpha) of the study is 0.83. Moreover, the students who attended the study were subject to Mann Whitney U ve Kruskal Wallis Test based on whether they are satisfied with their tourism education in terms of the criterions of gender, department and class. It was generally determined as a result that the students are satisfied with the tourism education which they receive. and given some suggestions to the institutions providing the education and their trainings.

KeyWords: Tourism, Tourism education, students education

1. Introduction

Tourism sector contributes significantly to national economies. Therefore, the importance given to this sector and its establishments has increased a lot. The number of the international tourists increased by 5% and rose up to 1 billion 87 million in 2013 (UNWTO). The number of people working in tourism sector has risen by 13,1 % and reached 1 million 40 thousand workers since last year and the number of the country-wide insured employees has increased by 5,1 % and rose up to 13,3 million (AKTOB). As a result, there is a harsh rivalry and competition in this sector. This is a big challenge for tourism establishments and they have to employ well-trained and qualified staff in order to get through this tough rivalry and survive.

The studies have revealed that prospective tourism workers should be given a comprehensive and effective theoretical and practical training in the most modern and intended way in order to ensure persistent and truthful development in tourism sector in the long term.

The fundamental factor that assures development is education and training all over the world. In the contemporary world, everything is going through a constant and rapid change and all sectors are in this constant and inevitable process of change. The only way to be able to adapt these rapid and constant changes is to get an effective and qualified education. Education enables people to understand how to adapt these changes and it helps individuals, groups and establishments achieve their goals.

In tourism sector, it can easily be seen that workers who have a good educational background in tourism have higher contentment levels about their education from the studies. The quality and efficiency of the training and education applications in tourism high schools and vocational higher schools affect students' contentment and satisfaction levels about their educational background and this contentment and satisfaction level plays an important role in students' point of views towards the sector. Therefore, education and training programmes should be designed and applied in a way that meets the needs of tourism sector and satisfies the students so that they feel they are ready to work in the sector effectively. This feeling will surely lead them to consider having a career in the sector after graduation.

2. Literature Review

Tourism started to develop as a sector after the Second World War and since then it has gained more and more importance. According to Hacıoğlu (2008:1), tourism is significant in terms of its positive role in creating world peace and a positive atmosphere in international affairs and human relations and its valuable contribution to national economies by providing employment opportunities and thus affecting regional development positively and by improving the foreign payment balance. As a result, tourism is very important sector for national economies and regional development.

Most countries stress the importance of tourism sector in their economic development strategies (Gürkan, Dönmez ve Küçükaltan, 2010; Kırılı, 2006). Therefore, those countries give a great deal of importance to tourism education in order to keep tourism activities more active and surpass other countries in tourism (Ünlüönen, 2007), which is not surprising because if tourism sector is considered as a huge cake, a lot of countries with a tourism potential will tend to have their share of this cake. This brings about a rivalry among countries in tourism. Since there has been a sharp increase in tourism rivalry among countries at both national and international levels this decade, tourism education should be focused more and given more importance. Tourism is a sector open to rivalry and providing qualified services with high standards (Sem ve Clements, 1996). The only way to provide such services is to employ well-educated and well-trained staff in the sector, which is valid in Turkey, as well.

A successful tourism sector can be achieved by educating and training qualified staff, which is the outcome of qualified tourism education (Olalı, 1983: 211). It is a truth universally acknowledged that tourism sector can become much more successful with a well-educated and well-trained labor force (Avçıkurt ve Köroğlu, 2002; Ünlüönen, 2000; Ünlüönen ve Boylu, 2005). Therefore, creating such a labor force in tourism sector is essential for the success of tourism establishments.

Education is the ability to adapt oneself to the environmental changes and be able to become compatible with the environment that one lives in (Carnegie, 1997:16). Hergüner et al (2002) define education as an inevitable concept for individual and societal developments and modernisation. Akyüz (2004:2) points out that education is a life-long planned or unplanned process.

From all the definitions, it can be said that education is a process in which individuals are trained and taught to achieve intended and certain goals. In the most general terms, education is given at schools. However, education is a life-long process that continues out of schools and help us adapt to the conditions that we are in. It can be said that through education the intended changes in human behaviours can be achieved.

Besides these definitions of the term "education", Bayer defines "tourism education" as creating an awareness and consciousness in the staff in tourism sector to enable them to understand the importance of tourism and tourism resources and thus to protect these resources; make them provide tourism services to everybody regardless of their race, language, nationality, religion and status and help them act the rightful and fair behaviours necessary for the long term tourism activities.

In focusing on and giving much more importance to tourism education, Turkey is not an exception and tourism education is realized in multiple dimensions. In Turkey, tourism education programmes can be divided into 5 groups (Tutan, 2002: 408):

1. Higher Education (2-year-vocational higher schools; undergraduate programmes of 4 years, MA/MS degrees and PhD.)
2. Certificate Programmes
3. Tourism High Schools
4. Education and Training Programmes in the Ministry of Tourism
5. Educational Programmes held by private companies

The organizations and establishments providing formal and informal education programmes in tourism aim to increase the related competence and performance of the individuals working in the sector by providing theoretical and practical information and thus enable them to improve their professional and occupational skills (Mısırlı, 2002: 42). Üzümcü and Bayraktar (2004) suggests that tourism education aims to teach management strategies and techniques to the individuals that will work in the sector and thus train the prospective managers that can adapt themselves to any kind of changes in the sector for the establishments.

With the increased importance of tourism education, the institutions, organizations and schools that will provide this education have gained more importance, as well. From the studies, it can be concluded that the image of these educational establishments affect students' satisfaction and contentment profusely. In developing the image of these educational establishments, such factors as how schools are perceived in the sector, where schools are located and what socioeconomic situations are are known to be effective (Şen Demir, 2013). Students take the quality and the image of the universities into consideration when they make their choices because they think that students in the universities with good quality and image are more satisfied and content with the education they get and find jobs with less difficulties (Ekinci, Burgaz, 2007). From these studies, it can be understood that the educational quality level of the establishments offering tourism education has a big impact on student satisfaction and contentment.

The word "contentment" means rejoicing and being happy (TDK, 2015). It can be defined as the happiness that occurs as a result of desires and expectations and demands beyond expectations being met (Robbins, Decenzo ve Coulter, 2011). Generally, contentment seems to be related to quality. Especially, when it comes to tourism education, a qualified education can be thought to increase student contentment (Sökmen, 2011). Most studies put forward that students who have taken a good tourism education have higher contentment levels (Aymankuy ve Aymankuy, 2013).

3. Method

3.1.Aim of The Study

The main aim of this study is to determine the contentment level of the students in tourism vocational higher schools about the education they get and make some suggestions to the authorities to increase their contentment level.

The main questions of the study are as follows:

1. What is the contentment level of the students in tourism and travelling vocational higher schools about the education they get?
2. Is there a significant difference in their contentment level in terms of gender, class, high school type and current department type?

Research hypotheses:

- H1:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of their gender.
- H2:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of their class level.
- H3:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of the high school types they graduated.
- H4:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of their current department types.
- H5:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of whether they chose the department intentionally.
- H6:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of the socioeconomic level of their families.
- H7:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of whether they work in tourism sector.
- H8:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of the reason why they chose their departments.
- H9:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of the education level of their mothers.
- H10:** There is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the students about the education they get in terms of the education level of their fathers.

3.2. Target Population and Participants

The target population of the study is all the undergraduate students in Namık Kemal University Şarköy Vocational Higher School Tourism and Hotel Management Department and Tourism and Travelling Services Department. In this research, non-random and judgemental sampling method was utilized. The Questionnaire Method was chosen to collect data. The data was collected with the questionnaire applied to 128 students in the aforementioned departments from January to March in 2015.

3.3. Data Collection

The questionnaire included demographic questions about the participants and all the other items that were used to measure students contentment level were taken from the contentment scale developed by Sökmen (2011). In other words, the contentment scale developed by Sökmen (2011) was utilized to design the questionnaire used to collect data in this study. As a result, alongside the demographic questions, the questionnaire included 23 items, 9 of which were on School Contentment, 3 of which were on University Contentment, 6 of which were on Personal Development Contentment and 5 of which were on Vocational Education Contentment.

Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated and it was found as $\alpha=0.83$. In analyzing the data, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 16.0 was utilized. Results were evaluated in the 95% trust range and significance level were evaluated in the $p<0,05$ level and in a two way analysis. As a result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, it was seen that data was not observed as a normal distribution. Therefore, in the analysis of the data, Mann-Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis H-Test were used.

3.4. Findings

128 participants included 72 male (56,2 %) and 56 female (43,8%) students. The majority of the participants (60,2%) graduated from regular high school. 68% of the participants were in Tourism and Hotel Management Department and 32% of the participants were in Tourism and Travelling Services Department. 53,9% of the participants were in their second (senior) year and 46,1 % of the participants were in their first (junior) year in their departments. 50,8 % of the participants reported that they had not chosen their participants willingly and 34,4 % of them declared that they had selected their departments intentionally. 39,8 % of these students said that they had chosen their departments regarding their remarks of the university entrance exam and 31,2 % of them reported that they had chosen their departments because they thought tourism sector was a trustworthy sector to find a good job.

Table 1. Participants' Demographic Characteristics

Gender	N	%	Why did you choose your current department?	N	%
Male	72	56,2	My result from the university entrance exam was just enough for this department	51	39,8
Female	56	43,8	Tourism sector offers a good job opportunity.	40	31,2
Total	128	100,0	I had no other choice	14	10,9
High School Type	N	%	With significant others' suggestions	10	7,8
Regular High School	77	60,2	Other	13	10,2
Tourism Vocational H.S.	22	17,2	Total	128	100
Vocational School	12	9,4	Mother Education Level	N	%
Other	17	13,3	Primary school	32	25,0
Total	128	100	Secondary School	30	23,4
Department Type	N	%	High School	30	23,4
Tourism and Hotel Management	87	68	Undergraduate of a-2-year-department	12	9,4
Tourism and Travelling Services	41	32	Undergraduate of a-4-year department	5	3,9
Total	128	100,0	Other	19	14,8
Class Level	N	%	Total	128	100
First Year (Junior)	59	46,1	Father Education Level	N	%
Second Year (Senior)	69	53,9	Primary school	30	23,4
Total	128	100,0	Secondary School	38	29,7
Did you choose your department willingly?	N	%	High School	34	26,6
Yes	44	34,4	Undergraduate of a-2-year-department	22	17,2
No	65	50,8	Undergraduate of a-4-year department	4	3,1
Not Sure	19	14,8	Total	128	100
Total	128	100	Family Average Income Level	N	%
Have you ever worked in tourism sector?	N	%	1000 TL and below	27	21,1
Yes	45	35,2	1001-2000 TL	46	35,9
No	83	64,8	2001-3000 TL	40	31,2
Total	128	100	3001-4000 TL	13	10,2
			4001 TL and over	2	1,6
			Total	128	100

Table 2. Participants' Arithmetic Average and Standard Deviation Values About their evaluations on contentment expressions

EXPRESSIONS	X	S.S
The courses given in the programme are sufficient.	3,43	1,31
The courses given in the programme have been designed appropriately.	2,79	1,49
Generally speaking, I am content with my school.	3,65	1,29
Generally speaking, I am content with my department.	2,95	1,41
The academic guidance and counseling service offered is sufficient.	3,50	1,44
The physical facilities like classes and computer labs are sufficient.	3,53	1,45
The intensity of course hours is sufficient.	3,55	1,22
Course hours have been designed appropriately.	3,66	1,36
I think the academic staff is qualified and experienced enough in their field.	3,44	1,53
In the school, I have found opportunities to improve my theoretical knowledge through practical applications.	2,98	1,46
I think I have specialized in the field I study.	3,68	1,27
I think I have learned the majority of the concepts and applications related to my occupation.	3,78	1,27
I think I have been offered a language training that will enable me to work comfortably.	2,09	1,27
Thanks to the education I get, I can find job easierly than others.	3,33	1,25
The education I get have increased my self-confidence.	3,65	1,19
Thanks to my school, I have become a more social individual.	3,21	1,51
The education I get at school have increased my communication skills.	3,39	1,39
The experiences I get through at school have increased my communication skills.	3,10	1,51
The education I get at school showed me how to lead my life.	3,42	1,37
The experiences I get through at school showed me how to lead my life.	3,10	1,47
Food and drink services at university are sufficient.	3,25	1,12
Plent of interesting social and cultural events are held in my university.	3,21	1,38
Social and psychological guidance services at university are sufficient.	3,36	1,25
<i>General Average</i>		3,30
<i>(1:I totally don't agree, 2:I don't agree 3:I am not sure, 4:I agree, 5:I totally agree).</i>		

The majority of the participants (64,8 %) had no previous work experience in tourism sector. When the participants' parents' education level is examined, it can be clearly seen that for both groups, their parents are mostly primary school and high school graduates. As to socioeconomic levels of the families, 35,9 % of them had 1001-2000 Turkish Liras average income level and only 1,6 of the participants' families had 4001 and over Turkish Liras income level.

In Table 2, it can be seen that the item with the highest average mark is the item " I think I have learned the majority of the concepts and applications related to my occupation." with 3.78 points. With 3,68 point, the second highest item is "I think I have specialized in the field I study." The lowest marked item is the item " I think I have been offered a language training that will enable me to work comfortably." with 2,09 points. The other lowest marked items are " The courses given in the programme have been designed appropriately." with 2,79 points and the item " In the school, I have found opportunities to improve my theoretical knowledge through practical applications." with 2,98 points. The total contentment point of the participants is 3.30, which can be considered as a result between middle and high levels.

In Table 3, Kolmogorov- Smirnov (K-S) Test Results can be seen. These results proved that there was no normal distribution; therefore, Mann Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests were utilized to find out whether there is a significant difference in the contentment levels of the participants about the education they get in terms of their demographic characteristics.

Table 3. Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) Test Results

	Statistic	df	Sig.
The courses given in the programme are sufficient.	,173	128	,000
The courses given in the programme have been designed appropriately.	,213	128	,000
Generally speaking, I am content with my school.	,230	128	,000
Generally speaking, I am content with my department.	,168	128	,000
The academic guidance and counseling service offered is sufficient.	,276	128	,000
The physical facilities like classes and computer labs are sufficient.	,257	128	,000
The intensity of course hours is sufficient.	,214	128	,000
Course hours have been designed appropriately.	,257	128	,000
I think the academic staff is qualified and experienced enough in their field.	,252	128	,000
In the school, I have found opportunities to improve my theoretical knowledge through practical applications.	,201	128	,000
I think I have specialized in the field I study.	,214	128	,000
I think I have learned the majority of the concepts and applications related to my occupation.	,219	128	,000
I think I have been offered a language training that will enable me to work comfortably.	,155	128	,000
Thanks to the education I get, I can find job easierly than others.	,184	128	,000
The education I get have increased my self-confidence.	,230	128	,000
Thanks to my school, I have become a more social individual.	,175	128	,000
The education I get at school have increased my communication skills.	,165	128	,000
The experiences I get through at school have increased my communication skills.	,221	128	,000
The education I get at school showed me how to lead my life.	,209	128	,000
The experiences I get through at school showed me how to lead my life.	,157	128	,000
Food and drink services at university are sufficient.	,174	128	,000
Plenty of interesting social and cultural events are held in my university.	,151	128	,000
Social and psychological guidance services at university are sufficient.	,209	128	,000

In Table 4, it is clear that female participants have higher contentment levels than male participants. As a result of Mann Whitney-U test, a significant difference between groups was found in terms of gender (Mann Whitney U=1379,000; $p=0,002<0,05$). The participants from Tourism and Hotel Management Department have a little higher contentment levels than the participants from Tourism and Travelling Services Department, which was considered as not a significant difference (Mann Whitney U=1751,000; $p=0,868>0,05$). There is no significant difference in their contentment levels in terms of their class level (Mann Whitney U=1954,000; $p=0,697>0,05$). The contentment level of the participants with previous work experience in tourism sector (Mean Rank=57,49) is lower than the participants with no work experience in the sector (Mean Rank= 68,30), which was thought as not a significant difference ((Mann Whitney U=1552,000; $p=0,115>0,05$).

Table 4. MannWhitney U Test Table (Significance in the participants' contentment level in terms of their demographic characteristics)

Gender	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	U	p
Male	55,65	4007,00	1379,000	,002
Female	75,88	4249,00		
Department	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	U	p
Tourism and Hotel Management	64,87	5644,00	1751,000	,868
Tourism and Travelling Services	63,71	2612,00		
Class Level	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	U	p
First Year (Junior)	63,12	3724,00	1954,000	,697
Second Year (Senior)	65,68	4532,00		
Work Experience in the sector	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	U	p
Yes	57,49	2587,00	1552,000	,115
No	68,30	5669,00		

In Table 5, it is clear that the highest contentment level in terms of high school types is observed in Vocational High School graduates and the lowest level is in regular high school graduates. This difference was not considered as a significant difference; therefore, H3 was rejected ($\chi^2= 7,944$ $p>0,005$). The participants who had chosen their departments on grounds that tourism sector offers better and valid jobs have higher contentment level than other participants. There is no significant difference in the participants' contentment level in terms of the reason why they had chosen their departments ($\chi^2= 23,408$ $p>0,005$) and H8 was rejected.

There is a significant difference in the participants' contentment levels in terms of their willingness while choosing their departments. The contentment levels of the participants who had chosen their departments willingly are higher than the ones who had chosen their departments unwillingly and the ones who are not sure ($\chi^2= 14,333$ $p < 0,05$). As a result of Mann Whitney U-test, this significant difference was observed between the participants who are not sure and the other groups. In terms of their parents' education levels, the participants whose mothers are secondary school graduates have higher contentment level than the other groups. In addition to this, the participants whose fathers are primary school graduates have higher contentment levels than the other groups. These differences in the participants' contentment level in terms of their mothers' ($\chi^2= 18,281$ $p < 0,05$) and fathers' ($\chi^2= 16,258$ $p < 0,05$) education levels were considered as significant and H9 and H10 were accepted. The contentment levels of the participants whose family has 3001-4000 average income level are higher than other income level groups, which was considered as a significant difference and H6 was proved ($\chi^2= 17,629$ $p < 0,05$).

Table 5. Kruskal-Wallis Results (Significance in the participants' contentment level in terms of their demographic characteristics)

High School Types	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference
Regular High School	57,34	3	7,944	No difference ($p>0,005$)
Tourism Vocational High School	72,07			
Vocational High School	83,25			
Other	73,88			
The Reason Why they had chosen their departments	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference
I had chosen because my result from the university entrance exam was just enough for this department	54,63	4	23,408	No difference ($p>0,005$)
Tourism sector offers good and valid jobs	85,58			
I had no other choices.	44,18			
With significant others' suggestions	48,00			
Other	72,96			
Did you choose your current department willingly?	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference ($P < 0,05$)
Yes	69,90	2	14,333	Between yes and not sure Between no and not sure
No	54,40			
Not Sure	34,79			
Mother Education Level	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference ($P < 0,05$)
Primary School	63,44	5	18,281	primary and undergraduate of 4 years secondary and high school secondary and undergraduate of 4 years High school and Undergraduate of 4 years Between undergraduates of 2 and 4 years
Secondary School	79,73			
High School	55,90			
Undergraduate of a-2-year-department	65,88			
Undergraduate of a-4-year-department	9,00			
Other	69,55			
Father Education Level	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference ($P < 0,05$)
Primary School	75,05	4	16,258	Primary and undergraduate of 2 years Primary and undergraduate of 4 years Secondary and undergraduate of 4 years High School and undergraduate of 4 years Between undergraduates of 2 and 4 years
Secondary School	66,70			
High School	69,60			
Undergraduate of 2 years	48,52			
Undergraduate of 4 years	9,00			
Family Average Income Level	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	Significant Difference ($P < 0,05$)
1000 TL and below	68,17	4	17,629	-1000 tl and below / 1001-2000 -1001-2000 and 2001-3000 -1001-2000 and 3001-4000
1001-2000 TL	46,75			
2001-3000 TL	77,51			
3001-4000 TL	78,00			
4001 TL and over	75,25			

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study conducted in Namık Kemal University Şarköy Vocational Higher School in Tekirdağ, it was aimed to determine the students' contentment level about the education they get and whether there is a significant difference in their contentment level in terms of their gender, class level, parents' education level, department types, willingness to choose their current departments.

When the results were examined, it can be easily seen that the highest marked item in the questionnaire was the item " I think I have learned the majority of the concepts and applications related to my occupation." This can be due to the fact that they take a great number of courses towards tourism profession and their vocational higher school facilities offer them great opportunities to practice the information they have learned from these courses. The participants marked the item " I think I have been offered a language training that will enable me to work comfortably." as the lowest item that they agreed. This can be due to the fact that language classes have been given through distant education applications for the last two years and the students have lost the advantages that in-class face-to-face instruction offer them especially in language courses.

As a result of the study, it was observed that the female participants have higher contentment levels than the male ones. Since there is a significant difference in the participants' contentment level in terms of their gender, it can be concluded that the participants' gender affect their contentment level about the education they get. This significant difference may be due to the fact that female students have lower expectations from the education they have received than male ones and male students have higher future anxiety because they have higher anxiety levels in maintaining a family than female students do. Aymankuy and Aymankuv (2013) suggested that tourism is not seen as a creditable and respected sector to work in by societies and this makes male students more upset than female ones. Similarly, Baltacı, Üngören, Avsallı and Demirel (2012) revealed that male students have higher future anxiety levels than female ones and for that reason their contentment level about the education they get is lower than female students.

At the end of the study, no significant difference in participants' contentment level in terms of their departments, class levels, and previous work experience in the sector was observed. From this result, it can be said that students' department types, class levels and previous work experience in the sector have no effects on their contentment level about the education they get at school. However, Baltacı, Üngören, Avsallı, Demirel (2012) revealed that as the students pass onto higher classes, their future anxiety levels increase and this causes a sharp decrease in their contentment level. On the other hand, class level was observed to have no effect on their contentment level. This distinct result may be owing to the fact that we studied with undergraduate students in vocational higher school of 2 years. In our school, like in all the other vocational higher schools, when they reach their senior years, students' expectation level from the education they get does not increase a lot because they already know that they can find suitable positions for themselves as intermediate staff in the sector. They are trained to be the part of the intermediate active staff in the sector and the senior year means that they are about to get the positions in the tourism establishments waiting for them. However, Baltacı, Üngören, Avsallı, Demirel (2012) studied with undergraduate students in the four-year-tourism-departments, which are responsible for the training of the qualified prospective managers in tourism sector.

In the results of the study, no significant difference in the participants' contentment level about the education they get in their departments in terms of the high school types they graduated from was observed. On the other hand, after their high school education, the students who had chosen their departments with their own intention and wish were observed to have higher contentment levels than the other groups, which may be the result of their higher knowledge and awareness levels towards tourism sector and departments than the other groups. Baltacı, Üngören, Avsallı, Demirel (2012) and Ehtiyar and Üngören (2008) found out that the students who selected their departments on their own wishes have lower anxiety levels than the others and this low anxiety level, most probably, leads them to be more positive and hopeful about tourism sector.

The participants' families' average income levels were observed to affect their contentment level and in the study, it was seen that the participants with families with high income levels have higher contentment levels. This may be caused by their financial power enables them to participate in social activities in their social and school environment more often than the other groups.

With the increased importance of tourism sector in national and regional economic development and thus increasing number of enterprises and new establishments in this sector, tourism sector has become an attention-grabbing industry offering a great number of job opportunities for students in today's world. This features of the sector makes individuals choose tourism departments for an easy transition from school life to the business and working world. Therefore, with the help and charm of this belief, the participants who reported that they had chosen their departments because they had thought that tourism sector offers good job opportunities may have little future anxiety levels and this may have increased their contentment level about the education they get at schools.

The observed significant difference in the students' contentment level about the education they get in terms of their parents' education level can be explained the fact that the participants whose parents are primary and secondary school graduates have higher contentment levels than others because they and their families have lower expectations from the education they get and their future life.

The results of the study showed that the participants' contentment level about the education they get is at a middle level. This result is parallel to some previous studies (Eren, Özgül, Kaygısız, 2013; Sökmen, 2011; Baltacı, Üngören, Avsallı, Demirel, 2012; Aymankuy, Aymankuy, 2013).

In eliminating the problems in tourism education, a lot of organizations, institutions and establishments should be kept responsible. In this context, the biggest responsibility belongs to the Higher Education Institution, representatives of the sector, the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. These aforementioned organizations should cooperate and create a consensus in terms of the urgent need for the qualified staff and managers and how these needs can be met in the long term. Tourism Education Curriculums and Programmes should be designed considering the needs of the sector and updated wen necessary.

At the places and situations where student contentment level is observed low, measures should be taken in the necessary and intended ways. The reasons lying behind their discontentedness should be examined and detected thoroughly and necessary precautions ought to be taken to increase the students' contentment level.

This study includes participants from a vocational higher school. More comprehensive and thorough future studies can be conducted with other undergraduate departments and some comparisons and contrasts may be made with the previous studies.

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Determination of the Need for Re-Organization in Businesses: An Experimental Study on Large-Scale Businesses Operating in Tekirdag

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Abstract: In this study it will be tried to understand in which degree realized the re-organization in the companies which to examine the re-organization. Re-organization needing up to companies getting big and it will make them save from their slow construct and it will help them to make decide them faster and effective management activity. It can be some sabotages to stop the re-organization during this process by workers of the companies can try. Beside top level managers can live some conflict about it and this can affect badly the process. After all these intended but could not be realized re-organizations initials or cannot re-organized companies in wanted level companies situation can prevent their success. In this study we will try to establish the main factors which can affect the companies want to be re-organized and it will be searched relation and intensity between these factors.

Key Words: Re-organizations, re-engineering, re-design

Introduction

Redesign of the business processes, process innovation and redesign of the basic processes are all aimed to define the same concept. According to Klein (1994), all of these terms specify rapid and radical redesign of the strategy and optimization of efficiency and work flow in the organization (Braganza and Myers, 1996). The world in which we live in is in a constant change and development. As a result, there are many political, economic, technological and social changes and the effects of this change reveal itself in various businesses within the society. In accordance with this, aims, duties and responsibilities; policies and methods transform day by day. Businesses face with compliance problems against these changes. As natural results of these, a fundamental re-organization need arises in the businesses. Accordingly, re-organization is one of the methods to resolve the problems arising from the changes in the businesses (Talwar, 1993). Reengineering was accepted as one of the key initiatives for businesses to develop their businesses in 1990s. Achieving more sales, being customer-oriented and effective cost management are important issues for businesses. However it is assumed that 80% of the businesses who adopt re-organization cannot achieve what is intended and this is a highly significant failure (Belmonte & Murray, 1993). Creation of re-organization in business processes foresees specifically changing the business processes, redesign at quality, service, cost and management level and making the results flexible and innovative and thus turning them into a sustainable developmentalism (Hammer and Champy, 1993). Al-Mashari and Sinclair (1995) defines holistic re-organization as follows:

... to make a specific change in various initiative operations supported by information technologies sustainable, to achieve outstanding operation standards and sustainable competencies.

Similarly, Adreu et al. (1997) and Watts (1995) believe that a holistic re-organization is notably feeling the harmonization between processes and technology in business vision, structure, relations, and resource and business culture. However studies show that the holistic view still claims the adaption of many other important structures as reported by Deakings and Makgill (1997):

... widely harmonization of the subjects and proofs concerning the determination of the same structure (previously dominant) in information technologies are not at the required level.

Main goal of the re-organization operations required to be performed according to the internal and external environmental conditions of business organizations is to ensure the most appropriate organization structure of the business (Şığva, 2001).

Definition of Re-Organization

Re-organization is the creation of conditions in a new structure in order to achieve the specified aims of a business. In the broadest sense, re-organization can be defined as the re-determination of the changes in the organization structure and department allocation by revising the aims and policies of the financial structure, and re-determination of the authority, responsibility and communication relations in order to reach these aims (Genç, 2002). Re-organization is a significant method of increasing efficiency and decreasing the costs. It is possible to increase efficiency and save a huge amount of money through privatization and new partnerships (www.north-slope.org). Sometimes, re-organization can be used to struggle with "organizational idleness". In a re-organization process, duties of the workers are re-configured. This forces the workers to produce new and productive projects in new responsibility fields although they are already successful. Especially in some business due to the lack of off-company pressure and thus excessive organizational idleness, this lack of the organization results in closure of the organization with internal pressure (Ruckes, 2005). Re-organization is the sum of the planned studies aimed at the goal of the business in order to make the organization reach the most effective level by re-organizing the organizational structure against internal and external organizational factors (Özalp, Şakar, Haşit, 1992). Today if a company fails to adapt itself to the change, it may find itself outside of the business world. Sometimes it may take years for a company to understand the need for change and it may be too late to do so (Gilbert, 1999). Recent examples show that organizations perform re-organizations roughly every three years. Changes in an organization include both the structure and the system defined as "hard" elements and the culture defined as a "soft" element and generally requires a significant investment (Chartered, 2002). Bill Gates states that in its history of 20 years, Microsoft applies re-organization almost every two years, re-organization is expected in Microsoft; however this does not mean that it leads to concern among the personnel and re-organization causes concerns among all employees including him (Gates, 1996). Re-organization features a structured organization. This organization includes operations to eliminate downtimes, deficiencies or disorders. Sometimes these regulations may be applied on one or more items, and sometimes it may be related to all items of a system or the organization. Considering this, re-organization in terms of the system means the change of the harmonization capabilities of the current relation models, message and feedback channels with the management and aims system according to the basic goal. This is possible with serious analysis of the system (Newbold, 2002).

Aims of Re-Organization

We may list the aims of re-organization as development of the best structure in order to reach the goals of the organization and uninterrupted maintenance of the improvement operations, development of common responsibility awareness according to the current conditions, providing the businesses with the state-of-the-art technologies and organization of this technology with a system concept, procurement of proper personnel, establishment of an effective communication system, benefiting from global communication means and understanding the foreign language grammar (Genç, 2002). In addition, organizational structure should allow for authorization transfer and autonomous process in order to ensure that workers freely use their capabilities and make their dreams come true; ensure that workers learn to live with the change and see the change as an opportunity and provide the environment required to allow workers to assess their own performances by facilitating the audit mechanisms of the organization (Özgener, 2000). Osroff and Smith (1992) claims that organizations cannot keep pace with the vertical structures - a function of the organization- against the competitive pressure. Although these organizations achieve functional efficiency and excellence, they are very slow to keep pace with the new competitive conditions and adopt the change. Osroff and Smith (1992) claim that the main problem is the vertical organizations and this leads to coordination failures between the departments and functions. For this, they suggest a new structure called "horizontal" organization eliminating functional borders and

building business processes for the redesign of the organization. They don't claim to replace horizontal organizations with vertical ones; however they know that horizontal and vertical structures should be balanced. Rockart and Short (1989) defines process harmonization as an impairment in the value chain of the organization. Transfer of a job from one department to other department is the heart of redesign (Ventcatraman, 1991; Butler Cox, 1991; Hammer & Champy, 1993; Tapscott & Caston, 1993).

"-In the heart of the redesign lies the awareness of eliminating basic concepts and defined rules, and activation of continuous thinking. Unless we don't realize these, we will only change the place of the seats in Titanic." (Hammer, 1990).

Reasons for Re-Organization

Entropy means a trend to impairment in the system. According to entropy impairment of operations in a system, balance disorder, complexity and downtimes may lead to a trend of halting the operations of the system. Entropy is a concept defining this trend. No matter what its feature or size is, each system includes entropy (Northcraft 1990). Termination of the process defined as entropy and reversing it are only possible with re-organization. In re-organization, organizational structure is established in a way to create synergy. Because there is an established organization; re-organization performed to eliminate the downtimes, deficiencies or disorders should create synergy. These regulations may be applied on one or more items, and sometimes it may be related to all items of a system or the organization. Considering this, re-organization in terms of the system aims to increase the current relation models, message and feedback channels and harmonization capabilities (Genç, 2002). Some of the reasons that require and even forces re-organization within the organizations include (Meyer and Allen, 1997);

- i. Regardless of the change of the quality of the services and techniques used, increase in the number of those who benefit from the service, number of the duties and variations.
- ii. Changes in the needs and conditions require change in the program, organization and the responsibilities. In other words, meeting the new responsibilities with the current organizations generally requires changes in the structures of the organizations. Narrowing in or elimination of the need leads to serious organizational and personnel problems.
- iii. Implementation or demand to implement the developing technology, modern machinery and equipment and modern management techniques at the management level. As a result of these developments, current methods may harmonize with the organizational structure and even personnel.
- iv. Re-organization at the lower levels may be required as a result of the decisions taken at senior management level.
- v. That a conventional and formalist management concept based on strict adherence to the current conditions in the management and excess controls to ensure trust make the management dysfunctional.

On the other hand, effects of the internal and external environmental factors surrounding the business organizations may make the organizational structures, which were seen adequate at the beginning, inadequate after a certain time (Gerloff, 1985). Other reasons that make organizational change necessary include environment, spreading, growth and technology (Child, 1985).

Step by Step Re-Organization Process

In business development, no organization can be re-organized in the same way; however as stated below, certain processes may be followed (Karlöf and Lövingsson, 2005):

Table: 1 Step by stem re-organization

1. Current Situation	2. Preliminary conditions	3. Design	4. Change
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation • Diagnosis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basis requirements • Shareholders • Decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Processes • Structure (anatomy) • Business methods and systems • Organization culture and values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project formulation • Contrast • System changes • Control list for the change

Resource: BengtKarlöf and Fredrik Helin Lövingsson, "ReOrganization", 2005, pp.131

In any re-organization, duties of most workers change, as well as the balance of power. As in the other projects, it is very important to build a good team for re-organization, and determination of the working methods, programs, specific points and the budget in re-organization process (BengtKarlöf and Lövingsson, 2005).

The first question in re-organization is of whom the project will consist to maintain the process. The role of the board of management, representatives of the unions, professional organizations and the advisors are the questions that should be answered first. Advisors or project leaders may communicate the establishment to other personnel. In selection of the advisors, the organization may use its own personnel or include experts from other businesses in order to make use of different points of views. But one of the important aspects is the undertaking of the project responsibility of the managers and inclusion of the experts outside the organization as much as possible (Collins and Porras, 2005).

Main population and Sampling

As the main population of the research, large-scale companies operating in Tekirdağ and its provinces are considered. In our country, scales of the businesses are determined based on the fulfillment of three criteria considering the TTK European Union communautarie. The size scale is classified as small, medium and large-scale businesses. Here the main criteria include the number of personnel within the organization, annual sales of the business and active assets of the business. According to these criteria, only the large-scale businesses are preferred in this study among the scaled businesses. The reason for this is that re-organization need is more common in large-scale businesses. Because in large-scale businesses, unwieldiness stands out based on the big size especially during the decision-taking process. In this regard, the number of only the large-scale businesses operating within the borders of Tekirdağ is 341 and the sampling number to represent this main population shall be 40 (Altunışık vd., 2010). Surveys are submitted to the senior managers of each business via interviewers and Internet. Survey form was submitted to senior managers of all businesses included in the main population for the determination of the respondents to be included in the sampling; however 47 managers participated in the research by filling in the survey among all. As previously specified in Applied book of Altunışık on SPSS Research Methods in Social Sciences, the size of the sampling to represent the main population is 40; and by achieving seven more surveys than the specified sampling number, adequate sampling size was ensured.

Reliability Analysis

As a result of the reliability analysis involving the surveys and metric variations in which 42 questions (variations) measured with Likert scale among all 47 surveys and 49 questions (variations), alpha Cronbach coefficient is determined as 0.943. In social sciences, this coefficient is accepted as adequate around 0.60 in relative researches. This high coefficient increases the reliability of the research surveys and the questions.

Table 2: Analysis of the survey processes

		N	%
Cases	Valid	93	98.9
	Excluded	1	1.1
	Total	94	100.0
a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.			

Table 3: Reliability coefficient

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,943	42

Methodology

In this study, survey questions were submitted to the managers of large-scale businesses operating in Istanbul via Internet and interviewers. 94 of the managers who received the survey filled in. All of these surveys were included in the research. The survey contains questions to measure the awareness level of the business managers related to re-organization, to determine the factors affecting the re-organization and to detect how the re-organization initiatives result. In this regard, the model to determine the effect of the factors on the re-organization process shall be tried to be determined. The factors that shall affect this variation while measuring the success level of the re-organization:

Factor 1: Opinions about the harmonization of TKY with the re-organization process.

Factor 2: Graduation of the use of Benchmarking in re-organization.

Factor 3: Graduation of the change management components in re-organization.

Factor 4: Graduation of the basic stages in implementation of the re-organization method.

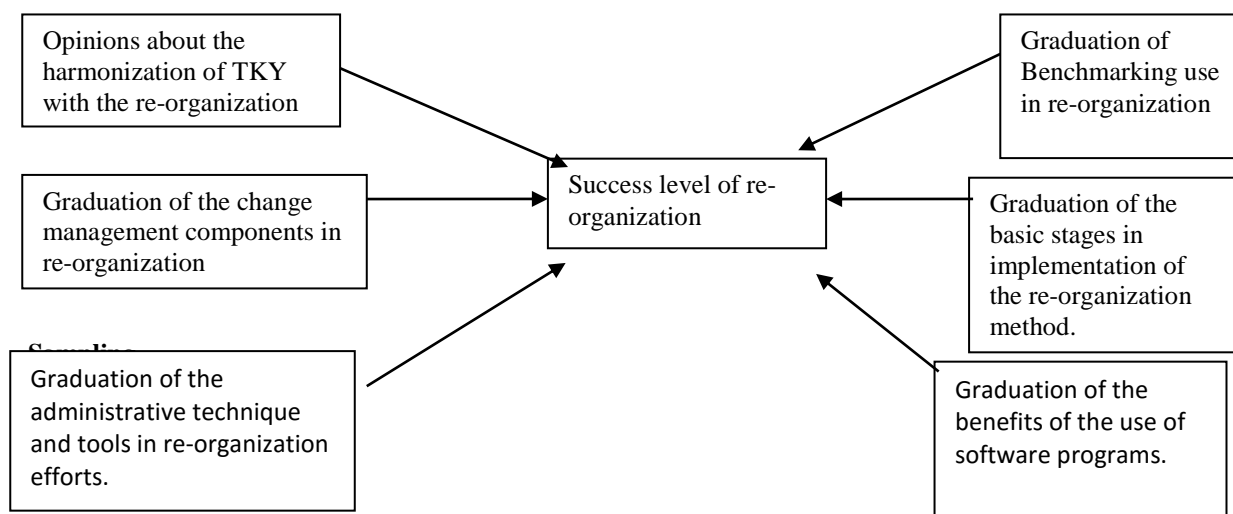
Factor 5: Graduation of the administrative technique and tools in re-organization efforts.

Factor 6: Graduation of the benefits of the use of software programs.

Result (dependent variable): Percentage distribution of the success level of re-organization (AL-MASHARI et al, 2001).

Factors listed above have been obtained from the previous literature studies. At the same time, opinions of the experts in the field were used. In order to measure the size of the variables, 5-fold Likert scale was used and the significance of the question was tried to be measured (graded) by adding graduation expressions such as "not important at all", "not important", "neutral", "important" and "very important" for the questions related to the variables.

Figure 1: Factors affecting the success level of re-organization



The sampling was formed using randomized sampling method among the large-scale businesses operating in Istanbul. The main population of the research comprises of large-scale businesses because re-organization is a process which is generally applied by large-scale businesses. Although it has a similar aspect with the outsourcing use of the businesses, re-organization is rather a management process requiring the assessment of the whole organization comprehensively. The number of large-scale businesses operating in Tekirdağ is 431 (http://www.tekirdagtso.org.tr/Formlar/Tekirdag_Rapor.pdf). The number of businesses to represent this main population is 40 (Altunışık, 2008). Survey forms were submitted to each of all 431 businesses included in the randomized sampling via interviewers and Internet; however only 47 of the businesses provided respond. During the scaling of the businesses according to TTK, three criteria are used for the regulation as per the law of harmonization code of the European Union: The first of these is the number of the personnel of a business, annual sales volumes and active assets. In the research businesses fulfilling these three criteria were accepted as large-scale businesses and the sampling comprised of this main population.

Research Hypothesis

As specified in the previous sections, re-organization is very similar to some other administrative techniques. Without any doubt, the most important aspect of re-organization is the radical changes throughout the business. Another administrative method based on change is the principal of continuous development of total quality management. In this regard, these two administrative methods are similar to each other. However the most important distinction between these administrative techniques is - without any doubt- the rate and size of the change. In this sense, while some managers actually try to perform re-organization, they are not aware of the fact that the operations conducted are changes that may be assessed within the scope of continuous development of the total quality management. 10th question of the survey asked to the managers "What is the importance of the use of a revolutionary (rapid) change and evolutionary (slow) development system for you?" was intended to understand the distinction and awareness stated above. 29 (62%) of the managers replied this question as important or very important. For this reason, it might be said that managers are well aware in this regard. Frequency distribution related to the question is specified in table 4.

Table4: Importance of Using a Revolutionary Change System and Using an Evolutionary Change Process

	No. of people	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Total Percentage
Not Important at all	1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Not Important	6	12.8	12.8	13.8
Neutral	11	23.4	23.4	37.2
Important	21	45.7	45.7	83.0
Very Important	8	17.0	17.0	100.0
Total	47	100.0	100.0	

H: There is a positive relation between the learning level of the business managers and realization of re-organization within the business.

Table:5 Correlation Between the Learning Level of the Business Managers and Realization of Re-Organization

			49	6
		Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-,011
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,917
	49	N	94	94
Spearman's rho		Correlation Coefficient	-,011	1.000
	6	Sig. (2-tailed)	,917	.
		N	94	94

The positive relation between the 49th question of the survey which asks the success level of the organization managers upon the initiation of re-organization process and the 5th question reporting the learning levels of the managers initiating the re-organization using the hypothesis test. As a result of the hypothesis, dependent variable was measured 0.917 for the relation between the success level of the organization and the learning level which is an independent variable affecting it. This rate shows that the relation between two variables is very strong and positive.

Results and suggestions

Business organizations should adopt certain changes in order to adapt to the rapidly changing business world and socio-cultural structure. In recent years, it is seen that specifically businesses make some changes in their organizations in order to adapt to the changing environment. The most important of these changes include the exclusion of certain organization departments from the organization body and transfer of these departments to other businesses through the use of outsourcing. From this aspect, outsourcing differentiates from re-organization as its scope is narrow. Re-organization is a need emerging in developing businesses. Businesses may sometimes turn into an unwieldy structure based on their size and one of the methods to overcome this is re-organization. In this scope, the business may have other businesses conduct the functions of certain departments and have to change their structure when they enter into certain markets for the first time. In order to achieve all of these, senior managers should well analyze the organization structure and the external environment, and they may provide a significant advantage in the success and profitability of the businesses upon obtaining relative information.

In the hypothesis of this research, a strong and positive relation between the knowledge level and re-organization process was detected. According to this result, it is foreseen that improvement of the knowledge level concerning re-organization and management techniques of other businesses in order to build a better organizational structure shall be an important factor for both organization managers' own success and the business.

For many businesses growth is one of the most important aims. In order to achieve this, creation of new resources, employment of new personnel and making new investments are inevitable. However while conducting all these operations, it is also inevitable to build organization structures that shall feature the capability of on-time decision-taking and compatibility with the processes. Otherwise, rapid changes in

the market conditions may result in missing some of the opportunities, and sometimes entering in big eddies due to crises. In order to turn these positive and negative situations into an advantage for the business, organizations should have the best structure. Undoubtedly, changing the structure in organizations is not an easy process at all. This process brings many risks together. For this reason, before applying re-organization the situation should be deeply analyzed, each item should be revised and as a result the decision should be made based on the bigger picture.

Upon determination and planning of the re-organization need, realization also requires significant administrative capabilities. Because changing the structure which has been used since the foundation of the organization, dissolving, merge and newly establishment of some departments is an important structural movement. Ideal management of the process by the top-level manager to realize this shall help the successful application of re-organization planned. For this reason, application of top-level managers to the professors of universities in management and organization department in order to obtain very detailed information about the management and organization and making use of this information through getting consultancy services may contribute to the success of the process.

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Youth Unemployment: Macroeconomic Causes, Consequences And Determinants

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Abstract: Aim of the current study is actually three fold. The first one is to document the theoretical causes, determinants and consequences of youth unemployment. The second one is to understand the current trends and demographic composition of youth unemployment in Turkey and in the world. The third one is to analyze empirically the determinants of youth unemployment rate in Turkey over a period 1989-2010. Our empirical and econometric analyses indicate three major results. First, both in the world and in Turkey youth unemployment rate has been rising and has become an increasingly important problem over the last few decades. Second, in Turkey skilled youth labor force has higher unemployment problem compared to the unskilled labor force. Third, skilled and unskilled youth unemployment has different dynamics. The latter is mostly driven by an increase in relative population of young labor force whereas the former is mostly driven by unionization and rigidity of labor market.

Keywords: Youth Unemployment Rate, Skilled Labor, Labor Market legislation

JEL Classification: J21, J64, J24

1. Introduction and the Concept of “Youth unemployment”

“Youth Unemployment” is one of the most severe social problems faced in recent decades in both developed and developing world. According to Gobal Employment and Social Outlook Trends report (2015) 201 Million unemployed individuals exist in the world where as 74 Million are rge young people. Overall, unemployment rate is 5.9 %, but the youth unemployment is more than twice of this ratio (13.1 %)

The term “Youth Unemployment Rate (YUR) “ is defined as the unemployment rate of young individuals who are between 15-24 years old. The rise in this phonemenon is curical for several reasons. For instance, it might lead to demoralized and reluctant youth labor, deterioration in their human capital and productivity (Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). This unutilized labor potential exhibit negative effects on the economic growth of the country. It may also cause severe social problems such as social exclusion and increased crime rates. (Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008).

There is a number of hypothesis discussed in the literature on the causes and determinants of youth unemployment. The first hypothesis is the **cohort hypothesis** which argues that increase in young population relative to other age groups increases the youth labor supply more than the labor demand and caus, therefore, an increase in unemployment (Korenman and Neumark, 2000; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). The second one is the **cycle hypothesis** which argues that youth unemployment is sensitive to aggregate economic performance which rises during the economic crisis and declines during the expansions (O’Higgins, 1997; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). The third hypothesis may be referred to as **Employment Protection hypothesis** which claims that economic systems that includes strict employment protection legislation such as high minimum wages, collective bargaining, centralized wage setting etc. are likely to have higher youth unemployment compared to flexible labor market systems since employers hesitate in these systems hiring young people as the firing costs are high (Neumark and Wascher, 2004; Korenman and Neumark, 2000; Kluve, 2006; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). **Education** is the last hypothesis claiming that highly educated young people are likely to have a higher potential for human capital and, therefore, are less unemployed than uneducated young individuals. (Duncan and Hoffman, 1981; Sayin, 2008).

However, the discussions on these hypotheses are far from a consensus in theoretical and empirical grounds. Furthermore, even the less attention has been paid to the developing country cases.

Hence, aim of the current study is actually two fold. The first one is to understand the current trends in youth unemployment in the world and in Turkey. The second one is to analyze empirically the

determinants of youth unemployment rate in Turkey over a period 1989-2010. We believe that one should analyze the determinants skilled and unskilled unemployment separately since the type of employment is driven by different dynamics and factors. Hence, we pursue such a separation in current study. In terms of methodology, apart from graphs and figures, we apply a Vector Autoregression technique and Cholesky Forecast Error Variance Decompositions and, in this way, analyze the relative importance of determinants.

Organization of our study is as follows. In section 2, we discuss in the detail the theoretical determinants of the youth unemployment, in section 3, we discuss the social and economic consequences of youth unemployment. Section 4 is devoted to analyzing the Current Situation in the world and global trends in youth unemployment. In Section 5, we implement our empirical analysis on turkey as a case study. Finally, we conclude our study in section 6.

2. The Determinants of youth unemployment : Literature Review

As anticipated in the introduction, there are four major hypotheses put forward in this issue.

Cohort Hypothesis

According to this hypothesis, an increase in the relative size of young population (15-24 age group) with respect to the prime age group (25-54 ages) causes youth unemployment to increase.

These age groups are known to be complements to each other, rather than they are substitutes.

Hence, given that the Labor demand is fixed for each group, a relative increase in the labor supply of youth labor force leads to an increase in unemployment rate of this group (Korenman and Neumark, 2000; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). Empirically, this issue has been investigated by Korenman and Neumark (2000) for OECD countries and over a period 1970-1994. They find a supportive evidence of this hypothesis.

Cycle Hypothesis

Young people are known to be more vulnerable to the developments in aggregate business cycle. During the economic downturns, labor demand for employees falls, where labor supply remains relatively higher for all age groups (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Borowski, 1984). Employers, however, prefer during these times more mature and experienced employees. Hence, youth unemployment increases during slumps (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Borowski, 1984). On the contrary, during the times of economic booms, young people are more preferred and youth unemployment decreases (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Borowski, 1984). This proposition has been empirically supported by the studies of O'Higgins (1997) and Blanchflower and Freeman (2000).

Employment Protection Hypothesis

In industrialized world, advanced employment protection legislation may create disadvantages for young labor force. In such economic systems, firing the workers and dismissals are costly. Minimum wages are high. There is, in general, a centrally decided wage setting and collective bargaining system. The employees are highly unionized. So that employers generally prefer mature and efficient workers which poses less risk for them. Hence, under inflexible, in other words, rigid labor market systems youth unemployment is expected to be higher.

Following a similar approach, several researchers point to the "youth experience gap" in this context (Pastore and Giuliani, 2015; O'Higgins, 2001; Quintini, Martin and Martin, 2007). According to this view, the gap refers to the differences in human capital and productivity between adult and young employees. As a result, mature and experienced workers are more preferred in the labor force. However, it seen as a temporary problem since the experience gap will be closed as the young employees will gain experience over time (Pastore and Giuliani, 2015; O'Higgins, 2001; Quintini, Martin and Martin, 2007). However, this can only happen in flexible labor markets where job turnovers are high. In other words, in rigid labor markets, youth experience gap can hardly be closed which might consequently lead to a persistence in youth unemployment.

Empirically, this hypothesis has been supported by several studies. For instance, Pereira (2003) has found that in Portugal improvements in minimum wage had an adverse effects on youth employment. Similarly, Bertola, Blau and Kahn (2002) have found that in 17 countries and for a period 1960-1996, unionization and wage setting coordination detriment the youth employment rates.

Education Hypothesis

In the labor market, generally, there is an excess demand for highly educated and talented employees. Therefore, youth unemployment is theoretically expected to be higher in unskilled workers compared to the skilled ones (Duncan and Hoffman, 1981; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). Similarly, Mincer (1991) argues that educated people are more skilled and efficient to adopt new circumstances, more efficient in job seeking and therefore, tend to experience less unemployment (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011).

Overall, these determinants have been empirically investigated by a number of studies in the literature. Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger (2008) have found that youth unemployment rate rises with the increase in relative population size of young age group, with increase in employment protection legislation and minimum wage and decreases with aggregate business cycle in their studies on 20 European Union (EU) countries, U.S.A. and Canada and over a period 1985-2004. Hence, cohort, cycle and employment protection hypotheses have been empirically verified in this study.

In another study by Pastore and Giuliani (2015) the determinants of youth unemployment have been analyzed for panel of 20 countries and over a period 2001-2011. They found evidence of the fact that continental EU and Anglo-Saxon labor systems exhibit lower youth unemployment compared to the other systems in the world. Similar to the previous paper, cohort, business cycle and employment legislation hypotheses have been influential on the evolution of youth unemployment.

3. Consequences of Youth Unemployment Rate

High and persistent youth unemployment is a very crucial economic and social problem. It is known to have detrimental effects on both aggregate economy and individuals.

To start with the individual effects, it creates a de-motivation and reluctance for young people who are expected to have high productivity and large potential with dynamism (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). Prolonged unemployment may also create a “discouraged worker” effect, which hampers the search for new jobs and losses in the productive labor base dynamism (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008). Apart from these economic problems, several social problems may arise. Unemployed people are expected to be more like to commit crime and become socially excluded dynamism (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008).

At the aggregate level, the costs of youth unemployment is not ignorable. Unutilized labor force creates a barrier againsts the fullfilment of economic growth and development potential. In such case, labor demand exceeds the labor supply, particularly for highly educated and skilled labor force which leads to an increase in wages and a decline in employment dynamism (Kabaklarlı, Hazel-Er and Buluş, 2011; Gomez-Salvador and Leiner-Killinger, 2008).

4. Youth Unemployment in the world

At the global scale, unemployment stands as a severe problem. In particular, youth unemployment is even more pronounced and in an increasing-phase during the recent decades. In figure 1 below, we depict the evolution of both total and youth unemployemet from 1991 to 2014. We obtain this data from the sources of the World Bank.

It is clearly seen that total unemployment rate follows a persistent pattern around 6 % . However, the evolution of youth unemployment is somewhat different. In general, it exhibits an increasing trend over the whole period. From early 1990s to 2000, it rises steadily from the levels of 13 % to about 15 %. This

might be due to political and economic instability in the world (such as Gulf War, etc.) It decreases afterwards to the level of 11 % until the Global financial crisis in 2008. Following the crisis, from 2008 to 2014, it increases again up to 14 %. Hence, youth unemployment is more than twice of total unemployment which shows the severity of the problem for young generations.

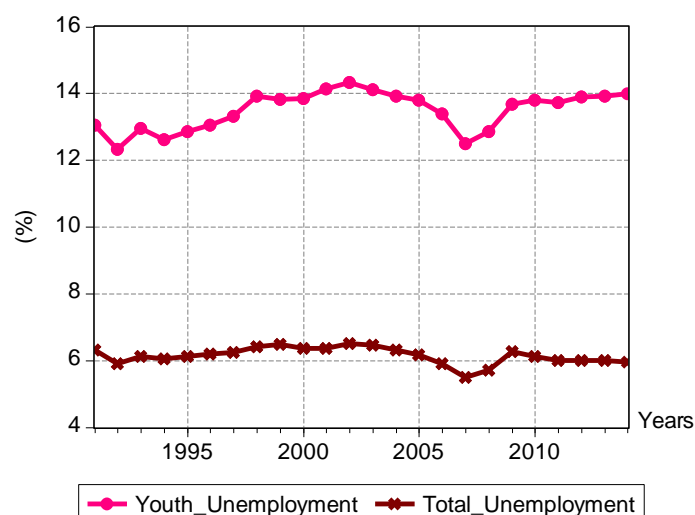
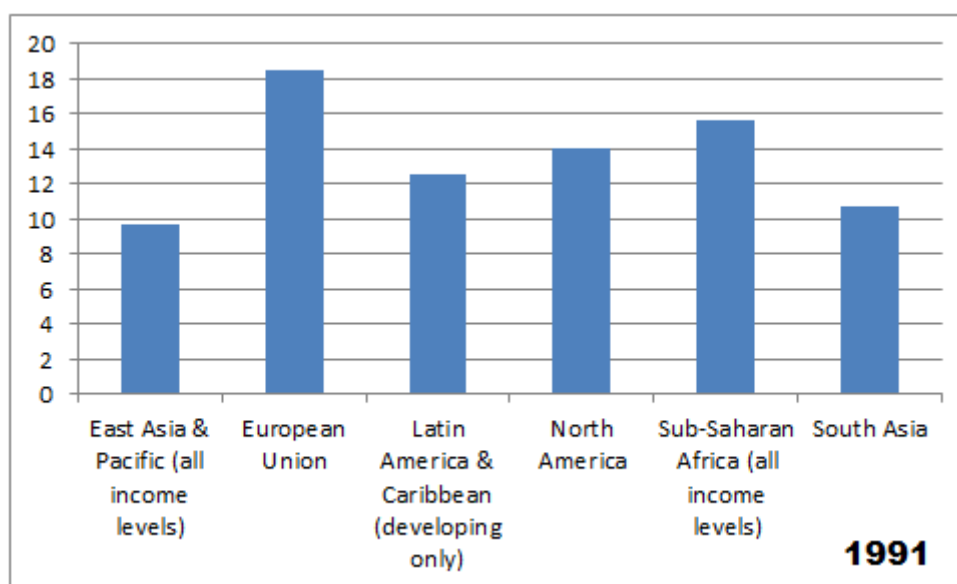


Figure 1. Youth and Total Unemployment Rate (15-24 age) in the world, 1991-2014, Source:WorldBank

With respect to the geographical distribution of youth unemployment, it ranges significantly across the continents. Figure 2 presents two bar-graphics. The first one shows the continental distribution of YUR in 1991 and the second one illustrates the same fact for 2014. In 1991, lowest rates are observed in South Asia, East Asia and Pacific (about 10 %), medium levels are observed in North America, Latin America and Caribbean (about 12-14%) and high levels are observed in European Union and Sub-saharan Africa (16-18 %). Coming to 2014, the picture slightly changes. All groups tend to equalize in terms of YUR and hit the levels about 11-14 % but only the EU rises to 25 %.



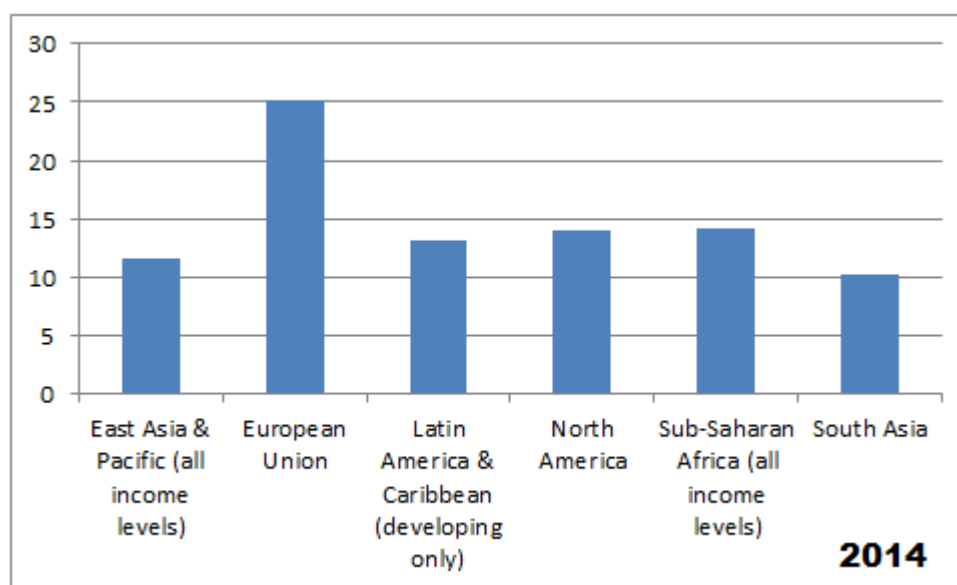


Figure 2. Youth Unemployment Rate (15-24 age) in regions, 1991-2014, Source:WorldBank

A similar pattern can also be observed in Figure 3, which shows the evolution of YUR over time for different country groups. It confirms once more the fact that all country groups converge to the similar rates of youth unemployment (about 11-15) with the only exception of EU in which, the YUR rises so rapidly after 2007 and hit the levels of 25 %.

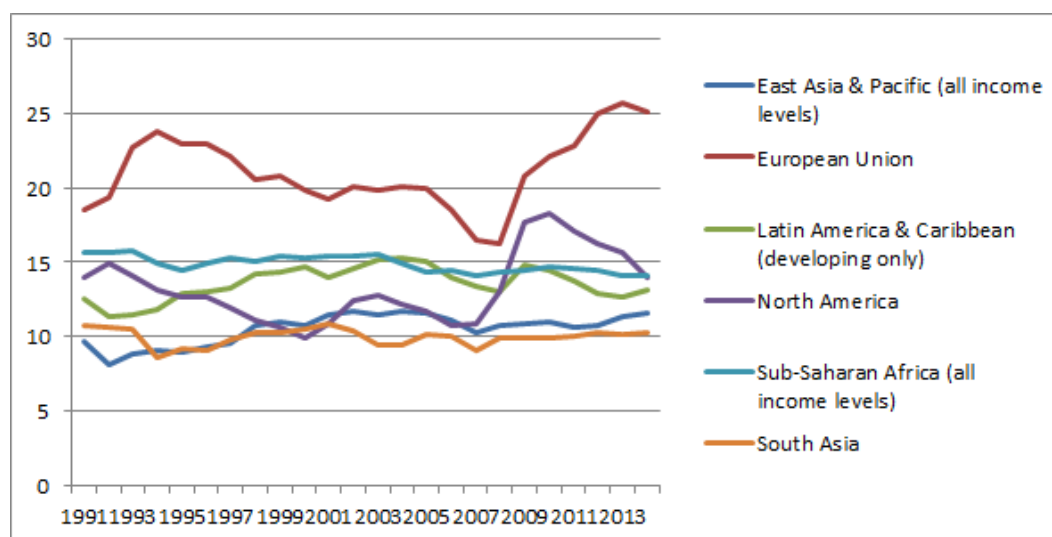


Figure 3. Evolution of Youth Unemployment Rate (15-24 age) in regions, 1991-2014, Source:WorldBank

5. Case Study: Youth Unemployment in Turkey

5.1. Current Situation, recent trends and Demographic Composition of Unemployment

The issue of unemployment has always been an increasingly important and one of the major concerns in Turkey as well. From a demographic viewpoint, the severity of the problem change according to the

different age, gender and education groups. In the present section, we analyze the demographic and geographical patterns of youth and total unemployment in Turkey. We obtain our data from Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK).

Figure 4 below presents the evolution of male and female unemployment rates in different age groups. Several observations can be made. First, regardless of which group considered, there is a general tendency of unemployment rates to increase from 1988 to 2013. This is a surprising given that these years, particularly after 2000, are characterized by economic growth. Second, youth unemployment has always been at least twice the total unemployment and the increase in youth unemployment is more pronounced compared to other age groups. Third, we do not observe a real difference among the gender groups neither in the levels nor in the evolution of unemployment.

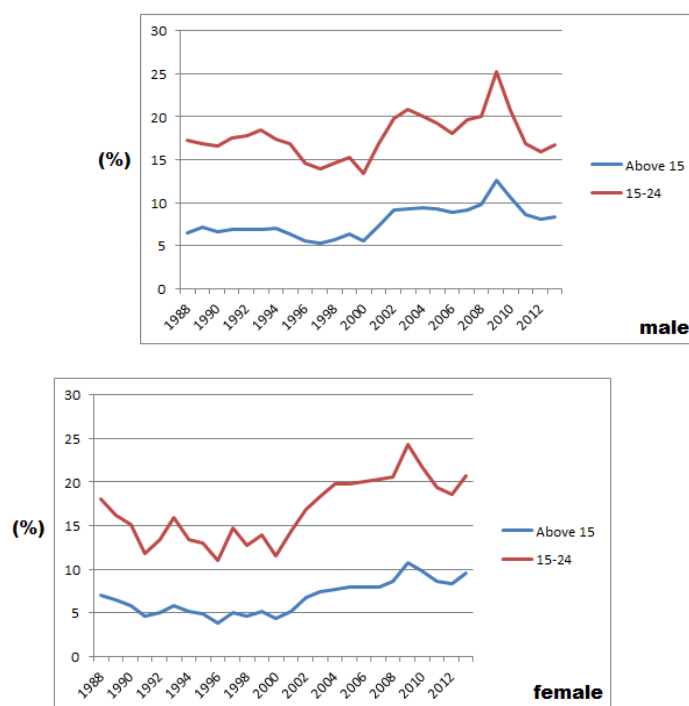


Figure 4. Evolution of Unemployment rate with respect to gender and age groups, 1988-2013, Source:TUIK, Note: Unemployment rates are averaged across different age groups.

Education level is another critical factor for unemployment. Evolution of unemployment rates for different education groups are presented below in Figure 5 (total unemployment) and Figure 6 (youth unemployment).

For total unemployment, highest unemployment rate is observed in secondary education level (9-16 %), than in bachelor graduates level (9-12%), than primary education level (8-12%) and lowest rates are observed in illiterate education level (4-8 %). As for the evolution of the rates, all groups exhibit a tendency to increase with the only exception of secondary-education group that shows a sharp decline over the years.

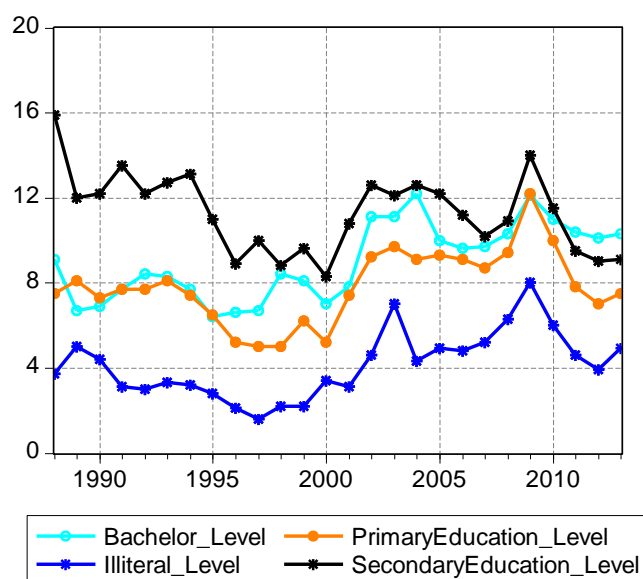


Figure 5 Evolution of Unemployment Rate (+15 age) in different education level groups, 1988-2013,
Source:TUIK

In youth unemployment, the picture is quite different (Figure 6). The highest rates are observed for bachelor-graduates level (30-40 %) which is far above the other groups (10-20%). The other education groups have quite close rates of youth unemployment. The evolutions of YUR are very persistent and do not increase or decrease through the years.

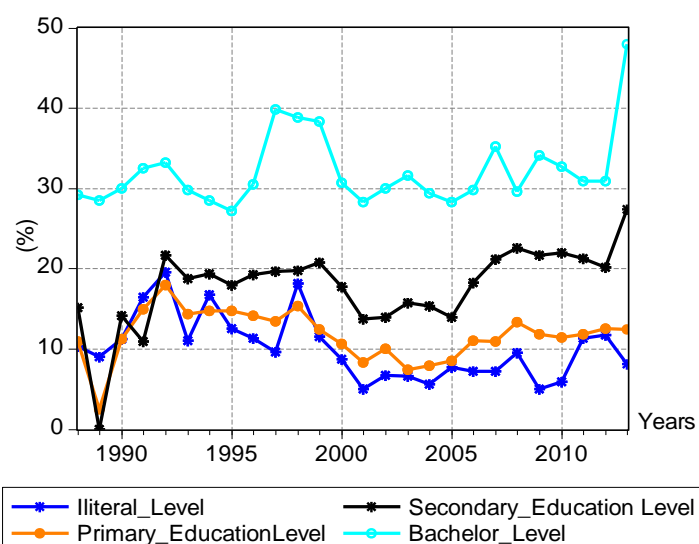


Figure 6 Evolution of Youth Unemployment Rate (15-24 age) in different education level groups, 1988-2013,
Source:TUIK

The geographical distribution of YUR is of our another interest. A considerable level of differences exist across the regions of Turkey. Geographical distribution of YUR has been shown for 26 regions in 2014 (Figure 7).

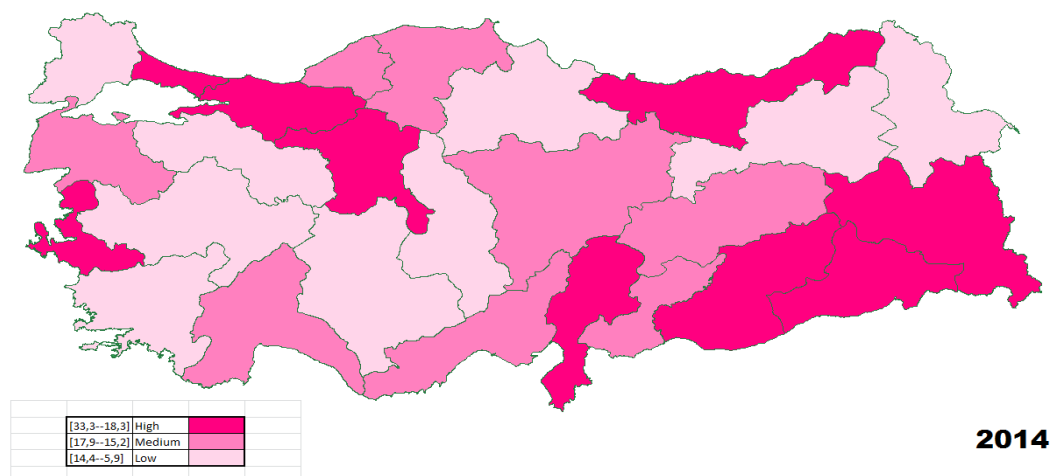


Figure 7. Geographical Distribution of Youth Unemployment Rate,
Source:TUIK

The lowest rates are shown by light color whereas the dark pink-color shows the areas suffering high YUR. The regions that exhibit low level of YUR concentrate around middle-west Anatolian, Mediterranean and North-Eastern Anatolian regions. For this group, The YUR ranges between 5.9 % and 14.4 %. These regions are characterized by an economic structure that relies on service sector and agriculture. The areas with high YUR, however, are concentrated around first, big metropolitan regions (İzmir, İstanbul, Ankara), where the urban population covers a large share of population, second, South Eastern and Blacksea coastal regions suffer the high YURs. For this group, YUR ranges between 33.3 % and 18.3 %.

5.2. Econometric Analyses and Results

Our proposed econometric model is expressed by the following time series Vector Autoregressions (Sims, 1980):

$$\begin{aligned}
 YUR_t &= \alpha_{1,1} + \alpha_{1,2} UnionDensity_{t-1} + \alpha_{1,3} Cohort_{t-1} + \alpha_{1,4} GDPgrowth_{t-1} + \alpha_{1,5} YUR_{t-1} + e_t \\
 UnionDensity_t &= \alpha_{2,1} + \alpha_{2,2} UnionDensity_{t-1} + \alpha_{2,3} Cohort_{t-1} + \alpha_{2,4} GDPgrowth_{t-1} + \alpha_{2,5} YUR_{t-1} + w_t \\
 Cohort_t &= \alpha_{3,1} + \alpha_{3,2} UnionDensity_{t-1} + \alpha_{3,3} Cohort_{t-1} + \alpha_{3,4} GDPgrowth_{t-1} + \alpha_{3,5} YUR_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \\
 GDPgrowth_t &= \alpha_{4,1} + \alpha_{4,2} UnionDensity_{t-1} + \alpha_{4,3} Cohort_{t-1} + \alpha_{4,4} GDPgrowth_{t-1} + \alpha_{4,5} YUR_{t-1} + \delta_t
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1}$$

All the variables are defined in an endogenous fashion. The data is in annual form and cover a period 1989-2010. The precise definition of variables and the data sources are documented in the Table 1 below. Since all the variables are in the form of yearly percentage changes, all are assumed as stationary. Therefore, we do not require to implement a further unit root analysis.

Table 1. Definition of Variables, 1989-2010

Variable	Definition	Source
YUR	Youth Unemployment Rate (15-24 age group), percentage annual growth	Turkish Statistical Institute
YUR_Skilled	Youth Unemployment Rate among Bachelor Graduates (15-24 age group), percentage annual growth	Turkish Statistical Institute
YUR_Unskilled	Youth Unemployment Rate among illiterate individuals, primary and secondary school graduates (average of the YUR of 3 groups) (15-24 age group), percentage annual growth	Turkish Statistical Institute
UnionDensity	Percentage of employees which belong to a Union, percentage annual growth	OECD
Cohort	youth labor force (15-24 ages) / Total Labor Force (+15) , percentage annual growth	Turkish Statistical Institute Ministry of Development, Republic of Turkey
GDPgrowth	Annual Real GDP Growth	

In terms of analyses, firstly, we calculate the bilateral Pearson's correlation coefficient between the YUR variables and the other variables. The outcomes are presented in Table 2. Unskilled youth unemployment is mostly related to aggregate gdp growth (0.3) and to the increase in relative population size of young cohort (0.19). The skilled YUR, however, has slightly different dynamics. It is more related to unionization rate (0.4) and to the increase in relative population size of young cohort (0.22).

Table2: Unconditional Pearson Correlation Coefficient between variables

Variables	Yur_Unskilled	Yur_Skilled
GDPgrowth	0,30	0,06
Union_density	-0,16	0,40
Cohort	0,19	0,22

We estimate the system of equations (1) using a reduced form VAR technique. The systems are estimated using separately the Skilled_YUR and Unskilled_YUR variables. Having obtained the estimated coefficients, we calculate the Cholesky Forecast Error Variance Decompositions of YUR variables and understand, in this way, the relative importance of each variable for the evolution of youth unemployment. We summarize the results in Table 3 and Table 4.

In Table 3, variance decomposition of unskilled unemployment is observed. At a glance, about 56-59 % of the variation in unskilled YUR is again driven by itself. About 30 % is driven by cohort variable, 8 % by GDP growth and 6 % by unionization rate. Hence, one may argue that for the unskilled labor, cohort hypothesis is mostly relevant. It follows that an increase in the relative size of young population increases the unemployment in unskilled young workers since the labor supply will be well above the labor demand.

Table 3: Cholesky Forecast Error Variance Decompositions of YUR_Unskilled variable

Period	Cohort	UnionDensity	GDPgrowth	Yur_Unskilled
1	30.83377	2.357493	7.801613	59.00712
2	29.44969	6.160422	7.896764	56.49313
3	29.46763	6.164080	8.092684	56.27561
4	29.46233	6.178177	8.094140	56.26535
5	29.46238	6.178070	8.094902	56.26465
6	29.46236	6.178119	8.094902	56.26462
7	29.46236	6.178119	8.094906	56.26462
8	29.46236	6.178119	8.094906	56.26462
9	29.46236	6.178119	8.094906	56.26462
10	29.46236	6.178119	8.094906	56.26462

Cholesky Ordering: cohort, union_density, GDPgrowth, yur_unskilled

In Table 4, variance decomposition of skilled unemployment is observed. It is seen that about 78 % of the variation in skilled YUR is again driven by itself. About 15 % is driven by cohort variable, 5 % by GDP growth and 1 % by unionization rate. Hence, one may argue that different from the case of unskilled labor, unionization of labor market is the most important driver of the skilled YUR. Therefore, Inflexible labor market and unionization increases the unemployment rates in this context.

Table 4: Cholesky Forecast Error Variance Decompositions of YUR_skilled variable

Period	Cohort	union_density	GDPgrowth	yur_skilled
1	0.918631	15.46816	0.867896	82.74531
2	0.872495	15.56207	5.027936	78.53750
3	0.866260	15.42093	5.166381	78.54643
4	0.878820	15.43170	5.202084	78.48739
5	0.878726	15.42908	5.218121	78.47407
6	0.878888	15.42862	5.219710	78.47278
7	0.878919	15.42859	5.220210	78.47228
8	0.878922	15.42857	5.220310	78.47219
9	0.878924	15.42857	5.220328	78.47218
10	0.878924	15.42857	5.220333	78.47217

Cholesky Ordering: cohort, union_density, GDPgrowth, yur_skilled

6. Conclusions

In this study, we have investigated the youth unemployment problem from a wide perspective. In detail, we have documented its theoretical causes, determinants and consequences. We have summarized the related theoretical and empirical literature. Our empirical investigation has been implemented in two parts. First, we evaluated the youth unemployment problem in the world and its recent tendencies, second, we focused on a case study and analyzed the current situation, demographic composition and economic determinants of youth unemployment rate in Turkey over a period 1989-2010.

Our empirical and econometric analyses indicate three major results. First, both in the world and in Turkey youth unemployment rate has been rising and become an increasingly important problem over the last few decades. Second, in Turkey skilled youth labor force has higher unemployment problem compared to the unskilled labor force. Third, skilled and unskilled youth unemployment has different dynamics. The latter is mostly driven by an increase in relative population of young labor force whereas the former is mostly driven by unionization and rigidity of labor market.

In the light of these results, several policy suggestions can be made. Employment programs and incentives should be increased in order to reduce the youth unemployment. Training programs, subsidies, job search assistance are among the possible solutions.

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İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminde Güncel Yaklaşımlar: Yetenek Yönetimi

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Özet: Günümüzde hızla artan rekabet, bilginin hızlı bir şekilde kendini her alanda göstermesi, küreselleşmenin getirdiği kalite koşulları işletmeleri insan kaynakları alanında hassasiyet göstermelerini gerekli kılmaktadır. Bu noktada insan kaynakları yönetiminde yetenek yönetimi oldukça önemli bir yapı haline gelmiştir. Yetenek doğuştan kazanılan özellikler olup, işletmeler insanları istihdam ederken işe uygun yeteneklere sahip işgörenleri temin edebilmesi oldukça zorunlu hale gelmiştir.

Günümüz işletmelerinde üretim odaklı olmaktan çok insan odaklı hal alması bu noktada hem müşteri beklentilerini karşılama hem de müşteri ihtiyaçlarını giderme konusunda örgüt içi istihdamda işin gereklerine uygun meziyetlere sahip işgören teminini mutlaka sağlamalıdır. Yetenekli işgörenlerin temini, örgüt içerisinde eğitimi ve kariyer yönetiminde kariyer imkânları sunulması yetenekli işgörenlerin örgüt amaçlarını gerçekleştirmesinde oldukça yararlı adımların atılmasını sağlayacaktır.

Bacon'un ifade ettiği gibi "bilgi güçtür" ve bu bilgiye sahip ve örgüt idealleri noktasında kullanmasını bilen elemanların temini işletmenin sağlıklı bir yapıya kavuşturulması noktasında önemli bir yapı taşıdır

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yetenek, Yetenek Yönetimi, Yetenek Yönetimi Süreci

Current Developments in Human Resources Management: Talent Management

Abstract: Today, the rapidly increasing competition, the amount of information that can be quickly brought on by globalization, each field yourself quality conditions businesses need to show sensitivity in the field of human resources. Talent is innate earned features, while businesses employing people to work in order to provide the appropriate skills have become quite mandatory Ilias.

Today in production-oriented rather than people-oriented State to take at this point in both the customer expectations and customer needs in accordance with the requirements of the job employment Group about troubleshooting talent with Ildiko supply necessarily. The availability of skilled in training organisations and Ileana career management career opportunities in the organization performing the goals of providing talented Ileana useful steps are disposed.

Bacon's performance as "knowledge is power" and have that information at the point of use to the ideals of the Organization and of attaining a healthy supply of business structure is a key building block at the point.

Key Words: Talent, Talent Management, Talent Management Process

1. Giriş

Teknolojinin toplum ve iş hayatında getirdiği yenilikler baş döndürücü bir hızla hayatın her alanında kendini göstermektedir. Değişime ve yeniliğe ayak uydurmak zor olsada bunu başaramayan kişi ve kurumlar maalesef gelişen dünyanın gerisinde kalmaktadır. Modernleşmeyle birlikte topluma açık olma, insanlığın satın alma güdülerini harekete geçirebilme örgütlerin en önemli yaşam felsefesi haline gelmiştir.

Örgütler için bir zamanlar maliyet unsuru olarak görülen insan faktörü artık sermaye gibi önemli bir üretim unsuru haline gelmiştir. İnsan sermayesi günümüz işletmelerinin odak noktası konumunda olup, işin gerektirdiği niteliklere sahip işgörenlerin temin edilmesi inkar edilemeyecek derecede önem arz etmektedir.

Bu noktada işin gereklerine uygun yeteneklere sahip çalışanları işletmeye kazandırmak örgütler açısından önemli bir örgüt felsefesi haline gelmiştir. Yetenekli işgörenleri sadece temin aşamasında değil, onların

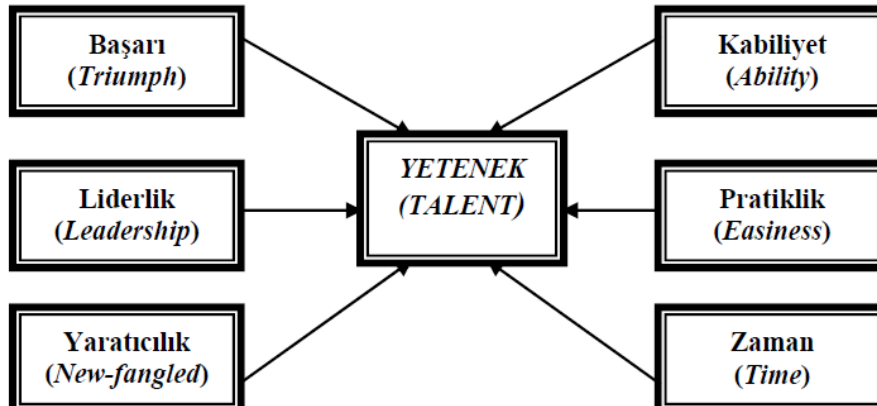
kariyer fırsatları sunulurken, örgüt için bir aile bireyi haline getirmek ana konu olmuştur. Günümüzde işletmelerde personel devir hızında yaşanan hız maalesef işletme kalitesini düşürmektedir. Personel devir hızını yavaşlatmak, aynı zamanda yetenekli çalışanları sadece örgüt amaçları etrafında odaklanmalarını sağlamakla olanaklı kılınabilir. Çalışanlar nasıl ki, aile bireylerinin kan bağı ile birbirine bağlı oldukları gibi, onlara gereken değeri vererek örgüt işgören arasında gerekli olan illiyet bağı kurulmalıdır.

Bu çalışmada öncelikle yetenek kavramı açıklanmaya çalışılmış, ikinci bölümde yetenek yönetimi kavramı ve süreci üzerinde durulmuştur.

2. Yetenek Kavramı

Yetenek kavramı Türk Dil Kurumu sözlüğünde; “bir kimsenin bir şeyi algılama, tanımlama veya yapabilme niteliği, kabiliyet, istidat; bir duruma uyma konusunda organizmada bulunan ve doğuştan gelen güç, kapasite” olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Türk Dil Kurumu, 2015). Bu tanımdan yola çıkarak yetenek kavramının, kalıtsal olmakla beraber zaman içinde geliştirilebilen potansiyel kabiliyetler olduğu ifade edilebilir. Başka bir tanıma göre yetenek, insan kaynakları ortamında, kurumun bugününe ve geleceğine performansıyla önemli katkılar sağlama yetisi olarak da kullanılmaktadır.

Yetenek, kelime anlamı ve kullanım anlamı olarak farklı kişiler tarafından günümüze kadar tanımlanmaya çalışılmıştır. Buckingham, yeteneği; başarı, kabiliyet, liderlik, yaratıcılık ve yenilikçilik ile zamanı etkin kullanma, bireyin işini başarılı, kolaylaştırıcı, yeniliğe ve yaratıcılığa dayalı ve uygun bir zamanda yapabilme kabiliyeti olarak tanımlamıştır. Erdoğan ise, yeteneğin tanımını kişinin belirli ilişkileri kavrayabilme, analiz edebilme, çözümleyebilme ve sonuca varabilme gibi zihinsel özellikleri ile ortaya çıkan olguları gerçekleştirebilmesi şeklindeki bedensel özelliklerinin tamamı olarak belirtmiş ve bireylerin davranışlarını düzenlemede yararlandıkları zihinsel ve bedensel kapasiteleri olarak tanımlamıştır. Bu iki tanımlamadan hareketle yetenek tanımının; bireyin süre gelen düşünme, hissetme ve davranma özelliklerinin üretken bir şekilde uygulanabilmesi ve çekicilik, stratejik düşünme, rekabetçilik, empati kurabilme, odaklanabilme gibi özelliklerini içerdiği belirtilebilmektedir (Güngör, 2013:51).



Şekil 1’den anlaşıldığı gibi, yetenek Kavramı (Talent) kelimesini oluşturan; Triumph (Başarı), Ability (Kabiliyet), Leadership (Liderlik), Easiness (Pratiklik), New-fangled (Yaratıcılık) ve Time (Zaman) kavramlarının bir bütünü olarak nitelendirilmektedir.

Yetenek için yapılan tanımlar incelendiğinde, göz ardı edilmemesi gereken birkaç önemli nokta bulunmaktadır. Bunları şöyle sıralayabiliriz (Yalçın, 2013:15);

- Yetenek büyük ölçüde doğuştan gelen bir güçtür,
- Yetenek genelde kalıtsaldır,
- Yetenek potansiyel bir yapabilme kabiliyetini ifade eder
- Yetenek bir duruma uyum sağlama ile ilgilidir,
- Yetenek bireyin zihinsel ve bedensel kapasitesini ifade eder.

- Yetenek davranışlarla ilgilidir.

2.1. Yeteneğin Özellikleri

İşletmelerdeki yetenekli çalışan potansiyelinin iş ortamına aktarılması ve bu çalışanlardan en üst düzeyde yararlanılması, iş sürecinde çalışan verimini artırıcı bir yaklaşım olarak görülmektedir. Bu yönüyle yetenekli çalışanlardan beklenen özelliklerin başında, birlikte çalıştığı paydaşlarıyla etkili bir iletişim içinde bulunması ve geri bildirim almaya özen göstermesi yer almaktadır (Yalçın, 2013:16).

- Yetenekli çalışanların özellikleri incelendiğinde yetenek özellikleri şu şekilde sıralanabilmektedir (Yalçın, 2013:16):Gelişim ve değişime uyum sağlama: Sürekli değişir ve gelişirler, devamlı olarak aynı şekilde davranmazlar.
- Kurum içinde güven yaratma: Diğerlerinin güvenini kazanarak işletme içinde sinerji yaratırlar.
- İyi bir model olmak: Sadece kendilerini geliştirmekle kalmazlar, diğer insanları da geliştirmek isterler. Diğerlerine çok iyi rol modeli olurlar.
- Kısıtlanmaya kapalı olma: Sürekli öğrenmek ve gelişmek isterler. Hareket edemedikleri, kısıtlandıkları yerlerden nefret ederler.
- Şirketi en iyi şekilde temsil edebilme: İşletmeyi gerçekten de çok iyi temsil ederler, insanlar bu kişilerle çalışmaktan keyif alırlar.
- İyi bir takım oyuncusu olmak: şirket için değer yaratırlar. Hepsi iyi birer takım oyuncusudur. Sadece kendileri için değil şirketin iyiliği için de çalışırlar. Yerinde sayan projelere son verme konusunda cesaretleri vardır.
- Her koşulda başarı üzerine odaklanma: Her yerde başarılı olabilirler, her türlü kültür ve çevrede bu çalışanlar başarıyı yakalayabilir, çalışacakları işletmeleri dikkatle seçerler ama neredeyse her yerde zaten başarılı olma potansiyelleri vardır.
- Diğer yetenekli çalışanları işletmeye çekebilme: Yeni yetenekleri çekmede çok başarılıdırlar, insanlar onlarla çalışmak ister.
- Bu özelliklere dayanarak yetenekli çalışan; çalışma arkadaşları tarafından güvenilen, herkes tarafından birlikte çalışmaktan memnuniyet duyulan böylelikle de takım olma ruhunu taşıyan, yeniliklere daima açık, örnek gösterilen, şirketi başarılı çalışmalarlarıyla temsil eden kişi olmaktadır.

1.1. Yeteneğin Diğer Kavramlarla İlişkisi

2.2.1. Yetenek Beceri İlişkisi

Beceri bir kişiden diğerine aktarılabilen, bir işin nasıl yapılacağını belirten kavramdır. Yeteneği bu noktada beceriden ayıran şey kişiden kişiye aktarılabilir oluşudur. Beceri bir yetenek türüdür. Belli zihinsel veya fiziksel bir fiili yerine getirebilme yeteneğine beceri denmektedir. Yetenek kişide var olan yapabilirlikler iken, beceri bu yapabilirliklerin sonradan öğrenilenlerle biçimlenmesi sonucu oluşur. Yetenek kişiden kişiye aktarılamaz. Var ya da yoktur. Beceri yetkinliği oluşturan 5 karakteristik unsurdan biridir.

Beceri, zaman içerisinde deneme yanılma yoluyla, eğitimle, okul veya kurslarla belirli edinimleri kazanmadır. Beceride yapma önemlidir. Örneğin, güzel yazı yazma, güzel konuşma, matematik işlemleri hızlı yapma, hızlı daktilo yazma, insanları hoş karşılama ve onlara iltifat etme, güzel resim çizme, güzel şarkı söyleme becerileri tanımlar. Yetenek kavramı beceri kavramı ile çok yakından alakalıdır. Pek çok durumda bir başarının yetenek mi yoksa beceri mi olduğu konusu tam olarak netleştirilmez. Yetenek hamdır, geneldir, geniştir, kapsamlıdır, spesifik bir beceriyle sınırlandırılmaz. Birçok ilgili beceri bir araya gelerek yeteneği oluşturur. Yeteneğin sergilenmesi veya kanıtlanması için onu ortaya koyacak bazı becerilerin sergilenmesi gerekir. Yetenek genel bir özdür. Bir insan birden çok konuda, sadece belirli bir konuda veya bir grup konuda yetenekli olabilir (Ceylan, 2007:20).

İş hayatında ise beceri bir işi yapabilme yeteneğinin eşik değişkeni olarak ortaya çıkar. Aynı şekilde aktarılabilir beceriler de kullanıldıkları işin içeriğinden bağımsız değer taşıyan yeteneklerdir. Başkalarını motive etmek, veri düzenleme ve bilgi yorumlama yani analiz bu becerilere örnektir (Tümen, 2014:45).

2.2.2. Yetenek Potansiyel İlişkisi

Türk Dil Kurumu'na göre potansiyel; “gizli kalmış, henüz varlığı ortaya çıkmamış, gelecekte oluşması, gelişmesi mümkün olan, kullanılmaya hazır güç, yetenek” anlamındadır. Potansiyel, çalışanın içinde mevcut olan ancak açığa çıkarılamamış gücü, yeteneği olarak tanımlanabilir.

Potansiyel, gelecekte daha yüksek düzeyde yetkinlik gerektiren işlerde gösterilecek başarının ölçüsüdür. Yüksek performans gelecekteki başarı için “büyük ölçüde” gereklidir; fakat “yeterli” bir koşul değildir. Bu nedenle potansiyel, geleceğe yönelik bir tahmindir ve performansın gözlenmesi kadar kesinlik taşımamaktadır. Bu nedenle işletmeler, yetenekleri belirlerken sadece performansa değil, çalışanların potansiyellerini de saptama yoluna gitmelidirler (Aker, 2008: 18). Aynı zamanda, çalışanlarını seçerken farklılık yaratabilecek ve işletmeye değer katacak üstün performansa sahip etkin çalışanları istihdam etmek, yetenek yönetimi uygulamalarıyla üzerinde durulan kavramlardan, yetkin, istenilen performansa, beceri ve potansiyele sahip çalışanlardan en iyi şekilde yararlanmayı ve elde tutmayı arzu ederler (Çayan, 2011:26).

2.2.3. Yetenek Yetkinlik İlişkisi

Türk Dil Kurumu'na göre yetkinlik; “Yetkin olma durumu, olgunluk, kemal, mükemmeliyet” anlamındadır.

Yetkinlik herhangi bir görev ya da fiilde mükemmel performansa ulaşabilmek için ayırt edici bilgi, beceri ve tutumları kapsayan gözlemlenebilir davranışlar ve çalışanın yaptığı işte rol ve sorumluluğunu etkileyen, performansla bağlantılı, ölçülebilen ve eğitim ile geliştirilen bilgi ve beceri gruplarıdır (Tümen, 2014:45).

Yetkinlik kavramı 1957 yılından bu yana değişik bilimsel araştırmaların ışığında

işletmecilik alanında kullanılmıştır. İlk kez 1957 yılında Selznick bir işletmenin kilit başarı faktörlerini (fiziki ve beşeri kaynaklar ile yetenek ve beceriler) açıklarken “ayırt edici yetenekler”den söz etmiştir. Ayırt edici yetenekler düşüncesi daha sonra Prahalad ve Hamel tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Yetkinliklerin insan kaynakları alanında kullanılmaya başlaması ise ilk olarak Robert White tarafından 1959 yılında gerçekleşmiştir. White, competence (yetenek, beceri, yeterlilik) olarak tanımladığı insana özgü özelliklerden bahsetmiştir. Daha sonra bu kavramı David McClelland 1973 yılında American Psychologist dergisinde yayınlanan “Testing for Competence Rather Than for Intelligence” (Zekâ Yerine Yeterliliği Ölçmek) adlı makalesinde kullanmıştır. Bu makalesiyle McClelland o zamanlar geniş kabul gören zekâ testlerinden farklı olarak competence olarak adlandırdığı yetenek ve becerilerin ortaya konmasına yönelik bir yaklaşım geliştirmiştir. Bu makaleyi izleyen diğer çalışmalarında McClelland competency (yetkinlik) kavramını kullanmış ve yetkinliği, üstün başarı sağlayan ayırt edici özellikler olarak tanımlamıştır (Çayan, 2011:22).

2.2.4. Yetenek Tecrübe İlişkisi

Pek çok alanda yapılan kapsamlı araştırmalar birçok insanın yaptığı işte, işi ne kadar süredir yapıyor olursa olsun olağanüstü derecede iyi olamadığı, hatta işe başlama becerisinin bile ötesine geçemediği kanıtlanmıştır. Temel yetenekler söz konusu olduğunda son derece tecrübeli kişilerin (hisse senedi öneren borsacılar, finansal danışmanlar, başvuru değerlendiren üniversite hocaları) işlerinde en az tecrübeye sahip olanlardan daha iyi olmadıkları da kanıtlanmıştır. İşletme yöneticilerine ilişkin son araştırmalarda yukarıda anlatılanları pekiştirecek bulgular elde etmişlerdir. Fransa'daki INSEAD İşletme Fakültesinden ve ABD deniz ihtisas okulundan araştırmacılar bu olguya ‘Deneyim Tuzağı’ adını vermişlerdir. Anahtar bulgu; Şirketler tipik bir tutumla deneyimli yöneticilere önem verirken, titiz araştırmalar genellikle deneyimli yöneticilerin daha üstün sonuçlar elde etmediklerini göstermiştir. Bu durum, daha da tuhaf bir hal alarak bazı insanların deneyim kazandıkça daha kötü performanslar sergiledikleri durumlara kadar varmıştır.

Deneyimli doktorlar, tıp bilgisini ölçen sınavlarda hemen hemen her zaman deneyimsiz doktorlardan daha düşük puanlar almışlardır. Hesap denetçilerinin de aynı şekilde zamanla belli türden değerlendirme yaparken daha az becerikli hale geldikleri tespit edilmiştir (Tümen, 2014:35-36). Sonuç olarak bakıldığında tecrübe tek başına yeteneğin gelişiminde yeterli değildir. Yeteneği tecrübe ile birleştirmek beceriyi artırır.

3. Yetenek Yönetimi Kavramı

Günümüzde insan kaynakları yönetimi; kayıt tutma, kontrol, bilgi derleme gibi rollerden uzaklaşmış eğitim, performans yönetimi, motivasyon, kişisel gelişim, yeni görev tanımları uygulama ve yöntemlerinden oluşan, yönetime insan kaynağı odağında değer katmaya yarayan yeni bir vizyona ihtiyaç duymuştur. Bu genişleme ihtiyacı işletmelerde yetenekli çalışanların en önemli üretim faktörü olduğu kabulüyle birlikte işletme stratejisinin yetenek yönetme stratejisiyle uyumlaştırıldığı, yetenekli kişilerin işe alım, geliştirilme ve elde tutulmaları süreçlerini kapsayan ve bu kişilerin kendilerini ifade edebilecekleri en uygun çalışma ortamının sağlandığı çalışan odaklı bir yaklaşım olarak şekillenmiştir (Tümen, 2014:49).

Duttagupta'nın görüşü ise bu şekildedir (Duttagupta, 2005):

“Mümkün olan en geniş anlamda, yetenek yönetimi bir organizasyon aracılığıyla yetenek akışının stratejik yönetimidir. Amacı, stratejik iş hedeflerine dayanarak doğru zamanda doğru işlere doğru kişileri yerleştirmek için uygun olan yetenek kaynağını temin etmektir.”

Schwyer (2004) için yetenek yönetimi tanımı bu şekildedir:

“Yetenek yönetimi bütün insan kaynakları işlemlerini, yönetimini ve teknolojilerini kapsamaktadır. Genel olarak iş gücünün satın alma, tarama, seçim, işe alım ve işe alıştıma, müşteriye elde tutma, gelişim, dağıtım ve yenileme yönlerinden bahseder.”

Creelman (2004)'ın iddiası ise bu şekilde:

“Yetenek yönetimini bir konu dizisi olarak değil, bir bakış açısı veya bir düşünce görmek en iyisidir. Yetenek yönetimi ı bakış açısı yetenekli bireylerin firmanın başarısında merkezi bir rol oynadığını varsaymaktadır. Tüm kurumsal konular “Bu bizim kritik yeteneğimizi nasıl etkileyecek?” ve “Bu sorunda yeteneğin rolü nedir?” bakış açılarından ele alınmaktadır.” Julia (2008) yetenek yönetimi ile ilgili bir kaç önemli yayını inceledikten sonra önermesi bu şekildedir:

“Yetenek yönetimi stratejik insan kaynakları yönetimi temelleri üzerine inşa edilmiş, yetenek için yapılan savaş tarafından körüklenen ve insan kaynakları uygulayıcıları tarafından savunulmuş çok boyutlu bir kavramdır. Bu kurumsal bir düşünce veya çalışanların gerçek anlamda değerli olduğu bir kültür; bir rekabet üstünlüğü kaynağı; etkin bir entegre ve şirket çapında bir sofistike kümesi, teknoloji etkinleştirilmiş, kanıta dayalı insan kaynakları yönetimi politikaları ve uygulamaları ve insan kaynakları uygulayıcılarının stratejik ortaklardan birinin rolünü arttırmak için bir şans olarak görülebilir. Yetenek yönetimi bu nedenle hem bir felsefe hem de bir uygulama olarak tanımlanmaktadır.”

Günümüzde iş dünyasında rekabet ortamında öne çıkarak başarıya ulaşabilmenin ve en önemlisi başarıyı sürdürülebilir kılabilmenin yolu, değişimlere hızla ayak uydurabilen dinamik bir yapıya sahip olabilmekten geçmektedir. Bu gerçeği göz ardı etmeyen işletmeler, sürekli değişimin kaçınılmaz olduğu bilgi çağında, yönetsel etkinliğin ve kurumsal verimliliğin anahtar kelimesinin “insan” olduğu gerçeğini de kabul etmiş durumdadırlar. İş dünyasının gündemindeki hızlı ve sürekli değişimler, yetenekli iş gücüne olan talebi artırmakta ve bu tür yeteneklere sahip olmak gün geçtikçe zorlaşmaktadır. İşletmelerin rekabet avantajı sağlamalarında stratejilerine uygun yetenekleri kuruma kazandırmaları tek başına yeterli olmamaktadır. Bu durum, kuruma kazandırılan çalışanları elde tutacak ve kurumda sürekliliklerini sağlayacak uzun vadeli uygulamaları gündeme getirmiştir.

Bu uygulamalar ile çalışanların kendilerini ve kariyerlerini geliştirecekleri bir ortam yaratılarak kuruma uyum sağlamaları amaçlanmaktadır. Kurumun ve çalışanların performanslarının artırılmasında yetenek yönetimi büyük önem taşımaktadır. Günümüzde gelişen insan kaynakları sürecinin lokomotif, çalışanların sahip olduğu yeteneklerdir. Yetenekli çalışanların, değer yaratan, üreten, yaratıcı işgücü olduğu ve bulunmasının hızla zorlaşarak uğruna yetenek savaşlarının olacağı kaçınılmaz bir öngörüdür. Bu yüzden de

işletmeler yetenekli bireyleri kendilerine çekmek, onları elde tutmak, bağlılıklarını sağlamak için eğitim, kariyer ve lider mentorluğu gibi çeşitli fırsatlar sunmak zorunda kalacaklardır. Bu durum insan kaynaklarının gelişim sürecine insan sermayesinin temel yapıtaşı, yeteneklerinde eklenmesinin gerekli kılmaştır. Akabinde yetenek yönetimi yaklaşımı, sürece entegre edildi. İşletmeler için stratejik rekabet üstünlüğü haline gelen yetenekler yönetilmeye başlandı. (Çelik,2011:2) İşletmeler bir taraftan, en önemli kaynağı olan “insan”ı kendisine katmak, gelişimini sağlamak, amaçları doğrultusunda en yüksek seviyede verim elde etmek ve bağlılığını sağlamak durumunda iken; diğer taraftan da organizasyonda üretilen bilgi, deneyim ve bütünde oluşan işletme değerlerinin kişiye bağlı olarak kalmasını önlemek durumundadır.

Bunun için açık iletişim ve paylaşım ortamlarında bu değerlerin sürekliliğini sağlamaları, bilgiyi düzenli şekilde kayıt altına almaları ve gerek duyulduğunda kişilerin ulaşmasını sağlamakla ilgili yeni iş süreçleri planlamaları, aynı zamanda şirket içi kritik bilgi, deneyim ve paylaşımı arttırmak üzere çeşitli platformları teşvik etmeleri gerekmektedir. Şüphesiz, işletme içerisinde, tüm bu uygulamaları tek başına insan kaynakları departmanının sahiplenmesi ve uygulaması yeterli olmayacaktır. Yetenek yönetimi anlayışı ile kastedilen, yetenekli çalışanların belirlenmesi, istihdamı, geliştirilmesi, uygun görevlere getirilmesi ve sadakatlerinin sürekliliğinin sağlanması konularında, işletmenin bir bütün olarak bu anlayışı benimsemesi ve hayata geçirmesidir. (Demircioğlu, 2010:2)

Özet olarak, yetenek yönetiminin beceri eksikliklerinin üstesinden gelme olduğunu ve güvenli üst yeteneğin iş başarısı için önemli olacağını belirtebiliriz. Birçok sanayinin ve ülkenin, gelecek kuşakta yüksek vasıflı pozisyonlar, orta ve üst düzey liderler konusunda yetenek krizi yaşayacağı görülmektedir. Bundan dolayı yetenek yönetimi son zamanlarda çok önemli bir konu olarak ortaya çıkmıştır (Waheed, 2013:54).

Yetenek Yönetimi kavramının ortaya çıkışı ve bu konuda yapılmış tanımlardan yola çıkarak, ilgili kavram esas itibarıyla, 1990’lı yılların sonunda ABD’de ortaya çıkmış, İngilizce “talent management” karşılığı olarak kullanılmaktadır. Kavramın uygulamada ve akademik yazında popülerleşmesi ise McKinsey danışmanlarının 1997’de yaptığı araştırmayla başlamıştır. Ardından yürütülen akademik çalışmalar konuyu derinleştirmiştir (Güngör, 2013:61).

Yetenek yönetimi, insan kaynakları yönetiminin kapsamında ele alınıp, yetenekli adayları cezbetmek, istihdam etmek, elde tutmak ve geliştirmek amacıyla önceden belirlenmiş stratejiler çerçevesinde, belli gruplara yönelik ya da kişiselleştirilmiş İK uygulamaları şeklinde düşünülmelidir. İK’ ya ait bütün uygulamalar ve araçlar aynı zamanda yetenek yönetiminin de uygulama ve araçlarıdır ve yetenek yönetimi bütün İK fonksiyonlarıyla yakından ilgilidir (Ceylan, 2007:61).

Yetenek yönetimi; hangi özelliklerdeki kişilerin işe alınacağı, bu kişilerin nasıl belirleneceği ve yetenek havuzunun nasıl geliştirileceğine yönelik özel stratejiler geliştirmeyi gerektirir. Bütün bunlar göz önüne alınıncaya, işletmelerin yetenek yönetimi uygulamaları için başlıca politika yaratması gereken alanlar aşağıdaki gibi belirtilmektedir (Çayan, 2011:40);

- Yeteneklerin tanınması,
- Yeteneklerin cezbedilmesi,
- Yeteneklerin seçilmesi,
- Sürekliliklerinin sağlanması,
- Yeteneklerinin geliştirilmesine yönelik yenilenme,
- Başarılarının yönetimi,
- İşletme kültürünün geliştirilmesi,
- Yaşayan ve daha geniş bir çevre yaratılması.

Yetenek yönetimi günümüzde mükemmel organizasyonlar oluşturmak için kullanılan kapsamlı ve entegre bir süreçtir. Yetenek konseptine dayalı bir örgüt yapısı oluşturmak ve bunu başarıyla yönetmek için öncelikle yapılanların yönetim düzeyinde sahiplenmesi gereklidir. Sonrasında şirket kültürü, amaçları, hedefleri ve stratejileri ile bütünleşik bir yetenek yönetimi stratejisi oluşturulur. Bu yönetim yaklaşımında, yetenekli kişilerin şirkete çekilmesi, etkin geliştirme programları sayesinde elde tutularak katma değer

yaratılacak ortam sağlanması gereklidir. Ardından da yüksek performans gösteren kişilerin etkin performans ve yetkinlik sistemleri ile değerlendirilir. Farklı performans gösterenler diğer kişilerden farklılaştırılarak inovatif tanıma ve ödüllendirme sistemlerinin uygulanarak yöntemden başarılı sonuçlar alınabilir. Bu durum da şirketlerin yüksek performansa ve sonuç odaklı bir kültüre sahip olmasını zorunlu kılmaktadır (Çelik, 2011:13).

İşletmelerin karlı ve sürdürülebilir rekabet avantajı sağlayarak büyüebilmesi, sahip oldukları insan kaynaklarının zamanında, yeni ve yaratıcı projeleri üreterek etkin bir şekilde uygulamasına bağlı bulunmaktadır. Söz konusu başarıyı elde eden işletmelerin stratejilerine bakıldığında yetenek yönetiminin oldukça öne çıktığı görülmektedir. Bu yönüyle yetenek yönetimi, insan kaynakları fonksiyonunun başarısını belirlemek için giderek önemi artan bir yaklaşım olmaktadır. Bu yaklaşımın değerini anlayan işletmeler, yetenek yönetimi üzerinde daha ciddi çalışmalar yaparak kurumun karlılığını uzun vadede artırmayı hedeflemektedirler (Yalçın, 2013:22).

3.1. Yetenek Yönetiminin Tarihçesi

1980'li yıllara gelinceye kadar değişim ve dalgalanma olmaksızın nispeten daha sakin bir rekabet ortamında çalışmaya alışmış olan işletmeler, bu tarihten itibaren çeşitli değişimlerle karşı karşıya kalmışlardır. O güne kadar alanlarında çok başarılı olarak kabul edilen işletmeler bile bu değişimler karşısında zorlanmaya başlamışlardır. Özellikle bilgi toplumuna geçiş; küresel ölçekte yaşanan şiddetli rekabet, ticari ilişkilerin ulusal sınırların ötesine taşması, tüketici tatmininin en üst seviyede karşılanmaya çalışılması gibi dünya ticaretinde yaşanan, yeni sayılabilecek gelişmeler karşısında, durağan şartlarda çalışmaya alışmış, katı ve hantal örgüt yapılanmaya sahip olan işletmeler çok zor durumlarda kalmışlardır.

Bir başka ifadeyle yenedünya düzeni işletmelerin mevcut yönetim anlayışları ve örgüt yapıları ile yönetilmelerinde sorunlar yaratmış, yeni yönetim yaklaşım lafına ihtiyaç doğmuştur (Akdoğan ve Karacaoğlu, 2003: 1). Gelişen dünya ekonomisinde söz sahibi olmanın yolu rekabetçi olmaktan geçmektedir. Yeni pazarların yaratılıp genişletilmesi, globalleşme nedeniyle rakip sayısındaki artış, iletişim ve bilişim teknolojilerindeki yenilikler vb. gelişmelere paralel olarak yönetim tarzları da değişmektedir (Büyükoçkan, 2002: 35). 20. yüzyılın sonlarında gerçekleşen küreselleşme ve değişen ekonomik düzen tüketim alışkanlıklarını değiştirmiş, ticaret ve ekonomiyi dijitalleştirmiş, esnek, dinamik ve değişken piyasalar ve yeni çevreler oluşmuş ve rekabet sınır ötesi nitelik kazanmıştır.

Bunlarla birlikte işletmelerin yönetsel ihtiyaçları değişmiş, seri karar alabilen yöneticilere, örgütsel ve stratejik esnekliklere ihtiyaç duyulur olmuştur. Teknolojik gelişmeler, örgüt içinde çoklu kariyer haritaları, bilgi yaratma, yayma ve uygulamada hız gibi faktörler de gelişime uğramıştır (Keçecioğlu, 2006:3). Kuşaklar ve farklı davranış şekilleri iş dünyasını yeniden şekillendirirken var olan yetenekleri keşfedip elde tutmak da onlarda sadakat duygusunu geliştirmek yani yeteneği yönetme sürecinin doğal olarak doğumunu sağlamıştır. 1980 sonrası iş dünyasında yaşanan değişimler ve yetenek yönetiminin ortaya çıkmasını sağlayan faktörlerle, değişen ekonomik düzen, bilişim teknolojilerinin hızlı gelişimi, demografik değişimlerle birlikte farklı çalışan kuşaklarının ortaya çıkışı ve birlikte rekabet boyut değiştirerek sermaye bulma veya pazar payı edinmeyi değil de yetenekli çalışanı elde etme olarak değişmiştir (Tümen, 2014:40).

3.1.1. Yetenek Savaşları Olgusu

Yetenek Savaşları, 1980 sonrası iş dünyasında meydana gelen değişimler ve bilgi toplumuna geçiş ile birlikte yaşanmaya başlamıştır. Genel olarak bilgi ekonomisinin ve özelde bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin işgücü piyasalarına doğrudan ve dolaylı çeşitli etkileri bulunmaktadır. Öncelikle bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin ekonomi içindeki yerinin gittikçe artması ve bu alanın başlı başına bir sektör haline gelmesiyle birlikte yeni istihdam olanakları doğmuştur. Bu teknolojilerin ekonominin genelinde daha çok kullanılmasıyla birlikte uzmanlık ve başlangıç düzeyinde bu teknolojileri kullanma becerisine sahip kişilerin istihdamına olan talep artmıştır. Nitekim, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerindeki istihdam artışı diğer birçok sektördeki istihdam artışının hayli üzerinde olmuştur. OECD ülkelerinde 1995-1999 yılları arasında yıllık %3 düzeyinde artış gösteren bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri istihdamı, istihdam büyümesine en fazla katkı yapan

sektör olmuştur. 2001 yılında 23 OECD ülkesinde onyediyi milyon kişi bilgi ve iletişim sektörlerinde istihdam edilmiştir. Bu rakam, toplam özel sektör istihdamının % 6.3'ü düzeyindedir (Demircioğlu, 2010:16).

İstihdam alanındaki nitelikli işgücü ihtiyacı her geçen gün biraz daha artmış; bunun yanında rekabette üstünlük yaratmak isteyen işletmelerin bu üstünlüğü yapılandıracak ve sürekliliğini sağlayacak kritik öneme sahip çalışanları bünyelerine katmak ve elde tutmak için verdikleri mücadele, yetenek savaşlarının temelini oluşturmuştur. Yetenek savaşları, şüphesiz işgücünün daraldığı anlamına gelmemektedir. Ancak küresel ekonomide rekabet koşullarına uyum gösterebilecek, fırsatları değerlendirebilecek yetenekli çalışanların arzındaki kıtlığı ifade etmektedir. Her geçen gün artan işsizlik oranlarına rağmen, dünya çapında ciddi bir yetenek eksikliği sorunu yaşanmaktadır (Demircioğlu, 2010:28). Manpower Inc.'in 2008 yılında 32 ülke ve yaklaşık 43.000 çalışanı kapsayan "Talent Shortage" (Yetenek Kıtlığı) araştırmasının sonuçlarına göre, global düzeyde işverenlerin doldurmakta en çok sıkıntı çektiği ilk on pozisyon sırasıyla, kalifiye beden işçileri, satış temsilcileri, teknik elemanlar (özellikle üretim/operasyon, makinistlik ve bakım), mühendisler, yönetici/uzmanlar, yönetici asistanları, sürücüler, finans uzmanları ve muhasebeciler ile IT elemanları (özellikle program yazılımcıları ve geliştirme uzmanları) olarak belirlenmiştir. Çalışma yaşamında insan kaynağının öneminin en üst seviyelere çıkması, rekabet avantajı yaratmada insanın en değerli sermaye konumuna gelmesi sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu noktada önem kazanan yetenek savaşlarına zemin hazırlayan en önemli faktörler: (Demircioğlu, 2010:13-14)

- Uluslararası rekabet / globalleşme,
- Haberleşme ve bilgi işlem teknolojisindeki gelişmeler,
- Demografik değişimler ve değişen işgücü profili olarak özetlenebilir.

Yetenek savaşları olgusu, hizmete dayalı bilgi ekonomisinin hüküm sürdüğü günümüz dünyasında en nitelikli insanları bir araya getiren şirketlerin rekabette üstünlük elde edeceğini vurgulamaktadır. En yetenekli ve şirketlere en yüksek katma değeri sağlayacak çalışanları kendilerine çekip, onları şirketlerinde tutamayan işletmeler, rekabet gücünü kaybetmektedirler . Öte yandan yetenek savaşları, çalışan azlığı anlamından kaynaklanan bir olgu değildir. Bu olgunun temelinde kurumu başarıya götürecek, küresel iş dünyasına uyum sağlayan yetenekli çalışan eksikliği yer almaktadır.

Yetenek savaşı, endüstrilerde bulunan bütün organizasyonların kazanmak için rekabet ettiği 21. inci yüzyıl gerçeği olarak görülmektedir. Yetenek savaşı gün geçtikçe çetin bir hal almaktadır. Bu aşamada kurumlar için yetenekli çalışanları rakiplerden koruyabilmeleri rekabet açısından çok önemlidir. Kurumların yeteneklerini kaybetmemeleri için şunları yapmaları gerekmektedir (Yalçın, 2013:35):

- Bireyselleştirilmiş gelişimsel planları oluşturmak ve sürdürmek,
- Açık ilerleme imkânları sağlamak,
- Yapılan işi zevkli ve heyecanlı hale getirmek
- İş sürecinin anlamlı ve ilgi çekici olduğunu garanti etmek,
- Ödüle dayalı uygulamalar yapmak.

Aşağıda yetenek savaşlarının nedenini özetleyen eski ve yeni koşullar yer almaktadır:

Tablo 1: Eski ve Yeni İş Koşulları Arasındaki Farklılıklar

Eski koşullar	Yeni Koşullar
Çalışanlar şirketlere ihtiyaç duyuyor.	Şirketler çalışanlara ihtiyaç duyarlar.
Makineler, coğrafya ve sermaye rekabet avantajıdır.	Yetenekli çalışanlar rekabet avantajıdır.
Daha yetenekli çalışanlar bazı farklılıklar yaratıyor.	Daha yetenekli çalışanlar büyük farklar yaratıyor.
Yapılacak iş sayısı az	Çalışan sayısı az
Çalışan sadakati ve iş güvencesi var.	Hareketli çalışanlar ve kısa süreli bağlılık
Çalışanlar tarafından kurum tarafından teklif edilen standart ücret paketini kabul edilir.	Çalışanlar daha fazlasını talep ediyor.

Kaynak: (Yalçın, 2013:35)

Yukarıdaki tablodan da görüldüğü gibi son yıllarda yetenek savaşını tetikleyen unsurlar, rekabette makine vb. maddi araçların önem derecesinin çok azalması ve bu bağlamda iş sürecinin merkezine yetenekli çalışanların yer alması aynı zamanda bunların, diğer unsurlar gibi taklit edilememesi yer almaktadır. Öte yandan başarı kazandıracak yetenekli çalışan kıtlığı ve çalışanın uzun süreli istihdam edilememesi de önemli bir unsur olmaktadır (Yalçın, 2013:36).

Bir yandan küresel rekabet giderek artması diğer yandan da nüfusun da hızla yaşlanması iş dünyasında “yetenek” kıtlığı yaratacağı endişesi ise gittikçe artırmaktadır. Bu yüzden kurumların, yetenekleri kendilerini çekmeleri için kurumsal markalarına ve imajlarına yatırım yapmaları gerekmektedir. Bunun yanı sıra kurumun esnek ve hareketli yapıya uygun olması, kurum içinde çalışanın kendi yeteneklerini keşfedebilecek ortamın sağlanması ve ödüllendirme politikalarının uygulanması yetenekli çalışanların da kurum tercihinde önemli rol oynadığı öngörülmektedir.

3.1.2. McKinsey Araştırması

1997 yılında Mc Kinsey & Company’ nin Amerika’da yaptığı, 77 büyük ölçekli, 2000 yılında 35 büyük ölçekli ve 19 orta ölçekli işletmede yaptığı araştırmaların sonuçları, yetenekli kişilerin işletme performansı üzerindeki kritik önemini ortaya koyuyordu. Yaklaşık 13000 yönetici üzerinde yapılan araştırma, yüksek performans gösteren işletmelerin, orta derecede performans gösteren işletmelerden yetenek yönetimi konusunda farklı olarak ne yaptıklarını ortaya koymak amacıyla tasarlanmıştı. Amaç işletmelerin nasıl güçlü bir yetenek havuzu oluşturduklarını, en yüksek 200 yönetsel pozisyon için yetenekleri nasıl cezbettiklerini, elde ettiklerini ve geliştirdiklerini, ayrıca ileride yönetsel pozisyonlara yükselebilecek genç yetenek hattını nasıl oluşturduklarını anlamak üzere bir yapı tasarlanmıştı (Çayan, 2011:33).

Tablo 3: Katılımcı Sayıları

	1997	2000
İşletme Sayısı		
Büyük Ölçekli Firmalar	77	35
Orta Ölçekli Firmalar	yok	19
Katılımcı Sayısı		
Yönetim Kurulu Üyeleri	360	400
Üst Düzey Yöneticiler	5600	4100
Orta Düzey Yöneticiler	yok	2400
İK Uzmanları	72	Yok
Toplam Katılımcı Sayısı (İK Uzmanları Hariç)	5960	6900

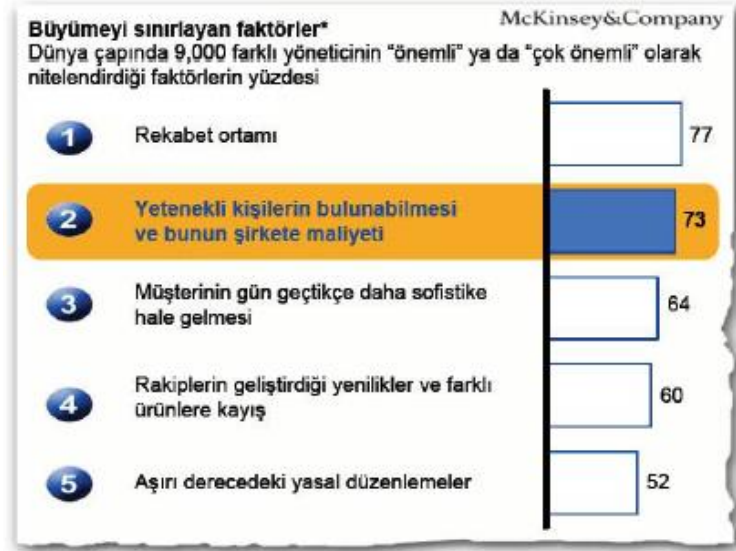
Kaynak: Ceylan, 2007:13

Anketler, işletmelerin yetenek yönetimi sistemlerinin detaylarına göre oluşturulmuş; yüksek performans gösteren firmalarla, orta düzeyde performans gösteren işletmeler arasındaki farklara dikkat çekilmiştir. Aynı zamanda işletmelerin yetenek havuzları sorgulanmış, bu havuzları nasıl yönettikleri analiz edilmiştir. 1997 ve 2000’de yapılan bu iki araştırmanın temel amacı, işletmelerin nasıl güçlü bir yetenek havuzu oluşturduklarını, en yüksek ikiye yüz yönetsel pozisyon için yetenekleri nasıl cezbettiklerini, kuruma kazandırdıklarını ve geliştirdiklerini, ayrıca ileride yönetsel pozisyonlara yükselebilecek genç yetenek hattını nasıl oluşturduklarını analiz etmektedir (Demircioğlu, 2010:31).

1997 yılındaki araştırmaya katılan 6000 uzmandan sadece %23’ü yetenekli insanları firmalarına çekebildiklerini söylemiş ve sadece %10’u sahip oldukları yüksek potansiyelli çalışanların tümüne yakınıni ellerinde tutabildiklerini ifade etmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara göre yüksek performans gösteren şirketleri, orta derecede performans gösteren şirketlerden ayıran en önemli özellik, daha iyi insan kaynakları süreçleri değil, yeteneğin önemine duyulan güçlü inançtır.

Yapılan bu araştırma sonuçları göstermiştir ki, gelecek yirmi yılın en önemli kurumsal kaynağı, “yetenek” olacaktır. Yetenekler, kültürlü, akıllı, teknik olarak donanımlı, global anlamda parlak ve operasyonel anlamda atak profesyoneller olarak özetlenirken, yeteneğe olan talebin gitgide artacağı buna karşılık arzın gitgide azalmakta olacağı belirtilmiştir.

McKinsey&Company’nin 2005 yılında yaptığı bir araştırmanın sonuçları, dünya çapındaki yöneticilerin önem verdiği konuların arasında, yetenekli kişilerin bulunabilmesi ve bunun şirkete maliyetinin ne kadar büyük bir yüzdeye sahip olduğunu göstermektedir.



Şekil 2: Yöneticilerin Önemli Gördüğü Faktörler

Kaynak: Güngör, 2013:50

Yukarıda sözü edilen araştırma sonuçları da göstermektedir ki, yetenek yönetimi açısından 1980'li yıllar dönüm noktası niteliğindedir. Yetenek savaşları ve yetenek yönetimi kavramları 1990'lı yıllardan itibaren ortaya çıkmış, konuşulmaya ve yazılmaya başlanmış olmasına rağmen, gerçek anlamda 1980 yılı sonrası iş dünyasında meydana gelen değişimler ve bilgi toplumuna geçişin bu süreci tetiklediği söylenebilir. Yetenek savaşları olgusu ile birlikte günümüz iş dünyasında özellikle çok uluslu işletmelerde yetenekli insanları elde etmek ve elde tutmak açısından işletmeler arasında keskin bir rekabet yaşandığı gözler önüne serilmektedir (Güngör, 2013:50).

3.2. Yetenek Yönetiminin Önemi

İşletmeler, çalışanlarının işletme kültürüne uygun olmasıyla birlikte, onların bu kültüre katkıda bulunmasını da isterler. Bununla beraber sahip oldukları yetenekli çalışanların, bu yeteneklerinden etkili bir şekilde yararlanmayı da beklerler. Bu durumda mevcut yetenekli çalışanların yönetilmesi ve doğru yönlendirilmesi de önem kazanır. İşletmelerin bu ihtiyacını karşılayacak olan "Yetenek Yönetimi" kavramıdır (Çayan, 2011:41).

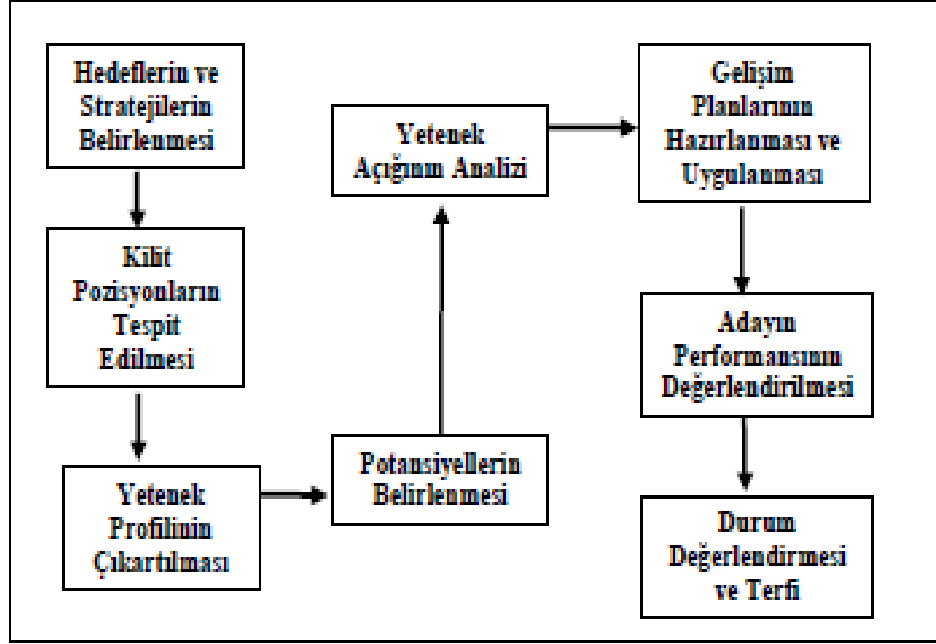
Henry Bergson'a göre, toplumsal bir baskı mekanizması şeklinde işleyen ve kişisel farklılıkları ve inisiyatifleri dikkate almadan, kişilere dayatılan kapalı ahlak anlayışı yerine, insanı insan yapan özgünlüklere vurgu yapan ve değişimlere uyumlaşma yeteneğini içinde barındıran açık ahlak anlayışının önemsendiği kurumsal yapı, çalışanlar açısından her türlü yaratıcılığa imkân sağlayan bir cazibe merkezi haline gelmektedir. Böyle bir kurumsal yapı, insan kaynağı yönetimine; eleman alımı, değerlendirilmesi ve geliştirilmesinde, küresel ölçekte geçerli olan standartlar getirerek, çalışanlar açısından ortaya çıkabilecek belirsizlikleri gidermektedir. Çalışma ortamında nelerle karşılaşacaklarının bilincinde olan ve dışlanma korkusundan sıyrılan kişiler, tüm yeteneklerini açığa çıkararak yaratıcılıklarını işyerine getirmektedir. İşletmelerde hâkim olan yönetim anlayışının ve örgütsel iklimin, kişisel yetenekleri açığa çıkaran bir dinamığa sahip olması, yaratıcı işletme olgusuna temel olması açısından hayati bir öneme sahiptir. Böylesine yaratıcı bir yönetim anlayışına sahip olduğu duyulan işletmeler de bir süre sonra yetenekli çalışanların tercih ettiği bir kurum haline dönüşecektir.

Yetenek yönetimi, insan kaynakları işlevlerinin tamamı için kabul edilmelidir. Yetenek yönetimi yalnızca insan kaynakların bölümlerinin sorumluluk alanında görülmemeli, işletme stratejisi olarak benimsenmeli,

üst yönetim desteğini alarak, kapsamlı ve entegre bir sistem olarak uygulanmalıdır. İşletmeler bu sayede gerek yönetim gerekse performans açısından en üstün başarıyı elde edebilecek seviyeye ulaşabilirler.

3.3.Yetenek Yönetimi Süreci

Yetenek yönetimi, işletmeye bütünlük içinde bakmayı gerektiren ve özenli bir biçimde uygulamayı zorunlu kılan bir çalışmadır. Söz konusu çalışmada, istenen sonuçların elde edilebilmesi için bazı adımlar gerekmektedir. Bu adımlar aşağıda sıralanmıştır (Çayan, 2011:67):



Şekil 4: Yetenek Yönetimi Süreci

Kaynak: Çayan, 2011:67

1. Adım Hedeflerin ve Stratejilerin Belirlenmesi: Hedefler, stratejileri belirlemek için gerekli olup, Yetenek Yönetimi uygulamalarının ana kaynağıdır. İşletme olarak nerede olmak istiyoruz ve bunun için izleyeceğimiz yol nedir sorularının cevaplarından yoksun olarak kurgulanan bir sistem, geride boşa harcanmış çabaların dışında hiç bir şey bırakmayacaktır. Bu sebeple Yetenek Yönetimi uygulamaları kurgulanırken öncelikle hedef ve stratejiler gözden geçirilmeli ve netleştirilmelidir.

2. Adım Kilit Pozisyonların Tespit Edilmesi: Belirlenen stratejilerin hayata geçirilebilmesi için önem taşıyan yönetsel ve teknik pozisyonlar belirlenmelidir. Bu pozisyonları belirlerken, söz konusu pozisyonda yaşanacak olan bir başarısızlığın, arzulanan hedefe ulaşmayı doğrudan etkileyecek bir niteliğe sahip olması esastır. Aksi halde, tüm pozisyonlar için yetenek yönetimine odaklanmak gerekir ki, bu çok maliyetli bir çalışma olacaktır.

3. Adım Yetenek Profiline Çıkartılması: Bu aşamada, bir üst adımda belirlenen kilit pozisyonların hakkını verebilecek, istenilen performansı gösterebilecek ideal çalışan özellikleri tanımlanır. İdeal çalışanın sahip olması istenilen özellikler; bilgi, beceri, deneyim, ilgi ve eğitim, deneyim alanı vb. olarak ayrıntılı bir şekilde belirtilmelidir. Bu ideal profil tanımı, ilgili pozisyona bir kişiyi yetiştirirken ya da atarken ulaşmayı hedeflediğimiz nokta olacaktır.

4. Adım Potansiyellerin Belirlenmesi: Kilit pozisyonlar için belirlenen ideal profile ulaşabilme ve söz konusu görevi başarıyla yerine getirebilme potansiyeline sahip adaylar bu aşamada belirlenir. Bu aşamada doğru çalışmaların yapılması yetenek yönetimi konusunun düğüm noktasını oluşturmaktadır. Potansiyellerin belirlenmesinde işletme içi ve dışı kaynaklardan yararlanılabilir. Potansiyel belirleme

sürecinde öncelikle işletmenin kendi sahip olduğu yetenekler değerlendirmeye alınmalı, içeride istenilen özellikleri taşıyan potansiyel adaylar bulunamazsa işletme dışından yeni yeteneklerin işletmeye dâhil edilmesi yoluna gidilmelidir. İşletme dışından iyi yeteneklerin işletmeye çekilebilmesi, dışarıdan işletmenin nasıl algılandığına doğrudan bağlıdır. Bu nedenle işletme bünyesinde var olan insan kaynakları uygulamalarına bu perspektiften yaklaşmakta fayda var. İşletme içi ya da dışından olsun, potansiyellerin belirlenmesindeki can alıcı soru, “Doğru Kişinin Kim Olduğunun Nasıl Belirleneceğidir”. Genelde kişileri seçerken ilk bakılan değişken, kişinin mevcut işindeki performansdır. Bu önemli olmakla birlikte, asıl üzerinde durulması gerekli husus kişinin, hazırlamak istediğimiz pozisyon için kabiliyet ve potansiyelinin ölçülmesidir. Bunun için yapılan çalışmalardan birisi değerlendirme merkezi yaklaşımıdır. Psikolojide bunu belirlemeye yönelik olarak bir takım testler geliştirilmeye çalışılmaktadır. Bakılması gereken diğer bir nitelik, potansiyel adayların karakterlerinin güvenilir olup olmadıklarıdır.

5. Adım Yetenek Açığının Analizi: Bu adımda kilit pozisyonlara aday olarak belirlenen potansiyellerin sahip olduğu özelliklerin, ideal profil ile ne kadar örtüştüğü analiz edilir ve açıklar ortaya konur. Bu analiz bize, potansiyel adayların nasıl bir gelişim sürecinden geçmeleri gerektiğini ve hangi yetkinliklere ihtiyaçları olduğunu gösterir.

6. Adım Gelişim Planlarının Hazırlanması ve Uygulanması: Bu aşamada, potansiyel olarak belirlenen çalışan için, bir üst adımdaki analizden hareketle gelişim faaliyetleri planlanır. Eğitim, koçluk, mentorluk, rotasyon vb. tüm gelişim çeşitleri adayın geleceğe hazırlık planı dâhilinde dikkate alınmalıdır. Adayın geliştirilmesi gereken her bir yönü için ihtiyaç duyduğu gelişim aktivitesi farklı olabilir, olmalıdır. Buradaki en önemli hata, gündelik iş ve uğraşların yeteneğin geliştirilmesi sürecinin önüne geçerek gelişimin ertelenmesi yani kişinin yetiştirilmesinin unutulmasıdır.

7. Adım Adayın Performansının Değerlendirilmesi: Bu adımda, gelişim planları kapsamında kişiye yapılan yatırımlar sonucunda, ideal profil ile olan açığın ne derecede kapandığı değerlendirilir. Diğer bir ifadeyle, adayın hazırlık sürecindeki performansı incelenir. Yapılan değerlendirme, adayın terfi ettirilmesi, potansiyeller havuzunda kalmaya devam etmesi veya havuzdan çıkarılmasına ilişkin karara etki etmemelidir.

8. Adım Durum Değerlendirmesi ve Terfi: Potansiyeller havuzunda bulunan adaylar, bir ihtiyaç durumunda yetiştirildikleri pozisyona atanmak üzere değerlendirmeye alınırlar. Bu değerlendirmede, adayın mevcut eksikliklerinin atanacağı pozisyondaki başarısına etki etme olasılığı, söz konusu açığın kapanmasının alacağı süre vb. faktörler göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Burada dikkat edilmesi gereken nokta, gelecekte önemli bir pozisyonu doldurmasını arzu ettiğimiz çalışanın alacağı yeni yetkilerin ve sorumluluklarda başarısızlık riskini en aza indirmek için yavaş yavaş ve kontrollü olarak bu geçişin yapılmasıdır. Terfi kararının verilmesinin ardından atanan potansiyel çalışan izlenmeli, kendisine sistematik bir biçimde geri bildirimde bulunulmalıdır.

Tüm bu adımlar dikkatlice izlendikten sonra, işletme içerisinde yetenek yönetimi uygulamaları hayata geçirilmiş olacaktır. Yetenek yönetimine girdi sağlayan en önemli süreç, seçme ve yerleştirmedir. Doğru seçme yerleştirme sistem ve araçlarıyla; yüksek potansiyelli, gelecek vadeden, yaratıcı, yenilikçi, katma değer yaratabilecek kişileri işletmeye çekebilmek, bunların arasından en yetenekli olanları seçebilmek ve onları doğru yerlerde görevlendirmek sürecin başarısı için vazgeçilmez ön koşuldur.

3.4. Yeteneklerin Elde Tutulması

Elde tutma, işverenin organizasyon hedeflerini karşılayacak çalışanlarını kaybetmemek üzere gösterdiği çabalar olarak ifade edilebilir. 100 Bir anlamda uzun vadede çalışan sadakatini sağlamayı hedefleyen stratejilerdir. Günümüzde çalışanların sadakatinin sağlanması ve elde tutulması işletmeler açısından oldukça zor olmaya başlamıştır. “Gemini Consulting” danışmanlık firmasının 13 ülkede 10000 çalışan arasında yaptığı araştırma insanların yüksek derecede iş değiştirmeye meyilli olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Araştırmada sorulan bazı sorular ve cevap yüzdeleri aşağıdaki gibidir (Ceylan, 2007:88):

- Terfi imkanı, %10'luk bir ücret artışı ya da daha esnek iş saatleri için sahip olduğunuz isten ayrılır mıydınız? %66 evet demiş.
- Sadece terfi imkanı için ayrılır mıydınız? % 44 evet demiş.

Daha iyi imkanlar, daha yüksek ücret, alternatiflerin çok olması vs.. gibi faktörler, insanların iş değiştirme eğilimini giderek arttırmakta, bu durum işletmelerin özellikle kritik yeteneklerini elde tutma konusuna daha sistematik bir biçimde eğilmelerini gerektirmektedir.

Dünyanın en iyi şirketleri yetenekli çalışanlarını elde tutabilmek için çeşitli uygulamalar gerçekleştirmektedir. Hay Group yaptığı araştırmada büyük şirketlerin ortak olarak yaptığı bu uygulamaları ;

- Tüm seviyedeki liderler çalışanlarına, en iyi performansı sergilemelerine olanak sağlayacak çalışma ortamı yaratmak konusunda geliştirilirler.
- Liderlik gelişimi şirket üst yöneticileri için en öncelikli yönetim konusudur.
- Liderlik takımlarına ve ayrı ayrı tüm liderlere beraber etkili bir şekilde çalışabilmeleri için eğitim ve koçluk sağlanır.
- Yüksek potansiyelli çalışanlara şirket içerisinde farklı departmanlarda çalışma fırsatı verilir.
- Orta kademe yöneticiler için dışarıdan liderlik gelişim programları sağlanır.
- Orta kademe yöneticilerin kendilerini geliştirebilmeleri için web tabanlı liderlik geliştirme modülleri sunulur.
- Orta kademe yöneticilere executive MBA yapma olanağı sağlanır (Hay Group Araştırması, 2006).

Tüm bu saptamalar göstermektedir ki, en yüksek performansa ve potansiyele sahip olan çalışanları önce cezbetmek ve daha sonra elde tutmak adına gerçekleştirilen sistematik yaklaşımların tamamı olarak nitelendirilebilecek Yetenek Yönetimi uygulamalarının temelinde, öncelikle şirketin kendisini iyi tanıması ve tanımlaması, daha sonra ise çalışanını iyi tanıması ve tercihlerini/ihtiyaçlarını şirket amaçları ve çıkarlarıyla paralel olarak değerlendirmesi ve bu doğrultuda karşılaması yatmaktadır (Demircioğlu, 2010:53).

Yüksek işgücü devir oranı beraberinde getirdiği çeşitli maliyetler nedeniyle istenmeyen bir durumdur. Ancak yetenek yönetimi açısından değerlendirdiğimizde özellikle gönüllü isten ayrılımların getirdiği maliyetler yetenekli çalışanları elde tutmanın gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Planlı isten çıkarmalara dayalı işgücü devri, özellikle performansı düşük, işletme politikalarına uyum göstermeyen, gayriresmi aktivitelerde yer alan çalışanların çıkarılması açısından istenen bir durum olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Planlanmamış, gönüllü isten ayrılma çoğu zaman işveren için önemli maliyetlere sebep olmaktadır. Oluşan bu maliyetleri aşağıdaki şekilde sıralamak gerekirse;

- Yetenekli insanların kaybedilme maliyeti,
- Yeni çalışanın yetiştirme ve benimsetme (uyum) maliyeti,
- Ayrılan çalışanların rakip firmalara gitmesinden dolayı bilgi transfer maliyeti,
- Ürün/hizmet ve müşteri ilişkileri bilgilerinin dışarıda bulunma maliyeti,
- İşe seçme ve yerleştirme süreç maliyetleri,
- Kurum imajına ve kalan çalışanların moral düzeyinde oluşan zararlar,
- Satış ve ekip çalışmasında yarattığı düşüş maliyetleri olarak sıralanabilir. (Ceylan, 2007:89)

Çalışan kendini güvende hissettiği, olumlu durumlara karşı sürekliliğin sağlanmasında istekliliği arttıkça bağlılık duygusunu geliştirebilir. Eğer çalışan işyerine bağlı ise tüm kapasitesi ile işine odaklanır. İş yaşamına ilişkin olumsuzluklarda ise huzursuzluk, önlem alma gibi durumlar ortaya çıkar ve yapılan işlere odaklanmayı azaltır. İş yerine bağlılık geliştirmek zorlaşır. Bu zedelenme belirsizlik duygusunu kamçılar. Motivasyon da aynı zamanda zarar görür (Yöney,2007:198-199). Günümüz en başarılı şirketleri, Google, Best Buy, Sysco gibi, ellerindeki yeteneklerden en yüksek üretkenliğin, katılımcılığın ve sadakatin nasıl alınacağını ve bu başarının sürdürülebilirlik ve tekrarlanabilirliğini çözmüş durumdadırlar. Starbucks, Limited Brands ve Best Buy gibi şirketler mağazalarında çalışanların bağlılıklarını ölçerek bunun getirisini de hesaplamaktadırlar. Örneğin Best Buy %0,1'lik bağlılığın karşılığı olarak mağazanın yıllık faaliyet geliri

üzerinden 100.000 dolardan fazla olduğu sonucunu elde etmiştir. Bağlılığın sonuçlarını analiz etmek için bilgi sistemleri ve sosyal ağlardan dijital karavanlar adı verilen devasa verilerden faydalanılmaktadır. Halkla ilişkiler şirketlerinin en başarılılarından olan Ketchum, takımlar arasında bilgi akışının nasıl aktığını görmek için Londra ofisinde kişisel ağı; aynı şekilde Hindistan’da çok çalışani olan Amerikalı profesyonel hizmetler şirketi Cognizant ise sosyal medya özellikle bloglara olan katkıları analiz etmiştir. Sonuç olarak da bu bloglara yazan çalışanların diğerlerine kıyasla şirketlerine olan bağlılıklarının çok fazla olduğunu ve ortalama %10 civarında daha iyi performans gösterdikleri görülmüştür (Tümen,2014:54). Kurumlar, stratejilerine uygun yetenekli çalışanın istihdam edilmesi için ilan vermekte, insan kaynakları danışmanından hizmet talep etmektedirler. Mülakat, seçim ve eğitim dönemi derken, adaylar şirkete dahil edilmektedir. Birkaç yıl içinde şirket kültürünü öğrenip, müşteri bilgilerine sahip olup, iş yapma biçimlerini kavramaktadırlar. Bir yatırım bakış açısıyla geliştirilen bu çalışanlar, bir gün gitmeye karar verdiğinde, sadece çalışan sayısı azalmayıp, aynı zamanda şirketin “yetenek havuzu” da boşalmaktadır. Üstelik çalışani yetiştirmek için yapılan harcamalar da başka şirkete transfer edilmiş olmaktadır. İşte şirketler, “yetenek kaçışını” önlemek için yeni stratejiler geliştirip, önlem almak yolunda bir takım elde tutma politikaları yürütmek zorundadırlar (Güngör,2013:82).

4. Sonuç

Ulusal ve uluslararası alanda yaşanan yoğun rekabet ortamında varlıklarını sürdürmeye ve başarılı sonuçlar elde etmeye çalışan işletmelerin karşılaştıkları en önemli sorunlardan biri, yetenekli çalışanlara sahip olmak ve onların uzun süreli istihdamını sağlayabilmektir. Teknolojik yeniliklerin hızlı artışı ile bilgiye ulaşmanın kolaylaştığı günümüz dünyasında bireylerin de eğitim seviyeleri yükselmiş, nitelikleri artmış ve kariyere bakış açıları değişmiştir. Kalifiye çalışanlar, geçmişte olduğu gibi kariyerlerini geliştirme uğruna sosyal hayatlarından vazgeçmek istememektedirler. Bu noktada da yetenekli çalışanları elinde tutmak isteyen işletmelerin bu beklentileri de dikkate alma zorunlulukları ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Yetenekli personelin gerçekten az bulunduğu günümüz piyasasında bu az sayıdaki personele ulaşmak, onları etkileyerek firmaya kazandırmak insan kaynakları bölümünün en önemli sorunlarından biri haline gelmiştir. Yetenekleri şirketinize çekmek için kişisel bir şirket olmak önem taşımaktadır. Kişisel şirketten kasıt, kişilere özel imkanların ve fırsatların sunulduğu, kişilere özgü motivasyon tekniklerinin geliştirildiği bir şirket olmaktır. Ama böyle bir şirket olmak yetmez bunun yanında insan kaynaklarının pazarlama planı oluşturması gerekmektedir. Yani, yetenek havuzundaki adaylara 'ideal şirket' olduğunuzu göstermeniz gerekmektedir. Eğer gerçek yetenekleri ise almak istiyorsanız özel olmalısınız ve kişilerin sizinle çalışmak gurur duymalarını sağlamalısınız. Bir başka ifadeyle yetenekler, firmanızın geçmişini bilmelidirler ve gelecekteki varlığınıza inanmalıdırlar. Şirkete, firmanın ürün ve hizmetlere duyulan güven, yetenekli insanların bulunmasında ve ise alımlarında büyük önem taşımaktadır.

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Modern Information Technologies As An Opportunity For Development And Integration Of Innovative Small And Medium Enterprises In Clusters

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Abstract: Recent trends in social and economic development clearly indicate that corporate competitiveness and growth opportunities are becoming increasingly dependent on additional opportunities offered by the information and communication technologies and concentration. Different regional conditions are fixed, at least in the short term, for example the physical and climatic conditions, location of the region, socio-demographic factors, the unemployment rate and so on. And most of the main characteristics of the separate regional environment, as the qualification of the work force, level of technological and managerial know-how, social and institutional structures are also relatively stable. Therefore, opportunities to accelerate the development should be looking at additional perspectives offered by information and communication technologies and clusters of enterprises, including SMEs, in related industries.

Key words: small and medium enterprises, cluster, information and communication technologies.

1. Introduction

Issues related to the identification and regulation of the distribution and concentration of knowledge at regional level are the most complex, controversial and insufficiently studied. In this context arises the need for implementation of a specific policy that would allow for development of optimal solutions in the planning of regional infrastructure and in such a way as to promote the development and accession of new small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to these processes. The studied problem is located at the intersection of many scientific fields, in particular theories of management, theories of complex systems, theories of regional economy, investment theories, theories of entrepreneurship and others. The analysis of changes and trends of development in the main indicators are based on research conducted in 2008 (Minchev 2008), which analyzed the conditions in the six planning regions in Bulgaria, enabling the formation of clusters. In this study identified regional micro-clusters and made comparative analysis on the regions and economic activities in order to demonstrate the positive cluster effects in the operation of SMEs when associated with the cluster. Currently the planning regions in Bulgaria have changed and have a different territorial scope. Logically the question arises how these changes affect the ability of SMEs to integrate and develop in a cluster in order to derive additional benefits from such a position.

The idea of regional concentration is old. Many economists have reached the conclusion that companies with similar or related activities are often localized in the same region. For the first time term “industrial zone” is used in defining values and norms shared by relocalized companies (Marshall 1890). The main foundations of spatial concentration are:

- Economies of specialization, as a result of the concentration of companies, are able to attract and maintain specialized suppliers.
- The association (cluster) of workers with specific skills and abilities attracts companies that in their turn attract and create specialized jobs.
- Technological innovations from outside, the accumulation of knowledge and information flow between participants depend on the possibilities of mobility of workers and on the networks built.

2. Information and Communication Technologies – Opportunity for the Development of Innovative Small and Medium Enterprises

If questions about the need for higher information and communication Technologies (ICT) in big business have been resolved to a significant degree for a long time, in the SMEs are still found cases of misunderstanding of the nature and importance of well-functioning information system for business development. Recently in the country there is a trend of moving towards business management software in an effort to find effective tools for controlling essential to the competitiveness parameters in the period of economic crisis – the cost of production, customer relationships, optimize business processes, channels for distribution and supply. As a result, regardless of redundant ICT budgets, automation of business processes of companies became one of the priority areas for the application of ICT in the business: CRM (Customer Relationship Management); ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning); BI (Business Intelligence); ECM (Enterprise Content Management); SCM (Supply Chain Management); HRM (Human Resource Management).

In times of economic crisis is definitely noticed an increased interest in software solutions, upgrading the basic functionality of ERP systems, for example CRM and systems for generating reports and analysis. And the emergence and rapid spread of "cloud services" solved the issue with the biggest hurdle in the way of using business software from SMEs – the price and quality of service. It is obvious that cloud computing is the right solution for optimizing the costs of ICT infrastructure and quickly reach advanced technologies. Global trends indicate that the use of software as a service enjoys considerable interest in several areas – maintenance of communications and collaboration, office applications, segment of CRM systems, ERP software and systems for logistics solutions (Nenkov and Ibryam 2012; Nenkov and Ibryam 2013). In recent years more and more companies devote increased attention to the development of adequate ICT infrastructure to provide them with better quality in customer service, better productivity, more efficient management of financial, material and human resources. More often companies refer to software for BI and cloud computing (SaaS – Software as a service, IaaS – Infrastructure as a service, PaaS – Platform as a service), which make them more responsive towards the clients' needs and help them better manage their supply lines (Nenkov and Momchev 2011; Nenkov and Momchev 2012).

Analysts agree that the market for cloud services will expand. According to the research company Forrester Research, for example, in 2020 the market for such services will be worth \$ 241 billion., which is \$ 200 billion higher than in 2011. Most of the disputes for large or small companies should take into account the fact that the comparative contribution to innovation to the one and the other group varies from sector to sector, depending on factors such as cost of capital, the requirements for research and development, optimum size of production and so on.

There is no agreement on these differences. There are two main conflicting hypotheses. The first, which is more widely accepted, considers the dimensional structure of regional factors, as determining (Fothergill and Gudgin 1982). The level of business formation is related directly to employment in small businesses. This suggests that large companies are weak incubator for new business owners compared to small businesses. The second key hypothesis (Gould and Keeble 1984) defines the professional structure of the local workforce as a major factor. This hypothesis implies that the increase in the share of regional workforce with managerial, professional, technical or other non-manual qualifications would increase the level of incorporation of new business in the region. This suggests that people doing no-hand work are better prepared to start a new business.

One of the most important and difficult to measure aspects of the abilities of the region to accumulate knowledge is the presence of certain cultural prerequisites like atmosphere of cooperation, silently accepted rules of conduct for companies, enabling the development of trust that is the basis for innovative interactions.

Large and small businesses develop different types of innovation, have different cluster determinants and are dependent on different policy. Large companies are more suitable for large research projects. They use more systematic knowledge and SMEs rely more on the so-called tacit knowledge. Radically new innovations, developed in the small business sector, use more tacit knowledge, which requires face to

face contact – something very typical of SMEs, while complementary innovations, developed by large companies, use mainly systematic knowledge. It is necessary for starting and managing their own processes of research and development. Tacit knowledge stands at the exit of the processes of research and development and systematization is at the entrance. As a result there is no need for large companies to be located near institutions, related to knowledge, other sources of innovation or partners, while for SMEs the geographical proximity is very important.

The main conclusion to be made is that the majority of owners of SMEs are an element and enjoy the benefits of access to the local technological expertise and accumulated knowledge. We should not underestimate the role of the movement of specialized workforce in the local labor market. This process actively supports the tacit exchange of technological know-how. In support of these processes during the last years they began to widely use various ICT or in other words – how to most effectively use the global network for their interests and goals with minimum resources and lack of trained ICT professionals. To save a lot of disappointment and the collapse of attempts to online commerce, SMEs need to turn for help to specialized companies or centers for supporting small businesses that can provide free technology, solutions and resources. This can help owners of SMEs with the creation and hosting of Web site, development of online store, order processing, marketing and management.

One of the way to improve SME management is applying of Artificial Intelligence (AI) technologies. Evaluating the success potential does firstly imply a thorough estimation of whether the providable functionality actually fits with management tasks that are practically relevant (Strohmeier and Piazza 2015). Moreover, given that management already disposes of a broader set of well-established techniques for a broader set of management tasks, the intended application of an AI technique has to be compared with already existing techniques because any AI technique needs to be more effective (improved results) and/or more efficient (less implementation effort) than the already established techniques; otherwise, an application is useless (Strohmeier and Piazza 2015).

Developing a domain-driven application constitutes a second necessary step (Strohmeier and Piazza 2015). The adaption of any AI technique to a practical management task constitutes a voluminous and challenging task sui generis that requires both deep management knowledge and deep AI knowledge. An excellent possibility to realize this is to directly embed AI functionality in domain-specific HR information systems (Strohmeier and Piazza 2013) that allows HR professionals to apply the AI technique within their familiar domain context without having sophisticated technical and/or methodical AI skills (Strohmeier and Piazza 2015).

Second component of ICT is communicative technologies to management of SME. One of the biggest problems in the use of Web in the business of medium and especially the smaller enterprises, that are dominant in Bulgaria, is the low level of ICT training of the owners and employees (Nenkov and Ibryam 2012; Nenkov and Momchev 2011; Nenkov and Momchev 2012). Realistic is the use of all Web 2.0 services in the SMEs (Varbanov 2011):

1. Presence in blogs that present the enterprise.
2. Social networks, not just Facebook and Twitter, but also regional and national networks where users exchange opinions, share their experiences on the Internet for various goods and services.
3. Twitter for connection of the company with customers and visitors in real time through the Web, special applications or mobile phones and instant distribution of information for buyers.
4. Private Wiki, which works on the basis of collective intelligence, and where buyers can share impressions, ask questions and receive answers publicly, to reinforce the trust and retain buyers.

Marketing as well as promotion and development of the brand, in the social Networks and mobile applications with constantly rising number of users, is becoming a growing global trend.

More and more Bulgarian companies take into account the growing importance of social media in business contacts and finding new customers. 38% currently set social media in their marketing mix, with 31% in the previous three years, according to a survey of Regus Group (Sharpe 2014) among 16,000 senior

business managers worldwide. Establishing contacts in person continues to be the best practice for new business, despite the decrease of 11% compared with the previous period. However, the growing importance of sites for professional communication as BranchOut, Viadeo and Xing comes out top in the survey, which is confirmed by the increasing number of users, as on LinkedIn, they reached more than 135 million.

Globally, 71% of employees in small business establishments believe that establishing contacts in person will be essential for the acquisition of customers in the next three years, compared with 61% of workers in large enterprises. "The rise of social networks of business media means that nowadays they are just as an important tool for finding new customers as the contacts in person", said Andre Sharpe, global director of product and business development in Regus (Sharpe 2014). Examples of studies of such important connections, supporting the spread of knowledge in innovation systems can be found in many countries. Feldman (Feldman 1994) clearly proves that SMEs rely heavily on knowledge and research, but from external sources, while large companies are able to direct their own research. Therefore localization to external sources of knowledge or the possibility of contact through some kind of ICT is extremely important for SMEs.

3. The Bulgarian Know-how in the Cluster Case. Situation in 2015

Bulgaria became a champion in Europe in number of clusters – policy in merging companies, scientific and professional organizations, which is generously subsidized by Brussels in order to improve business competitiveness. So lured by EU funding and the absence of rules and a vision for development of the sector cluster in the country reached a record number for Europe from 226 in 2014 and already 261 clusters in July 2015, according to the Commercial Register and BULSTAT.

For comparison, in Romania, which is twice as large and has double the companies, there are around 50 clusters, as the active ones are not more than a dozen. In neighboring Serbia, which is comparable to Bulgaria, there are around 30 clusters, as five or six pull forward. In Austria, which is also comparable by territory and population as us, clusters are around 30. In Germany there are 107 clusters, and in France – 102. Data is from the Association of Business Clusters (Association of business clusters 2015).

Most projects provide for the establishment of the cluster, development of website, company logo, marketing research, analysis of target markets, costs for salaries. To avoid artificial cluster formation on the principle to absorb some money, the European Commission wants each new cluster initiative to be supported by market predictability and analysis of regional competitive advantages, available specific knowledge and local specialization. In our country, however, there are always loopholes for the European rules. So over 80% of the clusters, approved for funding, are created immediately before the distribution of money and with a minimum number of participants – seven companies. Moreover, most do not involve scientific or non-governmental organizations or local bodies, which is not typical for cluster structures.

The problems are related to the lack of a realistic assessment of the state of clusters as an organization, content, effectiveness, to define the need for appropriate funding or support for the operational programs and especially of the "Competitiveness" program. To stop the abuse and false clusters, that have arisen, now the game rules are changing. This programming period provides for the introduction of a national accreditation system for clusters and a variety of tools to assist them. ABC proposal (Association of business clusters (2015) is to separate clusters to start-up, developing and developed, each type has a different tool for supporting in the current programming period. The financial resources should be allocated as about 20% of the funds are for start-up clusters, 30% for developing and the rest – for developed. Such is the European practice. Evaluation of clusters will be on several criteria, which will carry points for defined problems of the cluster, the objectives pursued, development of new products and programs for stepping into new markets.

1. The following conclusions are imposed:

2. The existence of clusters has a positive impact on the number of innovations. Innovation, knowledge and technology distributing are the most important factors for developing companies in the cluster.
3. SMEs most often participate in clusters, in which the vertical dimension is very well developed.
4. Clusters are particularly important for SMEs, because they encourage their activities on the development of completely new technologies and products. Clusters specifically assist SMEs.
5. SMEs prevent the negative consequences of work and operation of clusters by:
 - preventing lowering the level of competition resulting from the formation of cartels;
 - preventing the increase in the prices of houses, rents, land, wages;
 - preventing the development of groupthink, which can lead to hardening of positions and failure to adapt to new technologies and ideas.
6. The profits of the companies involved in the cluster are higher, but their costs for research and development are also high. Clusters increase the level of distribution of new technologies in the country in general and positively affect economic growth, because research activities and development are profitable not only for companies but also for society in general.

It can be concluded that participation in the cluster increases the profits of the companies, and in turn, clusters generate social benefits that increase economic growth. Markets for small independent companies, especially the new ones are often geographically confined, and this makes innovation in small companies "local phenomenon" (Thwaites 1981).

4. Present State of Cluster Development in Ukraine

The Ukrainian economy has many promising opportunities to pursue (Pawlak 2015). In Ukraine, no specific legislation was adopted for clustering. Instead, local practices in the spheres of ICT and business services (in Lviv area), lifting equipment, construction, organic farming and eco-tourism sectors, as well as a project of German technical assistance have been developed (Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung (2015). But even though it has a backlog of work to do that has been mounting up for the past 25 years; a well-educated labour force and established independent industries constitute a solid foundation for future development (Pawlak 2015).

Clust-UA is an example of Ukrainian cluster development agency, non-governmental and non-profit organization which purpose is to help Ukraine become an important part of the global economy, by creating and improving the efficiency of Ukrainian clusters (UACD 2016). Clust-UA is implementing in Ukrainian economy cluster policies and innovations that support collaboration at local, regional, national and international levels; provide interaction between the participants on the stage of initiation cluster creation and their further development. Clust-UA is the first and only organization in Ukraine whether become a member of the international association of innovation and cluster TCI Network (TCI 2016), which numbering 900 participants from 42 countries.

According to "Economy. Results and proposals of the workstream" Survey, the main sectors to consider for the creation of clusters in Ukraine include (Pawlak 2015):

1. Energy and ecology.
2. ICT, software and programming.
3. Agriculture.
4. Textile and chemicals.
5. Steel/heavy industry.

Therefore, since Ukraine has a highly skilled and educated workforce it could serve other European countries as an outsourcing hub for the ICT and innovation sectors (Pawlak 2015). The ultimate success of implementing a cluster-based economy depends on an ability to develop high quality management (Pawlak 2015).

5. Perspectives of Ukrainian Clusters Development on the Basis of DCFTA Applying

Today, Ukrainian SMEs often find their way to success through international clusters which composed of many firms based around the world working together as a single company (EU Co-operation news 2015). Ukrainian SME has significant impact to its activity from 1 January 2016 when the EU and Ukraine started applying the Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (DCFTA) which forms part of the Association Agreement signed in June 2014. Assistance from the EU will be made available to help Ukrainian SMEs seize these new opportunities, to grow, and thereby create jobs (TFR 2016).

Commissioner Malmström's remarks expressed confidence in the prospects for Ukraine (European Commission 2015): "Assistance from the EU will be made available to help Ukrainian SMEs seize these new opportunities, to grow, and thereby create jobs. Gradually, the DCFTA will contribute to a prosperous Ukraine and to stronger economic integration with the EU." The EU continues to stand by Ukraine by providing assistance and making available advice and expertise, notably to help SMEs to grow and to take advantage of the opportunities granted by the DCFTA, in particular regarding the progressive alignment with EU rules (European Commission 2015). The European Commission – jointly with the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) – has put in place the DCFTA Facility for SMEs. The Facility will complement the EU programmes in Ukraine that help small businesses to grow – such as EU SURE and the SME Flagship. The funding will (European Commission 2015):

1. Help SMEs to seize new trade opportunities with the EU and within the region which have been opened up thanks to the DCFTA.
2. Improve access to finance for SMEs, enabling them to make the necessary investments to increase their competitiveness.
3. Allow SMEs to integrate into global value chains by becoming business partners of foreign direct investors.
4. Enable SMEs to comply with new food safety, technical and quality standards, as well as with environmental protection measures, thereby benefiting Ukrainian customers and boosting exports to the EU and beyond.

6. Conclusion

The EU strategy shall support also the inter-cluster cooperation again in order to provide access to third markets, as well as the creation of hybrid clusters that are not strictly oriented in only one sector of the economy. The European strategy for growth is based on the reindustrialisation and promotion of 10 emerging industries, including industries related to environmental protection, logistics (intermodal transport), mobility technologies, packaging, Bio-pharmaceutics, marine economy, creative industries, industries of experiences, they are all inextricably linked with the development of modern ICT. Problems in Bulgarian clusters development are related to the lack of a realistic assessment of the state of clusters as an organization, content, effectiveness, to define the need for appropriate funding or support for the operational programs and especially of the "Competitiveness" program. Start of applying the Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area between EU and Ukraine made available to help Ukrainian SMEs seize these new opportunities, to grow, create jobs and participate in different forms of cooperation with EU businesses includes inter-cluster cooperation.

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The Impact of Privatization on Employment Level: Panel Study Evidence from Transition Countries

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Abstract: We examine the relationship between various indicators of privatization and employment in transition economies. We test the hypothesis that privatization reduces employment in transition economies by exploiting a panel data set including the period 1989 to 2008 and 28 transition economies. We identified a negative correlation between privatization and employment level. This finding is statistically significant and valid for five different privatization indicators. Thus, the results suggest that privatization reduces employment level in transition economies, controlling for other factors that may contribute to employment in the economy.

JEL codes: F14, L12, P2, C2;

Keywords: Employment, Privatization, Transition Economies, Panel Study

1. Introduction

Standard arguments of privatization regarding employment point out that under public ownership employment level is high due to unionization and soft budget constraints. As such, before privatization, public corporation managers supported by soft budgets were not provided with incentives to minimize costs. Besides, public unions were in total monopoly bargaining position. After privatization, aim of the new owners facing with hard budgets is to maximize profits and they will have greater incentive to minimize costs. Besides, privatization reduces workers bargaining power. Thus, effective new owners are able to raise productivity and lower costs by reducing over-staffing.

However, the effect of privatization on employment is theoretically ambiguous. Employment may either rise or fall as a result of privatization depending on the firms' level of output, market power of firms, and unions role (Monterio 2003).

New private owners facing with stronger profit-related incentives, harder budget constraints, and constant output may reduce costs by reducing employment. On the other hand if the privatized firm's output rise in response to increase in firm's market share and total quantity demanded for the industry, new private owners may hire more workers. Moreover, the skills of new management regarding marketing, innovation, and entering new markets may also contribute to hiring more workers (Brown et al. 2008).

Degree of competition in the market after privatization is also important. If market competition doesn't increase after privatization, privatization may not reduce employment level significantly (Gronblom and Willner 2008).

Employment effect of privatization also depends on the roles of unions. Depending on bargaining process, employment may increase or decline. For example, increased competition with decentralized bargaining would reduce employment level (Kinnamon 2002: 2).

Our study focuses on the impact of privatization on employment level in transition countries. The sample including only transition countries enable us to address question of whether privatization reduces employment level a much more precise way since these countries started their privatization process with high levels of state ownership, private sector was non-existent or negligible when privatization process begins, privatizations were implemented around the same time, and economic design of the transition policies were about the same.

Estrin et al. (2009) reviewed literature regarding the effects of privatization and ownership in transition countries. They detected 17 studies estimating the effect of ownership on employment or rate of change of employment. They conclude that privatization in the post-communist economies and China is not associated with a reduction in employment and private owners tend to keep employment at higher levels than SOEs. Brown et al. (2008) examine the impacts of privatization on employment and wages by using longitudinal methods and universal panel data on 30,000 initially state-owned manufacturing firms in four transition economies (Hungary, Romania, Russia and Ukraine). Their results in all four countries consistently reject job losses.

As stated by Brown et al. (2008), previous research has been hampered by small sample sizes, short time series, and difficulties in defining a comparison group of firms. These limitations not only “reduce the generality of the results” but also “constrain the use of methods to account for selection bias in the privatization process”.

In order to overcome these limitations, our study uses aggregate level of analysis. Recently, EBRD have started publishing Structural Change Indicators covering the period between 1989 and 2008 which provides us with five different privatization indicators. This data enable us to analyze the employment effects of privatization using country-level variables, more privatization indicators, much longer time series, and more comprehensive coverage of countries than were available in earlier studies. Much longer time series may allow us to find stronger and more uniform finding since privatization takes several years to have an effect as strong owners take control and markets start to function as stated by Estrin et al. (2009). The other difference of our study from earlier studies is to use of employment level in the economy since the privatization can influence employment level both in privatized firms and non-privatized firms through changes in the labor and product markets (Kinnamon 2002).

2. Empirical Framework

We investigated the impact of privatization on the employment level in transition economies by using five privatization indicators. The period under study is between 1989 and 2008 which is the period EBRD provides uniform data regarding productivity indicators with us. Our largest sample includes 28 transition economies.³⁹

By using unbalanced panel data and a sample including transition countries, we estimate the following multivariate fixed effect (FE) model:

$$\text{EMPLOYMENT}_{it} = \alpha_{0i} + X_{it}'\beta + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

And the following multivariate random effect (RE) model:

$$\text{EMPLOYMENT}_{it} = \alpha_0 + X_{it}'\beta + \varepsilon_i + u_{it} \quad (2)$$

where $X_{it}'\beta = \beta_1 \text{GROSENROL}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{GROSSCAP}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{EXPORT}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{PRIVATIZATION}_{it}$

where it subscript stands for the i-th country's observation value at time t for the particular variable. All variables are in logarithmic forms. α_{0i} represents country specific factors not considered in the regression, which may differ across countries but not within the country and is time invariant. ε_i is a

³⁹ The sample includes the following countries: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, FYR Macedonia, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Mongolia, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan. Availability of the long-term data for transition countries at the data sources restricted our sample with 28 transition countries.

stochastic term, which is constant through the time and characterizes the country specific factors not considered in the regression. u_{it} is error term of the regression.

Our dependent variable is the employment level (number of persons engaged in millions) in the economy. The data regarding employments comes from PennWorldTable Version 8.0.. Explanatory variables are as follows.

The explanatory variables used in our analysis were chosen in the light of previous studies found in the literature (Djankov and Murrell 2002, Estrin et al. 2009), data availability for panel study, and our main hypothesis.

The level of privatization (PRIVATIZATION) in above models is represented by five distinct variables defined below in Table 1.

Table 1: Privatization Indicators Used in the Study and Their Definition and Data Source

Variable	Definition	Data Source
PRIVREVENUE	Privatization revenue (cumulative, in per cent of GDP)	EBRD
PRIVEMP	Private sector share in total employment (in per cent)	EBRD
PRIVSHARE	Private sector share in GDP (in per cent)	EBRD
SMALL	Index of small-scale privatization created by EBRD on a scale of 1 to 4.33, with higher numbers indicating higher levels of achievement in the effort to privatize small-scale enterprises.	EBRD
LARGE	Index of large-scale privatization created by EBRD on a scale of 1 to 4.33, with higher numbers indicating higher levels of achievement in the effort to privatize large-scale enterprises.	EBRD

Privatization indicators are gathered from EBRD whereby all available privatization indicators with long time series are used in our study. We also introduced three more determinants of productivity into our analysis to see how robust our finding is:

GROSENROL refers to the gross tertiary enrolment rate (%) of the relevant country. The data were obtained from EdStats of World Bank. The coefficient on the GROSENROL variable is expected to be positive since investment in human capital improves employment in the economy.

GROSSCAP refers to the gross capital formation (% of GDP). The data are collected from World Development Indicators of the World Bank. GROSSCAP is expected to have a positive sign since a higher capital accumulation leads to a higher employment.

EXPORT refers to the exports of goods and services (% of GDP). The data come from World Development Indicators of the World Bank. The coefficient on EXPORT variable is expected to have a positive sign since exports leads to more employment. Exports have a positive effect on economic growth which leads to increase in the employment level.

3. Estimation Results

Estimation results are reported in Table 2 below. Table 2 has 5 models for 5 different privatization indicators. Table 2 also present Hausman test statistics for choosing between Fixed Effect and Random Effect models at the 5% significance level and proposed models by Hausman Test Statistics. Hausman test for all models estimated that estimation using random effects is more efficient than fixed models.

All coefficients of privatization indicators are statistically significant and take the expected signs. PRIVREVENUE, PRIVEMP, PRIVSHARE, SMALL, and LARGE variables have consistently negative and significant coefficients, indicating that privatization process seems to decrease employment level in the economy.

In regard to other variables in the model, the coefficients of GROSSCAP variable are positive and statistically significant in all models. Thus, gross capital formation seems to increase employment level in transition countries. The coefficients of EXPORT variable are statistically insignificant in all models. The estimated coefficient of GROSENROL variable is negative and statistically significant in model 2 while it is positive and statistically significant in model 5.

Table 2: Estimation Results Using Employment (Number of Persons Engaged in millions) as Dependent Variable

	1	2	3	4	5
Constant	5.4895	4.6662	6.0666	6.7847	5.9251
Standard Error	2.2695	0.3742	2.2861	2.2720	2.2724
P-value	0.0160	0.0000	0.0083	0.0030	0.0094
GROSSCAP	0.0280	0.0177	0.0264	0.0213	0.0261
Standard Error	0.0059	0.0050	0.0054	0.0052	0.0053
P-value	0.0000	0.0005	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000
EXPORT	-0.0009	-0.0006	0.0011	0.0006	-0.0005
Standard Error	0.0038	0.0029	0.0032	0.0032	0.0032
P-value	0.8054	0.8125	0.7203	0.9985	0.9894
GROSENROL	0.0050	-0.0074	0.0042	0.0013	0.0083
Standard Error	0.0058	0.0042	0.0050	0.0048	0.0050
P-value	0.3908	0.0798	0.4043	0.7749	0.0986
PRIVREVENUE	-0.0323				
Standard Error	0.0075				
P-value	0.0000				
PRIVEMP		-0.0066			
Standard Error		0.0020			
P-value		0.0014			
PRIVSHARE			-0.0158		
Standard Error			0.0019		
P-value			0.0000		
SMALL				-0.3351	
Standard Error				0.0397	
P-value				0.0000	
LARGE					-0.3831
Standard Error					0.0472
P-value					0.0000
Number of Observations	400	270	415	425	425
Number of Countries	28	21	28	28	28
R-squared	0.0954	0.9896	0.1727	0.1778	0.1689
Estimated Model	RE	FE	RE	RE	RE
Hausman-statistics	5.820823	20.142603	5.141713	5.130890	5.549903

Overall, our results indicate that privatization reduces employment level in transition economies over the period 1989 to 2008.⁴⁰ There is no previous study which directly comparable to our study since our study focus on the effect of privatization on the employment level in the economy while previous studies focus

⁴⁰ For further robustness tests, 1) We re-estimated our models by using lagged variables to confirm the robustness of our findings 2) We re-estimated our models by including some time dummies that control for changing macroeconomic environment during the long period of transition. 3) We make distinction between Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) transition countries, the CIS transition countries and the transition countries of the Balkans since these three regions have different trajectories to some extent. 4) We re-estimated our models by including regional dummies. Our main findings remain unchanged. To save space, these results are available upon request.

on the effect of privatization on the employment level in the privatized firms. As opposed to previous firm-level studies of Brown et al. (2008) and Estrin et al. (2009), we have found that privatization reduces employment level in transition economies (both in privatized firms and non-privatized firms in general).

4. Conclusion

In addition to other determinants of employment level in the economy, this study examines the explanatory power of privatization. By using five privatization indicators, we test whether privatization reduces employment level in transition economies over the period 1989 to 2008. The sample includes 28 transition economies. We identified a negative correlation between privatization and employment level in transition economies. This finding is statistically significant and valid for five distinct privatization indicators. Thus, the results suggest that privatization has a negative and significant effect on employment level in transition economies, controlling for other factors that may contribute to decrease in employment level in the economy.

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Türkiye’de Döviz Kur Politikaları

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Özet: Uluslararası ticaret ülkelerin birbirleriyle mal alım ve satım ile gerçekleşmektedir. Bu da yabancı para alışverişini gündeme getirmektedir. Yabancı para döviz kuru rejimi ile idare edilmektedir. Döviz kuru rejimi bir ülke parasının gerçek değerinin belirlenmesinde önemli bir role sahiptir. Bu araştırmada Türkiye’de geçmişte uygulanan kur politikaları ve bunların doğurduğu ekonomik sonuçlar ile günümüzde uygulanan kur politilasının ekonomiye ve özellikle dış ticarete yansımaları kuramsal anlamda incelenmiştir. Geçmişte uygulanan kur politikaları ile günümüzde uygulanan kur politikaları ve gelişmiş ülkelerde uygulanan döviz kur politikaları arasındaki ilişkiler karşılaştırmalı olarak analiz edilmiş ve Türkiye’de dış ticaretin artırılmasına, döviz krizlerinin yaşanmamasına yönelik çıkarımlarda ve önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Döviz Kur Sistemleri, Ödemeler Bilançosu, Döviz Kur Politikaları, Sabit Kur Sistemleri, Serbest Kur Sistemleri

The Effect of Exchange Rate Regimes in Turkey on Turkish Economy

Özet: Uluslararası ticaret ülkelerin birbirleriyle mal alım ve satım ile gerçekleşmektedir. Bu da yabancı para alışverişini gündeme getirmektedir. Yabancı para döviz kuru rejimi ile idare edilmektedir. Döviz kuru rejimi bir ülke parasının gerçek değerinin belirlenmesinde önemli bir role sahiptir. Bu araştırmada Türkiye’de geçmişte uygulanan kur politikaları ve bunların doğurduğu ekonomik sonuçlar ile günümüzde uygulanan kur politilasının ekonomiye ve özellikle dış ticarete yansımaları kuramsal anlamda incelenmiştir. Geçmişte uygulanan kur politikaları ile günümüzde uygulanan kur politikaları ve gelişmiş ülkelerde uygulanan döviz kur politikaları arasındaki ilişkiler karşılaştırmalı olarak analiz edilmiş ve Türkiye’de dış ticaretin artırılmasına, döviz krizlerinin yaşanmamasına yönelik çıkarımlarda ve önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Döviz Kur Sistemleri, Ödemeler Bilançosu, Döviz Kur Politikaları, Sabit Kur Sistemleri, Serbest Kur Sistemleri

Giriş

Döviz alım satım fiyatlarında meydana gelen değişiklikler dış ticareti doğrudan etkilerken, yatırımcıların da yatırım kararlarını oldukça önemli bir şiddetle etkilemektedir. Örneğin döviz kurlarında meydana gelen yükselmelerin artması durumunda bir çok tasarruf sahibi mevduatlarını reel piyasalarda yatırımlara yönlendirip gelir elde etmek yerine döviz alıp satarak kar elde etme yolunu tercih etmektedir. Hiç şüphesi daha az risk alarak, ve daha az emek harcayarak döviz kurlarının artmasından elde edilen karlar ülkede toplam yatırımların azalmasına dolayısıyla gayri safi milli hasılanın düşmesine neden olmaktadır. Ayrıca dış ticaret yapan işletmeler ister ithalat olsun ister ihracat olsun döviz kurlarında meydana gelen spekülatif dalgalanmalar karşısında zor durumda kalmakta çok kısa sürelerde meydana gelene kur değişimlerine bağlı olarak önemli maliyetlere katlanmak zorunda kalmaktadır. Döviz kurlarını baskı altında tutarak merkez bankalarının müdahalesiyle yatırımcıları, ihracatçıları ve ithalatçıları korumak ya da denge durumunu muhafaza etmeye çalışmak ise başta döviz piyasası olmak üzere reel piyasaları da önemli bir şekilde baskı altına alarak ekonomide istenmeyen gerilimlere ve hatta bazen krizlere neden olmaktadır. Günümüze kadar döviz piyasalarını kontrol etmeye çalışan devlet politikaları olduğu gibi tamamıyla serbest piyasa koşullarında yani arz ve talebe göre döviz kurunun oluşmasını sadece izleyip hiç müdahale etmeyen hükümet ve/veya devlet politikaları da izlenilmiştir. Ancak her iki politikanın da olumsuz ve olumlu yönleri tecrübe edilmiş belki en ideal politika olarak karma sistemlere geçiş yapılmıştır. Pek tabi ki tamamen kontrol altında tutulan döviz piyasasındaki gerilimlerin olumsuz yönünü ve serbest piyasada ki gerek spekülatif gerekse suyun akışı gibi doğasında ilerleyen ancak müdahale edilmesi gereken bazı konjonktürlere devletin müdahale etmemesi de pek olası bir durum gibi görünmüyor. Ancak son

dönemlerde bir çok gelişmiş ülke de döviz piyasaları serbest kur uygulamasına geçmiş ve fakat çok tehlikeli gidişatlar izlenerek ve zaman zaman bu gidişatları durdurmak üzere merkez bankalarının müdahaleleri söz konusu olmuştur. Yani esasında döviz kurları serbest piyasa ekonomisi koşullarında oluşacak ancak zaruri ve piyasada büyük depresyonların olduğu durumlarda ise devlet piyasaya müdahale edecektir. Bu uygulama bir çok gelişmiş ülke ekonomisinin gözdesi haline gelmiştir.

1. Konvertibl Dövizler

Döviz kur sistemleri ülkelerin piyasadaki durumlarına bağlı olarak değişiklik göstermektedir. Her ülkenin bir milli parası vardır. Uluslararası işlemlerde ise en az iki değişik para biriminden bahsedilebilir. Döviz yabancı ülkelere ödeme yapmaya yarayan menkul kıymettir. Bunun dışında konvertibl para piyasalarında çek, poliçe, emre yazılı senet, hisse senedi, tahvil, hazine bonosu da kullanılır. Parası konvertibl olmayan ülkelerin paraları ödeme aracı olarak kullanılmaz. Bu ülkelerin dünya ticaretinde ki payları çok azdır. Döviz yerine kambiyo kelimesi kullanılır. Bu terimlerle bağlantılı bir de efektif kelimesi vardır. O da nakit yabancı para demektir. Banknot, poliçe, çek ya da döviz şeklinde olabilir. Sadece banknot şeklindeki yabancı paraya efektif döviz denir. Bunun piyasadaki alım satım fiyatına da efektif kur denir. Bu kur ile döviz çek ve poliçe kurları fark olursa bu fark arbitraj şartlarından doğabilir. Dünyadaki parası en güçlü devletler ABD, İngiltere, Almanya, Japonya ve Kanada'dır. Bu ülkelerin paraları konvertibldir (dönüştürülebilir). Yani nerede olursa olsun hemen altına ve ilgili ülkenin parasına çevrilebilir. Türk lirası da 1930'a kadar bu durumdaydı. 1930 tarihinde çıkarılan 1567 sayılı kanunla Türk Lirası koruma kanunu ile döviz talebi sınırlandırıldı. 1923-1929 döneminde Türkiye 'de altın, döviz ve menkul kıymetler borsasının etkin olduğu görülmektedir. Türkiye 'de ilgili dönemde serbest döviz kuru uygulaması mevcuttur. 1567 sayılı kanunla döviz piyasası denetim altına alınmaya çalışılmıştır. Bunu için 11.06.1930 da TC Merkez Bankası kurulmuştur. Aynı şekilde 1933 de "ödünç para verme işleri kanunu" çıkmış ve bu kanunla serbest faiz uygulamasına son verilerek Türk liranın konvertibilitesine de son verilmiştir. Bu yasadan sonra Türkiye'de kur rejimi değişmiş sabit kur rejimine geçilmiştir. Kurların ıslahı uzun zaman aralıkları içerisinde defalarca yapılmıştır. Kurlardaki ani ve yüksek artışlara devalüasyon diyoruz¹.

Oysa ki parası konvertibl olan ülkeler dünyada merkez bankası gibi rol oynarlar. Döviz emisyonunda bulunarak bu işten kar ederler. Bu şekilde döviz emisyonunda bulanabilmek için o ülkenin ödemeler bilançosu açık vermemelidir. Ülkelerin merkez bankaları ortaya çıkabilecek ani krizlere karşı makul düzeyde altın ve döviz stokuna sahip olmaları gerekir. Ödemeler bilançosu bir ülkenin mal alıp sattığı tüm ülkelerin ekonomik işlemlerini kapsar. Döviz piyasası ile ödemeler bilançosu arasında yakın ilişki vardır. İthalatçıların dış ülkelerden satın aldığı mal ve hizmetin bedelini ödeyebilmek için döviz ihtiyacı vardır. İhracatçıda dışarıdan ülkeye getirdiği parayı ülke parasına çevirecektir. Ödemeler bilançosu ülkeye çok döviz girişi ile ağır ağır açığını kapatır. Eğer bu açık kapatılamazsa döviz arz ve talebi üzerinde etkiye bulunur. Böylece bu açık döviz kurunun belirlenmesinde önemli rol oynar. Eğer bilançonun pasifi aktifini geçmişse ülkenin döviz ihtiyacı artar. Döviz arzı sabit olduğu için döviz kuru yükselir. Ödemeler bilançosu açık vermeye devam ettikçe bu yükseliş sürer gider. Ödemeler bilançosu fazla veriyorsa döviz talebi sabit kalacağından döviz kurunda düşme görülür. Bu durumda ihracat yapmak yabancılar için pahalı bir hale gelir. İthalat ise ucuzlar. Gerek ithalat gerekse ihracat döviz piyasası aracılığı ile yapılır. Bu piyasa ticari bankalardan kambiyo komisyoncularından ve merkez bankasından ibarettir. Ticaret bankaları döviz dayalı işlemleri yapar, döviz çevrilmesi mümkün olan mevduatı kabul eder, döviz ile kredi verir. Kambiyo komisyoncuları ise dünyanın belli başlı merkezleri ile sürekli haberleşerek arbitraj yaparlar. Yani farklı piyasalar da ki fiyat farklarından yararlanarak değerli maden, senet, para satın alarak başka piyasalarda satarlar. Merkez bankaları ise para otoritesi konumundadır. Piyasanın talep fazlasını kendi rezervlerinden karşılarlar. Arz fazlasını ise piyasadan çekerler. Açık piyasa işlemleri dediğimiz bu uygulama ile kurlarda istikrar sağlamak gayesindedirler. Döviz sadece cari döviz kurlarından değil, vadeli olarak da alınıp satılabilir. Bu vade 1 yıla kadarda çıkabilir. Böyle bir uygulamada dövizin bugün ki fiyatı ile gelecekte ki fiyatı arasında fark olacaktır. Bu fark bir zarara neden olursa ticaret yapan kuruluşlar bu zarara katlanmak istemez. Bunun içinde hedging işlemlerine başvururlar. Riskten doğabilecek zararın azaltılması için dövizin gelecekte ki kuru üzerinden

¹ Ridvan Karluk, Uluslararası Ekonomi, Ders Notları, Eskişehir, 1980, Teksir, sh.420

alınıp satılacağı esasında anlaşılabilirler. Buna hedgig denir. Görüldüğü gibi hedgig alıcıların fiyat düşmelerine karşı aldığı önlemdir. Bu arada arbitrajcı ile döviz spekülörlerini karıştırmamak gerekir. Spekülörün amacı döviz kurlarının gelecekteki fiyatından yararlanmaktır. Bunun için de vadeli döviz alış ve satışı yapar. Spekülör spot döviz piyasasından döviz temin eder. Bir risk altına girerek döviz bekletip belli bir kar ile satar. Tahmini tutmazsa zararda eder. Arbitrajı örnekleyecek olursak; BIST' te 10€ = 21.4 TL iken Dowjones'ta 10€ = 27 TL ise arbitrajcı BIST' ten aldığı avroları Dowjones'ta satarak kar eder. Arbitrajın oluşabilmesi için iki piyasanın birbirinden habersiz olması gerekir fakat günümüzde mükemmel piyasa koşullarına yaklaşılmakta olduğundan arbitraj gün geçtikçe zorlaşmaktadır².

2. Döviz Piyasaları ve Kurları

Dövizin ulusal para cinsinden fiyatına döviz kuru denilmektedir. Kur ülkeler arasındaki fiyat seviyelerini birbirine bağlı hale getirir. Böylece ülkeler arasında fiyat ve maliyet karşılaştırmaları daha kolay yapılır. Döviz piyasalarında belirlenen ve her gün kambiyo fiyat cetvelleri ile ilan edilen döviz fiyatlarına cari kur denir. Bu kur piyasa kurudur³.

Çapraz kur, iki döviz arasındaki ve her birinin bir üçüncü döviz ile (genellikle ABD doları) olan paritesiyle tanımlanan kambiyo kurudur.

Birden fazla ulusal paraların aralarındaki kurların bir temel para üzerinden hesaplanmasıdır. Yani bir yabancı paranın başka bir yabancı para değerinden cinsinden değeri, dövizlerin başka döviz cinslerine dönüşüm oranına “çapraz kur” denir. Her ülkede kurların genellikle dolar cinsinden ifadesi, kurların hesaplanmasında kolaylık sağladığı için, genellikle dolar üzerinden hesaplanır. Türkiye’de aynı yol izlenmekte. Merkez Bankası dolar tabanlı çapraz kurlar ilan etmektedir⁴. Uluslararası ödemelerin normal bir şekilde yapılabilmesi için düz ve çapraz kurlar arasında bir fark olmaması gerekir aksi halde uluslararası ticaret yön değiştirir. Çünkü çapraz kurdan yararlanan daha da karlı çıkar⁵.

Piyasalarda dövizler serbestçe elden ele dolaşabiliyorsa dövizin fiyatını arz ve talep ilişkileri tayin eder. Ancak bu hal devletin döviz fiyatına müdahale etmediği anlamına gelmez. Nitekim İngiltere Merkez Bankasına bağlı döviz istikrar fonu ABD federal rezerv bankası karşılıklı olarak Dolar ve Sterlinin değerlerini belirlemek için piyasalara sürekli müdahale ederler. Döviz arzının artması durumunda yani bilançonun aktif tarafının pasif tarafını aşması durumunda diğer ülkeler alacaklı duruma geçer. Dışarıdan gelen yardımlar yatırım gelirleri ve transferler döviz arzını arttırır. Böylece milli para yabancı paraya dönüşür. Döviz piyasasına arz edilen yabancı paraya döviz arzı denir.

Arz miktarındaki yüzde değişikliklerin döviz kuru fiyatında ki yüzde değişikliğe oranına arz esnekliği denir. Dövizde arz esnekliği döviz fiyatındaki oynamaların döviz arzına ne ölçüde yanıt vereceğini gösterir. Örneğin; fiyattaki yüzde 10 artış, arzda yüzde 20 artışa yol açıyorsa bu durum esnek bir döviz arzını gösterir. Döviz arzına etki eden faktörler şunlardır;

- Ülkenin ihracatına olan talebin fiyat esnekliği: Talep esnekliğini en çok etkileyen dünya piyasalarındaki kartellerdir. Bunlar ticaretteki serbestliğin kendi arzularına göre olmasını isterler. Dolayısıyla talep esnekliğini azaltırlar.
- Ülkenin ihracatına rakip yabancı mal arzının fiyat esnekliği: Kaliteli ihraç malları ara ve ham mallar esnekliğinin az olmasına yol açar.
- İhraç edilen malların arzının fiyat esnekliği.
- Ülkelerin gümrük sınırlamaları esnekliğe tesir eder ve azaltır.

² KAYNAK : Vikipedi

³ Halil Seyidoğlu; Uluslararası İktisat,s.139

⁴ Kaynak: Vikipedi

⁵ Süreyya Bakkal 1980 ‘den günümüze Türkiye’de izlenen kur politikaları, Yüksek Lisans Tezi İSTANBUL-1992 s.8

Döviz talebi ise dış ülkelerden mal ve hizmet almak için ortaya çıkar. Bazen de halk enflasyondan korunmak için döviz saklamak ister. Kur değişmelerinden spekülasyon kazanç elde etmek için bu yola başvurur.

Denge döviz kuru döviz arz ve talep eğrilerinin birbirine eşit olduğu noktada belirlenir⁶. Döviz kuru döviz piyasasında üç ayrı sistem içinde oluşmaktadır. Bunlar altın ve kağıt standardı ile döviz kontrolüdür. Altın standardında sabit döviz kuru, kağıt standardında ise dalgalı döviz kurundan bahsedilir. Sabit döviz kuru sisteminde ekonominin dış dengesi, fiyat seviyesi, milli gelir ve para miktarındaki gelişmeler ekonomi otoritelerinin kontrolündedir. Oysaki dalgalı döviz kurunda milli gelir ve para miktarındaki değişimler uluslararası denge döviz kurundaki değişimlere bağlıdır⁷.

3. Kur Sistemleri ve Politikaları

Sabit kur sistemi en iyi şekilde altın para standardının geçerli olduğu dönemlerde işler. Altın standardı ilk defa 1821 yılında İngiltere’de uygulanmıştır, Almanya 1870 yılında bu sisteme katılmıştır. Bu sistemin oluşması için altın piyasası serbest olmalıdır. Ülkelerin paraları altın miktarına bağlıdır. Bu yüzden döviz kurları da sabittir. İki ülkenin paralarının altın olarak birbirine oranına “darphe oranı” denir. Altın ihrac edildiğinde döviz arzı sonsuz esnektir. Çünkü yüksek bir fiyatla altın satılarak istenildiği kadar döviz yurda sokulmaktadır. Altın ithal durumunda döviz talebi sonsuz esnektir. Çünkü düşük fiyatla altın nakil masrafları dahil istenildiği kadar ülkeye altın getirmektedir. Altın standardında altın ihrac ve ithal miktarları arasındaki bir noktada arz ve talep tarafından döviz kuru belirlenmektedir. Böylece döviz kuru dış dengeyi de sağlamış olmaktadır. İstenilirse bu noktada döviz kuru sabit tutabilir. Fakat bir ülkenin altın ihracı nereye kadar devam edecektir? Bunun bir sonu vardır. O halde uzun dönemde altın standardında denge sağlamak sorun olacaktır.

David Hume, Adam Smith, John S. Mill, Alfred Marshall gibi klasik iktisatçılar fiyat mekanizması aracılığıyla uzun dönemde bu dengenin sağlanabileceğini söylemişlerdir. Eğer bir ülkede ithalat fazla ise o ülkeden altın çıkacak demektir. Para miktarı da altına bağlı olduğundan para miktarı azalacaktır. Klasik miktar teorisine göre aynı oranda fiyatlarda düşecektir. Düşen fiyatlar ihracatı teşvik edecek ve bu da döviz miktarının artmasına neden olacaktır. Ülke içinde fiyatların düşmesi ithalatı azaltırken yerli mallara yönelik talebi arttıracaktır. Bunun neticesinde talep eğrisi sola kayacak ve böylece fiyat mekanizması döviz piyasasında dengeyi sağlayacak ve ödemeler bilançosundaki açık ve fazlalıkları da giderecektir. Sabit döviz kuru kağıt para rejimlerinde de aynı şekilde işler. Bu sistemde milli paranın alabileceği en yüksek değere üst destekleme noktası, altın standardında altın ihrac noktası, en düşük değere ise alt destekleme noktası altın ithal noktası denir. Bu iki dar sınır içinde piyasa döviz kuru arz ve talebe bağlı olarak oluşur. Bu sınırlarının dışına kurun kayması durumunda, hükümet müdahale eder. Bunun için merkez bankasına bağlı bir kambiyo denkleştirme fonu kurar. Bu fon uluslararası para piyasalarında 1930’lardan sonra ortaya çıkmıştır. Sabit kur sistemlerinde bir ülkenin ödemeler bilançosu sürekli açık veriyorsa ülkenin milli parası değer kaybediyor demektir. Bu durum o ülkenin yakın zamanda parasını devalüe edeceği kanaatini yaygınlaştırır. Milli paradan kaçış başlar. Dış ödemeler dengesinin çok fazla açık verdiği dönemlerde bu açık faiz ve gelir seviyesindeki değişimlerle kapatılmıştır.

Sabit kurun tam tersi serbest kur sistemidir. Bu sistemde ülke parasının değeri tamamen serbest bir şekilde işleyen arz ve talebe göre belirlenmiştir. Döviz piyasasındaki denge ödemeler bilançosunun düzeltme işlemleri doğrudan doğruya döviz kurundaki değişimle sağlanır⁸.

Döviz kuru yükseldiğinde ithal mallar yurt içinde pahalıdır. Döviz kuru düşerse milli para değer kazandığından ithal malları yurt içinde fiyatı düşer. İhracat ise döviz kuru düştüğünde azalır, kur yükseldiğinde artar. Böylece ekonominin dış dengesi döviz arz ve talep şartlarına göre her zaman değişikliğe uğrayabilir, altın standardında ise böyle olmaz. Çünkü döviz kurlarının belirli alt ve üst sınırları vardır ve kurlar ancak bu sınırlar içinde değişir. Eğer kurlarda sınırlı değişim yeterli olmazsa denge altın hareketleri ile sağlanır. Serbest kur sisteminde dış denge ancak kur değişimleri ile sağlandığından döviz

⁶ Charles P. Kindleberger, Çev. Necdet Serin, Uluslararası İktisat c.2, sj.10, 1970, Sevinç Matbaası.

⁷ Rıdvan Karluk, a.g.e. , s.432.

⁸ Süreyya Bakkal adı geçen eser sf.24.

arz ve talebinde küçük orandaki değişiklikler bile döviz kurlarına çok büyük oranlarda yansır. Bu durumda kurda arz ve talebe bağlı olarak büyük dalgalanmalar görülür, kurlardaki dalgalanmalara rağmen döviz piyasası hükümet denetiminin dışında kalır. Kurlarda meydana gelen aşırı dalgalanmalar dış ticaret hacmini ve yatırımları engeller. Bunun dışında spekülative sermaye hareketlerine yol açarak dış açıkların büyümesine sebep olur. Bu sistemi uygulayan az gelişmiş ülkelerde enflasyonla devalüasyon arasında neye karar verileceği hep düşünülmüştür. Serbest kur uygulaması belirsizlikleri çoğalttığı için hükümetler nasıl plan yapacaklarına karar veremezler. Bu da spekülative hareketlere neden olur. Belirsizlik daha çok artar.

4. Türkiye’de Uygulanan Döviz Politikaları ve Döviz Kurlarındaki Trajik Değişimlerin Etkileri

Sabit kurda uygulanan korumacı dış ticaret politika ile iç pazar dışı göre daha çekici olmuş, böylece üretip ihraç etmek değil ithal edip üretmek ve iç pazarda satmak daha karlı olmuştur. 06.08.1962 tarihinde bakanlar kurulunda kabul edilen 17 sayılı kararla Türk parasının konvertibilitesi tamamen kalkmıştır ⁹. Bu yüzden Türk ekonomisi ithal ikamesine dayalı sanayileşme politikaları ile artan petrol fiyatlarına uyum sağlayamadığından 1970’li yılların sonuna doğru krize girmiştir. Bu kriz 1980’li yıllara kadar sürmüş 1980 yılında başlatılan istikrar programı ile enflasyon oranının azaltılmasına ihracatta kaynak kullanımında etkinliği ve iç tasarruf oranının çoğaltılmasına önem verilmiştir.

Bu uygulamalar Türkiye’de ihracat miktarını iyice düşürmüştür. İhracatın artması için esnek kur sisteminin devreye girmesi şart olmuştur. Her şekilde ihracat desteklenmelidir, çünkü ülkenin döviz ihtiyacı vardır. 1983 yılından sonra kambiyo rejimi önemli ölçüde serbestleştirilmiştir. Döviz girişi tümüyle serbest bırakılmıştır. Bankalarda döviz tevdiat hesabı açılmasına izin verilmiş, devletin kontrolündeki birçok ekonomik faaliyet serbestleştirilmiştir.

1953 yılından itibaren ülkemizde katlı ve çoklu kur sistemleri uygulanmıştır. Bunlar gerçekçi ve esnek olmayan döviz kuru politikalarıdır. Bu kurlarda resmi döviz kuru ile nominal ve fiili döviz kurları arasında farklar vardı bu farklar konvertibiliteye geçişi önlüyordu. Türk lirası 1970’de %66 oranında devalüasyona tabi tutuldu. 1 dolar =15 TL olarak belirlendi. Fakat konvertibiliteye geçilmemesi halkın mal ve döviz stoku yapmasına neden oldu bu da beraberinde kara borsayı getirdi. KİT ürünlerine yapılan zamlarda spekülative stoklamaya neden oldu. Buda enflasyonu çok yükseltti. Nihayet 24 Ocak kararlarıyla 1981 Mayıs’ından itibaren günlük kur uygulamasına geçildi. Günlük kur uygulamasına geçilmesi ile ithalat yasaklarının kotalara, kotaların yüksek gümrük tarifelerine dönüştürülmesi, gümrük tarifelerinin de yıllara yayılarak düşürülmesi sağlanır. Tam konvertibilite için esnek kur uygulamasını IMF şart koşmaktadır. Döviz dar boğazının aşılmasıyla dış borçlar düzenli olarak ödenecektir, iç denge sağlanacaktır. Bunun için istihdamın yükseltilmesi, üretimin ve, tüketimin artırılması enflasyonun düşürülmesi gerekmektedir. 24 Ocak kararlarının hemen ardından bir devalüasyon yapıldı ve 1 dolar=47,10 TL den 1 dolar=70 TL seviyesine geldi ¹⁰. TC Merkez Bankası uluslararası piyasalar ve yurtiçi para piyasasında ki gelişmelere göre 1981’de 164 kez, 1982 de 245 kez, 1983 de 246 kez kurları değiştirmiştir ¹¹.

Sonuç olarak, ihracat ithalattan daha hızlı büyüdü ve dış ticaret açığı düşmeye başladı. Bu dönemde kurlara değişik isimler verilmiştir. Mesela; düzeltilen sabit kur sistemi, değişken sabit kurlar, oynak kurlar, hareketli kurlar gibi. IMF literatürün de bu kurlara tırıs giden kurlar denmiştir. Türkiye’nin 24 Ocak kararları ile ilgili aldığı kararların bütününde en önemli faktör hep döviz yönlü olmuştur. Bu bağlamda mal hareketlerinde serbestleşmede döviz kazanmak ülkeye döviz girdisini arttırmak için yapılmıştır ¹².

⁹ Tobin, J, (1978), “A Proposal for international monetary reform”, Vol. 4, Eastern Economic Journal, ss.153-159

¹⁰ Kazgan, 1999, sf.392.

¹¹ Arat , 2003, s.38.

¹² Kazgan, 1999 s.121.

1988 yılı Ağustos ayında mali piyasalarda yapılan bir değişiklik ile döviz kurlarının piyasa koşulları altında tespiti sistemine geçilmiştir. Bir yıl sonrada 32 sayılı kararla tam konvertibilitateye geçilmiştir. 22 Mart 1990 da IMF TL'nin dövizler ailesine katıldığını resmen kabul etmiştir.

1990 yılında Merkez Bankası ilk defa para programı açıklamıştır. Program, orta vadeli bir perspektife oturtulmuştur. Yani orta vadede enflasyonla daha iyi mücadele etmeye imkan verecek esneklikte bir bilanço yapısına kavuşulması hedeflenmiştir. Program hedefleri genelde tutturulmuş fakat TL aşırı şekilde değerlendirilmiştir.

1994 ile başlayan dönem oldukça çalkantılı dönemdir. 1991 de hazine Merkez Bankasından yeniden kaynak kullanmaya başlamış körfez krizinin de döviz kuru üzerinde yarattığı baskı nedeniyle TCMB para programını açıklayamamıştır ¹³.

Bu döneme damgasını vuran ekonominin durgunlaşması diyebileceğimiz stagflasyondur. Hükümetin faiz oranlarını aşağı çekmek için devalüasyonu hızlandırması ve uluslararası derecelendirme kuruluşlarının Türkiye'nin kredi notunu indireceği yönde açıklamaları TL,den kaçışı hızlandırmıştır. Spekülatif hareketlerdeki bu gelişme sonucu hem döviz kurları yükselmeye başladı hem de faiz oranları düşmedi. Aksine yükseldi. 1994'te mali piyasalardaki krizde ise bardağı taşıran son damla faizlerin düşürülmeye çalışılmasıydı ¹⁴.

14 Ocak 1994'te Amerikan kredi derecelendirme kuruluşu Moodys Türkiye'nin Döviz Cinsi kredi notunu cari açığının çok yükselmesi ve kamu finansmanındaki kötüleşme nedeniyle düşürdüğünü açıkladı. Bunun sonucunda sıcak paranın yurt dışına kaçmasıyla birlikte döviz kuru ve Türk lira faizi yükselmeye başladı. 26 Ocak 1994'te Türk Lirası, ABD doları karşısında %13.6 oranında devalüe edildi. İlerleyen haftalarda sermaye kaçışının sürmesiyle devalüasyon derinleşti. Devalüasyona bağlı olarak enflasyon patladı ve yüksek borç oranına sahip olan işletmeler iflas etmeye başladı ¹⁵. Bu sorunlar üzerine mali ve finans piyasalarda istikrarı sağlamak amacıyla hükümet 5 Nisan 1994'te ekonomik önlemler planını yürürlüğe koydu. 5 Nisan ekonomik önlemler uygulama planının başlıca hedefleri ; ek vergi alınarak kamu gelirlerinin artırılması, kamu giderlerinin çeşitli bütçe kısıtlamaları yoluyla düşürülmesi ve Türk Liranın dolar karşısında değer kazanmasının önlenmesiydi. Böylece enflasyonun makul seviyeye inmesi amaç edinilmişti ¹⁶.

Nisan kararlarından sonra IMF ile yapılan görüşmelerden olumlu sonuç alınmış ve borçlanma programı ile parasal hedefleri içeren bir program çerçevesinde Temmuz 1994-Eylül 1995 dönemini kapsayan bir Stand-By antlaşması imzalanmış ve antlaşma gereğince IMF 750 milyon dolar kredi vermeyi kabul etmiştir ¹⁷.

Bu kararlardan sonra hükümet döviz kurlarında meydana gelen hızlı artışı kontrol etmek ve dolar rezervlerinin azalmasını önlemek amacıyla para piyasalarında çok yüksek faiz uygulamıştır. Yüksek faiz politikası ve iç borçlanmanın artırılması sonucunda Türk Lirasından kaçış tersine dönerek dövize olan talep görece olarak azaldığı için Mayıs ortasından itibaren azalmaya başlamış, gerileme Haziran ve Temmuz aylarında da devam etmiştir ¹⁸.

Kurumsal düzenlemelere gidilmeksizin alınan bu kararlar başarısızlıkla sonuçlanmıştır. Bu sonuçlardan bazıları Türk Lirasının %40 oranında devalüe edilmesi Türkiye ekonomisinin 1994 yılında %6 küçülmesi, fiyat istikrarının sağlanamamasından dolayı enflasyonun 1995-1996 yıllarında çok yüksek düzeylerde de

¹³ Gökçe D.(1992). "1992 Orta Altı Ayı için Beklentiler ". İşletme ve Finans Dergisi. s.7.

¹⁴ Bocutoğlu, E. Makro iktisat, Keynesyen Teori ve Politikalar, Genişletilmiş ve Gözden Geçirilmiş 2. Baskı, Trabzon;Derya Kitapevi,2001.s.263

¹⁵ S.Somçağ , Türkiye'nin Ekonomik Krizi , 1. Baskı, İstanbul , İikibaltı Yayınevi, 2006, s.41.

¹⁶ E. Kumcu, M. Eğilmez, Ekonomi Politikası, Teori ve Türkiye Uygulaması , 4. Baskı , İstanbul, Om yayinevi,2004.s.380

¹⁷ K.Tugen,"5 Nisan 1994 Önlemler Uygulama Planı ve Uygulama Sonuçları Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme" Maliye Yayınları, Sayı ; 44, İstanbul , 1994, s.59.

¹⁸ A.S.Akat, " 1994 Krizi Üzerine Çeşitlemeler" , Görüş, Sayı ; 15 , İstanbul, 1994, s.32-33.

gerçekleşmesi ve "Düşük kur yüksek faiz" politikasının ısrarla sürdürülmesi olmuştur ki bu politika daha sonra Kasım 2000 ve Şubat 2001 de yeni krizlerin oluşmasında etkin bir rol oynamıştır ¹⁹.

Düşük kur yüksek faizin cazibesi kısa vadeli döviz girişini teşvik etmiş ve döviz rezervi Cumhuriyet Tarihinin en yüksek seviyesine ulaşmıştır. Döviz rezervinin bu derece yükselmesi ekonomik dengeler üzerinde olumsuz etki yapmış, enflasyon yükseliş eğilimine girmiştir. Bu sebepten dolayı merkez bankası kısa bir süre için döviz alımını durdurmuş ve bankaların yurtdışından temin ettikleri döviz kredilerinin maliyetini arttırarak döviz kredilerine %6 oranında fon getirmiştir. Bunun üzerine döviz kurlarında artış yılın son 3 ayında enflasyon oranının üstünde gerçekleşmiştir ²⁰.

1995 yılı Ekim ayı içerisinde seçim atmosferine girilmesi dövize olan talebi arttırmış ve kurların yukarı doğru hareketlenmesine neden olmuştur. Merkez Bankası yaptığı döviz satışları ile bu hareketlenmeyi dengelemeye ve gerçekçi bir kur politikası izlemeye çalışmıştır. 1995 yılı boyunca izlenen kur ve faiz politikalarının etkisi ile Eylül ayına kadar olan dönemde Türk Lirası reel olarak değer kazanmıştır ²¹.

1996 yılında uygulanan kur politikalarında ise reel döviz kurlarında ki dalgalanmalar en aza indirgenmeye çalışılmıştır. Bu uygulamasında Merkez Bankası'nın başarılı olduğu görülmektedir. Kasım- Aralık 1996 dönemi dışarıda bırakıldığında aylık kur sepetindeki artışların aylık enflasyon oranına yakın olduğu gözlenmektedir. 1996 yılı kümülatif kur sepeti artışı %77.3 olurken TEFE artışı ise %84.9 olarak gerçekleşmiştir. Reel kurlarda dalgalanma en aza çekilmeye çalışılmış, ancak reel değerlenmenin önüne geçilememiştir. Merkez Bankası'nın 1996 yılında finansal istikrarı sağlarken döviz kuru politikalarını kullanmakla bir bakıma bankaların döviz yükümlülüklerinin artmaya başladığı bir dönemde kur risklerini azaltmaları sağlamıştır. Merkez Bankası'nın 1997 yılında izlediği kur politikası, reel kur değişimlerinde istikrarı sürdürme amacına yönelik olmuştur. Bu bağlamda kur artışlarının beklenen enflasyon oranı ile paralellik göstermesine özen gösterilmiştir. İzlenen kur politikası bu dönemde cari işlemler dengesinin belirlenmesinde etkili olmuştur. Belirli bir düzeye sahip olan ve 1997' de istikrarlı bekleyişlere uygun seyreden kurlar dış ticaret sektörünün rekabet edebilme gücünü korurken, bu sektörün ileriye görebilmesi uzun vadeli ticari bağlantılar yapabilmesine imkân vermiştir²².

1997 yılı sonu itibariyle, aylık ortalama kur sepetindeki artış %77.3 olarak gerçekleşirken, TEFE' deki yıllık ortalama artış %75.9 olmuştur.1998 yılına geldiğimizde, yılbaşında açıklanan para programında Merkez Bankası döviz kuru politikasının ilk altı ayı için öngörülen %70'lerdeki enflasyon düzeyi ile tutarlılık içinde yürütüleceği belirlenmiştir. Bu, uygulamada döviz kuru sepetinin dalgalanması minimize edilerek, enflasyon doğrultusunda istikrarlı bir şekilde arttırılması anlamına gelmektedir. Kısacası 1996, 1997 ve 1998 yıllarında para ve kur politikasında büyük değişiklikler yapılmamıştır. 1998 yılında aylık ortalama kur sepetindeki artış oranı yıllık %58.2 ve TEFE (Toplam Eşya Fiyat Endeksi)' deki yıllık ortalama artış ise %54.2'dir. Ancak, Ağustos ayında Rusya'da çıkan finansal kriz sonrasında kısa vadeli sermaye çıkışları nedeniyle Merkez Bankası piyasalara döviz satışında bulunmuştur. 1998 yılının tümüne baktığımızda ise, Merkez Bankası'nın piyasalardan genelde döviz alıcısı konumunda olduğu görülmektedir. Öte yandan döviz kurlarında sağlanan istikrar Merkez Bankası'nın uluslar arası rezerv artışını da olumlu yönde etkilemektedir. 1997 yılında başlayan Güneydoğu Asya kaynaklı ekonomik krizin dünyadaki etkilerinin 1998 yılının ilk üç aylık döneminde de devam etmesine ve Şubat ayı içerisinde yoğunlaşan Irak-ABD gerginliğine rağmen Merkez Bankası döviz rezervlerini yüksek seviyede koruyabilmiştir²³.

1999 yılında ise, yüksek enflasyon, yüksek reel faizler ve ekonomik büyümedeki istikrarsızlıklar gibi problemler nedeniyle hükümet bir niyet mektubu hazırlayarak IMF'ye sunmuştur. IMF'ye sunulan Niyet Mektubu'nda yer alan önlemlerden bazıları şunlardır:

¹⁹ Kumcu, Eğilmez, M., Ekonomi Politikası, Teori ve Türkiye Uygulaması , 4. Baskı , İstanbul , Om yayınevi , 2004. s.381.

²⁰ TOBB, Ekonomik Rapor 1995, Top Yayınları, 1996, Ankara, s.87.

²¹ TCMB, Yıllık Rapor 1995, (Çevrimiçi) www.tcmb.gov.tr , 06.04.2004

²² İ. Parasız, Türkiye Ekonomisi : 1923'ten Günümüze İktisat ve İstikrar Politikaları,1. Basım,Bursa,Ezgi Kitapevi,1998,s.398.

²³ TCMB, Yıllık Raporlar 1998 . (Çevrimiçi) www.tcmb.gov.tr, 04.08.2010 , s.5-7.

- Enflasyonun 2000 yılı içerisinde TEFE' de %25 düşürülmesi.
- Para ve döviz kurundaki gelişmelere yönelik belirsizliğin ortadan kaldırılması.
- Önceden bir döviz kuru rejimi ilan edilerek, bu rejime uygulanmasının temin edilmesi.
- Dış ticarete yönelik teknik engellerin kaldırılması ve serbest kambiyo sistemi uygulanarak, cari işlemlere, ithalata v.b. sınırlama getirilmemesi.

1999 IMF Niyet Mektubu'nun döviz kurlarının tespit edilmesi konusunda getirdiği en önemli değişiklik, TL'nin döviz sepetine bağlı olarak önceden tespit edilerek, gerekli önlemlerin alınması olmuştur²⁴.

1999 yılının ilk yarısı seçim telaşı ve hükümet kurma çalışmaları ile geçmiş ve bu dönemde belirsizlik hakim olmuştur. IMF ile yapılan görüşmelerde bir Stand-By antlaşması gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu antlaşmayla alınan kararlarda uygulanacak politika, döviz kuru; nominal çapa olarak kullanılan para ve maliye politikası olarak desteklendi. Programda temel amaç enflasyonu düşürmektir. Eğer %20 TEFE hedefleniyorsa kur sepeti değeri de %20 olacaktır denildi. 2000 yılında uygulanmaya konulan 3 yıllık program çerçevesinde kur rejiminde de iki dönemli bir uygulama stratejisi geliştirilmiştir. İlk 18 aylık dönemde artış oranı önceden ilan edilmiş kur rejimi uygulanırken, programın ikinci 18 aylık döneminde bant uygulamasına geçilmesi öngörülmüştür. Bant sisteminde öngörülen bant genişliğinin aşamalı olarak artırılması öngörülmüştür. Buna göre, TCMB tarafından 1 Temmuz 2001'den 31 Aralık 2001'e kadar kademeli olarak %7,5 Haziran 2002'ye kadar %15'e ve 31 Aralık 2002'ye kadar %22,5'e yükseltileceği belirlenmiştir. Kur bandının kademeli olarak genişlemesi öngörüldükçe, kurun bant içerisindeki hareketlere TCMB 'nin müdahalesi olmayacağı belirlenmiştir. Programın ikinci yarısında uygulanacak bant sisteminin uygulanmakta olan sabit kur rejiminden bir çıkış stratejisi olduğu belirtilmiştir " Merkez Bankası olarak, kurların seyri ile ilgili ayrıntılı bir taahhütte bulunurken, bu taahhütten kademeli olarak çıkış stratejimizi de önceden kamuoyuna açıklıyoruz." ²⁵.

"Uygulanmakta olan stabilizasyon programı ilk sarsıntıyı Kasım 2000'de geçirmiştir. Kasım ayının başında başta likidite krizi olarak başlayan kriz, ilk önce faizlerin artmasına neden olmuştur. Piyasadaki TL likiditesi sıkışmasına rağmen bankalar TCMB' den dövizde talep etmişlerdir. TCMB Net iç varlıklar tavanını aşarak, piyasaya hem TL likidite sağlamış hem de döviz satarak programı devam ettirmeyi başarmıştır. IMF'den sağlanan ek rezerv kolaylığı ile B.D.D.K 'nın Demirbank'ı Tasarruf Mevduatı Sigorta fonuna alması ve alınan diğer yapısal tedbirler ile enflasyonu düşürme programının devam etmesini sağlamıştır." ²⁶.Kasım krizinden sonra kur sepeti uygulaması devam ettirebilmiş lakin reel kur değerlemesi Şubat 2001 krizine kadar sürmüştür. İlave olarak 19 Şubat 2001'de ortaya çıkan siyasi belirsizlik durumu sonucunda artış oranı önceden ilan edilen kur sepeti sisteminin devam etmeyeceği anlaşılmış ve hükümet kur rejimini değiştirerek serbest dalgalanan kur rejimine geçmiştir. Bu geçişin dövize hücum sonrasında olması nedeniyle bankalar kısa vadeli döviz hükümlüklerini yerine getirmekle güçlük çekmişlerdir. Ticari bankalar yüksek fiyatlardan döviz talep etmişlerdir. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Merkez Bankası döviz depo imkanı ile bankaların bu ihtiyaçlarını Türk Lirası karşılığı döviz talep etmeden karşılamıştır. Bunun yanında swap işlemlerinin artmasını sağlayacak önlemler almıştır. " Swap: iki tarafın belirli bir zaman dilimi içinde bir varlık ya da yükümlülüğe bağlı olan farklı faiz ödemelerini veya döviz cinsini karşılıklı olarak değiştirdikleri bir takas sözleşmesidir diye tanımlanabilmektedir ²⁷.

17 Mayıs 2001'den itibaren ise daha önceden döviz satış miktarının belirlendiği satış şekline son verilmiş, gerekli görüldüğünde döviz satış ihaleleri gerçekleştirmeye karar verilmiştir. Yeniden yapılan düzenleme ile bu ilaheler kurlardaki aşırı oynaklığı gidermek amacı gütmeyip IMF' den sağlanan kredilerinin hazine müsteşarlığından yurtiçi ödemeler için kullanılması sonucu ortaya çıkan likidite fazlalığının sterilize

²⁴ S.Oksay, Döviz Kuru ve Ödemeler Bilançosu Politikaları : Türkiye (1923-2000) , 1.Baskı, Beta Yayınevi 2001, İstanbul , s.154,155

²⁵ (TCMB yayınları, Erçel, 1999)

²⁶ (Arat, 2003,s:48).

²⁷ Kaynak: Vikipedi

edilmesi sonucunda yapılmıştır. Türk Lirasının fazla sterilize edilmesi piyasadaki döviz arzını da arttırmıştır. Bu durum ise döviz kurları üzerindeki baskının azalmasına yol açmıştır. Serbest dalgalanan kur rejimine geçildiği ilk gününde Türk Lirası dolar karşısında %28.5 değer kaybetmiştir. Bu Eylül 2001'e kadar devam etmiştir. Döviz kurlarının piyasada oluşan denge değerine ulaşana kadar bütün dünya ülkelerinde olduğu gibi Türkiye'de de aşırı değer kaybettiği anlaşılmaktadır. Bu dönem Şubat 2001 den Haziran 2002'e kadar devam etmiştir. Türkiye uzun yıllar sabit kur rejimi uyguladığı için kurların nominal olarak değer kazandığı dönemler çok kısa olmuştur. Döviz kurlarının değer kazanıp değer kaybetmesi serbest dalgalanan kur rejiminin bir özelliği olduğundan söz konusu süreç ekonomik birimlerin (Hane Halkı, İhracatçılar, İthalatçılar) Serbest dalgalanan kur rejimi altında nasıl davranmaları gerektiği hususunda onları eğitmiştir. Daha önce kullandığımız nominal çapa kavramını açıklayalım. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Merkez Bankasının fiyat istikrarını örtülü bir para politikasıyla sağlamaya çalışmaları bir takım sorunlar doğurduğundan halka açık bir nominal çapanın gerekliliğini doğurmuştur. Uygulanan para politikasının istenilen hedefleri tutturması büyük ölçüde halkın beklentilerini de tahmin etmeye bağlı olduğu için en doğru yol insanlara uygulanacak politikanın amaçlarını önceden açıklamaktır. Nominal çapa olarak kullanılan üç değişken vardır. Enflasyon, Para arzı, Döviz kurudur.

Enflasyon: Nominal çapa olarak enflasyonun seçilmesi enflasyon beklentilerinin doğrudan şekillendirmesine yöneliktir. Uzun vadede çapa olarak zaman zaman nominal gayri safi yurt içi hasılanın (GSYİH) da adı geçer fakat para politikasının GSYİH üzerindeki etkisinin ortaya çıkması aylar alacağından ve GSYİH üzerinde etkili olan pek çok etken var olduğundan, bu ideal bir seçim değildir²⁸.

Nominal çapa yüksek enflasyon beklentisi olan ülkelerde bu beklentiyi kırma yolunda önemli bir araçtır. Ancak bazı dezavantajları da bulunmaktadır. Enflasyon ve döviz kurundaki hareketler. Türkiye geliştirmekte olan ülkelerde benzer şekilde gerçekleşmiştir. Bu genel olarak ithal bağımlılığından kaynaklanmaktadır. Devalüasyon ülke içindeki fiyatları yukarı çekmekte ve bu fiyat atışı esnek kur rejimlerinde değer düşmesi ile sonuçlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, nominal çapaya ihtiyacı olan bir ülke, döviz kurunu kullanmalıdır. Fakat bu genellikle ülke parasının değerlenmesine neden olacaktır. Nominal çapa olarak döviz kurunun kullanılması, tasarruf eğilim yüksek ve ithalat eğilimi düşük ülkeler için yararlı olabilecektir²⁹.

Para Arzı: Para arzındaki büyüme fiyat artışlarını tetiklediği için nominal çapa olarak para arzı da seçilebilir ancak bu ilişki her zaman çok net olmadığından bu görüş çok makbul değildir. Döviz Kuru: Kur çapası rejiminde nominal döviz kuru hedeflenerek söz konusu dövizdeki fiyat istikrarının ulusal para yada yansıması hedeflenir. Bu çapanın başarılı olması iki ülke arasındaki enflasyon farkının düşük olmasına merkez bankasında yeterli miktarda döviz rezervi bulunmasına Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Merkez Bankasının kredibilitesi korumasına ve ülkenin rekabetçi gücünü koruyabilmesine bağlıdır. Döviz kuru çapası Türkiye için 1999'da başlayan ve 2001 krizi ile tarihe karışan istikrar programının en önemli yanıydı. O dönemde enflasyonun yeterince hızlı düşürülebilmesi Türk Lirasının aşırı değerlenmesine neden olmuştur. Bunun sonucu olarak ihracatçının rekabet gücü düşmüş, ithalat anormal derecede artmış, cari işlemler açığı çoğalmıştı. Bununla beraber mevcut olan yapısal sorunlara siyasi sorunlarda eklenince programın kredibilitesi zayıflamıştır. Neticede kur çapasını sürdürmenin spekülasyon atakları döviz rezervlerinin erimesine değmeyeceği anlaşıncaya bu rejimden vazgeçilmiştir³⁰.

Kasım 2000 Yılındaki Kriz nedeniyle hem devlet iç borçlanma senetlerinin hem de para piyasası faizlerinin artmış olduğunu görüyoruz. Piyasada Türk likiditesi azalmasına rağmen bankalar merkez bankasından döviz talep etmeye başlamışlar, merkez bankası da bu talepler doğrultusunda elindekini Net İç Varlıklar

²⁸ Ekşi iktisat, (2007), "Nominal Çapa" ile ilgili açıklamalar Şubat 2011'de

<http://not-so-dismal-science.blogspot.com/2007/03nominal-apa.html> adresinden indirildi.

²⁹ Yetiş E, (2008). "Reel Döviz Kuru Rejimleri ve Türkiye'nin Dış Ticareti" ile ilgili açıklamalar Ocak 2011'de <http://www.yenimakale.com/doviz-kuru-rejimleri-ve-turkiyenin-dis-ticareti.html#ixzz1AAQSHbHc> adresinden indirilmiştir.

³⁰ Yetiş E, (2008). "Reel Döviz Kuru Rejimleri ve Türkiye'nin Dış Ticareti" ile ilgili açıklamalar Ocak 2011'de <http://www.yenimakale.com/doviz-kuru-rejimleri-ve-turkiyenin-dis-ticareti.html#ixzz1AAQSHbHc> adresinden indirilmiştir.

Tavanını aşmasına rağmen hem piyasanın Türk Likiditesi ihtiyacını karşılamış hem de döviz satarak uygulanan programın devam ettirilmesini sağlamıştır. Bu krizden sonra merkez bankasının sisteme likidite sağlaması ile para piyasası faizlerinde düşüş görülürken aynı oranda bir düşüşü Devlet İç Borçlanma senetlerinin faizlerinde görmek mümkün değildir. Bu durumda Kasım krizinden sonra güvenin tam olarak sağlanamadığına işaret eder ³¹.

Türkiye Aralık 2000 ve Ocak 2001 başlarında krizden çıkmaya başlamış Ocak 2001'de merkez bankası döviz rezervleri tekrar Yirmi Beş Milyar Doların üzerine çıkmıştır. 19 Şubat 2001'de Başbakan ile Cumhurbaşkanı arasındaki tartışmanın spekülasyonlara neden olmasıyla yeniden dövize hücum başlamış Merkez Bankası krizi izleyen iki gün boyunca rezervleri eritmek pahasına piyasaya müdahale etmiş ancak 22 Şubat 2001 tarihinde döviz kuru çapasını yürürlükten kaldırıp dalgalı kura geçildiğini ilan etmek zorunda kalmıştır ³².

Merkez Bankası 2002 ve 2003 yılında da dalgalı kur rejimi uygulamasına devam etmiştir. Döviz kuru seviyesi piyasalarda arz ve talebe bağlı olarak belirlenmiştir. Merkez bankası sadece aşırı dalgalanmalarda müdahale edeceğini belirtmiştir. Ancak Merkez Bankası kurlarda her iki yönde aşırı oynaklık gördüğünde döviz piyasalarına doğrudan müdahalelerde bulunabileceğini duyurmuştu. Bu bağlamda Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Merkez Bankası 2005 yılı içinde döviz piyasasına altı defa doğrudan alım yönünde müdahalede bulunmuştur. 2002 yılından beri gerçekleştirilen doğrudan alım satım müdahalelerine ilişkin veriler 21 Ekim 2005 tarihinden itibaren Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Merkez Bankası internet sitesinde yayınlanmaya başlamıştır ³³.

Merkez bankası 2006 yılında da dalgalı döviz kurulu rejimine devam etmiştir. Yıl içinde kurlarda görülen aşırı oynaklık sebebiyle bir defa döviz alım, üç defa ise döviz satım yönünde olmak üzere döviz piyasasına doğrudan müdahalede bulunmuştur. 2006 yılında ilaheler ve müdahaleler yoluyla alımı yapılan toplam döviz tutarı 9,7 milyar dolar ABD doları , satım tutarı ise 3,1 milyar dolar olmuştur ³⁴.

Merkez Bankası 2007 ve 2008 yılında da dalgalı döviz kuru uygulamasının yanı sıra enflasyon hedeflemesine devam edilmiştir. Bu yıllarda piyasaların ihtiyacına göre döviz alım ve satım ihaleleri devam etmiştir. Merkez Bankası 2009 yılına ilişkin açıkladığı para ve kur politikasında güçlü döviz rezerv pozisyonunu sahip olmanın genel stratejisi olduğunu uluslararası piyasalardaki gelişmelere bağlı olarak likidite koşullarının iyileşmesi durumunda döviz alım ihalelerini önceden duyurarak yeniden başlayabileceğini belirtilmiştir. Bu çerçevede Ağustos 2009 başında küresel ekonomiye ilişkin olumlu beklentilere etkisiyle 2008 Ekim ayından itibaren ara verilen alım ihaleleri 4 Ağustos 2009 tarihinden itibaren tekrar başlamıştır. 2009 yılı içinde döviz alım ihaleleri yoluyla yapılan toplam döviz tutarı 3.5 milyar ABD doları olmuş, sıfır onda dokuz ABD doları satılmıştır. Döviz piyasasına 2008 olduğu gibi doğrudan müdahale edilmemiştir.

Merkez Bankası 2010 yılında da enflasyon hedeflenmesi rejimi ile birlikte dalgalı döviz kuru rejimi uygulamasına devam etmiştir. 2002 yılından beri ilan edilmekte olan yıllık para ve kur politikaları duyurularında belirtildiği üzere, dalgalı döviz kuru rejiminde döviz kurları bir politika aracı ya da hedef değildir ve piyasadaki arz ve talep koşulları tarafından belirlenmektedir. Döviz arz ve talebini belirleyen diğer unsurlar ise uygulanan para ve maliye politikaları ,uluslar arası gelişmeler, ekonomik temeller ve beklentilerdir. Dalgalı döviz kuru uygulanmasında korunması gereken bir kur seviyesi olmamasına rağmen, güçlü döviz rezerv pozisyonuna sahip olmak ülkemiz gibi gelişmekte olan ekonomilerde karşılayabilecek iç ve dış şokların olumsuz etkilerinin giderilmesine ve ülkeye duyulan güvenin artmasına büyük katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu nedenle 2002-2010 dönemi arasında döviz arzının döviz talebine kıyasla arttığı zamanlarda Merkez Bankası, rezerv biriktirme amaçlı döviz alım ihaleleri gerçekleştirmiştir ³⁵.

³¹ TCMB, Yıllık Rapor 2000, (Çevrimiçi), www.tcmb.gov.tr, 06.09.2010

³² E. Uygur, " Krizden Krize Türkiye: 2000 Kasım ve 2001 Şubat Krizleri" Türkiye Ekonomi Kurumu, Tartışma Metni, 2001/,s.22-23.

³³ TCMB, Para Politikası Raporu (Çevrimiçi), www.tcmb.gov.tr, 08.09.2010

³⁴ TCMB Yıllık Rapor-2006, (Çevrimiçi), www.tcmb.gov.tr , 08.09.2010

³⁵ TCMB, Yıllık Rapor 2010, (Çevrimiçi), www.tcmb.gov.tr , s.14 , 10.09.2010

Merkez Bankası'nın temel amacı finans istikrarını korumaktır. Ayrıca bankamız finansal istikrar için tedbirleri almakla görevlidir. Alınan önlemlerle mevduat yabancı sermaye girişi vadesini uzatmayı hedefliyoruz. 2011'de vadelerin uzatılmasını sağlamak için yeni çalışmalar gerçekleştireceğiz. Cari açığın azaltılması adına kamu açığının azaltılması önemlidir. 2011 yılında da dalgalı döviz kuru uygulamasına devam edeceğiz.

2011 yılı dünya ekonomisi için beklenmeyen gelişmelerle dolu bir yıl oldu. 2012 yılının da dünya ekonomisi için alışılmadık derecede yüksek düzeyde belirsizlikleri içinde barındıran bir yıl olmaya aday görülüyor. 2011 yılı para politikası açısından hem esnekliğin hem de belirsizliğin bilinçli olarak artırıldığı bir yıl oldu. 2012 yılı ise para politikası esnekliğinin devam ettiği ancak aynı zamanda para politikasının öngörülebilirliğinin hızla arttığı bir yıl olacak. 2012 yılında para politikası esnekliği devam edecek ve öngörülebilirliğin artacağını belirtti. 2012'ye girerken küresel ekonomide belirsizlikler artmış durumda. Enflasyon hedeflemesi rejimini geliştirerek yeni para politikası oluşturduk. 2012 yılı dünya için alışılmadık derecede belirsizlik barındırıyor. Gelecek yıl, para politikası esnekliğinin devam ettiği, öngörülebilirliğinin de arttığı bir yıl olacak. 2012'de fiyat istikrarı, temel hedefimiz olacak. Bağlı anlamda para politikası hem esnek hem de öngörülebilir olabilir. Bu nedenle iletişim politikası para politikasının kendisi kadar önemli olacak. 2012'de iletişim politikamızın etkinliğini artıracak bazı yenilikler getireceğiz. Kredilerde 2011 yılının ortasından itibaren belirgin bir yavaşlamaya şahit olduk. Ekonomimizin 2011 yılı ortalarından itibaren dengelenme sürecine girdiğini görüyoruz. Önümüzdeki dönemde kredilerdeki artışın makul oranlarda seyredeceğini, iç talebin ılımlı seyredeceğini öngörüyoruz. Sıkılaştırmanın enflasyon üzerindeki etkilerini yılın ilk aylarından itibaren görmeye başlayacağız. 2012 yılında enflasyonun yüzde 5 hedefine doğru yaklaşacağını tahmin ediyoruz. Önümüzdeki dönemde fiyat istikrarına odaklanırken, finansal istikrara da dikkat etmeye devam edeceğiz. Para politikasındaki esnek yapıyı korumamız gerekiyor. Küresel görünümdeki belirsizlik ve sermaye akımlarındaki oynaklık devam ettiği sürece faiz koridorunu aktif olarak kullanmaya devam edeceğiz. Bir haftalık repo ihaleleri, zorunlu karşılıklar ve diğer likidite araçları da dengeleme amacıyla kullanılmaya devam edecek. 2012-2013 yılları için olduğu gibi 2014 enflasyon hedefi de yüzde 5 olarak belirlendi. İlk kez enflasyon hedefi 3 yıl sabit olacak. 2011 yılı enflasyonunun hedefin üzerinde gerçekleşecek olması nedeniyle ocak sonunda Hükümet'e açık mektup göndereceğiz.

5. Sonuç ve Öneriler

Döviz kuru mal ve/veya hizmet piyasalarındaki benzer şekilde döviz arz edenler (temelde ihracatçılar) ile döviz talep edenler (temelde ithalatçılar) arasındaki talep ve arzaya bağlı olarak oluşan ülkenin ulusal para birimiyle dövizin değerinin tespit edilmesi yani döviz arz ile talebin kesiştiği noktada dövizin fiyatının (değerinin) belirlenmesiyle ifade edilecek bir kavramdır. Ülkelere döviz girişini sağlayan bir çok birim varken bunların içinde hiç şüphesiz en önemli birim ihracatçılardır. Keza ülkeden önemli ölçüde döviz çıkışını gerçekleştiren birimler ise ithalatçılardır. Bu durumda bir ülkenin döviz piyasasında döviz talep eden birim ithalatçılar ve döviz arz eden kesim ise ihracatçılardır. Yani ithalatçılar döviz satın alma, ihracatçılar ise yurt dışından getirmiş oldukları döviz satma eğilimindedirler. Bu iki birim döviz kurunun (döviz değerinin) belirlenmesinde en etkin aktörlerdir. Bu durumda döviz kurunun değerinin belirlenmesinde talep ve arz kanunları işlemekte ve dövizin fiyatı talep ve arz eğrilerinin kesiştiği noktada (mal veya hizmet piyasasındaki gibi) oluşmaktadır. Hal böyleyken ithalatın ihracattan fazla olduğu Türkiye gibi ülkelerde döviz arzı elbette ki döviz talebini karşılayamayacaktır. Bu durumda ithalatta kullanılmak üzere talep edilen genellikle konvertibl olan döviz kurları ulusal para birimi karşısında talep fazlasına bağlı olarak değerlendirilmelidir. Ülkemizde sürekli ithalatı ihracatından çok fazla olan dış ticarete sürekli cari açık vererek ekonomisini idame ettirmeye çalışan bir ekonomi olarak ulusal parası konvertibl dövizler karşısında değer kaybeden bir durumdadır. Peki bu durumda ülkeler ödemeler bilançosunda (özet tablosunda) oluşan bu cari açığı karşılamak için ne tür önlemler almaktadır/almalıdır? Sorunun cevabı Türkiye'nin döviz kuru politikaları incelendiğinde rahatlıkla bulunabilir. Burada söz konusu çarelerden birkaçını sıralayacak olursak: Ulusal paradan fazla miktarda basarak enflasyonist bir ekonomiye doğru dönmek, dış borçlanmaya giderek fazladan döviz faizi ödemelerinde bulunmak, kamu kurumlarını ve arazilerini özelleştirme suretiyle satmak, yabancı yatırımcıların ülkemizde yatırım yapmalarını teşvik edici düzenlemeler yapmak ya da Merkez bankasının döviz piyasasında kimi zaman arz eden kimi zamanda talep eden birim olarak müdahalesi şeklinde sıralanabilir. Bu önlemlerden bazıları makroekonomik anlamda

Türkiye ekonomisine zarar verirken girişimcilerin ve yatırımcıların kararlarını da genellikle olumsuz yönde etkilemiştir. Döviz piyasasına bu tür suni müdahaleler aslında piyasadaki tarafların gerginliğini artırıp kimi zaman paniklemelerine bu yüzden de makro düzeyde krizlerin yaşanmasına neden olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca döviz kurlarındaki bu ani yükseliş ve düşüşler dövizden gelir elde etmek isteyen yatırımcıların piyasa içinde yer almasına bazen spekülatif değerlendirmeleri de dikkate alarak hatalı ve bilgisiz bir şekilde döviz arz ve talebinde bulunup döviz piyasasının ve buna bağlı olarak diğer bazı makroekonomik faaliyetlerin krizlere doğru sürüklenmesine neden olmuştur.

Türkiye’de Hükümetler uzun yıllar boyunca sabit döviz kuru politikasını benimseyip uygulayarak döviz kurlarının suni bir şekilde yükselmesini ve düşmesini engellemeye çalışmış ancak bu suni müdahaleler piyasada indüklenmeye sebep olmuş bu indüklenmelerin sonucunda ise büyük patlamalara sebep olan krizleri yaşamıştır. Bu krizlerden en önemlisi hiç şüphesiz devalüasyonlardır. Piyasadaki baskının, bastırmanın döviz kurunu sabit tutmada imkansızlaştığını gören bir çok hükümet devalüasyon kararı ile bu indüklenmenin aslından patlamaya dönüşmesini bizzat uygulayarak olumsuz sonuçların çaresizce izlenmesine sebep olmuşlardır. Öyle ki devalüasyon beklentileri bir çok tasarruf sahibi girişimcinin müteşebbislik ruhunu öldürmüş ve tasarruflarını dövizde tutarak kar etme hiç değilse zarar etmeme kaygısı içinde kararlar vermelerine neden olmuştur. Sürekli olarak suni müdahalelerin piyasaları manipüle ettiğini sonundaysa suyun yatağında akıp gitmesi gibi piyasaların da akılcı ve mantıksal hareket eden aktörlerin davranışlarına daha fazla dayanmadığını yaşanan olumlu/olumsuz tecrübeler sabitçe göstermiştir. Tüm bu sebeplerle Türkiye 24 Ocak kararlarıyla beraber sabit döviz kuru politikasından en azından kısmen vazgeçip tam serbest piyasa olmasa da kısmi serbest piyasa kıvamında bir döviz piyasası oluşturmaya çalışmış ve halen günümüzde bu politikasını sürdürmektedir. Merkez bankası elinde bulundurduğu döviz rezervlerini piyasaya arz ederek yahut da elinde bulundurduğu Türk Lirasını kullanıp piyasadaki döviz talep ederek döviz kuruna suni müdahalelerde bulunmaktadır. Elbette ki ekonomiyi yönetenler döviz piyasasını kontrol altında tutarak onda oluşabilecek krizleri engelleyip diğer piyasalara sıçrayabilecek döviz piyasası krizlerinin önüne geçmeye çalışmaktadır. Aslında sorunun en önemli ve temel kaynağı ithalat yapmak için döviz arzındaki artış görülmektedir. Hiç şüphesiz Türkiye’de diğer ülkeler gibi gümrük mevzuatıyla ve mensup olduğu Avrupa Birliği Gümrük birliğinin kanunları ve düzenlemeleriyle ithalatı azaltıp ,döviz talebini azaltıp, dolayısıyla da ulusal parasının kovertibl dövizler karşısında değerinin düşmesini engellemeye çalışmaktadır. İthalat vergileri, kotalar vb uygulamalar toplum üzerinde bir baskı oluşturmakta ya da bazen ithal ürünlerdeki kalite farkına bağlı olarak toplumların bu düzenlemelere tepki göstermesine neden olmaktadır. Yani ithalat bir türlü durdurulamamaktadır. Hep homo economicus gibi gösterilmeye çalışılan insanların milli ve manevi şuurlarını uyandırıcı sloganlarla, söylemlerle, reklamlarla ithalatı azaltmak insanların sadece akılcı bir makine değil aynı zamanda ruhsal ve manevi bir varlık olduğunu hatırlatmak çok daha etkin ve kalıcı çözümler olabilecektir. İthalatı bu şekilde kontrol altına alarak döviz piyasasında meydana gelebilecek krizlerin de önlenebileceğini söyleyebiliriz.

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The Modern Universities as a Regional Development Factor

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Abstract: The article deals with the contribution of the higher education institutions to the development of the regions. In the present, the role of universities has evolved from their traditional field - education and research - to more active participation in regional development processes. The new context of global financial crisis and climate changes needs global approach. Higher education institutions need to engage in external collaboration to promote social impact of innovations, transfer of knowledge and increase the quality of education. Universities are also becoming important actors in regional innovation system. Nowadays the regional authorities, the business and the people expect the universities' participation in economic and regional development.

Keywords: Higher education, regional development, university, globalization

1. Introduction

The universities are active on a global scale, contributing to innovation and sustainable economic development. According to the theory there are three knowledge bridges:

- Education and lifelong learning - it supports learning opportunities from childhood to old age in every single life situation and was designed to enable people, at any stage of their life, to take part in stimulating learning experiences, as well as developing education and training across Europe¹;
- Business and lifelong learning - entrepreneurship activities concern both the role of commercializing findings and also the role of educating students in entrepreneurship. It includes also interactions between some universities and their surrounding business life environments;
- Research and development – collaboration relates to the role of having collaboration projects concerning research between higher education institutions and private companies but also other public actors.

The two major tasks of universities are to provide education and research. A third task has been added, which in general terms focuses on the cooperation with the society. In an OECD report (2007)² the tasks have been termed knowledge transfer (through education and human resources development), knowledge creation (through research and technology transfer) and cultural and community development. As Arbo (2003) stated, higher education institutions have always had an impact on their "region": as well as producing trained and educated manpower, university research and innovations are often seen as engines of growth and regional development³.

2. Material and Methods

A Theoretical Type of Research was used in the research process studying some of the published works (researching through published academic journals and Internet sources). Qualitative Research Method with exploratory aim was used involving individual interviews with university teachers and administrators (to collect different opinions and motivations), analyzing different surveys and observations (to uncover trends in thought and opinions) concerning higher education. The data collection methods use

¹ http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/llp/index_en.php; http://ec.europa.eu/education/tools/llp_en.htm

² Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged, OECD, 2007

³ Arbo, P., What the literature tell us, Karlstad University, Sweden, 2005

unstructured techniques. In the research process the methods of analysis and synthesis, and system analysis methods have been used as well.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Universities' Role in the Process of Regional Development

According to Garlick (1998) Universities play a highly significant role in regional development:

- they are major contributors to regional economies and regional development. They are often the major regional employer and purchaser of services;
- they provide cultural, sporting and physical infrastructure in the regions;
- they provide community leadership in regional development in conjunction with state and local government and local industry.⁴

The regional and rural universities and campuses are important education and service providers for their regions offering entrepreneurship programs, up skilling and life-long learning modules. These universities, whilst primarily teaching and research institutions, fulfil roles beyond the realm of education. They are highly significant financial and social institutions in the regions in which they operate, offering their communities educational, research, economic, cultural and social opportunities which would otherwise not be available in the region.

The OECD has recently published the report Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged. The common goal of various regional projects is: "to transform each higher education institution into an engine for growth" to respond at the local level to the global economic challenge.⁵

The report therefore examines and assesses the capacity for universities and colleges to effectively contribute to regional economic development through their multiple dimensions and activities: knowledge creation through research and technology transfer; knowledge transfer through education and human resources development; and, cultural and community development, which they argue can contribute to the conditions in which regional innovation thrives. The internal and external barriers and constraints that prevent universities from furthering this regional economic agenda need to be identified and should be provided general recommendations for higher education institutions as well as regional and national governments to overcome these obstacles, particularly in terms of governance, management, and capacity building for innovation.

Unlike other recent higher education policy documents, that seek to balance the multiple missions of the sector, this report unequivocally frames the purpose of higher education as primarily – if not solely – serving an economic objective.

Nevertheless, higher education institutions should contribute not only to economic development, but should include social, cultural and environmental considerations. This requires greater cooperation between institutions and with their communities and changes within the institutions, allowing that regional development activities are put on the same level as research and teaching.

The Europe 2020 strategy⁶ highlights the key role of innovation in contributing to smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Regions are important sites for innovation because of the opportunities they provide for interaction between businesses, public authorities and civil societies. In meeting major societal

⁴ Garlick, S., Creative associations in special places: enhancing the partnership role of universities in building competitive regional economies. Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Canberra, Australia, 1998

⁵ Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged, OECD, 2007

⁶ <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:2020:FIN:EN:PDF>

challenges, which have both a global and local dimension, universities and other higher education institutions have a key role to play in knowledge creation and its translation into innovative products and public and private services, a process that can engage the creative arts and social sciences as well as scientists and technologists. This role has been highlighted in the agenda adopted by the Commission in September 2011 for the modernisation of Europe's higher education systems.⁷

At a time of public budget constraints, major demographic changes and increasing global competition, Europe's competitiveness, the capacity to create millions of new jobs to replace those lost in the crisis and, overall, the future standard of living depends on our ability to drive innovation in products, services, business and social processes and models. This is why innovation has been placed at the heart of the Europe 2020 strategy. Innovation is also the best means of successfully tackling major global challenges, such as health and ageing, climate change, energy and resource scarcity. The modern theory focuses on three knowledge and policy domains – education, research and innovation – the so called knowledge triangle as described in Innovation Union [COM(2010)546]⁸. The starting point for the Innovation Union is to create an excellent, modern education system in all Member States.

Considerable effort has been devoted to the preparation of regional innovation strategies in which universities are seldom mentioned – the focus has been on just one side of the triangle. While universities undertake research and can contribute to its development the guide situates this activity in the context of the other functions of the university, particularly teaching.

In order to effectively engage universities, public authorities need to understand the principles underlying why universities can be important agents in regional development. The role of public actors is to facilitate interactions by providing arenas and funding. There is also a range of mechanisms available to support engagement, many of which are already being deployed. However it is the strategic coordination of these within a wider policy context that will produce the maximum impact.⁹

3.2. Contribution of the universities to the development of regional strategies of innovation

In regard to the role that universities perform in regional innovation systems, there are two dominant approaches to conceptualization: a) the triple helix model of university, industry, government relations and b) the literature on the engaged university. Both bodies of thought highlight that universities are increasingly linked to place but they offer different analyses of the driving forces shaping that relationship. The first model is focused on the role of universities in regional economies, pointing to the anticipation of hybrid university, industry, government relationships that involved the multiplication of resources and capital formation projects, such as real estate development in science parks and firm formation in incubator facilities. The second model highlights the third role of universities (cooperation with the society) in regional development, but it puts the emphasis on adaptive responses by universities, which embed a stronger regional focus in their teaching and research missions.

According to an OECD research, the contributions of the universities can be broken down into four areas – *business innovation* which is closely linked, although not exclusively, to the research function of the university, *human capital development* linked to the teaching function and *community development* linked to the public service role of universities. The fourth area is the contribution of the university to the *institutional capacity of the region* through engagement of its management and members in local civil society.

⁷ Connecting Universities to Regional Growth: A Practical Guide, EU Regional Policy, 2011

⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/research/innovation-union/pdf/innovation-union-communication_en.pdf

⁹ Connecting Universities to Regional Growth: A Practical Guide, EU Regional Policy, 2011

There are a number of ways in which universities can contribute to the development of their regions' strategies for innovation, growth and sustainable development. Higher education has impact in many different areas but the most important are:

- a. *Economic development* – match between the education offered and the regional labour force demand; higher education institutions contribute to: involvement in local and regional partnerships; links with local business and industry through targeted training and research consultancies; student placements in local businesses and the tying of student projects to the needs of businesses and local community groups; the establishment of research incubators, of science parks, of research and development companies and the commercialisation of higher education research; and through universities' wider role as part of a network of knowledge industries, a feature which itself is used in local and regional promotion to attract inward investment. The universities are major contributors to regional economies and regional development. Universities will often have some kind of "business engagement" office or centre, where companies can request specialist support in overcoming what is usually an immediate problem which requires a short term solution. Regional, national or European funding mechanisms can be used to subsidize the cost of the intervention. Enterprise programmes aimed at students have a number of possible benefits for the region. In some cases the focus is on teaching students to be more "enterprising", which is helping them to develop life and non-formal skills that will make them more productive and innovative in their future careers. This is good for the region regardless of the sector in which they work. For the region are important also the people who understand and can operate in both the academic, public sector and business worlds, and even across the triple interface of the sectors. In addition to promoting the development of entrepreneurial skills and providing students with an opportunity to try the entrepreneurial "experience", higher education institutions often contribute to the development of the business base in the region by supporting staff and students to start a business. The emphasis should be put on applied and need/user driven research connected to companies in the region. The university could also act as a catalyst or facilitator in the development of network and cluster organisations. A higher education institution may function as a platform for building networks which can be used for branding the region and making the region more attractive to external investors. By their presence in a region and through their research activities universities can also stimulate the development of intellectual property among businesses in the region as empirical evidence shows a positive correlation between numbers of people with higher education in a region and patent applications.¹⁰
- b. *Social development* - it is well evidenced that societies where the gap between the wealthy and least well off are narrowest and there is above average participation in higher education and cultural activities, they are most likely to also experience stable and sustainable economic growth. Universities have a key role to play in this process as they find ways to unlock the intellectual and financial resources of the regions for the benefit of the whole society. Working with their regions, universities can help to address the substantial issues of unemployment and low skills in the population, primarily through activities aimed at widening access - raising aspirations and participation in higher education among local people. Regional development is about social as well as economic cohesion within as well as between regions. Universities can play a key role in this domain through access programmes designed to widen local participation in higher education. In the process they can increase the supply of skilled labour as local people are more likely to remain within the region compared with those joining the university from elsewhere. Also as businesses undergo technological transformations current workers can upgrade their skills through university lifelong learning programmes or attain new qualification. The region's population can be a "living lab" for researchers in the universities and business to identify new market opportunities and evaluate service as well as product innovation. Establishment of facilities, such as laboratories, connected to companies in the region for joint

¹⁰ Connecting Universities to Regional Growth: A Practical Guide, EU Regional Policy, 2011

research projects. Science parks are a tool for education, research and cooperation with the surrounding society. They facilitate the cooperation between companies, public actors and higher education institutions. Nowhere is this truer than in relation to those innovations relevant to sustainable development. In this domain as elsewhere academic interventions need to embrace the social as well as the technological. The existence of regional universities offers students in the regions the opportunity to study within easy access of their families and support structures. The opportunities and the employment these institutions create help to keep the regions alive.

- c. *Human capital development* - the traditional role of the universities is to create knowledge and develop human capital through education and research. Even today, the main function of universities is to develop human capital through education of students and researchers. The development of skills and knowledge assets in the workforce is, for many regions, one of the most critical tools in achieving their regional innovation strategy for smart specialisation objectives. Universities can act as a powerful magnet for attracting talented students and staff into the region from other parts of the country and abroad. Promoting exchanges between university staff, students and different enterprises can be an extremely effective way of not only exposing the companies to the benefits of employing graduates, but also helps establish links and breaks down barriers between the university and the private sector which may lead to future collaborations in other areas (e.g. research, consultancy). An important tool to achieve this goal is the project or problem-based learning and student outplacement. In addition, through their teaching at undergraduate and postgraduate level, universities have the potential to add to the stock of human capital by means of graduate recruitment into regional businesses, possibly following work placements as part of the student's degree. More particularly, graduates can provide the gateway or connectivity through which knowledge exchange between researchers and businesses takes place. However teaching programmes respond solely to student demand and a national labour market for graduates particularly when there is no clearly articulated business demand linked to regional innovation drivers. The consequence is often graduate emigration to more dynamic regions. There are also proactive programmes aimed at retaining graduates in the region, something which is of critical importance in regions where higher level skills are in short supply. Universities can also be agents in attracting former students back to a region via their alumni networks.
- d. *Cultural development* – the universities provide cultural, sporting and physical infrastructure in the regions. The “cultural mission” is inexplicitly included as an indicator to assess the achievement of a “new role” of the university. Universities can make a significant impact on their regions through delivering culture based learning programmes, infrastructure (e.g. museums, galleries, music venues) and building infrastructure that improves and enhances the local area which in turn makes it more attractive to populations alike. While these activities might be undertaken as part of the institutions core mission of research and teaching, in less favoured regions in particular where public and private funding is limited, universities can attract investments in ways that can have a beneficial impact beyond the immediate campus.
- e. *Environmental protection* – universities play a key role in the environmental protection and the environmental impact should be managed at all levels. Schemes like the Green Impact recognize and reward sustainable behavior within the workplace. Their aim is to empower individuals and departments to reduce their environmental impact by encouraging, rewarding and celebrating practical sustainable improvements. The following aims should be achieved in the universities: reducing waste and increasing recycling; increasing energy efficiency and reducing carbon emissions; increasing sustainable procurement; increasing sustainable transport; improving communications relating to sustainability; promotion of sustainable travel through public transport discounts and facilities and support for cyclists; satisfying the majority of the universities' electricity needs from sustainable sources. The researchers from different universities work together in order to reduce the pollution and to deal with the climate change issues and renewable energy sources. Regional environmental research centres have been

created with the aim to stimulate and support high quality basic, applied and strategic research in the environmental sciences through inter-disciplinary exchange and collaborative interaction. Sustainability should be one of the guiding principles of every university in its teaching, learning, research, campus operations and governance.

Table 1 gives a summary of the impact of the higher education institutions in different areas.

Table 1. Contribution of higher education institutions to regional development

Fields of development	HEIs' contribution
Economic development	Regional partnerships; training and research consultancies; student placements; research incubators; using regional, national and European funding mechanisms; development of entrepreneurial skills; development of network and cluster organisations; development of intellectual property.
Social development	Unlocking the intellectual and financial resources; deal with the unemployment and low skills; accessible higher education; upgrading the skills and acquiring of new skills; employment opportunities.
Human capital development	Development of skills and knowledge; attracting talented students and staff; promoting exchanges; collaboration between universities and the private sector; knowledge exchange between researchers and businesses; programmes aimed at retaining graduates in the region.
Cultural development	Providing cultural, sporting and physical infrastructure; delivering culture based learning programmes.
Environmental protection	Green Impact scheme; reducing waste and increasing recycling; increasing energy efficiency and reducing carbon emissions; increasing sustainable procurement; increasing sustainable transport; improving communications relating to sustainability; promotion of sustainable travel through public transport discounts and facilities and support for cyclists; satisfying the majority of the universities' electricity needs from sustainable sources; researchers' teams dealing with global issues; research in environmental sciences; sustainability as a guiding principle.

3.3. Regional Problems and Possible Solutions

The populations in the rural regions may experience some or all of the following disadvantages. They may:

- be isolated and some distance from major capital cities;
- have low socio-economic status and income;
- suffer from poor infrastructure facilities, both physical and technological;
- have traditionally low participation rates in higher education;
- have shrinking population bases as employment concentrates in major capital cities;

- have difficulty in attracting high quality staff in some areas; and
- have limited part-time work opportunities to sustain students financially.

To keep students in the region, it is important to provide them with the necessary skills to find suitable jobs after graduation. As a result, many universities now invite regional stakeholders to participate in the development of educational programs; for example on boards of education, through problem-based learning or as lecturers and associate professors. To enhance the positive attitude towards higher education, many institutions have also become involved in the development of broader regional education infrastructure, ranging from secondary schools to lifelong learning and vocational training. In terms of research, many universities have combined basic with applied research, often in collaboration with large industrial companies in specific disciplines.

Universities can be the basic institutions in local economies as major employers across a wide range of occupations, purchasers of local goods and services, and contributors to cultural life and the built environment of towns and cities. Regional investment in the infrastructure of a university to support its core business of research and teaching can therefore have a significant passive regional multiplier effect even if the university is not actively supporting regional development. In the regions a jointly developed strategy have to be considered in respect of how universities should best contribute to regional development through the creation of networks of universities, private companies and regional authorities with a view to create a framework for single cooperation projects.

Higher education institutions working with regional authorities have the potential to move from being located in regions to being part of regions through contributions to the design and implementation of smart specialisation strategies in a local learning and capacity building process. Universities can play a key role in helping public authorities build these strategies by enhancing the skills and competencies of their staff working in the field of economic development through consultancy services and training of graduates. This would involve different university departments such as: economics, geography, planning, public administration and business management, health, agriculture, environment and culture. A dedicated unit may bring these academic skills together.

The mechanisms by which universities contribute to regional development are listed below:

- enhancing regional innovation through research activities - the role of universities in regional innovation has evolved over the last twenty years. This evolution has seen the emergence of a third role of universities that has re-shaped and transformed their two traditional functions of teaching and research;
- promoting enterprise, business development and growth;
- contributing to the development of regional human capital and skills;
- improving social equality through regeneration and cultural development.

4. Conclusions

In the process of developing regional specialization strategies, universities have an important role to support innovation by providing knowledge, human capital and global connections even if the direct effects of university activities on regional development remain difficult to prove. It is becoming increasingly important for university management to balance the demand for an international reputation for high academic quality in education and research, with the role of participating in regional entrepreneurship and innovation activities. From a regional policy perspective, this could be supported, for example, by the formation of regional partnerships, stimulation of cluster development, creation of regional attractiveness and multi-sector policy initiatives. It seems that universities may be important drivers pushing forward regional development, since a regional centre with a university is better off in respect of occupational and demographic development than a regional centre that lacks such a facility.

Higher education institutions have potentially a key role to play in the social and economic development of their regions. They are a critical “asset” of the region, especially in less favored regions. Successful mobilization of the resources of the university can have a greater positive effect on their regional economies and achievement of comprehensive regional strategies.

How to contribute to its community is being focussed upon, while the whole environment surrounding the university has been changing fundamentally, together with economic globalization, development of the information society, declining birth rate and aging society. There are enormous economic, social, technological and cultural gaps among regions and individuals. It is therefore expected for each of the universities to work on various programmes for social contribution depending on the individual case, as well as to enhance a strategy for renewing its “cultural mission” in society. The universities are now requested to legitimate themselves by revitalising their own resources: administrative power, financial sources, knowledge, information and culture, and to identify the “new” roles that are currently needed at national, institutional, disciplinary, regional and local levels.

It is true that universities have increased their contributions to regional development and may continue to do so; however, such contributions should not be restricted to economic development, but should include social, cultural and environmental considerations.

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Küreselleşme Sürecinde Çok Uluslu Şirketler ve Ekonomik Boyutları

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Özet: Ekonominin küreselleşmesi ile dış ticaret algısının yeni yöntemlerle şekillenmesi arasında doğrusal bir bağlantı açıkça görülmektedir. Bu gelişmeler neticesinde, özellikle AB oluşum süreci ve sonrasındaki gelişmelerle, çok uluslu şirketlerin sayısında devrim niteliğinde artışlar görülmüştür. Önceleri uluslararası ve ulusal düzenlemelere adapte olmaya çalışan şirketler, özellikle 2000’ler ve sonrasında küresel ve ulusal ekonomik yapılar üzerinde tesirleri olan ekonomik aktörlere dönüşmüşlerdir.

Birçok ülke ekonomisinin dünya ekonomisi içinde edilgen konumları varken, çokuluslu şirketlerin faaliyet alanları, ekonomik boyutları ve inovatif yapılarıyla küresel ekonomik sistemin önde gelen belirleyicilerinden oldukları günümüzde tartışma kabul etmemektedir.

Çalışmada çok uluslu şirketlerin ulaştığı ekonomik boyutlar ve küreselleşme süreci ile olan etkileşimleri analitik bir çerçevede incelenerek; dünya ekonomisinin şekillenmesindeki önemleri üzerinde durulacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çokuluslu Şirketler, Küresel Ekonomi, Uluslararası Ekonomik Aktörler

JEL Kodu: F10, F14, F15, C01

Multinational Companies in Globalization Process and Economic Dimensions of This Process

Abstract: There is an obvious link between the globalization of the economy and the re-design of foreign trade perception with new methods. As a result of these developments, especially EU formation process and on going process afterwards, there has been a sharp increase at the number of the multinational companies. The companies which try to adapt themselves to the national and international changes, become economic actors who has also influence especially after 2000's.

Although, many countries' economy have passive statue in the global environment, it is not debatable that multinational companies' activity of area, economic aspects and inovative structure are the lead affectors of the system.

In the study, the economic extend of the multinational companies and their interaction with globalization process will be evaluated with analytical methods and their importance on the global economy will be further analyzed.

KeyWords: Multinational Companies, Global Economy, International Economic Actors

JEL Codes: F10, F14, F15, C01

1. Giriş

Küreselleşme, gelişen teknoloji ve ihtiyaçların etkisiyle hem makro hem de mikro ölçekte hızlanarak artan bir seyir göstermektedir. Bu yönüyle “küreselleşme”; siyasi, sosyal, kültürel ve iktisadi alanlarda kendini göstermekte, toplumları ve ekonomik faaliyetlerini şekillendirmektedir. Küreselleşme birçok tanımıyla birlikte yaygın olarak, ülkelerarası sınırların kalkmasıyla ticari ilişkilerin; kültürel, siyasi ve sosyal etkileriyle birlikte gerçekleşmesi anlamındadır. Osland’a göre birçok tanımı olsa da vardığı genel kaniya dayanarak; küreselleşme, ülkelerin ekonomik dayanışmasını ve güçlü bir iletişim kurmalarını sağlayan bir süreçtir ve bu sürecin ekonomik, politik, sosyal, kültürel ve çevresel sonuçlarını da içermektedir (Kaymakci, 2013:225).). Milanovic’e göre ise küreselleşme, ülkeler arasındaki farklılıkları azaltan, demokrasiyi evrensel norm haline getirerek kurumları ve yönetim tarzlarını birbirine yaklaştıran ve farklı kültürel yapıdaki toplumların daha sık ilişki kurmasını sağlayarak kültürel zenginliği arttıran iyi nitelikli bir güçtür (Milanovic, 2003: 668). Şüphesiz bu olumlu yaklaşımın yanında “küreselleşme” olgusunu “neo-kapitalizm” olarak ifade eden ve bu kavramın yeni bir sömürü düzeninin manifestosu olarak gören çok sayıda yazar da

mevcuttur. Küreselleşme, kar elde etmek üzerine kurulan kapitalizm ile paralel ilerleyen bir süreçtir. Sürekli pazar ve hammadde arayışı içinde bulunan kapitalizmin gelişme süreci, temel noktası sermaye hareketleri olan küreselleşmenin gelişme sürecine de etki etmektedir. Sermaye ihracatı üzerine kurulu küreselleşmenin en etkili aracı ise Çokuluslu Şirketler (ÇUŞ)'dir (Aksoy, 2006:23). Son dönemde hızla artan ekonomik entegrasyon, piyasa ekonomisi ve uluslar arası ticaret ve finansal faaliyetlerde ki serbestleşmenin hız kazanması ÇUŞ'ların önemini daha da arttırmaktadır (Aktan ve Vural, 2006:6).

2. Kavramsal ve Tarihsel Açından Çokuluslu Şirketler

Küresel ekonominin en önemli aktörlerinden olan çok uluslu şirketler, birden fazla ülkede kazanç sağlayıcı iktisadi faaliyetlerde bulunan ve uluslararası üretim gücüne sahip firmalar olarak tanımlanabilir. Gilpin, bu konuda; "Oligopolcü bir yapıda olma eğiliminde olan çok uluslu şirketler birden fazla ülkede üretim ve satış faaliyetlerini sürdürür ve şirketin mülkiyeti/yönetimi birden fazla ülke vatandaşına ait olabilir" tespitinde bulunmaktadır (Gilpin, 1987: 128).

UNCTAD'ın tanımına göre ise, Çok Uluslu Şirket (orijinal metinde uluslararası işletmeler), anonim olsun veya olmasın, ev sahibi işletmeleri ve onların iştiraklerini içeren işletmelerdir. Ev sahibi işletme kendi ülkesi dışındaki bir işletmenin aktiflerini kontrol eden bir işletme olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bu tanım ÇUŞ'un faaliyetlerinin belli bir hareket serbestliği içinde gerçekleştiğinin altını çizmektedir. ÇUŞ; faaliyette bulundukları ülkelerde oluşturdukları genellikle esnek ağ yapıları ile özellikle vergi, yatırım ve gelirlerini o ülke dışına kaydırabilme, yeni yatırımlar için yer belirleme gibi konularda kendilerine avantaj sağlamaktadırlar (Kaymakçı, 2013: 226).

ÇUŞ küreselleşmenin en önemli araçlarından biridir, ancak bu küreselleşmenin ÇUŞ olmadan gerçekleşmesinin mümkün olmadığı anlamına gelmemelidir. ÇUŞ, güçlü sermaye yapıları, gelişmiş teknolojik alt yapıları ve faaliyet alanının genişliği sayesinde küreselleşme sürecinde faaliyetlerini ve rekabetlerini kolaylıkla yürütebilmekte ve bu sürecin hızlanmasına da katkı sağlamaktadırlar. (Tağraf, 2002: 34-35).

Neo-liberal uygulamalar ile ekonomik alan büyük ölçüde ÇUŞ'in kontrolüne girmiş ve kendilerine geniş bir alan sunan fonksiyonel bir ekonomik güce kavuşmuşlardır. Dünyadaki en büyük 100 ekonomik birimden 51'i ÇUŞ'dir. En tepede ki 200 şirketin toplam satış hacmi, en büyük 10 ülke ekonomisi dışındaki tüm ülkelerin ekonomisinden daha büyüktür.

2000'lerin başlarında bile ÇUŞ'ların ulaştığı büyüklükler çok çarpıcıdır. UNCTAD raporuna göre, 2003 yılındaki küresel doğrudan yabancı yatırım stokunun %85'i ÇUŞ'e aittir. 2001 yılı küresel ihracatı 7,4 trilyon \$ iken, ÇUŞ'in toplam satışları 18,5 trilyon \$ ve bu şirketlerce üretilen toplam katma değer 3,5 trilyon \$'dır. Gene aynı yılda ÇUŞ'in küresel gayrisafi yurt içi hasılaya katkısı %11 ve istihdam ettiği kişi sayısı yaklaşık 54 milyon kişidir.

ÇUŞ'ların tarihsel gelişimi ile ilgili farklı bakış açıları olmakla birlikte temelleri 16.yüzyıla kadar geriye götürülebilir. Öncesinde kişisel arayışlar ve sonucunda doğal kaynaklar ve tarım ürünlerinin Kolonyalizm dönemindeki değerlendirmeleriyle başlayan bu olgu, 20. Yüzyılda modern Çok Uluslu Şirket kavramına ulaşmıştır.

Çok Uluslu Şirketleri, Sanayi Devrimi ve sonrasına dayandıran kaynaklar da mevcuttur. Özellikle İngiltere'nin sömürgelerde yaptığı yatırımların, yabancı sermaye yatırımlarının başlangıcını temsil ettiği de söylenebilir.

Uluslararası ticaret konusundaki tartışmalar geçmişten günümüze değin süregelmektedir. Bu konudaki tartışmaların odak noktası, bir ülkeden diğerine yapılan yatırımların sonucunda, bu yatırımların her iki ülkeye ve bu ülkelerdeki işletmelere sağlayacağı kazanç ve getirinin neler olabileceğidir. Sanayi Devrimi'ne kadar olan dönemde uluslararası ticaretin devletlerin otoritesi altında olduğu görülmektedir. Başka bir ifadeyle ticaretin hedefleri devletin hedefleri olarak görülmüştür.

Sanayi Devrimi'nin bir sonucu olarak, özellikle batının sanayileşen ülkelerindeki hızlı sermaye birikimi, büyük şirketleri bu sermayeden en fazla karı sağlayacak yatırım alanlarını aramaya yöneltmiştir. Bu alanlar

ise başlangıçta, sömürge ülkeler ve az gelişmiş ülkeler olmuştur. Bu dönem ve öncesine Sömürgecilik ve Ticaret dönemleri adı da verilmektedir.

Sonraki döneme Ayrıcalıklar dönemi adı verilirken, bu dönemdeki belirleyici özellik I. ve II. Dünya Savaşları ve bunların dünya ticaretine etkisidir. ÇUŞ'lar I. Dünya Savaşı'ndan sonraki yıllarda dış ticareti dengeleyici politikaların kaldırılması sonucu artış göstermiştir. Sömürgecilik döneminde, dış ülkelere yapılan yatırımlarda tarım ve madencilik önemli yer tutarken; Ayrıcalıklar döneminde özellikle otomobil sanayinde dış ülkelere yapılan yatırımlar önem kazanmıştır. Bu dönemde ülkelerde yaşanan kriz (1929) sonrasında ellerinde stok bulunduran şirketler bu stoklarını alternatif pazarlarda eritmek zorunda kalmışlar, bu da uluslararası ticaretin artışına sebebiyet vermiştir.

3. Etkileri Bakımından Çokuluslu Şirketler

Küreselleşme ve serbest ticaret ile birlikte çok uluslu şirketlerin de giderek büyüdükleri izlenilmektedir. Çok uluslu şirketlerin az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelere yaptıkları yatırımların bu ülkelerdeki istihdam ve ekonomik kalkınma üzerinde olumlu katkılarının olduğu şüphesizdir. Lakin bunun yanında globalleşme ve serbest ticaret neticesinde çok uluslu şirketlerin az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelere ucuz iş gücünü kullanarak emeği sömürdükleri ve aynı zamanda doğa ve çevre üzerinde tahrip edici sonuçlara sebebiyet verdikleri iddia edilmektedir (Aktan ve İstiklal,2004: 23).

Uluslararası Çalışma Örgütü (ILO) tarafından 1977 yılında kabul edilen Çok uluslu Şirketler ve Sosyal Politika ile ilgili İlkeler Üçlü Bildirgesi(TripartiteDeclaration: Multinational Enterprises andSocialPolicyDeclaration)'de çok uluslu şirketlerin etkisi ile ilgili şunlar yer almaktadır; "Çokuluslu şirketler, birçok ülkenin ekonomisinde ve uluslararası ekonomik ilişkilerde önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Bu konu, gerek hükümetlerin gerekse işçi ve işveren kuruluşlarının giderek daha çok ilgisini çekmektedir. Bu tür girişimler doğrudan uluslararası yatırımlar ve diğer yollardan, sermayenin, teknolojinin ve emeğin daha da etkin kullanımına katkıda bulunarak gerek geldikleri gerekse gittikleri ülkelere önemli yararlar sağlayabilirler. Hükümetlerin izledikleri kalkınma politikaları açısından bakıldığında bu şirketler ayrıca ekonomik ve sosyal refaha, yaşam standartlarının yükseltilmesine, temel gereksinimlerin karşılanmasına, doğrudan ya da dolaylı biçimde istihdam olanakları yaratılmasına, sendikalaşma özgürlüğü dâhil olmak üzere temel insan haklarının gerçekleşmesine tüm dünyada katkıda bulunabilirler. Buna karşılık, çok uluslu şirketlerin etkinliklerini kendi ulusal çerçevelerinin ötesinde örgütleyebilme alanında sağladıkları ilerleme, tek elde biriken ekonomik gücün istismar edilmesine, ilgili ülkelerdeki ulusal politikalarla ters düşülmesine de yol açabilir ve bu şirketlerin karmaşık yapılanmalarını, işlemlerini ve politikalarını anlamadaki güçlük zaman zaman ana ülkede, gidilen ülkede ya da her ikisinde birden sorunlara yol açabilir " (ILO,1993:1).

3.1. Çok Uluslu Şirketlerin Olumlu Etkileri

Yukarıdaki başlıkta bahsi geçen bildirmede çok uluslu şirketlerin az gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerin ekonomilerine etkileri açısından sağladığı veya sağlayacağı yararlar sağladığı şu şekilde ifade edilmiştir :''Çok uluslu işletmelerin faaliyetleri, uluslararası ticaret ve yatırımlar aracılığıyla, OECD ekonomilerini birbirine ve dünyanın öbür kısmına bağlayan bağları güçlendirip derinleştirdi. Bu faaliyetler, gerek ana ülkelere, gerekse ev sahibi ülkelere önemli yararlar sağlıyor. Çok uluslu işletmeler, tüketicilere almak istedikleri ürün ve hizmetleri rekabetçi fiyatlarla sunup yatırımcılara adil getiriler sağladığında bu yararlar daha da artıyor. Bunların ticaret ve yatırım faaliyetleri, sermaye, teknoloji, insan kaynakları ve doğal kaynakların verimli bir şekilde kullanılmasına katkıda bulunuyor. Dünyanın farklı bölgeleri arasında teknoloji transferini ve yerel koşulları yansıtan teknolojilerin geliştirilmesini kolaylaştırıyorlar. Gerek formel, gerekse iş üzerinde eğitim aracılığıyla, bu işletmeler, ev sahibi ülkelerdeki insan sermayesinin gelişmesini de yardımcı oluyorlar'' (ILO,1993:13) denilmektedir.

Doğrudan Yabancı Yatırım(DYY)'ları yapanlar genelde, yatırım yapacakları ülkelere yeterli altyapının ve sağlam hukuki düzenlemelerin varlığına ve de ekonomik ve siyasi istikrarın sağlanmasına çok önem veren çok uluslu şirketlerdir. Bu bağlamda, DYY'ler, yatırım çekmek isteyen ülkelerin söz konusu alanlarda gerekli düzenlemeleri yapmalı için dolaylı yönden bir yatırım oluşturarak ev sahibi ülke ekonomisinin iyileşmesine olumlu etkide bulunurlar. (Tekin 2003:1).

Çok uluslu şirketlerin en önemli yönü; sermayenin uluslar arası dolaşımını, üretimin uluslararasılaşmasını, iş gücü ve doğal kaynaklardan uluslar arası düzeyde yararlanmayı sağlayarak kıt kaynakların optimum kullanılmasına yönelik iktisadi düşüncelerin temelinde yatan en önemli unsur bir büyük bir adım oluşturmalarıdır. Bu gelişim kapitalist sistemlerde öngörülen “Sermayenin akümülayonu” olgusunun ulusal sınırların aşılp küresel alanda gerçekleşmesini ifade etmekte, artan verimlilik sayesinde ürünler daha kolay edinilebilir hale gelmektedir (<http://www.maliye-abdid.gov.tr/> Erişim Tarihi :06/12/2012).

Çok uluslu şirketler iş gücünü bilgi transferi ile gerçekleştirdiği için şirketlerle yaptıkları işbirlikleri çerçevesinde ilgili firmalara bilgi, beceri ve tecrübelerini içeren “know – how”larını iş gücü hareketliliği çerçevesinde transfer ederek ev sahibi oldukları ülkenin iş gücü sermayesinin olumlu yönde etkiler. Gelişmekte olan ülkeler için doğrudan yabancı sermaye yatırımlarından beklenen en önemli yararlarından biri dış açıkla rin giderilmesine yaptığı katkıdır. Öncelikle doğrudan yabancı sermaye yatırımlarının ev sahibi ülkenin bilançosuna yaptığı ilk olumlu etki, yatırımların bir defalık bilanço üzerinde olumlu olarak yansımalarıdır. Bunun dışındaki diğer bir olumlu etki ise, yabancı sermayeli şirketlerin dış pazarlarda ki faaliyetleri yoluyla ülke ihracatının gelişmesine önemli bir katkı sağlamasıdır. Bununla beraber, yabancı sermayeli şirketlerin ülke dışına çıkardıkları kar transferleri, üretimlerini gerçekleştirmek için yaptıkları ara ve yatırım malı ithalatı da döviz çıkışına neden olmaktadır. İhracat yolu ile sağlanan döviz katkısı, diğer döviz çıkışlarından fazla olduğu takdirde, doğrudan yabancı sermaye yatırımları ödemeler dengesi açısından net etkisi pozitif olabilmektedir (Candemir, 2007:7).

ÇUŞ’ların yararlarını temelde şu şekilde özetlemek mümkündür (Gültekin,2009:9) :

- Ana ülkenin gelirini arttırabilirler.
- İstihdam sorununa yardımcı olabilirler.
- Ana ülkenin diğer ülkeler teknik bakımdan etkide bulundurulmasını sağlarlar.
- Fakir ülkelere giderek daha çok AR-GE çalışmaları yaparlar ve o ülkeye katkıda bulunmuş olurlar.

Çok uluslu şirketlerin olumlu etkilerinin yanında bir takım olumsuz etkiler de mevcuttur.

3.2. Çok Uluslu Şirketlerin Olumsuz Etkileri

Çok uluslu şirketler kendi ülkelerinde mal üretip dışarıya ihraç ederler veya dışarıda üretim yatırım yapılan ülkenin dağıtım kanallarından faydalanırlar. Bu nedenle yapılan yatırımın, sermaye ihraç eden ülkede yatırım, ihracat ve iş imkânlarını zarara uğratabileceği düşünülmektedir. Ancak ihracatın yapılamayacağı bazı ürün ve hizmetlerde, yabancı pazara girebilmek yalnız doğrudan yabancı yatırım ile mümkün olabilmektedir (Yılmaz,2006:86).

Çok uluslu şirketler yatırımı yaptığı ülkeye düşük maliyet ve kitlesel üretim avantajını kullanarak yerel firmaları tasfiye eder. Bu şirketlerdeki amaç piyasayı monopol bir yapıya sokarak karlarını arttırma eğilimidir. Ayrıca elde edilen bu karların transferi de yatırım yapılan ülkenin ekonomisini olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir (Soydal,2007:47).

ÇUŞ’lar gelişmiş veya gelişmekte olan ülkelere istihdamı etkilemektedirler. ÇUŞ’lar yatırım yaptıkları ülkede bir istihdam kapasitesi yaratmakta ve iş gücüne yeni vasıflar kazandırmaktadır. Ancak yarattıkları istihdamın boyutu çeşitli faktörlere bağlı olarak farklılık göstermektedir. Gelişmiş ülkelere yatırımların gerçekleştirilme tarzı, gelişmekte olan ülkelere yabancı sermayenin beraberinde getirdiği üretim tekniği istihdam açısından önem kazanmaktadır.

Örnek olarak; Çok uluslu şirketler, istikrar ve düzen adına baskıcı rejimleri zaman zaman destekleyerek ulusal ekonomilerde emek rekabetini piyasadan uzaklaştırarak istihdamı azaltmanın yanı sıra çalışanlara verilen ücretleri sınırlarlar. Ayrıca ÇUŞ’lar üçüncü dünya ülkelerine her ne kadar teknoloji açısından olumlu yönde etkilerken, az gelişmiş ülkelerdeki bebek endüstrilerin (infantindustries) ve yerel teknik uzmanlaşmaların teknolojik açıdan gelişimini olumsuz yönden etkilemektedir. Sosyal ve çevresel etkileri dikkate alındığında, çok uluslu şirket hakkında giderek artan endişe, gelişmekte olan ülkelerin “sürdürülebilir kalkınmalarını” (Sustainable Development) olumsuz etkilemeleri şeklinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Gelişmekte

olan ülkelerde çok uluslu şirketler çok hızlı bir ilerleme sağlamak ve güçlü iktisadi yapıları ile bu ülkelerin gelişmeleri açısından birer baskı unsuru oluşturmaktadırlar. Özellikle doğal kaynakların kullanımı ve düşük üretim maliyetleri bu ülkeleri çok uluslu şirket için çekici unsurlar konumuna getirmektedir. Farklı bir görüşe göre; bu ülkelerdeki yabancı yatırım faaliyetleri sürdürebilir kalkınma açısından olumsuz gelişmelere yol açmaktadır. Bu düşünceye göre çok uluslu şirketler geliştirmekte olan ülkelerin “sürdürülebilir” kalkınmalarını “engelleyen faktör olarak geliştirmektedir (Sülün, 2005:3).

4. Küreselleşmenin Çokuluslu Şirketler Üzerindeki Etkileri

Küreselleşme ve çok uluslu şirketler birbirlerini karşılıklı olarak etkilemektedirler. Birçok boyutu olmakla birlikte çalışmada 3 temel nokta üzerinde durulmuştur.

4.1. Çok Uluslu Şirketlerde Ticari Küreselleşme

Çağdaş manada küreselleşmeyi doğuran etmenlerden başta geleni, çok uluslu şirketlerdir. Çok uluslu şirketlerin gelişimiyle ulusal ölçek hesaplamaları yerini uluslararası ölçek hesaplamalarına bırakmıştır. Çok uluslu şirketlerin gelişim sürecinde, sadece gelişmiş ülkelere bir yayılım ile karşılaşılma, aynı zamanda gelişmiş ülkelere gelişmekte olan ülkelere doğru da bir yabancı sermaye girişi ve bu yabancı sermayenin de çok uluslu karakteri yüksek düzeyde olmuştur. Özellikle 1960-1980 zaman aralığında, geliştirmekte olan ülkelerin, uyguladıkları sanayileşme politikalarıyla birlikte, çok uluslu şirket olarak tanımlanabilecek bu yabancı sermayeyi çekebilmek için önemli mevzuat düzenlemelerine yöneldikleri görülmüştür.

Bu ülkelerin yabancı sermaye olarak çok uluslu şirketlere dönük çağrılarının (teşviklerinin; örneğin koruma da bir bakıma bu şirketler için bu ülkelere yönelişte bir teşvik anlamına gelmiştir) nedenleri arasında kuşkusuz kaynak kıtlığı sorununun varlığında, bu ülkelerin ekonomik büyümelerini hızlandırabilme arzusu önemli bir belirleyici olmuştur. Bir bakıma, bu ülkeler çok uluslu şirketler yatırımlarına teşvikler vererek kaynak açıklarını karşılamayı da hedeflemişlerdir. Yine geliştirmekte olan bu ekonomiler, çok uluslu şirketler yatırımları ile istihdam ve ayrıca döviz temini için ihracat sorununu da çözebilmeyi hedeflemişlerdir. Bilhassa ödemeler dengesinde dış ticaret dengesizliği sorunları çeken bu ekonomilerde, bir yanda çok uluslu yabancı sermaye girişi sayesinde ödemeler dengesinde döviz pozisyonunda bir rahatlama sağlanması; diğer tarafta bu yabancı sermayenin üretime geçmesi ile birlikte, daha önce ithal edilen malları yerli üretim faktörlerini de kullanarak üretir hale geldiğinde, ithalat yerine, üretir ve hatta ihraç eder hale gelmeleri beklenmiştir.

Hakikatte tarihsel süreçte tabii ki günümüzün çok uluslu şirketleri büyük ölçüde önce ulusal bir şirket konumunda olmuşlar ve zaman içerisinde çok uluslu şirket konumuna ulaşmışlardır. Bu kuruluşlar birden fazla ülkede üretim-satış gerçekleştiren kuruluş olma özelliklerini zaman içerisinde artırırlarken; bu noktada, artık bu firmalar, çok – ülkeli, çok – uluslu firma konumuna geçmişlerdir. Bu firmalar üretim, pazarlama planlarını yaparken, sadece kaynak ülkeleri bağlamında değil, üretimde bulundukları ve pazarlama gerçekleştirdikleri ülkeler bağlamında bütçe ve planlama yapar hale gelmişlerdir

Bir tarih vermek gerekirse, denilebilir ki, çok uluslu bu şirketler için 1960’lar başlangıç yılları ise 1970’ler dönüşümün gerçekleştiği ikinci zaman aralığıdır. Gerçekte çok uluslu şirketlerin 1970 sonrasında gelişimleri baş döndürücü olmuştur.

Yukarıda da belirtildiği üzere, çok uluslu işletme girişimciliği modern küreselleşmenin oluşumunda önemli ve temel bir yere sahiptir. Lakin çağdaş küreselleşmeyi yalnız başına çok uluslu işletme girişimciliğine bağlamak da yetersizdir. Keza, küreselleşmenin oluşumunda teknolojik faktörlerin de büyük payı vardır. Bilhassa, burada 1970’lerin sonuna doğru, ortağa konan yüksek oranlı araştırma ve geliştirme etkinliğinin bir sonucu olarak, bilgisayarlarda işlemcilerin kullanılabilir hale gelmesi üzerinde durmak gerekir.

Çünkü üretimi yeniden organize etme ve biçimlendirme ve toplumsal ve ekonomik dönüşümü gerçekleştirme noktasında, 1980-2000 zaman aralığında “Bir araç olarak” bilgisayarın yadsınamaz bir etkinliği olmuştur. Aslında bilgisayarların ekonomik hayatta sunduğu imkânlar sadece bunlarla da sınırlı kalmamıştır. Örneğin 1800’lerin küreselleşme sürecinin, sermaye hareketlerinin reel bir mal konumunda olan altına dayalı iken, günümüz dünyasının küreselleşme sürecinde ise bilgisayar ve bilgisayara dayalı

diğer donanımlar sayesinde, doğrudan doğruya “elektronik kaydı para” ya ve bunların nominal değışim hareketlerine dayalı hale gelmiştir(Karabulut,2004: 8).

4.2. Çok Uluslu Şirketlerde Finansal Küreselleşme

Enflasyon hızı dünya çapında 2000'lere doğru % 10 düzeylerine düşerken; 2000'li senelerin başlarında % 3-4'lere kadar düşerek rekor seviyede düşüş yaşamıştır. Bunla birlikte 1980 senesinin sonunda ve 1990 senesinin başlangıcında “geçiş ekonomisi” ülkelerinde yaşanan dönüşüm krizi ve güney Amerika ekonomilerindeki hiper-enflasyon nedeniyle aşırı yüksek küresel enflasyon kaydedilmiştir.

Gelişmiş sanayi ülkelerinde 1980 senesinden 2005 senesine doğru enflasyon düşüşünde durgun bir eğilim izlenmektedir.1980 senesinde bu devletlerin (Kanada, Almanya, Avusturya, İtalya, Japonya, İspanya, İsviçre, Amerika Birleşik Devletleri, İngiltere)yalnızca bir tanesinde %5 gibi düşük (sürünen)enflasyon tipi izlenirken 1996 senesinde bu ülkelerin bütününde böyle bir durumun olduğu izlenilmektedir. Dışsal gelişmelere göre para-kredi politikaları değişmektedir.

İktisadi liberalizasyon sonucu çoğalan finansal gelişmelerle işlem hacimleri artıp, 24 saatlik iş yaşantısıyla iktisadi tasarruflar çoğalmakta ve buna paralel olarak ülke üretim kapasiteleri artmaktadır. Bu arada değışen koşullara adaptasyon sağlama çabasıyla ülkelerin yapısal değışimi de hızlanmaktadır. Ancak finansal küreselleşme sonucu artan uluslararası sermaye akımı karşılıklı fiyat dengelerine zarar vererek ulusal finans sektöründeki gelişmeleri zayıflatabilmekte ve varlık taban fiyatlarını şişirebilmektedir. Büyük miktarlardaki fonların hızla yatırılıp çekilebilme imkânlarıyla içe ve dışa doğru oluşan akımlarla olumsuz makroekonomik sonuçlar ortaya çıkabilmektedir. Bu sermaye akımları kayıt dışı faaliyetlerle beraber yerli parasal otoritelerin kontrol gücünü zayıflatmakta makroekonomikistkrarı bozabilmektedir(Allen ve Elgar,1999: 72).

Son zamanlarda sermaye hareketlerindeki serbestleşmeyle birlikte kuralsızlığın da artmaya başlaması sistemi hızlı bir değışiklik içerisine sokmuştur. Bankalara yönelik getirilen kurallar bütün mali sektör ilişkileri için yeterli olmamıştır. Bankacılık sektörü de bu kuralların dışına taşacak enstrümanları devreye sokmuştur. Mali sektör hacminin reel sektöre göre katıyla büyümesi doğal olarak da risklerin artmasına sebebiyet vermektedir.2000'lerin başlarından günümüze bu yana varlıkların değerini ifade eden kâğıtların değeri üç-dört kat artarken dünya iktisadı %40 dolayında büyümüş vaziyettedir. Bu uyumsuzluk büyük ölçüde kuralsızlıktan meydana gelmiştir. Genel olarak şartlara bağlı olan bankacılık sektörü, kredilerini bu nispette büyütemese de bunları başka araçlara büründürerek inanılmaz bir hacim oluşturmayı başarmıştır. Dolayısıyla, sanal dünya ile reel dünya arasında bir uyumsuzluk oluşmuş, bu da bir zaman sonra bugünkü sistemin taşıyabileceği boyutları aşmıştır.

2007 senesinde patlayan son krizde, sermaye hareketlerinin önemli belirleyicisi olan kredilendirme sürecinde yapılan önemli hatalar; krizin uyarıcılarından N.Roubini tarafından şöyle özetlenmiştir: “Yeterli teminat alınmadan gelirin çok üzerinde kredi verilmesi, ön ödeme yapılmaması, verilen bilgi ve belgelerin yeterince kontrol edilmemesi, menkulleştirmenin sağladığı imkânlar nedeniyle risk yönetimine gereken önemin verilmemesi,hedge fon uygulamalarının artması, değışken faizli kredilerin uygulanması, gerekli denetleme mekanizmalarının kurulmasını beklemeden yeni finansal ürünlere izin verilmesi, temel bankacılık prensiplerine aykırı ihtiyatsız kredilendirme sürecine göz yumulması, bilginin eşit dağılmaması, 2001 sonrası dönemde FED faizlerinin düşük kalması konut destekleme politikaları ve bunun sonucunda konut fiyat artışlarının devam edeceği beklentisi gibi yanlışlıkların olmasıdır”(Roubini, 2008).

Amerika Birleşik Devletlerinde başlayan kriz, bir sene içinde, 158 senelik finans devi LehmanBrothers başta olmak üzere 13 büyük bankanın batmasına neden olmuştur. Bunun da maliyetinin yaklaşık 1,2 trilyon dolar olduğu tahmin edilmektedir.700 bankanın daha batma riski ile karşı karşıya olması ve bunların batması halinde FDIC (Federal DepositInsurance Corporation)'inbunların mevduatını karşılayacak yeterli sigorta primine sahip olmaması meseleyi daha da vahimleştirmektedir.

Dolayısıyla mevcut durumda düşük faiz ve yüksek likidite döneminin sonuna gelinmiştir.Likidite ve kredi daralması ekonomik büyümenin düşmesine neden olacaktır. Küresel bankacılık sisteminin yeniden yapılanması sağlanacaktır. Yeni bir denetim ve gözetim sisteminin kurulması ile serbest piyasa ekonomisi

kurallı piyasa ekonomisi şekline dönüşebilecektir. Mevcut koşullar içinde Çokuluslu şirketlerin de yeniden yapılandırmadan geçtikleri görülmektedir.

4.3. Çok Uluslu Şirketlerde Üretim/in Küreselleşmesi

Küresel üretim, eskiden ulusal sahada iç pazarlara, kısıtlı olarak da uluslararası sahada dış pazarlara, arz eden ve daha çok seri üretim tekniği ile gerçekleştirilen klasik üretimin yerini, küresel pazarlara hitap etmek üzere almış olan üretim sistemidir. Günümüzde küresel üretim; örgütün yapıları, üretim tekniklerindeki yenilikler, yeni pazarlama yöntemleri, satış sonrası teknik destek sistemleri, gibi pek çok alt bileşeni de içerir.

Geçmişte yalnızca seri(kitlese) üretim söz konusu iken, günümüzde temel olarak iki farklı eğilim göze çarpmaktadır. Bazı araştırmacılar; “küreselleşme sürecinde tüketici davranışlarının, sosyal değerlerin ve teknolojilerin kullanımının dünya ölçeğinde aynılaştığını” (Akman, 1999:23)öne sürerken bazı araştırmacılar da, “kitle üretiminden sipariş usulü üretime, diğer bir deyişle müşteriye göre üretime (masscustomization)geçildiğini”(Güzeltik,1999:26)savunmaktadırlar. Ancak bu eğilimlerden yalnızca birini genellemek yerine; sektör, ürün, ya da tüketici faktörlerinin belirleyici olduğu göz önüne alınarak her iki yaklaşımında doğru olduğu düşünülebilir.

Üretimin küreselleşmesi, küresel ekonomik sistem çapında daha genel olarak incelendiğinde ise, oldukça farklı bir tablo ile karşılaşmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, küresel üretim; ‘farklı ülkelerdeki üretim faktörlerinin maliyet farklarından doğan avantajları kullanmaya yönelik bir organizasyon’ (Aktan,1999:20)olarak nitelendirilebilir. Burada kastedilen; küresel bir işletme, vergi avantajı bakımından üretimini X ülkesinde yapıyorken, üretim sürecindeki bir ara girdiyi daha düşük işçilik maliyetleri sağlaması bakımından B ülkesinde üretilmektedir. Bu konuda gözlenen bir başka eğilim de, özellikle gelişmiş ülkelerde uyanan çevre bilincinin bir sonucu olarak, bu ülke hükümetlerinin koyduğu yasal yaptırımlardan ve bu yaptırımların maliyetlerinden kaçınmak isteyen işletmelerin, kimi faaliyetlerini çevre bilincinin gelişmediği ülkelere kaydırmasıdır.

Üretimin küresel organizasyonu ise, küreselleşme sürecinde bir başka tartışma konusu olmuştur. Bu konuda R.Cox ilginç bir değerlendirme yapmaktadır.Cox’agöre; küresel üretimi organize eden iktisadi güç, uluslar ötesi yönetici sınıfı (transnationalmanagerialclass) olarak adlandırılan bir gruptur. Yazara göre söz konusu güç, kendi aralarında ekonomik ilişkileri belirginleşmiş, ortak hareket imkânı oluşturmak anlamında kurumları olan, kendilerinin devamlılığını sağlamak konusunda mekanizmalara sahip bir grup insandır. Uluslararası üretimin organizasyonu ile üretimin gerçekleştirilmesinde ulusal ya da uluslararası düzeyde birçok kesim bu yapı içinde organize olmaktadır. Grupyeleri, merkez ülke hükümetlerine (ABD,Almanya, Japonya) belirli iktisat siyasetlerini, çeşitli hedeflerin gerçekleştirilmesine yönelik olarak telkin etmektedirler. ‘Dışa açılmak’ söz konusu siyaset önerilerinde anahtar sözcüktür. Bubağlamda, çeşitli ülkelere ulke paralarının istikrarı ile siyasi anlamda istikrar talep edilmektedir.

5. Sonuç

Günümüzün dünyasında yaşanan ekonomide(çevresel, siyasal ve teknolojik gelişmeler ya da problemlerden dolayı), en çok telaffuz edilen üç kavram olan “Küreselleşme”, “ÇUŞ”ve”yoksulluk” üzerine kesin olarak belirlenmiş olumlu ve olumsuz yönleri için fikir birliğine varılamamaktadır. Bu kavramların geçmişte, günümüzde ve gelecekte olacak değişimlerde baş aktörler olacağı tüm toplum, kuruluş ve kurumların ortak düşüncesidir. Dünyada üzerinde en çok düşünülen, araştırma yapılan kavramlardan olan küreselleşmenin buna rağmen belli bir tanımı yoktur ve çıkış zamanındaki anlaşmazlıklar ve farklılıklar bulunmaktadır.

Uluslararası kuruluşların ve ÇUŞ’ların ortaya çıkmasında ve bunların dünyanın her yerine ulaşabilmesini sağlayan küreselleşme, bireyleri, toplumları ve ülkeleri her alana da dolaylı ve dolaysız olarak etkileyebilmektedir. Kavramsal olarak belli bir tanımı olmayan küreselleşmenin, ortaya çıkış sürecini hızlandıran faktörler, nedenler aynı zamanda küreselleşmenin sonuçlarını da doğurmaktadır.

Küreselleşmenin nedenleri olarak ekonomik, siyasal, çevresel, sosyoekonomik ve en önemlisi olan teknoloji etkenleri toplumun yaşadığı süreçler ile ortaya çıkarken, aynı zamanda bu nedenler ile toplumlar farklı kalıplara bürünmektedir. Küreselleşmenin etkilerinin her toplumu aynı oranda ve doğrultuda etkilemesinin mümkün olmaması sebebi ile küreselleşmeciler, küreselleşme karşıtları ve dönüşümcüler olmak üzere 3 ana farklı görüş bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte bütün görüşlerde çokuluslu şirketlerin yadsınamaz baskın rolü değişik açılardan da olsa vurgulanmaktadır.

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Uzman Liderliğin Örgüt Yönetimi Üzerine Etkileri Hakkında Kuramsal Bir Çalışma: Bir Uzman Lider Olarak Mustafa Kemal Atatürk'ün Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Devletini Organize Etme Örneği

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Özet: İnsanlar eski çağlardan bu yana hep yönetilme ihtiyacı duymuşlardır. İnsan toplulukları toplumları oluşturmuş toplumlar da yaşamlarını devam ettirebilmek için bir takım faaliyetler gerçekleştirmişlerdir. Özellikle temel ihtiyaçların karşılanması için çalışmışlardır. Bunu yaparken belirli kabiliyete sahip olanları o kabiliyetini kullanabilecek işlere yönlendirmişlerdir. Bu bazen kendiliğinden olmuş kimi zaman da toplumun zorlaması ile meydana gelmiştir. İnsan ihtiyaçlarının artması sonucu ise toplum kendi kendini yönetemez duruma gelmiş ve onu yönlendirecek bazı kişilere ihtiyaç duyulmuştur. Zamanla insanların ihtiyaçları sonucu çeşitli faaliyetlerde bulunan işletmeler kurulmuş, bu işletmeleri yönetmek için de yönetici kavramı ve daha modern çağlara yaklaştığımızda ise lider kavramı ortaya çıkmıştır.

21.yy da yönetim kavramı klasik yönetim anlayışından çıkarak daha modern bir yapıya bürünmüştür. Özellikle liderlik ve yönetici kavramı farklılaşarak birbirinden ayrılmıştır. Günümüzde lider dediğimiz zaman kendine özgü özellikleri olan ve bu özellikleri içinde hangisi ağır basıyorsa ona göre bir isim alan yönetici lider kavramı oluşmuştur. Bu yüzden uzmanlar yönetim kavramını çağdaş yönetim anlayışı kapsamında değerlendirerek çeşitli modeller ortaya atmışlardır. Bu çağdaş yönetim modelleri günümüzün yönetim uygulamalarını değerlendirerek daha detaylı bir şekilde isimlendirilmiştir. Uygulanan yönetim hangi modele daha yakınsa onun ismini almıştır.

Bu çalışmada liderlik açıklanarak, çağdaş liderlik modellerin neler olduklarına yer verilmiştir. Tarihsel gelişimleri ile ilgili bilgiler verilerek bu modellerden uzman liderlik ayrıntılı bir biçimde açıklanmaya çalışılmıştır. Uzman liderliğin ortaya çıkış noktası, bununla ilgili temel disiplinler ve bu liderliğin dayandığı bilimlerin neler olduğundan bahsedilmiştir.

Çalışmanın devamında uzman liderlik modelinin amacı ve bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmesi için liderin davranış kalıplarının neler oldukları anlatılmıştır. Değerleri ve etkinlikleri açıklanarak buna bağlı yeni modellerden bahsedilmiştir.

Çalışmanın son bölümünde ise Türkiye’de liderlik ve uzman liderlerden bahsedilmiştir. Günümüzdeki uygulamalarıyla ilgili örnekler verilmiştir. Sonuç kısmında da çağdaş liderlik modelleri, uzman liderlik ve Türkiye’deki uygulamalar hakkında değerlendirmeler yapılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik, Çağdaş Liderlik Teorileri, Uzman Lider, Türkiye’de Liderlik

A Theoretical Study on the Effects of Specialized Leadership on Organizational Management: The Case of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk’s Organization of Republic of Turkey

Abstract: Since ancient times, people always felt the need to be managed. Communities have created societies and societies have carried out a number of activities to maintain their lives. In particular, they have worked to meet their basic needs. In doing so, they have led those who have the ability to use their ability in specific works. This has sometimes happened spontaneously, and has sometimes happened by the force of society. As a result of increasing human needs, society has become inadequate to manage itself and needed to have someone for guidance. In time as a result of the needs of people, business involved in various activities have established and to manage those business the manager concept has come out and as we approach more modern times the leader concept has emerged. In 21st century the concept of management turned into a more modern structure from the classical management approach. In particular, differentiating the concept of leadership and managers are separated from each other. Today, when we say leader who has unique characteristics and according to this features, if whichever of these features outweighs the concept of business leaders formed a namespace. That's why experts assessing the scope of the management concept of modern management concept, have put forward a variety of models. This contemporary

management models, evaluating management practices today have been named in a more detailed way. Which model is closer to the applied management has taken its name.

In this study, leadership is explained and what the contemporary leadership models are mentioned. Information on the historical developments is given and the expert leadership model is explained in detail. The emergence point of the expert leadership and the basic disciplines and the sciences connected to this leadership are mentioned.

In the continuation of the study, the purpose of the model of expert leadership and what could be the leader's behavior patterns in order to achieve this objective are described. The values and effectiveness is explained and accordingly, the new models are discussed.

In the final part of the study, leadership and expert leaders in Turkey are mentioned. Examples are given regarding the present applications. In the conclusion, the contemporary leadership models, expert leadership and practices in Turkey are evaluated.

Key Words: Leadership, Contemporary Leadership Models, Expert Leadership, Leadership In Türkiye.

Giriş

İnsanoğlunun yaşadığı yıllar itibariyle yönetme ve yönetilme ile karşı karşıya kaldıkları, bir yönlendirici ihtiyacı içinde oldukları bilinmektedir. İnsanların birbiriyle ilişki içerisinde olup sürekli bir alışveriş halinde olması, bunları yaparken de hukuk kurallarının yanı sıra toplumun koyduğu kuralların olması yeterli olmamaktadır. Bir yandan bunları uygulatacak bir kişinin varlığı ihtiyacı doğmaktadır.

Liderlik birçok kişi tarafından tanımlanmış fakat tam olarak kabul edilen bir tanım henüz oluşmamıştır. Günümüzde de halen bunların farklı açılardan değerlendirmesi yapılmakta ve literatüre yeni tanımlar kazandırılmaktadır.

Bu çalışmada da liderliğin uzman yönüne ağırlık verilerek uzman liderlik anlatılmaya çalışılmıştır. Bu liderliğin ortaya çıkış noktası, diğer bilim dallarıyla olan ilişkisi vurgulanmış. Uzman liderin oluşturduğu farklı disiplinlere yer verilmiştir. Son bölümde de Türkiye uygulamasından örnek verilerek Mustafa Kemal Atatürk'ün liderlik yönünden bahsedilmiştir.

Liderlik

İnsanlar eski çağlardan bu yana hep yönetilme ihtiyacı duymuşlardır. İnsan toplulukları toplumları oluşturmuş toplumlar da yaşamlarını devam ettirebilmek için bir takım faaliyetler gerçekleştirmişlerdir. Özellikle temel ihtiyaçların karşılanması için çalışmışlardır. Bunu yaparken belirli kabiliyete sahip olanları o kabiliyetini kullanabilecek işlere yönlendirmişlerdir. Bu bazen kendiliğinden olmuş kimi zaman da toplumun zorlaması ile meydana gelmiştir. İnsan ihtiyaçlarının artması sonucu ise toplum kendi kendini yönetemez duruma gelmiş ve onu yönlendirecek bazı kişilere ihtiyaç duyulmuştur. Zamanla insanların ihtiyaçları sonucu çeşitli faaliyetlerde bulunan işletmeler kurulmuş, bu işletmeleri yönetmek için de yönetici kavramı ve daha modern çağlara yaklaştığımızda ise lider kavramı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Liderlik, sosyal bilimlerin (psikoloji, sosyoloji, siyaset bilimi) ortak inceleme konularındandır. Fakat liderliğin tam olarak ne olduğu, ne anlama geldiği konusunda hala ortak bir görüşe varılamamıştır. Farklı açılardan tanımlanabilen ve analiz edilen bir olgu haline gelmiştir. Nasıl ki bir nesneye farklı açılardan bakıldığında onun farklı özellikleri görüldüğü gibi liderlik olgusuna da farklı yönlerden yaklaşıldığında, onun farklı biçimlerde analiz edilip tanımlanması doğal karşılanabilir. Buna göre liderlik yönetim biliminin bir konusu ve iş yaşamıyla ilgili bir kavram olduğu kadar, psikolojik, sosyolojik, politik, askeri, felsefi, tarihsel açılardan ele alınıp analiz edilebilen bir olgu olmaktadır(Şişman, 2002).

İnsanlar yönetilme ihtiyacını yöneticiler ve liderler sayesinde yapabilmişlerdir. Liderlik ve yöneticilik kavramları birbirine çok yakın kavramlar gibi görünse de birbiri ile aynı değildir. Lider, bir grubu belirli amaçlar etrafında toplayabilen, bu amaçlar için onları etkileyen, harekete geçiren ve bunu kişisel yetenekleri ile yapabilen kişidir. Buradan anlaşılacağı gibi liderliğin temel özelliği başkalarını etkileyebilme ve onları davranışa yönlendirebilme oluşturmaktadır. Kısacası lider; başkalarını etkileyebilen, nereye, nasıl gidileceğini gösteren, hedef ve misyon koyan yani yol gösteren rehber bir kişidir. Yönetici ise, başkaları tarafından o pozisyona getirilmiş, başkaları adına çalışan, önceden belirlenmiş hedeflere ulaşmak için çaba

gösteren, işleri planlayan, uygulatan ve denetleyen kişidir. Ödül ve cezaya dayalı yasal gücü vardır(Sabuncuoğlu ve Tüz, 1998)

İşletme yöneticilerinin ilgilenmek zorunda oldukları önemli konulardan birisi de liderlik (önderlik) konusudur. Yöneticilerin liderlik yapmaları gerektiği anlayışı, konunun önemini daha da arttırmaktadır. Yani yöneticilerin, kendilerine verilen sorumluluklar ve resmi görevlerinin niteliği dolayısıyla liderlik yapmaları, liderlik vasıflarına sahip olmaları beklenmektedir(Koçel, 2011).

Liderlik Teorileri

Liderlik kavramı ile ilgili çeşitli bilim adamları tarafından farklı şekillerde tanımlanmaktadır. 2000 li yıllara kadar yapılan liderlik teorileri ile ilgili yaklaşımlar modern liderlik yaklaşımlarına da temel dayanak oluşturur. Örneğin; Rana Özen Kutanis liderlik teorilerini şöyle sınıflar:

- 1.Özellikler Yakşalımı
- 2.Davranışsal Yaklaşım
 - a) Kurt Lewin'in Klasik ayrımı
 - b)Ohio State Üniversitesi Araştırmaları
 - c)Michigan Üniversitesi Araştırmaları
 - d)Harvard Üniversitesi Araştırmaları
 - e) Robert Blake ve Jeanne Mouton'ın Yönetim Biçim Ölçeği
- 3.X ve Y yaklaşımları
- 4.Sistem 4 Yaklaşımı
- 5.Gary Yukl'un Liderlik Davranış Modelleri (Kutanis,2009).

Çağdaş Liderlik Modelleri

2000'li yıllardan itibaren liderlik modelleri daha farklı şekillerde tanımlanmaya çalışılmıştır. Buna etki eden temel faktörler şüphesiz liderde var olan bir takım özelliklerden kaynaklanmıştır. Bu özelliklerden bir ya da bir kaçının ön plana çıkması ile ve modelin o özelliğin ismini alması sonucu çağdaş liderlik teorileri ortaya çıkmıştır.

Çağdaş liderlik teorilerini sıralayan Prof.Dr. İsmail Dalay bu teorilerini şu şekilde tanımlamıştır;

- 1.Toplam Kalite Liderliği
- 2.Hizmetkar Liderlik
- 3.Etkin Liderlik
- 4.Tasarımcı Liderlik
- 5.Sistem Liderliği
- 6.Uzman Liderlik
- 7.Vizyoner Liderlik
- 8.Katılımcı Liderlik
- 9.Ruhani Liderlik
- 10.Karizmatik Liderlik
- 11.Holistik Liderlik

12.Sosyal Sorumluluk Liderliği

13.Küresel liderlik

14.Pozitif Değişim Liderliği (www.ismaildalay.blogspot.com.tr).

Uzman Liderlik

Bireyler, organizasyonlar ve toplumlar, geçmişi hatırlamak, günü izlemek ve geleceği öngörebilmek amacıyla bilgiye gereksinim duymaktadırlar. Günlük yaşamın vazgeçilmez iletişim aracı olan bilgi, yönetim ve organizasyon süreçlerinin en temel; sosyo-ekonomik yaşamın en stratejik kaynağı olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Bilginin egemen olduğu toplumsal ve ekonomik yaşam; kapsamlı gelişim, etkin bilgi üretimi ve aktarımı, ileri teknoloji kullanımı ve hızlı iletişim nitelikleri ile yapılandırılmış bir süreç olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır(Öğüt, ,2003.)

Bilgi toplumu, bilginin temel üretim faktörü olarak değerlendirildiği, bilgi sektöründe etkinlik gösterenlerin çalışanların çoğunluğunu oluşturduğu ve yaşam boyu öğrenmenin kaçınılmaz hale geldiği, bilgi ve teknoloji tabanlı toplumsal ve ekonomik bir aşamadır. Bilgi çağına geçiş süreciyle birlikte ivme kazanan teknolojik değişimler, organizasyonlarda bilgi ve uzmanlık temelinde uzlaşmayı sağlamakta ve çağdaş organizasyon yönetimleri, değişik uzmanlık bilgi ve yeteneğine sahip katılımcılardan oluşmaktadır. Bilgi çağı ile sürekli güncelleştirilen ileri bilgi ve yönetim teknolojilerinin, organizasyon yapıları, insan kaynakları, yönetim sistemleri ve kurumsal alt-sistemler üzerindeki etkilerinden daha kapsamlıdır. Bilgi; kurumsal karar verme, planlama, strateji oluşturma ve denetleme gibi süreçlerin en temel girdisidir. Teknoloji ise, ürünleri ya da hizmetleri değer katarak dönüştüren bilgidir. Bilginin, yönetim ve organizasyon süreçlerinde temininden, çıktı biçimine dönüştürülmesine kadar tüm boyut ve düzeylerde kullanımını kapsayan “ bilgi yönetimi” önemi yadsınamaz bir olgudur. Teknoloji yönetimi ise; bir organizasyonun stratejik, taktik ve operasyonel amaçlarının biçimlendirilmesinde ve bunlara ulaşılmasında gereksinim duyulan teknolojik kapasitenin planlanması, geliştirilmesi ve uygulanmasıdır. Doğru bilgi ve teknolojiyi, doğru yerde ve doğru zamanda sağlamak ve kullanmak biçiminde özetlenebilecek etkin bilgi ve teknoloji yönetimi, bilgi çağı organizasyon yönetimlerinin vazgeçilmez stratejik hedefidir (Öğüt, 2003.)

Uzman Liderliğin Ortaya Çıkış Noktası

Bilgi çağında organizasyon yönetimleri, insan kaynaklarının ve müşterilerinin gereksinimlerini, bu gereksinimlerin nasıl karşılanması gerektiğini sürekli olarak araştırmak ve değerlendirmek durumundadır. Diğer yandan, organizasyonların özel bir konuda teknolojik bilgi birikimi oluşturarak ve müşterilerin vizyonu ve değerlerini, kendi vizyon ve değerleriyle bütünleştirerek, kurumsal bilgiye dayanan rekabet stratejileri gelişmeleri gerekebilir.(Arat, s.104, 1998). 1900’lü yıllarda yapılan XXI. Yüzyılda organizasyonların rekabetçi yönetim stratejileri büyük ölçüde, bilgi ve telekomünikasyon teknolojileri, sektörel yeniden yapılanmalar ve yeni sektörel oluşumların etkisi altında olacaktır (Bradley, Hausman, Nolan, 1993.)

Bilgi çağına geçiş sürecinde, geleneksel yönetim anlayışı yetersiz hale gelmekte ve gittikçe daha fazla yıpranmaya (managerial obsolescence) uğramaktadır.(Türkmen, İ. S.79) Çağımızda, organizasyonlar dünyasının, özellikle tüketici beklentileri ve teknolojik yenilik boyutlarında hızla dönüşen çevresel faktörler, organizasyon yönetimlerinin karşısına, bilgi yıpranması (knowledge erosion) olarak nitelendirilen aşılması güç sorunlar çıkarmıştır (Bramonrski, Gosepund, Madan, Motwani , 1998)

Hızlı gelişen teknoloji konseptiyle birlikte, organizasyon yönetim sistemlerinin vurgu noktalarında kaymalar gözlemlenmiştir. Klasik yönetim yaklaşımı bağlamında en temel vurgu, iş veriminin artırılması için faaliyetlerin farklılaştırılması ve bölümlendirilmesi(iş bölümü ve uzmanlaşma) gereği üzerinde olmuştur. Ancak, hızlı teknolojik gelişmeler bu bölümlenmiş işlevlerin eşgüdümlemesini ve bütünsel bir açıdan düzenlenmesini gerekli kılmaktadır (Kast, Rosenzweigs, 1985)

Toffer’e göre; sanayi çağı organizasyonları az bilgili organizasyonlardır ve ikinci dalgaya özgüdürler. Bilindiği gibi, az bilgili organizasyonlarda, zihinsel etkinlik genellikle tepe yönetiminde yoğunlaşmakta ve

diğer yönetici ve çalışanlar ise emek-yoğun etkinlik gerçekleştirmektedirler. Bilgi çağında, üçüncü dalga ekonomisi yürürlüktedir. Üçüncü dalga dönemini tecrübe eden bütün organizasyonlar, yönetim süreçlerinde ve kurumsal işleyişte bilginin rolünü yeniden düşünmek ve değerlendirmek durumundadırlar(Toffler, 1981).

Bilgi çağında teknoloji ve bileşim sitemleri en üst noktada kullanılırken bunları planlayacak, yönetecek, uygulayacak bilgili yöneticilere ihtiyaç duyulmuştur. Bu yöneticiler de seçim aşamasında işinde uzmanlaşmış, bilgili, yönetim organizasyonunu başarılı bir şekilde yürütecek liderler içinden seçilir. Uzman liderin çıkış noktası, bilgi sistem teknolojilerinin yoğun kullanıldığı günümüzde rutin ve mekanik işlerin yerine, zekaya ve yaratıcılığa dayanan mesleklerin almasıdır. Bu mesleklerin yönlendirilmesi için de işinde uzman, bilgili yöneticilere gereksinim duyulmuştur. Liderin sahip olduğu özelliklerinden biri olan uzmanlık gücü önem kazanmış, bu özelliğiyle baskın olan liderlik kavramı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Temel Disiplinler, Bu Liderliğin Dayandığı Bilimler Nelerdir?

Kurum ve kuruluşlar, geçmişi hatırlamak, bugünü izlemek ve geleceği öngörebilmek amacıyla bilgiye gereksinim duymaktadırlar. Bilginin temel kullanım amacı, karar alma işlevine destek sağlamaktır. Günümüzde bilgi, ekonomide en temel kaynak olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Doğal kaynaklar, sermaye, girişim gücü ve işgücünden oluşan geleneksel üretim faktörleri, günümüzde ikincil öneme sahip olmuşlardır. Bu kaynakları belirli düzeyde sağlandığı müddetçe kolayca elde etmek mümkün olabilmektedir. Bilgi dışındaki üretim faktörleri bölüşüldükçe azalmaktadır. Bilgi ise bölüşüldükçe çoğalmakta ve kendini yenilemektedir (Yücel, 1997).

Bilgi çağı ile birlikte yaygınlaşan küreselleşme ve uluslararası rekabete açılma, yönetim ve insan faktörünün, çalışma normlarını, yeni kurumsal hedef ve stratejilere doğru yönlendirmektedir. Organizasyon içinde en tepe yöneticiden en alt düzeyde çalışana kadar, bireyi, çalışmayı, çalışma yaşamı ve ortamını ve statüleri etkilemekte ve organizasyonlarda çalışan insan kaynaklarıyla birlikte işletmeyi etkilemektedir (Ersen,1997)

İşletmeyi tüm yönleriyle ele aldığımız zaman özellikle bilgi, uzmanlık, gözlem ve araştırma, teknoloji, ARGE, derinlik, uzmanlaşma, bilim, teknik, bilgi teknolojileri, bilişim, knowhow, bilgi yönetimi gibi kavramlar ön plana çıkmıştır. Bunları ilgilendiren bilimlerle ilişki içindedir. Özellikle bilgi teknolojileri ve bilişim gibi temel disiplinlerle ilgilidir(Erdal, 2007).

Bu Liderlik Modelinin Amacı

Bu liderlik modelinin amaçları şöyle sıralanabilir;

1) Objektif gözlem ve bilgi toplama gücü

Lider olaylara yansız olarak bakabilmeli ve karar verirken yansız bir şekilde kadar verebilmelidir, bilgileri toplayarak en son değerlendirmeyi yapar.

2) Bilgi yığınları ve kirliliği içerisinde rotayı belirleme, bilgiyi temizleme, işleme, depolama, sınıflandırma (data mining, veri tabanları...)

Bilgiyi kullanırken lider fazla bilgi kalabalığı yapmaktan da çekinmeli işe yarayan, problemi çözen ve hedefe yönelik bilgileri kullanabilmeli.

3)Knowhow: Bir alandaki uygulamaların arkasındaki ve temelindeki bütün bilgi birikimi

Lider geldiği noktada şimdiye kadar olan her türlü bilgisini biriktirerek, şekillendirerek güçlü bir yapı oluşturmali.

4)Tacit knowledge: Bilginin yazıya dökülemeyen deneyimsel ve stratejik boyutu(düşünme araçları, tecrübe, birikim...)

Bazen bilgi sadece yazıya dökülmeden de stratejik olarak kullanılabilir. Problemler karşısında anında müdahale etmek, ya da taktik geliştirmek olabilir.

5) Kontrol gücü: Rakamlarla denetim, bütçe kontrolleri...

Liderin yine bilgisine dayanarak kontrol yapması gerekir. Örneğin işletmenin bütçesini, muhasebe kayıtların incelemesi gibi.

6) Tahmin gücü: Modelleme, geleceği kurgulama, senaryo üretme, karar ağaçları.

Liderin yaşanan olaylar çerçevesinde tecrübelerle sonraki olayları tahmin eder, ona benzer senaryolar üretir ve çözüm için karar verir(www.ismaildalay.blogspot.com.tr-)

Bu Amacın Gerçekleştirilmesi İçin Liderin Davranış Kalıpları

Uzmanlık gücü, çalışanların liderlerinin bilgisi ve duruma göre en iyi tepki verebilme konusundaki algılarına bağlıdır. Bir liderin uzmanlık gücü, fikirleri yüksek bir başarı sağladığı zaman artar; lider başarısızlığa neden olan bir karar verdiğinde ya da hatalar yaptığında da azalır. Bundan dolayı liderlik, uzman gücü artırmak için yetkiyi ve deneyimi teşvik etmelidir, dikkatsiz ifadeler kullanmaktan ve aceleci kararlar vermekten kaçınmalıdır. Lider, teknik konular ve işi etkileyen dış faktörler hakkında bilgilenmeyi sürdürmelidir. Bir kriz anında sakin kalmak, düşünceli ve güvenli davranmak gerekir. Kararsız görünen, sürekli karar değiştiren ya da paniğe kapılan bir lider, uzmanlık gücünü kısa sürede kaybedecektir. Lider, işi en iyi yapabilmenin yollarını düşünmeli ve olabilecek riski en aza indirmek için hangi adımların atılacağını bilmelidir (Mullins, Buchanan and Huczynski, 1995).

Liderin davranış kalıpları öncelikle bilgiye dayanmalıdır. Bilgi ile birlikte teknoloji de beraberinde gelmektedir. Bilgi çağında teknolojiden söz etmemek imkansızdır. Liderin özellikle algısının açık olması ve gözlemlerini buna göre yapabilmesi şarttır. Gözlem yapma yeteneği liderin olayları olduğu gibi gözlemleyerek bunlar karşısında doğru yorumlar yapma ve problemlere çözüm bulması ile ilişkilidir. Ayrıca bu getirdiği yorumlar veya çözümler doğrultusunda hesap verebilir olmalıdır. Şeffaf olmalıdır. Araştırılmaya açık olmalıdır. Kendisi sonuçları iyi analiz ederek neden ve sonuçlar arasında bağlantı kurarak hareket etmelidir. Hesap odaklı olmalıdır. Yani planlanan bir organizasyonun sonuçlarının iyi hesap edilebilmesi, atılacak adımların önceden net bir şekilde planlanıp düşünülmesi ve uygulanması gerekir.

Uzman Liderliğe Bağlı Yeni Modeller

Muzaffer Ergezen lideri şöyle tanımlar; Lider, toplumun büyük çoğunluğunu etkileyen bir tehlike anında; doğal kişisel karar verme yeteneği ile bir yasal dayanağı olmasa bile mevcut toplumsal ve ferdi kaynakları toplum yararına kullanarak toplumun büyük çoğunluğunu arzularına kavuşturan kişiler liderdir. Lider, kendi arzularını topluma kabul ettiren veya toplumun arzularını gerçekleştirmek amacıyla, bir dış etki sonunda ortaya çıkan kişidir (Ergezen, 2008).

Bir yöneticinin dünyası günümüzde çok karmaşık, belirsiz, hızlı, kaotik ve çok değişkenlidir. Bu dünyaya anlam verebilmek için, birbirinden farklı perspektifleri, bilgi parçacıklarını ve bakış açılarını bir arada düşünebilmek ve sentez yapmak gerekiyor. İşletme, yönetim, liderlik ve organizasyon konularındaki bilgileri sentezleyen, organize eden ve bütüncül olarak ele alan yeni bir model ortaya çıktı bunun adı da Yönetimde Dokuz Kişilik (KEY) modeli. Bunlar; Toplam kalite liderliği, Hizmetkar liderlik, Etkin liderlik, Tasarımcı liderlik, Uzman liderlik, Sistem liderlik, Vizyoner liderlik, Karizmatik liderlik, Katılımcı liderlik, Modeldeki her boyut yönetimin farklı alanlarına işaret ediyor. Her boyutta ayrı bir liderlik tarzı var. Her boyutta ayrı bir yönetici örnek vaka olarak ele alınıyor. Her boyut organizasyona farklı bir açıdan bakıyor. Fakat hep beraber ele alındığında bu dokuz boyut yönetime ve liderliğe bütüncül ve geniş bir açıdan bakmamızı sağlıyor. Yöneticiler ve profesyoneller bütün boyutlara hakim oldukları zaman büyük resme hakim olabiliyor ve çok daha sağlıklı karar verebiliyorlar

(www.ismaildalay.blogspot.com.tr-).

Değerler ve Etkinlikler, Bu Modeli Uygulayacak Liderin Değerleri ve Yetkinlikleri

Uzman liderin davranış kalıplarının ilki derin düşünebilmeli, yani olaylara ayrıntılı bir bakış açısıyla bakarak her yönden irdeleyebilmeli. İkinci değer yargısı anlama. Olaylar ya da kişiler üzerinde anlama yetisinin olması. Olayları anlama ya da insan davranışını anlama. Tam olarak ne istediğini çözebilmelidir. Üçüncü değer yargısı öğrenmedir. Yani sürekli kendini yenileyerek bilgisine bilgi katmalıdır. Yeniliklere açık öğrenmeye açık olmalıdır. Bilginin alınması ve uygulanması konusunda beyni açık, istekli ve zeki olmalıdır. Dördüncü değer yargısı hikmet sahibi ve öngörülü olabilmelidir. Liderin kurumlara karşı zihinsel, algısal, analitik, rasyonel yaklaşım sergileyebilmelidir. Olaylara akılcı yaklaşmalı, analitik düşünerek problemleri farklı şekillerden ele alarak mantıklı rasyonel çözümler üretebilmelidir (www.ismaildalay.blogspot.com.tr).

Osman Uysal Liderliğin Anatomisi kitabında liderde bulunması gereken özellikleri şöyle sıralamıştır:

Bağlılık ve sevgi; Lider sadık olmalıdır, iyi bir dinleyici olmalıdır. Başkaları ile aynı fikirde olmamak, sadık olmamak değildir. Başka kültürlere, inanç ve geleneklere karşı duyarlı olmalıdır. Değişime ayak uydurabilmelidir. Önyargılı tutum ve davranışlardan kaçınmalı, sezinlemeli ve onlara pirim vermemelidir.

Cesaret ve Kararlılık; Lider cesur ve korkusuzdur. Lider oluşan ve oluşabilecek tehlikelerde, cesaretle hareket etmelidir. Ne zaman harekete geçeceğini ve duracağını bilmeli, kararlı olmalıdır. Hedeflerini tekrar gözden geçirmeli ve hedefe ulaşabilecek yeni çıkış yolları bulup, ekibini sürekli aydınlatmalıdır.

Karar Verme; Doğru işi yapma isteğidir. Anlamadığın, detaylandıramadığın konu hakkında hüküm vererek araştırıp inceler ve daha sonra çevreni ikna etmelidir. Kararsızlık, mevkiin sorumluluğunu kabul etmemek ve yenilgi anlamına gelir. Karar verme sorumluluğunu üstlenmeyen ya da kötü kararlar için başkalarını suçlayan bir idareci, liderliğin temel gereklerinden yoksundur.

Duygusallık, Tahmin; Oluşması muhtemel düş kırıklığı ve cesaretsizlikten, görüş açılarını değiştirmeden sınırlanabilmelidir. Gözlem ve önseziler yoluyla elde edilen birikimlerini tam ve zamanında uygulamalıdır.

Oluşabilecek muhtemel olayları önceden sezmeli ve önlemlerini tasarlamalıdır.

Sorumluluk, Koruyuculuk, Doğruluk; Başarı ve hüsrana ne kadar büyük olursa olsun, kendi başarı ve hatalarından dolayı başkalarını tutmamalıdır. Söz ve hareketleri, dost ve düşmanlarını inandırıcı olmalıdır. Güvenilirlikten yoksun liderler, bulundurulduğu mevkiden azledilmelidir. İnanırlığından şüphe edilen lider, inandırıcı da olamaz. Amaç ve hedefler doğrultusunda, hizmet verdikleri kişilerin çıkarlarını korumalıdır.

İsrarcılık; Zayıf insanlar, ancak işler kendi istedikleri gibi gittiği zaman ortalıkta görünürler. Güçlüler, herkes kendisini bıraksa dahi, cesaret ve yenilgiyi kabullenmez. İsrarla direnirler. Astlarına devamlı hedefi işaret edip sevk ve idarede zafiyete düşmezler. Daima göz önünde ve hedefe kilitlenmiş olarak yürüyüşlerine devam ederler.

Başarı; Her çeşit düş ve cesaret kırıklığını yenen, zorlu çalışmalar sonucunda oluşan edinimler lideri motive eder. Başarı; karmaşık stratejiler ve taktiklerle kafa karıştırma yerine, görevini tam ve eksiksiz yerine getirmek, sorumluluğun bilincinde olmak, gidilecek limanın rotasından bir an bile sapmamakla elde edilir. Başarı elde edilen işleri iş ve görev olduğu inancında olarak görmeli başarıyı deşifre edebilmelidir. Aksi takdirde başarıyı sanki başarısızlık gibi izlenim yayılabilir.

Saygı; Üst mevkilere ve astlara saygı göstermek saygınlıktır. İletişimi perçinler ve zenginleştirir. Aynı düzeydekilerin birbirlerine gösterdikleri saygı akıllılıktır. Bireylerin birbirleriyle olan iletişimleri, işlerin sağlıklı biçimde uygulanmasının önünü açar.

Yetki devri; Yargı, deneyim ve yapılan görevin karmaşıklığı, yetkilerin dağıtımını gerekli kılar. Yetki, sorumluluk ile beraber devredilmelidir. Bu, o yetkinin daha bilinçli ve doğru kullanılmasını sağlar. Burada ast ile üst arasında bir yetki ve sorumluluk çatışması değil, çakışması görülür. Asta devredilen yetki ve sorumluluk, üstün yetki ve sorumluluğundan bir şey eksiltmez. Astın yapabileceği bir yanıştan liderin kendisi de sorumludur. Bundan dolayı lider, yetki ve sorumluluk verdiği bireyleri iyi denetlemeli ve kontrol etmelidir. Lider yetkisini devretse dahi, sorumluluktan kurtulmaz. Lider ileri görüşlü olmalı ve davranışlarını bu yönde düzenlemelidir (Uysal, 2007).

Türkiye’de Liderlik ve Uzman Lider Mustafa Kemal Atatürk

Siyaset bilimindeki yakın yıllardaki çalışmalar, siyasi liderliği değişik biçimlerde tanımlar. Bu çalışmalarda, siyasi liderliğin asgari düzeyde iki kritik unsuru gerektirdiği konusunda, genel olarak kabul gören ortak bir görüş vardır. İktidar gücünün kullanılması ve liderle taraftarları arasındaki özel bir ilişki; ,iktidar, çoğu liderlik tanımında son derece önemli bir rol oynar ve siyasi liderlere genellikle başkalarını etkileme ve onları denetleme vasıtalarına sahip güç kullanıcıları olarak bakılır. Örneğin Jean Blondell siyasi liderliği, “bir ulusun mensuplarını harekete geçirmek üzere bir ya da birkaç kişi tarafından kullanılan güç” olarak tanımlanır.” Bu konuyla ilgili çoğu araştırma, liderliğin sadece liderlik karakterini değil, liderle taraftarları arasında bir ilişki gerektirdiğini de vurgular. James MacGregor Burns’e göre “liderlik, belli motifleri ve amaçları olan, başkalarıyla rekabet ya da çelişki içindeki insanların, kurumsal, siyasi, psikolojik ve diğer kaynakları, taraftarlarının motiflerini harekete geçirecek ve tatmin edecek biçimde seferber ettiği zamanlarda ortaya çıkar”(MacGregor,1978).

Liderlerin, Türkiye’deki siyasi gelişimlerin seyrindeki ağırlığı, tek faktör olmasa da büyük ölçüde bu liderlerin parti örgütleri üzerindeki neredeyse mutlak denetiminden kaynaklanır. Seçimlerde milletvekili adaylarının kim olacağını belirleyen, siyasal patronajın nasıl dağılacığı konusunda baş seçici olan, son derece geniş bir formel otorite (merkez yürütme liderliğine karşı çıkan mahalli birimleri feshetmeye ve muhalif parti üyelerini örgütten atmaya yarayan yasal araçlar gibi) kullanan parti liderleri, böylelikle örgütse otonomiyi kısıtlayarak, ellerine muazzam bir güç geçirmiş olurlar. (Heper ve Sayarı, 2008).

Türkiye Cumhuriyeti’ni 1923’te kurup, ülkesinin yeni sınırlarını çizen ve ona 1924’te bir anayasa armağan eden Mustafa Kemal Atatürk’ün tarihte sarsılmaz bir yeri vardır. Egemenliğin ulusa ait olduğu yasama ve yürütme erklerinin tamamının seçilmiş bir meclis eliyle kullanıldığı anayasada teminat altına alınmış olmakla birlikte, Atatürk Cumhuriyeti bilinçli ve tüm olumsuz etkilere karşı korumaya alarak akıllı bir şekilde yönetti. Yönetim biçimi, kişiliğinden, Türk ulusal hareketinin lideri olarak yaşadığı deneyimlerden ve yaşadığı dönemde hüküm süren fikir ve güçlerden de kaçınılmaz olarak etkilenmiştir.(Heper ve Sayarı. Çev: Zuhâl Bilgin, s:16.)

Atatürk’ün eğitim hayatına bakacak olursak iyi okullarda okuyarak yüksek başarılar elde etmiştir. Selanik’te sivil rüştiyeden sonra askeri rüştiyeye daha sonra Manastır’da askeri idadiye ve oradan İstanbul’da Harbiye’ye geçti. Buradan kurmay yüzbaşı rütbesiyle mezun oldu. Yaşadığı yıllar boyunca sayısız kitap okudu. Kendini geliştirdi ve en iyi liderlik vasıflarına kendini geliştirerek tam olarak sahip oldu. Olaylara gerçekçi bir gözle bakardı bu yüzden de Osmanlının son zamanları olan o dönemde artık Osmanlı devletinin hiçbir zaman eskisi gibi olamayacağını biliyordu. Çözüm olarak ta kafasında tasarladığı planları uygulamaya geçti. Fakat bunları yaparken sırf kendi isteklerine ulaşmak için etrafındakileri ve askerlerini kazanamayacağı başarısız olacağı savaflara girmelerine izin vermedi. İnandı fakat gerçekçi ve ileri görüşlü yapısıyla hareket etti. Kişisel cesaretinin yanında tedbiri de elinden bırakmadı, hedefine ulaşmak için muhalifleri yavaş yavaş azalttı. Hiçbir zaman ordusunu boş yere tehlikeye atmadı.

Atatürk’ün liderliği yüksek bilgi gücü ve deneyimin yanında amacına uygun stratejik adımlar sergileyen bir yapıdaydı. Kendi liderliğinde çağdaş, uygar bir ulusal Türk devletinin yaratılmasına sıkı sıkı bağlıydı. Atatürk mükemmel bir yöneticiydi. Karar vermeden önce görüş alır, ardından kendi düşüncesini oluşturur ve kararlarını uygulamaya geçirirdi. Yardımcılarını nasıl yetki devredip harekete geçireceğini gayet iyi bilirdi. Yanında çalışanlara sorumluluklarını yerine getirmede geniş bir alan tanıyıp önemsiz ayrıntılarla kendini meşgul etmezdi. Yardımcılarını seçerken çok titiz davranır, liyakate değer verirdi. Ehil olmadığına inandıklarını görevden almakta tereddüt etmezdi. Ayrıca usta ve başarılı bir komutandı. (Heper ve Sayarı, 2008).

Sonuç

Liderliğin eski tanımlamalarından farklı olarak özellikle dokuz pencereden bakış açısıyla baktığımızda liderin özelliklerinin ayrı ayrı bir lider kalıbı oluşturduğunu görüyoruz. Bunların farklı alanlarda farklı durumlara göre şekillendiğini izleyebiliyoruz.

Günümüz 21.y.y'ında özellikle küreselleşmenin de getirdiği etkiler kapsamında artık insan gücünün yerini özellikle makinaların aldığı bir ortamda özellikle bilginin ön planda olduğunu görmekteyiz. Bilginin pazarlanması önemlilik arz etmektedir. Bu durumda bilgi tüm kavramlardan öncelikli olarak kullanıldığını ve çok değerli olduğunu varsayarsak liderlerin bu özelliğinin çok önemli olduğunu görürüz. Bu nedenle uzman liderlik kavramı ortaya çıkmış liderliği tanımlayan kişiler liderin bu özelliği üzerinde durmuşlardır.

Uzman liderliğinde bu liderlik tanımlarından biri olduğu ve kişinin özellikle bilgisine dayandığını, analitik düşünebilen, bilgi ve tecrübesiyle olaylara çözüm arayan, pragmatik, bilgi odaklı, maddi testlerle kanıtları elde edip, bunları yorumlayan lider tipidir.

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Dynamics Of Bank Transactions Of Money And Currency Markets In Bulgaria In Recent Years

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Abstract: Credit institutions are key players in trade with short-term financial instruments in foreign currencies. In the research report are characterized banking transactions conducted on different segments of the monetary and foreign exchange markets in Bulgaria. They were examined changes in volume and structure of bank transactions on these markets in the country in recent years through the use of tools of horizontal and vertical analysis.

Keywords: banking transactions, money market, foreign exchange market

Credit institutions in our country conclude various transactions in the monetary and foreign exchange markets. In these markets are traded many short-term financial instruments. Most often these are different commercial paper, treasury bills, repurchase agreements, deposit certificates, currency etc.¹

The research object is banking transactions conducted on different segments of the monetary and foreign exchange markets and **the object of study** are changes in the volume and structure of bank transactions on these markets in the country in recent years through the use of tools of horizontal and vertical analysis.

The aim of the research report is to establish what is the bank's role in the development of the market for short-term financial instruments and foreign currencies in Bulgaria in recent years.

The participation of banks in transactions with trading securities is carried at **discounting** the latter in the credit institution. Key representatives are bill of exchange and promissory notes. In practice discounting is selling the policy of the bank before the date of payment. In this case, the seller of the policy receives the difference between the nominal value and due to the bank's interest rate (discount).

In terms of discounting bank is comparable to the provision of credit that is repaid at maturity by the payer of the policy. Specific of **discounted deal** is that in its implementation is manifested credit nature of a bill of exchange and trade credit is transformed into a bank. Collateral for it is the policy that must be Pre-examined and possibly availed. If the discount supplying credit commercial bank fell into liquidity difficulties, credit can be re-discounted or to rediscount the policy at the central bank and thus to provide the necessary financial resources.

Discounting bank assume the right to receive the amount of the bill of exchange not only by the direct debtor (payer) but also by all jointly and severally liable persons for its part. These persons are usually the guarantor (avalistat), the publisher and previous endorsers. Therefore the risk of insolvency of the debtor is transferred to other - third parties. Except that, the Bank does not accept for² discounting policies, not acceptances. The bank may require the provision of certain information from the acceptor, from the guarantor and from the issuer to assess their financial situation. If their financial situation is good, bank credit is granted if unstable this loan was not granted.

T-bills are short-term securities issued by individual countries, which cover the shortage of funds in the state budget in order to ensure normal functioning of institutions on budget. In our country they are issued by the Ministry of Finance, as their maturity is one year (usually 3 months, 6 months, 9 months and

¹ See as Default: Asenova, M. and others, Financial markets, Publishing „Avangard print“, Rousse, 2008, pp. 33-37.

² See: Art. 1, para. 2 of Ordinance №5 on the terms and conditions for the acquisition, registration, payment and trading in government securities issued by the Ministry of Finance and BNB prom. SG. 85 of October 23, 2007, effective November 1, 2007

12 months). These securities, bear to its holder income in the form of a discount from their nominal value and therefore also are called discount government securities.

Generally, treasury bills are **dematerialized government securities**, because they exist in the form of accounting and electronic records in software systems evidencing ownership.² They are sold in the primary market through auctions organized and held by Bulgarian National Bank. Participants are the primary dealers of government securities. These are commercial banks, promoted each year by the Minister of Finance.

A government security trading becomes the secondary market, wherever they are concluded with the following types of **transactions**:³

- purchase and sale of securities;
- transfer of government securities without movement on current accounts with the BNB;
- transfer of government securities with repurchase after a predetermined period (repos) which can be performed both with and without movement on current accounts with the BNB.

Participants in the trading of treasury bonds are commercial banks, investment firms, central depositories of the EU Member States, Bulgarian National Bank, members of the European System of Central Banks, the Ministry of Finance as well as other physical persons and legal entities.

Repos are agreements for transferring securities in exchange for counter loan, in which the seller commits to repurchase them at a specified price on a specified future date. The agreement is repo for those countries which is selling the securities, and reverses repo for that country, which is buying them.⁴

In practice, these transactions are ensured fulfillment of certain financial obligations. The seller of the securities, which respectively is a borrower under repo, may be a natural or legal person and the buyer, which provides loan, is most often a bank or other financial institution.

Interbank Money Market concluded two main types of transactions - deposit lending and repo transactions. Major players are commercial banks and the central bank. Credit institutions assume the role of buyers or sellers of financial resources among themselves to ensure their liquidity and to realize certain income to improve their financial results.

Interbank Money Market's volume of transactions in the country in national currency over the past few years is presented in Figure №1.⁵ The highest value of 86760.8 million leva is reached in 2011, and the lowest value of trading in the Interbank Money market is in 2012 - 46869.4 million leva. There are observed and co-essential changes to the structure of interbank transactions. Higher share in trading occupy deposit transactions are (89.5% in 2009, 72.8% in 2010, 69.7% in 2011, 77.1% in 2012, 69.6 % in 2013 and 64.3% in the last year of the analyzed period), so the tendency is to reduce it. The share of repos increased from 10.5 percent in 2009 to 35.7% in 2014.

³ Ibid, art. 16 para. 1.

⁴ See: §1, ie. 19 of the Additional Provisions of Ordinance №8 on the capital adequacy of credit institutions promulgated. SG. 106 of December 27, 2006

⁵ The data are used by the monthly editions of BNB "Market Review" for the period January to December 2009 - January to December 2014, the official website of the Bulgarian National Bank: <http://www.bnb.bg/FinancialMarkets/FMMarketsReview/FMMonthlyReview/index.htm>

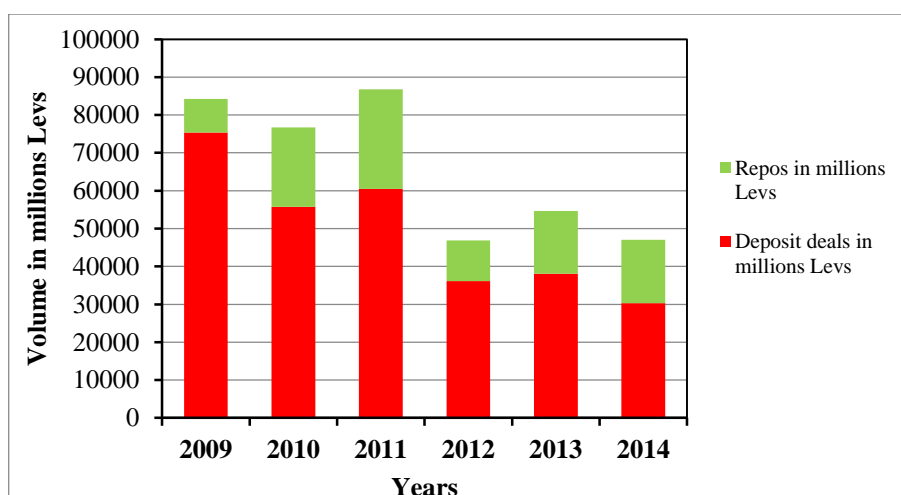


Figure 1: Transactions on the interbank money market in Bulgaria in national currency during the period 2009-2014

Euro money market's deals between banks in the country also noted significant fluctuations in its volumes (see Figure №2). They reach maximum valued at BGN equivalent 111,948.0 million levs in 2011 and minimum volume in 2013, measured in BGN equivalent of 42,320.0 million levs. The structure of the Euro money market's bank in Bulgaria by 2012 predominant share of those denominated in euros (77.2% in 2009, 78.3% in 2010, 73.3 percent in 2011 and 53.7% in 2012) and in the next two years dominating share of banking transactions conducted in US dollars (72.6% in 2013 and 61.9% in 2014). The share of deposit transactions in currencies other than EUR and USD is negligible (less than 1 % of the total market) as repos in such currencies had not been concluded.

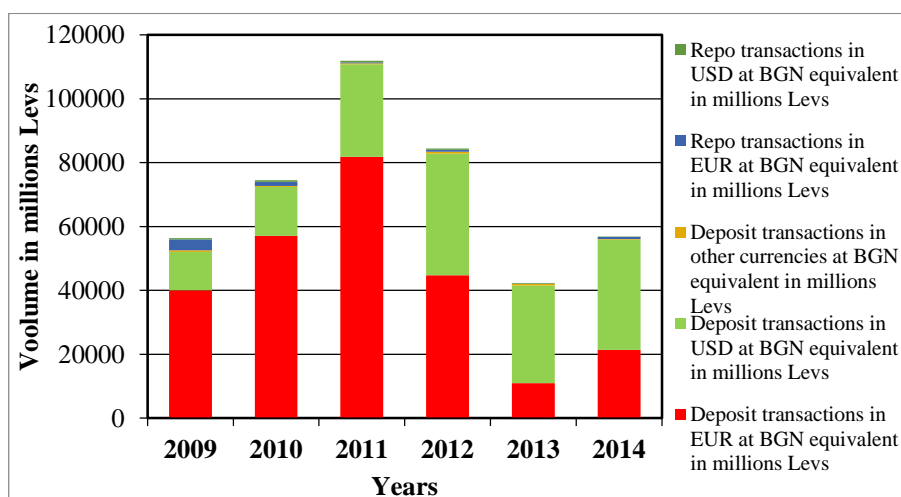


Figure 2: Euromoney transactions on the interbank market in Bulgaria in foreign currency during the period 2009-2014

Table №1 presents detailed information about the place issue treasury bills in Bulgaria over the last seven years through auctions conducted by the Bank.⁶ There is a trend towards permanently lower of their average annual yield, due to the continuous improvement of their average agreed price of 100 leva for each subsequent issue with a specific maturity. In addition, during the second half of the review period the nominal value of the issued treasury bills is significantly higher compared to the beginning of the period and their total amount exceeds 5 billion leva respectively. The coverage ratio, which is calculated as the ratio of the aggregate nominal value admitted to participate in the auction, and the aggregate nominal value proposed for placement amount of treasury bills exceeded the unit, which means that banks acting as primary dealers of government securities show an increasing interest in transactions related to the placement of treasury bills in the primary market.

Table 1: Place the issue treasury bills in Bulgaria, 2009-2015

Issue №	Data of issue	Maturity date	Term	Currency	Average annual yield	Average price approved	Coverage ratio	Nominal value
BG3010009002	11.03.2009	11.06.2009	3 m.	BGN	4,70%	98,85	1,20	15000000
BG3010109000	10.06.2009	10.09.2009	3 m.	BGN	4,57%	98,88	1,01	15000000
BG3010209008	09.09.2009	09.12.2009	3 m.	BGN	3,65%	99,11	1,56	15000000
BG3010010000	15.09.2010	15.09.2011	12 m.	BGN	2,84%	97,24	3,80	35000000
BG3010110008	08.12.2010	08.12.2011	12 m.	BGN	2,39%	97,55	4,46	35000000
BG3010011008	12.01.2011	12.07.2011	6 m.	BGN	1,38%	99,31	3,36	25000000
BG3010111006	09.02.2011	09.05.2011	3 m.	BGN	0,85%	99,79	2,90	15000000
BG3010311002	11.05.2011	11.11.2011	6 m.	BGN	1,38%	99,30	2,42	25000000
BG3010013004	22.02.2013	22.08.2013	6 m.	BGN	1,00%	99,50	1,45	800000000
BG3010113002	04.09.2013	04.09.2014	12 m.	BGN	0,60%	99,40	3,53	300000000
BG3010014002	08.01.2014	08.07.2014	6 m.	BGN	0,60%	99,70	2,03	400000000
BG3010114000	29.01.2014	29.10.2014	9 m.	BGN	0,58%	99,56	2,11	400000000
BG3010214008	05.02.2014	05.05.2014	3 m.	BGN	0,45%	99,89	1,53	400000000
BG3010314006	30.06.2014	30.11.2014	5 m.	BGN	1,95%	99,18	1,01	1228560000
BG3010414004	10.09.2014	10.09.2015	12 m.	BGN	0,78%	99,22	2,31	300000000
BG3010514001	03.12.2014	03.12.2015	12 m.	EUR	0,84%	99,16	3,07	400000000
BG3010614009	05.12.2014	05.09.2015	9 m.	EUR	0,61%	99,54	2,15	400000000
BG3010015009	21.01.2015	21.07.2015	6 m.	BGN	0,32%	99,84	2,99	200000000
							Total :	5008560000

The volume of transactions with government bonds on the secondary market in the country with the participation of banks in separate quarters in recent years is presented in Table №2. In 2012, such transactions are not concluded due to the fact that during the year are not issued treasury bills. There is a trend of significant growth in the volume of transactions which from 25 million leva in 2009 reached 21,345.3 million. Leva in 2014 then fell back to 8172.2 million leva in the last year of the review period.

⁶ Data are published on the official website of the Ministry of Finance of Bulgaria: www.minfin.bg

Table 2: Volumes of transactions with government bonds on the secondary market in Bulgaria over, 2009-2015 (in million. levs)⁷

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
I quarter	14,5	0,0	973,9	0,0	466,6	2825,7	1277,0
II quarter	7,3	0,0	1706,2	0,0	2684,2	2821,8	3136,6
III quarter	3,2	35,1	2385,8	0,0	2944,9	6057,0	2856,8
IV quarter	0,0	1131,3	630,5	0,0	1260,0	9640,8	901,8
Total for year :	25,0	1166,4	5696,4	0,0	7355,7	21345,3	8172,2

Banks are major players and the foreign exchange market. It dealt purchase of foreign currency. In our country there are three segments of the market:

- trade between BNB and commercial banks;
- interbank foreign exchange market (without BNB);
- trading of commercial banks and BNB with their end customers.

On the other hand the foreign exchange market in the country with mediation of banks concluded spot foreign exchange transactions.

In **spot transactions** currencies exchange counterpart, subject to trading, are carried out within two working days after the deal, at the market exchange rate to the moment of its negotiation. The value date of the transaction can be the same day (today), after one day (tomorrow) or within two business days (spot).

Table 3: Volumes of spot foreign currency transactions in Bulgaria in the period 2009-2014

(in million. Euro)

Years	Spot transactions between the BNB and the other banks		Spot transactions between the other banks		Spot transactions of banks and BNB to their final customers	
	Bought currency	Sold currency	Bought currency	Sold currency	Bought currency	Sold currency
2009	113668,3	114514,6	914,5	914,5	20420,9	20595,1
2010	78044,6	77928,1	1434,0	1434,0	20787,5	20281,0
2011	95893,4	96098,2	1608,6	1608,6	24037,5	22583,9
2012	147923,3	148190,4	2318,3	2318,3	25304,5	24094,6
2013	121410,3	123158,5	2005,7	2005,7	25981,1	26082,2
2014	73179,0	75670,1	3052,0	3052,0	26919,1	26837,3

In Table №3 are reflected volumes of spot foreign currency transactions in Bulgaria in recent years.⁸ It is apparent by the shown data, that there is a sharp decline in their volume in 2010 compared to the previous, which is entirely due to the decline of the currency trading between BNB and banks occurred as a result of a decrease in economic activity in the country. Over the next two years we've seen significant growth trend of exchange transactions in all three market's segments, in 2014 spot transactions between BNB and commercial banks decreased by almost half compared to their peak level marked in 2012.

⁷ Data were used from the quarterly editions of BNB "Market of government securities" for the period January to March 2009 - October to December 2015, the website of the Bulgarian National Bank: <http://www.bnb.bg/ResearchAndPublications/PubPeriodical/PubPGSMarket/index.htm>

⁸ See: <http://www.bnb.bg/FinancialMarkets/FMMarketsReview/FMMonthlyReview/index.htm>

However, the value of spot transactions between banks and BNB with their end customers increased continuously.

The major foreign currencies traded in the currency market at home against leva are US Dollar (USD) and euro (EUR). The share of other currencies - mainly British pound (GBP) and Swiss franc (CHF), is negligible.

Table 4: Relative shares of foreign currencies traded on the interbank foreign exchange market in Bulgaria in the period 2009-2014 (in %)

Years	EUR	USD	others
2009	82,0%	16,0%	2,0%
2010	90,0%	9,0%	1,0%
2011	92,7%	6,0%	1,3%
2012	96,1%	3,4%	0,5%
2013	93,4%	6,3%	0,3%
2014	83,0%	16,7%	0,3%

Source: BNB

The following table №4 shows the dynamics of the shares traded currencies in Bulgarian interbank currency market (without BNB) during the period 2009-2014. From that table it is clear that the interest of banks to foreign exchange transactions in the single European currency is greatest, and from 82.0% at the beginning of the analyzed period, their share reached 96.1 % in 2012. After that he again declined to 83.0% in 2014. The share of transactions in US dollars decreased significantly from 16.0% in 2009 to 3.4% in 2012, then again began to grow, reaching 16.7% in 2014. The share of the other traded currencies dropped by 2.0% in the beginning to just 0.3% at the end of studied period.

Finally we can make the following conclusions and generalizations.

To the Bulgarian Interbank Money Market in recent years dominated the share of unsecured deposit lending in national currency to this repo transactions. In the structure of the Euro money market bank transactions in foreign currency in Bulgaria at the end of the analyzed period began to dominate the share of deposit transactions conducted in US dollars. There is a trend of significant growth in the volume of transactions in government bonds concluded with the participation of banks. On the currency market, the volume of spot transactions between commercial banks and between them and the National Bank with their ultimate customers increased continuously. Major currencies targeted by the interest of the currency trading banks in the country are the euro and the dollar.

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Exploring Factors Affecting The Adoption of Mobile Commerce: An Application To Tr90

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Abstract: Mobile commerce has become important for consumers and businesses. So that mobile devices began to be used instead of the Internet for many activities and transactions. Therefore in this study it is aimed to explore the factors affecting mobile commerce. Within the context of study, the data is obtained from an survey applied to 420 costumer in TR90 (Trabzon, Ordu, Giresun, Rize, Gümüşhane, Artvin). According to results of Structural Equation Modelling while self-efficacy has not significant effect on adoption of mobile commerce, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, perceived enjoyment, innovativeness, trust and social effects have significant and positive effects on adoption of mobile commerce. Also this study examine whether consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows difference by demographics. As a result of t-test and ANOVA female, educated and high income consumers use mobile commerce more than male and also with age, usage of mobile commerce is decreasing.

Keywords: Mobile Commerce, Consumer Behaviour, Adoption, Mobile Users

1. Introduction

In today's competitive environment, businesses contest to offer better products and services to consumers (Wei et al., 2009). Also, consumers want get the products and services at any moment and everywhere. With the increasing importance of wireless networks and mobile devices, mobile commerce has emerged as a new technology that can meet both demands of consumers and businesses. Mobile commerce has become a phenomenon emphasis by academics, researchers, and consumers (Chong, 2013; Ngai and Gunasekaran, 2007) due to its significant impact on society and the business (Hung et al., 2003).

The use of mobile devices has increased day by day with the development of information technology (Özsoy and İzmir, 2016). Mobile devices seeing as a luxury before, now has become a necessity for many people and has become widespread (Kane et al., 2009: 115; Kumar and Zahn, 2003). Unlike electronic commerce, mobile commerce, expressed as extended view of e-commerce (Ngai and Gunasekaran, 2007), provides realization of transactions via mobile devices over a wireless network (Barness, 2002; Varshney and Vetter, 2002). Furthermore, being easily accessible of mobile devices still provide an advantage against electronic commerce. In particular, being small and light weight makes it easier for users to carry everywhere (Schwiderski-Grosche and Knospe, 2002, Kim et al., 2007).

This study aims to explore the factors that affect consumer adoption of mobile commerce using Wei et al. (2009) research model and contribute to academicians and firms. For this purpose, it is first mentioned mobile commerce, then provides a literature and finally, it includes a marketing research.

2. Mobile Commerce

With the internet's development, consumers can access internet everywhere and always. So they can make all transactions easily (Yildiz and Ayyildiz, 2014). Advances in mobile technology and increasing utilization rates have bring out mobile commerce (Islam et al., 2011; Jin and Villegas, 2008). Although mobile commerce is difficult to define because it is a new concept (Islam et al., 2011), it is possible to come across various definitions in the literature. Mobile commerce can be defined as the use of wireless device connection to the internet for business transactions such as purchase, payment, product ordering (Kalakota and Robinson, 2002, Angsana, 2002). Liao et al. (1999) defined mobile commerce as to deliver products and services over wireless networks without the limits of time and space.

Mobile commerce has some unique characteristics that make it different and benefit to consumer and businesses (Müller-Veerse, 2000): a) ubiquity, b) immediacy, c) localisation, d) instant connectivity, e) proactive functionality, f) simple authentication procedure. With this technology, consumers carry out many activities such as shopping, banking, health care and entertainment on mobile devices (Alhinai et al., 2007). In the following table shows important mobile commerce applications and examples.

Table 1. Mobile Commerce Applications

Applications	Examples of Offered Services
Mobile Banking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mobile Accounting • Mobile Brokerage • Mobile Financial Services • Mobile Gaming
Mobile Entertainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Download Music and Ring Tone • Download Video and Digital Images • Location-based Entertainment Services • Current affairs as sport, financial and other news • Travel Information
Mobile Information Services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tracking Services • Mobile Search Engines • Mobile Office • Mobile Couponing
Mobile Marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct Marketing • Organization of Mobile Events • Mobile News
Mobile Shopping	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mobile Purchasing of Products and Services • Public Transport
Mobile Ticketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sport and Cultural Events • Mobile Parking • Air and Rail Traffic • Remote Diagnosis and Maintenance of Vehicles
Telematic Services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Navigation Services • Vehicle Tracking and Theft Protection • Emergency Services

Source: Tiwari et al., 9-10.

As seen at table mobile commerce mobile commerce has started to spread over a wide area. Therefore, it is estimated that mobile commerce has become a growing market in the future and will increase the share of mobile commerce in electronic commerce (Wong and Hiew, 2005).

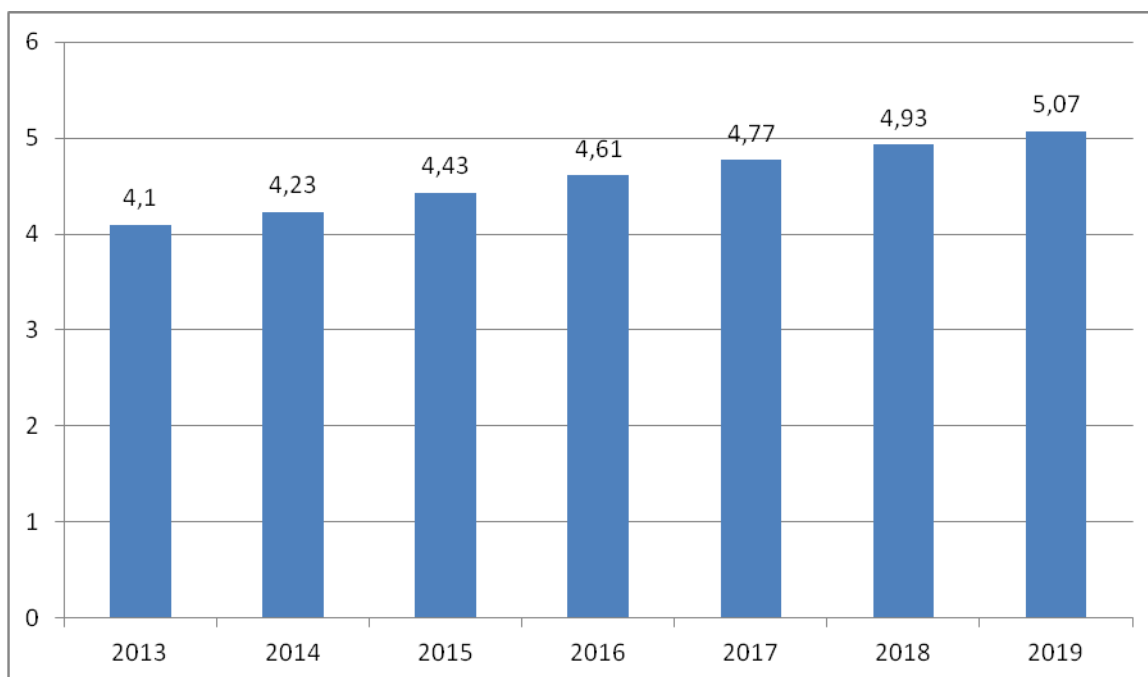


Figure 1. Number of mobile phone users in worldwide

Referring to figure 1, it is predicted that mobile phone users in worldwide will increase 5.07 billion, compared to 4.01 in 2013 (www.statista.com). For Turkey, based on TNS report and TÜİK data while mobile phone usage rate was 13% in 2013, it has reached to 34% and %53.8 in 2013 and 2014 (www.cepfix.com). Also according to BKM Express Data while mobile commerce share in electronic commerce was %17 in 2014, this proportion reached 40% in the first quarter of 2015 (Dumansızoğlu, 2015).

3. Literature Review and Research Hypothesis

Perceived Ease of Use

In literature there are many studies related to the effects of perceived ease of use on adoption of internet and wireless (Teo, 2001; Lu et al., 2003; Hung et al., 2003), intranet (Chang, 2004), mobile banking (Luarn and Lin 2005), mobile internet (Kurnia et al., 2006), 3G mobile services (Liao et al., 2007), mobile auctions (Wang and Barness, 2007) and mobile commerce (Yang 2005; Lin and Wang, 2005; Wu and Wang, 2005; Cho et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2009; Dai and Palvia, 2009; Sadi and Noordan, 2011; Chong, 2013; Al Mashagba et al., 2013). All other studies except Wu and Wang (2005) and Cho et al. (2007), found that perceived ease of use has significant and positive affect on behavioral intention of users.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₁: Perceived ease of use has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Perceived Usefulness

Jeyarah et al. (2006) indicated that perceived usefulness that can be defined as the value obtained from a technology is the most studied and effective variable on adoption of information technology. In literature to support the findings of Jeyarah et al. (2006) there are many studies on the effects of perceived usefulness on internet (Teo, 2001; Lu et al., 2003; Hung et al., 2003), intranet (Chang, 2004), mobile entertainment (Wong and Hiew, 2005), mobile banking (Luarn and Lin 2005), mobile internet (Kurnia et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2007), 3G mobile services (Liao et al. 2007), mobile auctions (Wang and Barness, 2007) and mobile commerce (Wu and Wang, 2005; Yang 2005; Lin and Wang, 2005; Cho et al., 2007; Wei

et al., 2009; Sadi and Noordan, 2011; Chong, 2013; Al Mashagba et al., 2013). While Cho et al. (2007) found that perceived usefulness has not significant effect on adoption behaviour, all other studies demonstrated a positive effect.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₂: Perceived usefulness has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Perceived Entertainment

Consumers who are happy to use technology in an emotional behavior are more likely to adopt this technology. Although Liao et al. (2007), Wang and Barnes (2007) and Kim et al. (2007) concluded that perceived entertainment has indirect effect on adoption behaviour, Bruner and Kumar (2003) in their study examining the adoption of mobile internet devices found that entertainment has significant and positive effect on adoption behaviour. In parallel to these findings, Dai and Palvia (2009) and Chong (2013) indicated that consumers who like to use mobile commerce are tend to use mobile commerce more.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₃: Perceived entertainment has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Innovativeness

Innovation that frequently used in studies regarding the adoption of new products and services is expressed as a personality structure that shows consumer trends (Wood and Swait, 2002). Moore and Benbasat (1991) examining the adoption of information technology, determined that consumers' perception towards innovation impact adoption behavior. To support this finding Hung et al. (2003), Yang (2005), Dai and Palvia (2009), Sadi and Noordan, (2011) concluded that innovation is an important determinant of mobile commerce adoption.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₄: Innovativeness has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Trust

Trust that has become more important in consumer behaviour analysis (Hosmer, 1995) and seen as an crucial determinant (Lodorfos et al., 2006), affects the success of the adoption of technologies such as electronic commerce (Holsapple and Sasidharan, 2005). Lu et al. (2003) examined factors affect acceptance of wirelees internet via mobile devices in China and found that trust is closely related with consumer behaviour. In parallel to this result Cho et al. (2007) and Sadi and Noordan (2011) concluded that trust in an important determinant of usage of mobile commerce. Wang and Barnes (2007) examined the attitudes and behavioral intention of consumers to mobile auctions and found that trust has an important effect on acceptance and usage of consumers.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₅: Trust has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy can be defined as the belief to own ability of individual's about to reach a goal or to fulfill a mission (Lee, 2005; Snyder and Lopez, 2002). Self-efficacy is closely related to consumer behaviour. Many researcher examined the effect of self-efficacy on consumer behaviour and attitudes (Garlin and McGuiggan, 2005) such as preventive healthcare behaviour (Jayanti and Burns, 1998) and consumer response to technological changes (Ellen et al., 1991).

According to Ellen et al. (1991) consumer's perceived ability to successfully use a product affects their intention to use the product. In parallel to this finding, Luarn and Lin (2005) indicated that self-efficacy has significant and important effect on adoption of mobile banking.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₆: Self-efficacy has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Social Influences

Many studies in the literature examined the effects of social influences on adoption of mobile commerce (Tornatsky and Klein, 1982; Venkatesh and Davis, 2000; Lu et al., 2003). Lu et al. (2003) demonstrated a direct effect of social influences on consumer adoption of mobile technologies. To support his finding Samson ve Hornby (1998) stated that the vast majority of the managers in China have begun to use the phone for having social status in the early 98.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₇: Social influence has positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce.

Demographics

Besides above variables, many researches stated that some demographics have significant effect on adoption of mobile commerce. In literature effects of gender (Teo, 2001; Pijpers et al., 2001; Mort and Drennan, 2005; Yang, 2005; Bigne et al., 2007; Chong, 2013), age (Teo, 2001; Chang, 2004; Mort and Drennan, 2005; Yang, 2005; Bigne et al., 2007; Wang and Barness, 2007; Wei, 2008; Chong, 2013) and education (Teo, 2001; Rhee and Kim, 2004; Bigne et al., 2007; Chong, 2013) on adoption of mobile commerce were examined in many studies. Related to gender While Bigne et al. (2007) found that gender has not a significant effect on adoption of mobile commerce, Pijpers et al. (2001) stated that gender is one of the important determinant of adoption of information technologies. Similarly, all other studies indicated that gender has significant and positive effect on adoption and usage of mobile commerce.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₈: Consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows significant difference by gender

Considering studies that examine the relationship between age and mobile commerce, While Mort ve Drennan (2005) found that there is no relationship between age and adoption of mobile commerce, Yang (2005) indicated that there is a positive relationship between age and adoption of mobile commerce. In contrast to these findings, other studies stated that young consumers use mobile commerce applications more. In other words, with age, usage of mobile commerce is decreasing.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₉: Consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows significant difference by age

In studies on education, Bigne et al. (2005) identified that education has not significant effect on adoption of mobile commerce. And also, while Teo (2001) found negative relationship between education level and web browsing activity, Rhee and Kim (2004) and Chong (2013) stated that higher level of education increases the usage of internet and mobile commerce.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₁₀: Consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows significant difference by education

Also we aimed to explore whether there is difference consumers' mobile commerce adoption by income.

Therefore, It can be hypothesis that:

H₁₁: Consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows significant difference by incom

4. Methodology

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study is explore the effects of perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, perceived enjoyment, innovativeness, trust, self-efficacy and social effects on consumers' mobile commerce adoption.

Research model

In the direction of purposes stated above, research model as shown in figure 1 was developed.

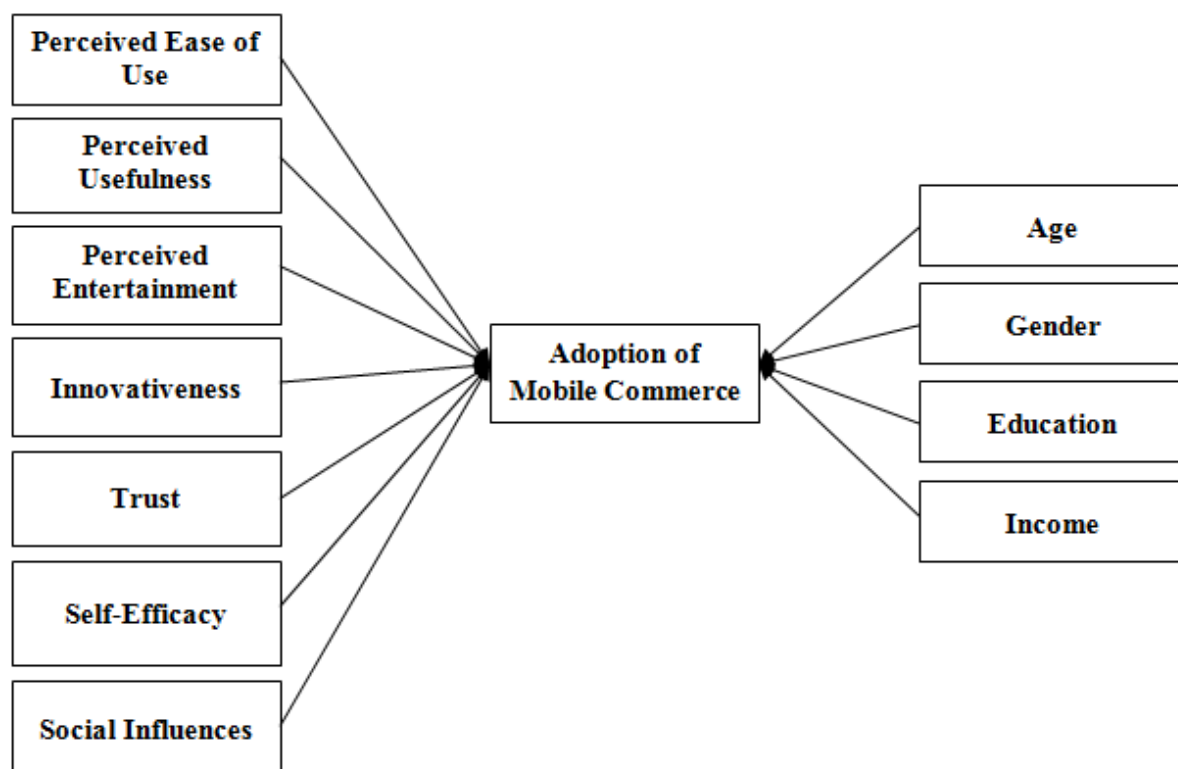


Figure 1. Research Model

Sampling and Data Collection

A survey instrument was developed for testing the hypothesis developed. First part of the survey included 8 constructs in the research model. This constructs are come from empirical studies in literature and adapted from (Wei et al., 2009; Hung et al. 2003; Davis, 1989; Yang, 2005; Chong, 2013; Crespo et al., 2008). Second part collected demographic information such as age, gender, education, income and marital status. To collect data a survey was applied in TR90 region (Trabzon, Giresun, Artvin, Rize, Ordu, Gümüşhane) and a total of 420 questionnaire were included in the sample. Each question was measured by five-point Likert scale. For instance, “1” expressed as strongly disagree, “2” expressed as disagree, “3”, expressed as neutral, “4” expressed as strongly agree, “5” expressed as strongly agree.

5. Results

Profile of respondents

Demographic profile of respondents is as follows:

Table 2: Demographic Profile of All Respondents

Variable		Count	Percent %
Gender	<i>Female</i>	237	56.4
	<i>Male</i>	183	43.6
Marital Status	<i>Married</i>	202	48.1
	<i>Single</i>	173	41.2
	<i>Widow/Divorced</i>	45	10.7
Education	<i>Elementary Education</i>	43	10.2
	<i>High School</i>	121	28.8
	<i>Under Graduate</i>	157	37.4
	<i>Graduate</i>	99	23.6
Income	<i>Under 1001 TL</i>	63	15.0
	<i>1001 – 2000 TL</i>	59	14.0
	<i>2001 – 3000 TL</i>	88	21.0
	<i>3001 – 4001 TL</i>	78	18.6
	<i>4001-5000 TL</i>	84	20.0
	<i>Upper 5000 TL</i>	48	11.4
Age	<i>Under 18</i>	74	17.6
	<i>18-28</i>	82	19.5
	<i>29-39</i>	90	21.4
	<i>40-50</i>	68	16.2
	<i>51-61</i>	65	15.5
	<i>Upper 61</i>	41	9.8
Occupational Status	<i>Puplic Employee</i>	47	11.2
	<i>Contract Staff</i>	68	16.2
	<i>Employee</i>	60	14.3
	<i>Self-Employment</i>	54	12.9
	<i>Artisan</i>	42	10.0
	<i>Retired</i>	47	11.2
	<i>Housewife</i>	23	5.5
	<i>Student</i>	66	15.7
	<i>Others</i>	13	3.1
Total		420	100

Results of Reliability and Validity Analysis

Table 3. Reliability Statistics for Scales of Research Model

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PEU1	10,5595	8,786	.659	.785
PEU2	10,5167	8,618	.674	.778
PEU3	10,4952	8,795	.708	.764
PEU4	10,5643	9,139	.593	.815
Alpha: .830			N: 420	
PU1	10,2405	8,832	.685	.769
PU2	10,1119	9,231	.688	.769
PU3	10,1214	8,809	.669	.777
PU4	9,9619	10,104	.581	.815
Alpha: .828			N: 420	
PE1	9,9500	10,315	.757	.770
PE2	10,0595	9,541	.724	.784
PE3	9,9619	10,839	.668	.808
PE4	9,9214	11,614	.582	.842
Alpha: .844			N: 420	
IN1	10,0952	10,864	.791	.836
IN2	10,2476	10,550	.731	.861
IN3	10,0286	10,701	.779	.841
IN4	10,0214	11,758	.702	.870
Alpha: .885			N: 420	
SE1	6,8619	5,060	.803	.618
SE2	6,9833	4,651	.662	.766
SE3	6,6786	5,937	.567	.843
Alpha: .816			N: 420	
TR1	6,87952	4,774	.716	.728
TR2	6,9262	4,498	.675	.775
TR3	6,7452	5,298	.669	.778
Alpha: .826			N: 420	
SI1	9,9429	10,431	.725	.800
SI2	10,0643	9,631	.795	.767
SI3	9,1119	10,003	.758	.785
SI4	9,4810	12,914	.512	.848
Alpha: .853			N: 420	
AMC1	10,4429	10,104	.693	.801
AMC2	10,5595	9,283	.727	.785
AMC3	10,4071	9,884	.708	.794
AMC4	10,5333	9,944	.610	.837
Alpha: .846			N: 420	

Cronbach's alpha statistic was used in order to determine the reliability of the scale. As seen in table 3, because general alpha statistics of all scales is high than values in the Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted column, there is no item deleted from scale.

Table 4. Total Variance Explained for Scales of Research Model

Item	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Std. Loading
	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative	Total	% of Variance	% of Cumulative	
PEU1	2,656	66,409	66,409	2,656	66,409	66,409	.817
PEU2	,673	16,826	83,235				.826
PEU3	,370	9,253	92,488				.847
PEU4	,300	7,512	100,000				.757
KMO: 0,743				Bartlett's Test: 673,319 p: 0,000			
PU1	2,643	66,073	66,073	2,643	66,073	66,073	.835
PU2	,550	13,756	82,271				.836
PU3	,428	10,696	92,023				.823
PU4	,379	9,475	100,000				.755
KMO: 0,807				Bartlett's Test: 602,219 p: 0,000			
PE1	2,735	68,371	68,371	2,735	68,371	68,371	.877
PE2	,573	14,314	82,686				.859
PE3	,450	11,247	93,932				.818
PE4	,243	6,068	100,000				.748
KMO: 0,772				Bartlett's Test: 736,229 p: 0,000			
IN1	2,982	74,538	74,538	2,982	74,538	74,538	.890
IN2	,409	10,219	84,758				.850
IN3	,371	9,267	94,025				.883
IN4	,239	5,975	100,000				.829
KMO: 0,827				Bartlett's Test: 927,791 p: 0,000			
SE1	2,217	73,908	73,908	2,217	73,908	73,908	.925
SE2	,559	18,623	92,531				.858
SE3	,224	7,469	100,00				.791
KMO: 0,634				Bartlett's Test: 534,692 p: 0,000			
TR1	2,235	74,513	74,513	2,235	74,513	74,513	.880
TR2	,420	14,015	88,528				.855
TR3	,344	11,472	100,00				.853
KMO: 0,719				Bartlett's Test: 470,845 p: 0,000			
SI1	2,778	69,445	69,445	2,778	69,445	69,445	.856
SI2	,646	16,162	85,607				.900
SI3	,347	8,678	94,285				.878
SI4	,229	5,715	100,000				.682
KMO: 0,794				Bartlett's Test: 812,175 p: 0,000			
AMC1	2,747	68,676	68,676	2,747	68,676	68,676	.836
AMC2	,544	13,595	82,271				.861
AMC3	,390	9,751	92,023				.844
AMC4	,319	7,977	100,000				.771
KMO: 0,805				Bartlett's Test: 701,274 p: 0,000			

Factor analysis used to determine the validity of the scale of research and as seen in table 4, as a result of analysis of the validity located scale of research, there is no item deleted from scale.

Mean Differences Test (t-test and ANOVA)

t-test was used to examine differences of consumers' mobile commerce adoption by gender and ANOVA was used to examine differences of consumers' mobile commerce adoption by age and education level. Results of mean differences test are shown in table 5, table 6, table 7 and table 8.

Table 5. Differences Between Consumers According to Gender

	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	t	F	p-Value
Adoption of Mobile Commerce	<i>Female</i>	237	4.4304	.657	26.615	10.180	.002
	<i>Male</i>	183	2.7650	.606	26.896		

Table 5 shows t-test results that examine whether there are significant differences between female and male related to mobile adoption behaviour. According to the results of t-test that used to test H8, consumers' mobile commerce adoption shows differences by gender [$t(420) = 26,896$, $p < 0,05$]. So, H8 supported. According to these results, female are tend to purchase green products more.

Results of ANOVA are as follows,

Table 6. Differences Between Consumers According to Education

Variable	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference*
Adoption of Mobile Commerce	<i>Elementary Education (1)</i>	43	2.7742	.693	48.665	.0000	
	<i>High School (2)</i>	121	3.3223	.896			1-2, 1-3
	<i>Under Graduate (3)</i>	157	3.7707	1.043			1-4, 2-3
	<i>Graduate (4)</i>	99	4.4848	.719			2-4, 3-4
	<i>Total</i>	420	3.7048	1.042			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 6, because p that shows the significance of the differences between consumers mobile commerce adoption is significant ($p < 0,05$), it is stated that there are significant differences between aducation levels. So, H9 supported. According to ANOVA results, average of distributions of consumers' mobile commerce adoption by education level are as follows: average of elementary education, 2,77; average of high school, 3,32; average of under graduate, 3,77; average of graduate, 4,48. Accordingly, consumers have high level education adopt mobile commerce more.

Table 7. Differences Between Consumers According to Age

Variable	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference*
Adoption of Mobile Commerce	<i>Under 18 (1)</i>	74	4.7162	.536	70.389	.0000	
	<i>18-28 (2)</i>	82	4.3415	.652			1-2, 1-3, 1-4
	<i>29-39 (3)</i>	90	3.7556	.927			1-5, 1-6, 2-3
	<i>40-50 (4)</i>	68	3.0147	.905			2-4, 2-5, 2-6
	<i>51-61 (5)</i>	65	2.9077	.823			3-4, 3-5, 3-6
	<i>Upper 61 (6)</i>	41	2.9024	.624			
	<i>Total</i>	420	3.7048	1.042			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 7, p that shows the significance of the differences between consumers mobile commerce adoption is significant ($p < 0,05$), so it is stated that there are significant differences between age groups. So, H10 supported. Accordingly, young consumers are tend to adopt mobile commerce more than old consumers.

Table 8. Differences Between Consumers According to Income

Variable	Groups	N	X _{mean}	SD	F	p-Value	Mean Difference*
Adoption of Mobile Commerce	<i>Under 1001 (1)</i>	63	2.6032	.493	103.851	.0000	
	<i>1001- 2000 (2)</i>	59	2.6610	.477			1-3, 1-4, 1-5
	<i>2001-3000 (3)</i>	88	3.5114	1.017			1-6, 2-3, 2-4
	<i>3001-4000 (4)</i>	78	4.2179	.749			2-5, 2-6, 3-2,
	<i>4001-5000 (5)</i>	84	4.4762	.569			3-4, 3-5, 3-6
	<i>Upper 5000 (6)</i>	48	4.6042	.535			4-6
	<i>Total</i>	420	3.7048	1.042			

* $p < .05$

As seen in table 8, because p that shows the significance of the differences between consumers mobile commerce adoption is significant ($p < 0,05$), it is stated that there are significant differences between income groups. So, H11 supported. According to ANOVA results, average of distributions of consumers' mobile commerce adoption by income groups are as follows: average of under 1001, 2,60; average of between 1001-2000, 2,66; average of between 2001-3000, 3,51; average of between 3001-4000, 4,21; average of between 4001-5000, 4,47 and average of upper 5000, 4,60. Accordingly, consumers have high income adopt mobile commerce more.

Results of Structural Equation Modelling and Hypothesis Tests

Research model was tested by Structural Equation Modelling (Table 9). Model gives factors that affect consumers' mobile commerce adoption. According to fit index values, it can be said that compliance between model and data is very strong ($\chi^2/df = 1,532$; CFI=,973; TLI=,969; NFI=,927; RMSEA=,036).

Table 9. Model Fit Summary for the Proposed Research Model

Fit Index	Recommended	Model
χ^2/df	<3.0	1.532
NFI	>0.9	92.7
RFI	>0.9	91.6
IFI	>0.9	97.3
TLI	>0.9	96.9
CFI	>0.9	97.3
RMSEA	<0.8	0.36

According to the result in table 10, while self-efficacy has not a significant effect on mobile commerce adoption, all other factors have significant and positive effects. Also, perceived ease of use ($\beta = ,588$; $P < ,01$) is the most effective factor on consumers' mobile commerce adoption. So, all hypothesis are supported.

Table 10. Coefficients of the Variables for Proposed Model

	Path	Beta	SE	p-Value	Supported
H1	PEU \rightarrow AMC	.588	.106	.000*	Yes
H2	PU \rightarrow AMC	.112	.058	.043**	Yes
H3	PE \rightarrow AMC	.077	.036	.033**	Yes
H4	IN \rightarrow AMC	.096	.044	.028**	Yes
H5	TR \rightarrow AMC	.187	.048	.000*	Yes
H6	SI \rightarrow AMC	.140	.063	.027**	Yes
H7	SE \rightarrow AMC	.037	.044	,397	No

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

6. Conclusion

This study aimed to examine effects of perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, perceived enjoyment, innovativeness, trust, self-efficacy and social effects on adoption of mobile commerce. Also this study examine whether there are differences by demographic variables for green purchase intention. According to the mean differences test (t-test and ANOVA) results, there are differences adoption of mobile commerce by demographic variables. t-test results show that female are more likely to adopt mobile commerce than male. This findings support the findings of Teo (2001); Pijpers et al., (2001); Mort ve Drennan (2005); Yang (2005); Chong (2013). Also ANOVA results show that there are significant differences for income, education and age. In other words, educated, high-income and young consumers use mobile commerce more. To support this findings Rhee and Kim (2004) and Chong (2013) stated that higher level of education increases the usage of internet and mobile commerce. Also according to many studies in the literature (Teo, 2001; Chang, 2004; Bigne ve diğerleri, 2007; Wang ve Barnes, 2007; Wei, 2008; Chong, 2013), with age, adoption of mobile commerce is decreasing.

To test hypothesis Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used and it is found that except self-efficacy all other factors have significant and positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce. Self-efficacy has

not a significant effect. So, except H7 all hypothesis are supported. Findings of SEM indicates that if it is easy for consumers to use mobile devices and mobile commerce they are more likely to adopt mobile commerce. This findings are parallel with the finding of (Yang 2005; Lin and Wang, 2005; Wei et al., 2009; Dai and Palvia, 2009; Sadi and Noordan, 2011; Chong, 2013, Al Mashagba et al., 2013).

According to SEM analysis, the second most important factor that affect adoption of mobile commerce is trust. It means that if consumers trust in mobile commerce applications they tend to use more. In parallel to this finding Cho et al. (2007) and Sadi and Noordan (2011) concluded that trust is an important determinant of usage of mobile commerce. Other factors that have positive effect on adoption of mobile commerce are as follows in order of importance: social influences, perceived usefulness, innovativeness, perceived entertainment. All this findings supported findings of many research in the literature.

When all results are evaluated, this study enable companies to know which factors affect adoption of mobile commerce. Related to demographics, when companies inititae their marketing companies it should be targeted at female, young, educated and higher income people. Also companies should offer innovative and entertaining services.

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Kamu Açıklarının Türkiye Ekonomisi Üzerindeki Etkileri

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Özet: Kamu açıkları günümüzde gerek gelişmiş gerekse gelişmekte olan ülkelerde karşılaşılan en önemli makroekonomik sorunların başında gelmektedir. Tarihsel süreç içerisinde devlet anlayışında meydana gelen değişimler kamu açıklarının artmasında etkili olan en önemli faktörler arasında yer almaktadır. Klasik iktisadi yaklaşımın bağlı kaldığı denk bütçe ilkesinin 1929 yılındaki dünya ekonomik krizinden sonra terk edilmesi bütçe disiplininin bozulmasına neden olmuştur.

Kamu açıkları, özellikle 1970'li yılların başlarında itibaren gelişmekte olan ülkelerde kronik bir sorun haline gelmeye başlamıştır. 1973 yılındaki ilk petrol şokuna kadar olan dönemde denk bütçeyi hedef alan gelişmiş ülkeler bile petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıklarını olağan karşılamaya başlamıştır. Gelişmekte olan ülkelerin gelir dağılımının bozuk olması, işsizlik, kişi başına düşen milli gelir miktarının düşük olması, ekonomik yapının tarım ağırlıklı olması, kayıt dışı ekonominin büyük olması, tasarruf miktarının yetersizliği gibi yapısal ve kurumsal sorunlara sahip olması ve bu sorunların çözülmemiş olması kamu açıklarının önemli nedenleri arasındadır.

Kamu açıklarına neden olan pek çok ekonomik faktörün yanı sıra politik iktisadi nedenler de söz konusudur. Kamu açıklarının politik iktisadi nedenlerinden bir diğeri hükümetlerin vergi toplama konusunda politik davranışlar sergilemesidir. Hükümetler vergilerin yeterli olmadığından şikayet etmekte ancak daha etkin bir vergi sistemi konusunda ise isteksiz davranmaktadır. Hükümetler yeniden seçilmek için kamu harcamalarını vergilerle finanse etmek yerine, borçlanarak finanse etmeyi tercih etmektedir.

Türkiye ekonomisinde kamu açıkları, kamu kesimi borçlanma gereği bütçe türleri itibarıyla incelendiğinde ortaya çıkan önemli bulgu KİT'lere yapılan harcamalardaki azalmadır. Dolayısıyla kamu kesimi borçlanma gereğindeki iyileşme esas olarak KİT'ler ve özelleştirme kapsamındaki kuruluşların borçlanma gereğinin GSMH' ye oranlarındaki azalmalardan kaynaklanmaktadır.

Türkiye kamu açıklarını azaltılması için, kamu gelirlerinin ile kamu harcamalarına eşlik edebilmesi için vergi gelirlerinin artırılması gerekmektedir. Vergi gelirlerinin artırılabilmesi için de vergi oranlarının düşürülmesi, vergi tabanının genişletilmesi ve kayıt dışı ekonominin önüne geçilmesi önemlidir. Kamu harcamalarında verimlilik denetimine önem verilmelidir. Bunun yanı sıra kamu harcamaları beşeri sermayenin gelişimine katkı sağlayacak şekilde düzenlemelidir. Mali disiplinin sağlanması gerekmektedir. Ayrıca mali şeffaflığı artırılması, bütçe disiplininin sağlanmasına, ekonomik rant arayışlarının önlenmesine yardımcı olacaktır.

2016 yılında bütçe açığının GSYH'ye oranının yüzde 1,3, faiz dışı fazlanın ise yüzde 1,2 olmasının hedeflenmiş, bütçe giderlerinin ekonomik sınıflandırmaya göre dağılımı ise şöyle sıralandı: "Personel giderleri 147,7 milyar lira, sosyal güvenlik primleri 24,9 milyar lira, mal ve hizmet alım giderleri 46,4 milyar lira, cari transferler 217,7 milyar lira, sermaye giderleri 51,8 milyar lira, sermaye transferleri 7,5 milyar lira, borç verme 12,9 milyar lira, yedek ödenekler 5 milyar lira faiz giderleri 56 milyar lira." Olarak belirlendi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kamu Maliyesi, Kamu açıkları, Kamu açıklarının etkileri

The Impact of Factors Determining Financial Crises on Macro Economy in Developing Countries

Özet: Kamu açıkları günümüzde gerek gelişmiş gerekse gelişmekte olan ülkelerde karşılaşılan en önemli makroekonomik sorunların başında gelmektedir. Tarihsel süreç içerisinde devlet anlayışında meydana gelen değişimler kamu açıklarının artmasında etkili olan en önemli faktörler arasında yer almaktadır. Klasik iktisadi yaklaşımın bağlı kaldığı denk bütçe ilkesinin 1929 yılındaki dünya ekonomik krizinden sonra terk edilmesi bütçe disiplininin bozulmasına neden olmuştur.

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Anahtar Kelimeler: Kamu Maliyesi, Kamu açıkları, Kamu açıklarının etkileri

Giriş

Dünyada kamu açıklarının bütün ülkelerin en önemli konuları arasında bulunmaktadır. Bütün devletler sosyal gelişmeleri nedeniyle ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilmek için finansman sağlamak zorundadır. Devletlerin ihtiyaçları arttıkça harcamalarında da daha fazla bir artış gözlenmektedir. Gelirlerin giderleri karşılayamaması kamu açıklarının doğmasına neden olmaktadır. Bunun içinde gelirleri toplayabilmek için devlet zaman zaman bazı makroekonomik değişkenlerde oynamak zorunda kalmaktadır. Tüm devletler denk bütçe üzerinde durmaktadır. Aksi takdirde bütçe açıklarının ekonomik istikrarsızlığa neden olacağı bilinmektedir. Klasik iktisat teorisi de kamu gelirlerinin kamu harcamalarının karşılaması görüşünü savunmaktadır. Uygulamada bütçe açıklarının vergilerin arkadan gelen nesile devrederler. Sonuçta toplam ömür boyu tüketimin arttırılması sağlanır. Tüketim artışı zorunlu olarak tasarruflardaki azalmaya neden olur. Tasarrufların azalması faiz oranlarındaki yükselme demektir. Faiz oranları yükselince de yatırımlar durma noktasına gelmektedir. Kamu açıklarının 1970'li yıllardan itibaren gelişmekte olan ülkelerin sorunu haline gelmiştir. 1973 yılındaki ilk petrol şoku bunda önemli bir rol oynamıştır. Özellikle gelişmekte olan ülkelerin petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıklarının maksimum seviyelere çıkmıştır. Sonuçta ekonomik dengeler bozulmuş ve kamu borçları maksimum seviyeye çıkmıştır. Özellikle Türkiye'de kamu finansman dengesiyle makroekonomik denge arasındaki ilişki çok büyük bir önem arz etmiş kamu açıklarının devamlılık kazanması borç baskısının artması sonucunda ülkede makro ekonomik dengeler bozulmuş ve bu durumdan kurtulmak için borçlanma yoluyla finansman gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Kamu Açıkları

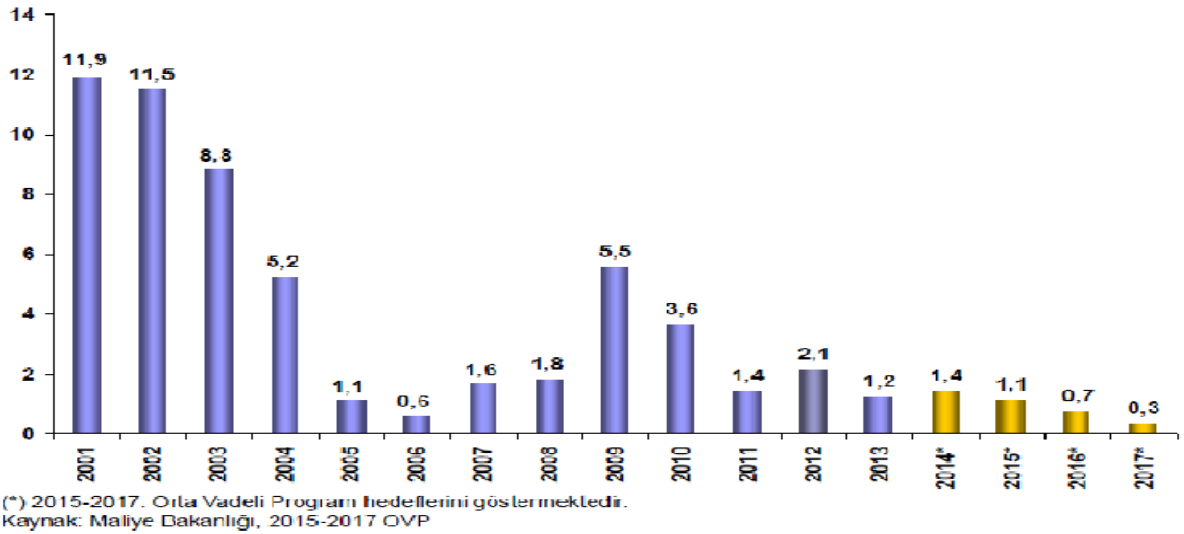
Ülkemizde 1990'dan itibaren kamu açıkları artışı hız kazanmaya başlamıştır. Bu yıldan itibaren personel harcamaları artmıştır. Ayrıca kamu iktisadi teşekküllerini yapılan transfer harcamaları fazlaşmıştır. Buna paralel olarak faizlerdeki artışların hız kazanması ve bunu karşılayacak kamu gelirlerinin istenilen ölçüde

olmaması sonucunda borç oranları artmış ve mali disiplin bozulduğu gibi makroekonomik dengelerde bozulmuştur.¹

Aşağıdaki grafikte görüldüğü gibi özellikle 2001 yılında maksimum seviyeye çıkan bütçe açıklarının 2006 yılında azaldığını fakat 2009 yılında tekrar yükselmeye başladığını bundan sonra bu açıkların yavaş yavaş kapandığını özellikle GSMH'ye oranlarının 2009'dan itibaren önemli ölçüde azaldığını görüyoruz. Bunun sebebi uygulanan sıkı maliye politikaları büyüme hızında meydana gelen artışlar ve bütçede yapılan iyileştirmelerdir.

Türkiye'de Kamu Açıklarının Nedenleri

Cumhuriyet'in ilanından sonra Türkiye çok partili bir sisteme geçmiş bunun sonucunda da kamu harcamaları ülkenin kalkınması için hızla artmıştır. Fakat gelirler gider arasındaki farkın kamu giderleri lehine çoğalması açıklarında daha fazla artmasına neden teşkil etmiştir. Özellikle 1950'den sonra menderes hükümeti kamu gelirlerini istenilen düzeyde arttıramamıştır. Sonuçta kamu açıkları büyümüştür. Türkiye'de istenilen ölçüde vergi toplanamamış sonuçta kamu gelirlerinin azlığı nedeniyle kamu harcamaları istenilen ölçüde karşılanamamıştır. Ayrıca kayıt dışı ekonomi içinde gereken önlemler alınamamıştır. Bu da beraberinde yolsuzluklara verim düşüklüğünü israfı ve kronik enflasyonu getirmiştir. Yerel yönetimler için merkezden ödemeler yapılmış askeri harcamalar artmış bütçe dışı fon uygulamaları ve faiz değerlerinin artmasına bu yüzden siyasi istikrarsızlıklar eklenmiştir. Gelir dağılımının bozulması GSMH'deki hızlı artış hızlı nüfus artışı ve tarım sektörünün çok büyük olması haliyle düşük vergi toplamasına neden olmuştur. Özellikle vergi idaresinin zayıflığı ve yetersizliğine bir de donanım yetersizliği eklenmiştir. Bugünkü gibi bilgisayar ağının olup olmayışı denetimi zorlaştırmıştır. Ayrıca köyden şehre göç hızlanmış bunun sonucunda özellikle büyük şehirlerde gecekondulaşma ve kentleşme başlamıştır. Buna özellikle kamuda istihdam edilen personelde hızlı bir artış açıkların daha da büyümesine neden olmuştur. Vergi sisteminin yetersizliği ve özellikle kayıt dışı ekonominin yüksekliği ve vergi ahlakının yerleşmemiş olması ve politikacıların sık sık vergi aflarını çıkarmaları vergi gelirlerinde müthiş bir düşüşe neden olmuştur. Kamu bankalarının genel zararları kamu iktisadi teşebbüslerin zararları ve özellikle güneydoğuda ki terör olayları ile bunlara yapılan askeri harcamalar bütçe giderlerini çoğaltmasına neden olmuştur. Tarımsal destekleme ve sübvansiyonlar iç ve dış faiz ödemeleri erken emeklilik ile sağlık giderlerindeki artış doğal afetler su baskınları ile bunun yanı sıra bakanlık ve milletvekili sayılarının arttırılması siyasi partilere yapılan yardımlar vergi iadeleri yolsuzluk ve rüşvetler kamu açıklarını daha da artmasına neden olmuştur.



¹ Saatçi, M.Y., "Türkiye'de Bütçe Açıkları ve Finansman Sekilleri", Bütçe Dünyası, 2, 26, 2007, s. 91-101.

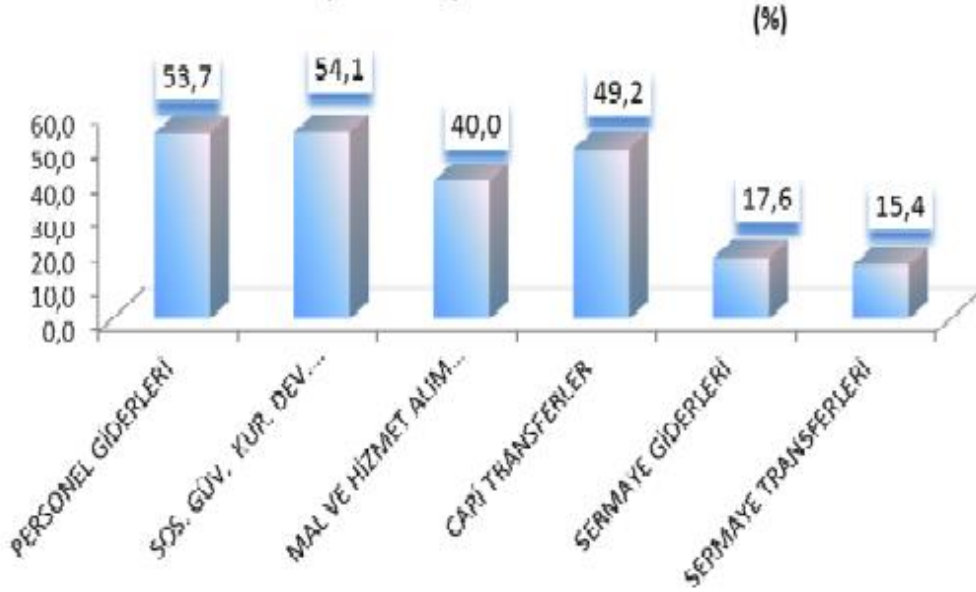
Şekil 1. Merkezi Yönetim Bütçe Açığı

Türkiye’de Kamu Finansal Açıkları

Türkiye’de finansman açıkları denilince ilk akla gelen destekli bütçe açıklarıdır. Bu açıkların yıllar itibari ile kamu açıkları içindeki payı 1990 yılında 41,8 1995 yılında yüzde 81 2000 yılında ise yüzde 92’dir. ²

Bu harcamalar sürekli olarak artmaktadır.

Tablo1. Bütçe Ödeneklerinin Kullanım Oranı



Kaynak: Ekonomik Sınıflandırmaya Göre Bütçe Ödeneklerinin Kullanım Oranı (%) (Ocak – Haziran 2014)
<http://www.maliye.gov.tr/KurumsalMaliDurumBeklentilerRaporu>

Şekilde de görüldüğü gibi bütçe ödenekleri sürekli olarak artmakta sermaye giderleri ve sermaye transferleri de azalmaktadır.

Türkiye’de 1980 yılından itibaren uygulanan dışa açık ekonomik büyüme modeli ile kamu harcamalarının artışı önlenememiştir. Buna paralel olarak finansman açıkları büyümüş ve bununla ilgili bu finansman açıklarının nasıl finans edileceği bütçe yasalarıyla ortaya konmaya çalışılmıştır. Kamu açıklarının boyutları 1980’li yıllardan itibaren önemli ölçüde artma eğilimine girmiştir. Özellikle kamu finansman açıklarının dışardaki yurt dışı finansal piyasalardan karşılanmak istenmesi iç port stokunun çıkış gibi büyümüştür. Kamu harcamalarına bir sınır getirilememiştir. Bunun da nedeni sosyal hakların kaybolacağı endişesidir. Hiçbir hükümet toplumun tüketim eğilimlerinin önüne geçememiş ve bunu önleyebilmek içinde dolaylı vergileri artırma yoluna gitmişlerdir. Fakat bunda istenilen ölçüde başarılı olamamışlardır.

Tablo 2. 2000-2014 arası Kamu Gelir ve Giderleri

(GSYH'ya Oran, %)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
1. VERGİLER	17,80	18,62	17,05	17,74	17,48	18,02	18,11	17,95	17,48	17,70	18,82	19,26	19,40	20,57	19,79
A. VASITASIZ	6,97	7,49	5,97	5,82	5,44	5,54	5,31	5,74	5,79	5,86	5,40	5,76	5,98	5,81	6,01

² Öner, E “Türkiye’de Bütçe Harcamalarının Genel Bir Değerlendirmesi (1924-1993)”, Türkiye’de Bütçe Harcamaları, IX. Türkiye Maliye Sempozyumu, Silifke, Ç.Ü.İ.İ.B.F. Yayını 1993.

B.VASITALI	10,83	11,13	11,08	11,92	12,04	12,48	12,80	12,21	11,69	11,84	13,42	13,50	13,42	14,77	13,78
2.VERGİ DIŞI NORMAL GELİRLER	1,68	1,61	2,39	2,21	2,24	2,50	2,47	2,05	2,03	2,55	2,15	1,93	2,11	1,69	1,87
3.FAKTÖR GELİRLERİ	2,62	3,98	5,76	4,54	4,36	4,68	4,56	4,26	3,60	4,20	3,57	3,17	3,62	3,60	3,34
4.FONLAR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5.CARİ TRANSFERLER	14,80	19,91	17,62	15,89	12,85	10,16	8,87	8,90	8,58	10,95	9,60	8,70	9,04	9,30	8,71
I.KAMU HARCANABİLİR GELİRİ	5,86	2,51	5,05	5,53	8,25	11,79	13,70	12,25	11,75	10,43	12,52	14,46	14,48	15,24	14,98
II.CARİ GİDERLER	9,29	9,63	9,90	9,67	9,21	8,99	9,54	9,87	10,04	11,27	10,98	10,78	11,56	11,83	11,80
III.KAMU TASARRUFU	3,43	7,12	4,85	4,14	0,96	2,80	4,16	2,38	1,71	0,84	1,55	3,69	2,91	3,41	3,18
IV.YATIRIMLAR	5,20	4,09	4,91	3,68	3,20	3,96	3,65	3,92	4,26	4,42	4,05	4,11	4,41	4,95	4,79
A.SABİT SERMAYE	5,16	4,70	4,94	3,80	3,22	3,79	3,75	3,86	4,11	4,11	4,28	4,10	4,24	4,99	4,84
B.STOK DEĞİŞMESİ	0,04	0,61	0,02	0,13	0,02	0,18	0,10	0,06	0,15	0,31	0,23	0,01	0,16	0,04	0,05
V.TASARRUF-YATIRIM FARKI	8,63	11,21	9,76	7,82	4,16	1,16	0,51	1,53	2,55	5,26	2,51	0,42	1,49	1,54	1,61
VI.SERMAYE TRANSFERLERİ	0,42	0,35	0,32	0,69	0,69	1,24	1,43	1,49	1,06	0,21	0,24	0,39	0,53	1,12	0,71
1.SERVET VERGİLERİ	0,30	0,25	0,33	0,69	0,48	0,57	0,55	0,57	0,57	0,64	0,67	0,70	0,69	0,69	0,66
2.DİĞER TRANSFERLER	0,45	0,14	-	0,03	0,21	0,79	1,18	1,07	0,59	-	-	-	0,04	0,16	0,09
3.KAMULAŞTIRMA VE S.DEĞER ARTIŞI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
VII.KASA-BANKA/BORÇLANMA	8,22	10,87	9,44	7,12	3,47	0,08	1,94	0,05	1,50	5,05	2,27	0,03	0,97	0,42	0,90
1.KASA-BANKA DEĞİŞİMİ	0,68	1,00	0,50	0,30	0,63	0,48	0,08	0,22	0,46	0,24	0,24	0,14	0,62	0,19	0,26
2.DİŞ BORÇLANMA(NET)	2,65	1,61	4,96	0,52	0,81	0,12	0,07	0,18	0,39	0,46	0,62	0,03	0,30	0,07	0,07
-DİŞ BORÇ ÖDEMESİ	2,65	4,61	3,10	2,72	1,99	2,90	2,74	2,99	1,57	2,90	1,48	1,14	0,84	0,06	0,10
-DİŞ BORÇ KULLANIMI	5,30	3,00	8,07	3,24	2,80	2,77	2,67	2,81	1,96	3,36	2,10	1,14	1,14	0,13	0,03
3.İÇ BORÇ/ALACAK(NET)	6,92	14,67	5,52	7,11	3,46	0,53	1,68	0,48	0,78	4,36	1,98	0,24	1,34	0,19	0,80
4.STOK DEĞİŞİM FONU	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIII.FİNANSMAN GEREĞİ	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00

BORÇLANMA GEREĞİ (NET)	8,8 8	12, 06	9,9 8	7,3 2	3,6 3	- 0,0 7	- 1,8 3	0,0 8	1,6 2	5,0 5	2,3 6	0,1 4	0,9 8	0,4 6	0,9 8
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Kaynak: <http://www.kalkinma.gov.tr>

Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açığının Enflasyon Üzerindeki Etkisi

Yukarıdaki tabloda görüldüğü gibi 2000-2014 yılları arası kamu kesimi genel dengesine ilişkin bilgiler vardır. Yalnız burada finansman açıkları ekonomideki enflasyonist konjonktürün meydana gelmesinde çok önemli rol oynamaktadır. Kamu açıklarının kapatılması için finansman yöntemleri ve enflasyonist baskılar en aza indirgenmelidir. Tablodan da görüldüğü gibi kamu açıkları çok yüksekse bu durum enflasyonist bir baskı olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Bütçe açıkları büyüdüğü takdirde bu açıkları kapatmak için kamu mutlaka borçlanacaktır. Bunu da genellikle iç borçlanma yoluyla finanse edilecektir. Bu durumdan en karlı çıkacak kesim ekonomik olarak güçlenmiş olanlardır. Sonuçta ekonomik olarak güçlenmiş olan kesimlere doğru rant akımları başlayacak, bu da ülkedeki gelir dağılımının adaletsizliğine neden olacaktır.

Enflasyonla mücadelede en etkin politika kamu açıklarının kontrol alınması olmuştur.³ Merkez bankasının bağımsız olduğu ekonomilerde enflasyon oranı diğer ülkelere göre daha düşüktür.⁴ Genel ekonomik yapılarda alt kapasite olmaz. Fakat bunlarda toplam arz esnekliği düşüktür. Bu durumda para yaratımı yoluyla kamu açıklarının finansmanının enflasyonist etkisi son derece büyüktür.⁵ Kamu gelirleri özellikle gelişmekte olan ülkelerde kamu harcamalarına yetmez. Bu durumda bir açık ortaya çıkar. Bunun tek çaresi gelirleri arttırmaktır veya giderleri azaltmaktır. Bunların her ikisi de yapılamıyorsa o zaman söz konusu açık borçlanma yoluyla karşılanır.⁶ Kamu açıklarının finansmanında iç borçların enflasyon üzerindeki etkisi borçlanmanın yapıldığı kaynağın özelliği ile ilgilidir. Eğer borçlanma farklı kaynaklardan yapılıyorsa para arzındaki bu borçlanmanın genişleme yapıp yapmadığına bakmak gerekir.⁷ Dış borçlanma yoluyla sağlanan dövizlerin finansmanda kullanılması haliyle bu durum emisyon artışına yol açar. Sonuçta toplam talep genişler. Ayrıca dış borçlanma faiz oranları artışını baskı altında tutar. Dışardan getirilen dövizlerin bir kısmı ithalatın finansmanında kullanılır. Sonuçta toplam arz üzerinde olumlu etki yaratır. Bu sayede enflasyonist baskı azalır. Ayrıca kamu kesimi finansman açıklarının döviz rezervleriyle karşılaşması sonucunda döviz karşılığında alınan ulusal para eğer kamu gideri olarak harcanırsa bu da emisyonla yol açar ve ülke ekonomisindeki enflasyonist baskıyı artırır. Ayrıca döviz rezervleri kamu finansman açıklarının finansmanında kullanılırsa bu durumda ithalat daralır ve toplam arz olumsuz etkilenir. Bu da ülke ekonomisi üzerindeki enflasyonist baskının genişlemesine yol açar.⁸

Kamu açıklarının en önemli etkisi dış denge üzerinde olmaktadır. Hazine genellikle iç piyasalardan borçlanma yolunu tercih etmektedir. Fakat bu imkana varıldığı takdirde yönünü yurt dışı piyasalara gönderir. Bununda nedeni iç piyasalardaki faiz oranındaki aşırı artış iç piyasalardan temin edilecek olan fonun maliyetini yükseltmiştir. Bu durumda uluslararası piyasalardan borçlanmak daha karlı olacaktır. Bu arada ülkeye giren döviz miktarı devam ettikçe bu durum bir sorun oluşturmayacaktır. Fakat bu para eğer cari harcamalarda kullanıldığı takdirde önemli bir tehlike arz etmektedir.⁹

³ Didem Bahar Özgü, "An Empirical Approach to Fiscal Deficits and Inflation: Evidence from Turkey", Annual Meeting of MEEA, January 2000, s.2. www.ceterisparibus.net/turkiye/makaleler.htm

⁴ Robin Bade and Michael Parkin. "Central Bank Laws and Monetary Policy," Unpublished Manuscript, University of Western, Ontario. 1985, s. 310-312.

⁵ Mahmut Duran, "Kamu Finansman Açıklarının Optimal Finansmanı", Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları, X. Maliye Sempozyumu, Mayıs 1994, Antalya, İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi Basımevi No 554, İstanbul 1996, s. 450.

⁶ James M. Buchanan, "The Economic Consequences of Deficit", Journal of Public Finance and Public Choice, 1986/3, s. 151.

⁷ Duran a.g.m, s. 443.

⁸ Duran a.g.m, s. 450

⁹ Sonat, A. "Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları ve Dış Denge", X. Türkiye'de Maliye Sempozyumu, 14-18 Mayıs, İ.Ü. Maliye Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları No:80, 1994.

Türkiye’de kamu açıklarının finansmanı için genellikle üç yol izlenmektedir. Bunlardan birincisi iç borçlanma ikincisi dış borçlanma ve üçüncüsü de emisyon araçlarıdır. Öncelikle Türkiye iç borçlanma yoluna gitmekte ikinci yol olarak da dış borçlanmayı seçmektedir. Dış borçların miktarı vadesi ve faiz yükü son derece önemlidir. Alınan borçların kullanımında emisyonun hacmini ve dış kaynak kullanan sektörlerin niteliği dikkate alınmalıdır. Bunlar fiyatlar genel seviyesi üzerinde önemli etkilere sahiptir. Bu olayı tek başına düşünen yanlıştır. Aynı zamanda bunun döviz gelirleriyle ilgisi ve iç kaynak tasviyesini de içermesi sebebiyle fiyatlar genel seviyesi üzerinde etkili olabilmektedir. İç borçlanma dolaylı ve dolaysız olarak fiyatlar genel seviyesinin etkilemektedir. Eğer dış ödeme oranı büyüme oranından yüksekse o zaman ülkeden dışarıya kaynak transferi olacaktır. Sonuçta reel faiz oranlarının büyüme oranı üzerinde olması ülkedeki gelir dağılımının bozulmasına da neden olacaktır. Bunun da sebebi enflasyonist baskılar artmıştır. Artık borçlanmayı para basarak finanse etmek gerekecektir. Bu da ülkedeki enflasyonun artması demektir.¹⁰

Kamu borcu krizlerine göre kamu açığının iki yönü bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi harcamalar çizgisinin üst kısmı ikincisi de yükümlülük yapısını değiştiren harcamalar çizgisinin alt kısmını oluşturmaktadır. Borç faiz ödemeleri üst kısımda diğeri ise alt kısımda bulunmaktadır. Kamu harcama düzeyi genelde toplam talep yapısını etkilemektedir. Borcun geri ödemesi varlık sahipleri için gelir yaratan unsur değildir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında bu borcun talep yapısını etkiler. Hükümetler kamu gelir ve giderleri arasındaki açığın finansmanı üzerine eğilmektedir. Kamu sektörü likidite yönetimine bağlı bir politikayı tercih etmektedir. Bunun adı da borçlanmadır. Kamu merkez bankası ticari bankalar özel sektörden borçlanmayı tercih eder ve bu tercihte en az maliyet göz önüne alınır.¹¹

Kamu açıkları merkez bankasından doğrudan doğruya borçlanmaları kapsayacak şekilde net kamu borçlanmasını yansıtmalıdır. Bu şekilde tanımlanan bir kamu açığı amortisasyon finansmanı için gerekli borçlanmaya bağlı kredi piyasaları üzerindeki kamu baskısını içermeyiz. Bu da parasal genişleme ölçüsünü yansıtmaz.¹²

1900 yılından sonra kamusal finansman ihtiyaçları sürekli olarak artmıştır. Bunun üzerine 1986 yılından itibaren Türkiye’de borç idaresi değiştirilmiş ve bütçe kanunlarının bütçe açıklarının net borçlanma hasılatı ile karşılanacağı kuralı konulmuştur. Bunun üzerine devlet borçlarının idaresini hazinenin bütçe dışında tutmuş olduğu borçlanma hesaplarıyla takip etmiştir. Fakat buna rağmen borçlanma ihtiyacı sürekli olarak artmış ve finansman açıkları büyük ölçüde iç borçlanma ile karşılanmıştır.¹³

Türkiye’de brüt dış borç stoku, 2015 yılının ikinci çeyrek döneminde 405,2 milyar dolar olmuştur. Hazine’den yapılan açıklamaya göre, özel sektör borçlarının toplam dış borç stoku içerisindeki payı 287,5 milyar dolar olmuştur. Bu pay yüzde 79,9’a tekabül etmektedir. Kamu kesim borçlarının payı ise 115,8 milyar dolar ile yüzde 28,6 olarak gerçekleşmiştir. T.C Merkez Bankası borçlarının toplam dış borç stoku içerisindeki payı ise 2 milyar dolar ile yüzde 0,5 olmuştur.¹⁴

Nitekim kamu kesimi dış borcu 1999 yılında 61,7 milyar dolar iken 2015 yılının ikinci çeyreğinde 405,2 milyar dolara çıkmıştır.

İç borçlar da ise sürekli olarak bir artış gözlemlenmektedir. 1980 yılı başında iç borç yükü yüzde 13,6 iken 1987 yılında bu borç yüzde 23’e yükselmiş ve ilerleyen yıllarda 2000 yılı sonu itibarıyla iç borçların GSMH

¹⁰ Sönmez, S. “Türkiye’de Kamu Açığının Finansmanı ve Enflasyon Vergisi”, ODTÜ Gelişme Dergisi, 25(2), 1998, s. 368

¹¹ Blejer, Mario I. and A.Cheasty, “The Measurement Of Fiscal Deficits: Analitical and Methodological Issues”, Journal Of Economic Literature, Vol.29, No.4, 1991, ss.1644-1678

¹² Tanzi, Vito, M.I. Blejer and M.O. Teijeiro, “Inflation and The Measurement of Fiscal Deficits”, IMF Working Papers WP/87/17, 1987, ss.1-31

¹³ Evgin, T. “Türkiye’de Konsolide Bütçe Uygulamalarının Genel Değerlendirmesi (1980-1995)”, T.C.HDTM, Araştırma Yayınları Dizisi, No,5, Mayıs, 1996.

¹⁴ <http://finans.mynet.com/haber/detay/ekonomi/dis-borc-405-milyar-dolari-gecti/103464>

yüzde 60'a çıkmıştır. IMF verilerine göre bu dönemde Türkiye Brezilya Meksika ve Arjantin dışında dünya ekonomisinde bu kadar yüksek yıllık iç borç artış oranına sahip başka bir ülke yoktur.¹⁵

Türkiye'nin toplam dış borç stoku 2008 yılında 281,2 milyar dolardan 2014 yılında 402,4 milyar dolara, dış borç stokunun GSYH'ya göre oranı da yüzde 37,8'den yüzde 50,3'e yükselmiş bulunuyor. Kamu kesiminin ve TCMB'nin dış borç stoklarında önemli miktarlarda gerileme olmasına karşılık özel kesim dış borç stokunda ortaya çıkan artış bu gerilemelerden fazla olduğu için toplam dış borç stokunda artışa neden olmuş görünüyor. Özel kesim dış borç stokundaki en önemli artış reel kesim dış borç stokunda görülüyor.

Tablo 3. Türkiye'de İç ve Dış Borç Dağılım Tablosu

(Milyar USD)	2008	2014
Türkiye Brüt Dış Borç Stoku	281,2	402,4
Kamu Kesimi	78,3	117,7
TCMB	14,1	2,5
Özel Kesim	188,8	282,2
Bankalar	54,2	144,2
Diğer Finansal Kuruluşlar	21,1	20,8
Reel Kesim	113,4	117,2
GSYH	742,1	800,0
Türkiye Dış Borç Stoku / GSYH (%)	37,8	50,3

Kaynak : <http://www.mahfiegilmez.com/2015/04/kamu-kesimi-ve-ozel-kesimin-borclar.html>

Görüldüğü gibi son yıllarda Türkiye'de kamu açıkları büyümektedir.

Kamu kesiminin finansal varlık piyasasında ağırlığının artması durumunda tasarruflarda istenilen ölçüde bir artış olmadığından özel kesim fon talebini karşılamak için çok zorlanmaktadır. Yeterli kaynak bulunması fon maliyetlerinin artması nedeniyle özel kesim finansal piyasalardan dışlanmaktadır.¹⁶

Faiz Üzerindeki Etki

Kamu açıklarının makro ekonomi üzerine etkileri vardır. Özellikle kamu açıklarının borçlanma ile finansmanın özel kesim tasarruflarının arttırdığı sonuçta faiz üzerindeki etkiyi dengelediği ile savunulmaktadır. Ayrıca bu açıkların servet etkisine yol açtığı özel kesimin tüketimini arttırdığı bilinmektedir. Bunun sonunda sermaye oluşumunun azalması ve gelecek nesillere net bir borç bırakıldığı bilinmektedir.¹⁷

Kamu açıklarının faiz üzerindeki olumsuz etkisi özellikle ülke iç borçlanma yoluyla finansman sağladığında söz konusudur. Bu faiz oranlarındaki artış demektir. Tasarrufların yatırımlardan küçük olduğu zamanlarda yeni borç bulmak çok zordur. Bunun tek yolu faizi arttırmaktır. Türkiye'de genellikle bu yola başvurulur. Çünkü ülke içinde kamu açıkları büyüdüğü takdirde faizler hızla artacaktır.¹⁸

Kamu açıkların piyasadaki koordinasyonu olumsuz etkilediği gibi ülkede istikrarsızlığa da neden olmaktadır. Büyük miktardaki bütçe açıkları genellikle kamu açıklarının da artmasına yol açar. Türkiye'de iç borçlanma da ödenen nominal ve reel faiz oranları özellikle iç borçlanmalarda sürekli pozitif reel faiz ödendiği ve bu faizlerinde dünya ortalamasının üstünde olduğu görülmektedir. Dünya ülkelerine bakıldığında Türkiye'de iç borçlanma çok pahalıdır. Türkiye'nin iç ve dış borç yükü dünya ortalamasının

¹⁵ Yeldan, E., Küreselleşme Sürecinde Türkiye Ekonomisi, İletişim Yayınları, 2001, s. 123.

¹⁶ Barro, R.J., "The Ricardian Approach To Budget Deficits", Journal Of Economics Perspectives, Vol.3, No.2, 1989, s. 48.

¹⁷ Gramlich, E. M. "Budget Deficits and National Saving; Are Politicians Exogenous?", Journal of Economic Perspectives, Vol.3, No.2 Spring, 1989, s. 27.

¹⁸ Arslan Sonat, "Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları ve Dış Denge", Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları, X. Maliye Sempozyumu, Mayıs 1994, Antalya, İstanbul Üniversitesi Basımevi No 554, İstanbul 1996, s. 115.

üzerindedir. Bu durum kamu açıklarının finansal piyasalar üzerindeki etkisinin arttırmaktadır. 1984 yılında vergi oranlarının düşürülmüş olduğunu görüyoruz. Daha sonra mali idarelere konsolide bütçeden ayrılan paylar arttırılmıştır. Neticede kamu kesimleri finansal açıkları yüksek faiz oranlarıyla borçlanarak giderilmeye çalışılmıştır. Kamu bu yıllarda merkez bankasının kaynaklarına başvurmamıştır. Hazine tarafından ihraç edilen devlet iç borçları senetleri 1984 yılından itibaren sürekli olarak artmıştır.¹⁹

Büyüme Üzerindeki Etki

Nihayetinde Türkiye 2000-2001 yıllarında bir finansal kriz yaşamıştır. Kasım 2000 krizi ancak IMF'den sallanan destekle bir kısmı atlatılabilmektedir. 2001 yılı makro ekonomi programı çerçevesinde GSMH'nin reel büyümesi yüzde 4,5 olmuş ve deflatör artışı da yüzde 18 olarak öngörülmüş sonuçta yeni bütçede harcamaların kısıtlandığını görüyoruz. Yıllık net sermaye girişinin bu yıllarda 12 milyar olduğu tahmin edilmiştir. Ancak dış mali yatırımcıların Türkiye'ye olan güveni sarsılmıştır.²⁰

2002 yılında iktidara gelen hükümet öncelikle iktidarsızlığı çözmek için acil eylem planı adı altında ekonomik önlemler paketi hazırlamıştır. Bu plan sayesinde bütçe reformu yapılacak ve özelleştirmelere de hız verilecektir. Bunun etkileri zamanla görülmüş ve yavaş yavaş kamu açıkları azalmaya başlamıştır. Kamu mali yönetim sisteminde en köklü değişiklik 2003 yılının sonunda 5018 sayılı kamu mali yönetimi ve kontrol kanunu çıkarılması olmuştur. Artık bundan sonra bütün hükümetler kamu maliyesinin temel ilkelerine göre hareket edecektir. Ancak bu şekilde kamu kaynaklarını kullanacaklardır.²¹

Bu kanuna göre sistem daha etkin çalışacak ve bununla ilgili uygulamalar tek tek gösterilmiştir. En azından 5018 sayılı kanun ile bütçe bütünlüğü sağlanacak kalkınma planlarıyla bütçeler arasında sıkı bir bağ kurulacaktır. Sonuçta sağlıklı bir hesap verme mekanizması oluşturuluyordu. Harcama sürecinde yetki ve sorumluluk dengesinin yeniden kurulması etkin bir iç mali kontrol sistemini oluşturularak kamu mali yönetiminde verimlilik tutumluluk hesap verebilirlik şeffaflık ilkeleri uygulamaya geçirilecektir.²² Kamu açıkları çok yüksekse bu durumda büyük oranda kamu borçlanması olacaktır. Bu borçlanmanın dış kaynaklardan sağlanması sonucunda ödemelerde ve dış ticaret dengelerinde önemli sapmalar olacaktır.²³

Ayrıca bu şekilde piyasaların hakim olduğunda ödemeler dengesi ve tasarruf yatırım dengesi bu tepkilerle yerine getirilmiş olacak ve sonuçta makro ekonomik dengeler sağlanmış olacaktır.

Sonuç

Kamu açıklarının 1970'li yıllardan itibaren az gelişmiş ülkelerde kronik bir sorun haline gelmiştir. 1973 yılında ilk petrol şokuna kadar birçok ülke denk bütçe yapmış fakat petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıkları ve ekonomik dengelerde bozulmalar ortaya çıkmıştır. Kamu açıklarına ilişkin mali politikalar ülkeden ülkeye değişmektedir. Kamu kesimi finansman açıklarının makro ekonomik değişkenler üzerinde etkisi büyüktür. Bu etkiyi ortadan kaldırmak için merkez bankası kaynakları ve iç borçlanmaların fiyatlar genel seviyesi ve faiz oranları üzerinde önemli etkilere sahiptir. Yüksek oranda kamu borçlanması sonucu reel faizler enflasyonun büyüme oranları üzerinde çok etkili olmaktadır. Ayrıca Türkiye'deki makro ekonomik dinamikler açıklanırken siyasi faktörleri de göz önüne almak gerekmektedir. Türkiye'de 1980'li yıllarda devlet brokrasisi politize olmuş devletin yolsuzlukları kontrol altına almakta çok zorlanmıştır.

¹⁹ DPT , 1980'den 1990'a Makro Ekonomik Politikalar-Türkiye Ekonomisindeki Gelişmelerin Analizi ve Bazı Değerlendirmeler, DPT Yayınları Ankara, 1990, s. 63-65.

²⁰ Uygur, E., Krizden Krize Türkiye, 2000 kasım ve 2001 şubat krizleri, Tartışma Metni 2001/1, Ankara, Türkiye Ekonomi Kurumu, 2001, s. 22.

²¹ Öz, E. Ve E. Kaplan "Türk Mali Sisteminin Yeniden Yapılandırılması", Türk İdare Dergisi, 2005, s. 243.

²² Yılmaz, E.B. ve N. Susam, "Türkiye'de Yeniden Yapılanma Sürecinde Orta Vadeli Harcama Sistemine Geçişin Bütçe Büyüklükleri Üzerindeki Etkileri, Türkiye Üzerine Tahmini Model", Yirminci Maliye Sempozyumu, Erişim, Maliye.Sempozyumu.Pamukkale.edu.tr/20malsemp.pdf, (29.12.2009) , 2005, s. 115-116.

²³ Elif Akbostancı, Gül İpek Tunç, "Turkish Twin Deficits: An Error Correction Model Of Trade Balance", ERC Working Papers in Economics, 01/06 May 2002, s. 2.

Ayrıca bu yıllarda makro ekonomik istikrarsızlığın en önemli sebeplerinden biride seçimlerin sık olarak tekrarlanmasıdır. Yüksek kamu borçlanmaları beraberinde yüksek reel faizler getirmiş ve bu da enflasyonun büyüme oranları üzerinde etkisini fazlaştırmıştır. Kamu gelirlerinin kamu harcamalarını karşılayabilmesi için vergi gelirleri arttırılmalıdır. Daha fazla vergi toplayabilmek içinde vergi oranları düşürülmeli ve vergi tabanı yayılmalıdır. Burada kayıt dışı ekonomi faaliyetleri mercek altına alınmalıdır. Vergi kaçakları önlenmelidir. Üretim faktörleri üzerinde vergi yükü azaltıldığı takdirde daha fazla üretim yapılacak ve daha fazla katma değer yaratılacaktır. Ayrıca kamu harcamaları verimli kullanılmalıdır. Bu harcamalar beşeri sermayenin gelişimine katkı sağlamalıdır. Bir ülkenin kalkınmasında en önemli faktörlerden biri bilgi ve teknolojidir. Eğer bunları yerinde kullanmalıyız. Ayrıca ülkede mali şeffaflık arttırılmalı bütçe disiplini sağlanmalı ve ekonomik rant önlenmelidir. Bunların sağlanabilmesi için Türkiye’de politik istikrarın sağlanması şarttır. Son yıllarda Türkiye’deki sağlanan politik istikrar sayesinde yatırımların hızlandığını görüyoruz.

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Otel Çalışanlarının Örgütsel Sessizlik Düzeylerinin Örgütsel Bağlılıklarına Etkisi: Tekirdağ da Hizmet Veren Otel İşletmelerine Yönelik Bir Araştırma

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Özet: Bu araştırmanın temel amacı; Tekirdağ ilinde faaliyet gösteren otel işletmelerindeki iş görenlerin sessizlik düzeylerinin örgütsel bağlılığa etkisinin olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. İş gücünün, örgütsel süreçlere etkili bir şekilde dahil edilmesi ancak örgütün işgörenle arasında kuracağı bağlarla sağlanacaktır. Örgütsel sessizlik ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki ile ilgili yazında pek çok çalışma görülmüş, otel çalışanları üzerinde bu konuda az sayıda çalışma olduğu görülmüştür. Bu noktada çalışma önemli görülerek, gerçekleştirilmesi gerektiği düşünülmüştür.

Çalışmanın amacını gerçekleştirmek için, Tekirdağ ilinde faaliyet gösteren dört ve beş yıldızlı otel çalışanlarına anket uygulanmıştır. Araştırmada kullanılan ve 24 ifadeden oluşan örgütsel bağlılık ölçeğinin güvenirlik analizi sonucuna göre, Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,703 iken, 15 ifadeden oluşan örgütsel sessizlik ölçeğinin Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,758'dir. Yapılan bu çalışma sonrasında genel olarak örgütsel sessizlikle ilgili örgütsel bağlılık arasında negatif yönlü, orta düzeyde ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu gerçekleştirilen analizler neticesinde tespit edilmiştir. Ve çalışma sonrasında işletmelere bir takım önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel sessizlik, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Otel İşletmeleri.

The Effect of Hotel Employees' Organizational Silence Level on Their Organizational Commitment: A Research Towards Hotel Businesses Serving in Tekirdag

Abstract: The main objective of this study is to determine whether the silence level of those who work in hotel businesses in Tekirdag Province have an effect upon organizational commitment. Including the labour force effectively to organizational processes will only be provided by the links which the organisation will forge with the transactors and itself. While there is a lot of work regarding the relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment, it has been observed that there are few studies on hotel workers about this subject. At this point, the study was considered significant and it was thought that it should be performed.

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study, a survey was conducted to employees of four and five star hotels operating in Tekirdag province. According to the results of reliability analysis of organizational commitment scale which consists of 24 statements and which was used in the research, while Cronbach's alpha coefficients is 0.703, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the organizational silence questionnaire consisting of 15 statements is 0.758. After the conducted study, it has been determined as a result of performed analyses that there is generally an avoidant, moderate and statistically meaningful relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment. A number of suggestions were made to the companies after the study.

Key Words: Organizational silence, Organizational commitment, Hotel Businesses.

1. Giriş

Dünyanın global bir köy haline geldiği, ticarete ülke sınırlarının ortadan kalktığı ve rekabetin şiddetinin giderek arttığı bir ortamda ayakta kalmaya çalışan işletmeler için işgören üzerine odaklanan yönetim yaklaşımları gün geçtikçe daha da önem kazanmaktadır. Bu yaklaşımlardan biri de yetiştirdiği nitelikli elemanlarını kaybetmemek amacıyla oluşturulmaya çalışılan örgüte bağlılıktır. Nitelikli işgörenlerin yaptıkları işten ve çalıştıkları örgütten memnun olmalarını sağlamak, artık örgütler tarafından mal ve/veya hizmet üretmek gibi temel bir amaç olarak görülmektedir. Bu amacın gerçekleştirilmesinde bireyin çalıştığı örgütün hedeflerini benimsemesi ve o örgüt içinde varlığını sürdürmeyi istemesi anlamına gelen örgüte bağlılık ön plana çıkmaktadır (Ardıç ve Çöl, 2008:157).

Günümüz iş dünyasında küreselleşmenin etkisiyle de birlikte değişim çok hızlı ve sürekli bir şekilde gerçekleşmektedir. Sürekli yaşanan bu değişimler işletmeler arasında şiddetli bir rekabeti doğurmaktadır. İşletmelerin bu yoğun rekabette devamlılıklarını sağlayarak, başarılı olmaları her geçen gün zorlaşmaktadır. İşletmelerin başarılı olmalarında iş görenlerin önemi her geçen gün artmaktadır. Çünkü insan kaynağı işletmelerin başarılı olmalarında en önemli faktörlerden biridir. İşletmelerin başarısında insan kaynağının öneminin anlaşılmasıyla birlikte iş görenlerin motive edilerek, işletmeye bağlılıklarını sağlamaya çalışmak önemli hale gelmeye başlamıştır (Eroğlu, Adıgüzel, Öztürk, 2011: 2010; Çakıcı, 2008).

Otel işletmelerinin yapısı gereği emek yoğun bir özelliğe sahip olması insan kaynağının önemini daha da önemli bir hale getirmektedir. Otel işletmelerinin rekabetle baş edip, başarılı olmalarında iş görenlerin rolü çok önemli olarak görülmektedir. Bu nedenle işletmeler, bünyelerinde çalışan iş görenin devamlılığını sağlama noktasında çalışmalar yapmaya başlamışlardır. İşletmeler, iş görenlerin işletmede yaşadıkları sorunları en aza indirgeyerek, örgütsel bağlılıklarını sağlamaya çalışmaktadır (Aktaş, Gök, 2010: 34).

Bu çalışmada, otel işletmelerinde örgütsel sessizliğin örgütsel bağlılığa etkisinin olup olmadığı varsa da bu etkinin nasıl olduğu ortaya konulmaya çalışılmıştır. Turizm endüstrisinde ise etkileşimin en yoğun olduğu konaklama işletmeleri seçilerek iş hacminin yüksek olduğu sektörde inceleme yapılması hedeflenmiştir. Bu amaçla önce örgütsel sessizlik ve örgütsel bağlılık ilgili temel bilgiler verilmeye çalışılarak, konuyla ilgili analiz gerçekleştirilmiştir.

2. Kuramsal Çerçeve

Küreselleşme, bilgi iletişim teknolojilerindeki gelişmeler, rekabetin şiddetlenmedi, işletmelerin amaçlarına ulaşmasını zorlaştırabilmektedir. Bu nedenle işletmeler müşterilerini daha fazla memnun etmek, çevresel belirsizlikleri azaltmak için artık iş görenlerinden daha fazla katkı ve daha fazla sorumluluk beklemektedir (Fatima vd. 2015; 846). Bir işletmedeki iş görenler, işletmelerin başarısında önemli faktörlerden olan yeniliğin, değişimin, öğrenmenin ve yaratıcılığın büyük kaynakları olarak bilinirler (Nikmaram vd 2012; 1271; Eriguc vd 2014; 150; Beheshtifar vd 2012; 275). İşletmelerin yaşamlarına devam edebilmeleri iş görenlerin işletmede çalışıp çalışmamasına bağlıdır. Yani iş görenler çalıştıkları iş yerine ne kadar bağlıysa işletmeler de o kadar başarılı olabilmektedir. İş görenlerin, işletmelerin devamlılığını sağlama noktasındaki önemini bilen işletmeler, iş görenlerini motive ederek, iş görenlerin işletmeye bağlılığını sağlamaya çalışmaktadırlar (Bayram, 2005:125-126).

Örgütsel sessizlik, iş görenlerin iş yerindeki sorunları isteyerek ya da istemeyerek dile getirmemeleridir (Eroğlu, Adıgüzel, Öztürk, 2011: 2010). Örgütsel sessizlik, çalışanın örgütsel konu hakkında bilgisi ve fikri olmasına rağmen bu bilgiyi saklamasını ifade etmektedir (Çakıcı, 2010: 120; Laeeque, 2007: Zafar Bakhtawari 2014: 46; Eriguc vd. 2014: 157; Detert, Burris 2007: 869). Başka bir tanıma göre, örgütsel sessizlik, çalışanların iş ortamıyla ilgili olumlu değişiklikler yapabilecek kişilere fikirlerini söylemekten kaçınmasıdır (Pinder ve Harlos, 2001:342). Bu da örgütlerin olumlu yönde gelişmelerini engelleyen bir durum olarak belirtilebilir. Günümüzde de örgütsel sessizlik, çalışanların işletmede sessiz kalarak bir tepki ve geri çekilme olarak ele alınmaktadır (Bildik, 2009: 26). Yani örgütsel sessizliğin işletmelerde olması çok istenen bir durum değildir. Bu durum işletmelerin başarısında olumsuz bir etki yapabilmektedir (Bagheri, Zarei ve Aeen, 2012: 52; Xueming 2013: 562).

Örgütsel sessizlik kabullenici sessizlik, savunmacı sessizlik ve ilişkisel sessizlik olarak üç farklı boyuttan oluşmaktadır (Şimşek, Aktaş 2015: 83; Zheng vd. 2008: 219). *Kabullenici sessizlik*; iş görenler fikirlerini ifade etseler bile işletmede herhangi bir değişikliğe neden olmayacağını düşündükleri için sessiz kalmalarını ifade eder (Dyne vd. 2003: 1366). *Savunmacı sessizlik*; iş görenlerin korku, kaygı, risk, kendini güvende hissetmemesi vb. gibi nedenlerden dolayı sessiz kalmasıdır (Dyne vd. 2003: 1371). *İlişkisel sessizlik* ise; iş görenlerin fikirlerini söyledikleri zaman işletmedeki diğer iş görenlere zarar vereceklerini düşünmelerinden dolayı sessiz kalmalarıdır (Dyne vd. 2003: 1373).

İş görenler problemlerle yada belirli konularda sessiz kalmayı tercih ederler (Morrison, Milliken 2000: 706; Tangirala, Ramanujam 2008:37), işletmelerde çalışanların sessiz kalarak, işletmenin yararına bile olsa fikirlerini paylaşmamalarının bir takım sebepleri bulunmaktadır. Bu sebepler yöneticilere güvenilmemesi, konuşmanın riskli görülmesi, izolasyon korkusu, geçmiş tecrübeler, ilişkileri zedeleme korkusu, diğer

çalışanlardan destek bulamama, çalışan itaati, sağır kulak sendromu, pasif kalma ve razı olma olarak söylenebilmektedir (Kılıçlar, Harbalıoğlu, 2014:329-330; Bowen, Blackmon 2003: 1393). İş görenler, örgüt için hassas konularda konuşmaları halinde zarar göreceklərini düşündüklerinden işletmede pasif kalmayı tercih edebilmektedirler (Milliken, Morrison ve Hewlin, 2003:1456).

Örgütsel sessizliğin sadece işletmeyi etkilediği düşünülse de aslında sadece işletmeyi değil aynı zamanda iş görenleri de etkilemektedir (Bagheri vd. 2012: 51). Çalışanların fikirlerini belirtmemesi, yada bazı şeyleri saklayarak fikir belirtmesi örgütün gelişmesine zarar verir. Örgüt içerisinde sorunların tam olarak tespit edilmesini engelleyerek, yeniliklerin, farklılıkların gerçekleşmesini engelleyebilir. Çalışanlarda örgütte sessiz kalarak, asıl sorun yaşadıkları konuları belirtmedikleri için bir çözüm üretilemez, kendilerini güçsüz hisseder, örgüte bağlılık, takdir, destek, güven duygularında azalma yaşamaya başlarlar. Bu durum da çalışanların iş yaşamında mutlu olmasını engelleyerek, işten ayrılmalarına sebep olabilmektedir (Barçın, 2012; Deniz vd 2013; 692; Bagheri vd., 2012:53).

Örgütsel bağlılık ile ilgili literatür taraması yapıldığında kavramın yönetim, psikoloji, sosyoloji gibi alanlarda farklı bakış açılarıyla ele alındığı görülmektedir (Pelit, 2015:586). En genel tanımıyla iş görenlerin işletmeye olan bağlılıklarının gücü örgütsel bağlılık olarak ifade edilebilmektedir (Eroğlu, Adıgüzel, Öztürk, 2011: 2010). Başka bir ifadeyle örgütsel bağlılık, çalışanların işletmelerini ne kadar benimseyip içselleştirdiği ve bu işletmede kalmayı ne kadar istediklerini belirtmektedir (Greenberg, 2002:130). Örgütsel bağlılık ile ilgili yapılan çalışmalardan işletmelerin başarısında bu konunun çok önemli olduğu anlaşılmaktadır (Bayram, 2005; Duygulu ve Abaan, 2007; Gül vd., 2008). İşletmeler, yüksek devir oranının sebep olduğu yüksek maliyetleri ortadan kaldırmak ve işletmede istikrarı sağlamak amacıyla çalışanların örgüte bağlı olmasını istemektedir (Meyer ve Allen, 2004:2). En çok kabul görmüş örgütsel bağlılık modeli Allen ve Meyer Modeli'dir (Yavuz, Tokmak, 2009:21). Bu model duygusal, devam ve normatif olmak üzere üç faktörden oluşmaktadır (Allen ve Meyer, 1190:2). Allen ve Meyer'in duygusal bağlılık modeli, çalışan kişilerin duygusal olarak kendi istekleriyle işletmede kalmak istemelerini belirtmektedir (Meyer ve Herscovitch, 2011; Güçlü, 2006: 11). Çalıştıkları işletmelere duygusal bağlılık duyan çalışanlar gece gündüz demeden özel hayatlarından fedakarlık yaparak işletme için sorumluluk alarak çalışabilmektedirler (Öztürk, 2013: 26 McGee ve Ford, 1987: 638-642). Devam bağlılığında çalışanlar işletmede bulundukları süre boyunca yaptıkları hizmetlerin, harcadıkları zamanın aldıkları maaş ve terfilerin işletmeyi terk etmeleri halinde başka işletmelerde bir karşılığının olamayacağını düşünerek, işletmelerinden ayrılamamaktadırlar. Kısacası çalışanların işletmeleri için yaptıkları yatırımlar sonucunda kendilerini işletmelerine bağlı hissetmeleri devam bağlılığı faktörüyle açıklanmaktadır. Normatif bağlılık, çalışanların sadakat duygusu ve ahlaki değerleri açısından işlerine devam etmek istemeleri ve başka bir işletmeye geçmeyi düşünmemeleri anlamına gelmektedir (Öztürk, 2013:27-28).

Örgütsel bağlılık, bireylerin örgüt çıkarlarını, kendi çıkarlarından üstün görmesiyle gerçekleşmektedir. İş görenlerin işletmelerine yüksek düzeyde bağlılık duymasının birtakım faydaları bulunmaktadır. Örgütlerine yüksek düzeyde bağlılık duyan iş görenler, işletmenin amaç ve ilkelerini benimseyerek (Wasti, 2005: 296), işletme için ekstra çaba sarf ederler ve kendi işletmelerinden başka yerde çalışmayı düşünmezler (Ward ve Davis, 1995: 35; Baysal ve Paksoy 1999:7). Ayrıca bu tür çalışanlar, işletmelerinin rekabet gücünü arttırarak, (Koçel, 2014:534) başarılı olmasını sağlarlar. Ve işletme içerisinde eğitim sorununa gönüllü olarak zaman ayırmaktadırlar (Feldman ve Moore 1982:2).

İş görenlerin örgütlerine bağlılık duymasının sadece işletmeye değil, çalışana da yararları bulunmaktadır. İnsanların çalıştığı örgüte yüksek düzeyde bağlılık duyması kendini güvende ve işletmeye ait olma duygusunu hissetmesini sağlar (Angle ve Perry 1981:3; Koçel, 2014:534). İş görenler, işletmelerinin terfi ve maaş konularında adil davranmasına önem vermektedir. Örgüte bağlılık konusu göz önüne alınarak çalışanların terfi, maaş konularının gerçekleştirilmesi durumunda işletmelerin istikrarı sağlanmış olacaktır (Wallace, 1995:249). Bu da hem işletme için hem de çalışan için daha iyi bir durumun oluşmasını sağlayacaktır.

Yapılan çalışmalarda örgütsel sessizliğin örgütsel bağlılığı etkilediği anlaşılmaktadır. Örgütsel sessizlik genel olarak negatif bir durum olarak ele alınarak, örgütlerde sessizliğin örgüte bağlılığı olumsuz etkilediği anlaşılmaktadır (Yüksel, 2015:72-73). Örgütlerde sessizlik çalışanların yaşadıkları sorunları rahat bir şekilde söyleyememelerine ya da örgütün faydasına olacak bir fikri de paylaşmamasına (Pinder ve Harlos,

2001:343) sebep olacaktır. Örgütsel sessizliği yaşayan çalışanların örgütlerini benimseyerek, örgüte bağlı olmaları da daha zor olacaktır. Bu da işletmelerin başarısı için olumsuz durumların oluşmasına sebep olabilmektedir.

3. Araştırmanın Yöntemi

3.1. Araştırmanın Amacı ve Önemi

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı; Tekirdağ ilinde faaliyet gösteren otel işletmelerindeki iş görenlerin örgütsel bağlılıklarının, iş gören sessizliğe ile ilişkisinin olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. Örgütsel bağlılık otel işletmelerinde olması istenen bir durum iken örgütsel sessizliğin negatif durumlar ortaya çıkaracağı düşünüldüğünden, istenmeyen ve olumsuz algılanan bir durumdur. Bu çalışmada ters yönlü olan bu iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiler otel çalışanlarına yönelik araştırılmaktadır. Diğer bir ifade ile bu araştırmanın temel amacı; otel çalışanlarının örgütsel sessizlik ile örgütsel bağlılık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirmek için çalışmada sınanacak hipotezler şu şekildedir:

H₀: İş gören sessizliği ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki yoktur.

H₁: İş gören sessizliği ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır.

Konuyla ilgili daha önce yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde örgütsel sessizlik ve bağlılık konusunda turizm endüstrisine yönelik çok fazla çalışma olmadığı görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda hem literatürdeki boşluğa katkı sağlanması hem de otel yöneticilerine önerilerde bulunabilmek açısından önem arz etmektedir.

3.2. Evren ve Örneklem Seçimi

Araştırmanın evrenini 2015 yılında Tekirdağ'da faaliyet gösteren dört ve beş yıldızlı otel işletmelerinde çalışanlar oluşturmaktadır. Yapılan çalışma sonucunda bu otellerde toplamda 310 çalışan bulunmaktadır. Bu çerçevede anket 215 çalışana uygulanmış ve 204 kullanılabilir anket elde edilmiştir.

3.3. Veri Toplama Aracı

Araştırma nicel bir araştırma olup, veri toplama yöntemi anket formları kullanılmıştır. Ankette 5'li Likert Tipi ölçek kullanılmıştır. Anket iki bölümden oluşmaktadır; Anketin ilk bölümünde iş görenlerin sessizlik düzeylerini belirlemeye yönelik 15 ifade yer alırken, örgütsel bağlılık seviyelerini belirlemeye yönelik 24 ifade bulunmaktadır. İkinci bölümde; katılımcıların, cinsiyet, yaş, çalışılan bölüm, medeni durum, öğrenim ve gelir durumunu öğrenmeye yönelik demografik sorular bulunmaktadır. Anket çalışması 1 Haziran-1 Temmuz 2015 tarihleri arasında yapılmıştır. Anket verilerinin analizlerinde istatistik paket programlarından faydalanılmıştır.

Araştırmada daha önce güvenilirliği ve geçerliliği sağlanmış ölçekler kullanılmıştır. Örgütsel sessizlik ölçeği olarak 2003 yılında Linn Van Dyne, SoonAng ve Isabel C. Botero tarafından geliştirilen ölçek kullanılmıştır. Örgütsel bağlılık için ise Meyer ve Allen tarafından 1990 yılında geliştirilen ölçek kullanılmıştır. Anket, ilgili örneklem grubuna uygulanmadan önce, anketteki ifadelerin araştırma amacına uygunluğunu ve içerik açısından kontrolünü yapmak amacıyla, 30 otel çalışanına ön teste yönelik pilot anket uygulanmış ve geri bildirimler doğrultusunda anket yeniden gözden geçirilerek son şekli verilmiştir.

3.4. Araştırmanın Bulguları

3.4.1. Demografik Bulgular

Örneklem grubunun demografik özelliklerinin gösterildiği tablo 1 incelendiğinde, katılımcıların % 51,5'inin kadınlardan, %48,5'inin ise erkek çalışanlardan oluştuğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların % 55,4'ü 26-35 yaş grubundadır. Katılımcıların öğrenim düzeyleri incelendiğinde % 48'inin lise mezunu olduğu görülmektedir.

Katılımcıların %35,3'ü yiyecek içecek departmanı çalışanlarından, %30,4'ü ise kat hizmetleri departmanı çalışanlarından oluşurken, % 76'sı 1001-2000 TL gelir grubundadır. Katılımcıların % 52,5'i bekâr iken, % 47,5'i evlidir.

Tablo 1. Araştırmaya Katılanların Demografik Özelliklerine İlişkin Bulgular

DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLER		N	%
CİNSİYET	Erkek	99	48,5
	Kadın	105	51,5
	Toplam	204	100,0
YAŞ	25 ve altı	42	20,6
	26-35	113	55,4
	36-45	43	21,1
	46-55	6	2,9
	Toplam	204	100,0
MEDENİ DURUM	Evli	97	47,5
	Bekar	107	52,5
	Toplam	204	100,0
ÖĞRENİM DÜZEYİ	İlköğretim	14	6,9
	Lise	98	48,0
	Önlisans	73	35,8
	Lisans ve Üstü	17	8,3
	Diğer	2	1,0
	Toplam	204	100,0
ÇALIŞILAN BÖLÜM	Yiyecek-içecek	72	35,3
	Önbüro	37	18,1
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	30,4
	Satış ve Pazarlama	13	6,4
	Diğer	20	9,8
	Toplam	204	100,0
GELİR DURUMU	1000 TL ve altı	7	3,4
	1001-2000	155	76,0
	2001-3000	38	18,6
	3001-4000	4	2,0
	Toplam	204	100

3.4.2. Araştırma Ölçeklerinin Güvenirlilik Analizi

Uygulanan anket daha önce geliştiren, geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği test edilmiş ölçek sorularından oluşturulmuştur. Yapılan güvenilirlik testinde her bir boyuta ait Cronbach Alfa katsayıları tablo 2 ve 3'te verilmiştir. Yapılan analiz sonucunda ölçekte bulunan her bir boyutun güvenilir olduğu söylenebilir.

Tablo 2. Örgütsel Bağlılık Ölçeğini İlişkin Güvenirlilik Analizi

BOYUT	İFADELER	Cronbach Alfa
DUYGUSALBAĞLILIK	1, 2.3.4.5.6.7.8. ifadeler	0,714
DEVAMBAĞLILIĞI	9.10.11.12.13.14.15.16. ifadeler	0,742
NORMATİFBAĞLILIK	17.18.19.20.21.22.23.24. ifadeler	0,690

Araştırmada kullanılan ve 24 ifadeden oluşan örgütsel bağlılık ölçeğinin güvenilirlik analizi sonucuna göre, Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,703 olarak tespit edilmiştir. Tablo 2 incelendiğinde, Duygusal Bağlılık boyutunun Cronbach Alfa değeri; 0,714; Devam Bağlılığı boyutunun Cronbach Alfa değeri; 0,742 ve Normatif Bağlılık boyutunun Cronbach Alfa değerinin; 0,690 olduğu görülmektedir.

15 ifadeden oluşan Örgütsel Sessizlik ölçeğinin güvenirlik analizi sonucuna göre Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,758'dir. Tablo 3 incelendiğinde, ölçeğin kabullenici boyutunun Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,849, Korunma boyutunun Cronbach Alfa değeri 0,803 ve son olarak koruma boyutunun ise Cronbach Alfa değerinin 0,762 olduğu görülmektedir.

Tablo 3. Örgütsel Sessizlik Ölçeğine İlişkin Güvenirlik Analizi

BOYUT	İFADELER	Cronbach Alfa
KABULLENİCİ	1.2.3.4.5. ifadeler	0,849
KORUNMA	6.7.8.9.10. ifadeler	0,803
KORUMA	11.12.13.14.15. ifadeler	0,762

Tablo 4 incelendiğinde en yüksek ortalamanın koruma sessizliği boyutunda ($\bar{X} = 3,273$) olduğu, en düşük ortalamanın ise korunma sessizliği boyutunda ($\bar{X} = 1,872$) olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların genel sessizlik düzeyi ise 2,427 olarak belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 4. Örgütsel Sessizlik Ölçeği Alt Boyutlarının Ortalama ve Standart Sapma Değerleri

	N	Ortalama	Standart Sapma
Kabullenici	204	2,134	,929
Koruma	204	3,273	,604
Korunma	204	1,872	,742
Genel Ortalama	204	2,427	,587

Tablo 5 incelendiğinde en yüksek ortalama duygusal bağlılık alt boyutunda iken ($\bar{X} = 3,942$), en düşük ortalama devam bağlılığı alt boyutunda ($\bar{X} = 3,68$) olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların genel örgütsel bağlılık ortalaması ise 3,836 olarak bulunmuştur. Çalışanların örgütsel bağlılık düzeylerinin genellikle ortalamanın üzerinde olduğu söylenilebilir.

Tablo 5. Örgütsel Bağlılık Ölçeği Alt Boyutlarının Ortalama ve Standart Sapma Değerleri

	N	Ortalama	Standart Sapma
Duygusal bağlılık	204	3,942	,805
Devam bağlılığı	204	3,689	,597
Normatif bağlılık	204	3,876	,573
Genel Ortalama	204	3,836	,469

3.4.3. Örgütsel Sessizlik ve Örgütsel Bağlılık Boyutları Arasındaki Korelasyon Analizi Sonuçları

İki değişken arasındaki ilişki düzeyini ve yönünü belirlemeye yardım eden yöntem korelasyon analizi adı verilmektedir. Diğer bir ifadeyle korelasyon, iki değişken arasındaki ilişkinin büyüklüğünü, yönünü ve önemini ortaya koyan yöntemdir. Çalışma kapsamında kullanılan Pearson Korelasyonu'ndan, iki değişken arasında ilişki olup olmadığının tespit edilmesinde yararlanılmaktadır.

Tablo 6' da gösterilen, örgütsel sessizlik ve örgütsel bağlılık alt boyutları arasındaki korelasyon analizine göre; Duygusal bağlılık ile kabullenici sessizlik arasında negatif yönlü, orta derecede ve anlamlı bir ilişki (r: 0,428; p=0,00<0,05), korunma sessizliği arasında ise aynı şekilde negatif yönlü, güçlü ve anlamlı bir ilişki (r: 0,478; p=0,011<0,05) tespit edilmiştir. Duygusal bağlılık ile koruma sessizliği arasında ise pozitif yönlü, orta derecede ve anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur (r: 0,564; p=0,00<0,05) Başka bir deyişle duygusal bağlılık arttıkça, kabullenici ve korunma sessizliği azalmaktadır. Devam bağlılığı ile kabullenici (r: 0,517; p=0,00<0,05), korunma (r: 0,617; p=0,00<0,05) ve koruma sessizlik boyutları (r: 0,598; p=0,00<0,05) arasında pozitif yönlü, orta derecede ve anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur.

Tablo 6. Örgütsel Bağlılık ve Sessizlik Alt Boyutları Korelasyon Analizi Sonuçları

		Kabullenici	Korunma	Koruma	Genel Örgütsel Sessizlik
Duygusal Bağlılık	PearsonCorrelation	-, **428	-,478	,564	-, **311
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,011	,017	,000
	N	204	204	204	204
Devam Bağlılığı	PearsonCorrelation	, **517	,617	,598	, **547
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,003	,085	,080	,001
	N	204	204	204	204
Normatif Bağlılık	PearsonCorrelation	, **182	, **206	, **357	, **397
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,009	,003	,000	,000
	N	204	204	204	204
Genel Örgütsel Bağlılık	PearsonCorrelation	,030	,097	,096	-,593
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,674	,168	,174	,000
	N	204	204	204	204

**Korelasyonlar Alfa 0.01 düzeyinde anlamlıdır. * Korelasyonlar Alfa 0.05 düzeyinde anlamlıdır

Bu duruma göre devam bağlılığı arttıkça örgütsel sessizlik alt boyutları da artar. Normatif bağlılık ile örgütsel sessizliğin tüm alt boyutları arasında pozitif yönlü, zayıf ve anlamlı bir korelasyon ilişkisi (r: 0,182; 0,206, 0,357; p <0,05) bulunmuştur. Bu sonuca göre, normatif bağlılık arttıkça örgütsel sessizlikte artmaktadır.

Genel olarak örgütsel sessizlikle ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında negatif yönlü, orta düzeyde ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı (r: 0,593; p=0,00<0,05) bir ilişki mevcuttur.Bu sonuca göre H1 kabul edilmiş ve H0red edilmiştir. Diğer bir ifadeyle, İş gören sessizliği ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. Bu bağlamda örgütsel sessizlik arttıkça örgütsel bağlılıkta azalma ya da örgütsel sessizlik azaldıkça örgütsel bağlılıkta artış olduğu yapılan analizler sonucunda tespit edilmiştir.

3.4.4. Değişkenlere Yönelik T Testi ve Anova Sonuçları

Araştırmanın bu bölümünde araştırmaya katılan otel çalışanlarının demografik özelliklerine göre örgütsel bağlılık ve örgütsel sessizlik ile ilgili boyutlarda farklılaşma olup olmadığına ilişkin yapılan analizlerin bulgularına yer verilmektedir.

Katılımcıların demografik özelliklerine göre örgütsel bağlılık ve örgütsel sessizlik boyutları arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olup olmadığının tespiti için parametrik varsayımları yerine getiren t testi ve anova testleri kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar % 95 güven aralığında, anlamlılık p<0,05 düzeyinde çift yönlü olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Katılımcıların örgütlerine olan bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeylerinin cinsiyetlerine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek amacıyla bağımsız örneklerde t-testi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonucunda katılımcıların örgütsel bağlılık ve örgütsel sessizlik tüm boyutlar ile ilgili değerlendirmeleri cinsiyetlerine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar göstermemektedir (p > 0,05).

Katılımcıların örgütlerine olan bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeylerinin medeni durumlarına göre karşılaştırılmasına ilişkin yapılan t-testi sonucunda tüm faktörler için anlamlı bir fark (p>0,05) bulunamamıştır. Bu sonuç %95 güven aralığında istatistiksel olarak anlamsız bulunmuştur.

Katılımcıların örgütlerine olan bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeylerinin yaş durumlarına göre karşılaştırılmasına ilişkin yapılan anova analizi sonucunda; sadece örgütsel sessizlik alt boyutlarından kabullenici sessizlik, örgütsel bağlılık alt boyutlarından ise normatif bağlılık boyutu katılımcıların yaşına göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar (p < 0,05) gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir. Farkın hangi gruplar arasında anlamlı olduğunun tespit edilmesi için Tukey analizi yapılmıştır. Bu analiz sonucunda, Kabullenici sessizlik boyutunda, 25 ve altı yaş grubu ile 46-55; 26-35 yaş grubu ile 46-55 yaş grupları arasındaki farklılık anlamlı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Normatif bağlılık boyutunda ise; 25 ve altı yaş grubu ile 26-35 yaş grubu arasındaki farklılığın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 7. Katılımcıların Örgütsel Bağlılık ve Örgütsel Sessizlik Boyutlarının Yaş Durumlarına Göre Dağılımı

		N	Ortalama	S.Sapma	F değeri	P
Kabullenici Sessizlik	25 ve altı	42	2,13	,725		
	26-35	113	2,08	1,023		
	36-45	43	2,11	,836	2,808	,041
	46-55	6	3,20	,178		
	Toplam	204	2,13	,929		
Korunma Sessizliği	25 ve altı	42	1,75	,510		
	26-35	113	1,88	,824		
	36-45	43	1,99	,658	,918	,433
	46-55	6	1,66	1,030		
	Toplam	204	1,87	,742		
Koruma Sessizliği	25 ve altı	42	3,22	1,015		
	26-35	113	3,41	1,102		
	36-45	43	2,93	,998	2,165	,093
	46-55	6	3,40	,357		
	Toplam	204	3,27	1,060		
Duygusal Bağlılık	25 ve altı	42	2,71	,826		
	26-35	113	3,05	,754		
	36-45	43	2,96	,895	3,245	,063
	46-55	6	2,29	,064		
	Toplam	204	2,94	,805		
Devam Bağlılığı	25 ve altı	42	2,56	,670		
	26-35	113	2,74	,574		
	36-45	43	2,69	,614	,924	,430
	46-55	6	2,58	,170		
	Toplam	204	2,68	,597		
Normatif Bağlılık	25 ve altı	42	2,64	,569		
	26-35	113	2,95	,592		
	36-45	43	2,90	,510	3,086	,028
	46-55	6	2,91	,129		
	Toplam	204	2,87	,573		

Katılımcıların örgütlerine olan bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeylerinin eğitim durumlarına göre karşılaştırılmasına ilişkin yapılan anova analizi sonucunda; örgütsel sessizlik alt boyutlarından kabullenici ve korunma sessizliği alt boyutları katılımcıların eğitim seviyesine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar ($p<0,05$) gösterdiği belirlenmiştir (Tablo 8).

Tablo 8. Katılımcıların Örgütsel Bağlılık ve Örgütsel Sessizlik Boyutlarının Eğitim Durumlarına Göre Dağılımı

		n	Ortalama	S.Sapma	F değeri	P
Kabullenici Sessizlik	İlköğretim	14	3,25	,473	7,924	,000
	Lise	98	2,11	,846		
	Önlisans	73	1,88	,887		
	LisansveÜstü	17	2,42	1,178		
	Diğer	2	1,60	,000		
	Toplam	204	2,13	,929		
Korunma Sessizliği	İlköğretim	14	1,85	,962	1,925	,108
	Lise	98	1,78	,640		
	Önlisans	73	1,92	,678		
	LisansveÜstü	17	2,24	1,192		
	Diğer	2	1,20	,000		
	Toplam	204	1,87	,742		
Koruma Sessizliği	İlköğretim	14	3,12	,605	2,695	,032
	Lise	98	3,19	1,055		
	Önlisans	73	3,41	1,076		
	Lisans ve Üstü	17	3,47	1,122		
	Diğer	2	1,20	,000		
	Toplam	204	3,27	1,060		
Duygusal Bağlılık	İlköğretim	14	2,51	,552	3,868	,085
	Lise	98	2,95	,811		
	Önlisans	73	2,88	,804		
	Lisans ve Üstü	17	3,27	,699		
	Diğer	2	4,50	,000		
	Toplam	204	2,94	,805		
Devam Bağlılığı	İlköğretim	14	2,83	,458	,542	,705
	Lise	98	2,66	,551		
	Önlisans	73	2,65	,611		
	Lisans ve Üstü	17	2,83	,881		
	Diğer	2	2,62	,000		
	Toplam	204	2,68	,597		
Normatif Bağlılık	İlköğretim	14	3,11	,291	1,197	,313
	Lise	98	2,82	,492		
	Önlisans	73	2,92	,631		
	Lisans ve Üstü	17	2,83	,857		
	Diğer	2	2,50	,000		
	Toplam	204	2,87	,573		

Kabullenici sessizlik boyutunda farklılıklar ilköğretim ile lise ve ön lisans grupları arasında, koruma sessizliği alt boyutunda ise diğer grubu ile ön lisans, lisans ve üstü grupları arasında anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur.

Katılımcıların Örgütsel Bağlılık ve sessizlik Ölçeği'nden aldıkları ortalamalarının çalışılan bölüme göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını belirlemek üzere yapılan anova analizi sonucunda, örgütsel sessizlik alt boyutlarından kabullenici sessizlik çalışılan bölüme göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar gösterdiği belirlenmiştir ($p < 0,05$). Örgütsel bağlılık alt boyutlarından ise duygusal bağlılık ve devam bağlılığı boyutları katılımcıların çalıştıkları bölüme göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar göstermiştir ($p < 0,05$). Ancak katılımcıların çalıştıkları bölüme göre örgütsel bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır ($p > 0,05$).

Farklılıkların kaynaklarını belirlemek amacıyla Tukey testi yapılmıştır. Kabullenici sessizlik boyutunda; yiyecek içecek bölümü ile önbüro bölümü ve ön büro bölümüyle kat hizmetleri bölümü arasında, duygusal bağlılık boyutunda; yiyecek içecek bölümü ile satış-pazarlama bölümü arasında ve devam bağlılığı boyutunda ise önbüro bölümü ile diğer bölümler arasındaki farklılıklar anlamlı olarak belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 9. Katılımcıların Örgütsel Bağlılık ve Örgütsel Sessizlik Boyutlarının Çalışılan Bölüme Göre Dağılımı

		n	Ortalama	S.Sapma	F değeri	P
Kabullenici Sessizlik	Yiyecek-içecek	72	2,30	,971	2,625	,036
	Önbüro	37	1,84	,805		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	2,25	,914		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	1,73	,801		
	Diğer	20	1,95	,959		
	Toplam	204	2,13	,929		
Korunma Sessizliği	Yiyecek-içecek	72	1,94	,804	1,313	,266
	Önbüro	37	2,04	,569		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	1,73	,710		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	1,83	1,009		
	Diğer	20	1,77	,659		
	Toplam	204	1,87	,742		
Koruma Sessizliği	Yiyecek-içecek	72	3,23	1,019	,681	,606
	Önbüro	37	3,32	,889		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	3,29	1,146		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	3,63	1,494		
	Diğer	20	3,03	,911		
	Toplam	204	3,27	1,060		
Duygusal Bağlılık	Yiyecek-içecek	72	2,95	,779	2,705	,032
	Önbüro	37	3,03	,513		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	2,95	,954		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	3,27	,427		
	Diğer	20	2,44	,871		
	Toplam	204	2,94	,805		
Devam Bağlılığı	Yiyecek-içecek	72	2,77	,664	3,216	,014
	Önbüro	37	2,86	,475		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	2,57	,625		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	2,70	,431		
	Diğer	20	2,38	,352		
	Toplam	204	2,68	,597		
Normatif Bağlılık	Yiyecek-içecek	72	2,81	,637	,502	,734
	Önbüro	37	2,87	,675		
	Kat Hizmetleri	62	2,93	,507		
	Satış- Pazarlama	13	2,98	,560		
	Diğer	20	2,85	,258		
	Toplam	204	2,87	,573		

Katılımcıların elde ettikleri gelir düzeyine göre örgütsel bağlılık ve sessizlik düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır($p>0.05$). Bu sonuca göre; bireylerin örgüt bağlılığı ve sessizlik düzeyleri gelir seviyesine göre farklılaşmamaktadır (Tablo 9).

4. Sonuç ve Tartışma

Otel çalışanlarının örgütsel sessizlik ile örgütsel bağlılık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemek amacıyla gerçekleştirilen araştırmadan aşağıdaki sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır. Genel olarak örgütsel sessizlikle ilgili örgütsel bağlılık arasında negatif yönlü, orta düzeyde ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki mevcuttur. Diğer bir ifadeyle, iş gören sessizliği ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. Bu bağlamda örgütsel sessizlik arttıkça örgütsel bağlılıkta azalma ya da örgütsel sessizlik azaldıkça örgütsel bağlılıkta artış olduğu yapılan analizler sonucunda tespit edilmiştir.

Yapılan analiz neticesinde çalışanların cinsiyet, medeni durum ve gelirin örgütsel bağlılığı ve örgütsel sessizliği etkileyen değişkenler olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Yapılan çalışma neticesinde iş görenlerin örgütsel bağlılık ve sessizlik boyutlarının yaş değişkenine göre sadece kabullenici sessizlik ve normatif bağlılık alt boyutları arasında farklılık olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yaşın ilerlemesiyle birlikte iş görenler iş değiştirmeyi pek düşünmemekte, ayrıca daha önce yaşanan tecrübeler kişilerin sessizleşmesine sebep olmakta genç yaştaki çalışanlar ise bu konuda daha rahat hareket edilebilmekte ve daha fazla risk alabilmektedir. Bu durum, normatif bağlılık boyutunda farklılık oluşturmaktadır. Kabullenici sessizlik boyutunda farklılık ise, genç iş görenlerin kaybedecekleri çok fazla şeyin olmamasına orta yaş iş görenlerin ise sorumluluklarının daha fazla olmasına yorumlanabilir.

Yapılan çalışma neticesinde iş görenlerin örgütsel bağlılık ve sessizlik boyutlarının eğitim değişkenine göre sadece kabullenici sessizlik ve koruma sessizliği alt boyutları arasında farklılık olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu durum beklenen bir durumdur. İnsanların eğitim seviyeleri arttıkça iş bulabilme şansları artabilmekte dolayısıyla iş yerindeki olumsuzluklara sessiz kalmamaktadırlar.

Yapılan çalışma neticesinde iş görenlerin örgütsel bağlılık ve sessizlik boyutlarının çalışılan departmana göre sadece kabullenici sessizlik, devam bağımlılığı ve duygusal bağımlılık alt boyutları arasında farklılık olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Kabullenici sessizlik boyutunda yiyecek içecek departmanı ön büro departmanı çalışanına göre daha sessiz kalmaktadır. Yiyecek içecek departmanı çalışma şartlarının daha ağır ve daha uzun saatler olması bu durumun sebebi olarak gösterilebilir. Devam bağımlılığı boyutunda ön büro departmanı çalışanları ile diğer departman çalışanları arasında farklılık tespit edilmiştir. Bu durum, ön büro departmanının çalışma şartlarının daha iyi olması ayrıca toplumun bu departmanda çalışanlara daha iyi bir gözle bakmalarıyla açıklanabilmektedir. Duygusal bağımlılık alt boyutunda satış pazarlama departmanı çalışanları ile yiyecek içecek departmanı çalışanları arasında farklılık tespit edilmiştir. Bu durum satış pazarlama departmanı çalışanlarının yönetime daha yakın olmasıyla açıklanabilir.

Yapılan bu çalışma neticesinde, otel içerisinde fiziksel güce yönelik çalışma gerektiren departmanlar zihinsel güce çalışan departmanlara göre daha fazla örgütsel sessizlik yaşamakta bu durumda örgütsel bağlılığın azalmasına sebep olmaktadır. Yöneticilerin bu bağlamda fiziksel güce çalışan departmanlara personel sayısı anlamında destek vermesi ve çalışma koşullarını iyileştirmesi gerekmektedir. Otel içerisinde belirli bir yaşa ve tecrübeye sahip kişilerin aktif olmaları, fikirlerini rahatlıkla söylemeleri sağlanabilmelidir.

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A Research about Labor Force Participation Rate and Growth Data

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Abstract: There is a widely-accepted idea that there is parallel directed relationship between the increase in population and economic growth although many debates are done about the relationship between population increase and economic growth. This phenomenon is also supported with empirical studies. However the fact that population has a reverse directed (or neutral) relationship with labor force participation rate creates paradox since growth continues as parallel to the increase in population. The paradox brings forward the concepts of “growth without creating employment” and “unqualified growth”. In this study, an explanation is sought for the reasons of why labor force participation rate remains constant (or very low rates) although there is linear relationship between GDP and population, and labor force. The official explanations are about that the insufficiency of women population to participate in labor force and the decrease experienced in the agricultural sector. In this study, it is aimed to attract attentions to the phenomenon that the quantity does not create quality although the growth is quantitative.

Keywords: Economic Growth, Labor Force Participation Rate, Labor Force Markets, Turkish Economy.

1. Introduction

The classic wage fund theory claims that workers remain subsistence wage level in the long run. On the other hand, Marxist theory explains the similar phenomenon utilizing the concept of “reserve labor force”. Keynes stated that wages are sticky on downwards since of union effects as against the two explanations and their derivatives about wage prices are not sticky. With the decrease in general level, as absorbing the prices, which will be caused by the demand insufficiency created by the decrease in the money wages which can be brought through the increase in the labor force supply, it is considered that such prices will not have effect over the reel prices. On the other hand, today “natural unemployment” is on the agenda which is considered as the sufficient unemployment level which is utilized to take control of inflation rate. In short, in addition to that the increase in labor force is the reason of economic growth within the economic theory, on the other hand this is one of the most comprehensive problems which could not be solved that how the increase in the labor force supply which is contradicted to the growth logic is associated with the optimal and long-run growth. On the other hand, while the condition that labor force participation rate is equal to growth rate should keep unemployment rate constant, the amount of country in which growth rate happens greater than labor force participation rate and unemployment rise increases over time. The development theories which are brought forward after the Second World War predict economic development as focusing the efficient use of labor force while endogenous growth models focus on the quantitative capacities of the labor force. Therefore, not only economy practices but also theoretic studies continue researching on the labor force capacity and quality. In this study, the effectiveness of taking control over prices are discussed rather than the decrease in the labor force supply to control the inflation as drawing attention to theoretical inconsistency between growth rate and labor force participation rate in Turkish economy practice. Although the relationship between money wages and reel wages has supporting effects over growth, the hypothesis that the relationship between money wages and hunger and poverty line does not provide the parallel results of improving the wage takers’ living standards and it could be used as a toll for controlling the wages general level are tested through Turkish economic data.

Since increasing the money wage in compliance with the inflation will keep reel wages constant, the application will eliminate possible pressure on the inflation. Therefore, the disruptive and inflationist effects of reel labor force costs within growth are eliminated and growth is tried to be fastened. It is expected that economies in their constant growth periods reduce the unemployment and increase the employment (Khemjar et al. 2006). However, although this expectation is likelihood in theoretical respects, some periods are observed in practice that growth does not create employment. Okun (1962)

stated that the increase in output in greater levels comparing to the decrease in unemployment could be caused by the increase in the capacity usage rates and/ or in working hours. Therefore, this is the most important theoretical explanation about that unemployment does not always decrease in a steady level although an economy follows a consistent growth period/ trend (Plosser and Schwert, 1979). For example, the correlational relationship between GDP and unemployment in Turkey is very weak (Please refer to: Attachments, Table-2 Correlation=0, 263172).

Mostly discussed and yet, referred main growth-employment and unemployment theories could be listed as follows: Classic, Marxist, Keynesian, Neo-Classic. The population law of Malthus, which is the most widely known approach in classic theory, had a quite effect on classic theory. Malthus emphasized that the population growth should be taken under control since an imbalance would occur between the geometric increase in population and the arithmetic increase on the food, and related material production. On the other hand, on Marxist theory, the limiting factor of labor force demand is the capital accumulation and then the “reserve labor force” which will be created will cause a pressure on wages as main characteristics of capitalism. As a result, surplus value which is captured by capitalist will increase. Moreover, it is considered as a natural expectation for the increase in labor force supply in capitalist system. In the growth model of Harrod-Domar-Singer within Keynesian approach, it is stated that population increase affects the growth in negative terms. High level of population increase affects the growth process in negative ways since it causes saving per capita and households to decrease. Lastly, in Neo-Classic Solow model, causality is built from population to growth and otherwise is not possible. Therefore, population growth increases the growth however the growth does not cause population to increase. In spite of these theories which regard the population as an exogenous variable; growth periods could be supported as endogenously with such investments including education, sub-structure and R&D within the endogenous growth theories which regard population as endogenous while focusing the quality aspects of population rather than its quantity.

On the other hand, it is expected to have a parallel relationship between the growth in an economy and labor force participation rate if the population in such economy has a relatively high level of increase. The increase in population is expected to support the growth in both production and consumption sides. Despite of all theoretical discussions, many empirical studies have been conducted about that population increase has a linear relationship with economic growth. For instances, there is a strong relationship –as 0, 9193 (Please refer to Attachment, Table-2) – between GDP growth and non-institutional population increase, as calculated in this study. However, the main focus of this study is to research the reasons of why labor force participation rate constantly decrease and to provide explanation for the question of why unemployment does not reduce although there is a linear relationship between population increase and the growth.

2. Labor Force Participation Rate in Turkey

In addition to unemployment; current account deficits, borrowing and excessive sensitivity of economy to political developments are the leading problems in Turkish economy's structural and chronic problems. Removing unemployment from the problematic factors has a key importance on solving other problems, too. As being included to active population, unemployment is composed of the people who seek a job in current wage level but fail to find. On the other hand, labor force is composed of solely non-institutional economically active population. Then, labor force (L) in an economy is sum of employed people (E) and unemployed people (U). Unemployment rate, therefore, is obtained as dividing the amount of unemployed people to labor force. Likewise, labor force participation rate (LPR) the portion of labor force in the non-institutional economically active population. Economically active population (the population in its working period) is shown in statistics as above 15-aged people. Although economically active population has a constant growth trend (Quarter increase rate as averaged) it is observed that labor force participation rate is relatively low. The dominant effect on Turkish labor force market is caused by the seasonal intensity of agriculture and tourism sectors. This effect is about 30% according to TSI. “labor force participation rate differentiates among periods since the workers, as unpaid family labor, who are

work on the periods when agricultural activities are intense are included to the category of those who are not included in labor force in winter months” (TSI, 2012:31).

According to TSI, there are two reasons explaining that labor force participation rate is low. One is that “Education level of the population is generally low. With the increase in the education level, labor force participation rate is expected to increase.” Secondly, “Level of women to labor force participation is low” (TSI, 2012:32). Women are preferred as labor force since an important part of the work in some sectors is regarded as “feminine”. Today, in the era in which increasing the labor force participation is very important, to make women, who are excluded from labor force market in some reasons, more active in economy has quite importance (Ayaydin and Durmuş, 2014). In the analysis of current labor employment situation, TSI’s Household Labor Force Research belong to 1980s was more optimistic comparing to today. It is observed that labor force participation rate which was 36,1% in 1989 reduced in the following years and reached to 26,6% in 2000, 23,3% in 2005 and 27,6% in 2010 (www.tuik.gov.tr, 11.12.2014). The reason of the decrease in labor force participation rate over time is again attributed to agriculture sector. “Labor force participation rate was 57,5% in the year of 1988 and the portion of agriculture sector in total employment was 46,5% in the same year. Labor force participation rate experienced a constant decreasing trend in the year of 2006 and reached the level of 48% while the portion of agriculture sector in total employment likewise reduced to 27,32%.” (TSI, 2012:34). The low share of women in working life is also attributed to the low level of labor force participation rate by Bağdadioğlu (2010).

Labor force participation rate is in the average level of 70,9 in OECD countries and 73,4 in G7 countries. While these averages were applicable in 2012, the related data for Turkey was experienced in the level of 54%. As of 2013:03 quarter, it reduced under 50%, to the net level of 49,92%.

The main reason of the low level of labor force participation rate is attributed to the development level of a country’s economy, generally. “It is observed that the labor force participation rates of older workers in developed regions including Europe and North America are quite below comparing to less developed regions including Africa and Asia. The main reason of this is that labor force in less developed regions generally live in rural areas and the majority of these people could not have opportunities like pension” (Gündoğan, 2001:99). As rooting in this general idea, it could be expected that an economy in fast growing period would naturally increase labor force participation rates in middle and long run.

Although targets about increasing labor force participation rates in development plans are established, it is stated that “The rates of labor force participation and employment could not be improved and the reasons of these rates are low are attributed to that women could not be included into labor force and employment in sufficient degree” and because they are regarded as “housewife” in cities while being unpaid family worker in rural area, they do not contribute to labor force and unemployment calculations (Önder, 2013; Korkmaz and Korkut, 2012).

Many studies (i.e. Özer and Biçerli, 2003; Aşık, 2012; Kutlar et al. 2012) conducted in the subject of the low level of labor force participation rate in Turkish economy reflect the results of TSI to some extent. However, in this study, as utilizing the expected results of economic growth, I try to draw attention to that labor force participation rate is still low which should have been increased as a result of economic growth. The reason of this is that economic growth could not meet expected results due to its quality in spite of its quantitative indicators. The situation could be positioned theoretically in a point where growth and development concepts are distinguished from each other: the growth rates do not support the development concept which depicts qualitative aspects although Turkish economy rapidly grows. Indirectly, the interesting point here is not to research and/ or question the reasons why labor force participation rate remains low levels but to draw attention to the phenomenon that labor force participation rate remains low levels in spite of great growth rates. In other words, growth scenario is not able to create systematic structure which re-creates itself with institutional regulations, and mechanisms which support themselves. Because a growth scenario, which includes great growth rate, is expected to provide the labor force which this growth will require or to establish the population which does not include into labor force, to determine the positions which contribute to labor force and also to support all of these. In this point, women labor force’ migration from rural area to cities could be given as an example to this situation.

While women labor force participation rate decreases in rural area, the participation rate in cities is prone to increase. Yet, the decrease in rural area is experience from about 55% to about 35% while the increase in cities occurs about from 28% to only the level of 32% (data of 1988-2012, TSI). The data seem to show that women labor force shifted from rural area to cities. Yet, the increase of women labor force in cities in insufficient level could not change the fact that the participation rate of women labor force migrated from rural area remains very low. This situation approves the general critique made about women labor force and depicts that the women coming from rural area either work unrecorded or remain as “housewife”. This instance is worthy to work on as a main subject in a future study and it could be said as a first observation that women who migrated from rural area do not carry necessary qualifications for employment under work conditions in cities and for the positions which city life demands.

This is an effective prove for the presented hypothesis. “The growth scenario including great growth rate” could not create quality labor force which it needs, and causes the migrated labor force to remain as “housewife” since they are not able to include to the labor force since of their insufficiency. As a result, it is not wrong to say that growth scenario focuses on quantitative increase rather than development in quality terms. The analysis below is provided as geometric proves for this main hypothesis through the relationship between labor force and growth data.

3. Observations on Turkish Data

Depending on the observation opportunity caused by trends of the created 6th degree functions, the relationships of non-institutional population, labor force, unemployment, employment and labor force participation rate variables which are chosen related to Turkish economy labor force market with both each other and with GDP are analyzed. The variables are quarter data belong to the period of 2000:01-2013:03 and since all series include seasonal effects, deseasonalization is applied. The correlation relationship among these variables is shown in Table-1.

Table 1. Correlation among the Variables

Variables	GDP	LPR	Unemployment	Employment	Labor Force	NIP
GDP	1	-0,02944	0,068385	-0,04596	0,010739	0,006244
LPR		1	-0,37332	0,913833	0,660036	0,226582
Unemployment			1	-0,71473	0,073315	0,340008
Employment				1	0,467854	0,026131
Labor Force					1	0,866821
NIP						1

In the analysis of Table-1, there are not meaningful correlation relationships among any of the economic growth and labor force variables. Economic growth neither affects the employment nor unemployment; moreover does not carry a meaningful correlation relationship with labor force participation rate. This disassociation supports the thesis of “growth without creating employment”. At the same time, the most meaningful relationship in terms of statistical evaluation is observed between variables of non-institutional population and labor force (0, 866821). Another meaningful relationship is between employment and labor force participation rate (0, 913833).

6th degree polynomials of the variables are obtained as the second phase of the analysis. Polynomials and R2 values are shown in Table-2.

Table 2. 6th Degree Polynomials R2 values.

Variable	Polynomials	R2
GDP	$y = 7E-08x^6 - 1E-05x^5 + 0.0009x^4 - 0.0306x^3 + 0.4854x^2 - 3.1179x + 5.9378$	0.1485
LPR	$y = 3E-08x^6 - 4E-06x^5 + 0.0003x^4 - 0.0073x^3 + 0.0774x^2 - 0.3234x + 50.173$	0.8026
Unemployment	$y = 9E-08x^6 - 1E-05x^5 + 0.0009x^4 - 0.0232x^3 + 0.2731x^2 - 0.8683x + 7.2655$	0.8223
Employment	$y = -2E-08x^6 + 3E-06x^5 - 0.0001x^4 + 0.0038x^3 - 0.0492x^2 + 0.034x + 46.663$	0.8501
Labor Force	$y = 2E-05x^6 - 0.0039x^5 + 0.2499x^4 - 7.0406x^3 + 81.173x^2 - 242.83x + 23132$	0.9197
NIP	$y = 2E-05x^6 - 0.0035x^5 + 0.2259x^4 - 6.4546x^3 + 76.605x^2 - 103.1x + 46012$	0.9874

Table-2 Polynomial graphical images are provides from Graph-1 to Graph-5 as numbered. In the analysis of the trends which polynomials create, the observations below are obtained. However, it is beneficial to depict the general conditions of the variables at the first place.

The average unemployment, the average increase rate of labor force, the increase rate of non-institutional population and lastly the labor force participation rate belong to the periods of 2000:01-2013:03 are calculated as 10,17%, 0,43%, 0,35% and 48,49% respectively. Labor force participation rates of selected countries are provided in Attachment-1 (Table-4). As of the year of 2012, the highest rate belonged to Denmark with 78,6% and to Norway with 78,4%. On the other hand, the lowest rate belonged to Turkey with 54%. EU countries average was 70,2%; for OECD 70,9% and for G7 countries 73,4%. It is clearly seen through the references that labor force participation rate of Turkish economy is fairly low (Please refer to Attachment Table-4).

Labor force is shown in Graph-5 and non-institutional population in Graph-6 and as it seems, both of the variables continue to increase as similar to a linear trend. There is a strong correlation relationship between non-institutional population and labor force as 0,8668. The reason of the kinked in 4th quarter of 2004 is caused by the TSI calculation definition differentiation. The reason of this strong relationship between labor force and non-institutional population is attributed to that labor force participation rate consistently remains low.

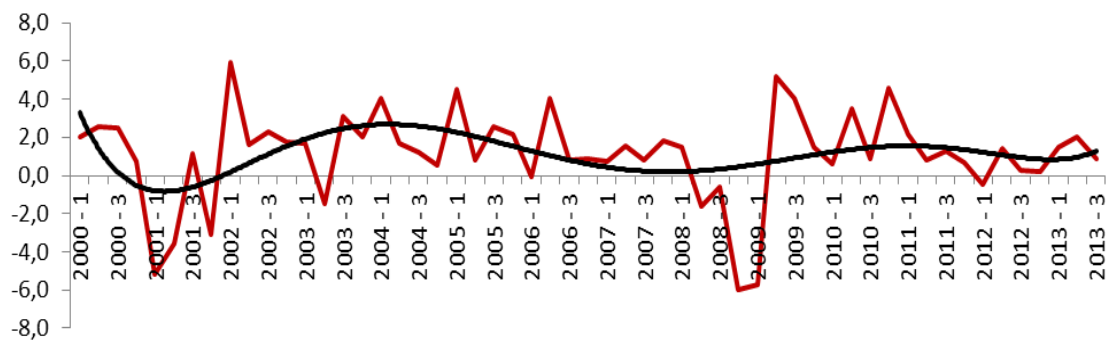
Unemployment rates' trends are shown in Graph-3. The effects of especially agriculture and construction sectors reflect themselves. In the 6th degree polynomials 2000-2013 periods where deseasonalization applied, it is possible to see that the data of unemployment has an increasing trend and reached to its peak on 2008 crisis. Polynomial shows that unemployment started increasing again as of 2012 after it experienced a relative decrease following the years of 2008. The main reason of this could be observed through Graph-1; 2008 crisis decreased GDP variable and this crisis reflected on the unemployment variable. The polynomial created for GDP (Graph-1) and for unemployment (Graph-3) depicts the reverse directed relationship between these two variables. In the periods where waves of GDP variables increased, waves of unemployment decreased.

In comparison of Graph-1 and Graph-2, it is shown that labor force participation rate is not affected from the growth. Additionally, while non-institutional population has a linear increase, it is not in compliance with labor force participation rate.

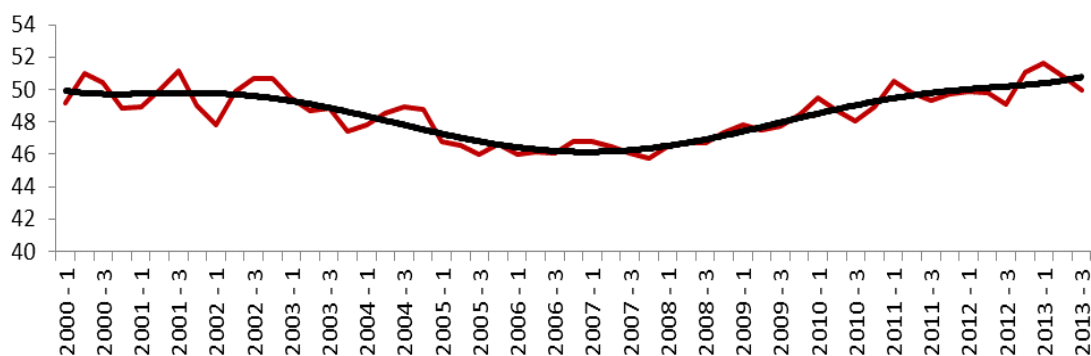
At last, Graph-2 shows that the decrease in labor force participation rate starting from 2002 till 2007, started increasing after this year and in 2010 it reached the position of before the level in 2002. However, the turbulences in labor force participation rate seem to be disconnected with the wave lengths and depths of the growth and unemployment data. Moreover, labor force participation rate in the observed period had a very small increase in spite of the great growth rates.

In the analysis of Graph-4, it could be seen that employment data has an opposite direction comparing to unemployment. However, employment has a more consistent trend while unemployment (Graph-3) has

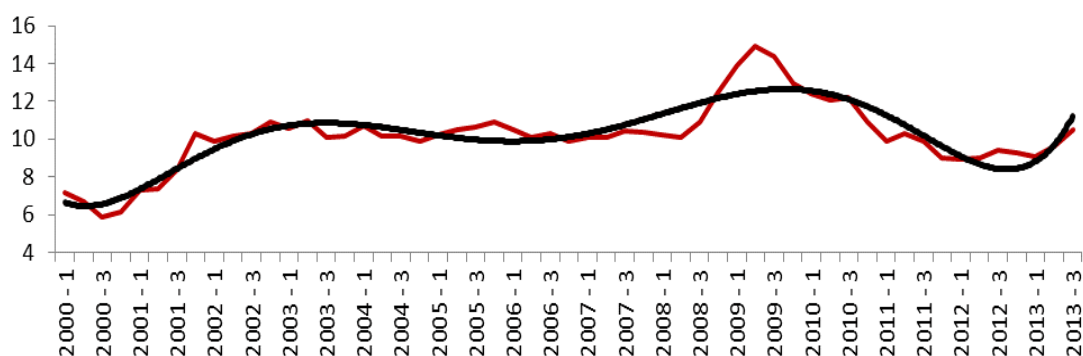
a reverse directed trend comparing to GDP (Graaph-1) and wavier trend comparing to employment. For this reason, it could be said that unemployment is very sensitive to economic turbulences.



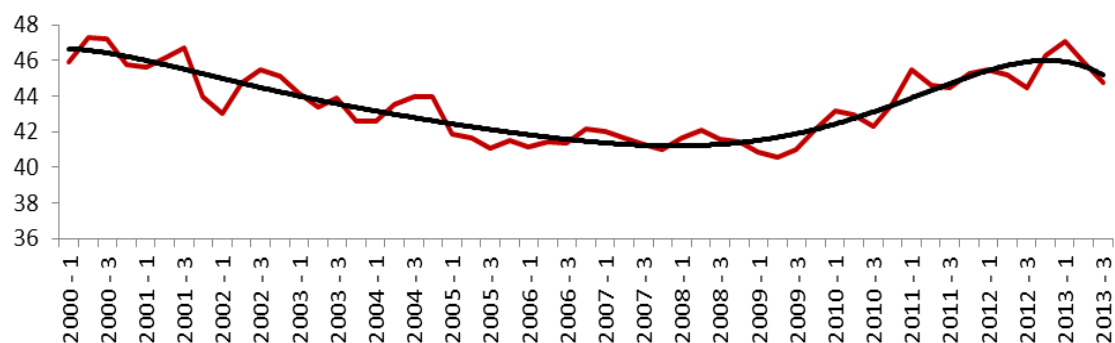
Graph 1. GDP



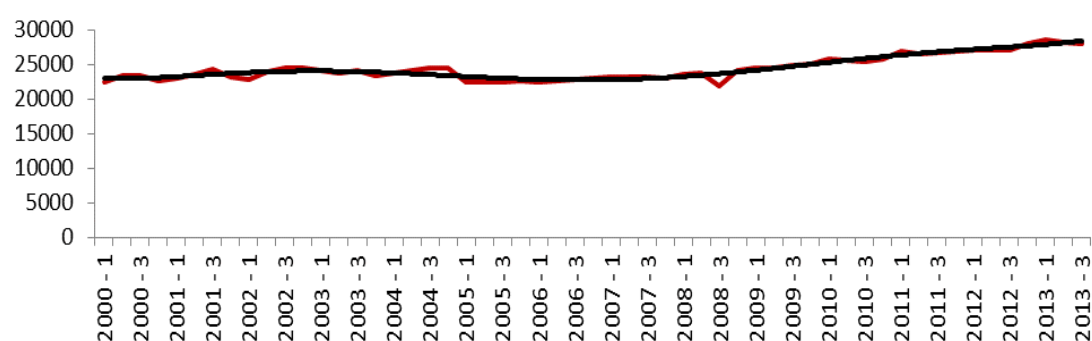
Graph 2. Labor Force Participation Rate



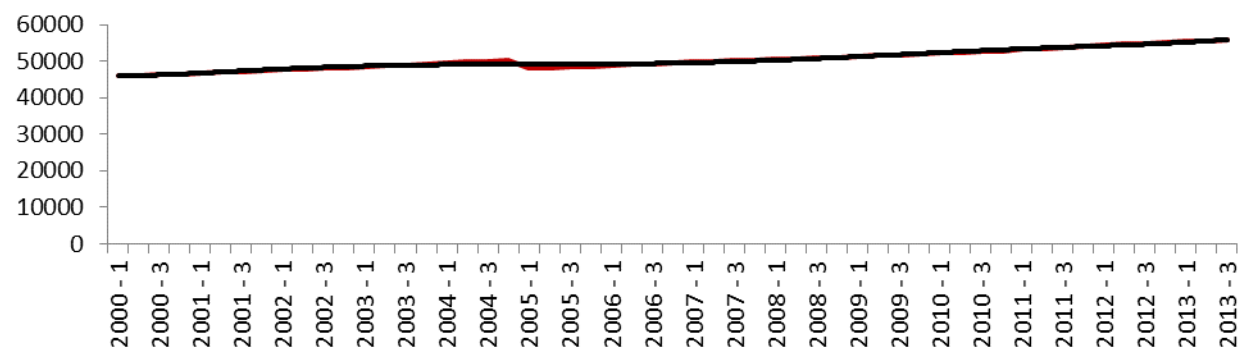
Graph 3. Unemployment



Graph 4. Employment



Graph 5. Labor Force



Graph 6. Non-Institutional Population

4. Conclusion

In this study, which tries to provide an explanation for the frequently discussed concept of the recent periods, “growth without creating employment” over the labor force participation rate, it is observed that labor force participation rate is very low although population increases with (almost) a linear trend. Great growth rates do not reflect on labor force market data.

The amount of unemployed people which was 1,786thousand as of 2001:01 reached to the level of 2,806thousand in the quarter of 2013:02. On the other hand, the amount of employment which was 19,856thousand reached to the level of 25,960thousand.

Table 3. Labor Force Changes for the period of 2001:01-2013:03

Variables	2001:01	2003:03	Change
Labor Force Participation Rate	47,2	49,2	%4,23
Non-Institutional Population	45,868,000	55,175,000	%20,29
Unemployed People	1,786,000	2,806,000	%57,11
Employed People	19,856,000	25,960,000	%30,74
Unemployment Rate	%7,1	%10,5	%47,88
Employment Rate	%45,9	%44,72	%-2,57
People who are not Employed	24,226,000	26,949,000	%11,23

As seen in Table-3, the rate of unemployed people was higher than the rate of employed people in the observed period. Likewise, a decrease at a rate of 2,57% in employment rate was experienced. Although non-institutional population increase with 20,29%, the rate of employed people remained relatively low at a rate of 11,23%.

Turkish economy has an average of 1,1% growth rate (as of quarters) in the observed period. This high level of growth rate seems not to create employment. In addition to women contribution to labor force economy; education, occupational training and new employment opportunities should be created in order to eliminate this contradictory situation. The increase in labor force participation rate is expected to contribute growth rate in positive terms.

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Appendix

Table 4: Labor Force Participation Rates of Selected Country and Country Groups

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
OECD	69.9	69.7	69.8	69.6	69.9	70.1	70.4	70.5	70.8	70.7	70.7	70.6	70.9
G7	73.3	73.3	73.2	73.1	73.2	73.4	73.7	73.8	73.9	73.8	73.5	73.2	73.4
Avrupa	67.2	67.1	67.3	67.3	67.7	68.1	68.4	68.6	69	69.3	69.5	69.8	70.2
AB	69.4	69.4	69.9	70.2	70.8	71.3	71.9	72.2	72.6	72.8	72.8	73	73.4
Rusya	70.9	69.5	70.1	69.9	71.1	71.5	72	72.9	73.2	73	72.7	72.8	73
Brezilya	-	71.1	72.1	72.2	73.1	74.1	73.7	73.5	73.7	73.9	-	71.8	73.1
ABD	77.2	76.8	76.4	75.8	75.4	75.4	75.5	75.3	75.3	74.6	73.9	73.3	73.1
İngiltere	76.4	76.1	76.2	76.3	76.2	76.3	76.8	76.5	76.8	76.6	76.3	76.5	77.1
İspanya	66.7	65.8	67.1	68.5	69.7	70.8	71.9	72.6	73.7	74	74.4	74.7	75.1
Portekiz	71.2	72	72.6	72.8	72.9	73.4	73.9	74.1	74.2	73.7	74	74.1	73.9
Norveç	80.7	80.3	80.3	79.3	79.1	78.9	78.2	78.9	80.2	79	78.2	78	78.4
Meksika	61.7	61	61.1	60.7	62.2	61.9	63	63.3	63.6	62.8	63.7	63.3	64.5
Japonya	72.5	72.6	72.3	72.3	72.2	72.6	73.1	73.6	73.8	73.9	74	73.8	73.9
Kore	64.4	64.8	65.6	65.4	66.1	66.3	66.2	66.2	66	65.4	65.8	66.2	66.4
İtalya	60.3	60.7	61.2	61.6	62.5	62.4	62.7	62.5	63	63.3	63.1	63.1	64.6
Yunanistan	63	62.1	64.2	65.2	66.5	66.8	67	67	67.1	67.8	68.2	67.7	67.9
Almanya	71.1	71.5	71.5	71.3	72.6	73.8	75	75.6	75.9	76.4	76.6	77.2	77.1
Fransa	68.8	68.6	69	69.9	69.9	69.9	69.8	69.9	70	70.5	70.5	70.4	71
Danimarka	80	79.2	79.6	79.5	80.1	79.8	80.6	80.1	80.7	80.2	79.4	79.3	78.6
Türkiye	52.4	52.3	52.3	51.1	49.6	49.8	49.8	49.8	50.6	51.7	52.7	53.8	54

Data Set Source: OECD. OECD.StatExtracts

Elaboration of The Human Resource Management as a Development Strategy for Bulgarian Agricultural Firms

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Abstract: The qualitative and quantitative changes experienced by agriculture in recent decades require the implementation of new strategies for maintenance of rural areas and especially for agricultural entrepreneurs. The paper presents a number of strategies (such as technological innovation, multifunctionality, associations and diversification), which could help the entrepreneurs to constantly adapt to the changing environment. Special attention is given to the elaboration of the HRM strategy as one of the possible solutions for development of Bulgarian agricultural firms.

Keywords: agriculture, human resource management, strategy

1. Introduction

In the contemporary more and more globalizing world, the agricultural entrepreneur's role is going through a big change - from a farmer to an entrepreneur. This is due to the evolution of the Common Agricultural Policy, agricultural modernization, globalization and interdependence of the economy. This change leads to a structural adjustment of the whole agricultural sector, especially with regard to the size and number of the farms. The agricultural entrepreneur has always been a social and economic entity, resulting from a combination of interrelated factors (human, technical and financial), trying to achieve certain goals. Unfortunately, it turns out that he/she is still not able to effectively implement modern business management techniques.

2. Development Strategies

Obviously different strategies are needed to guide the entrepreneurs in their actions and help them to adapt to the changing environment.

Associativism. The agricultural employers must create associative entities, which articulate their interests and also those of the rural areas. These corporate and cooperative formulas will have a growing role in the future development of the sector and more particularly in the agricultural restructuring and maintenance of rural areas.

The cooperative is one of the oldest formulas and most traditional in agriculture integration. It gives to the agricultural entrepreneurs an opportunity to cope with the limitations of their companies and to manage the uncertainty and risk. The formulas of associativism that have an enhanced role in the agricultural sector, are agricultural cooperatives and agricultural processing companies that increase efficiency in business management. These forms of cooperation and collaboration will allow to increase production, reduce production costs, improve the utilization of resources and diversify the production.

We can highlight three business formulas of agricultural restructuring: the associative way, the corporate way and the services way. *The associative way* is based on the association of a common crop, on the grouping of common culture, and it can take many forms: cooperatives, working society, agrarian society of transformation. It is important that these farmer groups are managed by professionals with training and management skills. *The corporate way* is based on the establishment of agricultural enterprises based on groups of partners that could provide capital and land. The company will be managed according to the profitability criteria. *The services way* is based on owners who have inherited land and have no interest in cultivating it directly, because neither are farmers nor live in rural areas. They contract with a service company, performing some or all of the work, or even the complete management of the farm.

Technological innovation. It is one of the most important forces guiding the structural change of the agriculture. Promoting technical progress has always been one of the objectives of the Common Agricultural Policy, because of its great benefits to the society. The agricultural sector follows the technological revolution, succeeding rapidly technological innovations that will affect the entire production process, helping to improve productivity, and also to achieve optimum conditions of safety in the development of work, stimulating the disappearance and concentration of farms. Specifically, the agriculture farms try to introduce new information technologies, which have a major impact on agricultural development, as they reduce production costs, increase competitiveness and efficiency. They also allow the agricultural entrepreneurs to be better informed on prices, assistance, agricultural policy, market trends, etc. - information useful for the decision-making process. The problem associated with the adoption of new technology is that it requires a certain degree of training, which the agricultural entrepreneurs do not usually have. Therefore, this becomes an obstacle to the development of the agricultural sector. Besides this, although the expenditures on technological innovation have increased, there is still a corporate culture with little tradition of innovation and resistance to change in the management of the agricultural company.

Multifunctionality. The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) is no longer a sectorial policy, but it has entered multifunctionality. The term "multifunctionality" includes the addition to the traditional role of producing food and raw materials, consideration of other functions performed by agriculture that go beyond it and for which the farmer does not obtain exchangeable goods on the market. In the last years, there has been conceived the idea of agriculture as a multifunctional activity that generates multiple benefits not only individually, but overall.

Agriculture has always played a number of basic functions, but these functions are fulfilled in a deficit way, such as food production. At present, to be competitive in a world full of uncertainties, the agricultural businessmen will have to ensure that agriculture achieves a number of key functions for maintenance and development of rural areas, developing a medium-term strategy. The agricultural sector is obliged to assume a greater number of functions, because the deep transformations of the society needs them. Not only it will produce food, which has been the function that it has always entrusted, but it demands new public goods and services (leisure, landscape, etc.). The agricultural entrepreneur is not only a unit dedicated to the production, but also a decision unit, planning and controlling, pursuing goals and taking risks.

Production functions. Producing food is the most basic, traditional and conventional function that the agriculture has always performed. The market and particularly consumers demand products of high quality and security, low prices, as well as wide variety.

Non-production functions. Preserving the environment and maintaining biodiversity. Agriculture must refocus its activity according to the demand of new markets and the incentives of multifunctional agricultural policy. The agricultural activity should contribute to the economic viability and social balance, keeping the population in rural areas, improving the quality of life (by increasing the employment and incomes), preserving the environment, culture, landscape and identity, and maintaining the territorial balance.

Diversification. It is a central strategy of rural development models that contribute to the socio-economic revitalization of the rural areas. The agricultural entrepreneurs must be innovative, with initiative, creativity, motivation, commitment, looking for the future, taking risks, having courage to expose their goods, reliability, ability to manage their operations and to choose partners, ethical behaviour (honesty, fairness, respect), and contributing to the diversification of economic activities.

The diversification of agricultural farms is understood in a broad sense, including not only the evolution towards unconventional production (marketing processes or development of agro-industrial products), but also towards the supply of tourist services or leisure activities. This is an opportunity for those farms that have not been modernized yet. The rural world is going through a process of industrialization, where the rural population could not live exclusively or mainly through agriculture. The agricultural entrepreneur performs other alternative or complementary activities. This diversification requires the creation and

development of new communications and transportation infrastructure. It happens that due to low population levels in rural areas, both agricultural and non-agricultural alternative economic activities can be unfeasible.

3. Elaboration of The Human Resource Management as a Development Strategy

The agricultural sector is traditional for Bulgaria and forms a great part of our gross domestic product. Unfortunately the unfavorable social-economical environment in Bulgaria exerted a tangible negative influence on the state and development of the agricultural sector during the last years. According to many investigations currently it functions far under its potentialities. This affects the personnel management in the particular farms as well. On the background of the scientific achievements in the field of human resource management the backwardness of the practice in our country is impressing. In contrast to most European countries, that really apply the so called “best practices” and thereby provide their sustainable competitive advantage, the main part of Bulgarian farms are very far away from the concept and requirements of the contemporary human resource management [1]. This is the main reason for the observed strong negative tendency with respect to the number of employed in the sector, as well as in connection with their productivity.

The most widespread form of organization in Bulgarian agriculture is the sole property, combining the characteristics of the family business and the peculiarities of the agricultural production. Unfortunately it gives more unfavorable perspectives for changes, development, restructuring, modernization and elaboration of management (including human resource management), compared to the collective form. The main “problem areas” of human resource management in Bulgarian agriculture are:

- *aging of human resources* – the lack of balance between the age groups in such a production with strong seasonal character and periods of very intensive work load, has a direct negative impact on the economic state of the farms;
- *low level of payment* – the salaries are relatively low even in the profitable farms [2]. The workers receive additional material stimuli in the form of social extra payments, but they are minimal and in most cases compensate only the inflation for the period. In some farms bonuses on implementation of the production plan are paid, which are determined casually by the owner and for this reason do not have a certain character. Generally the system for payment and material stimulation is too old and ineffective;
- *high percentage of seasonal personnel* – the great number of the temporary personnel has a negative impact on the financial results of the farms;
- *unsatisfactory level of personnel education and qualification* – the bad preparation of the managers and the workers is one of the main reasons for the worsened labor productivity, and hence the low economical results;
- *unsatisfactory management skills* – the ineffective management leads to low productivity, which directly reflects on the results of the farms [3].
- The basic recommendation is connected with the development and application of effective human resource management system. To a great extent this will guarantee the increase of the production-economical results of the farms and the sector as a whole. Basic accents in the elaboration of the human resource management system:
- *optimizing the number and structure of the human resources in accordance with the present and future needs and goals of the agricultural farms and obligatory rejuvenating the staff (managers and workers)* – the long professional experience is a significant factor only if it is combined with innovative thinking and application of new production techniques and technologies. The competencies and skills of the young specialists are better perspective for economic vitality and development of our agricultural farms. This will increase the capacity for introducing new sorts,

techniques and innovative technologies, which is prerequisite for gaining better economical results;

- *binding payment with the individual work results and with the economic results of the farm* – the higher productivity should reflect in higher work payment, which will motivate and retain the qualified specialists. A crucial factor for retaining and developing the human resources in the sector is the stabilization of the incomes, especially in the conditions of economic crisis;
- *hiring permanent personnel* – despite the strong seasonality in this sector, there should be searched opportunities for switching off to permanent forms of employment, which will improve the micro-climate in the farms, increase the motivation of the workers, the productivity and the achieved economic results;
- *increasing the qualification and elaborating the knowledge and experience of personnel (managers and workers)* – highly educated and trained work force is able to produce output of higher quantity and quality, and besides this learns and applies innovative techniques and technologies much easier. The specializations in the country and abroad, the usage of foreign languages, etc. give opportunities for easy access to national and international scientific-practical achievements in the field of agriculture.
- The active communication between the specialists contributes to continuous actualization of knowledge and professional development of managers;
- *completely changing the philosophy/approach towards human resources* – binding the main human resource management activities with the goals and strategy of the business organization; perceiving the key role of the direct supervisors; perceiving the human resources as a source of sustainable competitive advantage.

4. Conclusion

The economic crisis in Bulgaria reflected exceptionally negatively on the agricultural sector. Despite this there should be searched ways for overcoming the situation having in mind that because of the exceptionally favorable natural and climate conditions this sector is traditional for Bulgaria and forms a great part of our gross domestic product (GDP). Both qualitative and quantitative changes experienced by agriculture in recent decades require the implementation of new strategies for maintenance of rural areas and especially for agricultural entrepreneurs. The agricultural employer must have a behaviour, open to innovation and enough flexibility to achieve the proposed objectives, to survive, develop the business and be competitive. This needs a number of strategies such as technological innovation, multifunctionality, associations and diversification. They will guide the entrepreneurs in the actions which have to be carried out, and will help them to constantly adapt to the changing environment.

The elaboration of the human resource management system is one of the most important factors for rehabilitation and stabilization of the sector. This requires a fundamental change in the approach towards the human resources and the practices for their management. The practical application of the “best” production practices, the introduction of European standards, as well as the work with contemporary techniques and technologies, are possible only with appropriately selected personnel, having the necessary education, qualification and professional experience. The adequate payment system is a key factor for attracting and retaining qualified specialists and hence – for the development of economically viable agrarian farms. In this connection it is advisable the owners and managers of the farms to raise their knowledge about the opportunities and conditions for applying on European programmes, financing activities and projects connected with the development of human resources (training and qualification). Exceptionally useful will be the creation of stable partner relationships with educational and scientific institutions, for elaborating and application of joint activities, connected with the development and elaboration of human resource management.

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Vision Change and Foreign Supports in Turkey's Foreign Policy

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Abstract: When a country's foreign policy vision is considered, that country's targets and purposes which can be realized in future come to the mind. Word 'vision' is about the act of seeing as per the meaning of word and it means the distance of sight and farsightedness. The equivalent of this in the foreign policy can be accepted as being interested and developing policies. Vision of a country is in close relation with the geographies it is interested in and the subjects of policies it develops. This situation also shows the relation between the countries' visions and their positions within the international system.

Vision discussion is one of the main discussion subjects going on in Turkish foreign policy for years. The question, whether Turkey has a foreign policy vision and/or which geographies are included in this vision, goes back to the years when Republic was founded. Turkey, which adapted a status quo foreign policy approach based on protection of the borders with Treaty of Lausanne (except participation of Hatay to the main land) on the first periods of foundation, has tried to stay far from the developments in this area with the related policy. After the World War II, it adopted a passive foreign policy by taking part in NATO with the Western countries and it kept its relation with the world out of West in minimum. This situation changed with end of the cold war and disintegration of the Soviet Union and Turkey has started to be interested in Central Asia, the Caucasus, the Balkans and the Middle East. However, instability of interior policy due to coalitions has not given way to develop in this subject. In 2002, new attempts were made with change of understanding in foreign policy after Justice and Development Party has come to power alone. Solid policies on different geographies of the world were developed by providing vision expanse in foreign policy.

Subject of this study will mark the expansion in Turkey's foreign policy vision especially in the latest term. Moreover, aforementioned vision expansion will be materialized by telling foreign supports given in the latest term.

Keywords: Turkey, Vision Change, Foreign Supports, Foreign Policy.

1. Vision In Turkish Foreign Policy

1.1. The Concept of Vision

Vision discussion has always been a popular subject in Turkish Foreign Policy. Many books and articles have been published covering this subject and whether a foreign policy exists is discussed in some of them while the subject of what a vision should be is discussed in many others. This concept which is not limited to being a subject for academic research has a wide-spread usage area in almost every aspect of our daily lives. It was entered into management literature starting from 1990s then became popular especially in the 21st century.¹ With the increasing interest, it has a wide range of usage area starting from corporate management to states' foreign policies. Therefore, once its usage area expanded, it also experienced meaning expansion so that some other words happen to be using interchangeably as actually confusing the words. In this concept, it became a necessity to explain firstly the origins of the word of vision and what this word explains in the beginning.

The word of vision, which is a quite old word in terms of linguistic, is considered that it rooted back to the word of Visio, which was derived from the word of videre having many meanings in Latin language, used

¹ Abdullah Yılmaz, Sunda Akdemir, *Örgütlerde Vizyon ve Yönetimi*, Detay Publishing, Ankara 2005, p.23; Ali Akdemir, *Vizyon Yönetimi*, Ekin Printing, Publishing and Distribution, Bursa 2008, p.7

to mean to be awake and to comprehend.² The way of usage in Turkish language is derived from the word of vision in French which means to see, to watch, view and outlook.³ Turkish Language Committee likewise defines the word vision as outlook, ideal, prudence, and in metaphoric meaning as foresight.⁴ The word of vision is defined in several different other ways by many authors. On the other hand, accomplishable goals and targets are mentioned in all of them shows that there is generally accepted approach in this particular subject. In another definition of this idea, the concept of vision is defined as the picture of the future which is tried to be reached.⁵

As before-mentioned, the word of vision is used in many areas of our daily lives and one of the areas in which it widely used is states' foreign policies. There are set of basic policies, which are required to be followed by the states whose primarily objectives are to sustain and prevent their existence, in order to reach their primarily goals. The foreign vision of the countries in question will be the guidance in the process of these policies' determination. Utilizing the definitions, the foreign policy vision of a country could be defined as the possible targets and goals which could be reached in the future in terms of the country in question. In the realistic manners, vision is differentiated from the dreams and they could not be used interchangeably.⁶ The word of vision could also mean the view distance and the corresponding usage of area in the foreign policy is the geographical depth in the interest area of the country in question and the position the country locates itself in the international system.

Vision is the direction map which must be followed in a country' foreign policy and each country aims to create a vision which leads them to shape their foreign policies. The factors which must be taken into account while determining the foreign policy are composed of the tangible and intangible power items. Tangible factors including population military capacity, geography, economic structure and intangible factors including history, culture, national moral and the qualifications of the governments which create the countries' total power are important to determine the limits of the vision. In the analysis of the structures of the factors which are dominant on vision determination, the structures seem to be composed of constant and variable factors. This condition shows that the visions which are determined by the countries are not unchangeable and, as in the qualifications of the governments' examples, it is possible for vision to experience changes over time since the existence of the variable factors. Through the Turkish Republic perspective, it is observed that similar vision changes are experienced because of the internal and external developments during the 90 years.

1.2. Turkish Foreign Policy in the 20th Century

Turkish Republic, which was established over a new political regime after the I. World War, is continuation of Ottoman Empire in terms of many institutions and founding members although it presents a new country view which parted its connections with the past in its establishment philosophy. In the analysis of the foreign policy which was followed during the Republic period, the same situation could be observed and also Ottoman foreign policy reflected on the Republic policy could be seen. The westernization approach which was started from the 19th century was one of the unchanged policies till the collapse of

² Akdemir, *ibid.*, s.11

³ "vision", <http://www.fransizcasozluk.net>

⁴ http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_bts&arama=kelime&guid=TDK.GTS.52135052aee991.63082864

⁵ Abdullah Yılmaz, Sunda Akdemir, *ibid.*, s.15

⁶ Fatma Gölbaşı, *Vizyon Ve Misyon*, Kum Saati Publishing, İstanbul 2008, p.9

the Ottoman Empire.⁷ This situation continued likewise in the Turkish Republic which was established after the Ottoman Empire and westernization was happened to be one of the main state policies.⁸

Another foreign policy approach which was inherited from the Ottoman Empire to Turkish Republic is the statuesque prevention approach.⁹ Ottoman Empire lost lands constantly –except the exceptions- caused that it adapted a defensive approach in foreign policy especially after the 18th century. The state, which was aware of its weakness conditions especially in late 19th century, followed a balance policy among the powerful countries in order to sustain its existence and kept itself away from the war policies unless forced.¹⁰ This situation reflected itself on the new established Turkish Republic's foreign policy and the newly established state tried to be not involved in the spreading foreign policies so that it adapted preventing the boundaries which are derived on the Lozano Agreement as a main politic approach. Except the adding Hatay into Turkey land boundaries as using diplomatic methods, any kinds of land boundary changes were not experienced.¹¹

Turkish Republic which was established on the heritages of Ottoman Empire –in terms of location and humanity- experienced political regime and performed a set of revolutions in this respect. Some problems were happened in the phase of adaptation of these revolutions by the public during transition from the old order to new one led The Republic's management members primarily emphasize on the internal political developments. Therefore, foreign policy agenda was put on the second row and the operations which were given attention to was limited to the subject related to country safety. The result of this approach was to sign the Balkan Pact in the year of 1934 and the Sadabat Pact in the year of 1937.¹²

Renowned statement by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, "Peace at home, Peace in the world" became the main principle of the Republic period foreign policy and the statement was identified with the statuesque policy which was implemented. The attempts, which were taken in the foreign policy before the II World War, were implemented in order to be accepted by the international communities as in the membership to the League of Nations in the year of 1932 or in order to create a support against the possible threats as in the Balkan and Sadabat Pacts.¹³ Therefore, a foreign policy which was shaped through the possible threat occurrences, which targeted the country's survival, was implemented rather than creating a vision in order to be the dominant force in the regional and global developments.

Two-polar structure was occurred in the international system after the II World War and Turkey included into this structure as being involved in the Western Block. Taking and implementing this decision was highly influenced by the developments that Soviet Union created a threat for Turkey territorial integrity and sovereignty. Additionally, another factor that shaped the decision was the desire of Turkey being in the Western organizations and to act with the West as an extension of the westernization policy which was continued about two centuries.¹⁴ In this concept, Turkey which became a member of NATO in the

⁷ Zekeriya Işık, "19. Yüzyıl Osmanlı Dış Politikası Üzerinde İngiliz Tesiri", *Hitit Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, Year 4, Edition 2, December, 2011, p.45-61

⁸ Baskın Oran, "Türk Dış Politikası: Temel İlkeleri ve Soğuk Savaş Ertesindeki Durumu Üzerine Notlar" *Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Dergisi*, Volume: 51 Edition: 1, 1996

⁹ Baskın Oran, "Türk Dış Politikası: Temel İlkeleri ve Soğuk Savaş Ertesindeki Durumu Üzerine Notlar", *ibid.*

¹⁰ Zekeriya Işık, *ibid.*, s.47

¹¹ Ercan Karakoç, "Atatürk'ün Hatay Davası", *Bilgi*, Summer 2009, Edition 50

¹² Metin Hülagü, "Türk Dış Politikasında Değişim Var mı, Gerekli mi? : Osmanlı Devleti – Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Örneği", *Uluslararası İlişkiler ve Türk Siyasal Partileri*, Ed.: Nejat Doğan, Mahir Nakip, Seçkin Publishing, Ankara 2006, p. 105–116,

¹³ Mustafa Talas; "Örnek Bir Dış Siyaset Modeli Olarak Atatürk'ün Yurtta Barış Dünyada Barış Politikası", *Türkiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, Spring 2004, Edition:15, p.339-354. p.348-350

¹⁴ Oral Sander, *Siyasi Tarih 1918-1994*, 19th Edition, İmge Publishing, Ankara 2010, p.266-267

year of 1952, followed a foreign policy which was centered on safety during Cold War and adapted a West oriented foreign policy approach which was found suitable as the status of a member in the Western Block instead of creating its own foreign policies.¹⁵ Therefore, Turkey, which turned back to East, was the first Muslim country which accepted the sovereignty of Israel state in the year of 1948 and supported France while the sovereignty movements of Algeria in the year of 1958 in the international political platforms were recorded in the history as the solid examples of this approaches. However, the letter of Johnson in the year of 1964, Petroleum Crisis in the year of 1973 and Cyprus Intervention¹⁶ in the year of 1974 were a set of developments which showed that Turkey's one sided Western-oriented foreign policy approach was wrong. Although Turkey, which worked on to diversify its foreign policies as leaving this wrong approach, tried to create warmer connections with Middle East countries, it could not achieve successful progresses because of the limiting effects of the two-polar political structure.

With the disintegration of Soviet Union in the year of 1991, tight limits of two-polar structure were broken so that new opportunities were arisen for Turkey. Turkey which followed more active foreign policy comparing to the previous periods in the leadership of Turgut Ozal who became president after becoming prime minister started giving close attention to especially Middle Asia Region in which a power gap was experienced with the disintegration of Soviet Union.¹⁷ The concept of foreign policy became more often used a set of word in Turkey which followed foreign policy as an approach which was generally safety-oriented instead of as a framework of vision. In the period which started following the death of Turgut Ozal, an inconsistent period was begun due to coalition government in the internal political structure and this situation also affected the foreign policy. Till the period which Justice and Development Party established the government as sole power in the year of 2002, although active foreign policy statements¹⁸ were developed however the statements could be implemented.¹⁹

1.3. Vision Change in Foreign Policy

With the consistency experienced in the internal policy in the beginning of the 21st century, certain changes in Turkey's foreign policy were implemented. As taking benefit of the geography on which it locates, and historical and cultural heritage²⁰ it has; Turkey, which incarnated its position for others as renowned statement of "a bridge between Asia and Europe", defined its position as the center country²¹. Turkey started following more active, action taker and multi-sided foreign policy in the direction of this new approach over which Ahmet Davutoglu has big influence who has been prime minister since the year of 2014 following that he had been minister of foreign affairs since 2009 and before, he was in prime

¹⁵ Mehmet Şahin, "Türkiye'nin Orta Doğu Politikası: Süreklilik Ve Değişim", *Akademik Orta Doğu*, Volume 4, Edition 2, p.9-21, p.12,13

¹⁶ Kemal Çiftçi, *Tarih, Kimlik Ve Eleştirel Kuram Bağlamında Türk Dış Politikası*, Siyasal Publishing, Ankara, 2010, p.279-284

¹⁷ Muhittin Ataman, "Özalist Dış Politika: Aktif Ve Rasyonel Bir Anlayış", *Bilgi*, 7, 2003 / 2 p. 49-64

¹⁸ The prominent statement in this period was "Turkish World from Adriatic to Great Wall of China". For the subject, please refer to Ertan Efeğil, "AK Parti Hükümetinin Orta Asya Politikalarına Eleştirel Bir Bakış", *II. Uluslararası Sosyal Bilimciler Kongresi Kongre Kitabı*, Kocaeli 2009, p.356-363

¹⁹ Fatma Okur Çakıcı, Kadir Sancak, "Komşularla Sıfır Sorun Politikası: Karşılıklı Bağımlılık Ekseninde Türkiye-Ermenistan Değerlendirmesi", *Üç Deniz Havzası Ülkeleri Ortak Yönetim Kültürü Ve Yeniden Yapılanma Sorunları Sempozyumu Bildiriler Kitabı*, Kav Publishing, Ankara, 2012 p.199,

²⁰ Tarık Oğuzlu, "Türk Dış Politikasında Davutoğlu Dönemi", *Ortadoğu Analiz*, September 2009, Volume 1 - Edition 9

²¹ Murat Yeşiltaş, Ali Balcı, "Ak Parti Dönemi Türk Dış Politikası Sözlüğü: Kavramsal Bir Harita", *Bilgi* (23), 2011 Winter, p.9 -34, p.12,13

ministry consultancy.²² Turkey, which positioned itself on the center with this approach changes, tried to re-evaluate the regional relationships as adapting the new foreign policy approach which was self-benefits oriented. In this concept, it created a new vision and added new geographical regions to its interest field.²³ Foreign Affairs minister Davutoglu depicted which basics would be utilized on implementing new foreign policy with his statement that “we will follow a foreign policy which is based on a vision²⁴” while he pointed out the importance of the concept of vision for a country’s foreign policy. As a result of this approach, a new foreign attempt was started which gave emphasize on East and South –as not ignoring West- instead of one-sided foreign policies which caused such understandings as “ West’s advanced gendarme station”²⁵. Turkey, which re-evaluated its regional relationships giving attention to national priorities, added new fields to its interest field as experiencing a vision expansion in terms of geography.

2. External Support and Supports That Turkey Gives as a Foreign Policy Tool

2.1. The Concept of External Support

The difficulties on giving definitions for the concepts belong to social sciences constitute one of the main problems experienced in this field. The problem in here is caused by the situation that putting forward common definitions which people has consensus on are most of the time not possible. This problem is also experienced in giving a definition for the concept of external support and there could be found many different definitions in the last –although they generally give similar meaning-. The differences in the structures, methods and objectives of official institutions and non-governmental organizations which operate in this field somehow explain the diversity of the definitions.

In the search of the word of help in Turkish Language Committee, Great Turkish Dictionary, as the second meaning, it is defined as “a grant or money and support items which are given as borrowed to a country.”²⁶ On the other hand, the concept of external support in the same committee’s dictionary is defined as “benefits in kind, grant or facilities provided through low interest rates and long termed credits which are generally given to less developed countries from developed countries for the purposes of social, economic, military and humanitarian means.”²⁷ Although there is a diversity of the definitions which are used in broader meanings besides its dictionary definitions, the definition of external support provided in below help to comprehend the concept:

“Benefits in kind and all kinds of monetary supports, which are made to developing countries from states, public institutions, non-governmental organization and charity organizations, as a grant without seeking any re-payment obligations or any other conditions, in order to provide the donated country’s people’s basic needs, social rights and

²²Oğuzlu, *ibid.*, s.44-46

²³ Ahmet Davutoglu emphasized this situation as stating “Today, we decide our vision, determine our targets and implement our foreign policy regarding to our national priorities. We might be succesful or unsuccessful in our attempts, but the important thing is that we implement our own policies.” Ahmet Davutoğlu, “Türk Dış Politikası’nın İlkeleri Ve Bölgesel Siyasal Yapılanma”, *Stratejik Araştırmalar Merkezi*, No. 3, August 2012, p.6

²⁴ Davutoğlu, “Türk Dış Politikası’nın İlkeleri Ve Bölgesel Siyasal Yapılanma”, *ibid.*, p.7

²⁵Oğuzlu, *ibid.*, p.49

²⁶http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_bts&arama=kelime&guid=TDK.GTS.52f95b81e00360.33082902

²⁷http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_bilimsanat&arama=kelime&guid=TDK.GTS.52f960505995c2.85161898,

human safety for the purposes only and only of to increase the country's development and welfare, except natural disasters.”²⁸.

However, this definition excludes the investment operations which have profit intentions and similar operations. Likewise, the supports made during instances like natural disasters are not also included into this definition. As could be seen, the definitions which are made for this purpose are helpful to comprehend the concept however they are not fully complete. Besides the definitions, the subject should be detailed as paying attention to important items including for whom, in which purposes and through which methods the support is made in order to fully explain the concept.

One of the questions which could be occurred to mind while discussing the subject of external supports that why countries give external support. The question, in the most general perspective, could be answered as in order to perform humanitarian purposes and to reach the targets of foreign policy.²⁹ External supports which enable the cooperation and contribution inter-countries are positioned among the soft power items.³⁰ In the recent periods where hard power items experienced power loss, these kinds of supports gain great importance as foreign policy tools. In analyzing the concept in this view of point, it could be understood as if the benefits of the country which gives support instead of the country which is given support are prioritized. However, the approach, that the benefits of the side which needs support must be prioritized, should be the common sense in the logic of giving support. This condition should be taken granted in order not to deviate the purpose of support relationship.

In the analysis of the external support relationship, there are two parties as one party is donor who gives the support and the other side is recipient who received the support. However, the fact that the relationship has two sides does not mean that the supports are implemented between two countries, all the time. The types of support are divided into two groups as giving attention to the amounts of the sides: two-sided supports and multi-sided supports. Two-sided supports are implemented depending on the relationship between only two countries while multi-sided supports are performed utilizing an international institution.³¹

Official development assistance (ODA) is the most important one among the external supports. In order to be regarded as official development assistance, a support must carry the requirements of “on the basis, to target the development and welfare of the country which is given the assistance and 25% of the assistance must be a grant.”³² The content of the official development assistance is consisted of the project supports in dual level, humanitarian supports, immigration supports, technical cooperation and other supports made in similar purposes. Support type of being whether two-sided or multi-sided does not change the condition and the supports in this category must be publicly sources-official assistance.³³ Additionally, “the supports, which do not have sufficient grant condition and are given for the purposes of contribution to the increase in the welfare level and given as economic development incentives to developing countries from public institutions and organizations are called as other official flow (OOF)”³⁴. Direct investments, which carry the potential of economic development contribution for the countries in

²⁸ Hasan Öztürk, Sevinç Öztürk, *Türkiye'nin Dış Yardım Stratejisi: Sorunlar Ve Öneriler*, BİLGESAM Publishing Report No: 54, December 2012, p.18

²⁹ Chachage, *ibid.*, s.3

³⁰ “Acil Yardımlar Sıralamasında Dünyada 4.Sıraya Çıkan Türkiye, 100'den Fazla Ülkeye Yardım Eli Uzatıyor”, *ibid.*

³¹ Engin Akçay, *Bir Dış Politika Enstrümanı Olarak Türk Dış Yardımları*, Turgut Özal University Publishings, Ankara 2012, p.5-6

³² Engin Akçay, *ibid.*, s.6

³³ Engin Akçay, *ibid.*, s.6

³⁴ Füsun Gür, Nurçin Yıldız ve Diğerleri(haz.)*Kalkınma Yardımları Raporu 2012*, Turkish International Cooperation and Development Agency, Ankara, January 2013, p.8

question, are categorized in the development supports.³⁵ All of the supports, which the supports of the non-governmental organization performing for the purposes of developmental cooperation or humanitarian supports are also included into, constitute the total development supports which are made by a country.

2.2. External Supports that Turkey Gives

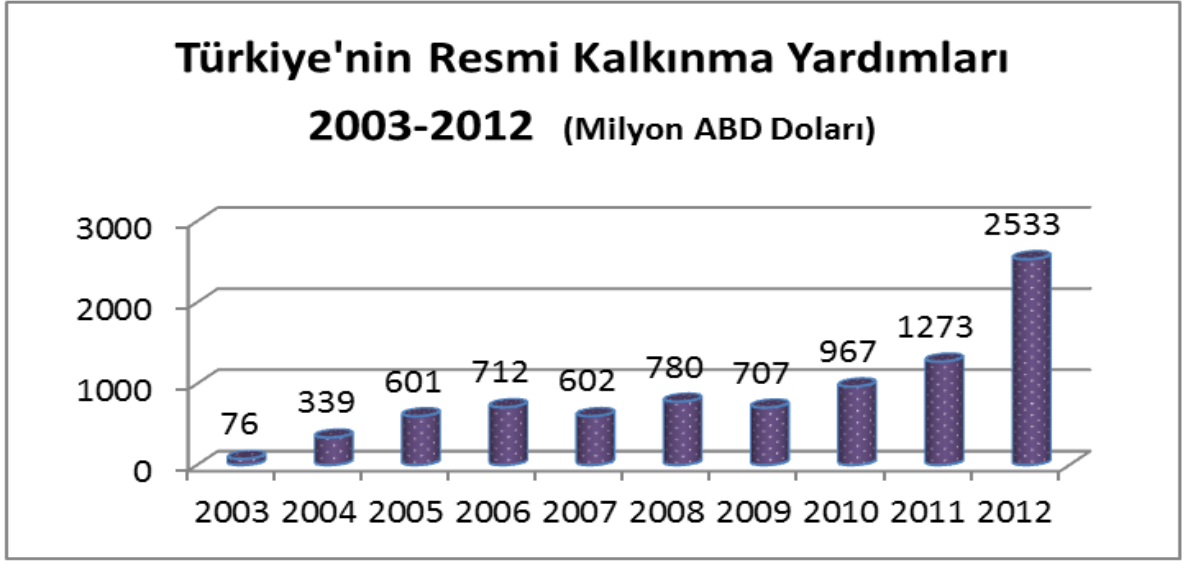
In the parallel of the vision changes in Turkish Foreign Policy in the recent period, an expansion in the field of foreign policy planning and implementation is experienced. The necessity of giving attention to a wider geography is realized in order to be a dominant power in both regional and global perspectives in the area of international policy. The political power existence which is able to perform this approach and the resource potential that the country has are very important elements in order for the mind-ful transition to carry a meaning. Consistency in the internal policy could be maintained after the year of 2002 and the developments in the economy enabled the implementation of attempts in the foreign policy. Turkey, which utilizes a growth model which is based on the exportation, started to give attention to the regions which it previously became distanced in terms of trade and politics for the purpose of this new policy approach. The politics and trade connections, which are recently established, started produce results in short term and Turkey began enjoying the results of these relationships. However, Turkey spent efforts to create these relationships based on a win-win situation instead of an approach which only cares for Turkey's own benefits. Therefore, it intends to be a country which also gives rather than only cares to take benefit. As an extension of this relationship approach, Turkey started making big amounts of supports for under-developed and needy countries in the world.

Turkey, since the years of National Independence, in spite of differences among the periods, has been a country which received external support. Especially the support, which was made by USA to Turkey through England in the framework of Lending and Leasing Law, was leveled up to a further degree with Truman Doctrine.³⁶ With the supports continued in the following periods, Turkey, which had been generally in the position of support receiving country, rose to a position of support giving country with 2000s. In this context, thirty times increase is experienced in the supports which are made by Turkey for the last twelve years. This situation had attention in the international platforms and Turkey as being the country which increased the external supports most in the year of 2012 was qualified as the rising donor by World Food Program.³⁷

³⁵Füsun Gür, Nurçin Yıldız et al, *ibid.*, s.8

³⁶ Yavuz Güler, "II. Dünya Harbi Sonrası Türk–Amerikan İlişkileri (1945-1950)", *Gazi University Kırşehir Faculty of Education*, Volume 5, Edition 2, Year 2004, p.209-224,

³⁷ "Acil Yardımlar Sıralamasında Dünyada 4.Sıraya Çıkan Türkiye, 100'den Fazla Ülkeye Yardım Eli Uzatıyor", *ibid.*,



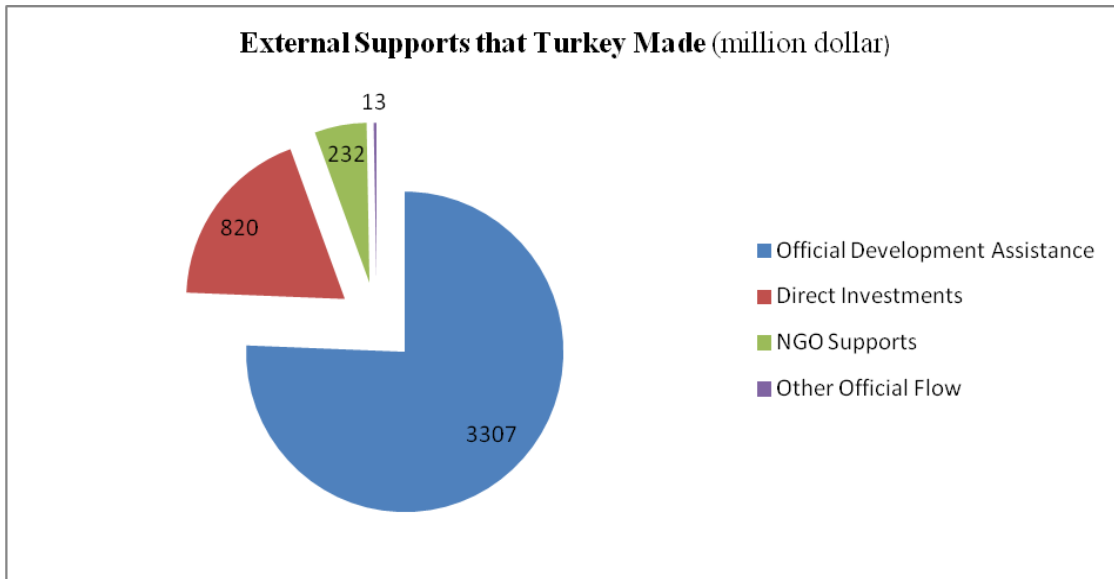
Graph 1. Official development assistances which Turkey made through the years of 2003-2012³⁸

As also could be seen on the graph, an important increase in each year –exception of the years of 2007 and 2009- have been reached in the supports which Turkey made and the amount of total support 76 million USA dollar in the year of 2003 was risen to 2533 million USA dollar the 10 years. The same approach was continued in the year of 2013 and the official development assistance was 3307 billion dollar as creating 30% increase in the total support amount. This amount positioned Turkey in the second rank following Japan among OECD countries in the support increase rate ordering.³⁹ The total amount of external support which is made by Turkey as of 2013 has been 4 billion 347 million dollar when direct investments and the supports made by non-governmental organizations are added to the official development assistance which is made on over a hundred countries in the five continents. As also could be seen on the graph 2; 3,3 billion dollar of total amount is constituted by official development assistance, 820 million dollar by direct investments, 232 million dollar by NGO supports and 13 million dollar by other official flows.⁴⁰

³⁸ “Acil Yardımlar Sıralamasında Dünyada 4.Sıraya Çıkan Türkiye, 100’den Fazla Ülkeye Yardım Eli Uzatıyor”, ibid.,

³⁹ “Uluslararası yardımlarda ‘en cömert ülke’ unvanını taşıyan Türkiye’nin yardım seferberliği sürüyor”, <http://kdk.gov.tr/haber/turkiyenin-dis-yardimlari-2013/494>,

⁴⁰ “Uluslararası yardımlarda ‘en cömert ülke’ unvanını taşıyan Türkiye’nin yardım seferberliği sürüyor”, ibid.,



Graph 2. Distribution of the total external supports of Turkey in the year of 2013⁴¹

Turkey is also ranked in the upper positions in the world, in the list of the emergent humanitarian supports which are excluded from these supports. According to the data of the Global Humanitarian Support 2014 report, Turkey is ranked after USA and England in terms of the support amounts in the ordering of the countries which make the most support. On the other hand, Turkey is the country which makes the most of the humanitarian support when the supports amounts are compared to the country's national income.⁴²

Table 1. Humanitarian support ordering for the year of 2013 (First 5)⁴³

	Country	Support Amount (Dollar)
1	ABD	4,7 billion
2	UK	1,8 billion
3	Turkey	1,6 billion
4	Japan	1,1 billion
5	Germany	949 million

As could be seen on the amounts, official assistance which are made from Turkey constitutes the important part in the total supports. Additionally, the change in the foreign policy makes correspondents in NGOs and the shares in the amounts of the external support steadily increased over the years. Official foreign assistance operations are implemented in the parallel of the established foreign policy and the implementation is operated by Turkish International Cooperation and Development Agency (TICDA). This issue is legally grounded with the law numbered as 4668 and in this context TICDA is given responsibility of making cooperation among institutions for the subject matter of external supports which are made through institutions and organizations in Turkey and of keeping records of the inventory related to the supports.⁴⁴

⁴¹ "Acil Yardımlar Sıralamasında Dünyada 4.Sıraya Çıkan Türkiye, 100'den Fazla Ülkeye Yardım Eli Uzatıyor", ibid.,

⁴² "Türkiye 'en cömert' ülke", <http://www.aljazeera.com.tr/haber/turkiye-en-comert-ulke>

⁴³ "Uluslararası yardımlarda 'en cömert ülke' unvanını taşıyan Türkiye'nin yardım seferberliği sürüyor",

⁴⁴ Tuncay Kardaş, Ramazan Erdağ, "Bir Dış Politika Aracı Olarak TİKA", *Akademik İncelemeler Dergisi*, Volume:7, Edition:1 Year:2012, p.167-193, p.170

TICDA, which had produced 240 amounts of projects in average per year in the first 10 years after its establishment in the year of 1992, increased its annual average project amount to 1108 as experiencing a big increase in the operation amounts with the parallel of the economic opportunities and the changed foreign policy approach in the following 10 years. TICDA presents services with its 35 program coordination office in 32 countries in 5 continents as of September, 2013.⁴⁵

3. Conclusion

Turkey experienced an approach change in its foreign policy following that Justice and Development Party came into power in the year of 2002. In this framework, Turkey, defines itself as a center country rather than being a bridge between East and West, re-defined its foreign policy vision based on this approach in the new period. In the parallel of the economic growth and approach changes in the foreign policy, Turkey rose to upper ranks in the list of the countries, which made most of the supports in the world, as increasing the spending in the field of external supports.

In what degree the external supports are utilized for the original purposes and in what degree they make real contributions to the country development are the subjects discussed in the international relations. The desired results from the external supports which were made to under-developed countries could not be taken and the resources were not utilized for the benefits of public instead of management bodies have been criticized. For these purposes, how and to where the supports are spent should be well defined in order for the amounts of support to be meaningful. In the analysis of the supports which are made by Turkey, the necessary attention is paid for this matter. In the supports which are made in the leadership of TICDA, it is observed that an approach is followed to provide permanent solutions as mainly focusing the substructure services.

Comparing to Western countries which make external supports, Turkey seems to have advantages. This situation is rooted to the fact that Turkey was not involved in colonialism. The effects of colonialism history in the supports which are made by Western countries could also be seen today. It is important that Turkey, which is aware of this situation, gives attention to this in the relationships built among the region countries and Turkey should establish its policy in the framework of win-win condition in which both sides can provide benefit as not focusing on the one-sided benefit. The next step should be to make the subject matter supports reach more people as continuing the same approach with official and non-governmental organizations.

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⁴⁵ “TİKA Faaliyetleri ve Resmi Kalkınma Yardımları,” <http://www.akparti.org.tr/upload/documents/argevizyon-eylul2013.pdf>

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Models and Algorithms in The Field of Artificial Intelligence in University Research Projects

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Abstract: The development of the scientific direction for artificial intelligence necessitates develop of models and algorithms with practical significance for learning in universities. This article describes a research project in this topical field of computer science under the guidance of the author. The project is divided into several tasks. The first task is to develop improved algorithms for the control of mobile robots in the training of students in the course "Artificial Intelligence". The second is related to the experimental study of deployment options system of multimodal interface cycle labs with bachelor's degree in the discipline "Human-computer interfaces." Third task creates automated system for assessing student development by fuzzy sets and models for decision-making.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence, Research project, Robot, An intelligent robot control algorithm, Human-computer interfaces, Fuzzy sets, Automated assessment system

1. Introduction

The actuality Necessary of research project is justified by the continuous development of intelligent computer systems and technologies as well as demand for new and improved forms and methods of teaching students. For this reason the improvement the hardware and software equipment as well as providing adequate training of the students is a necessity. Project envisages construction and efficient use of training facilities for artificial intelligence and related technologies. Research results are implemented and used for creating electronic and WEB-based textbooks and tool systems for automated and remote training and testing (Nenkov,2014, 2015). This supports the expansion of knowledge and skills of the students and their active participation in the learning process. Directions for research are:

- Algorithms for control of mobile robots;
- Intelligent human-computer interfaces;
- Intelligent optimization methods in the training process.

These studies and the results obtained are the basis for building Artificial Intelligence Laboratory.

2. Research problems

The project aims to create and / or improve the algorithms and methods for management of mobile robots (Laurens 2010, 2011), (Nenkov,2015), (Sepulveda,2011), intelligent human-computer interfaces (Isaac,2012), (DARPA,2002)(Krylov,2008), (Mazadzhiev,2012), interfaces and fuzzy systems for decision making when assessing student development (Baker, 2001), (Bond,2007). Studies have practical and methodological significance for increasing the interest of students and the effectiveness of the training. They are divided into several research tasks:

- The first task is to create a laboratory environment for testing algorithms of AI robots LEGO MINDSTORMS NXT 2.0 and LEGO MINDSTORMS EV3.

The aim of the first task is to improve the existing standard algorithms for mobile robot control (Laurens,2010, 2014) and to testing them on two different models of the series robots Lego Mindstorms (Nenkov, 2015).

As a result of the systematic exploration of WEB-sources and literature on this subject information on the topic of the study is updated (Krylov, 2008), (Laurens, 2014), (Nenkov, 2013, 2014, 2015). The existing

standard algorithms and their ability to adapt to the training of students in the course "Artificial Intelligence" or "Robots" are analysed. Offered practical implementation of case studies of theoretical learning on programming Algorithms movements and using of sensors for robots series LEGO MINDSTORMS. A detailed ontology of the subject area of programming robots series LEGO is offered (Laurens, 2014). It has been experimented with modified algorithms for two different models robots: LEGO MINDSTORMS NXT 2.0 (Laurens, 2010) and LEGO MINDSTORMS EV3 (Laurens, 2014).

The comparison of the test results prove the possibility of practical implementation in the students' training the interest and the attention of the educators increase in.

- The second task of the project is associated with the study of multimodal interface as an innovative component in the practical training.

Studies on the topic and the comparative analysis of the models used in the reference books show the current state of these research (DARPA, 2002), (Isaac, 2012), (Krylov, 2008), (Mazadzhiev, 2012). Done was an experimental study on the implementation of "Man – machine systems" in the practical training of the laboratory exercises has been conducted. Subject students in the „Computers science" exercises has been conducted at the Faculty of Mathematics and Informatics at the University of Shumen discipline "Human-computer interfaces." The analysis of the statistics obtained from the experiment with the students helped to optimize the content of the training units in the curriculum regarding the logical sequence, duration and relieving stress. The results were used to thematic module "Man – machine systems" as a part of the guide for conducting laboratory exercises in the course "Human-computer interaction" (DARPA, 2002), (Isaac, 2012), (Mazadzhiev, 2012). In conclusion the visual and practical elements of the training make it more effective, and attractive and improve classes and achieved results.

- The third task is the development of intelligent methods for optimizing the learning process.

After researching the literature on the subject and the Internet sources (Baker, 2001), (Bond, 2007) a comparative analysis of technologies, methods and algorithms for the evaluation of exchange projects and diploma theses has been conducted. The analysing reveals that there multiple approaches to solving problems largely connected with the correct selection of topics (Petrova 2006, 2008) and principles for objective assessments of student achievement. The project offers modified models that contribute to solving these important tasks of university education.

At the formalization of this type of the fuzzy sets theory (Baker, 2001) the dichotomous model of D. Rash (1 Parametric Logistic Latent Trait Model - 1PL) (Bond, 2007) and the parameters model of A. Birnbaum (2PL).

An assessment is applied to the proximity of the fuzzy and probabilistic models to the linguistic model for decision making in assessment and graduation theses. A software package for automation of the evaluation of exchange projects and diploma theses at the university has been developed. The same is applied in testing the developed software applications for e-learning system, Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science, Shumen University.

The results proved that the chosen approaches are effective and can contribute to the improvement of this important component of student learning. This would help greatly to change confidence and positive attitude towards courses that are organized in this way.

3. Conclusion

The results of the research project are probated through the testing of practical developments in a real learning environment and are embedded in the curricula of the of the "Bachelor" degree in "Computer Science", "Economic Informatics", "Computer Information Technologies" and master's programs "Multimedia technologies" and "Software Engineering" at the Faculty of mathematics and Informatics at Shumen University "Episkop Konstantin Preslavsky" and „Synthesis and Analysis of Algorithms“, „Searching for information in the database“, „Software Practical exercises“ at University of Agribusiness and Rural Development.

In particular, the results have been implemented into the practice of training: Artificial Intelligence Languages for functional and logic programming, Informatics, Expert Systems (Nenkov, 2006, 2013), Programming, Programming office systems, object-oriented programming, and human-computer interfaces.

The development of the project will be continued with a new research, development and implementation in practical exercises of broader range of courses in this scientific field.

Interesting perspective opens for organizing the training in the field of computational linguist and applied aspects of artificial intelligence and other fields of universities such as the humanities.

The author pays special attention to attracting students and PhD students in the realization of the goals set for the project, which will increase the interest and learning achievements.

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Health and Restorative Effects of Turkish Parks: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract: This study investigates the associations between Turkish parks and perceived restorativeness and health in Aydın, Turkey. Data was collected through a survey with 110 participants. Measures included Attention Restoration Theory components (i.e. being away, fascination, coherence, and compatibility), naturalness of Turkish parks, and health indicators (i.e. stress, mental health and general health). Multivariate regression analyses controlling for sex, age, marital status, education, and household income showed that perceived restorativeness (i.e. being away ($b = .44$, $p \leq .001$), fascination ($b = .38$, $p \leq .01$), and compatibility ($b = .37$, $p \leq .01$)) is predicted by the Turkish urban parks. However, none of the health indicators was correlated with Turkish parks. Findings indicate that Turkish parks in urban areas could be an effective resource in contributing to people's perceived restoration. However, for health benefits people's perception and preferences for certain qualities and features of green space in cities should be provided.

Keywords: Urban parks, perceived restoration, health, Attention Restoration Theory, Aydın.

1. Introduction

There is a mounting body of research exploring the relationship between restorative effects of green space and health, from national to local level epidemiological studies. Two main theories explain the restorative effects of green space: The Psycho-evolutionary Theory (Ulrich, 1983) and the Attention Restoration Theory (ART; Kaplan and Kaplan, 1989). According to the Psycho-evolutionary Theory, humans are biologically linked to safe, natural settings possessing trees, water, and other vegetation for immediate positive responses. The Psycho-evolutionary Theory posits that natural settings possess a calming and stress-reducing effect on humans. Therefore, in natural settings not only a sense of restoration is experienced on purpose with the emotions, but involuntary physiological reactions are triggered that provide rapid short-term recovery from stress (Ulrich, 1983; Ulrich, et al., 1991). According to the ART, many activities require effortful attention and when the capacity to focus or concentrate is decreased by overuse, people experience mental fatigue. The ART posits that contact with nature has the potential to restore an individual's directed attention capabilities. Therefore, an individual's capacity for attention is recovered in natural environments, which provide qualities of "fascination," "being away," "extent," and "compatibility" (Kaplan and Kaplan, 1989; Kaplan S., 1995). These constructs are self-reported measures and have been described as measures of perceived restorativeness (Hartig, 2011).

Considering these theories, numerous studies have demonstrated associations between green space and reductions in anger, aggression, depression, and anxiety (McCaffrey, 2007; Maas, et al., 2009; Berman, et al., 2012; Ulrich, et al., 1991; Wells and Evans, 2003; Stigsdotter, 2004; Nielsen and Hansen, 2007; Laforteza, et al., 2009; van den Berget al., 2010; van den Berg and Custers, 2011; Ward Thompson, et al., 2012). Green space is also associated with positive physiological effects (Herzog and Strevey, 2008; Park, et al., 2008; 2010), reductions in the risk of psychosocial and psychological stress-related diseases (Grahn and Stigsdotter, 2003; Morita, et al., 2007; Francis et al., 2012) and with providing restorative effects (Kaplan and Kaplan, 1989; Hartig et al., 1991; Laumann et al., 2003; Hartig and Staats, 2006; Berman et al., 2008; Roe and Aspinall, 2011a).

Researchers also found that green space is positively related to health, and quality of life (Richardson and Mitchell, 2010; van Dillen et al., 2011; McFarland et al., 2008). Green space has been shown to contribute to better health outcomes, improve self-esteem and mood (Mitchell and Popham, 2007; Barton and Pretty, 2010), improve health and well-being (de Vries et al., 2003; Stigsdotter, 2004; Maas et al., 2006, 2009; Mitchell and Popham, 2008; Ward Thompson, et al., 2012), and improve recovery time for surgical patients (Ulrich, 1984; Ulrich and Simons, 1986; Verderber, 1986).

While many studies have investigated the restorative effects of green space on people, there are a few studies that investigated the restorative effects of Turkish parks on human health. Therefore, an important question still remains: what is the restorative effect of Turkish parks on human health? The aim of this paper was to address this question and determine the health and restorative effects of Turkish parks on people using Attention Restoration Theory (i.e. being away, fascination, extent, and compatibility). Based on previous studies, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- Perceived restorativeness of Turkish parks is predicted by the naturalness of Turkish parks (H_1).
- Turkish parks provide stress, mental health, and general health benefits to Turkish people (H_2).

2. Methods

The data used in this study were collected in the city of Aydın, Turkey, (Fig. 1), a metropolitan city with a population of 265,234 (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2013). The city has a typical Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summers and cool, wet winters. The long-term average annual temperature is 17.73 °C, with the average maximum temperature being 36.1 °C in July and the average minimum temperature being 4.3 °C in January. The average annual rainfall and number of rainy days are 643.3 mm and 79.8 days, respectively (Meteoroloji Genel Müdürlüğü, 2015). The active green space, which is defined as parks, playground areas, and play fields, per capita in Aydın is 1.38 m² (Department of Parks and Gardens, 2014). On-site, in-person interviews with UGS users were conducted between October 1 and November 1, 2015. In study areas, different interview locations were selected to engage survey respondents. Each visit lasted 2-3 h and took place on weekdays in the morning and in the evening and on weekends during those same timeframes. Respondents who agreed to participate in the survey were asked to complete the questionnaire onsite. The questionnaire took approximately 6 minutes to complete.

The first part of the questionnaire asked respondents for their demographic and socio-economic status (e.g. sex, age, marital status, education level, occupation, and monthly household income.) In the second part, the perceived restorativeness of Turkish parks was measured with the '*Perceived Restorative Scale*' (PRS) developed by Hartig, et al. (1997). This measure consists of 26 items which form four proposed factors of a restorative environment: five items were evaluated for "being away" (e.g., "Being here is an escape experience"), eight items were evaluated for "fascination" (e.g., "This place has fascinating qualities"), four items were evaluated for "coherence" (e.g., "There is too much going on"), and nine items were evaluated for "compatibility" (e.g., "Being here suits my personality"). Respondents were asked to think about how true each statement was for them and to circle the answer that suited them best. The respondents evaluated the PRS on a 5 point Likert scale with 1 = not at all and 5 = completely. Lastly, Participants were asked to rate how they perceive naturalness of the school greenness. In addition, respondents were also asked to rate their own health considering the last two weeks (on a 5 point Likert scale, with 1 = very bad and 5 = very good). The questions were: "How would you evaluate your own health considering the last two weeks according to your: 'level of stress,' 'mental health,' and 'general health' (Akpınar, 2016).

Preliminary analyses examined the normality of the variables. Multicollinearity issues were also checked. After that, multivariate linear regression analysis was performed to investigate the associations between perceived naturalness of Turkish parks and perceived restorativeness. Second, the association between perceived naturalness and perceived restorativeness of Turkish parks and stress, mental health and general health were investigated in another model. The results are presented as unstandardized coefficients (β and SE) with 95% confidence intervals (CI). A p-value of .05 is considered to indicate statistical significance. SPSS version 18 was used for all statistical analyses (SPSS Inc., 2009).

3. Results

The sample consisted of 110 participants aged between 18 and 75 years ($M_{age} = 35.98$ years, $SD = 12.99$). 53.6% of the participants were male while 52.7% of respondents were married. University degree (30.9%) was the highest degree of education achieved by the respondents while masters' or doctorate degree

(4.5%) was lowest. Monthly household income of respondents varied from less than \$500 to \$2,500 or more ($Mdn_{income} = \$500$ to less than \$1,000).

In the multivariate regression analysis, the findings indicate significant positive relationships between perceived naturalness of Turkish parks and perceived restorativeness (i.e. being away [$b = .437$, $SE = .064$, 95% CI .309 to .564], fascination [$b = .380$, $SE = .059$, 95% CI .263 to .498], and compatibility [$b = .371$, $SE = .060$, 95% CI .252 to .489]). In terms of covariates, only education was positively correlated with compatibility ($b = .293$, $SE = .095$, 95% CI .106 to .481). No other variables significantly contributed to the model.

In terms of health benefits of Turkish parks, the multivariate regression analysis showed that perceived naturalness of Turkish parks was not significantly associated with any health indicators. In terms of covariates, only education was positively correlated with less stress ($b = .280$, $SE = .126$, 95% CI .030 to .531). No other variables significantly contributed to the model.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of showed that the most of the perceived restorativeness (being away, fascination, and compatibility) is predicted by the perceived naturalness of Turkish parks (H_1 is accepted), which is consistent with prior ART research (Hartig et al., 1991; Laumann et al., 2003; Hartig and Staats, 2006; Berman et al., 2008; Roe and Aspinall, 2011a). On the other hand, results showed not a significant relationship between Turkish parks and any health indicator (H_2 is rejected), which is not consistent with previous studies (de Vries et al., 2003; Stigsdotter, 2004; Maas et al., 2006, 2009; Mitchell and Popham, 2008; Ward Thompson, et al., 2012). Some of the results are expected and parallel with the previous studies, whereas some are unexpected and different. Several points that explain the differences between this study and the previous studies are highlighted.

Some philosophical approaches have argued the need for engagement with beauty of green space in order get health benefits from green spaces (Wei Zhang, et al., 2014). Studies showed that perceiving the beauty of green space is associated with well-being (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998; Zhang and Howell, 2011), and those who perceive the beauty of green space well, reported better life satisfaction and gratitude (Diessner, et al., 2008). Therefore, one of the reasons why Turkish people's health was not associated with Turkish parks may be due to Turks' preferences and perceptions. It seems Turkish people did not perceive the parks positively for their health. That is why people's health indicators may not have correlated with parks.

In Turkey, most of the citizens do not have a private garden, therefore, urban parks are the only place to contact with nature in urbanized cities (Özgüner, 2011). Especially those who belong to lower and/or middle income level groups do not have many choices for leisure and recreation activities but urban parks in Turkey (Oguz, 2000). For example, Kurdoglu, et al. (2009) found that Turkish citizens use parks for mostly walking and picnicking. However, while green spaces per capita is higher and 73% of participants want to participate in recreational activities, Turkish citizens cannot undertake recreational activities because green spaces do not address the preferences of Turkish citizens. Therefore, urban parks which provide publicly accessible recreational areas remain vital to citizens' quality of life in increasingly dense Turkish cities.

Furthermore, some studies (Van den Berg et al., 2007; Jorgensen and Gobster, 2010; Richardson, et al., 2012) indicated that not all types of green space is associated with health benefits for people. Additionally, quality of Turkish parks may have affected the health benefits of green space on Turkish people. Studies show that aesthetics, sometimes called attractiveness, is associated with physical activity (McCormack et al., 2010; Sugiyama et al., 2010; Akpinar, 2016). Those who perceive their living area as having a higher quality undertake more physical activity than those who perceive the living area as poor quality (Anneer et al., 2009; Stronegger et al., 2010; de Jong et al., 2012; Akpinar, 2016). Therefore, the low quality of Turkish parks may have prevented the positive health effects of Turkish parks.

This research provides an important assessments on how Turkish parks are restorative and healthful for Turkish citizens. It seems that Turkish parks do also provide restorative effects on people as previous studies suggest. However, no health benefits was revealed in this study meaning it is not expected considering previous studies findings. The reason could be the quality issue or characteristics of Turkish parks that do not address Turkish people preferences. For that reason having high quality urban parks is as important as having high amount of green spaces in urban areas. If doing so, providing high quality urban parks in urbanized Turkish cities might help reduce health expenditure in the long run since it is well documented that green exercise (walking, running, jogging, etc. in the presence of green space/nature) provides many health benefits including reducing the risk of cardiovascular disease (Sallis et al., 2012; Tamosiunas et al., 2014) and improving mental health (Barton and Pretty, 2010; Pretty et al., 2007; MacKay and Neill, 2010).

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Aspects of The Financial Position of The Bulgarian Municipalities

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Abstract: The work of the municipalities is a separate subject of financial management. In this context, it is a separate subject of the analysis and therefore it depends on multiple and varied factors. Furthermore, the work of the municipalities has direct effect on their financial position. The stable financial position of the municipalities is a key factor for the successful social and economic development of the regions in Bulgaria. By achieving and maintain financial stability, the municipalities are able to manage the public resources at local level transparently and efficiently.

This study highlights the financial position of municipalities considered as a set of interrelations and dependences between its components. The use of the system of indicators for analysis of the Bulgarian municipalities' financial position allows us to evaluate the financial independence, the financial stability (budget stability), the investment activeness and the efficiency of financial resources use (own resources and borrowings) at local level.

The subject matter of this study is the application of the system of indicators for analysis and evaluation of the municipalities' financial position.

The study is aimed at achieving a justified and applicable methodology for analysis of the Bulgarian municipalities' financial position.

Key words: financial, methodology, analysis, municipalities, stability

JEL: M49

1. Introduction

The financial position of municipalities is a result of their work. It is formed under the effect of the manner of use of own and external sources of funds for ensuring the work of the municipalities at local level, and as a result of their ability to adapt to the changes within the environment they operate.

In 2013, the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Bulgaria adopted methodology to evaluation the financial position of municipalities. Based on this methodology provide metrics to analysis and evaluation the financial situation of municipalities in Bulgaria.

2. Scorecard Analysis

The analysis of the municipalities' financial position is performed by using a system of indicators grouped in different directions that thoroughly encompass their work.

To our opinion, the following groups of indicators may be used in the system of indicators for analysis and evaluation of municipalities' financial position:

- 1) Indicators for financial independence.
- 2) Indicators for financial stability.
- 3) Indicators for the structure of expenses.
- 4) Indicators for efficiency.

With the help of the indicators for analysis of the **financial independence** of the municipality we can describe the revenue and expenses part of the budget that is allocated to the municipality to be managed at its own responsibility. Based on the values of the indicators, we can analyze and evaluate the municipality's ability to independently cope with the responsibilities it has at local level.

We can use the following indicators for analysis and evaluation of the financial independence of the municipalities:

- 1) Financial independence coefficient (budget autonomy).
- 2) Financial dependence coefficient.
- 3) Coefficient of covering expenses for local activities with own revenue.

The **financial independence coefficient** is calculated as a ratio of the net amount of own revenue to total proceeds for the budget period. The net amount of the municipality's own revenue is formed by deducting the one-time aids and grants from abroad and the transfers to the municipalities from the total amount of own revenue. This coefficient describes the level of financial independence (non-dependence) of the municipality from external proceeds and financial resources (governmental, public-private partnerships, European Union programs and funds, etc.).

If the financial independence coefficient is bigger than 0.70, the municipality is financially independent and thus the central authorities' supervision is limited. If the value of the coefficient varies within the range 0.5 and 0.7, the municipality's financial position is characterized with relative financial independence.

The **financial dependence coefficient** is calculated as a ratio of external financial proceeds to the total proceeds for the budget period. The use of external sources for funding municipality's activities may to some extent be a profitability factor. This is because the rate of return of funds invested in different assets of the municipality is in most cases higher than the interest rate of loans it would receive to fund its activities at local level.

Taking in consideration that the financial dependence coefficient has values less than or equal to 0.3, this means that the municipality is financially independent that has positive impact on its financial stability. If the value of this coefficient is greater than 0.7, the level of financial dependence of the municipalities on external sources for funding its activities is high, and thus the level of financial risk also increases.

The coefficient of **covering the expenses for local activities** with own revenue is calculated as a ratio of the net amount of own revenue to the expenses for performing the municipality's work at local level. If the value of this coefficient is equal to or greater than one, the net amount of own revenue fully covers the expenses for the work of the municipality at local level. In this case the municipality is financially independent, which means that it may settle the expenses for its work with its own revenue. In case the coefficient is lower than one, the municipality has some financial difficulties when carrying out its work at local level, and thus the need of external funding of local activities occurs.

By means of the indicators for **financial stability** we can evaluate the stability of municipalities within the environment they operate.

In general, stability (or durability) is defined as the property of a system to preserve its main characteristics in case of relatively small change of a specific parameter.⁴⁶ The financial stability is an economic category that is aimed at ensuring a balance among the internally inherent characteristics of the system – of the municipality, in this particular case. This means that the municipality is able to operate under conditions of different types of risks and dynamic internal environment, by recovering and maintaining its internal characteristics.

We can use the following indicators for analysis and evaluation of municipalities' **financial stability**:

- 1) Budget balance coefficient.
- 2) Estimate coefficient of long-term borrowings.

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<http://bg.wikipedia.org/wiki/%D0%A3%D1%81%D1%82%D0%BE%D0%B9%D1%87%D0%B8%D0%B2%D0%BE%D1%81%D1%82>

3) Estimate coefficient of overdue liabilities.

The **budget balance** coefficient is calculated as a ratio between the budget balance and the actual incoming financial resources in the municipality for the budget period. It describes the financial stability of the municipality for the formation and expenditure of the funds provided in the local budget. The budget balance is formed as a difference between the total proceeds and the total expenses of the municipality within the frames of the budget period. It may be a budget excess or a budget deficit. If the sum of total proceeds is bigger than the sum of total expenses, the municipality has a budget excess. In this case, the budget balance coefficient is a positive value and has positive effect on the municipality's stability. In case of budget deficit, the coefficient is of negative value and has an adverse effect on the level of financial stability of the municipality.

The estimate **coefficient of long-term borrowings** is equal to the ratio between the amount of long-term debt and the planned net amount of own revenue. It describes the municipality's ability to repay its long-term liabilities with its own revenue within the frames of the budget period.

The estimate **coefficient of overdue liabilities** is calculated as a ratio of the municipality's overdue liabilities to the planned net amount of own revenue, increased with the reconciliation subsidy. With the help of this coefficient we can analyze and evaluate the municipality's ability to cover its overdue liabilities within the frames of the budget period.

The group of indicators **that describe the structure of expenses** may comprise the following indicators:

- 1) Share of expenses for salaries and social security of administrative staff in the total expenses of the municipality for local activities.
- 2) Coefficient of investment activity that describes the relative share of expenses for investments in base infrastructure in the total expenses of the municipality for local activities.

With the held of the **efficiency** indicators we can evaluate not only the efficiency of municipalities' expenses and proceeds when operating at local level, but also the efficiency of the administrative services for the local population. For this purpose we can use the following indicators:

- 1) Expenses efficiency coefficient.
- 2) Proceeds efficiency coefficient.
- 3) Administrative load coefficient.
- 4) Administrative service coefficient.

The **expenses efficiency** coefficient is calculated as a ratio of total proceeds to the total amount of expenses incurred by the municipality for local activities. It describes the amount of proceeds per 1 BGN local expenses of the municipality.

The **proceeds efficiency** coefficient is the ratio between the expenses for local activities and the total proceeds of the municipality. It shows the expenses for local activities per 1 BGN total proceeds of the municipality.

The **administrative load** coefficient can be calculated in two ways. First, the value of this coefficient is calculated as a ratio between the number of the population and the number of the administrative staff of the municipality. It shows the number of inhabitants that are served by one municipal employee. Second, the coefficient may be calculated as a ratio of the number of issued documents and the number of the municipality's administrative staff. In this case the coefficient shows the number of documents issued by one member of the municipality's administrative staff.

The **administrative service** coefficient is calculated as a ratio of the number of the administrative staff to the number of inhabitants of the municipality. It shows the number of administrative staff that serves one inhabitant of the municipality.

On the basis of the values of the indicators from the four groups we can analyze and evaluate the financial position of the respective municipality. For this purpose we may classify the municipalities in five groups that can be described as follows:

- 1) First group. The financial position of the municipalities that are classified in this group is characterized with the following features:
 - High level of financial independence;
 - Stable fiscal policy;
 - Ability to cover their expenses with their own funds;
 - High level of reliability and transparency of financial information in the municipalities' financial statements.
- 2) Second group. The financial position of the municipalities is described as follows:
 - High level of financial independence;
 - Stable fiscal policy;
 - Short-term fluctuations when balancing proceeds and expenses for local activities.
- 3) Third group. The main characteristics of the financial position of the municipalities within this group are as follows:
 - The amount of own revenue is insufficient to cover infrastructure expenses;
 - accumulation of moderate debt can be witnessed in the municipalities;
 - The municipalities' financial statements are not detailed and full;
 - Good level of reliability and transparency of the financial information in the municipalities' financial statements.
- 4) Fourth group. The specific features of the financial position of the municipalities in this group are as follows:
 - The municipalities' revenue does not cover the expenses incurred for local activities;
 - As a result of increasing municipalities' liabilities, the level of risk when implementing their fiscal policy is also increased;
 - Low level of transparency of financial information in the municipalities' financial statements;
 - Inefficient control on municipalities' expenses incurred for their work at local level.
- 5) Fifth group. The financial position of the municipalities in this group is characterized by the following features:
 - The municipalities' revenue does not cover its expenses incurred for local activities;
 - There is a trend of increasing the municipalities' indebtedness, as well as of increasing the overdue liabilities in mid- and long-term aspect;
 - Presence of inefficient system for internal control on proceeds, expenses and work of the municipalities;
 - We can see inefficient use of financial resources.

The overall evaluation of municipalities' financial position is made on the basis of the values of indicators in the five groups of indicators.

In our opinion, the information can be systematized in Table 1.

Table 1

Indicators	Groups of municipalities according to their financial situation				
	I group	II group	III group	IV group	V group
I. Indicators for financial independence:					
1. Financial independence coefficient	Cfi > 0,8	Cfi > 0,7	0,5 < Cfi < 0,7	Cfi < 0,5	Cfi < 0,3
2. Financial dependence coefficient	Cfd < 0,2	Cfd < 0,3	0,5 < Cfd < 0,7	Cfd > 0,5	Cfd > 0,7
3. Coefficient of covering expenses for local activities with own revenue	Cce > 1,0	Cce = 1,0	Cce < 1,0	Cce < 0,7	Cce < 0,3
II. Indicators for financial stability:					
1. Budget balance coefficient	Cbb > 0	Cbb > 0	Cbb > 0	Cbb < 0	Cbb < 0
2. Estimate coefficient of long - term borrowings	Kld ≤ 0,33	Kld < 0,5	Kld = 0,5	Kld > 0,5	Kld ≥ 0,8
3. Estimate coefficient of overdue liabilities	Kl = 0	Kl ≈ 0	Kl > 0	Kl > 0	Kl >>> 0
III. Indicators for the structure of expenses:					
1. Share of expenses for salaries and social security of administrative staff in the total expenses of the municipality for local activities	Ses ≈ 0,3	Ses ≈ 0,4	Ses ≈ 0,5	Ses ≈ 0,7	Ses ≈ 0,8
2. Share of expenses for investments in base infrastructure in the total expenses of the municipality for local activities	Sei ≈ 0,5	Sei ≈ 0,4	Sei ≈ 0,3	Sei ≈ 0,1	Sei ≈ 0,0
IV. Indicators for efficiency:					
1. Expenses efficiency coefficient	Ke > 1,2	Ke > 1,0	Ke = 1,0	Ke < 1,0	Ke < 0,8
2. Proceeds efficiency coefficient	Kep < 0,8	Kep < 1,0	Kep = 1,0	Kep > 1,0	Kep > 1,2
3. Administrative load coefficient	Kal > 1,0	Kal > 1,0	Kal > 1,0	Kal = 1,0	Kal < 1,0
4. Administrative service coefficient	Kas = 1,0	Kas = 1,0	Kas = 1,0	Kas > 1,0	Kas > 1,0

Indicators analysis and assessment of the financial situation of municipalities

Remark:

- First group (I group) of municipalities. Financially independent and well balanced.

- Second group (II group) of municipalities. Financial balancing.
- Third group (III group) of municipalities. Thriving financially.
- Fourth group (IV group) of municipalities. Poorly balanced financially.
- Fifth group (V group) of municipalities. Unbalanced poor financial situation.

3. Conclusion

The use of the system of indicators in the overall methodology for analysis of the Bulgarian municipalities' financial position enables us to evaluate the financial independence, the financial stability, the investment activity and the efficiency of the use of financial resources (own and external) at local level.

The evaluation of the financial position of municipalities may deepen as they rank according to the meanings of the indicators in the system of indicators. Can add additional criteria. For example, the population of the territory of the municipality.

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Limanların Bölge Gelişimine Katkıları: Tekirdağ İli Örneği⁴⁷

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Özet: Dünya nüfusunun ve dolayısıyla tüketiminin artması, ekonomik büyümeler, üretim artışına neden olmakta ve taşıma hacimlerini yükseltmektedir. Küresel ticaret taşımasının büyük oranda denizyolu ile yapılması, limanların önemini arttırmış ve yeni ticaret koridorları ve yeni pazarlar oluşturmada öncü haline getirmiştir. Limanlara giriş yapan gemi sayıları ve yük hacimleri, hem bölgesel ekonomiye, hem de ülke ekonomisine katkı sağlamakta aynı zamanda bölgede yer alan sanayinin ve ticaretin gelişmesi açısından da önem arz etmektedir. Denizyolu taşımacılığı, diğer taşıma şekillerine oranla büyük hacim ve ağırlıktaki ürünleri, en düşük birim maliyetle, güvenilir bir şekilde teslim edilmesi nedeniyle uluslararası ticarete en çok tercih edilen ulaşım şekli olmaktadır.

Teknolojinin gelişmesi ve dünya ticaretinin artışıyla limanlar, gemilerin durak alanları işlevini kaybetmiş, dağıtım merkezleri, gümrüklü depo alanları, elleçleme ekipmanları ve demiryolu bağlantıları ile lojistik hub haline dönüşmektedir. İstihdam ve gelir kaynağı olan limanlar, bulunduğu bölgenin ekonomik ilişkilerinin gelişmesinde de katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada Avrupa pazarına yakın, sanayisi yoğun, lojistik üs konumlandırmasına uygun, Tekirdağ ili alt bölgesi limanları ve gelecek projeleri incelenerek, bölge gelişimine katkısı araştırılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonucunda Tekirdağ bölgesinin lojistik potansiyelini her geçen gün güçlendirmesi, devam eden lojistik altyapı projelerinin bütünleşmesi için yeni terminaller ve yeni lojistik alanlar oluşturulması gerekliliği ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Denizyolu taşımacılığı, Tekirdağ limanları, Liman ekonomisi

Contribution of The Port To The Development of The Region: Example of Tekirdağ Province

Abstract: The fact that most of the world trade have been carried out via sea way have increased the importance of ports. Creating new trade canals and markets, ports are defined to be the gates of a country to the world. Quantity and load volume of the ships entering ports contribute both regional and national economies, meanwhile they are so much important for development of industry and trade in that region. Sea transportation is the most preferred transportation mode for international trade because provides the least cost and safe shipment of higher bulk and mass products compared to the other modes.

Through technologic developments and increasing global trade, more sophisticated and hi-tech ports are planned for better control of load movements. Being the foundation of income and employment in a region, ports also contribute development of economic relations among regions.

In this study, first sea transportation and ports in Turkey are analyzed, then via their contribution to the national economy, ports of Tekirdağ province with high dense industrial and logistics capacity are investigated for their position in national economy and socioeconomic analyses are made.

Key words: Sea transportation, Tekirdağ ports, Port economy

1. Giriş

Taşıma ve bilişim teknolojilerinin gelişimiyle küreselleşme kavramı, uluslararası ticareti tetikleyerek dünyayı bir pazar haline getirmiştir. Sonsuz fırsatların yaratıldığı aynı zamanda korkulacak bir rekabetin ortaya çıktığı büyük bir pazar savaşının ortasında kalan işletmeler, kendilerini korumak için iş stratejilerini yenilemediği takdirde, yok olmak tehdidiyle karşı karşıya kalmışlardır. Küresel rekabet ortamında performanslarını sürdürebilmek isteyen işletmelerin rekabet avantajı yaratmak için lojistik, tedarik zinciri yönetimi, dış kaynak kullanımı, maliyet, kalite, inovasyon, pazarlama ve esneklik gibi konularında işletmelerini geliştirmeleri ve bilişim teknolojisine ayak uydurmaları gerekmektedir. Aynı zamanda

⁴⁷ Namık Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü'nde yapılan Selin BAHAR'ın yazdığı "Limanların Ülke Ekonomisindeki Yeri ve Sosyo-Ekonomik Etkilerinin Analizi: Tekirdağ İli Örneği" yüksek lisans tezinden türetilmiştir.

devletlerin altyapı çalışmaları, uluslararası ticari anlaşmalar ve ülkenin jeopolitik konumu işletmeler maliyet avantajı sağlayarak küresel pazarda rakiplerine göre bir adım önde başlamalarına fırsat sağlayacaktır.

Bu çerçevede maliyet avantajı, hız ve müşteri memnuniyeti açısından işletmelerin lojistik faaliyetleri önem kazanmaktadır. Şirketlerin lojistik faaliyetleri ürünün hammadde aşamasından son nihai tüketiciye ulaşana dek oluşan tedarik, gümrükleme, nakliye, depolama, aktarma gibi birçok işlemlerin yönetimi sürecidir. Global pazarda ticaret sınırlarının kalkmasıyla beraber şirketler lojistik faaliyetlerini dışarıdan sağlayarak maliyetleri düşürmeye çalışmaktadır.

Taşımacılık ve depolama operasyonu lojistik maliyetlerinde önemli bir yere sahiptir. Türkiye'de taşıma operasyonunda yurt içinde yapılan yük ve yolcu taşımalarının büyük bir kısmı karayolu ile sağlanmaktadır. Bu durum hem maliyet hem de çevre ye olan duyarlılık açısından zarar teşkil etmektedir. Demiryolu taşımacılığı ağır ve hacimli ürünlerin taşınmasında maliyet ve çevre unsurları açısından avantajlı olsa da Türkiye'de altyapı çalışmaları ve ulaşım ağı yeterli olmamaktadır. Uluslararası ticarette havayolu taşımacılığının hız faktörü avantaj yaratırken, birim maliyeti çok fazla olduğu için küçük ve değerli ürünlerin taşınmasında daha elverişli olmaktadır.

Denizyolu taşımacılığının diğer taşıma türlerine göre ulaşım kolaylığı, güvenilir bir taşıma şekli olması, maliyet unsuru ve birçok ürünü hacim ve ağırlıklarına bakılmaksızın tek seferde teslimat sağlanması gibi avantajları olsa da teslimat ve elleçleme sürelerinin uzun olması gibi dezavantajlara da sahiptir.

Uluslararası ticaretin büyük çoğunluğu denizyolu ile yapıldığı için limancılık faaliyetleri küresel ticarete önemli bir yere sahiptir. Denizyolu taşımacılığının diğer taşıma şekillerine oranla büyük hacim ve ağırlıktaki ürünleri en düşük birim maliyetle güvenilir bir şekilde teslim edilmesi nedeniyle uluslararası ticarete en çok tercih edilen ulaşım şekli olmaktadır.

Dünya ulaştırma koridorlarında yer alan, üç tarafı denizlerle çevrili Türkiye, küresel ticarete lojistik üs olma yolunda ilerlemektedir. Dünya denizyolu ticaretinde transit yük taşımacılığında merkezi bir konumda yer alacaktır. Liman sektörü artık gemilerin korunduğu yerlerden çok katma değer yaratan hizmet sektörü haline gelmiştir. Limanlar bölgenin gelişmişlik düzeyini de etkileyerek, Bölge kalkınmasına yardımcı olmaktadır. Tekirdağ ili limanları Avrupa pazarına, organize sanayi bölgelerine ve ulaştırma sistemleri ağına yakın olması nedeniyle Türkiye'nin Avrupa'ya açılan kapısı olacaktır.

Bu çalışmada öncelikle Dünya'da ve Türkiye'deki denizyolu taşımacılığının ülke ekonomisine katkısı anlatılmış ve uluslararası pazarlara yakınlığı, sanayi bölgelerinin yoğunluğu ve tüm ulaştırma sistemlerini bir arada barındıran, Tekirdağ ili alt bölgesinde yer alan ASYAPORT, TDİ ve TMO limanların bölge gelişimine ve ekonomisine katkısı ve gelecek projeleri incelenmiştir.

2. Dünyada ve Türkiye'de Deniz Yolu Taşımacılığı

Cebelitarık Boğazı ile Atlas Okyanusu'na Süveyş Kanalı ile Arap Yarımadası ve Hint Okyanusuna, Türk boğazının Karadeniz- Akdeniz bağlantılarıyla Avrasya ve Uzak doğuya uzanan bir ulaşım ağının odak noktasında yer alan Türkiye, Dünya Denizyolu taşımacılığında çok önemli bir avantaja sahiptir. Lojistik merkez olma yolunda sağlam adımlarla ilerleyen Türkiye, rekabetten korunması ve öne çıkması için deniz yolu taşımacılığını ön planda tutması gerekir.

Uluslararası ticaretteki yük taşımacılığında denizyolunun payı tartışılmaz ve gelecekte de değişmesi de beklenmemektedir. Türkiye, denizyolu taşımacılığın en önemli aktörleri olan liman sektöründe konteyner limanları oluşturarak, dünya ticareti transit yük taşımacılığı için odak nokta olmaya aday bir ülkedir.

2015 verilerine göre; Türkiye, 83 milyar USD'lik bir deniz ticareti ihracat yükleme hacmi ile ülkemiz parasal değer olarak dünya deniz ticaretinden %0,8 pay almaktadır. Türkiye'yi dünya denizyolu ticareti ile karşılaştırsak dünya filosunun 1489 parça gemi ile adet bazında %3,7'si, 30,4 milyon DWT ile tonaj (DWT) bazında %1,9'unu Türk sahipli filonun oluşturduğu görülmektedir. Türkiye'nin denizyolu toplam ihracatı, 136 milyon ton ile dünya denizyolu ihracatının %1,4'ünü oluşturmaktadır. Türkiye'nin toplam konteyner

ihracatı ise 3,66 milyon TEU ile dünya konteyner ihracatının TEU bazında %2,3'ünü, ton bazında %2,6'sını oluşturmaktadır. (Utalojistik 2015)

Limanlar Geri Saha Karayolu ve Demiryolu Bağlantıları Master Plan Çalışması verilerine göre; 2015 Ocak Ayı itibarıyla konteyner terminalleri kapasitesi toplam 26,8 milyon TEU teorik kapasiteye ulaşmıştır. Aynı dönemde elleçleme 8,3 milyon TEU olmuştur. Bu kapsamda Ocak 2015 itibarıyla konteyner elleçleme kapasitemizin %32'si kullanılmıştır. Türkiye'nin toplam dış ticaret taşımalarında denizyolu taşımacılığının payına bakıldığında ise 2014 yılsonu itibarıyla 400 milyar USD'lik dış ticaretin 228 milyar USD'ye denk gelen %57'lik kısmının denizyoluyla gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. (Utalojistik 2015)

2015'te limanlarda elleçlenen konteyner miktarında bir önceki yıla göre %2,5'lik bir düşüş yaşanmıştır. 2015'te tüm Türkiye limanlarında 8.203.511 TEU'luk bir elleçleme'nin %90'nını Türklüm üyeleri tarafından yapılmıştır. Ayrıca bir önceki yıla göre, genel kargoda %4 bir azalma, sıvı kimyasal elleçlemelerinde %7, sıvı petrol ürünlerinde ise artış görülmüştür. Ro-Ro taşımalarında ise Türklüm üyeleri 2015 yılında 286.534 araç elleçlemiştir. 2023'te 500 milyar dolarlık ihracat hedefine ulaşılabilmesi için limanlarda ihtiyaç duyacağımız kapasite de yıllık 1.3 milyar ton olacaktır. Şu an kurulu kapasitemiz 948 milyon ton ve bu kapasitenin %43.7'sini kullanılmaktadır.(Utalojistik 2016)

Dünya bankası tarafından yapılan 2014 Lojistik Performans İndeksinde 160 dünya ülkesi arasından, Türkiye 30. sırada yer alırken ilk 10 sırada Almanya, Hollanda, Belçika, Birleşik Krallık, Singapur, İsveç, Norveç, Lüksemburg, ABD ve Japonya yer almaktadır. LPI(2014) 2014 Lojistik Performans İndeksinde Türkiye geçen iki yılda 3 basamak gerileyerek, hizmet kalitesi ve rekabetçiliği ile izleme ve yük takibi konularında gelişme kaydedilirken diğer konularda ve genel sıralamada düşüş yaşanmıştır. Türkiye'nin dünyada lojistik merkez olabilesi için özellikle lojistik altyapısını ve gümrük süreçlerini geliştirmesi gerekmektedir. Zamanında teslimat kriteri 14 sıra gerileyerek 41. sırada yer almıştır, gümrük süreçleri ve altyapı çalışmaları iyileştirildiğinde zamanında teslimat kriterinde de iyileşmeler görülecektir.

2.1. Türkiye'de Denizyolu Taşımacılığının 2023 Vizyonu

Türkiye onuncu kalkınma planında lojistik hizmetlerinin geliştirilmesi özel ihtisas komisyonu raporunda (2014) 2023 vizyonu belirtilmiştir. “Yeni Türkiye” imajıyla ülkemizin GSYH açısından 2023'te dünyanın ilk 10 ekonomisi arasına girmesi ve ihracatta 500 milyar Dolar seviyelerine ulaşılması amaçlanmıştır.

Tablo 1. Türkiye Taşıma Payları Açısından Mevcut Durum ve 2023 Hedefi

Taşıma Payları Ton-Km (Yurtiçi Yük)	Mevcut Durum (%)	2023 Sonu Hedefi (%)
Karayolu	80,63	60
Demiryolu	4,76	15
Havayolu	0,44	1
Denizyolu	2,66	10
Boru Hatları	11,51	14
Taşıma Payları Yolcu-Km (Yurtiçi Yolcu)	Mevcut Durum (%)	2023 Sonu Hedefi (%)
Karayolu	89,59	72
Demiryolu	2,22	10
Havayolu	7,82	14
Denizyolu	0,37	4

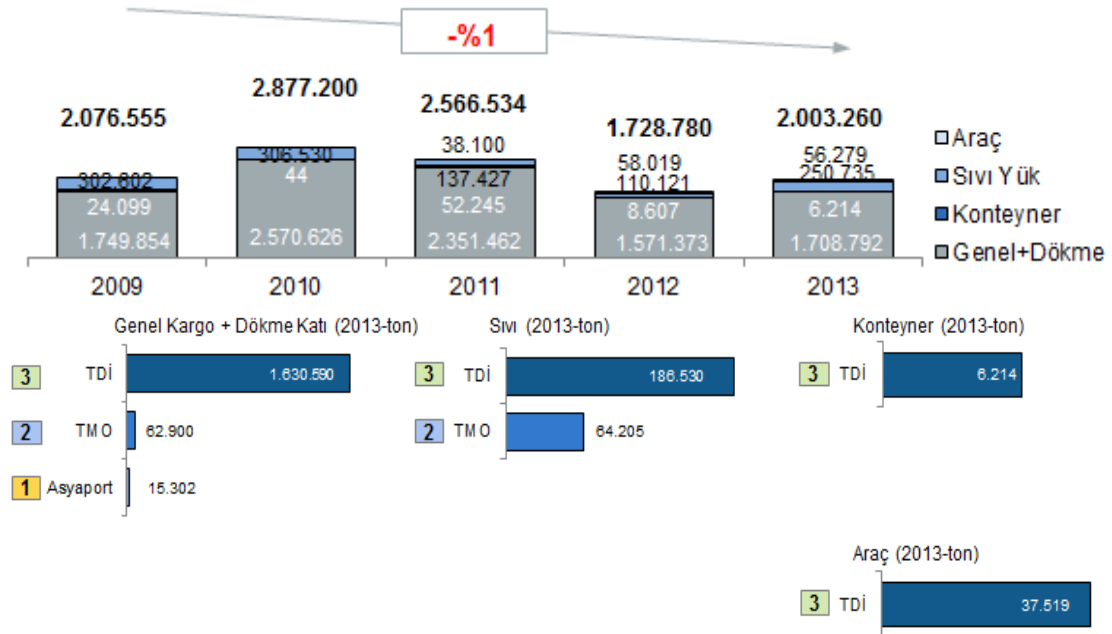
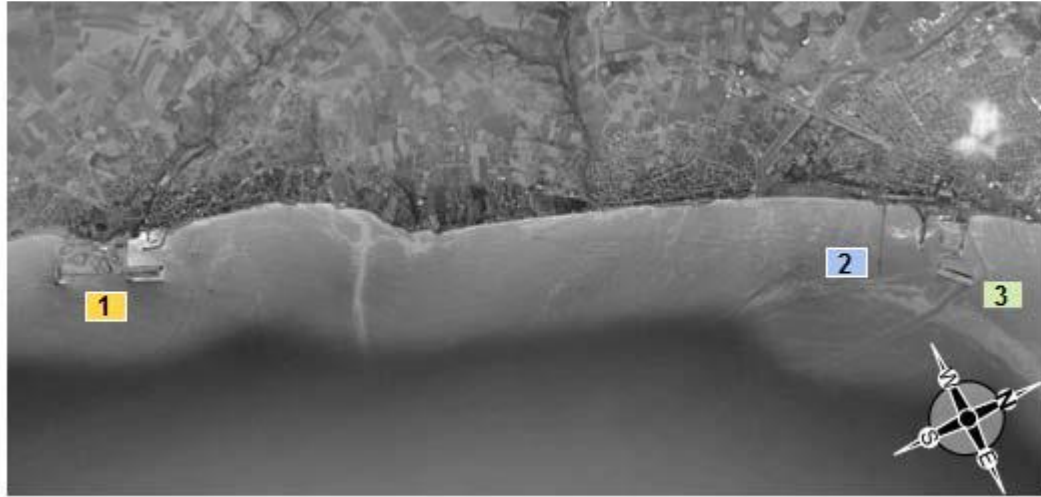
Kaynak: (Türkiye Ulaşım ve İletişim Stratejisi Hedef 2023, UDHB,2011).Ulaştırma, Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı, Türkiye Ulaşım ve İletişim Stratejisi- Hedef 2023(Kalkınma Bakanlığı 2014:6)

2023 Vizyonuna göre yurt içi yük taşımacılığında karayolu % 80 den %60 a gerilemesi hedeflenerek, denizyolu taşıma payı %8 demiryolu taşıma payı % 15 arttırılması hedeflenmiştir. Karayolu taşımacılığı payının azalması hem maliyet açısından hem de yeşil lojistik kavramıyla çevreye verilen zarar açısından gelişim sağlanacaktır.

3. Tekirdağ İli Örneği

3.1. Limanlar

Tekirdağ ilinde toplam 8 adet liman bulunmaktadır. Tekirdağ ilindeki limanlar Tekirdağ alt bölgesi limanları (1-TDİ Limanı 2-TMO Limanı 3-ASYAPORT Limanı) ve Marmara Ereğlisi alt bölgesinde (1-Tekirdağ Bütangaz Terminali 2-Tekirdağ Marmara Ereğlisi Botaş Lng Terminali 3-Marmara Depoculuk Terminali 4-Opet Marmara Ereğlisi Liman Tesisleri 5-Tekirdağ Martaş Limanı)bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada Tekirdağ ili alt bölgesi incelenecektir.



Şekil 5. Tekirdağ Alt Bölgesi Tesis Dağılımları ve Yük İstatistik Bilgileri

3.1.1. TDİ Limanı

Tekirdağ Limanı eski adı ile akport limanı 2012 yılında TDİ 'ye devredilmiştir. Liman, toplam 140 710 m² alanı, yaklaşık 2 300 metre rıhtımın uzunluğu, yıllık dökme yük/genel kargo 3.000.000 ton, 1.000.000 ton sıvı yük ve 180.000 TEU konteyner hacmi ile bölgede önem arz eden bir limandır. Liman ana Karayoluna uzaklığı 7km olmasına rağmen ,şehir merkezine yakın olduğu için trafiği engellemektedir. Limana 3 hatlı demiryolu bağlantısı bulunmaktadır. Yılda 3100 konteyner yük taşınmaktadır.Limanda, çekirdeği, buğday, mısır, melas, silis kumu, çimento, bentonit, üre gübresi, kağıt hamuru olmak üzere dökme yük; ambalajlı, cam, kağıt, boru, alüminyum, paletli, seliloz gibi genel kargo yükleri; konteyner; tır/treyler; araç ve sıvı yük elleçlemesi yapılmaktadır Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2014a:4-44).

Liman, Tekirdağ-Erdek, Tekirdağ-Marmara Adası Tekirdağ-Bandırma, Tekirdağ-Karabiga ve Tekirdağ-Bandırma, arasında Ro Ro gemileri ile devam eden seferler yer almaktadır. Ro Ro rampa donanımlı rıhtımlar ile Avrupa limanlarına ve Karadeniz limanlarına Ro Ro seferleri vardır. Halen UN Ro Ro Pendik Limanı kalkışlı ve İtalya Trieste Limanı varışlı Ro Ro seferleri haftada üç kez Tekirdağ Limanı'na yavaşmaktadır. Tekirdağ-Derince arasındaki seferleriyle ihracat yüklemeleri için vagon yükleme-boşaltma hizmeti ve demiryolu tren ferisine rampa hizmeti sağlanmaktadır. Limanın depolama hizmeti toplam yaklaşık 115 000 m²'dir. Alüminyum ve Çelik ağırlıklı olarak çinko, demir, bakır, gibi ürünler stoklanmaktadır.(Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2014a:4-45)

3.1.2. TMO Limanı

Tekirdağ TMO Limanı 1992 yılında inşa edilmiş olup yaklaşık 600 m uzunluğunda iskeleye sahiptir. Limana maksimum -12 m derinliğinde 25.000 DWT'luk gemiler yanaşabilmektedir. Yılda 25-30 adet 80.000 DWT'luk gemi kabul etmektedir. 8.400 m² gümrüklü alan mevcuttur. Limanın yıllık elleçleme kapasitesi 60.000 ton genel kargo ve 60.000 ton sıvı yüküdür. 2013 yılında toplam 127.105 ton yük elleçlenmiştir. Ürün cinsleri palm yağı, buğday ve mahlut olmak üzere dökme yük, genel kargo ve sıvı yük elleçlenmektedir. Geniş bir hinterlanda sahip olan limanın karayolu bağlantısı mevcut, demiryolu bağlantısı ise mevcut değildir. Limanın anayola mesafesi 500 m, demiryoluna mesafesi 500 m ve havaalanına mesafesi 30 km'dir. (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2015a:2-12)

3.1.3. ASYAPORT Limanı

Asyaport 20 m derinliği olan 2000 m rıhtım ve yıllık 2,5 TEU 'luk elleçleme kapasitesiyle temmuz 2015'en itibaren Barboros mevkiinde hizmete giren,Türkiye'nin ilk transit konteyner limanıdır. Dünyanın en iyileri arasında yer alan Mediterranean Shipping Company (MSC) grubunun liman yatırımları yapan şirketi Global Terminal Limited (GTL) ile ortak yatırım yapan Asyaport limanı, dünya denizyolu ticaretini Tekirdağ limanlarına çekerek Tekirdağ ilini gelecek ulaştırma projeleri ile lojistik merkezi haline dönüştürecektir. 1200 kişilik istihdam yaratmayı amaçlayan Asyaport limanı çevreyi korumak için Elektrikli Vinçler (STS ve RTG), LNG Motorlu Taşıyıcılar, Solar Paneller ve LED Aydınlatma gibi farklı teknolojilere yatırım yapmış, atık yönetimini tehlike sınıfına göre ayırıştırıp bertaraf etmiş, ve elleçleme araçlarında lng (likit doğal gaz) kullanılarak, Yeşil liman setifikasına aday bir limandır.(Asyaport 2016) Asyaport, Marmara Bölgesinin konteyner elleçleme kapasitesini % 40 arttırarak 6.100.000 TEU'dan 8.600.000 TEU'a çıkarılması planlanmaktadır (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı , 2014a: 4-46).

Tablo 2. Asyaport Bilgileri

Coğrafi Konum	: 40' 54" Kuzey; 27' 28" Doğu
Terminal Sahası	: 320.000 m ²
Rıhtım Uzunluğu	: 2010 m
Maksimum Su Derinliği	: 18 m
Kara Terminali	: 100.000 m ²
Soğutmalı (Reefer) Konteyner Priz Sayısı	: 1400
İstifleme Kapasitesi	: 33.000 TEU
Elleçleme Kapasitesi	: 2.500.000 TEU


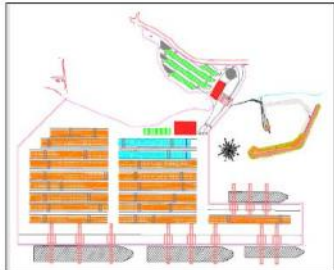
Kaynak : .(Asyaport 2016)

Asyaport Limanı, Dünya denizyolu taşımacılığında lider marka olan MSC grubunu Türkiye'yi üs olarak seçmesi sağlayarak, dünya denizyolu ticaretinin Türkiye ağını genişletmiştir. Aynı zamanda Tekirdağ ili , Türkiye dış ticaret hacmi açısından ve transit ticaretin gelişimi açısından lojistik merkez konumunda bir il haline gelecektir.



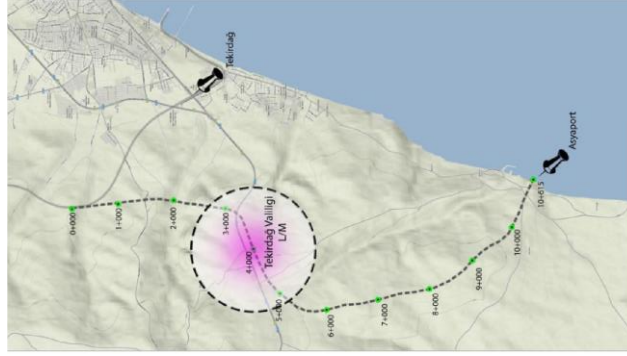
Şekil 6Asyaport Geri Saha Bağlantı Karayolu Projesi
Kaynak: Asyaport Limanı(Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2014a:6-11)

NİTELİĞİ (LİMAN / İSKELE)		LİMAN					
İLİ		TEKİRDAĞ					
İLÇESİ / KÖYÜ		SÜLEYMANPAŞA					
COĞRAFİ KONUMU		40°54' N - 27°28' E					
İŞLETMECİ		ASYAPORT LİMAN A.Ş.					
	TEORİK KAPASİTESİ	YÜK ELLEÇLEME MİKTARI			KAPASİTE KULLANIM ORANI		
YIL		2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013
DÖKME YÜK (TON/YIL)				5.250			
GENEL KARGO (TON/YIL)				10.052			
KONTEYNER (TEU/YIL)	2.500.000						
TIR/TREYLER (ADET/YIL)							
ARAÇ (ADET/YIL)							
SIVI YÜK (TON/YIL)							
YOLCU (ADET/YIL)							
MEVCUT YATIRIM DURUMU							
FİZİKİ DURUMU		KULLANILABİLİR DURUMDA.					
KARAYOLU BAĞLANTISI		VAR					
VARSA UZAKLIĞI (km)		0,5					
DEMİRYOLU BAĞLANTISI		YOK					
VARSA UZAKLIĞI (km)							
HİTERFİYANT		TRANSİT YÜK HEDEFİ BULUNMAKTADIR.					



Şekil 7Asyaport Liman İşletmesi A.Ş.
Kaynak: (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2015b:32)

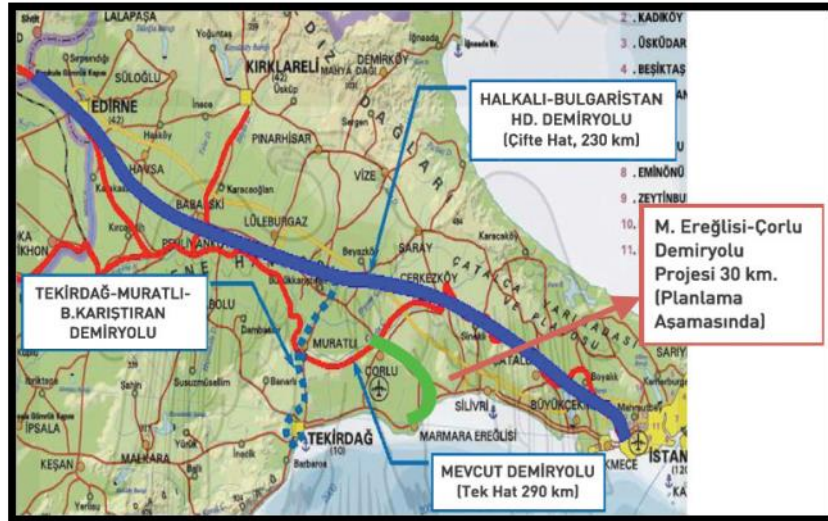
Asyaport'un iş akışının Tekirdağ trafiğini etkilememesi için Malkara – Tekirdağ ana kara yolu arasında 6 km lik yol çalışması başlamıştır. Bu yol, Tekirdağ'ın kalkınmasına, Çorlu ve Çerkezköy OSB'lerinde üretilen ürünlerin yurt dışına çıkışlarında kullanacakları önemli bir güzergah haline gelecektir



Şekil 4. Asyaport Limanı, öngörülen iltisak hattına ilişkin güzergah, (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2014:6-15)
Kaynak: TCDD İltisak Hattı Yapılacak Yerlerin Tespiti ve Genel Değerlendirme Taslak Raporu 1. Bölge 4. Cilt

Ulaştırma Bakanlığı verilerine göre,TCDD Tekirdağ –Muratlı hattından bağlanılacak ve yaklaşık 10.6 km uzunluğunda koridor ile Asyaport limanına bağlanması planlanan iltisak hattının yıllık 111.750 taşıtlık bir kamyon trafiğinin azalacağı, karayolu taşımacılığı göre yıllık toplam kazanç 14,07 milyon TL olacaktır. Sağlanan tasarrufun yatırıma göre karlılığı ise yüzde 19,8 olması planlanmaktadır. (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2014:6-15)

Tekirdağ Liman Bölgesi'nde 2023 yılı itibarıyla, Tekirdağ-Muratlı Demiryolu Hattı'nın uzatılarak Asyaport'a ve organize sanayi bölgesine bağlanması ve Muratlı İstasyonu'nda bir kara limanı oluşturularak mekik tren işletilmesi önerilmektedir. Bu yolla Tekirdağ Limanları'na gelen yükün Avrupa'ya demiryolu vasıtasıyla taşınması aynı zamanda tersi istikamette bir yük hareketi mümkün olacaktır. Aynı zamanda Tekirdağ-Bandırma arasında tren ferri hattının çalıştırılması ve Tekirdağ –Derince arasında var olan tren ferri hattının da işletilmeye devam edilmesi tavsiye edilmektedir. T.C. Karayolları Genel Müdürlüğü tarafından yapılması planlanan Kınalı-Tekirdağ, Çanakkale- Savaştepe Otoyolu Projesi'nde Çanakkale-Lapseki geçişini müteakip güzergahın Tekirdağ'a bağlanmasıyla, Avrupa'da gelen ya da Avrupa'ya giden yük akışının Çanakkale-Tekirdağ üzerinden sağlanması ve bu yolla İstanbul ve Körfez'de meydana gelen sıkışıklığın azaltılmasının mümkün olacağı öngörülmektedir. Uzun vadede yük akışının artacağı öngörülerek oluşacak yoğunluk sebebiyle bölgedeki trafiğin rahatlatılması amacıyla Lapseki-Gelibolu geçişinin düzenlenerek yük akışının Çanakkale istikametine de yönlendirilmesinde fayda görülmektedir. (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı ,2014:6-17)



Şekil 8. Tekirdağ ili Demiryolu bağlantıları
Kaynak:(Trakya 2013:187)

3.2. Tekirdağ İli 2009-2013 Dönemi Denizyolu- Demiryolu Karayolu Havayolu İthalat ve İhracat Oranları (Abd Doları Ve Kg)

3.2.1. Tekirdağ 2009-2013 Dönemi İhracatı(Usd)

Tablo 3. Tekirdağ 2009-2013 Dönemi İhracatı (Usd)

	DENİZ YOLU	DEMİR YOLU	KARAYOLU	HAVAYOLU	DİĞER*	TOPLAM
	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR
2009-İHRACAT \$	84.746.776	11.727.535	354.101.616	31.060.955	1.602.787	483.239.669
2010-İHRACAT \$	122.764.351	14.247.421	369.036.774	35.313.775	4.970.169	546.332.490
2011-İHRACAT \$	176.832.024	23.224.011	410.807.194	44.658.848	58.000	655.580.077
2012-İHRACAT \$	172.442.137	12.969.097	367.479.250	41.260.951	2.435.641	596.587.076
2013-İHRACAT \$	204.026.415	18.912.020	393.634.960	44.607.158	1.222.700	662.403.253

*Diğer=Boru hatları vd

(Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2015b:120-130)

Tekirdağ ili 2009-2013 Dönemi İhracatı (USD) ortalama% 65 oranla Karayolu taşımacılığı ile yapılmaktadır, sırasıyla denizyolu taşımacılığı,havayolu, demiryolu ve Boru hattı taşımacılığı takip etmektedir.Denizyolu taşımacılığı 2009-2013 Dönemi İhracatı (USD)'ında % 13'lük artış yaşayarak, Karayolu taşımacılığı ise % 13'lük bir azalma meydana gelmiştir.

Tekirdağ ili 2013 yılı ihracatı(usd) %59.4 karayolu,%30.8 denizyolu, %6.7 havayolu , %2.8 demiryolu ve %0.1 oranda boru hattında taşımacılık gerçekleştirmiştir.

3.2.2. Tekirdağ 2009-2013 Dönemi İthalatı (Usd)

Tablo 4. Tekirdağ 2009-2013 Dönemi İthalatı (Usd)

	DENİZ YOLU	DEMİR YOLU	KARA YOLU	HAVA YOLU	DİĞER	TOPLAM
	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR	DOLAR
2009-İTHALAT \$	214.817.443	23.017.894	210.706.464	21.984.539	3.299.655	473.825.995
2010-İTHALAT \$	301.950.363	10.809.455	255.571.166	28.343.033	6.536.167	603.210.184
2011-İTHALAT \$	463.121.123	11.413.086	244.038.580	46.151.276	14.904.689	779.628.754
2012-İTHALAT \$	370.306.062	9.924.031	218.505.094	24.074.157	18.375.648	641.184.992
2013-İTHALAT \$	454.071.471	6.960.515	275.945.249	21.343.585	20.844.683	779.165.503

*Diğer=Boru hatları vd

Kaynak: (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2015b:120-130)

Tekirdağ ili 2009 yılında İthalatı (USD) % 44 oranla Karayolu % 45 denizyolu ile taşımacılık yaparken, 2013 yılında % 35 oranla Karayolu % 58 denizyolu taşımacılığı yapmaktadır. Denizyolu taşımacılığı 2009-2013 Dönemi İthalatı (USD)'ında % 13'lük artış yaşayarak, karayolu taşımacılığı ise % 10'lük bir azalma meydana gelmiştir.2009-2013 Dönemi İthalatı (USD) demiryolu taşımacılığı% 4 düşüş yaşarken,Boru hattı taşımacılığı %2 artmıştır.

Tekirdağ ili 2013 yılı İthalatı(usd) %35.4 karayolu,%58.2 denizyolu, %2.7 havayolu, %0.8 demiryolu ve %2.6 oranda boru hattında taşımacılık gerçekleştirmiştir.

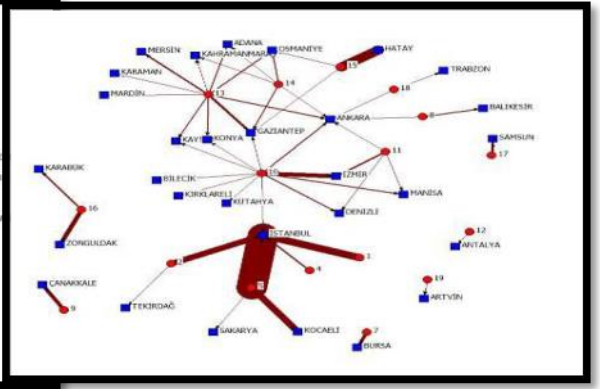
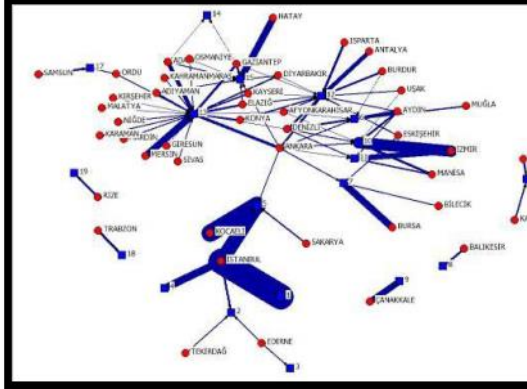
3.3. İller - Limanlar Arası Yük Hareketleri

(Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2014:4-1)Yapılan saha çalışmalarında her bir limanın hangi ile ne kadar yük gönderdiği ve hangi ilden ne kadar yük çektiği tespit edilmiştir. İkinci aşamasında hangi limandan hangi ile ne kadar yük taşınacağı kestirilmiştir. Bunun için önce mevcut hinterland analizi ve limanlar-iller arası yük hareketleri esas alınarak yük dağılım parametreleri belirlenmiştir.

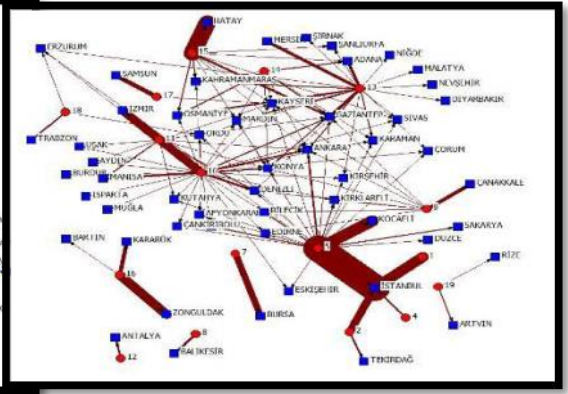
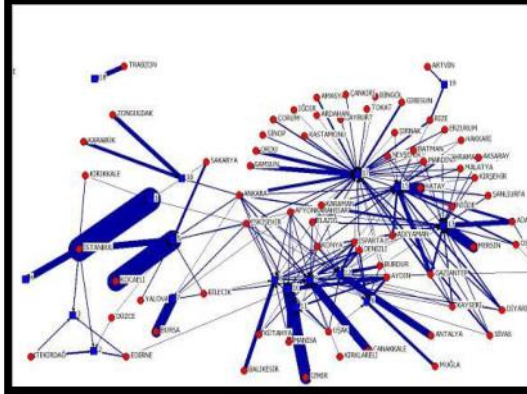
İHRACAT

İTHALAT

2013



2035



Şekil 6. Limanlar ve İller Arası Karayolu Yük Taşımaları (2013-2035 –İhracat, ithalat)
Kaynak: (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2014a:4-10,12,171,18)

Tablo 5. Tekirdağ Limanlar-İller Arası Taşımalarda Ortalama Mesafe (2013-2018-2035)

TEKİRDAĞ	İthalat Yüğü Ortalama	İhracat Yüğü Ortalama
	Taşıma Mesafeleri (km)	Taşıma Mesafeleri(km)
2013	107,3	282,4
2018	120,4	154
2035	67	190,1

Kaynak: (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı,2014a:4-21-22-23)

4. Sonuç

Sosyo-ekonomik gelişmişlik düzeyi ilk 10'a giren Tekirdağ bölgesi lojistik potansiyelini her geçen gün güçlendirmektedir, devam eden lojistik altyapı projelerinin bütünleşmesi için yeni terminaller ve yeni lojistik alanlar oluşturulması gerekmektedir.

Tekirdağ limanının dışında inşa edilecek olan demiryolu terminali ve lojistik merkez, Asyaport limanına bağlanacak demiryolu taşıma maliyetlerini düşürecek ve bölge sanayicisine, tüccarına ve halkına ekonomik bir avantaj ve iş olanağı sağlayacaktır.

Limanların gelişmesi ile yeni istihdam olanağı sağlayacak ve bölge halkının işsizlik sorununa kısmen de olsa çare olacaktır. Limanda indirilecek olan konteynerler İstanbul'un batı bölgelerine kara yolu ile taşınacak ve bu da bölge taşımacıları için bir iş potansiyeli yaratacaktır.

Limanlarda çalışacak personelin eğitimi için Tekirdağ bölgesinde yer üniversitelerde ve meslek yüksek okullarında lojistik yanında liman ağırlıklı dersler verilmesi, bölgedeki gençlere eğitim fırsatı çıkacak ve limanlarda çalışma olanağı bulacaktır.

Limanların inşa edildikleri her lokasyonda çevrede yapılanma başlamaktadır. Tekirdağ'da da limanların etrafındaki arazilerin değerleri yükselecek ve limana yakın depo, iş yeri, konut gibi talepler arazi sahiplerinin daha yüksek fiyatla arazilerini satmalarına ve kaynak yaratmalarına imkan verecektir. Bu bölgede inşa edilecek olan tesisler de yeni iş olanağı yaratacak, bölge tüccarının iş kapasitesini arttıracaktır. Limanların devreye girmesi ile forwarder firmalar ve lojistik firmalar Tekirdağ'da ofislerini hatta depolarını açacaklar ve bölge ekonomisine, sosyal yaşama katkıda bulunacaklar, iş olanağı yaratacaklardır

Özellikle konteyner limanlarının araç trafiklerinin şehir içinden yapılması şehir trafiğini olumsuz etkilemektedir. Asyaport limanı ise trafiğini şehirden geçirmeden doğrudan ana arterler bağlanması açısından trafik, gürültü, hava kirliliği açısından olumsuz etkiler yaratmayacaktır. Asyaport limanının konteyner ağırlıklı olması, Tekirdağ limanının proje, kuru yük ve dökme yüklere dönük ihtisaslaşmasına ve liman hizmetlerinin maliyetlerinin düşmesine olanak sağlayacaktır.

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- (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı, 2015a) Ulaştırma, Denizcilik Ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı Altyapı Yatırımları Genel Müdürlüğü 08 Ocak 2015 Ankara Limanlar Geri Saha Karayolu Ve Demiryolu Bağlantıları Master Plan Çalışması 1. Ara Rapor
- (Ulaştırma Bakanlığı, 2015b) Ulaştırma Bakanlığı Ulaştırma, Denizcilik Ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı Altyapı Yatırımları Genel Müdürlüğü 26 Şubat 2015 Ankara Limanlar Geri Saha Karayolu Ve Demiryolu Bağlantıları Master Plan Çalışması Taslak Sonuç Raporu-Ekler
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- (Utalojistik 2015) <http://www.lojistikhatti.com/haber/2015/04/konteyner-ellecleme-kapasitesi-32-milyon-teuya-cikacak>(Erişim Tarihi:15.12.2015)
- (Utalojistik 2016) <http://www.lojistikhatti.com/haber/2016/02/2023te-limanlardaki-kapasite-ihtiyaci-1-3-milyar-tona-cikacak>(Erişim Tarihi: 20.02.2016)

Kamu Açıklarının Türkiye Ekonomisi Üzerindeki Etkileri

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Özet: Kamu açıkları günümüzde gerek gelişmiş gerekse gelişmekte olan ülkelerde karşılaşılan en önemli makroekonomik sorunların başında gelmektedir.Tarihsel süreç içerisinde devlet anlayışında meydana gelen değişimler kamu açıklarının artmasında etkili olan en önemli faktörler arasında yer almaktadır. Klasik iktisadi yaklaşımın bağlı kaldığı denk bütçe ilkesinin 1929 yılındaki dünya ekonomik krizinden sonra terk edilmesi bütçe disiplininin bozulmasına neden olmuştur.

Kamu açıkları, özellikle 1970’li yılların başlarında itibaren gelişmekte olan ülkelerde kronik bir sorun haline gelmeye başlamıştır. 1973 yılındaki ilk petrol şokuna kadar olan dönemde denk bütçeyi hedef alan gelişmiş ülkeler bile petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıklarını olağan karşılamaya başlamıştır.Gelişmekte olan ülkelerin gelir dağılımının bozuk olması, işsizlik, kişi başına düşen milli gelir miktarının düşük olması, ekonomik yapının tarım ağırlıklı olması, kayıt dışı ekonominin büyük olması, tasarruf miktarının yetersizliği gibi yapısal ve kurumsal sorunlara sahip olması ve bu sorunların çözülmemiş olması kamu açıklarının önemli nedenleri arasındadır.

Kamu açıklarına neden olan pek çok ekonomik faktörün yanı sıra politik iktisadi nedenler de söz konusudur. Kamu açıklarının politik iktisadi nedenlerinden bir diğeri hükümetlerin vergi toplama konusunda politik davranışlar sergilemesidir. Hükümetler vergilerin yeterli olmadığından şikayet etmekte ancak daha etkin bir vergi sistemi konusunda ise isteksiz davranmaktadır. Hükümetler yeniden seçilmek için kamu harcamalarını vergilerle finanse etmek yerine, borçlanarak finanse etmeyi tercih etmektedir.

Türkiye ekonomisinde kamu açıkları, kamu kesimi borçlanma gereği bütçe türleri itibariyle incelendiğinde ortaya çıkan önemli bulgu KİT’lere yapılan harcamalardaki azalmadır. Dolayısıyla kamu kesimi borçlanma gereğindeki iyileşme esas olarak KİT’ler ve özelleştirme kapsamındaki kuruluşların borçlanma gereğinin GSMH’ ye oranlarındaki azalmalardan kaynaklanmaktadır.

Türkiye kamu açıklarını azaltılması için, kamu gelirlerinin ile kamu harcamalarına eşlik edebilmesi için vergi gelirlerinin artırılması gerekmektedir. Vergi gelirlerinin artırılabilmesi için de vergi oranlarının düşürülmesi, vergi tabanının genişletilmesi ve kayıt dışı ekonominin önüne geçilmesi önemlidir. Kamu harcamalarında verimlilik denetimine önem verilmelidir. Bunun yanı sıra kamu harcamaları beşeri sermayenin gelişimine katkı sağlayacak şekilde düzenlenmelidir. Mali disiplinin sağlanması gerekmektedir. Ayrıca mali şeffaflığı artırılması, bütçe disiplinin sağlanmasına, ekonomik rant arayışlarının önlenmesine yardımcı olacaktır.

2016 yılında bütçe açığının GSYH’ye oranının yüzde 1,3, faiz dışı fazlanın ise yüzde 1,2 olmasının hedeflenmiş, bütçe giderlerinin ekonomik sınıflandırmaya göre dağılımı ise şöyle sıralandı: "Personel giderleri 147,7 milyar lira, sosyal güvenlik primleri 24,9 milyar lira, mal ve hizmet alım giderleri 46,4 milyar lira, cari transferler 217,7 milyar lira, sermaye giderleri 51,8 milyar lira, sermaye transferleri 7,5 milyar lira, borç verme 12,9 milyar lira, yedek ödenekler 5 milyar lira faiz giderleri 56 milyar lira." Olarak belirlendi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kamu Maliyesi, Kamu açıkları, Kamu açıklarının etkileri

The Impact of Public Deficits on Turkish Economy

Özet: Kamu açıkları günümüzde gerek gelişmiş gerekse gelişmekte olan ülkelerde karşılaşılan en önemli makroekonomik sorunların başında gelmektedir.Tarihsel süreç içerisinde devlet anlayışında meydana gelen değişimler kamu açıklarının artmasında etkili olan en önemli faktörler arasında yer almaktadır. Klasik iktisadi yaklaşımın bağlı kaldığı denk bütçe ilkesinin 1929 yılındaki dünya ekonomik krizinden sonra terk edilmesi bütçe disiplininin bozulmasına neden olmuştur.

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Anahtar Kelimeler: Kamu Maliyesi, Kamu açıkları, Kamu açıklarının etkileri

Giriş

Dünyada kamu açıklarının bütün ülkelerin en önemli konuları arasında bulunmaktadır. Bütün devletler sosyal gelişmeleri nedeniyle ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilmek için finansman sağlamak zorundadır. Devletlerin ihtiyaçları arttıkça harcamalarında da daha fazla bir artış gözlenmektedir. Gelirlerin giderleri karşılayamaması kamu açıklarının doğmasına neden olmaktadır. Bunun içinde gelirleri toplayabilmek için devlet zaman zaman bazı makroekonomik değişkenlerde oynamak zorunda kalmaktadır. Tüm devletler denk bütçe üzerinde durmaktadır. Aksi takdirde bütçe açıklarının ekonomik istikrarsızlığa neden olacağı bilinmektedir. Klasik iktisat teorisi de kamu gelirlerinin kamu harcamalarının karşılaması görüşünü savunmaktadır. Uygulamada bütçe açıklarının vergilerin arkadan gelen nesile devrederler. Sonuçta toplam ömür boyu tüketimin arttırılması sağlanır. Tüketim artışı zorunlu olarak tasarruflardaki azalmaya neden olur. Tasarrufların azalması faiz oranlarındaki yükselme demektir. Faiz oranları yükselince de yatırımlar durma noktasına gelmektedir. Kamu açıklarının 1970'li yıllardan itibaren gelişmekte olan ülkelerin sorunu haline gelmiştir. 1973 yılındaki ilk petrol şoku bunda önemli bir rol oynamıştır. Özellikle gelişmekte olan ülkelerin petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıklarının maksimum seviyelere çıkmıştır. Sonuçta ekonomik dengeler bozulmuş ve kamu borçları maksimum seviyeye çıkmıştır. Özellikle Türkiye'de kamu finansman dengesiyle makroekonomik denge arasındaki ilişki çok büyük bir önem arz etmiş kamu açıklarının devamlılık kazanması borç baskısının artması sonucunda ülkede makro ekonomik dengeler bozulmuş ve bu durumdan kurtulmak için borçlanma yoluyla finansman gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Kamu Açıkları

Ülkemizde 1990'dan itibaren kamu açıkları artışı hız kazanmaya başlamıştır. Bu yıldan itibaren personel harcamaları artmıştır. Ayrıca kamu iktisadi teşekküllerini yapılan transfer harcamaları fazlaşmıştır. Buna paralel olarak faizlerdeki artışların hız kazanması ve bunu karşılayacak kamu gelirlerinin istenilen ölçüde olmaması sonucunda borç oranları artmış ve mali disiplin bozulduğu gibi makroekonomik dengelerde bozulmuştur.⁴⁸

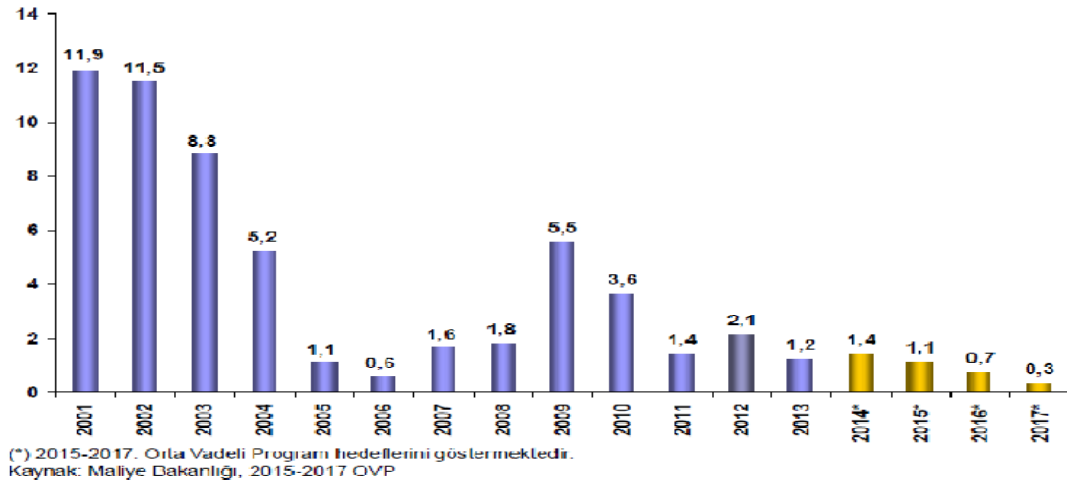
Aşağıdaki grafikte görüldüğü gibi özellikle 2001 yılında maksimum seviyeye çıkan bütçe açıklarının 2006 yılında azaldığını fakat 2009 yılında tekrar yükselmeye başladığını bundan sonra bu açıkların yavaş yavaş

⁴⁸ Saatçi, M.Y., "Türkiye'de Bütçe Açıkları ve Finansman Sekilleri", Bütçe Dünyası, 2, 26, 2007, s. 91-101.

kapandığını özellikle GSMH'ye oranlarının 2009'dan itibaren önemli ölçüde azaldığını görüyoruz. Bunun sebebi uygulanan sıkı maliye politikaları büyüme hızında meydana gelen artışlar ve bütçede yapılan iyileştirmelerdir.

Türkiye'de Kamu Açıklarının Nedenleri

Cumhuriyet'in ilanından sonra Türkiye çok partili bir sisteme geçmiş bunun sonucunda da kamu harcamaları ülkenin kalkınması için hızla artmıştır. Fakat gelirler gider arasındaki farkın kamu giderleri lehine çoğalması açıklarında daha fazla artmasına neden teşkil etmiştir. Özellikle 1950'den sonra menderes hükümeti kamu gelirlerini istenilen düzeyde arttıramamıştır. Sonuçta kamu açıkları büyümüştür. Türkiye'de istenilen ölçüde vergi toplanamamış sonuçta kamu gelirlerinin azlığı nedeniyle kamu harcamaları istenilen ölçüde karşılanamamıştır. Ayrıca kayıt dışı ekonomi içinde gereken önlemler alınamamıştır. Bu da beraberinde yolsuzluklara verim düşüklüğünü israfı ve kronik enflasyonu getirmiştir. Yerel yönetimler için merkezden ödemeler yapılmış askeri harcamalar artmış bütçe dışı fon uygulamaları ve faiz değerlerinin artmasına bu yüzden siyasi istikrarsızlıklar eklenmiştir. Gelir dağılımının bozulması GSMH'deki hızlı artış hızlı nüfus artışı ve tarım sektörünün çok büyük olması haliyle düşük vergi toplamasına neden olmuştur. Özellikle vergi idaresinin zayıflığı ve yetersizliğine bir de donanım yetersizliği eklenmiştir. Bugünkü gibi bilgisayar ağının olup olmayışı denetimi zorlaştırmıştır. Ayrıca köyden şehre göç hızlanmış bunun sonucunda özellikle büyük şehirlerde gecekondulaşma ve kentleşme başlamıştır. Buna özellikle kamuda istihdam edilen personelde hızlı bir artış açıkların daha da büyümesine neden olmuştur. Vergi sisteminin yetersizliği ve özellikle kayıt dışı ekonominin yüksekliği ve vergi ahlakının yerleşmemiş olması ve politikacıların sık sık vergi aflarını çıkarmaları vergi gelirlerinde müthiş bir düşüşe neden olmuştur. Kamu bankalarının genel zararları kamu iktisadi teşebbüslerin zararları ve özellikle güneydoğuda ki terör olayları ile bunlara yapılan askeri harcamalar bütçe giderlerini çoğaltmasına neden olmuştur. Tarımsal destekleme ve sübvansiyonlar iç ve dış faiz ödemeleri erken emeklilik ile sağlık giderlerindeki artış doğal afetler su baskınları ile bunun yanı sıra bakanlık ve milletvekili sayılarının arttırılması siyasi partilere yapılan yardımlar vergi iadeleri yolsuzluk ve rüşvetler kamu açıklarını daha da artmasına neden olmuştur.



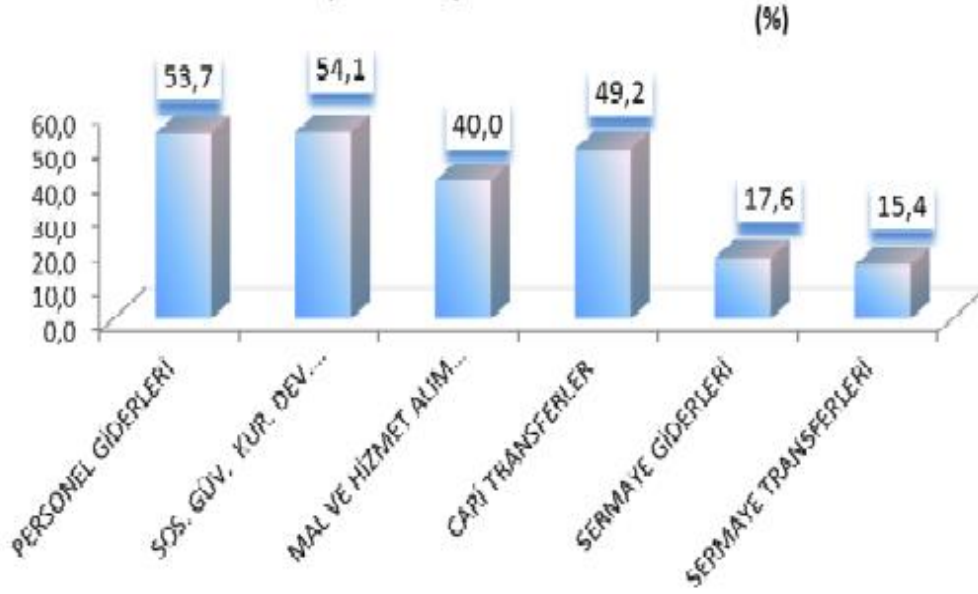
Şekil: Merkezi Yönetim Bütçe Açığı

Türkiye’de Kamu Finansal Açıkları

Türkiye’de finansman açıkları denilince ilk akla gelen destekli bütçe açıklarıdır. Bu açıkların yıllar itibari ile kamu açıkları içindeki payı 1990 yılında 41,8 1995 yılında yüzde 81 2000 yılında ise yüzde 92’dir.⁴⁹

Bu harcamalar sürekli olarak artmaktadır.

Tablo: Bütçe Ödeneklerinin Kullanım Oranı



Kaynak: Ekonomik Sınıflandırmaya Göre Bütçe Ödeneklerinin Kullanım Oranı (%) (Ocak – Haziran 2014)
<http://www.maliye.gov.tr/KurumsalMaliDurumBeklentilerRaporu>

Şekilde de görüldüğü gibi bütçe ödenekleri sürekli olarak artmakta sermaye giderleri ve sermaye transferleri de azalmaktadır.

Türkiye’de 1980 yılından itibaren uygulanan dışa açık ekonomik büyüme modeli ile kamu harcamalarının artışı önlenememiştir. Buna paralel olarak finansman açıkları büyümüş ve bununla ilgili bu finansman açıklarının nasıl finans edileceği bütçe yasalarıyla ortaya konmaya çalışılmıştır. Kamu açıklarının boyutları 1980’li yıllardan itibaren önemli ölçüde artma eğilimine girmiştir. Özellikle kamu finansman açıklarının dışardaki yurt dışı finansal piyasalardan karşılanmak istenmesi iç port stokunun çıkış gibi büyümüştür. Kamu harcamalarına bir sınır getirilememiştir. Bunun da nedeni sosyal hakların kaybolacağı endişesidir. Hiçbir hükümet toplumun tüketim eğilimlerinin önüne geçememiş ve bunu önleyebilmek içinde dolaylı vergileri arttırma yoluna gitmişlerdir. Fakat bunda istenilen ölçüde başarılı olamamışlardır.

⁴⁹ Öner, E “Türkiye’de Bütçe Harcamalarının Genel Bir Değerlendirmesi (1924-1993)”, Türkiye’de Bütçe Harcamaları, IX. Türkiye Maliye Sempozyumu, Silifke, Ç.Ü.İ.İ.B.F. Yayını 1993.

Tablo: 2000-2014 arası Kamu Gelir ve Giderleri

(GSYH'ya Oran, %)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
1.VERGİLER	17,80	18,62	17,05	17,74	17,48	18,02	18,11	17,95	17,48	17,70	18,82	19,26	19,40	20,57	19,79
A.VASITASIZ	6,97	7,49	5,97	5,82	5,44	5,54	5,31	5,74	5,79	5,86	5,40	5,76	5,98	5,81	6,01
B.VASITALI	10,83	11,13	11,08	11,92	12,04	12,48	12,80	12,21	11,69	11,84	13,42	13,50	13,42	14,77	13,78
2.VERGİ DIŞI NORMAL GELİRLER	1,68	1,61	2,39	2,21	2,24	2,50	2,47	2,05	2,03	2,55	2,15	1,93	2,11	1,69	1,87
3.FAKTÖR GELİRLERİ	2,62	3,98	5,76	4,54	4,36	4,68	4,56	4,26	3,60	4,20	3,57	3,17	3,62	3,60	3,34
4.FONLAR	-1,45	-1,79	-2,52	-3,07	-2,99	-3,25	-2,57	-3,12	-2,77	-3,07	-2,41	-1,20	-1,60	-1,33	-1,31
5.CARİ TRANSFERLER	-14,80	19,91	17,62	15,89	12,85	10,16	-8,87	-8,90	-8,58	10,95	-9,60	-8,70	-9,04	-9,30	-8,71
I.KAMU HARCANABİLİR GELİRİ	5,86	2,51	5,05	5,53	8,25	11,79	13,70	12,25	11,75	10,43	12,52	14,46	14,48	15,24	14,98
II.CARİ GİDERLER	-9,29	-9,63	-9,90	-9,67	-9,21	-8,99	-9,54	-9,87	10,04	11,27	10,98	10,78	11,56	11,83	11,80
III.KAMU TASARRUFU	-3,43	-7,12	-4,85	-4,14	-0,96	2,80	4,16	2,38	1,71	-0,84	1,55	3,69	2,91	3,41	3,18
IV.YATIRIMLAR	-5,20	-4,09	-4,91	-3,68	-3,20	-3,96	-3,65	-3,92	-4,26	-4,42	-4,05	-4,11	-4,41	-4,95	-4,79
A.SABİT SERMAYE	-5,16	-4,70	-4,94	-3,80	-3,22	-3,79	-3,75	-3,86	-4,11	-4,11	-4,28	-4,10	-4,24	-4,99	-4,84
B.STOK DEĞİŞİMİ	-0,04	0,61	0,02	0,13	0,02	-0,18	0,10	-0,06	-0,15	-0,31	0,23	-0,01	-0,16	0,04	0,05
V.TASARRUF-YATIRIM FARKI	-8,63	11,21	-9,76	-7,82	-4,16	-1,16	0,51	-1,53	-2,55	-5,26	-2,51	-0,42	-1,49	-1,54	-1,61
VI.SERMAYE TRANSFERLERİ	0,42	0,35	0,32	0,69	0,69	1,24	1,43	1,49	1,06	0,21	0,24	0,39	0,53	1,12	0,71
1.SERVET VERGİLERİ	0,30	0,25	0,33	0,69	0,48	0,57	0,55	0,57	0,57	0,64	0,67	0,70	0,69	0,69	0,66
2.DİĞER TRANSFERLER	0,45	0,14	-0,03	0,09	0,21	0,79	1,18	1,07	0,59	-0,25	-0,40	-0,07	0,04	0,16	0,09
3.KAMULAŞTIRMA VE S.DEĞER ARTIŞI	-0,33	-0,04	0,01	-0,09	0,01	-0,11	-0,30	-0,14	-0,10	-0,18	-0,03	-0,23	-0,21	0,28	-0,05
VII.KASA-BANKA/BORÇLANMA	8,22	10,87	9,44	7,12	3,47	-0,08	-1,94	0,05	1,50	5,05	2,27	0,03	0,97	0,42	0,90
1.KASA-BANKA DEĞİŞİMİ	-0,68	-1,00	-0,50	-0,30	-0,63	-0,48	-0,08	-0,22	0,46	0,24	-0,24	-0,14	-0,62	0,19	0,26
2.DİŞ BORÇLANMA(NET)	2,65	-1,61	4,96	0,52	0,81	-0,12	-0,07	-0,18	0,39	0,46	0,62	0,03	0,30	0,07	-0,07
-DİŞ BORÇ ÖDEMESİ	-2,65	-4,61	-3,10	-2,72	-1,99	-2,90	-2,74	-2,99	-1,57	-2,90	-1,48	-1,11	-0,84	-0,06	-0,10
-DİŞ BORÇ KULLANIMI	5,30	3,00	8,07	3,24	2,80	2,77	2,67	2,81	1,96	3,36	2,10	1,14	1,14	0,13	0,03
3.İÇ BORÇ/ALACAK(NET)	6,92	14,67	5,52	7,11	3,46	0,53	-1,68	0,48	0,78	4,36	1,98	0,24	1,30	0,19	0,80
4.STOK DEĞİŞİM FONU	-0,67	-1,19	-0,54	-0,20	-0,16	0,00	-0,10	-0,03	-0,13	0,00	-0,09	-0,11	-0,01	-0,04	-0,08
VIII.FİNANSMAN GEREĞİ	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
BORÇLANMA GEREĞİ (NET)	8,88	12,06	9,98	7,32	3,63	-0,07	-1,83	0,08	1,62	5,05	2,36	0,14	0,98	0,46	0,98

Kaynak: <http://www.kalkinma.gov.tr>

Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açığının Enflasyon Üzerindeki Etkisi

Yukarıdaki tabloda görüldüğü gibi 2000-2014 yılları arası kamu kesimi genel dengesine ilişkin bilgiler vardır. Yalnız burada finansman açıkları ekonomideki enflasyonist konjonktürün meydana gelmesinde çok önemli rol oynamaktadır. Kamu açıklarının kapatılması için finansman yöntemleri ve enflasyonist baskılar en aza indirgenmelidir. Tablodan da görüldüğü gibi kamu açıkları çok yüksekse bu durum enflasyonist bir baskı olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Bütçe açıkları büyüdüğü takdirde bu açıkları kapatmak için kamu mutlaka borçlanacaktır. Bunu da genellikle iç borçlanma yoluyla finanse edilecektir. Bu durumdan en karlı çıkacak kesim ekonomik olarak güçlenmiş olanlardır. Sonuçta ekonomik olarak güçlenmiş olan kesimlere doğru rant akımları başlayacak, bu da ülkedeki gelir dağılımının adaletsizliğine neden olacaktır.

Enflasyonla mücadelede en etkin politika kamu açıklarının kontrol alınması olmuştur.⁵⁰ Merkez bankasının bağımsız olduğu ekonomilerde enflasyon oranı diğer ülkelere göre daha düşüktür. ⁵¹ Genel ekonomik yapılarda alt kapasite olmaz. Fakat bunlarda toplam arz esnekliği düşüktür. Bu durumda para yaratımı yoluyla kamu açıklarının finansmanının enflasyonist etkisi son derece büyüktür.⁵² Kamu gelirleri özellikle gelişmekte olan ülkelerde kamu harcamalarına yetmez. Bu durumda bir açık ortaya çıkar. Bunun tek çaresi gelirleri arttırmaktır veya giderleri azaltmaktır. Bunların her ikisi de yapılamıyorsa o zaman söz konusu açık borçlanma yoluyla karşılanır.⁵³ Kamu açıklarının finansmanında iç borçların enflasyon üzerindeki etkisi borçlanmanın yapıldığı kaynağın özelliği ile ilgilidir. Eğer borçlanma farklı kaynaklardan yapılıyorsa para arzındaki bu borçlanmanın genişleme yapıp yapmadığına bakmak gerekir.⁵⁴ Dış borçlanma yoluyla sağlanan dövizlerin finansmanda kullanılması haliyle bu durum emisyon artışına yol açar. Sonuçta toplam talep genişler. Ayrıca dış borçlanma faiz oranları artışını baskı altında tutar. Dışardan getirilen dövizlerin bir kısmı ithalatın finansmanında kullanılır. Sonuçta toplam arz üzerinde olumlu etki yaratır. Bu sayede enflasyonist baskı azalır. Ayrıca kamu kesimi finansman açıklarının döviz rezervleriyle karşılanması sonucunda döviz karşılığında alınan ulusal para eğer kamu gideri olarak harcanırsa bu da emisyonu yol açar ve ülke ekonomisindeki enflasyonist baskıyı arttırır. Ayrıca döviz rezervleri kamu finansman açıklarının finansmanında kullanılırsa bu durumda ithalat daralır ve toplam arz olumsuz etkilenir. Bu da ülke ekonomisi üzerindeki enflasyonist baskının genişlemesine yol açar.⁵⁵

Kamu açıklarının en önemli etkisi dış denge üzerinde olmaktadır. Hazine genellikle iç piyasalardan borçlanma yolunu tercih etmektedir. Fakat bu imkana varıldığı takdirde yönünü yurt dışı piyasalara gönderir. Bununda nedeni iç piyasalardaki faiz oranındaki aşırı artış iç piyasalardan temin edilecek olan fonun maliyetini yükseltmiştir. Bu durumda uluslararası piyasalardan borçlanmak daha karlı olacaktır. Bu arada ülkeye giren döviz miktarı devam ettikçe bu durum bir sorun oluşturmayacaktır. Fakat bu para eğer cari harcamalarda kullanıldığı takdirde önemli bir tehlike arz etmektedir.⁵⁶

Türkiye’de kamu açıklarının finansmanı için genellikle üç yol izlenmektedir. Bunlardan birincisi iç borçlanma ikincisi dış borçlanma ve üçüncüsü de emisyon araçlarıdır. Öncelikle Türkiye iç borçlanma yoluna gitmekte ikinci yol olarak da dış borçlanmayı seçmektedir. Dış borçların miktarı vadesi ve faiz yükü son derece önemlidir. Alınan borçların kullanımında emisyonun hacmini ve dış kaynak kullanan sektörlerin niteliği dikkate alınmalıdır. Bunlar fiyatlar genel seviyesi üzerinde önemli etkilere sahiptir. Bu olayı tek başına düşünmek yanlış olur. Aynı zamanda bunun döviz gelirleriyle ilgisi ve iç kaynak tasviyesini de içermesi sebebiyle fiyatlar genel seviyesi üzerinde etkili olabilmektedir. İç borçlanma dolaylı ve dolaysız olarak fiyatlar genel seviyesinin etkilemektedir. Eğer dış ödeme oranı büyüme oranından yüksekse o zaman ülkeden dışarıya kaynak transferi olacaktır. Sonuçta reel faiz oranlarının büyüme oranı üzerinde olması ülkedeki gelir dağılımının bozulmasına da neden olacaktır. Bunun da sebebi enflasyonist baskılar

⁵⁰ Didem Bahar Özgü, “An Empirical Approach to Fiscal Deficits and Inflation: Evidence from Turkey”, Annual Meeting of MEEA, January 2000, s.2. www.ceterisparibus.net/turkiye/makaleler.htm

⁵¹ Robin Bade and Michael Parkin. “Central Bank Laws and Monetary Policy,” Unpublished Manuscript, University of Western, Ontario. 1985, s. 310-312.

⁵² Mahmut Duran, “Kamu Finansman Açıklarının Optimal Finansmanı”, Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları, X. Maliye Sempozyumu, Mayıs 1994, Antalya, İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi Basımevi No 554, İstanbul 1996, s. 450.

⁵³ James M. Buchanan, “The Economic Consequences of Deficit”, Journal of Public Finance and Public Choice, 1986/3, s. 151.

⁵⁴ Duran a.g.m, s. 443.

⁵⁵ Duran a.g.m, s. 450

⁵⁶ Sonat, A. “Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları ve Dış Denge”, X. Türkiye’de Maliye Sempozyumu, 14-18 Mayıs, İ.Ü. Maliye Araştırma Merkezi Yayınları No:80, 1994.

artmıştır. Artık borçlanmayı para basarak finanse etmek gerekecektir. Bu da ülkedeki enflasyonun artması demektir.⁵⁷

Kamu borcu krizlerine göre kamu açığının iki yönü bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan birincisi harcamalar çizgisinin üst kısmı ikincisi de yükümlülük yapısını değiştiren harcamalar çizgisinin alt kısmını oluşturmaktadır. Borç faiz ödemeleri üst kısımda diğeri ise alt kısımda bulunmaktadır. Kamu harcama düzeyi genelde toplam talep yapısını etkilemektedir. Borcun geri ödemesi varlık sahipleri için gelir yaratan unsur değildir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında bu borcun talep yapısını etkiler. Hükümetler kamu gelir ve giderleri arasındaki açığın finansmanı üzerine eğilmektedir. Kamu sektörü likidite yönetimine bağlı bir politikayı tercih etmektedir. Bunun adı da borçlanmadır. Kamu merkez bankası ticari bankalar özel sektörden borçlanmayı tercih eder ve bu tercihte en az maliyet göz önüne alınır.⁵⁸

Kamu açıkları merkez bankasından doğrudan doğruya borçlanmaları kapsayacak şekilde net kamu borçlanmasını yansıtmalıdır. Bu şekilde tanımlanan bir kamu açığı amortisasyon finansmanı için gerekli borçlanmaya bağlı kredi piyasaları üzerindeki kamu baskısını içermez. Bu da parasal genişleme ölçüsünü yansıtmaz.⁵⁹

1900 yılından sonra kamusal finansman ihtiyaçları sürekli olarak artmıştır. Bunun üzerine 1986 yılından itibaren Türkiye’de borç idaresi değiştirilmiş ve bütçe kanunlarının bütçe açıklarının net borçlanma hasılatı ile karşılanacağı kuralı konulmuştur. Bunun üzerine devlet borçlarının idaresini hazinenin bütçe dışında tutmuş olduğu borçlanma hesaplarıyla takip etmiştir. Fakat buna rağmen borçlanma ihtiyacı sürekli olarak artmış ve finansman açıkları büyük ölçüde iç borçlanma ile karşılanmıştır.⁶⁰

Türkiye’de brüt dış borç stoku, 2015 yılının ikinci çeyrek döneminde 405,2 milyar dolar olmuştur. Hazine’den yapılan açıklamaya göre, özel sektör borçlarının toplam dış borç stoku içerisindeki payı 287,5 milyar dolar olmuştur. Bu pay yüzde 79,9’a tekabül etmektedir. Kamu kesim borçlarının payı ise 115,8 milyar dolar ile yüzde 28,6 olarak gerçekleşmiştir. T.C Merkez Bankası borçlarının toplam dış borç stoku içerisindeki payı ise 2 milyar dolar ile yüzde 0,5 olmuştur.⁶¹

Nitekim kamu kesimi dış borcu 1999 yılında 61,7 milyar dolar iken 2015 yılının ikinci çeyreğinde 405,2 milyar dolara çıkmıştır.

İç borçlar da ise sürekli olarak bir artış gözlemlenmektedir. 1980 yılı başında iç borç yükü yüzde 13,6 iken 1987 yılında bu borç yüzde 23’e yükselmiş ve ilerleyen yıllarda 2000 yılı sonu itibarıyla iç borçların GSMH yüzde 60’a çıkmıştır. IMF verilerine göre bu dönemde Türkiye Brezilya Meksika ve Arjantin dışında dünya ekonomisinde bu kadar yüksek yıllık iç borç artış oranına sahip başka bir ülke yoktur.⁶²

Türkiye’nin toplam dış borç stoku 2008 yılında 281,2 milyar dolardan 2014 yılında 402,4 milyar dolara, dış borç stokunun GSYH’ya göre oranı da yüzde 37,8’den yüzde 50,3’e yükselmiş bulunuyor. Kamu kesiminin ve TCMB’nin dış borç stoklarında önemli miktarlarda gerileme olmasına karşılık özel kesim dış borç stokunda ortaya çıkan artış bu gerilemelerden fazla olduğu için toplam dış borç stokunda artışa neden olmuş görünüyor. Özel kesim dış borç stokundaki en önemli artış reel kesim dış borç stokunda görülüyor.

⁵⁷ Sönmez, S. “Türkiye’de Kamu Açığının Finansmanı ve Enflasyon Vergisi”, ODTÜ Gelişme Dergisi, 25(2), 1998, s. 368

⁵⁸ Blejer, Mario I. and A.Cheasty, “The Measurement Of Fiscal Deficits: Analitical and Methodological Issues”, Journal Of Economic Literature, Vol.29, No.4, 1991, ss.1644-1678

⁵⁹ Tanzi, Vito, M.I. Blejer and M.O. Teijeiro, “Inflation and The Measurement of Fiscal Deficits”, IMF Working Papers WP/87/17, 1987, ss.1-31

⁶⁰ Evgin, T. “Türkiye’de Konsolide Bütçe Uygulamalarının Genel Değerlendirmesi (1980-1995)”, T.C.HDTM, Araştırma Yayınları Dizisi, No,5, Mayıs, 1996.

⁶¹ <http://finans.mynet.com/haber/detay/ekonomi/dis-borc-405-milyar-dolari-gecti/103464>

⁶² Yeldan, E., Küreselleşme Sürecinde Türkiye Ekonomisi, İletişim Yayınları, 2001, s. 123.

Tablo: Türkiye’de İç ve Dış Borç Dağılım Tablosu

(Milyar USD)	2008	2014
Türkiye Brüt Dış Borç Stoku	281,2	402,4
Kamu Kesimi	78,3	117,7
TCMB	14,1	2,5
Özel Kesim	188,8	282,2
Bankalar	54,2	144,2
Diğer Finansal Kuruluşlar	21,1	20,8
Reel Kesim	113,4	117,2
GSYH	742,1	800,0
Türkiye Dış Borç Stoku / GSYH (%)	37,8	50,3

Kaynak : <http://www.mahfiegilmez.com/2015/04/kamu-kesimi-ve-ozel-kesimin-borclar.html>

Görüldüğü gibi son yıllarda Türkiye’de kamu açıkları büyümektedir.

Kamu kesiminin finansal varlık piyasasında ağırlığının artması durumunda tasarruflarda istenilen ölçüde bir artış olmadığından özel kesim fon talebini karşılamak için çok zorlanmaktadır. Yeterli kaynak bulunması fon maliyetlerinin artması nedeniyle özel kesim finansal piyasalardan dışlanmaktadır.⁶³

Faiz Üzerindeki Etki

Kamu açıklarının makro ekonomi üzerine etkileri vardır. Özellikle kamu açıklarının borçlanma ile finansmanın özel kesim tasarruflarının arttırdığı sonuçta faiz üzerindeki etkiyi dengelediği ile savunulmaktadır. Ayrıca bu açıkların servet etkisine yol açtığı özel kesimin tüketimini arttırdığı bilinmektedir. Bunun sonunda sermaye oluşumunun azalması ve gelecek nesillere net bir borç bırakıldığı bilinmektedir.⁶⁴

Kamu açıklarının faiz üzerindeki olumsuz etkisi özellikle ülke iç borçlanma yoluyla finansman sağladığında söz konusudur. Bu faiz oranlarındaki artış demektir. Tasarrufların yatırımlardan küçük olduğu zamanlarda yeni borç bulmak çok zordur. Bunun tek yolu faizi arttırmaktır. Türkiye’de genellikle bu yola başvurulur. Çünkü ülke içinde kamu açıkları büyüdüğü takdirde faizler hızla artacaktır.⁶⁵

Kamu açıkların piyasadaki koordinasyonu olumsuz etkilediği gibi ülkede istikrarsızlığa da neden olmaktadır. Büyük miktardaki bütçe açıkları genellikle kamu açıklarının da artmasına yol açar. Türkiye’de iç borçlanma da ödenen nominal ve reel faiz oranları özellikle iç borçlanmalarda sürekli pozitif reel faiz ödendiği ve bu faizlerinde dünya ortalamasının üstünde olduğu görülmektedir. Dünya ülkelerine bakıldığında Türkiye’de iç borçlanma çok pahalıdır. Türkiye’nin iç ve dış borç yükü dünya ortalamasının üzerindedir. Bu durum kamu açıklarının finansal piyasalar üzerindeki etkisinin arttırmaktadır. 1984 yılında vergi oranlarının düşürülmüş olduğunu görüyoruz. Daha sonra mali idarelere konsolide bütçeden ayrılan paylar arttırılmıştır. Neticede kamu kesimleri finansal açıkları yüksek faiz oranlarıyla borçlanarak giderilmeye çalışılmıştır. Kamu bu yıllarda merkez bankasının kaynaklarına başvurmamıştır. Hazine tarafından ihraç edilen devlet iç borçları senetleri 1984 yılından itibaren sürekli olarak artmıştır.⁶⁶

⁶³ Barro, R.J., “The Ricardian Approach To Budget Deficits”, Journal Of Economics Perspectives, Vol.3, No.2, 1989, s. 48.

⁶⁴ Gramlich, E. M. “Budget Deficits and National Saving; Are Politicians Exogenous?”, Journal of Economic Perspectives, Vol.3, No.2 Spring, 1989, s. 27.

⁶⁵ Arslan Sonat, “Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları ve Dış Denge”, Kamu Kesimi Finansman Açıkları, X. Maliye Sempozyumu, Mayıs 1994, Antalya, İstanbul Üniversitesi Basımevi No 554, İstanbul 1996, s. 115.

⁶⁶ DPT , 1980’den 1990’a Makro Ekonomik Politikalar-Türkiye Ekonomisindeki Gelişmelerin Analizi ve Bazı Değerlendirmeler, DPT Yayınları Ankara, 1990, s. 63-65.

Büyüme Üzerindeki Etki

Nihayetinde Türkiye 2000-2001 yıllarında bir finansal kriz yaşamıştır. Kasım 2000 krizi ancak IMF'den sallanan destekle bir kısmı atlatılabilmektedir. 2001 yılı makro ekonomi programı çerçevesinde GSMH'nin reel büyümesi yüzde 4,5 olmuş ve deflatör artışı da yüzde 18 olarak öngörülmüş sonuçta yeni bütçede harcamaların kısıtlandığını görüyoruz. Yıllık net sermaye girişinin bu yıllarda 12 milyar olduğu tahmin edilmiştir. Ancak dış mali yatırımcıların Türkiye'ye olan güveni sarsılmıştır.⁶⁷

2002 yılında iktidara gelen hükümet öncelikle iktidarsızlığı çözmek için acil eylem planı adı altında ekonomik önlemler paketi hazırlamıştır. Bu plan sayesinde bütçe reformu yapılacak ve özelleştirmelere de hız verilecektir. Bunun etkileri zamanla görülmüş ve yavaş yavaş kamu açıkları azalmaya başlamıştır. Kamu mali yönetim sisteminde en köklü değişiklik 2003 yılının sonunda 5018 sayılı kamu mali yönetimi ve kontrol kanunu çıkarılması olmuştur. Artık bundan sonra bütün hükümetler kamu maliyesinin temel ilkelerine göre hareket edecektir. Ancak bu şekilde kamu kaynaklarını kullanacaklardır.⁶⁸

Bu kanuna göre sistem daha etkin çalışacak ve bununla ilgili uygulamalar tek tek gösterilmiştir. En azından 5018 sayılı kanun ile bütçe bütünlüğü sağlanacak kalkınma planlarıyla bütçeler arasında sıkı bir bağ kurulacaktır. Sonuçta sağlıklı bir hesap verme mekanizması oluşturuluyordu. Harcama sürecinde yetki ve sorumluluk dengesinin yeniden kurulması etkin bir iç mali kontrol sistemini oluşturularak kamu mali yönetiminde verimlilik tutumluluk hesap verebilirlik şeffaflık ilkeleri uygulamaya geçirilecektir.⁶⁹ Kamu açıkları çok yüksekse bu durumda büyük oranda kamu borçlanması olacaktır. Bu borçlanmanın dış kaynaklardan sağlanması sonucunda ödemelerde ve dış ticaret dengelerinde önemli sapmalar olacaktır.⁷⁰

Ayrıca bu şekilde piyasaların hakim olduğunda ödemeler dengesi ve tasarruf yatırım dengesi bu tepkilerle yerine getirilmiş olacak ve sonuçta makro ekonomik dengeler sağlanmış olacaktır.

Sonuç

Kamu açıklarının 1970'li yıllardan itibaren az gelişmiş ülkelerde kronik bir sorun haline gelmiştir. 1973 yılında ilk petrol şokuna kadar birçok ülke denk bütçe yapmış fakat petrol şokundan sonra bütçe açıkları ve ekonomik dengelerde bozulmalar ortaya çıkmıştır. Kamu açıklarına ilişkin mali politikalar ülkeden ülkeye değişmektedir. Kamu kesimi finansman açıklarının makro ekonomik değişkenler üzerinde etkisi büyüktür. Bu etkiyi ortadan kaldırmak için merkez bankası kaynakları ve iç borçlanmaların fiyatlar genel seviyesi ve faiz oranları üzerinde önemli etkilere sahiptir. Yüksek oranda kamu borçlanması sonucu reel faizler enflasyonun büyüme oranları üzerinde çok etkili olmaktadır. Ayrıca Türkiye'deki makro ekonomik dinamikler açıklanırken siyasi faktörleri de göz önüne almak gerekmektedir. Türkiye'de 1980'li yıllarda devlet brokrasisi politize olmuş devletin yolsuzlukları kontrol altına almakta çok zorlanmıştır. Ayrıca bu yıllarda makro ekonomik istikrarsızlığın en önemli sebeplerinden biride seçimlerin sık olarak tekrarlanmasıdır. Yüksek kamu borçlanmaları beraberinde yüksek reel faizler getirmiş ve bu da enflasyonun büyüme oranları üzerinde etkisini fazlalaştırmıştır. Kamu gelirlerinin kamu harcamalarını karşılayabilmesi için vergi gelirleri artırılmalıdır. Daha fazla vergi toplayabilmek içinde vergi oranları düşürülmeli ve vergi tabanı yayılmalıdır. Burada kayıt dışı ekonomi faaliyetleri mercek altına alınmalıdır. Vergi kaçakları önlenmelidir. Üretim faktörleri üzerinde vergi yükü azaltıldığı takdirde daha fazla üretim yapılacak ve daha fazla katma değer yaratılacaktır. Ayrıca kamu harcamaları verimli kullanılmalıdır. Bu harcamalar beşeri sermayenin gelişimine katkı sağlamalıdır. Bir ülkenin kalkınmasında en önemli faktörlerden biri bilgi ve teknolojidir. Eğer bunları yerinde kullanmalıyız. Ayrıca ülkede mali şeffaflık arttırılmalı bütçe disiplini sağlanmalı ve ekonomik rant önlenmelidir. Bunların sağlanabilmesi için

⁶⁷ Uygur, E., Krizden Krize Türkiye, 2000 kasım ve 2001 şubat krizleri, Tartışma Metni 2001/1, Ankara, Türkiye Ekonomi Kurumu, 2001, s. 22.

⁶⁸ Öz, E. Ve E. Kaplan "Türk Mali Sisteminin Yeniden Yapılandırılması", Türk İdare Dergisi, 2005, s. 243.

⁶⁹ Yılmaz, E.B. ve N. Susam, "Türkiye'de Yeniden Yapılanma Sürecinde Orta Vadeli Harcama Sistemine Geçişin Bütçe Büyüklükleri Üzerindeki Etkileri, Türkiye Üzerine Tahmini Model", Yirminci Maliye Sempozyumu, Erişim, Maliye.Sempozyumu.Pamukkale.edu.tr/20malsemp.pdf, (29.12.2009), 2005, s. 115-116.

⁷⁰ Elif Akbostancı, Gül İpek Tunç, "Turkish Twin Deficits: An Error Correction Model Of Trade Balance", ERC Working Papers in Economics, 01/06 May 2002, s. 2.

Türkiye’de politik istikrarın sağlanması şarttır. Son yıllarda Türkiye’deki sağlanan politik istikrar sayesinde yatırımların hızlandığını görüyoruz.

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21. Yüzyılda Türkiye ve Balkan Ülkeleri Arasındaki Ticaretin Ekonomik Geleceđi

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Özet: Türkiye, Ortadođu, Kafkasya ve Balkanlar olmak üzere 3 önemli stratejik bölgenin komşuluđunu odak noktasında yer alarak yapmaktadır. Her 3 bölgede tarihsel, kültürel ve ekonomik olarak her dönemde önemlerini korumuşlardır. Avrupa, Orta Asya ve Orta Dođu için Türkiye, köprü bir ülke ve köprü bir ekonomidir. Bu yönüyle hem küresel aktörlerin hem de bölge aktörleri için Türkiye'nin bu bölgelerle olan/olacak ekonomik ilişkileri ayrı bir öneme sahiptir.

Çalışmamızda Türkiye'nin Balkan ekonomileri ile olan karşılıklı dış ekonomik ilişkileri hem toplam büyüklükleri hem de önde gelen sektörler bazında incelemeye konu edilmektedir. Karşılıklı ekonomik ilişkilerin potansiyeline uygun olarak üst düzeye taşınması bölgedeki her ülke ekonomisinin uluslararası rekabette küresel bir ekonomik aktör olabileceđi öngörüsü de bu çalışmayı yapmamızı sağlayan diđer bir önemli saiktir. Bu hususla ilgili gelecek öngörülerini ise çalışmamızın son bölümünde yer alacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Türkiye ve Balkan Ekonomileri, Dış Ticaret, Küresel Ekonomi

JEL Code: F10

21st Century Economic Future of Trade Between Turkey and The Balkans

Abstract: Turkey, the Middle East, the Caucasus and the Balkans region, including three important strategic neighbor makes taking part in focus. Each of them preserved their importance as historical, cultural and economic in each period. Turkey is an economic bridge for Europe, Central Asia and the Middle East. Turkey's economic relations have an importance for both aspect of global actors and between and regional actors / will be .

Mutual foreign economic relations between Turkey and the Balkan economies and the overall size of our study, as well as leading sectors are subject to review. A global economic actor in international competition may be predictive of each country's economy in the region to move to the top level in accordance with the potential of bilateral economic relations is another important factor in enabling us to do this work. This is about the future predictions in point will be in the last part of our work.

KeyWords: Turkey and the Balkan Economy , Foreign Trade , Global Economy

JEL Code: F10

1. Giriş

Türkiye, Ortadođu, Kafkasya ve Balkanlar olmak üzere 3 önemli stratejik bölgenin komşuluđunu odak noktasında yer alarak yapmaktadır. Her 3 bölgede tarihsel, kültürel ve ekonomik olarak her dönemde önemlerini korumuşlardır. Avrupa, Orta Asya ve Orta Dođu için Türkiye, köprü bir ülke ve köprü bir ekonomidir. Bu yönüyle hem küresel aktörlerin hem de bölge aktörleri için Türkiye'nin bu bölgelerle olan/olacak ekonomik ilişkileri ayrı bir öneme sahiptir.

Türkiye ile Balkanlar arasındaki ilişkiler güçlü bir dostluk ve tarihe dayanmaktadır. Zira bu konuda modern Türkiye'nin kurucusu M. Kemal Atatürk'ün 1931 yılında yapılan Balkan Konferansında *"İşte siz muhterem Balkan milletleri mümessilleri, mazinin karışık his ve hesaplarının üstüne çıkarak derin kardeşlik esasları kuracak ve geniş ufukları açacaksınız; ihmal olunmuş ve unutulmuş büyük hakikatleri ortaya koyacaksınız"* demekle bu bağı ifade etmiştir.

Türkiye, son yıllarda büyüyen ticaret hacmi, gelişen ekonomisi ve artan sanayi üretimi ile dünyada ve Balkan coğrafyasında dikkat çeken bir konuma gelmiştir. Dünya genelinde 2008 yılında yaşanan ekonomik krize bađlı dalgalanmalar ve daralmalardan en az etki ile çıkmayı başaran ender ülkelerden birisidir. Tarihi

ve coğrafi bağlarla bağlı olduğumuz Balkan coğrafyası ile ticari ilişkilerimiz henüz potansiyelinden uzak olsa da her yıl artmaktadır.

Balkan ülkeleri 2. Dünya Savaşı sonrasında oluşan iki kutuplu eksenle serbest Pazar ve özgürlüklerden uzak kalmıştır. Bu nedenden ötürü Balkan Ülkeleri ile Türkiye'nin ticari ilişkileri istenilen seviyeye ulaşamamıştır. 1990'lı yıllardan itibaren "Berlin Duvarı" ile temsil edilen mevcut ekonomik ve siyasi duvarların yıkılması ile dünya tek kutuplu bir düzene otururken; Balkan ülkeleri 'de ekonomilerini geliştirme ve modernleştirme yolunda önemli mesafeler kat etmişlerdir.

Bu sebeple 1990'lı yıllardan sonra hem bölgenin hem de Türkiye ile Balkan Ülkelerinin dış ticaret rakam ve hacimlerinin hızla arttığı gözlenmiştir.

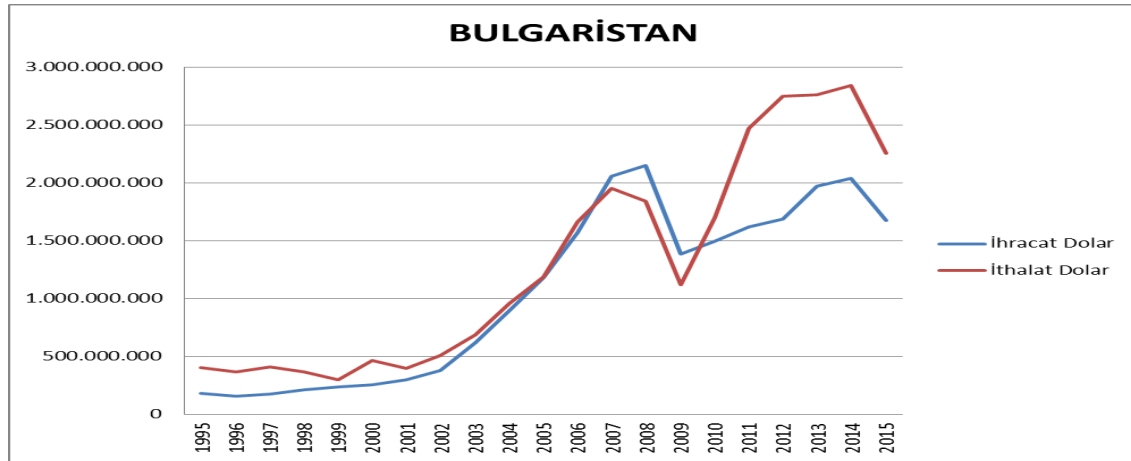
2. Balkan Ülkeleri Ve Türkiye Arasındaki Ticari İlişkiler

2.1. Bulgaristan

Bulgaristan, Balkanlar'da yer alan bir ülkedir. Batıda Sırbistan ve Makedonya, doğuda Karadeniz, kuzeyde Romanya, güneyde Yunanistan güneydoğuda Türkiye ile çevrilidir. 110 bin 994 kilometrekarelik yüzölçümüyle Avrupa'nın en büyük 16. ülkesidir.

Komşu Ülkeleri; Türkiye, Romanya, Yunanistan, Sırbistan, Makedonya Cumhuriyeti olan Bulgaristan'ın, 7 milyonun üzerindeki nüfusu, 111.002 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 47.167 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. 2007' de AB' ye üyeliği ile kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 6.582 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Bulgaristan 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Bulgaristan ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 55 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 74. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 29 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 33 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 62 Milyar \$' ır. Bulgaristan'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilerde en çok ihracat yapan sektörleri ise; tekstil, ayakkabı, demir- çelik, makineler ve aksamı ve mineral yakıttır. En çok ithal yapan sektörleri ise; makineler ve aksamı, metaller, kimyasallar, plastik ve mineral yakıtlardır.



Şekil 1. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Bulgaristan Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi:17.01.2016

Türkiye ve Bulgaristan arasında yapılan karşılıklı ticaret son 20 yılda artarak devam etmiştir. Türkiye, Bulgaristan'ın ilk beş ticaret ortağı arasındadır. Bulgaristan'ın dış ticaretinde Türkiye'nin payı % 7 civarındadır. Dünyada 2008 yılının son aylarında ortaya çıkan ve pek çok ülkeyi olumsuz yönde etkileyen

küresel ekonomik kriz, Türkiye ile Bulgaristan arasında yapılan ticareti de önemli ölçüde etkilemiştir. Özellikle 2009 yılı ihracat ve ithalat rakamlarındaki sert düşüşün nedeni yaşanan küresel krizdir. Küresel krizin iki ülke ticaretine etkileri 2015 yılı itibari ile halen devam ettiği görülmektedir.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye' nin Bulgaristan' a ihracatı 156.9 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 362.7 milyon \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş, 2005' e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 1.179 milyar \$ ve 1.190 milyar \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 1.676 milyar \$ ihracat, 2.254 milyar \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

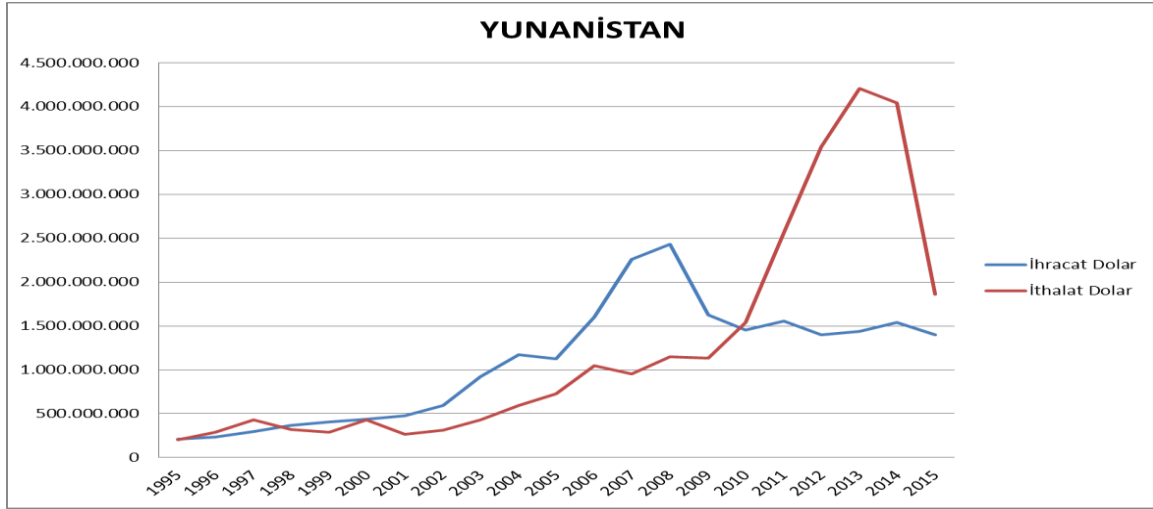
2.2. Yunanistan

Yunanistan veya resmî adı ile Helen Cumhuriyeti Balkanlar'ın güneyinde yer alan bir ülke. Avrupa Birliği ve Kuzey Atlantik Antlaşması Örgütü üyesi Yunanistan, Türkiye, Arnavutluk, Bulgaristan ve Makedonya Cumhuriyeti ile sınır paylaşmaktadır.

Yunanistan'ın, 11 milyona yaklaşan nüfusu, 131.957 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 192.980 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. Balkan devletleri arasında 1981 yılında AB'ye ilk üye olan ülkedir. Kişi başına düşen geliri 17.657 \$ civarındadır. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Yunanistan'ın 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Yunanistan ekonomisi 2005 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 248,095 Milyar \$' lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 37. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur.(Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Clkelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016). 28.390 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 50.580 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 78.9 Milyar \$' dır. Yunanistan'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler; Almanya, İtalya, İngiltere, Bulgaristan, Türkiye, ABD, Fransa, İspanya, Romanya, Hollanda, Rusya, Belçika, İsveç, Avusturya, İsviçre, Çin, S. Arabistan, G. Kore, İran ve Japonya'dır.

Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilerde en çok ihracat yapan sektörleri ise; Taze ve işlenmiş meyve ve sebzeler, tütün, pamuk, rafine edilmiş petrol ürünleri, bitkisel yağlar, tekstil iplikleri, tekstil mamulleri, giyim eşyaları ve aksesuarları, demir dışı metallere alüminyum, demir çelik ürünleri, çimento' dur. En çok ithalat yapılan sektörleri ise; Petrol ve petrol ürünleri, kara taşıtları, tekstil iplikleri, kumaş, sanayi makineleri ve parçaları, elektrikli makineler, çeşitli sanayi ürünleri, tıbbi ve eczacılık ürünleri, demir-çelik, giyim eşyaları ve aksesuarları, et ve et ürünleri, kâğıt ve karton mamulleridir.



Şekil 2. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Yunanistan Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi:17.01.2016.

1995 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Yunanistan'a ihracatı 209 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 200 milyon \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005'e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 1.126 milyar \$ ve 727 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 1,4 milyar \$ ihracat, 1,86 milyar \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

2008 yılında dünya genelinde baş gösteren küresel ekonomik kriz, Türkiye ile Yunanistan arasında yapılan ticareti de önemli ölçüde etkilemiştir. Özellikle 2009 yılı ihracat rakamlarındaki sert düşüşün nedeni Yunanistan'da etkisini göstermeye başlayan resesyonun etkileridir. Ancak aynı dönemde Türkiye'nin Yunanistan'dan ithalat rakamlarında yüklü miktarda artış meydana gelmiştir. Bu önemli artış ve azalışların en önemli sebebi Yunanistan'da yaşanan mali kriz ve krizin ülke ekonomisi üzerindeki etkileridir.

20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkıyı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

2.3. Romanya

Romanya veya resmî adıyla Romanya Cumhuriyeti, Orta Avrupa'nın güney doğusunda, Balkan Yarımadası'nın kuzeyinde bulunan bir ülkedir. Ülke kuzeyde ve kuzeydoğuda Ukrayna, kuzeydoğuda Moldova, kuzeybatıda Macaristan, güneybatıda Sırbistan, güneyde Bulgaristan ile komşudur. Ayrıca ülkenin doğuda Karadeniz'e kıyısı vardır.

Avrupa Birliği üyesi olan ülke birlik ülkeleri içinde 7. büyük yüz ölçümü, 9. büyük nüfusa sahiptir. Ülkenin başkenti ve en büyük kenti konumundaki Bükreş, 2,2 milyon nüfusu ile Avrupa Birliği'nin en büyük 6. kentidir. Erdel bölgesinin büyük kentlerinden Sibiu, 2007 Avrupa Kültür Başkenti seçilmiştir.

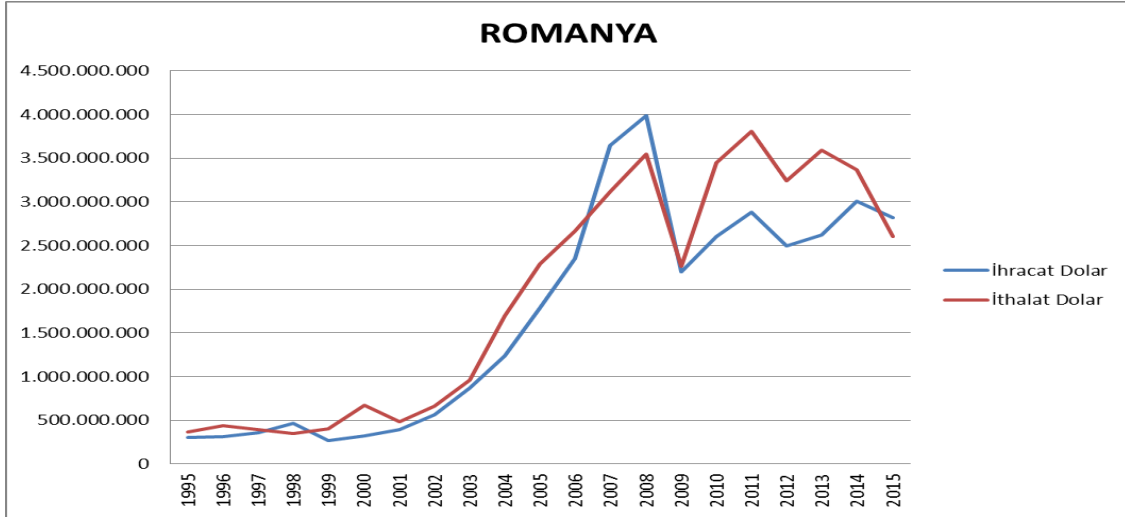
Romanya'nın, 20 milyona yaklaşan nüfusu, 238.391 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 174.922 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. 2007'de AB'ye üyeliği ile kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 9,980 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. Büyüme oranı ise % 2,8'dir. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Romanya'nın Balkanlar ve Ortadoğu'daki en büyük ticaret ortağı olan ülkemiz; İtalya, Almanya ve Fransa'nın ardından Romanya'nın en büyük 4. ihracat pazarıdır. Türkiye ve Romanya arasında yapılan karşılıklı ticaret 1995-2002 yılları arasında normal seyirlerde iken 2002 yılından itibaren Türkiye'de değişen ticaret anlayışı ve iki ülke arasındaki ilişkilerin hızla ilerlemesi sonucunda hızlı bir artışa sebep olmuştur.

2009 yılında ise dünyada etkisini gösteren küresel kriz iki ülke arasındaki ticaret rakamlarına da yansımıştır. Ancak bu azalma iki ülke arasındaki köklü işbirliği ve güven ile dalgalanmalara rağmen hızla eski seviyesine ilerlemektedir.

Romanya 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Romanya ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP – PPP) hesaplanan 191 milyar \$' lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 44. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 61.2 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 69.1 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 130.42 Milyar \$' dır. (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Cikelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Romanya'nın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler: İtalya, Almanya, Fransa, Türkiye, Macaristan, İngiltere, Avusturya, Norveç, Bulgaristan, İspanya, Rusya Federasyonu, Hollanda, Polonya, Çin'dir. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilerde en çok ticaret yapılan sektörleri ise; Makine ve mekanik cihaz, elektrikli ev aletleri, ses ve görüntü cihazları, Adi metaller ve adi metallerden eşya, Kumaş, örme ve dantelli tekstil malzemelerinden konfeksiyon ürünleri, Ulaşım araçları, Mineral ürünler (Ham petrol, ve petrol ürünleri, kömür, çimento, tuz vb), Plastikler ve Mamulleri; Kauçuk ve Mamulleri Başlıca İthal Ürünleri - Mineral ürünler ve Kimyasal ürünlerdir.



Şekil 3: Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Romanya Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret> Erişim tarihi:17.01.2016

Romanya'nın Balkanlar ve Ortadoğu'daki en büyük ticaret ortağı olan ülkemiz; İtalya, Almanya ve Fransa'nın ardından Romanya'nın en büyük 4. ihracat pazarıdır.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Romanya'ya ihracatı 210 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 200 milyon\$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005'e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 1.785 milyar \$ ve 2.285 milyar \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 2.816 milyar \$ ihracat, 2.6 milyar \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. Türkiye ve Romanya arasında yapılan karşılıklı ticaret 1995-2002 yılları arasında normal seyirlerde iken 2002 yılından itibaren Türkiye'de değişen ticaret anlayışı ve iki ülke arasındaki ilişkilerin hızla ilerlemesi sonucunda hızlı bir artışa sebep olmuştur. 2009 yılında ise dünyada etkisini gösteren küresel kriz iki ülke arasındaki ticaret rakamlarına da yansımıştır. 20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur. Ancak bu azalma iki ülke arasındaki köklü işbirliği ve güven ile dalgalanmalara rağmen hızla eski seviyesine ilerlemektedir.

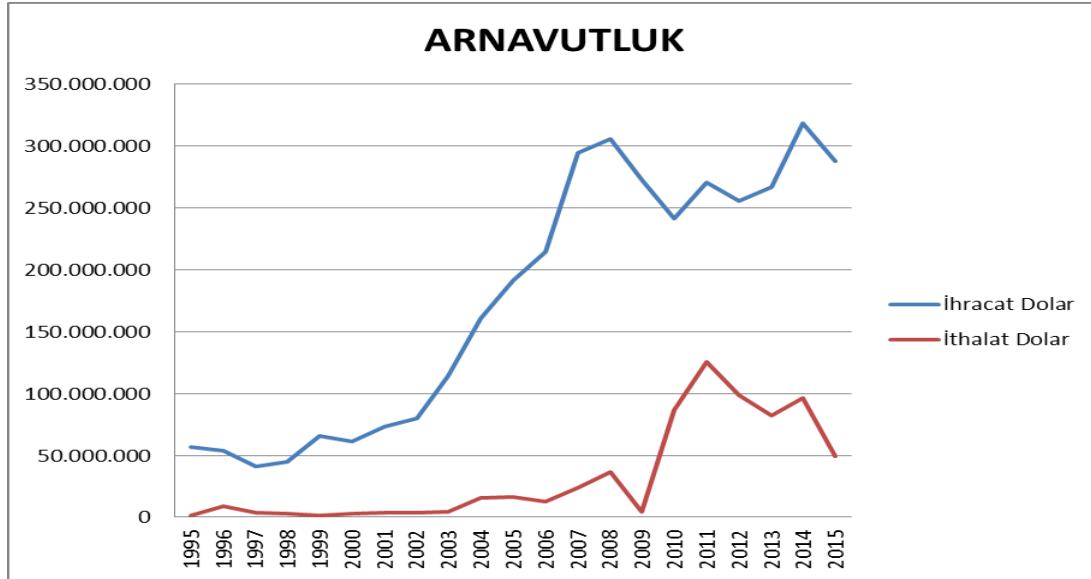
2.4. Arnavutluk

Arnavutluk Güneydoğu Avrupa'da bir ülkedir. Komşuları kuzeyde Karadağ, kuzeydoğusunda Sırbistan, doğusunda Makedonya ve güneyinde Yunanistan'dır.

Arnavutluk, 3 milyona yaklaşan nüfusu, 28.748 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 11,591 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede küçük bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri de 4,200 \$ civarındadır. Büyüme Oranı %1,39 'dur. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Arnavutluk ve Türkiye arasındaki ticari ilişkiler incelendiğinde, iki ülke açısından var olan potansiyelin çok altında seyrettiği görülmektedir. Bu düşük ticaret hacminin en önemli sebeplerinden bir tanesi ise Arnavutluk'un yarım yüzyıla yakın baskıcı ve kapalı bir ekonomik sistemle yönetilmesi gösterilebilir. Bir diğer neden ise Serbest Pazar anlamında bir özel sektör ve yabancı yatırımcıların güven ihtiyacı istenen seviyeye ulaşamamış olması söylenebilir.

Arnavutluk 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Arnavutluk ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SG –PPP) hesaplanan 17 Milyar \$ civarı GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 116. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Ckelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016). 1.2 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 4.1 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 5.3 Milyar \$' dir. Arnavutluk'un dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticarete konu mallar ise; Demir-çelik, hububat, inşaat malzemeleri, makine aksamı, elektrikli ev aletleri, kablo ve tel, hazır giyim, plastik malzemeler, Parfümeri, ilaç ham maddeleri, ayakkabı, deri, tekstil, alüminyum' dur.



Şekil 4. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Arnavutluk Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016

Arnavutluk ve Türkiye arasındaki ticari ilişkiler incelendiğinde, iki ülke açısından var olan potansiyelin çok altında seyrettiği görülmektedir. Bu düşük ticaret hacminin en önemli sebeplerinden bir tanesi ise Arnavutluk'un yarım yüzyıla yakın baskıcı ve kapalı bir ekonomik sistemle yönetilmesi gösterilebilir. Bir diğer neden ise Serbest Pazar anlamında bir özel sektör ve yabancı yatırımcıların güven ihtiyacı istenen seviyeye ulaşamamış olması söylenebilir.

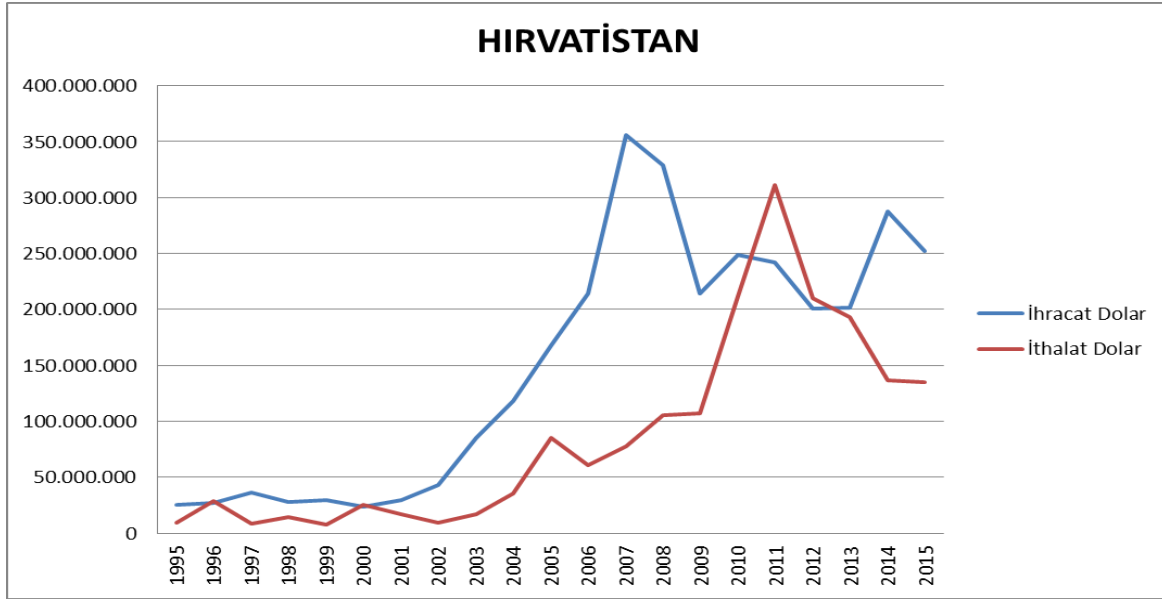
1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Arnavutluk'a ihracatı 56 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 1.2 milyon\$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005' e geldiğinde bu rakamlar 191 milyon \$ ve 16 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 287 milyon \$ ihracat, 49 milyon \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşmıştır. 20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkısı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

2.5. Hırvatistan

Avrupa'da Orta Avrupa, Balkanlar ve Akdeniz'in kesişme noktasında bulunan üniter demokratik bir parlamenter cumhuriyet. Hırvatistan'ın 4.236.000 kişilik nüfusu 59594 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 48.932 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 11,551 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. Büyüme Oranı % -0.400'dür. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

İki ülke arasında 1 Temmuz 2003 tarihinde yürürlüğe giren serbest ticaret anlaşması, 1 Temmuz 2013 tarihinde Hırvatistan'ın AB'ye tam üyeliğe başlaması ile sona ermiştir. Anlaşma sonrasında 3-4 yıl içerisinde ticaret rakamları en üst seviyeye ulaşmıştır. (2007 yılı verilerine göre 355,5 milyon dolarlık ihracat, 77.4 milyon dolar ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır).

Hırvatistan 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Hırvatistan ekonomisi 2005-2006 yılı verilerine göre satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 54,710 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 73. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Clkelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016). 12.3 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 20.9 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 33.2 Milyar \$'dır. Hırvatistan'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya, Çin ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticarete konu mallar ise Demir-Çelik, makine ve cihazlar, kara taşıtları, tekstil ürünleri Gübre, metal cevherleri, hurda metal, teknik cihazlar ve plastiktir.



Şekil 5. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Hırvatistan'ın Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Hırvatistan'a ihracatı 25 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 9 milyon\$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005' e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 168 milyon \$ ve 85 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 251 milyon \$ ihracat, 135 milyon \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. 20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkısı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

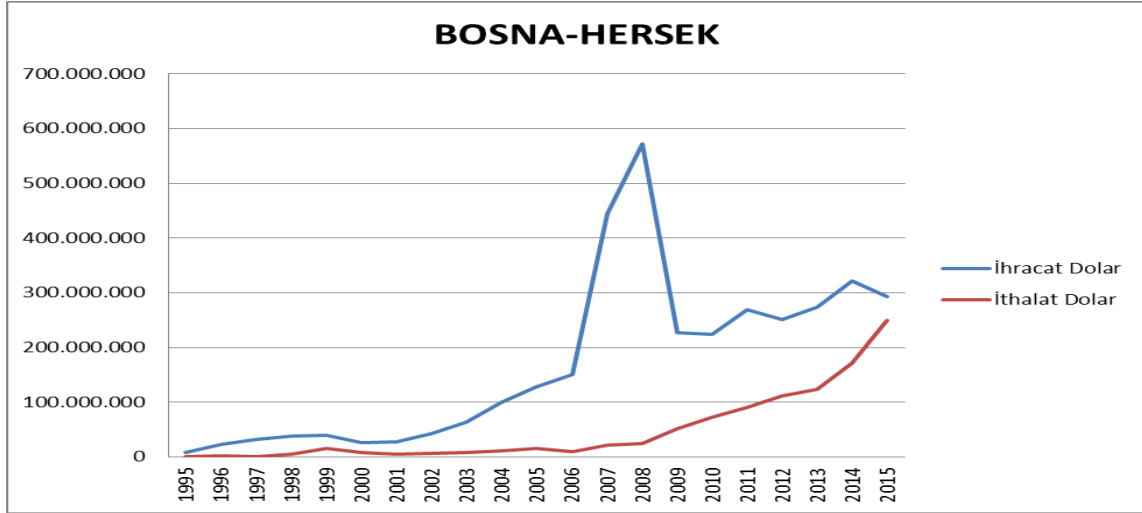
İki ülke arasında 1 Temmuz 2003 tarihinde yürürlüğe giren serbest ticaret anlaşması, 1 Temmuz 2013 tarihinde Hırvatistan'ın AB'ye tam üyeliğe başlaması ile sona ermiştir. Anlaşma sonrasında 3-4 yıl içerisinde ticaret rakamları en üst seviyeye ulaşmıştır. (2007 yılı verilerine göre 355,5 milyon dolarlık ihracat, 77.4 milyon dolar ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır.) İki ülke arasında mevcut olan ticari ilişkilerin potansiyeli çok iyi analiz edilmelidir.

2.6. Bosna-Hersek

Kuzey, batı ve güneyden Hırvatistan; doğudan Sırbistan; yine güneyden Karadağ ile çevrili olup Adriyatik Denizi'ne Neum şehrinin bulunduğu yerde yalnızca 20 km'lik (limanı olmayan) bir kıyısı bulunmaktadır. Ülkenin coğrafyası merkez ve güneyde dağlık, kuzeybatıda tepelik, kuzeydoğuda düzlük bir karakter sergiler.

Bosna-Hersek'in, 3.867.055 kişilik nüfusu, 51197 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 15.568 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede küçük bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri de 4,029 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. Büyüme Oranı ise %3,5'tür (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Bosna-Hersek 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Bosna-Hersek ekonomisi 2005-2006 yılı verilerine göre satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 23.654 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 104. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Ckelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016). 3.5 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 8.7 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 12.3 Milyar \$'dır. Bosna-Hersek dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, Çin, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Başlıca ticarete konu mallar ise Mineral yakıt ve yağlar, makine, gıda, kara taşıtları, tekstil, plastik, Deri, kösele, kimyasal maddeler ve ahşap malzemelerdir.



Şekil 6. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Bosna-Hersek Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Bosna-Hersek'e ihracatı 22.47 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 2.484 milyon \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005'e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 128 milyon \$ ve 15 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 292 milyon \$ ihracat, 250 milyon \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

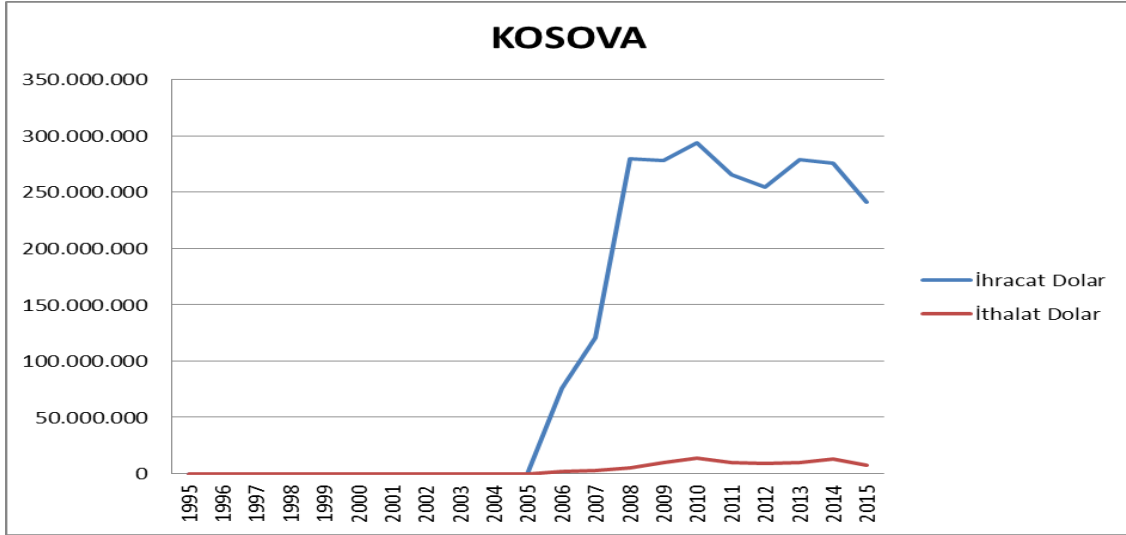
20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkı sağlayabilecekleri mevcut veriler ışığında görülmektedir.

2.7. Kosova

Kosova veya Kosova Cumhuriyeti Balkanlar'da, Sırbistan, Karadağ, Makedonya Cumhuriyeti ve Arnavutluk devletlerine sınırı vardır. Kosova, 2 milyona yaklaşan nüfusu, 10.908 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 6.309 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede küçük bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 3505 \$ ulaşmıştır. Büyüme Oranı ise % 3.2'dir (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Kosova Balkan coğrafyası içerisinde 2005 yılından itibaren resmi olarak ticari ilişkiler kurduğumuz devletlerden bir tanesidir. Bu ülkeye ihracat rakamlarımız her yıl artmakla birlikte ticari ilişkilerimiz geliştirilmelidir.

Kosova'nın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler ise; İtalya, Arnavutluk, Makedonya, İsviçre, Almanya, Türkiye, Belçika, Slovenya, Bulgaristan, Avusturalya, Makedonya, Sırbistan, Yunanistan, Çin, Hırvatistan'dır. Başlıca ticarete konu ürünleri ise; Adi metal ve adi metal ürünleri, Yenilen sebzeler, unlu mamulleri, içecek ve tütün, Mineral yakıtlar, mineral yağlar ve mumlar, Tekstil ve tekstil ürünleri, Elektrikli makina ve cihazlar, aksam ve parçalar ile ulaşım ekipmanlarıdır.



Şekil 7. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Kosova Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016

2006 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Kosova'ya ihracatı 76 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 2 milyon \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2015' e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 240 milyon \$ ve 7 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş. 9 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkıyı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

2.8. Slovenya

Slovenya, Orta Avrupa'nın güneyinde yer alan bir ülkedir. Batısında İtalya; güneybatısında Adriyatik Denizi; güney ve doğusunda Hırvatistan, kuzeydoğusunda Macaristan ve kuzeyinde Avusturya bulunur.

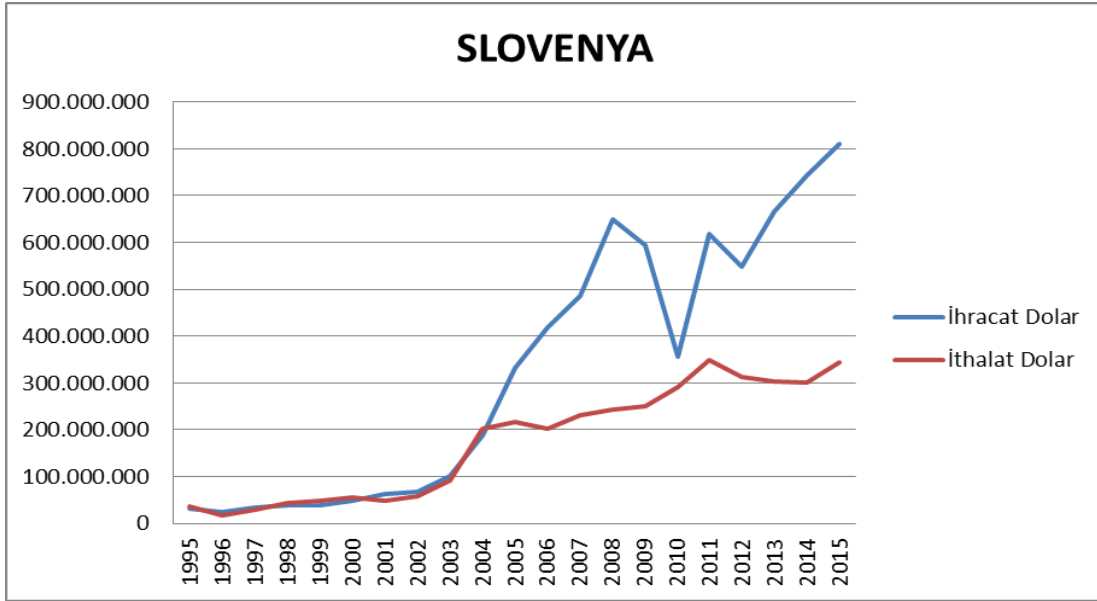
Slovenya'nın 2 milyonun üzerindeki nüfusu, 20.273 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 42.736 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede küçük bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 24.000 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. Büyüme Oranı ise % 7,53' tür. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Balkan coğrafyasının en kuzeyinde yer alan bu ülke ile ilişkilerimizin toplam potansiyeli 1,2 milyar dolar civarındadır. 2010 yılında ihracat rakamlarımız %50 seviyesinde azalsa da daha sonraki yıllarda ticari

ilişkilerimiz hızla toparlanmış ve yükselmiştir. Bulunduğu konumdan dolayı ticari olarak ilişkilerin en üst seviyeye çıkarılması önem arz etmektedir.

Slovenya 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Slovenya ekonomisi 2005-2006 yılı verilerine göre satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP–PPP) hesaplanan 43.690 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 81. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 28.2 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 28 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 56.3 Milyar \$'dır (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Clkelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Slovenya'nın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Avusturya, Çin, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilere konu mallar ise; Kara ulaşım araçları, ilaç, elektrikli makine ve cihazlar, ham petrol ürünleri ve kimyasallar, elektrikli makine ve cihazlar, hurda demir ve kâğıt Ürünleri'dir.



Şekil 8. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Slovenya Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Slovenya'ya ihracatı 24,548 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 16,793 milyon\$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005' e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 332 milyon \$ ve 217 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 810 milyon \$ ihracat, 343 milyon \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

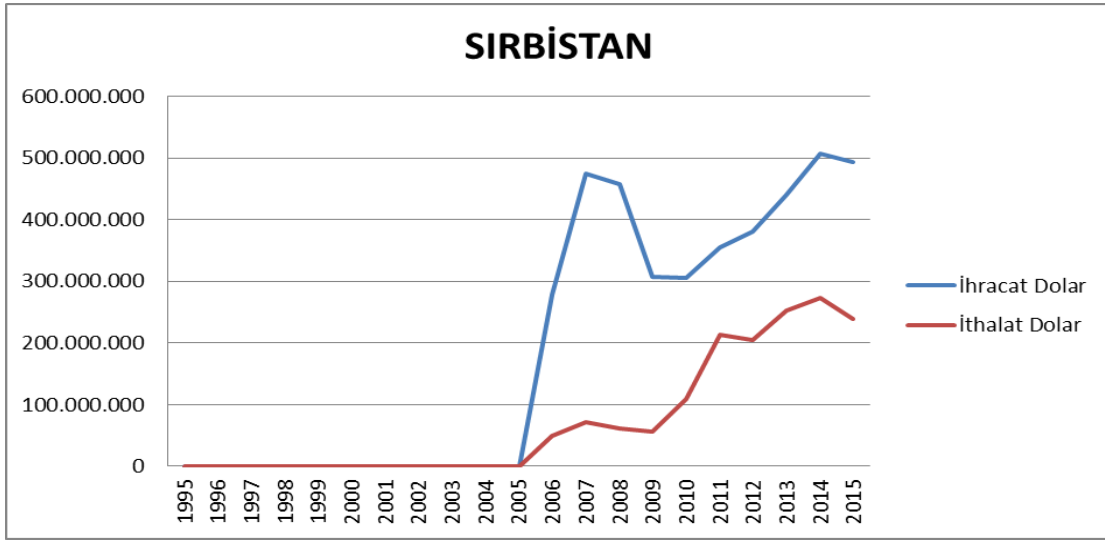
2.9. Sırbistan

Sırbistan ya da resmî adıyla Sırbistan Cumhuriyeti Balkanlar'da yer alan bir devlettir. Sırbistan-Karadağ'ın ayrılmasıyla oluşmuştur. Kuzeyinde Macaristan, batısında Hırvatistan, Bosna-Hersek ve Karadağ, güneyinde Makedonya ve Arnavutluk, doğusunda Romanya ve Bulgaristan bulunur. Sırbistan'ın 7 milyonun üzerindeki nüfusu, 77.474 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 36.555 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri ise 5.102 \$ civarındadır. Büyüme Oranı %4'tür (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

2005 yılına kadar ticari olarak veri bulunmayan Sırbistan stratejik konumu ve nüfus potansiyeli ile orta Pazar olarak belirtilebilecek bir konumdur. Ülkemiz ile yıllık ortalama 700 milyon dolar seviyesinde ticaret hacmine sahiptir.

Sırbistan 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Sırbistan ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 41.150 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 83. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 13.1 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 19.4 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 32.6 Milyar \$'dır.

Sırbistan'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Avusturya, Rusya, Çin, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilere konu mallar ise; Tekstil, sanayi makineleri, kara taşıtları, demir-çelik, metal ürünleri, elektrikli aletler, tarım ürünleri, demir-çelik, tekstil lifleri, plastik ve mamulleri, deri, kösele, ham post, kauçuk ve mamulleri, vitaminler, hormonlar, ilaçlar, sebze-meyve ve hububatdır.



Şekil 9. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Sırbistan Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>Erişim tarihi:17.01.2016.

2006 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Sırbistan'a ihracatı 278 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 49 milyon \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2015'e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 492 milyon \$ ve 238 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiştir. 10 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları görülmektedir. İki ülke arasında mevcut ilişkilerin karşılıklı güven ve ortaklıklarla güçlenebileceği görülmektedir.

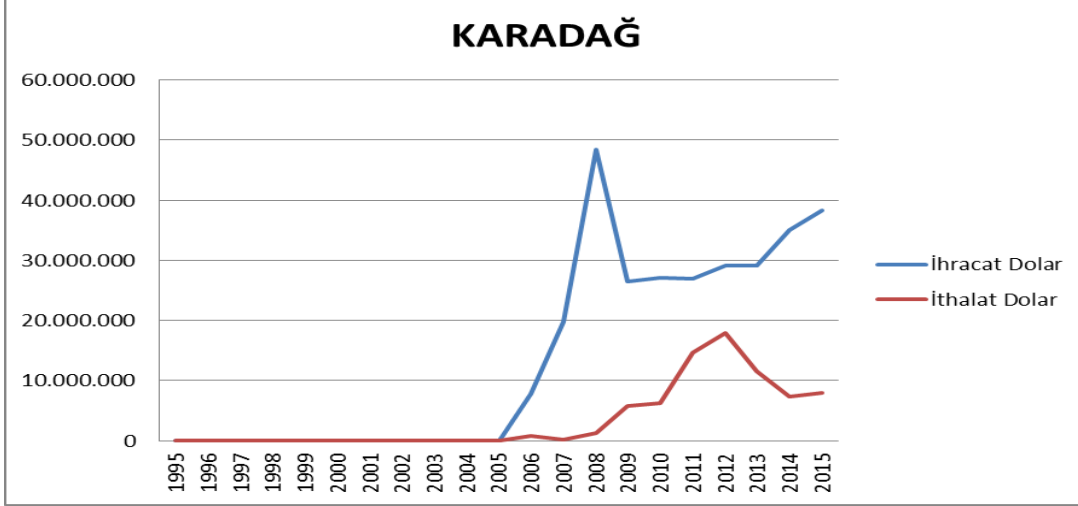
2.10. Karadağ

Karadağ, Balkanlar'da bir ülkedir. Doğusunda Arnavutluk ve Kosova, kuzeyinde Sırbistan, batısında Hırvatistan, Bosna-Hersek, güneyinde Adriyatik Denizi yer alır.

Karadağ'ın 650.000 kişiye yaklaşan nüfusu, 13.812 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 3.985 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede küçük ekonomidir. Kişi başına düşen geliri ise 7.591 \$ civarındadır. Büyüme Oranı ise % 2'dir. (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Ülkenin nüfus ve ekonomik potansiyeli çok az olmasına rağmen ticaret hacminin artırılması gereklidir. Karadağ'ın 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Karadağ ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 2.412 Milyar \$'lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 179. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 0.489 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 2.4 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 2.8 Milyar \$'dır (Wikipedia, <https://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/%C3%9Ckelerin>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Karadağ'ın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Çin, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticari ilişkilerde en çok ihracat yapan Makine ve cihazlar, kara taşıtları, tekstil ürünleri ve aksesuarlar, metal cevherleri, demir-çelik, hurda metal, deri, kösele ve ham post'tur.



Şekil 10. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Karadağ Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi

Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret> Erişim tarihi:17.01.2016

2006 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Karadağ'a ihracatı 7 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 761.000 \$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2015' e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 38 milyon \$ ve 8 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiştir. 10 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı olarak ticari ilişkilerini geliştirmelerine ihtiyaç duyduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

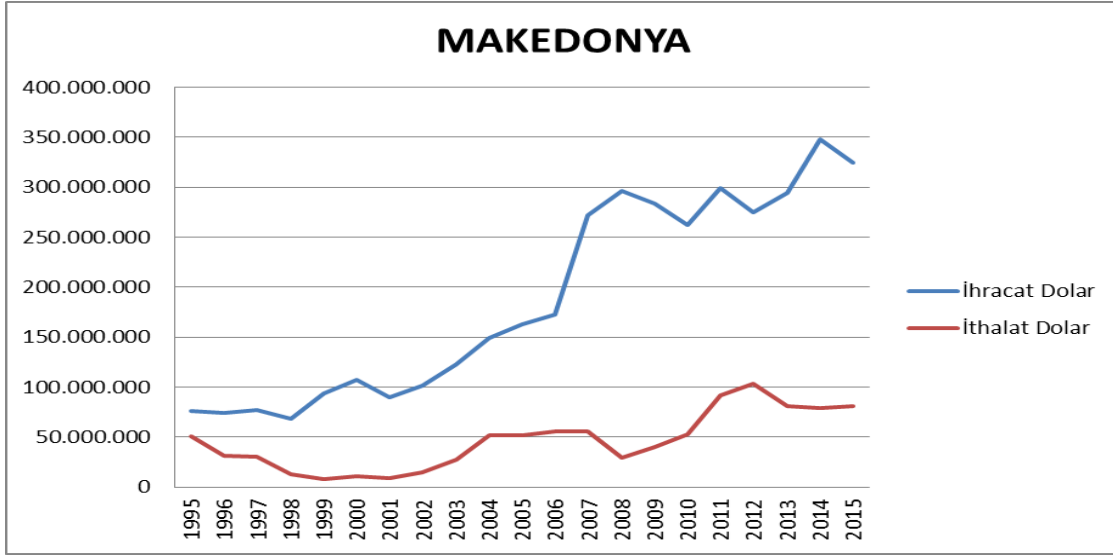
2.11. Makedonya

Balkanlar'da bir ülke olan Makedonya Cumhuriyeti veya kısaca Makedonya, Kuzeyde Sırbistan ve Kosova, batıda Arnavutluk, güneyde Yunanistan, doğuda Bulgaristan ile komşudur. Makedonya'nın, 2 milyonun üzerindeki nüfusu, 25713 km²'lik kapladığı coğrafya ile 10.088 milyar \$ civarındaki GSYİH ile bölgede önemli bir ekonomidir. 2007'de AB'ye üyeliği ile kişi başına düşen geliri de artarak 4,867 \$ civarına ulaşmıştır. Büyüme Oranı % 3.9' dur (IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft>, Erişim tarihi: 29.01.2016).

Yaklaşık olarak 400 milyon dolar seviyesinde ticari ilişkimiz olan ülke nüfus potansiyeli ve konum itibari ile pazar payımızın artırılabilmesi bir konumdur.

Makedonya'nın 2014 yılı verilerine göre gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasındadır. Makedonya ekonomisi 2013 yılında satın alma gücü paritesiyle (SGP-PPP) hesaplanan 15,7 Milyar \$' lık GSYH değerlerine göre dünyanın 121. Büyük ekonomisi olmuştur. 4.1 Milyar \$ ihracat ve 6.4 Milyar \$ ithalat ile toplam dış ticaret hacmi 10.5 Milyar \$'dır (TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016).

Makedonya'nın dış ticaret ilişkilerine bakıldığında başlıca ticaret yaptığı ülkeler Almanya, Rusya, İtalya, Türkiye, Romanya ve Yunanistan'dır. Bu ülkelerle yaptığı ticarete konu mallar ise; Turuncgiller, tekstil, beyaz eşya, mobilya, metal ürünleri, ilaç, Demir-çelik, sentetik dokuma, tuğla, metal ürünleri, ham deri ve hurdadır.



Şekil 11. Yıllar İtibari ile Türkiye ve Makedonya Arasındaki Dış Ticaretin Gelişimi
Kaynak; TÜİK, <https://biruni.tuik.gov.tr/disticaretapp/disticaret>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016.

1996 yılından günümüze 2 ülke arasındaki dış ticaretin seyri değerlendirildiğinde Türkiye'nin Makedonya'ya ihracatı 76 milyon \$ iken ithalatı 50 milyon\$ olarak gerçekleşmiş. 2005'e gelindiğinde bu rakamlar 162 milyon \$ ve 52 milyon \$ seviyesine yükselmiş ve son verilere göre (2015) 324 milyon \$ ihracat, 80 milyon \$ ithalat rakamlarına ulaşılmıştır. 20 senelik süreçteki gelişmelerin boyutları ve henüz 2 ülkenin potansiyel ticaret seviyelerinde olmadıkları göz önüne alındığında her iki ekonominin de karşılıklı birbirlerine daha pek çok yarar ve katkısı sağlayabilecekleri bariz bir durumdur.

3. Balkan Devletleri İle Önümüzdeki Dönem Ticari İlişkilerimizin Geleceği

Balkan coğrafyasında 1900'lü yılların başından itibaren ortaya çıkan ve soğuk savaş sonrasında da devam eden iç savaşlar ve yaşanan acılar 2000'li yıllarla birlikte yavaş yavaş ortadan kalkmaktadır. Günümüzde Balkan devletlerinin bir kısmı gelişen ekonomileri ve artan cazibeleri ile Avrupa Birliği'ne tam üye olmuş bir kısmı üye olma süreci içine girmişlerdir. Tüm bu rekabet ve çekişme ortamında Türkiye Cumhuriyeti ile olan ilişkileri;

Balkan coğrafyasının en önemli ticaret sorunlarının başında ürettiği malı pazarlamak ve likidite sorunu gelmektedir. Likidite sorunu ise nakit sıkıntısını ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Balkan ülkeleri ve Türkiye arasındaki dostluk ve güven ortamı Likidite sorunu nedeniyle ortaya çıkan nakit sıkıntısını minimum seviyeye düşürecektir.

Üretilen malın güvenli ve hızlı olarak pazarlanması ve ihtiyaç duyulan malın hızlı ve güvenli olarak temin edilmesi sürecinde Türkiye, nüfusu ve ticari alt yapısının kuvvetli olmasının yanında yakınlık, pazar ve ekonomik büyüklük olarak bu ihtiyaca cevap verebilecek ender ülkelerden birisidir.

Türkiye'nin bulunduğu konum ile tüm enerji kaynaklarına olan yakınlığı, Balkan ülkelerinin ürettiği malları en hızlı şekilde Ortadoğu ve ön Asya ülkelerine ulaştırmada oynayacağı köprü vazifesi ticari ilişkileri arttırmak için en geçerli nedenlerden bir tanesidir.

Son 20 yılda Balkan ülkelerine Türkiye'nin toplam ihracat rakamı 108.5 Milyar ABD doları seviyesine ulaşmıştır. Yine aynı dönemde ithalat toplamı ise 103 897 328 231 ABD doları seviyesine ulaşmıştır. Toplam ticaret hacmi ise 212.4 Milyar ABD doları seviyesine ulaşmıştır.

Ticaret hacminin ulaştığı rakam ve ülkelerin ekonomik göstergelerine bakılınca 5 yılda bu hacmin %20-25 artarak 260 Milyar ABD doları seviyesine çıkacağı öngörülmektedir.

Bu rakamların karşılık olarak daha da artması için Balkan ülkeleri ve Türkiye'nin katma değeri fazla olan ağır sanayi ve yüksek teknoloji ürünlere ağırlık vermesi gerekmektedir. Ağır sanayi ve yüksek teknoloji

ürünlerin ticarete konu olabilmesi için Balkan ülkelerinin yabancı sermaye 'ye kolaylık, alt yapı, bankacılık sektörünün yapılandırılması, eğitim, teknoloji transferi ve bürokratik engelleri kaldırmaları kendi lehlerine olacaktır.

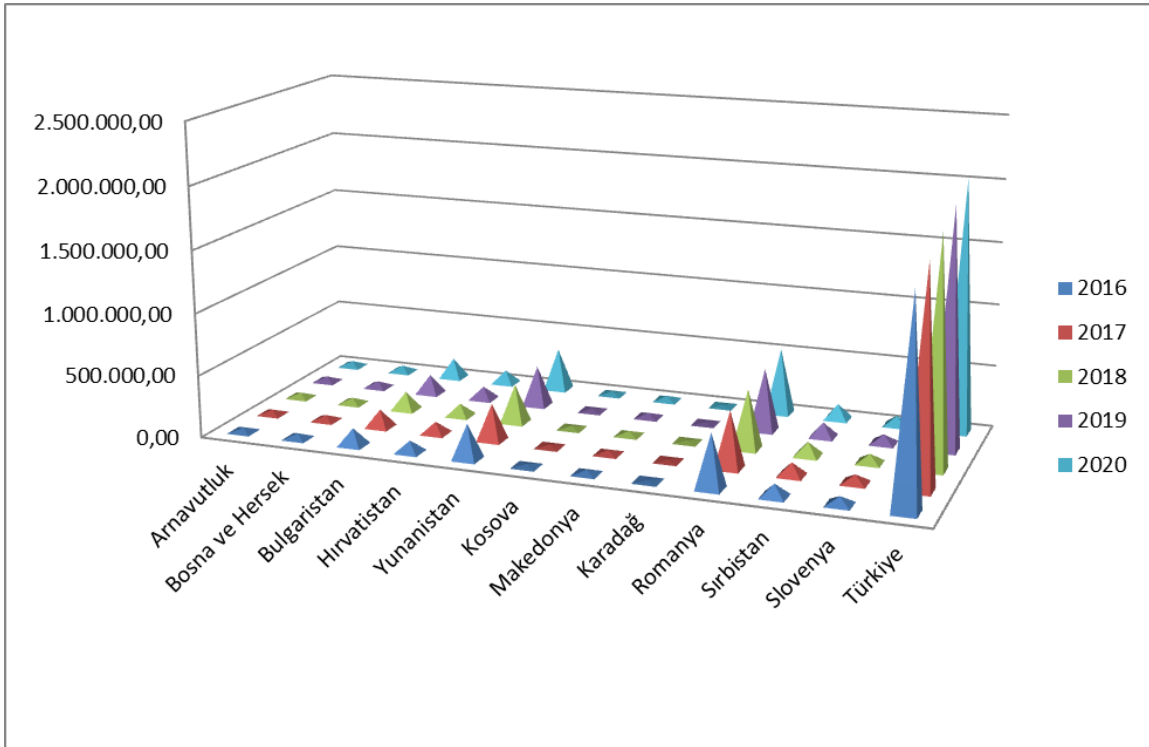
Özellikle AB ile ilişkilerin ve Euro bölgesinde meydana gelebilecek dalgalanmaların Balkan ülkelerine olan etkisinin çok fazla olacağı yadsınamaz bir gerçektir. Küresel ve Bölgesel krizlerden en az etkilenmek ve ekonomik göstergeleri iyi seviyede tutmak için karşılıklı güven ve istikrar şarttır. Buda Balkan ülkelerinin aralarında imzalayacağı ekonomik ve ticari antlaşmalarla mümkündür.

Türkiye'nin ticaret hacmini Balkan devletleri ile arttırmasının en önemli sebeplerinde bir tanesi şüphesiz karşılıklı imzalanan antlaşmalardır. Bu antlaşmalara ek olarak vizelerin kaldırılması, çifte verginin önlenmesi ve yatırımcılara karşılıklı kolaylık sağlanması ilişkileri daha da arttıracaktır. Tüm bu rakamlara karşılıklı olarak yükseköğretim öğrencilerinin sayısının arttırılması da eklenirse ekonomik ve ticari ilişkiler daha da artacaktır.

4. Sonuç

Balkan coğrafyasında bulunan ülkeler arasındaki ticari ilişkiler her geçen gün artmaktadır. Şüphesiz bu artış da en önemli etken ülkelerin serbest pazar şartlarını yerine getirmesi ve ticari ilişkileri arttırmada istekli olmalarıdır.

Özellikle tüm dünyada milenyum çağının başlangıcı kabul 2000'li yıllarla birlikte ekonomik ve ticari ilişkilerde artmaya ve çeşitlenmeye başlamıştır.



Şekil 12: 2016-2020 Arası Balkan Ülkelerinin (GSYİH Cari Satın Alma Gücü Paritesi (PPP) Değerlemesine Dayalı) GSYİH Tahminleri
Değerler USD Bazında Milyon dolar cinsinden ele alınmıştır.

Kaynak:IMF, <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/>, Erişim tarihi: 17.01.2016.

Dünya Para Fonu'nun (IMF) eldeki verilere ve tahminlerine göre 2016-2020 yılı arasında Balkan ülkelerinin ülke GSYİH'nin satın alma gücü paritesi (PPP) değerlemesine dayalı Gayri safi yurtiçi hâsıla oranları tablodaki gibidir. Bu verilere göre önümüzdeki 5 yıl içinde Balkan ülkelerinde ortalama yüzde 20-25 civarında büyüme beklenmektedir. Bu büyüme rakamları sonucu ortaya çıkan parasal rakam Balkan ülkeleri arasında karşılıklı olarak yapılacak olan ticarete aktarılabilir ise, bu durumdan tüm Balkan coğrafyası olumlu olarak etkilenecektir.

Eldeki verilerin analizi sonucunda Balkan coğrafyasında 4 devlet ön plana çıkmaktadır. Bunlar Türkiye, Romanya, Yunanistan ve Bulgaristan'dır. Bu 4 büyük Balkan devletin karşılıklı olarak yapacağı ticari anlaşmalar, dolaylı sektörler (Taşımacılık, Turizm, Hammadde ihtiyacı vb.) aracılığı ile tüm Balkan ülkelerinin ekonomisine olumlu olarak yansımaktadır.

Dünya ekonomisine bakıldığında bir kaç büyük bloktan oluşmaktadır. ABD'nin, Avrupa Birliği'nin, Çin'in, Rusya'nın, bulunduğu veya etki alanı içerisinde olan coğrafyalarda belirli bir gücü olduğu bilinmektedir. Bölgesel güç olma yolunda hızla ilerleyen Türkiye'nin gelişmekte olan ülkeler arasında ve dünyanın 16. büyük ekonomisi olması sonucu son dönemde ortaya çıkan siyasi gelişmelere paralel olarak etki alanı da genişlemektedir. Bulunduğu konumdan dolayı enerji koridorlarının kesişme noktasında bulunması, kıtaları birbirine bağlaması ve hepsinden önemlisi ise sağlam ekonomisi ile güven vermektedir.

Balkan coğrafyasına örnek olabilecek ekonomik modele sahip olan Türkiye önümüzdeki yıllarda büyümesini ve ekonomik atılımlarını sürdürecektir alt yapıya sahiptir. Tüm balkan coğrafyası için sürdürülebilir kalkınma ve ekonomik refah düzeyini arttırabilmek için mevcut ticari ilişkiler arttırılmalıdır.

Türkiye'nin ekonomik olarak diğer ülkeler ile arasındaki politika'nın özellikle son 10 yılı incelenecek olursa, uluslararası sistemdeki değişikliklere paralel olarak, bölgeselleşme eğiliminin öne çıktığı görülür. Türkiye'nin Balkanlar politikası, bölgesel güvenliği oluşturmak, ekonomik yönden refahı sağlamak, ekonomik ve sosyal olarak toplumsal bütünlüşmeyi tamamlamaktır.

Türkiye bu anlayışla, dünya çapında değişikliklerin en yoğun hissedildiği alanların başında gelen ekonomi alanında gelişmeleri ve ticari ilişkilerini olumlu bir mecrada tutmak için yoğun çaba sarf etmektedir. Türkiye'nin hem ulusal hem de uluslararası hedefleri için balkan ülkeleri çok önemlidir.

Balkan coğrafyasının ve Türkiye'nin karşılıklı çıkarları için ekonomik politikaları ile "Demokratik Değerler" ve "Ortak Balkanlık Kültürü" çerçevesinde barışı ve refahı bütün Balkan ülkeleri için istemek ve bu doğrultuda çalışarak tüm taraflara fayda sağlayacak "Bölgesel İşbirliği" ilişkileri geliştirmek olmalıdır.

Ticari ilişkiler ve Pazar geliştirmede dezavantajlardan en önemlisi; AB üyesi olan Hırvatistan, Bulgaristan, Slovenya, Romanya, Yunanistan gibi balkanlardaki güçlü ticari ilişkilerimiz bulunan ülkelerin ticaret rakamlarının diğer AB üyesi ülkeler lehine değişebilme olasılığıdır.

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Prospects for Olive Growing in Bulgaria

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Abstract: Reformation of global tobacco market and changes in the CAP of EU gives strongly influence of tobacco farm in Bulgaria. With sharpness is the question of non-uncultivated lands, which raises the question "whether the soil and climatic conditions of the Eastern Rhodopes to allow success to be cultivated olives?". Research in recent years has revealed that the olive is not only delicious food but also represents an important source of good health, and especially olive oil. Scientists say that because of these properties, olives and olive oil should be an essential component of every meal in one's daily nutrition program. The benefits of olive plants led us to thinking about adaptation and growing them in Bulgaria, as an alternative culture of the Eastern Rhodopes. To solve the target in study included Spanish olive varieties "Castellana", "Arroniz" and "Cornicabra", characterized by their high resistance to cold -16; -18°C. Based on the study conclusions are drawn regarding the adaptability of the varieties used on the territory of the Rhodopes in Bulgaria. It was found that the interception of olive trees is a medium to full rooting. Plants overcame adverse weather conditions with the least defeats are varieties of "Castellana" and "Arroniz". For a more comprehensive justification of the status and growing olives in Bulgaria continue to conduct periodic surveys of experimental fields, on their adaptability and reproduction.

Key words: Olive, adaptability, alternative crops, Rhodope Massif, Cultivation and Reproduction of olives in Bulgaria.

1. Introduction

The olive tree is the only one of its group with edible fruits, and it originates from tropical and central parts of Asia. It is polymorphic with an average size and furrowed bark. Like a tree from the Mediterranean area, dry tropical climate, it better adapts to extreme weather conditions, but requires highly intense light and oxygen-rich soil (Tsolov, 1991)

Olive trees are resistant to drought and disease. Their root system is resilient and is able to recover tree trunk, even when bole is frozen, burned or cut down. Have a clear preference for calcareous soils - limestone slopes and rocks. They prefer a light soils, poorer in nutrients and warm weather. To withstand -16 °C, disposable cold.

Based on morphological traits such as speckles on leaves, color of adaxial leaf surface, shape of leaf blade, leaf apex, shape of fruit, fruit length, fruit diameter and seed size were used to distinguish between closely related Russian olive varieties (Asadiar et al., 2012). The olive genotypes were also evaluated for the morphological traits namely leaf, fruit and endocarp characters (Zaher et al., 2011). Milotic et al. (2005) performed morphologic characterization of 64 olive trees using 23 characters of leaves, inflorescence, fruits and seeds.

The olive tree is unlike any fruit trees on their chemical composition, namely: sugar content is very low (2.5 - 6%); high fat content 17-30%, most especially oleic acid, which is monounsaturated and the presence of a bitter substance contained only in olives (Espasa, 1981; Serafimov, 1983; Dirk, 2000; Brezovski, 2003; Belaj, 2007).

Scientists say (Burr, 1999; Caragnaro, 2001; Drinkwater, 2006; PFTA, 2007) that due to their properties, olives and olive oil should be an essential component of every meal in one daily nutrition program.

The benefits of olive plants and peculiarities of their growing, challenge us to test and verify adaptability and keeping them in Bulgaria, as an alternative crop for the geographic areas of eastern Rhodopes Mountain.

The reasons for this study are fragmented and less fertile land and low yields of major crops due irregular rotation. This leads to the need of using poor soils and steep eroded terrain, and orientation of agriculture in Rhodopa mountain to eco-production and the requirements of the European market.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Materials used in this study

The experimental study was conducted during the period 2013-2015 year and includes three varieties of olives planted a total area of three acres in the conditions of the Eastern Rhodopa region of southern Bulgaria, in the area of the municipality of Ivaylovgrad - 7 km. northwest of the city. To solve the tasks in the study are included the Spanish olive varieties - "Arroniz", "Castellana", "Cornicabra", characterized by its quantitative and qualitative indicators.

Variety "Arroniz" - This variety has a medium fruity aroma with hints of fresh vegetables, originating in Spain. Very original, bitter and spicy taste. A great feature of the hybrid is, that olive oil is distinguished from other commercial oils and gives dishes specific spicy flavor.

Variety "Castellana" - oil produced from this variety is oily and very balanced and healthy. The predominant color of the oil is green, more or less intense, depending on the time of harvesting fruits and the degree of ripeness of the olive oil. The oils of this variety are fruity and aromatic, with aromas of grass, banana, hazelnut or mixed, sometimes left in the mouth spicy taste.



Variety "Cornicabra" - Cornicabra variety or Cornezuelo originates from Spain. It got its name because of the shape of the fruit -strong elongated and asymmetric like a horn, which continues to handle. The variety gives high oil yield, but is unsustainable fungal infections and diseases.

Attempts are displayed on a single methodology of the Polish experience, respecting all requirements established in practice as ways of betting; plotting, seeding and planting and care during vegetation. Used varieties are set on an abandoned uncultivated area, as required by the standard scheme for cultivation, having met the requirement for the direction of planting from north to south. An exception is made only in hilly areas where it follows the slope of the hill in order to facilitate harvesting. Before planting, deep plowing and regolwane of 60-80 cm is carried out, and there are planting holes with dimensions 60x60x60cm created. Planting is a circuit diagram 6x6 m.; 24 pieces / acre to three acres - 72 pieces.



The trees are planted in May. During the planting was tabled 6-8 ml/1 tree Bio-stimulator of root growth "Tekamin Rice", i.e. 1 l in 1000 liters of water and fertilizing with "Udstar" applied is, with a dose of 200-400 g / 100 liters of water as required after planting are plenty poured with water. Care during the reporting period of vegetation are to established guidelines and requirements.

2.2. Methods used in the study

The study used biometric and statistical analysis. During the vegetation are done morphological observations, reported to the commonly agreed methodology for field trials conducting. Early interception was reported at 10% and mass at 75% by of young trees interception. It is going to analyze the data for identifying the nature and degree of dependence between signs.

3. Soil and Climatic Characteristics

In terms of climate Rhodope mountain range entirely belongs to Continental-Mediterranean climatic region of Bulgaria and precise in its South-Bulgarian climatic sub-region. Ivaylovgrad municipality is located in the southeast part of the Rhodopes. The climate of the region is transitional Mediterranean. The municipality falls entirely within the Eastern - Rhodope physical - geographical area with an altitude moving from 70 to 700 m. The landscape of the region has well expressed low and valley nature.

Ivaylovgrad is located in the extreme parts of the Eastern Rhodopes in the middle reaches of the Arda River and its tributaries White and Mad River.

The average annual rainfall for the period is from 725 to 925 mm/m², and average annual temperatures are 21-23° C. The temperature sum of the growing season is 4000 °C. Notably is warm climate and atmospheric largest range of variation in May, where the average daily temperature is with largest amplitude of variation of the average day and night temperatures ranging from 2 to 26 °C. Winds are weak, mainly southern and south. The summer was hot and dry, and winter - wet and mild with relatively rare snowfalls, which does not require spraying the trees with plant antifreeze against pollution.

Total productive capacity of the lands are characterized by a medium (agronomic) bonity score 57 for the Ivaylovgrad region, which it attributed to bonity group "Medium land".

4. Results and Discussion

Seven kilometers northwest of the city of Ivaylovgrad is situated experimental plantation adaptability and cultivation of olives as an alternative crop for this region. It was created in the second half of May 2013. and includes varieties "Arroniz", "Castellana", "Cornicabra".

Olive plantation for the period studied (2013-2015) is located in apparently good biological condition. The highest percentage of intercepting are distinguished "Arroniz" (100.0%), "Castellana" (90%), "Cornicabra" (85%). The percentage of intercepting to calculate the required number of pledged and anticipated successfully propagated plants. On this basis in practice it can be calculated planned production of cultivated trees.

It was found partially frost 9-10% of substantiating in frost, yellowing and defoliation and frost young unripe shoots, formed after the acquisition, shortly before abrupt climate change for the period. Of 5% was found frost on trees, conditioned dry overall foliage and 1/3 of the trunk of olives. In the established situation in the experimental plantation is done cleaning pruning of frozen and dried leaves, shoots and stems (Figure 1).

The trees are left with 3-5 main branches around the central branch of 20-30 cm from each other with a length of 30 to 45 cm, in order to better shape the crown. The aim is to open the inside of the tree, so sunlight can reach all parts. This leads to uniform ripening of fruit during the growing season. All abbreviations are made in the vicinity of the node/papule/ eye. Long branches are redundant, as they are left 4-5 pairs of leaves. Usually shaping the crown is completed within the 3-4 steps while currently converting to cup type pruning. Rejuvenating pruning is done twice a year is recommended to be more friendly.

Over the past three years, annual growth of followers of skeletal branches ranges between 10 and 30 cm per year, which determines the different location of fruit on the branches (Table 1).

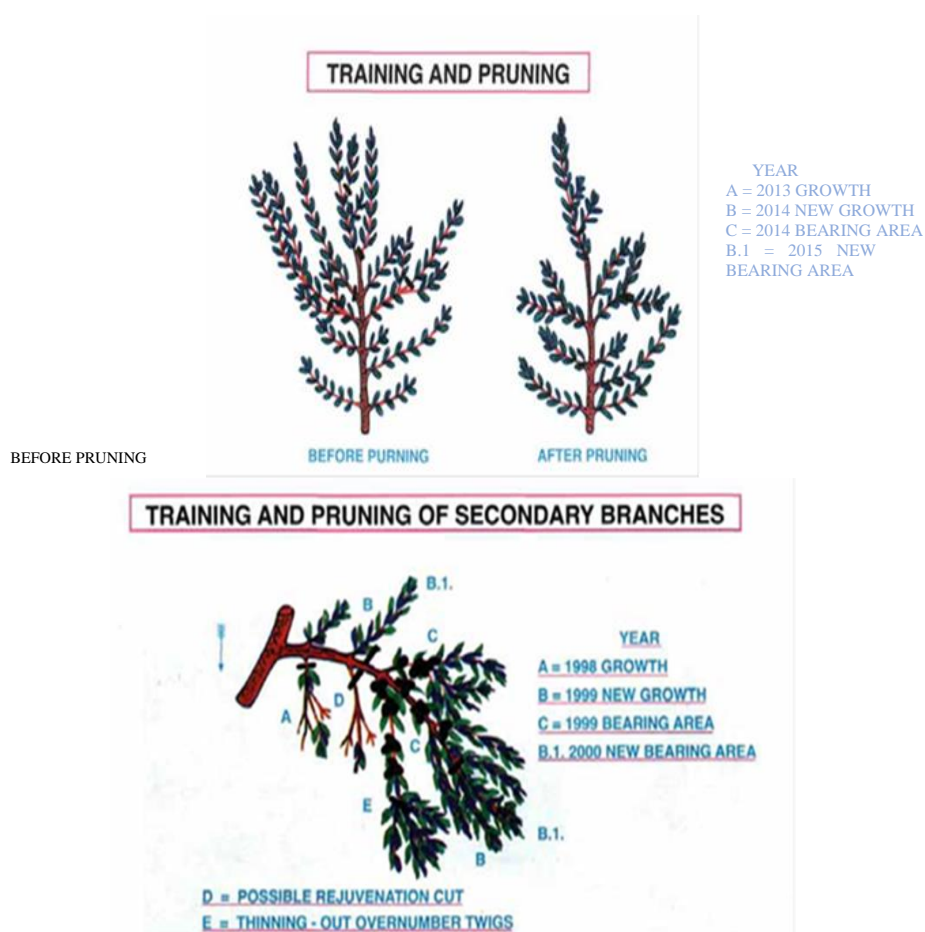


Figure1. Pruning of olive trees

The results presented in Table 1 show that on average for the period variety Arroniz enters the phenophase dissolving the buds of 10.04. Of the remaining studied varieties before starting vegetation Cornicabra.

Full blossoming and maturation period of the studied varieties is also presented in Table 1. The results obtained show that the largest number of flowers and fruits are numbered in variety Arroniz, followed by Castellana and Cornicabra. Late flowering varieties in Castellana and Cornicabra allows their cultivation in places with a high probability of spring frosts.

Table 1. Average morphological data of olive varieties for 2013 -2015 years.

Variety	Force of growth of the variety	Dissolving apices buds	Flowering			Period of maturing
			start	full blossoming	end	
Arroniz	weak growth	10.04	19.05	25.05	03.06	20.11
Castellana	strong growth	25.04	26.05	28.05	01.06	10.12
Cornicabra	moderate growth	17.04	22.05	26.05	30.05	15.11

The strength of growth of the trees is determined according vegetative growth leader and duration of the skeletal branches and twigs. As a result of which varieties are grouped in weak growth, with growth 5-10 cm; moderate growth, with growth 10-20 cm and strong growth, with growth of more than 20 cm.

To a group of strong growing varieties belong Castellana and Cornicabra, which have annual growth leader and duration of the skeletal branches and twig over 15-20 cm. The variety Arroniz is with weak growth, with growth continuer 5-10 cm.

The results obtained show that the tested varieties ripen in the range from November 15 to December 10th.

Were conducted morphological and biometric analysis. For the analysis were used leaves and single fruit of fruit twigs. Biometric measurements of the fruit is made directly after harvesting.

The indicators are presented in accordance with the methodology for the study of plant resources in fruit plants (Nedev et al., 1979).

Sixty leaves and fruits were randomly selected from each cultivar lot. Maximum length and width of leaves were measured using mm scale and maximum length and diameter of the fruits were measured using a screw gauge. Length–width ratio of leaves and fruits were calculated. All measurements were tabulated and LSD among the values of each cultivar corresponding to each character was found out. Data was further analyzed using the software called STATISTICA, version 7.0 и BIOSTAT (ANOVA).

Analysis of the morphological data pertaining to the three cultivars showed insignificant variations in many parameters (Table 2). Largest leaf-length was recorded by Cornicabra followed by Castellana but maximum leaf-width was seen in Arroniz. Leaf length–width ratio was nearly identical in all three varieties, indicating a low level of variance in the leaf shape. One cultivar had a higher fruit-length, measuring nearly 18 mm with Castellana showing the largest fruit-length. Arroniz and Cornicabra have comparatively smaller fruits of size ranging from 12.0 to 17.0 mm long. Length–diameter ratios of different fruit varieties also showed significant variations ranging from 1.20 to 1.55. There were insignificant variations in the thickness of fruit pulp ranging from 2.6 to 3.2 mm.

The highest average weight of fruit is variety Castellana -7,6 g (Table. 2). After him with an average weight of fruits are Cornicabra (5,74 g) and the variety Arroniz, respectively with at least fetal weight 3,86 g.

Table2. Morphological characters of three cultivars of Olives (All measurements are in mm scale except the ratios).

Characters	Arroniz	Castellana	Cornicabra	LSD
Leaf-length	35.4 ± 5.2 ^b	42.0 ± 4.4 ^a	42.5 ± 2.1 ^a	5.4
Leaf-width	10.8 ± 1.0 ^b	9.3 ± 0.6 ^a	7.4 ± 1.3 ^a	1.4
Length/width ratio	4.97 ± 0.01 ^d	4.56 ± 0.02 ^c	5.00 ± 0.03 ^d	0.19
Fruit-length	12.3 ± 1.3 ^a	17.9 ± 1.1 ^b	17.1 ± 1.3 ^b	1.7
Fruit-diameter	10.9 ± 1.3 ^a	12.5 ± 1.2 ^a	12.9 ± 1.3 ^a	1.9
Length/width ratio	1.20 ± 0.03 ^a	1.43 ± 0.07 ^c	1.55 ± 0.04 ^d	0.09
Fruit-pulp thickness	3.1 ± 0.2 ^b	3.2 ± 0.1 ^b	2.6 ± 0.1 ^a	0.3
Weight on 1 a fruit (g)	3.86 ± 0.03 ^a	7.6 ± 0.4 ^b	5.74 ± 0.04 ^e	0.8

Means followed by the same letter superscript are not significantly different at 0.05.

The above data characterizing varieties show that they fall within the group of varieties with medium to large fruits - weighing from 4,0 to 8,0 g.

For a more comprehensive justification of the status and growing olives in Bulgaria continue to carry out periodic monitoring of experimental plantations on their adaptability and reproduction.

5. Conclusion

Based on the study are drawn conclusions on the value of the varieties and their adaptability within the Rhodopes in Bulgaria.

It was found that the interception of olive trees is medium to full rooting.

The studied Spanish varieties are suitable for growing in Bulgaria

In soil and climatic conditions of southern Bulgaria varieties showed significant variations in morphology. Morphologic analysis revealed that dimensions of leaves and fruits are reliable morphologic characters to distinguish between varieties provided a large number of replicates are measured per sample. However,

biometric values alone were not able to detect differences among some morphologically similar varieties characterized by different agronomical traits.

Variety Cornicabra can be used as table olives for edible purpose than for oil production, and varieties and Arroniz Castellana are suitable for oil production.

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Accounting Concept Of Lease Contract

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Abstract: In the scientific paper is made an attempt to explore lease contracts in terms of their accounting aspects, to identify discussion points and unresolved problems related to their classification and accounting treatment and to formulate and justify conclusions and recommendations for effective resolving of the identified outstanding issues.

Keywords: leasing, lease contract, finance lease, operating lease, accounting. JEL (M)

1. Introduction

Nowadays a lot of active enterprises experience lack of available financial resources to invest in the production process and in particular in the renovation of production equipment in accordance with modern technologies. At the same time securing investment capital through bank loans is difficult, especially in times of financial instability. That is why one of the most effective and affordable ways to finance the processes of renewal and development of production nowadays is lease.

Despite the widespread usage of lease as a form of financing in Bulgarian practice - it is a subject of many discussions. Reasons are various: inconsistencies in the concepts and terminology of lease contracts used in national legislation; lack of extensive research in literature¹ and adequate interpretations and expert explanations on its legal, accounting and tax treatment; differences in the requirements for its accounting and presentation of information in financial statements, placed in National Accounting Standard 17 Leases and in International Accounting Standard 17 Leases. All this shows that for lease transactions and their regulatory base exist unresolved issues that determine the relevance of the topic and its significance. Therefore this scientific work aims to explore lease contracts* in terms of accounting, to highlight controversial issues related to their classification and accounting treatment and to formulate and justify conclusions and recommendations in order to effectively deal with identified outstanding issues.

The term "lease" is derived from the English verb "to lease" - rent, give / take rent.² The word "rent" is associated with the providing of property for use against payment, respectively to "pay for temporarily usage of a thing"³. This gives reason to determine that the lease is a specific transaction in which one party, the lessor (landlord) gives the other party, called the lessee (tenant) asset against payment.

As a kind of contractual arrangement whereby the "lessor is obliged to provide property for use against remuneration"⁴ lease covers a wide range of relationships. They occur most often in relation to both participants - the lessor and lessee, in wider lease transactions may arise also relationship with third party - a lease agent that performs the organization of leasing operations, funding bank or a trust company (the owner of the object).

¹ See .: Brezoeva, B. (2012). Leasing - financial, operational, reverse, terminated, subleasing, Sofia: ORKP "Thought"; Dushanov I. Dimitrov, M. (2015). Course in company accounting. Sofia: Trakia M .; NAYDENOV, B. (2007). Leasing. Financial and legal aspects. Sofia.

* In the scientific work lease contract will mean not only the document «lease», but also legal trade relations, together with its legal, accounting and tax consequences.

² See .: Garnev, N., HAYTOV, Ts. (2004). Accounting Dictionary (English-Bulgarian, Bulgarian-English), CM Publishing, p. 104

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⁴ Commercial Law, art. 342 // Official Gazette, 1991, issue. 48, last. amend. 2015, issue. 95. Retrieved on February 10, 2016 from <http://lex.bg/laws/ldoc/-14917630>

Involving more than two parties in leasing transactions is often due to the application of specific leasing schemes that include complex arrangement of property relations. In these schemes are often intertwined elements that are typical for other non-financial relations and financial products. The aim is to create the best possible financial instrument through which companies-lessees to obtain new assets (in technical and technological aspect) and so to update the material and technical base, even without having enough cash.

Despite the complexity of the leasing scheme for each leasing transaction, three main elements can be distinguished:

- Subject of the lease - assets assigned for use against payment;
- Parties of the leasing deal - the lessor and the lessee, while wider leasing transactions may include third party - a lease broker, financing bank or trust company;
- Lease contract - the document, which regulates the relationship between the participants in the lease transaction, resp. legal terms of the trade agreement between the parties participating in the lease transaction in connection with the settlement of relations between them.

Relevant national accounting standards define two types of leases: a contract for financial and contract for operation (operating) lease⁵. They are distinguished by the characteristic “degree of transfer of risks and benefits associated with the leased asset”^{*}. For them, the legislator provides current and periodic reporting in the financial statements to be consistent with the principle of “substance over form”⁶.

When the lease is financial then all risks and benefits of ownership of the asset are transferred largely to the lessee. It is possible, but not necessarily agreed to be transferred also the ownership of the asset.

A special feature of the finance lease is that the transfer of all risks and benefits is directly conditioned by fulfillment of specific criteria: the transfer of ownership should be at the end of the lease term; contract should contain an option to purchase the asset by the lessee and to be very likely to take advantage of it; the price at which it is expected the lessee to purchase the asset at the end of the lease to be substantially lower than the fair value at that date; term of the contract to cover the majority of the economic life of the leased asset, even if ownership is not transferred; lease asset to be specific and only the lessee to be able to use it without making substantial changes to it; in the beginning of the lease contract the present value of the minimum lease payments to equal the fair value of the leased asset⁷.

Contract for operating lease is each lease contract other than a finance lease. For this kind of lease the risks and benefits of ownership of the asset remain for the lessor.

The classification of leases by “level of transfer of risks and benefits associated with the leased asset” can be presented schematically as in figure № 1.

⁵ See .: NAS17 Leases, p. 3.2. Retrieved on February 10, 2016 from <http://balans.bg/178-nss-17-lizing/>

^{*} Risks associated with the asset most often are result of the irrational use of the asset, its technical obsolescence, changes in the economic environment and others. While the benefits of the asset are mainly related to income generated as a result of its use, the presence of residual asset value and rising prices in the market.

⁶ ACCOUNTING Law, Article 26, item. 8 (2016). Sofia: Sibi.

⁷ See .: NAS17 Leases, ie. 3.3. Retrieved on February 10, 2016 from <http://balans.bg/178-nss-17-lizing/>

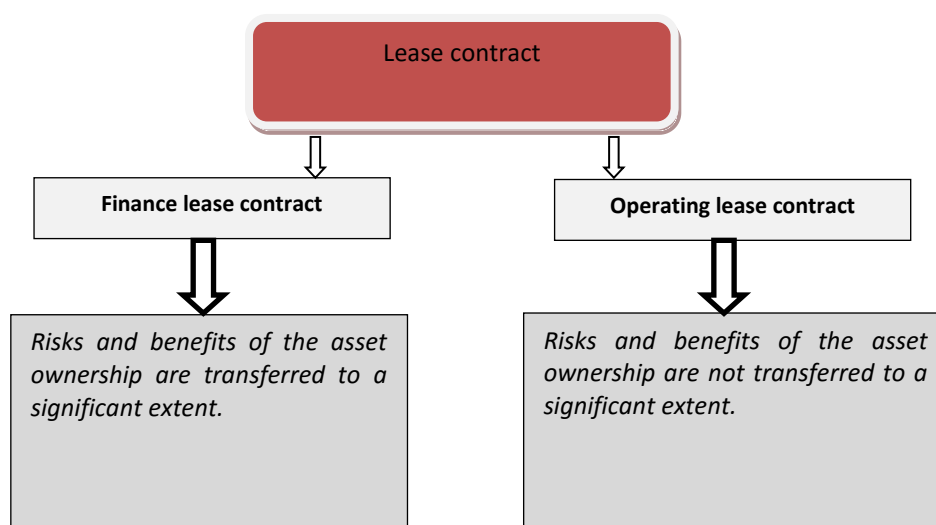


Figure 1. Classification of leases by "level of transfer of risks and benefits associated with the leased asset"

The classification of lease contracts is essential for the development of the accounting policy of enterprises and the development of their chart of accounts. It is also important for the accounting and presentation of information for leases in the financial statements of the lessor and the lessee.

Accounting of leases is based on a set of requirements in section. 4 and 5 of the National Accounting Standard 17 Leases. These requirements outline the parameters of the two accounting models - a model for accounting for finance lease contracts and model for accounting of the operating lease agreements, which together make the foundation of the accounting concept of lease contracts.⁸

To characterize more completely the accounting concept of leases, it is important to analyze in depth the two models for accounting of lease contracts, in order to reveal common characteristics and differences between them and to identify the specifics and problems surrounding their practical use.

Comparative analysis of contracts for financial and operational lease shows that among them there are common characteristics. They are related mainly to identical economic substance of financial and operating lease (both financial and operating lease have contract agreements under which an entity provides asset to another entity against payment) and their legal regulation for accounting purposes (they are leases, so they require specific documentation and accounting reporting, the information about them is presented in the financial statements of both companies - lessor and lessee). Between them stand out also differences that might be presented as in table № 1.

⁸ Examples of practical application of accounting models for leases can be seen at: PANCHEVA, St. (2014). Enterprise Accounting (book of tasks and case studies). Sofia: NBU, p. 68-73.

Table 1. Differences in the accounting treatment of finance lease and operating lease contract

Finance lease contracts	Operating lease contracts
The asset is written off from the accounts of the lessor and is recorded in the accounts of the lessee.	The asset remains to be kept in the books of the lessor.
The lessee books depreciation on leased depreciable assets, although they are not his property.	The lessor books depreciation of rent depreciable assets, although he does not really use them.
Lessor recognizes two types of revenue - interest for the term of the lease and profit / loss equivalent to the profit / loss that would result from the sale of the leased asset at sale prices.	The lessor recognizes current income from rent for the term of the lease.
The lessee takes into account current interest expenses for the term of the contract.	The lessee accounts current rental costs for the duration of the contract.
In the contract it is usually inserted the option to buy the leased asset after the expiry of its term.	The contract does not provide the option to buy the leased asset.

Analysis of both forms of lease also shows that finance and operating lease allows businesses to be competitive, to develop dynamically and to follow the latest technologies. Yet, for financial leasing, opportunities available for parties involved in the leasing transaction are larger - lessee acquires and uses the asset without paying once its equivalent, and the lessor receives deferred with interest and the amount of the leased asset without taking the risk of its usage by the lessee.

When examining the accounting treatment of the two lease contracts is reasoned that they are clearly distinguished based on specific criteria and for their accounting treatment guidance is provided. In these guidelines are revealed some gaps and deficiencies (except amortization expenses other costs, related to the use of leased assets that the lessee under a finance lease and the lessor under operating leases can recognize and book, are not specified, is not provided an option for removal from the balance of the lessor and reporting on off-balance sheet accounts of the asset under operating lease, although that he will not benefit from it for a long time; it is not clearly defined which of the parties to the lease must bear the cost of subsequent repair grants of the rentals assets, etc.), but they generally do not prevent the development and implementation of legal models for accounting of leases.

Issue with accounting treatment of leases also creates their ambiguous distinction. The reason is that whether a lease is a finance or operating lease depends mostly on the nature of the transaction described in it. It is therefore important to analyze the terms of any signed lease in order to establish the economic substance of the transaction and check for the presence of one or more fulfilled criteria related to classification of contract as finance or operating lease.

Regarding accounting classification of leases difficulties arise from the fact that this classification is not directly determined by the legal form of the contract. For example, finance lease contracts may be arranged as rent contract or leasing sale/purchase contract that does not substantially alter their treatment. This means that even if a legal contract does not bear the name of a lease but is associated with providing of assets against a payment, it will fall within the scope of the accounting concept of lease contracts.

As a result of the study of leases can be concluded that they are easy to use, efficient and flexible form of financing of investment projects, which have a number of benefits, including eliminates the risk of obsolescence of its assets; release funds for more profitable investments; provide tax relief; increases the elasticity of the investment policy; it provides funding with less one-off costs; it provides an opportunity to avoid the costs associated with obtaining borrowed funds; usually are provided better terms and lower interest rates compared to bank loans and guarantees are not required (pledges, mortgages, etc.); very often a payment of an initial lease payment is negotiated after a certain period of use of the asset;

documents are made simpler, faster and cheaper than other forms of financing; it provides the opportunity for timely renewal of assets and increasing technical and technological level of production even if the lessee has insufficient financial resources, etc. At the same time they have a disadvantage – when the deal is negotiated in foreign currency other than national, there is currency risk both for the lessor and lessee. Furthermore, for the lessor there is risk of receiving physically and obsolete assets after the expiry of the lease, which can hardly be realized at their residual value. For the lessee risk is related to economic unprofitable transaction consisting in excess of lease payments over the economic benefits from the asset, especially if it is temporarily not in use. As a result it can be concluded that lease is convenient and flexible form of corporate financing, which has a number of advantages over commercial transactions for the purchase and sale of assets, bank loans and rent, but hides some risks for parties participating in the transaction⁹.

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An Algorithm for Working With Software of Project Management

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Abstract: The article treats the basic positions of using software for project management. Emphasis is placed on the use of the software product ProjectLibre in project management. The possibility of its application is viewed in the education of students and cadets of the National Military University "Vasil Levski", Veliko Tarnovo.

Keywords: Project Management, Software of project management, ProjectLibre, Work Breakdown Structure, Gantt chart

JEL Class: A2,B4,C1,C6,C8,I2

1. Introduction

Project management is the science of projects which also includes the application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to achieve the objectives for the project requirements.

As such scientific discipline "Project Management" is covered in the curriculum for students and cadets of the National Military University "Vasil Levski", Veliko Tarnovo in "Logistics of security" specialty. The course is taught in the "Business management and logistics" department of "Land forces" faculty.

The challenge for the teaching staff of the department is the implementation of new software technology in theoretical and practical material on project management. New avant-garde software is still not used at the university at this time, unlike in UARD, Plovdiv, for example, where this has been a practice since 2012.

The main challenge for project management is to achieve all the objectives and restrictions of the project. This information is usually described in the owner's or in the project's manual. Secondary and more ambitious challenge is to optimize the allocation of the necessary resources and integrate them to meet predetermined objectives.

The software of project management is a complete software that includes applications for planning, scheduling, monitoring of prices, budget management, resource allocation, teamwork, communication, fast control, documentation and management systems, which are used together in order to manage large projects.

2. Usage of The Software in Project Management

Present day organizations use modern tools to solve tasks to support business management. Unfortunately, the underestimating of such instruments is typical for Bulgaria. Here we can do a lot. There is no need to over analyze, it's sufficient to see the documents of the operational programs and the level of computerization, which applies to them.

However, the world and all leading companies do not stay in this position. In their work, they actively use computer programs to support project management.

Products, oriented to automation of services in project management are: Agresso; Augeo Software; CA Clarity; Epicor Software; IRIS Software Group SharpOWL; Lawson; Maconomy; Microsoft Project Professional; Oracle E-Business Suite; Primavera Systems Evolve; QuickArrow; SAP Professional Services Automation [5], [6], [8], [12], [15], [16], [19].

Other groups of programs are aimed at service products, asset management, management of internal processes: DotProject - OpenSource system for project management; Entexo iProject - System for automation tasks in project management; ProjectMate - Russian PSA-automation system of professional activity; Invest Sign; eGroupWare - a free software project management; OpenProj - a free software project management, alternative to Microsoft Project; GanttProject - small freeware program with Gantt charts and resources; Devprom - lightweight and flexible project management that supports the full cycle of project development [3] [6] [13] [14] [15] [16].

Examples of software for team work on software projects (software development) are SVN; CVS; TFS (Team Foundation Server); Visual SourceSafe Git [17], [18]. In visualization, authors opted for free software product ProjectLibre, for the reasons stated in [3], [9], [10] advantages over paid MS Project.

ProjectLibre originally launched in August 2012, as the successor of OpenProj [7], [9], [10]. ProjectLibre current features include: task management, decomposition of structure (list and graphical representation), resource allocation and tracking, and diagrams of Gantt, which provide a clear picture of the critical path. Obviously, this list of features is not intended to be comprehensive and is nothing remarkable or unique. More importantly, they are working well and are absolutely suitable to be used in the training of students.

Openproj and ProjectLibre are completely free, open source products, which allows you to save money on Microsoft products while receiving the same functionality without depending on the operating system. In the opinion of many authors [4], [15], [16] these are the best functional open source alternatives to Microsoft Project. Openproj & ProjectLibre are the best alternative because:

- Are very small - Openproj 6.6 MB & ProjectLibre is 10,4MB.
- Are Free.
- Provide opportunities for sharing, visualization, control and monitoring of performance.
- Openproj & ProjectLibre maintain Gantt and Network / PERT charts, as well as visualization tools of invested resources and their utilization, and project reports from different angles.
- Openproj & ProjectLibre are fully compatible with alternative products and allows easy import and export of documents from MS Project, and also an XML format.

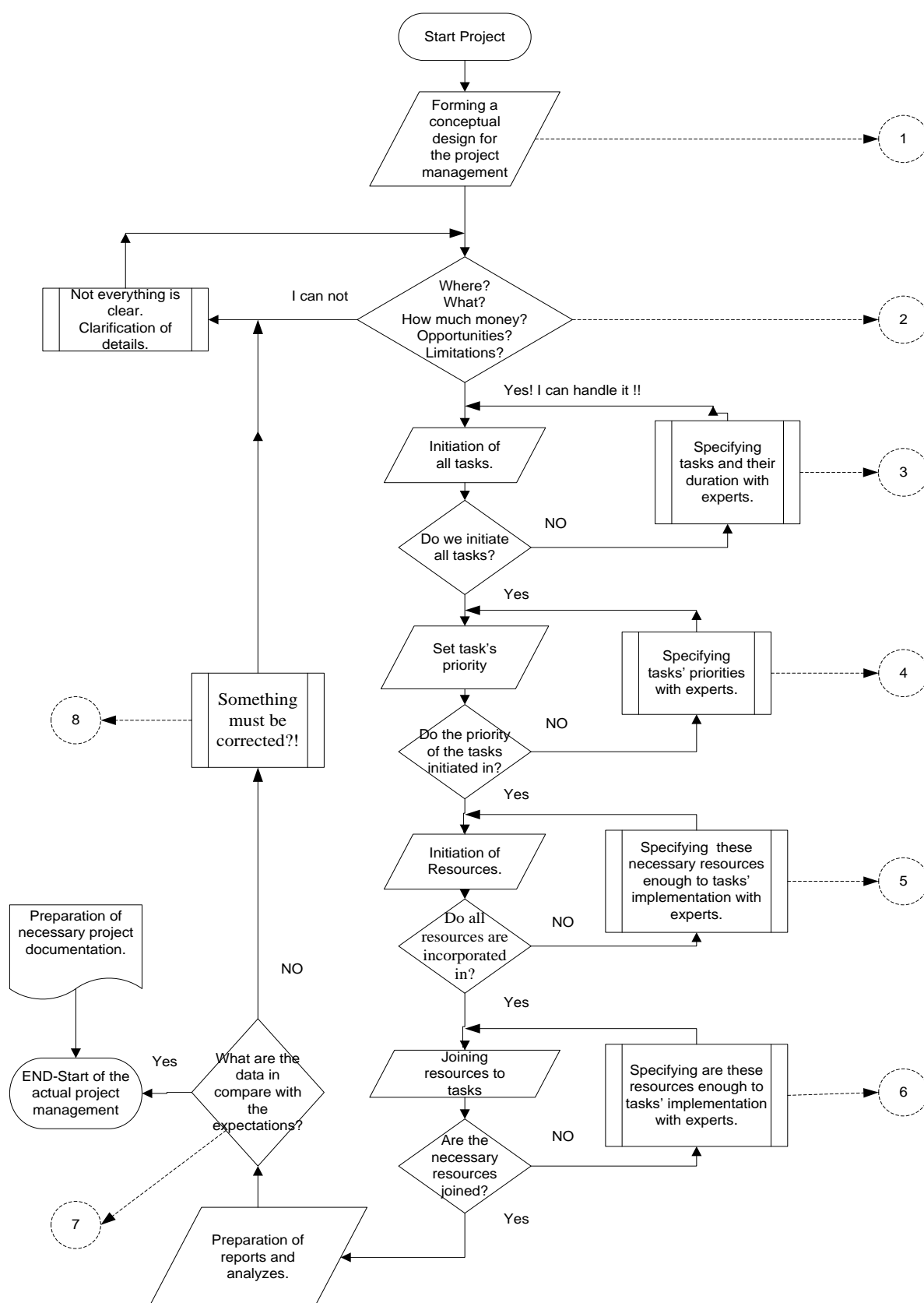
3. Algorithm For Work in The Management of Projects Using Software Tools

The actual process of planning requires not only professionalism, but also the knowledge and experience, and in many cases, creativity and intuition from developers.

GRAPH 1 shows work algorithm in using software product to support the processes of calculation and decision-making team for project management [1], [2], [3], [6], [7].

Below are eight stages to reach the final decision on a project, namely:

- 1) Taking preliminary decision - conceptual intention (we will build a guest house - in general, for example).
- 2) Clarification "For" and "Against" in conceptual design.
- 3) Break down the project tasks and their implementation.
- 4) Set the priority tasks.
- 5) Are we using all the resources?
- 6) Do the necessary resources are incorporated in?
- 7) What are the data in compare with the expectations?
- 8) Something must be corrected?!



Graph 1. Algorithm for work in the management of projects using software tools

3.1. Making a Preliminary Decision

Stage 1 is usually a conceptual design of the owner or the team, working for its preparation, or NGO. It is possible for another entity to act as guarantors for its preparation.

The implementation of each project or initiative begins with Stage 1. It happens, very often, in an informal setting, but the idea is to implement a creative concept in any field of human knowledge and initiative.

The work for the project starts with Stage1.

3.2. Clarification "For" and "Against" in Conceptual Design

Stage 2 is often accompanied by thorough studies and preliminary analyzes, such as:

- In the municipality;
- In the EU Funds;
- Water Supply and Sewerage Ltd.;
- Energy and heating Ltd.;
- Regional Inspectorate of Environment and Water;
- Other places, connected with the project.

The Stage 2's task is to respond to sometimes very diverse and often controversial issues.

Key questions in Graph 1 are:

- Where will the project be implemented?
- What will its contents be executed with?
- How much money would cost the realization of the project?
- What are subject's opportunities to the implementation of the project?
- Are there any restrictions about the implementation of the project?

If the answer is "Yes. I can handle it!", we can proceed to the next stage of using the software. If the answer is "No!", we need to lead to define the details and then again to ask the same key questions.

3.3. Stage 3 Is Breaking Down The Project Tasks and Their Implementation

One of the most important stages of planning is a description of a hierarchical structure. For a compact description of the hierarchical structure of the project, we use the so-called code "structure decomposition" (abbreviated in English - WBS, from the Work Breakdown Structure). WBS code is a sequence of numbers or letters (or their combination), divided, if necessary, into groups, each of which corresponds to a particular level of the hierarchy [1], [4], [7]. Each task is assigned with a unique code of the WBS in one project. The using of WBS - codes allows solving three major problems:

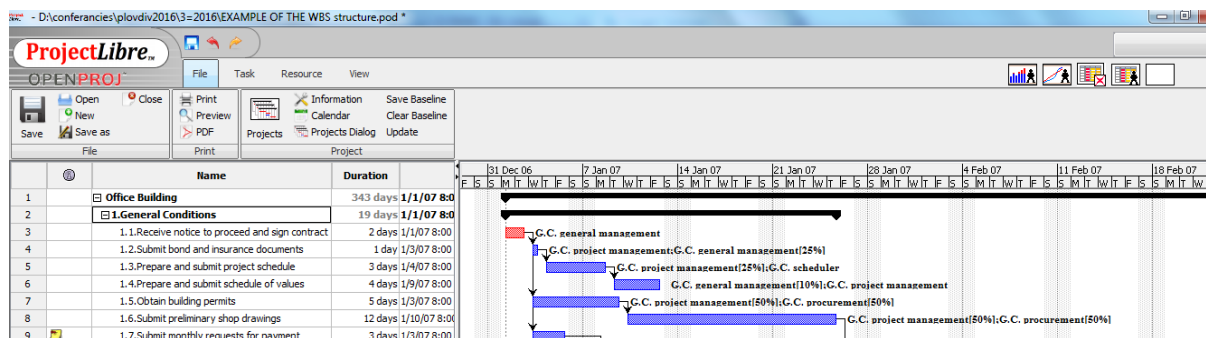
- analysis of complex hierarchical structure of the project;
- perform selected works by some formal signs (ie WBS-code);
- unifying a complex project from private projects, which are developed relatively independently, but with the adoption of an uniform coding system.

Once we create and decompose the project, we can proceed to the implementation of tasks and subtasks. GRAPH 2 clearly shows the main tasks - they have an index, and subtasks - they have two indexes. Then, we insert them in a GANTT. The steps' realization is discussed more detailed in [3], [4] and [5].

3.4. Set The Priority Tasks

Already established, it is necessary to prioritize tasks and their subtasks. Again, this is done in the table of Gantt.

The steps' realization is discussed more detailed in [3], [4] and [5].



Graph 1. WBS project structure, tasks and subtasks.

Graph2 clearly shows the extent of their use. The lower the rank of a task is, the more right of the table frame of Gantt it is.

After connecting the tasks with reciprocal links - they are set by WBS hierarchy, the project's Gantt chart is formed.

It should be emphasized that whether you decide to work with MS Project or ProjectLibre, the technology of the algorithm we are proposing here, is identical and gives the same end results.

To complete the steps, it is necessary to introduce the duration of the tasks and subtasks. Length (duration) of the task is the amount of time you expect it will take its implementation. ProjectLibre works lasting from minutes to months.

The duration of a task is directly dependent on two parameters: the set time duration and the calendar of the project / task.

We should not forget the types of activities that are performed by different tasks.

3.5. Are We Using All The Resources?

After entering the tasks, set their hierarchy and their planned duration, we should proceed to the introduction of resources for their implementation. Bring in as many resources, as the experts think are necessary.

ProjectLibre supports the work of two types of resources: labor (work resource), which are the people (performers) and equipment, material (material resource), which are the materials and energy expenditure.

The setting-up process of adjustment of individual resources isn't a complex procedure and it's a subject to revision throughout the process of project planning and management.

3.6. Do The Necessary Resources Are Incorporated In?

The next major stage is the appointment of the resources to the tasks. By joining and or appointing a resource to the task, we are making it work, it is already in action. Until now these were only either people or money (machinery, fuel, buildings, rents, etc.). Tasks plus resources are appointments.

3.7. What Are The Data (Final Results) in Compare With The Expectations?

It is natural always to seek the end result of work with one product. There are different ways to format the images and better performance of the results. With the diagram of Gantt, as the main tool for analysis, and on the basis of the received reports we can easily determine whether the duration of the project is what we expected it to be, for example, or even if the resulting value is according to our possibilities. It is very important to understand if the computable project, with the software, meets our expectations.

If the answer is "Yes", we should prepare the necessary project documentation and to proceed with the project implementation.

If the answer is "No", we should proceed to Step 8.

3.8. Something Must Be Corrected?!

In practice, this means restructuring the project and perform the steps 2 to 7 again, now with the help of the experts, will be looking for other solutions with other data.

This process of "simulation" of different options with the help of the software, is extremely easy and needed very often in reality. It is even possible this kind of analyses, should be included as a requirement for documentation - to offer several options to solve a case of projects.

The change of WBS project structure and parameters of tasks and subtasks, or the used resources, is possible.

Automating project management has great advantages of ones, which are made by hand.

4. Conclusion

The introduction of the course "Project Management" in National Military University "Vasil Levski", quickened the interest of students to this new and modern science. Planning implementation of software to support the discipline will help to the intensification of training. Planning the whole process with an universal software not only provides mapping out the path, which should move the project, but also is a reliable management tool, during project implementation [3], [8], [16]. The ability to fit unexpected changes in the general plan and recalculation of time and project's needed resources, is one of the most important advantages of organizing the project with specialized software.

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ABSTRACTS

Examination of Project Preparation Tendencies of the Academic Staff in Social Sciences: The Case of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences of Çanakkale Province

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Abstract: Putting regional resources and regional dynamics into practice to achieve development objectives in the globalization process in the world has been extremely important. Therefore, all local actors, in particular universities, have developed strategies contributing to national development to adapt to competitive conditions in today's world and to succeed. In today's development understanding, universities produce knowledge, share and commercialize it and support their units with administrative and financial autonomy and tertiary income sources. Universities having the qualifications mentioned above are defined as entrepreneurial universities.

On the other hand, modern project management concept emerged as a result of the applicability of cost, control, programming, resource management and risk management techniques in many projects with the development of modern management science. In the competition race accelerating in 2000s, organizations have become more dependent than ever to the success of their projects implemented. In this context, the Project Coordination Center Coordinatorship was established on June 18, 2015 to pioneer to the establishment of project preparation and implementation consciousness in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and encourage the academic staff in this direction.

The project preparation potential of the faculties of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University was examined in order to organize the activities of the Project Coordination Center. Researches showed that faculties in the area of natural and applied sciences had more projects than faculties in social sciences. Biga Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences is one of the faculties having fewer projects.

In this study a survey with full-count method was conducted with the academic staff of Biga Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences. The survey analyzed the factors affecting the decisions of the academic staff on project preparation. Basic descriptive statistics and nonparametric methods were used to evaluate the study data.

Keywords: Project, project preparation tendencies, social science, Çanakkale, Turkey

A Study Regarding Family Physicians' Holiday Purchase Decision-Making Process

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Abstract: Nowadays millions of people change their living places or countries temporary for travel, joy or getting health care to satisfy their psychological and cultural needs. It is very important to determinate the customers holiday habits, holiday culture and buying holiday process for giving the best quality service and making them satisfied in tourism sector which grows year by year and has extensive effects in economical and social perspective. In this study, it was referred to touristic products, tourism marketing, the factors that affect consumers behaviors and decision process of purchasing. The survey was made and the surveys aim to determine of holiday habbits, holiday culture and attitudes in the decision making process of family physicians in Tekirdağ City Center and other districts. In this research Mann Whitney U, Kruskal Wallis H and Chi-Square tests have been used for testing the descriptive statistics, analysis and hypothesis.

Keywords: Family Physician, Touristic Product, Tourism Marketing, Consumer Behavior, Consumer Purchase Decision Process, Tekirdağ

Türkiye’de İthalat Ve Ekonomik Büyüme Arasındaki İlişki: Granger Nedensellik Testi

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Özet: Gelişmekte olan ülkelerde ekonomik büyümenin ithalata olanbağımlılığı dikkat çekmektedir. Bu çalışmada; Türkiye’de toplam ithalat ile GSYİH arasındaki nedensellik ilişkisi, Granger Nedensellik Testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın amacı ithalat ile ekonomik büyüme arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymaktır. Türkiye’de 2003:01-2012:04 yılları için üçer aylık veriler ile reel ithalat ile reel GSYİH değişkenleri kullanılmıştır. Analizde kullanılan tüm veriler 2003:100 bazlı reel verilerdir. Granger Nedensellik testi ile değişkenler arasında ilişkinin yönü ortaya çıkmaktadır. Testin güvenilirliği, değişkenlerin durağan olması durumunda sağlanmaktadır. Bu nedenle model testinden önce kullanılan serilerin durağan olup olmadıkları ADF Birim Kök Testi ile test edilmiştir. Seriler durağan hale getirilmiş ve daha sonra Granger Test uygulanmıştır. Granger nedensellik testine göre; Türkiye’de 2003-2012 yılları arasında ithalat değişkeninden GSYİH değişkenine doğru tek yönlü nedensellik ilişkisine rastlanmıştır. Analiz edilen dönem için Türkiye’de, ithalatın büyüme üzerinde belirleyici bir unsur olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İthalat, Büyüme, Granger Nedensellik Testi.

Best Location for Animal Feed Manufacturing Company in Izmir Province of Turkey

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Abstract: Incorrect selection of location may cause significant problems for businesses. The main problem is critical business activities such as procurement and marketing are greatly dependent on facility location. For this reason, investors must consider the combination of several criterias by selection of the location.

The number of farm animals, distance to raw materials, infrastructure, labor cost, energy costs and the investment cost criterias are taken into account for selection of the facility location in this study. Location problems are usually known as multi-dimensional problems in particular when sustainable development planning is required, so multi-criteria approaches are appropriate techniques for solving location problems. The main objective of this study is to overcome the problem of facility location selection by goal programming. The proposed method has been applied to a selection problem of facility location that determines optimal feed manufacturing company in Izmir province of Turkey.

Keywords: Selection of location, Multi Criteria Decision Making, Goal Programming.

The Impact Of Perceived Ease Of Use, Perceived Usefulness And Perceived Risk on Behavioral Intentions: A Study on Online Booking Sites

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Abstract: This study aims to identify the impact of perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and perceived risk on behavioral intentions within the context of online booking sites. A field study is conducted on tourists purchasing hotel accommodation by using online booking systems. Data is collected by face to face interviews from 407 foreign tourists who booked online accommodation in 5 star hotels around Lara-Antalya region. Structural equation modeling is used for data analyses. Data analyses revealed that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use have positive effects while perceived risk has a negative effect on behavioral intentions through online booking. Theoretical and managerial implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: Perceived Ease of Use, Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Risk, Online Booking, Tourism.

The Role of Cooperative Organizations in the Development of Ecotourism

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Abstract: Ecotourism having focused on the benefits of rural people is a type of tourism most sensitive for the nature. Ecotourism generally applied in rural regions and relatively unspoiled areas is presented alternative to the mass tourism in recent years. Ecotourism has many advantages from the point of tourists' view such as environmental conservation, eliminating stress with different activities, integration with rural people. Unlike the mass tourism, people living in the cities have also advantages as participating in active social-economic recreational activities. These activities may provide additional income for rural people and also increase prestige of rural life from the point of city-dweller.

Cooperatives are non-profit organizations promoting the benefits of members, based on the voluntary participation. Farmers can easily perform their joint activities by means of their cooperative compared to the activities performed individually. Cooperatives can be organized as single purpose or multipurpose regarding their activities. The activities of cooperatives in rural areas are generally for improving and developing the agricultural sector. At the same time, cooperatives have a flexible structure for dealing with public concern and adapting to changing conditions.

In this study, the role of cooperative organizations in applying the benefits of ecotourism in rural areas was investigated. In particular, the benefits of the producers expected from a cooperative form of organization for the development of ecotourism in rural areas were evaluated by using factor analysis. In this respect, producers expect managerial and infrastructural benefits from the cooperatives. Promotion, training and income-generating activities are seen as administrative aspects, ecotourism accommodation and facilities for cleaning and maintenance service areas are regarded as the infrastructural elements.

Keywords: Ecotourism, Cooperative, Rural

Consumer Perceptions of Store Image

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Abstract: Internal and external factors making up store atmosphere effect consumers' perceptions of store image. The aim of this study is to determine the perceptions of consumers regarding store image. For this reason, a questionnaire was conducted about perception of consumers concerning KOTON store in Lüleburgaz, district of Kırklareli Province. In the study, descriptive statistics was given and method of mean analysis was used. To test hypotheses t-test and ANOVA were covered. Many hypotheses were tested if there is any significant differences among groups. It was concluded that consumers' attitudes towards store were similar and consumers had a positive perception of KOTON store.

Keywords: Store, Store Image, Customer perception, KOTON Store, Lüleburgaz

Havacılık İşletmelerindeki Stajyer Öğrencilerin İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Algısına Yönelik Uygulama

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Özet: Günümüz endüstrisinin en önemli kaygılarından biri üretim verimliliğinin sürekliliğinin sağlanmasıdır. Bu baskı çalışanların sağlığı ve güvenliğini önemli ölçüde tehdit etmektedir. Endüstrileşmenin ilk dönemlerinde önemsenmeyen bu sorunlar çalışanların karıştığı kazaları ve meslek hastalıklarının üretim artışı ile doğru orantılı artmasıyla önem kazanmıştır. “İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği” düzenlemeleri ile çalışanların iş kazaları ve meslek hastalıklarından korunup daha sağlıklı ortamda çalışmaları sağlanmıştır.

Havacılık sektörü, emniyet ve hız faktörlerinin ön planda olduğu sektörlerden biridir. Havacılık sektöründe çalışanlarının güvenlik ve sağlığını tehdit eden ve risk faktörleri diğer sektörlerle göre nispi olarak daha fazladır. Havacılık sektöründe emniyet ve güvenlik önlemleri en üst düzeyde olmak zorundadır. Bu amaçla ulusal ve uluslararası otoriteler tarafından havacılık çalışma süreçleri düzenlenmekte ve denetlenmektedir. Havacılık çalışma süreçlerinde meydana gelebilecek en ufak bir hata çalışan sağlığı ve havacılık emniyeti açısından ciddi sorunlar doğurabilmektedir. Staj, öğrencilerin sektör uygulamalarını gözlemleyerek deneyim kazandığı öğrenme sürecidir. Türkiye’de sivil havacılık eğitimi veren üniversitelerin çoğunun müfredatlarında staj zorunluluğu bulunmaktadır. Araştırma yükseköğretim düzeyinde havacılık eğitimi alan öğrencilerin staj sürecindeki iş sağlığı ve güvenliği ile ilgili algılarının ölçülmesi için yapılmıştır.

Araştırmanın birinci bölümünde, literatür taraması ile iş sağlığı ve güvenliği kavramı üzerinde durulmuştur. İkinci bölümünde, Türkiye’de stajyerlere yönelik yasal düzenlemeler incelenerek havacılık sektöründeki iş sağlığı ve güvenliği uygulamaları anlatılmıştır. Araştırmanın son bölümünde havacılık işletmelerinde staj yapan öğrencilerin iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine yönelik algılarının ölçülmesine yönelik bir ölçek oluşturularak bulgular analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilere öncelikle demografik özelliklerini belirleyici sorular sorulmuştur. Ardından öğrencilere staj esnasında iş sağlığı ve güvenliği ile ilgili alınan önlemlere yönelik sorular yöneltilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 21.0 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiş olup verileri değerlendirilirken tanımlayıcı istatistiksel metotlar (Sayı, Yüzde, Ortalama, Standart sapma) kullanılmıştır. Niteliksel gruplu değişkenler arasındaki ilişki ki-kare analizi ile test edilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular %95 güven aralığında, %5 anlamlılık düzeyinde değerlendirilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara dayanarak işletmelere ve öğretim kurumlarına yönelik önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Serbian Nationalism Revisited: Slobodan Milošević and the Question of Leadership

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Abstract: The rebirth of Serbian nationalism as a challenge to Tito's brotherhood and unity of nations and nationalities (bratstvo i jedinstvo naroda i narodnosti) in late 1980s emerged as a popular issue and over studied by varied disciplines. A vast majority of the studies undermined the role and the influence of Slobodan Milošević for the birth, spread and institutionalisation of Serbian nationalism among the post-Yugoslav intellectuals and in Serbian public. This literature review based study which aims to revisit the literature is planned to categorise the analyses towards the source of nationalism in Serbia, adequate causality with the conflicts in the Balkans and the role of Milosevic into three main streams: (I) Milošević as the root cause for all, (II) The rise of nationalism and Milošević as the legacy of Tito's Yugoslavia, (III) nationalism as the outcome of Milošević's individual social psychology (life and cognition).

Keywords: Nationalism, Leadership, Slobodan Milošević , Serbia

Türkiyede Ticari Değeri Olan Yarı Değerli Taşlar Ekonomisi Ve Geleceği

Elif Baraz Gültekin

Özet: Yabancı literatürde “precious-stones” veya “gemstones” olarak adlandırılan kıymetli taşlar ya da süs taşları hem yaşamımızda hem de ekonomik olarak artan bir seyir izlemektedir. Doğal ortamda ya da kimyasal süreçlerden geçerek hazırlanır ve sayıları 200’den fazladır. Anadolu’da yaklaşık 5000 yıldan bu yana bilinen ve kullanılan bir ürün olmuştur.

Çalışmamızda yarı değerli taşların kullanıldığı alanlardan hareketle ekonomik değeri ve iç-dış pazardaki önemi tartışıldıktan sonra bu sektörün Türkiye’deki geleceği analitik bir yaklaşımla değerlendirilecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yarı Değerli Taşlar Ekonomisi, Türkiye Ekonomisi

Legal Protection Of The Black Sea Coast Of Bulgaria

Dr. Goldie Kushelieva

Abstract: The Black Sea coast is important for economic development and tourism of the Republic of Bulgaria. With the adoption in 2007 of the Law on the Black Sea coast (ZUCHK subsidiary application can find: Law on Environmental Protection (EPA - SG. 91 of 2002, amended. And suppl.), The Law on Spatial Planning (LSP - SG. 1 of 2001, amend. and suppl.) regional development Act (SG. 14 of 2004, amended. and suppl.), the Law on cadastre and property register (CPRA - SG. 34 of 2000, amended.), The water Act (WA - SG. 67 of 1999, amended. and suppl.), the Law on maritime spaces, inland waterways and ports of the Republic Bulgaria (LSSIWPRB - SG. 12 of 2000, amended. and suppl.) protected areas Act (PAA - SG. 133 of 1998, amended. and suppl.), the Law on biological diversity (LBD - SG. 77 of 2002, amended. and suppl.) concessions Act (CA - SG. 36 of 2006 - effective from 1.07.2006 amend. and suppl.) Act on waste management (WMA - SG. 53 of 2012, amended. and suppl.) health Act (PZ - SG. 70 of 2004 - effective from 1.01.2005 amend. and suppl.), the Law on Tourism (PA - SG. 30 of 2013 - effective from 03.26.2013 years), the Law on Access to Public Information Act (APIA - SG. 55 of 2000 amend. and suppl.), the Criminal Code (CC - SG. 26 of 1968, amended. and suppl.) and regulations thereunder.

Multi-Cultural Ethnic Structure in Balkan States, Minority Rights and Bulgaria

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Abstract: Throughout history the Balkan region, which was in the focus of various civilisations, was one of the most politically problematic regions in Europe. In order to reach warm waters and security, all major European countries have fought in Asia, East Mediterranean, South and Southeast for centuries. On the other hand the geographic location is the cause of the ethnic and cultural diversity of the region. This region hosts many cultures, languages, regions, and cosmopolitan nations. When social structures that exist in different nations are compared, it is seen that some cultures are more effective and dominant than others.

Religion was the most determinant factor in the concept of “Minority”, which surfaced for the first time in the 16. Century. Minority rights were first secured by the 1648 Vetsfelya Treaty and kept forming throughout 18. Century to until foreign groups to the home nations were started being called as “minority groups”. Starting from this period minority groups have become a problem for the multinational empires and ultimately cause legal problems. By the 19. Century treaties were made in order to protect minority ancestry, language and religion. In the 20. Century claims made by ethnic groups were the most important problem that multinational states. Both “United Nations” (1919) which formed after WW1, “Declaration of Universal Human Rights” (1948) helped protecting minorities cultural and political rights.

Unique characteristics of Balkans have changed the way local states see minorities and led the way for every state to form their own minority politics. Historical process and politic culture also have affected the state of minorities In Bulgaria. Being governed by a communist regime after a fascist one have played an important role in setting the situation of minorities in the country. The changes that Cold War brought to the Balkan states also affected Bulgaria, causing nationalism to be replaced by socialism officially. In the post 1989 era one of Bulgaria’s international politics aims was to become a EU member state, during the integration period EU has demanded minority rights to be improved. Since the start of its membership progress in 1st January 2007 Bulgaria started a process to modernise and improve minority rights.

Keywords: Balkans, Ethnic Structure, Minority Rights, Bulgaria

Challenges in University Quality Management posed by the new Bologna standards for quality assurance

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Abstract: The revised quality standards for higher education institutions in the European higher education area (EHEA) adopted by the ministers of Bologna signatory countries in Yerevan on May, 2015 have opened up new challenges to university organisation and management. The analysis is focused primarily on standard 3, requiring from universities to introduce learning outcomes approach in defining their programmes and curricula, as well as methods of teaching and assessment. The author considers some of the key factors influencing the university management and its ability to address the challenges typically associated with introducing the learning outcomes approach. She stresses the need for a well established quality framework, with clear links with the national qualifications framework in order for university to be able to manage with the new standards successfully. Comparison between well developed quality and qualifications frameworks with less developed ones support the argumentation and lay the ground for identification of practical ways for university managers to introduce institutional change and innovation in response to the new quality assurance standards.

Keywords: university, quality, management

Interest Rate Risk Management Using Economic Value Sensitivity Model

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Abstract: The article discusses the practical aspects of measuring and managing the interest rate risk by scenario analysis and sensitivity model. The model is constructed on already made an income gap or duration gap analysis. The basis of such model is forecasting, calculation and measurement of changes in the present value of bank assets, liabilities and off-balance sheet positions in various interest rate scenarios. The ultimate goal in modeling is the calculation of the expected economic value of the bank in different scenarios.

Keywords: interest rate risk, scenario analysis, sensitivity model, banks

Function of Packaging And Various Forms Of Labelling Currently Presented For Foodstuffs On Turkish Consumer's Purchase Decisions

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Abstract: The objective of this study was to establish if consumers understand the role of packaging and various forms of labelling currently presented on foodstuffs on Turkish consumer's purchase decisions. In the scope of this study, a survey has been conducted in İstanbul province among 270 randomly selected consumers with face to face interviews. The gained data has been evaluated with linear regression analysis using PASW 18.0 package program. The aim of this research is to examine the fundamental factors, which are driving the success of a brand and how these factors motivate the consumers while he/she involves in purchase decisions for any particular brands of foodstuffs. This research also identified the relationship between the dependent and independent variables who are main presenter in this whole purchase behaviour. Accommodated to the finding of these research, the main reasons consumers do consult foodstuffs labels, are to obtain information on the nutritional content, or to look for specific elements. Besides, it has been observed that the packaging and labelling are the most important factors for some foodstuffs. It is further make a decision that the packaging elements like it, packaging material, colour, design of wrapper and innovation are more important factors while consumers making any buying decision. Eventually it has also been terminated that the packaging is one of the most important and effective factor, which influences consumer's purchase decision.

Keywords: onsumer's purchase decision, packaging & labeling for foodstuffs, motivation, linear regression analysis

Firm Efficiency Measurement for Various Technology Groups

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Abstract: Efficiency has been important for the performance of a firm, in the last decades. Especially there are two main methodology for efficiency measurement. These methodologies are using parametric and non parametric methods. The most common techniques are Data Envelopment Analysis for non-parametric methods and Stochastic Frontier Analysis for parametric methods. Both techniques have their advantages or disadvantages. The choice of the technique depends on the purpose of the analysis and the structure of the data.

Firms have been classified in different ways. Legal structure, size, whether they are a member of an organization, are only a few of them. While firms are classified under different groups, according to their different characteristics, is it right to put on an analysis of accepting all of them are homogeneous? If all characteristics were the same, then we would not need grouping. Therefore, it will be more accurate to analyze the firm efficiency in different groups. This technique is called as Meta Frontier. In this research we try to examine the meta frontier methodology with an empirical example.

Key Words: BCC, CCR, CRS, Efficiency, Meta Frontier, VRS

Project Solutions Models And Algorithms In Artificial Intelligence

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Abstract: The development of the scientific direction for artificial intelligence necessitates develop of models and algorithms with practical significance for learning in universities. This article describes a research project in this topical field of computer science under the guidance of the author. The project is divided into several tasks. The first task is to develop improved algorithms for the control of mobile robots in the training of students in the course "Artificial Intelligence". The second is related to the experimental study of deployment options system of multimodal interface cycle labs with bachelor's degree in the discipline "Human-computer interfaces." Third task creates automated system for assessing student development by fuzzy sets and models for decision-making.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence, Research project, Robot, An intelligent robot control algorithm, Human-computer interfaces, Fuzzy sets, Automated assessment system

İlişki Pazarlaması Bileşenleri İle İmaj Ve Müşteri Sadakati Arasındaki İlişkilerin İncelenmesine Yönelik Bir Uygulama

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Özet: Bu çalışma ile ilişki pazarlaması bileşenleri, imaj ve müşteri sadakati arasındaki ilişki açıklanacaktır. Bu ilişkiyi ortaya koyabilmek için, araştırmaya GSM operatörlerini aktif bir şekilde kullanan 315 katılımcı dâhil edilmiştir. Veriler yüz yüze anket yöntemi ile toplanmıştır. Anket formu Türkiye'deki GSM sektörüne göre uyarlanmıştır. İfadeler “kesinlikle katılıyorum”dan “kesinlikle katılmıyorum”a kadar 5’li Likert ölçeği ile ölçülmüştür. Katılımcılardan elde edilen verilere, frekans analizi güvenilirlik ve regresyon analizleri, SPSS 23.0 istatistik programı kullanılarak uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, ilişki pazarlaması bileşenlerinden güven ile imaj arasında ve ilişki pazarlaması bileşenlerinden güven ve karşılıklılık ile müşteri sadakati arasında anlamlı ilişkiler olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İlişki Pazarlaması, imaj, müşteri sadakati, GSM sektörü.

An Application For The Relationships Between Relationship Marketing And Image And Customer Loyalty

Abstract: This research will examine the components of relationship marketing, image and customer loyalty and relationship between them. To reveal this relationship, 315 participants, who use the GSM operators actively, have been involved to research. Data generation will be collected through face to face interview method using the questionnaire. The questionnaire was adapted to the Turkish GSM Sector. All questions will be measured with 5 point Likert Scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The research results were analyzed by SPSS 23.0 statistical program and descriptive statistics, reliability analysis and regression analysis were done. According to the obtained results, it has been found to be significant relationships, between image and trust of relationship marketing dimensions; between customer loyalty and trust and reciprocity.

Keywords: Relationship marketing, image, customer loyalty, GSM Sector.

Economic Crisis and Agricultural Production

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Abstract: The economic crisis is a concept which defines the bottleneck experienced in an economy. However, the structure of economic crisis is not so simple as much as concept of it. Because, economy has strong relations with a number of external factors such as politics, social, environmental, cultural, etc. besides the internal factors. One of these factors is production. Production is both effective and affected factor on economic crises. In this study, we investigated the case of production is effected by economic crises. As sample case, we use agricultural production data of Turkey. In order to compare, we determined date of the internal and global crises. The analyses have covered the period between 1961 and 2007. During this period, there has been a correspondence between major economic, social and political activities in Turkey. However obtained findings manifest that it is hardly feasible to claim that periods of crisis are effective on agricultural production.

Keywords: Economic crises, agricultural product, crisis impact, macro economics

The Effect of Trust and Security on University Students' Mobile Payment Systems Acceptance

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Abstract: The increasing popularity of not only e-commerce but also m-commerce raise the need of new payment methods such as mobile payment. While researches show that potential customers'-young people- mobile payment services adoption rate is less than expected, there is a need for researches that aim to understand the factors of intention to use mobile payment systems. The purpose of this study is to understand how perceived trust and perceived security affect young people's intention to use mobile payment systems. Therefore, two new factors- perceived trust and perceived security- are added to original TAM.

Frequency tests, descriptive analyses, reliability analyses, factor analyses, correlation analysis, multi linear regression tests and difference tests were conducted in the study. As a results of factor analyses, three new factors -convenience and easiness, perceived trust to security, perceived trust to recovery- arise that affect behavioral intention to use mobile payment systems.

Keywords: Mobile commerce, Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Mobile payment systems

Possible Economic Reflections of Tekirdağ Asyaport Port on Thrace Region

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Abstract: Due to developments in the production and trade systems, globalization and increased competition, maritime transport has become a rapidly developing sector and its importance is increasing with each passing day in the world and Turkey. The factors that are significant for logistics sector like low cost, transport capacity and safety are the main reasons that maritime transport is more preferred against other types of transportation. Being the point of integration with the world economy, maritime transport, which is carrying out the largest portion of international trade all over the world as well as in Turkey, fulfills a very important function.

Thanks to its geo-strategic location, surrounded by sea on three sides and being on the important trade routes, Turkey has the potential and also has a huge advantage in terms of maritime transport and port operations. By being the main infrastructure of maritime transport, ports directly affect the development and effective use of maritime transport. Therefore ports are one of the subjects that Turkey needs to place importance in order to become a transit center and a global logistics power.

In this study, the possible economic reflections of Tekirdağ Asyaport port on Thrace region and the logistics sector in the future have been analyzed. Asyaport container port has been operating since June 2015 and has the capacity of 2.5 million container activities a year. In this context, data obtained through face to face interviews held with NGO managers in the region, businesses managers, Asyaport managers and local communities have been evaluated with SWOT analysis.

Keywords: Maritime transportation, Ports, Logistics