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THE IMPACT OF DIRECT FOREIGN INVESTMENTS ON EMPLOYMENT - THE CASE OF NORTH MACEDONIA

Bulent Dervish, Emrije Agai-Lochi page 9-16

ABSTRACT

The beginning of foreign direct investments into a country with the capital enables the entry of new technology. Yet, with the production of foreigners in the country on the one hand reduces the dependence on the other, ie imports, on the other hand increases the export capacity of the country. Foreign investors' operating in the country, means the establishment of new companies and the creation of new business areas.

North Macedonia is the lowest cost per worker in the region. In order to attract foreign investments, Northern Macedonia has minimized the social security shares paid to the worker. However, the introduction of new investments has been encouraged by reducing the cost of social security and tax, which is financially burden for foreign and domestic investors.

Revenues and institutions are among the conveniences applied to encourage foreign investors, tax exemptions and discounts, rawage imports and other customs duties, and regulations in the labor market.

When we look at Northern Macedonia, especially between 2007 and 2020, foreign investors have provided many convenience to ensure that foreign investments enter the country.

In recent years, a noticeable increase has been achieved in foreign investments. In the face of all these developments, the activities of foreign companies in the country, whether directly dependent on production or in the service sector, increased the employment and reduced unemployment. According to the data of the Macedonian Statistical Institute, the unemployment rate in the country in 2010 was approximately 37 percent, while in 2021, this rate decreased to 15 percent. Although the decrease in unemployment is attributed to foreign investments, especially the policies of the fight against unemployment implemented by the government.

Keywords: Foreign Investments, Employment, Unemployment.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In open economies, when goods and services demanded within the country cannot be met by local production they are met with imports from abroad. The import-export imbalance adversely affects the foreign deficit, the current and the balance of payments, and the overall economy. The lack of capital and technology in developing countries restrains local entrepreneurs from investing. Generally, such countries as a way out look for a solution in foreign investments.

While making an investment decision, the investor has to evaluate many criterias. The political and economic stability of the country plays an important role in evaluating the country to be invested in. In addition, the opportunities and incentives provided by countries to foreign investors, especially labor costs, are effective in investment decision making.

The country's economy is dependent on foreign capital investments due to the closure of SEEs from the former Yugoslavia and the closure of the state's capital accumulation to open new factories. For this reason, governments apply policies such as low tax rates, investment incentives, free zone incentives, low labor costs to foreign investors in order to increase the production capacity in the country and to reach new investments.

2. UNEMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT POLICIES OF NORTH MACEDONIA

The main source of economic problems is that the production came to a standstill as a result of the state economic enterprises that were closed in the first years of independence and the structural unemployment that emerged as a result. For nearly three decades, the North Macedonian economy has been struggling with high unemployment. While the unemployment rate in the country was 36 percent in the early 2000s, as of 2021it was 15.7 percent.

The government of North Macedonia has implemented the policies to increase employment in OECD countries and has taken steps that directly affect employment, such as vocational training for the

unemployed, subsidies for self-employment, and financial support for the employment of existing companies. Macedonia has put these policies into practice since 2007. The number of people using programs to increase employment between 2007 and 2021 has increased every year.

Apart from the above-mentioned policies, the government of North Macedonia is among the direct and indirect policies to combat unemployment in order to solve the unemployment problem and increase employment, including the reduction of taxes paid per worker.

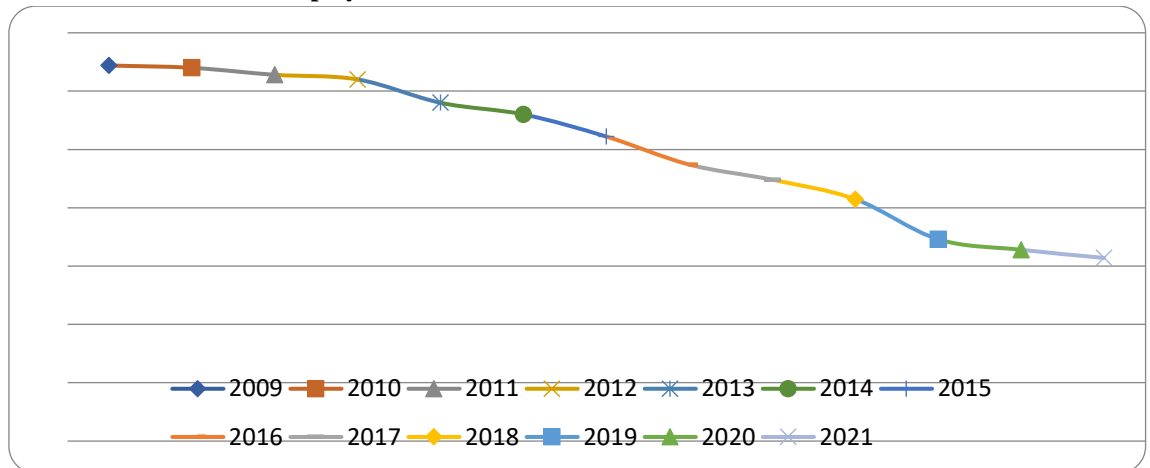
While the main purpose of reducing the taxes paid per worker is to reduce unemployment, the government of North Macedonia does this indirectly by reducing the tax cost paid to the worker, which is a burden on foreign and domestic investors, and to accelerate the increase in employment by both opening new workplaces and increasing the demand for workers by increasing the scale of existing companies. The table below describes the social security and tax rates paid per worker after 2008, 2009-2018 and 2019.

TABLE 1: Social Security and Tax Rates Paid Per Worker

(% SHARE ON GROSS SALARY)			
	2008	2009-2018	2019
Pension and disability insurance	21.2	18	18.4
Health insurance	9.2	7.3	7.4
Unemployment insurance	1.6	0.5	1.2
Additional health insurance	0.5	1.2	0.5
TOTAL	32.5	27	27.5

**Source: Ministry of Finance of the Republic of North Macedonia
Ministry of Labor and Social Policies of the Republic of North Macedonia**

FIGURE 1: Unemployment Rate in North Macedonia



3. DIRECT FOREIGN INVESTMENTS

Direct foreign investment is the acquisition of a company in a country, providing the founding capital for a newly established company or increasing the capital of an existing company, made by companies located in that country to companies located in another country, together with technology, business knowledge and it is an investment that brings with it the investor's control authority (Karluk, Foreign Investments in Turkey, 1983, p.14). According to the OECD, foreign capital is the share of the foreign investor in the company's retained earnings and reinvested earnings, the foreign investor's purchase of shares and debt securities from the parent company through cash and the same capital, the foreign investor's purchases of machinery and production rights from the company, and commercial and other loans provided by the foreign investor. (S.Rıdvan Karluk, Türkiye's Economy, p. 640.).

The fact that foreign investors is active in the country means the establishment of new business areas and new companies. Macedonia has the lowest cost per worker in the region. In order to attract foreign investments, North Macedonia has reduced the social security shares paid to the worker to a minimum. Corporate and income tax from 15%; was reduced to 12% in 2007 and to 10% in 2008, making it the lowest tax in the region and even in Europe. With this measure, it is aimed to increase the foreign investments, to ensure the economic growth and to reduce the unemployment rate.

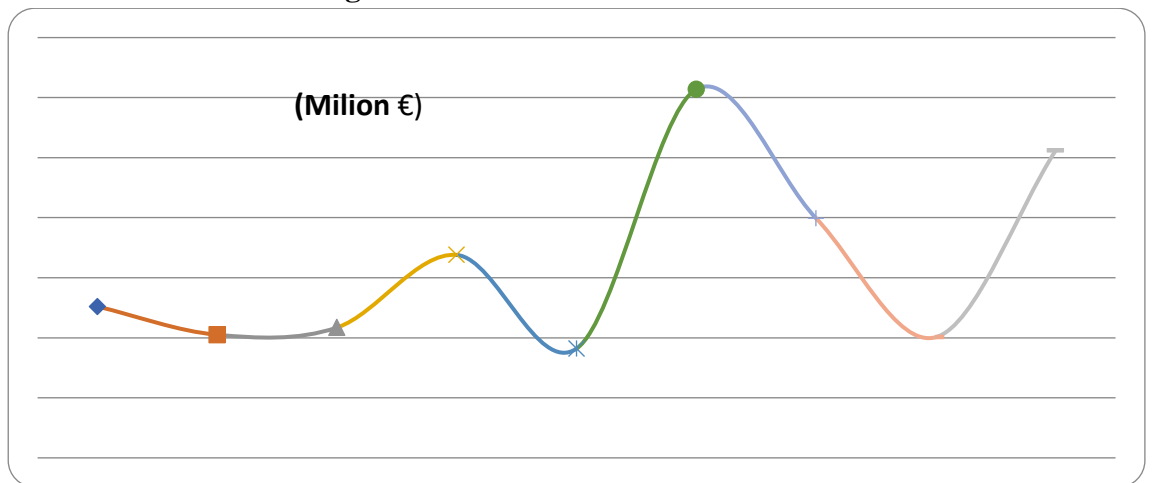
Tablo 2. Doing Business 2019 raporuna göre iş kurma / yapma sıralamasında K. Makedonya Table 2. North Macedonia in starting / doing business According to Doing Business 2019 report

Ease of Doing Business	Business Setup	Construction Permits	Getting electricity service connected	Real estate registration	Getting a Loan	Protection of low share partners	paying taxes	Foreign trade	Contract Performance	Bankruptcy Order
10	47	13	57	46	12	7	31	29	37	30

Source: <https://www.doingbusiness.org/>

According to the Doing Business 2019 report; North Macedonia ranked 10th out of 190 countries in terms of ease of doing business. In this respect, North Macedonia is the most successful country in the Balkans. However, as a result of the political crisis that broke out in the country in 2017, the inability to form a government for a long time caused those who wanted to invest in the country to review their decisions. In addition to the political crisis, the new government's withdrawal of commercial attachments that were previously active in attracting investors in many countries of the world and promoting North Macedonia and abandoning this practice, and the acceleration of reforms by neighboring countries to attract investors, caused foreign investors to go to other countries in the region. As a result, foreign direct investments that wanted to enter the country could not gain a stable course.

Tutarı FIGURE 1: Foreign Investment Amount in North Macedonia



4. CONCLUSION AND EVALUATION

In order to attract foreign investments, North Macedonia has reduced social security shares paid to workers to a minimum. As of 2020, the average gross monthly wage in North Macedonia was 43,509 Macedonian Denars (710 Euros), while the average net monthly wage was 29,130 Macedonian Denars (475 Euros). The minimum wage is 18,000 Macedonian Denars (293 Euros).

Despite the fact that North Macedonia is unrivaled in the region in terms of social security plays paid to workers and costs per worker, it cannot be said that it has had a great impact when looking at foreign investments entering the country. When we look at the cause and effect relationship, it is seen that foreign investments in North Macedonia do not increase despite low labor costs, in short, the sensitivity is low, on the other hand, as a result of the entry of foreign investors, employment increases in the country and the unemployment rate decreases.

In general, in the period of 2009-2021, the activities of foreign companies in the country, whether directly related to production or in the service sector, showed a tendency to decrease unemployment while increasing employment. According to the data of the North Macedonia statistical institution, while the unemployment rate in the country was 37 percent in 2010, this rate decreased to 15.7 percent in 2021. Although the decrease in unemployment is attributed to foreign investments, there is also the effect of the government's policies to combat unemployment.

The most important criterion for foreign investors to invest in a country is to create an environment of stability and trust. Although developing countries such as North Macedonia have reduced their investment costs (such as tax exemption or low tax rates, costs per worker, land allocation) in order to attract foreign investors and have taken important steps in this regard, political and economic stability and an environment of trust, as well as a well-functioning justice, legal and as long as there are problems in areas such as the judicial system, bureaucracy, ease of institutional and administrative procedures, investors will be less likely to prefer that country.

Finally, the economy of North Macedonia, which is a country with insufficient production power and capital and open to imports, has to

ensure economic growth and development due to foreign investments and privatization in order to improve basic economic performances such as eliminating the import-export imbalance and creating new job opportunities. As a matter of fact, until the beginning of the 2000s, after independence, almost all of the state-owned enterprises from the former Yugoslavia were privatized for scrap prices and their closed factories were not opened, and production came to a halt and tens of thousands of people became unemployed. In addition to labor and investment cost reforms, long-term state policies and fifteen-year economic development models regardless of governments, in case of providing an environment of political, economic and financial trust for foreign investors, both in terms of location and customs union with the EU, to which North Macedonia is a party, and As a result of bilateral free trade agreements, it will be much easier to attract foreign investments to the country.

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CHILDHOOD OBESITY AND PREVENTION

Havva Saban, Yasemin Saban, page 17-30

ABSTRACT

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines childhood obesity as one of the most serious public health problems of the 21st century. In its simplest definition, obesity is an increase in excessive fat accumulation in the body in a way that impairs health. If the energy taken with food is more than the energy spent, the excess energy is stored as fat in the body and causes obesity. Obesity has negative effects on all systems and psychological states in the body, and these effects cause many health problems. Childhood obesity is a serious medical condition that affects children and adolescents. Being healthy is not limited to the physical well-being of the child. At the same time, the child's psychological well-being is a condition that creates a whole with the development of a positive self-perception about himself. Preventing obesity is crucial to the health and well-being of children. Prevention of obesity in children can achieve with parents' conscious and active participation.

In this study, childhood obesity and its precautions were compiled by researching various publications.

Keywords: Childhood Obesity, Parent, Prevention

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Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines childhood obesity as one of the most serious public health problems of the 21st century.

Obesity, derived from the Latin word "**obese**," means fat or well-nourished. Obesity has symbolized power, might, splendor, wealth, and even beauty in different periods and regions.

However, the fact that it has become an increasingly common health problem in the last 10-15 years and that there are premature deaths due to medical complications has made obesity an issue that needs to emphasize. (Tedik, 2017)

To grow, develop and lead a healthy and productive life for a long time, a person must take the necessary nutrients in sufficient and balanced amounts and use them in the body. If the energy taken with food is more than the energy spent, the excess energy is stored as fat in the body and causes obesity.

The main cause of obesity is the imbalance between energy intake (calories) and energy expenditure. Diseases caused by the body's increased fat mass negatively affect the person's quality of life. According to the World Health Organization, obesity is an abnormal or excessive fat accumulation that impairs health (WHO).

Obesity is seen only in developed countries but has started to be seen frequently in developing countries today. The reasons for this include the following:

- Increasing income level.
- Adoption of a western lifestyle.
- Changes in eating habits.
- Decreasing energy consumption with growing technology. (Şengönül , Arancıoğlu, Maviş, & Ergüden, 2019)

Obesity is one of the most important and widespread health problems of the 21st century. According to the World Health Organization 2016 data, there are 1.9 billion overweight and 650 million obese individuals over the age of 18 worldwide. In 2020, 39 million children under 5 were

overweight or obese. The worldwide prevalence of obesity nearly tripled between 1975 and 2016. (WHO)¹

Obesity Diagnosis

A measurement method called body mass index (BMI) determines obesity. BMI is acquired by dividing the person's weight in kilograms by the square of their height in meters (BMI=kg/m²).

World Health Organization defines BMI as those with a BMI equal to or above 25 are overweight, and with a BMI equal to or above 30 are obese. Deaths from heart diseases increase fourfold, especially in cases with a BMI above 30.

A major shortcoming of BMI is that it does not provide an idea of body fat distribution, which is associated with the most important complications of obesity. BMI percentile curves prepare according to age and gender use in children. Children at 85-95 percent are overweight, and those above 95 percent are obese.

Obesity is seen more physiologically at the ages when rapid fat deposition occurs. In childhood, obesity increases in the first year of life, between the ages of 5-6, and puberty. Obesity gains in the preschool period tend to continue in later periods and adulthood. (Avşaroğlu, 2015:72) However, the rate of obesity in preschool age is increasing all over the world. (Inal & Şahiner, 2012)

Childhood obesity does not just affect physical health. Childhood obesity is a serious medical condition that affects children and teenagers. Childhood obesity is also reflected in adulthood and causes significant problems. Children and teens who are overweight or obese can become depressed and have poor self-image and self-esteem.

Childhood obesity is very important for two reasons. The first is that childhood obesity can lead to many metabolic and chronic diseases in the early years of life. The second is that the psychological problems in obese children can cause these children to experience a lack of self-confidence

¹ <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight>

and adaptation problems even at advanced ages. (Turkish Society of Endocrinology and Metabolism (TEMMD), 2018).

Being healthy is not limited to the physical well-being of the child. At the same time, the child's psychological well-being is a condition that creates a whole with the development of a positive self-perception about himself.

The literature has reported that one or both parents being obese increases childhood obesity. There is a positive correlation between situations of forcing the child to eat food on the plate and the frequency of going to fast-food restaurants with childhood obesity. (Inal & Şahiner, 2012)

According to the research findings, the percentage of obesity increases as the sleep duration gets shorter. It shows that shortening sleep time and staying awake for a longer period also causes weight gain by causing more food.²Akt. (Yılmazbaş & Gökçay, 2018)

Obesity causes early development in children. Their bone development and height are ahead of their peers. For this reason, puberty symptoms appear at earlier ages, and their growth is complete before their peers.

Due to the results of today's technology, Children, expected to spend their free time playing in the garden or on the street, spend this time in front of the television, computer, or tablet. Obesity is a serious public health problem that needs to prevent. (Güler, Cabar, Altay, & Gönener, 2009) Children need 3-4 hours of physical activity and social interaction to develop healthily. Watching television has been defined as an important behavior related to weight and obesity in children. (Hancox & Poulton, 2006)

Obesity Causes

Many factors can be effective in the formation of obesity. These are genetic, environmental factors, psychological and behavioral factors. In addition, a sedentary lifestyle and an unhealthy diet are among these factors.

Genetic: Obesity in the family causes obesity in the child. In studies on obesity and genetic factors, the incidence of obesity in children with both

² Hart CN, carskadon MA, Considine RV, et al. Chnages in children's sleep duration on food intake, weight, and leptin. *Pediatrics* 2013;132:1473

parents being obese was 80%, 50% in those whose one parent was obese, and 9% in those whose both parents were not obese. (Babaoğlu & Hatun, 2002)

Environmental factors: Among the environmental factors in childhood obesity are the family's diet and lack of activation. The prevalence of obesity is higher in children who watched television for more than 4 hours compared to children who watched television for one or less than 1 hour. Consuming high-calorie foods while watching television for a long time increases obesity even more.³

Behavioral factors: Eating crises occur in the child due to the traumas caused by the developmental conflict with the parents in the child's early years. This situation reveals the symptoms of either overeating or completely avoiding food in the individual over time.

The emergence of excessive eating behavior, Inability to fulfill the responsibilities of the individual, anxiety, miscommunication in peer relations, and emotional violence cause inconsistent emotional crises with their parents. (Deleş, 2019)

It is accepted that there is a relationship between obesity and psychological factors. The uncertain home environment, negative relationships within the family, and the child's living apart from the mother or father negatively affect the child's mental health. (Aksoy, Oğur, & Kendilci, 2016)

Another factor in the development of obesity is the way of nutrition in infancy. It has been reported that the incidence of obesity and breastfeeding is lower in children fed with breast milk than in children not breastfed. The duration of breastfeeding, the type, amount, and time of onset of complementary foods also affect the development of obesity. (Kayar & Utku, 2013)

Another factor that causes obesity is the "energy" imbalance. What is meant by energy imbalance is that the calorie intake exceeds the calorie expenditure because of the change in the eating habits of the individuals. Other main factors affecting and causing obesity apart from caloric imbalance are excessive and wrong nutrition and lack of physical activity. (Sipahi, 2020)

³ Ibid

Causes of Childhood Obesity:

- Excess calorie intake: drinking carbonated-calorie beverages (cola, soda, fruit juice) instead of calcium-rich foods such as milk and yogurt.
- Less consumption of fibrous foods (legumes, vegetables, fruits) that keep you full, digest slowly, and facilitate bowel movements.
- Excessive consumption of sugary and fatty foods (chips, French fries, wafers, chocolate, candies).
- Increasing fast-food-style ready-to-eat food (pizza, hamburger, bread break)
- Skipping meals and eating excessive amounts at other meals.
- Encouraging the consumption of caloric foods and carbonated-sweetened beverages on TV through advertisements.
- Spending time in front of the TV and computer instead of playing outside (in the meantime, consuming snacks).
- Use of elevator-escalator instead of stairs.
- Children's inability to spare time for sports due to constant exams, classrooms, homework, more food consumption due to stress.⁴

According to the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, obesity seen in children and adolescents is mostly caused by bad eating habits, overeating, lack of activity, having an obese person in the family, stressful life events such as medical illness, drugs, separation from family or divorce of parents, family, and peers. It has been reported to be associated with problems, depression, or other mental problems.⁵(AACAP)

⁴ Dyt. Şule Perk Kuru

https://manavgatram.meb.k12.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/07/12/970601/dosyalar/2016_02/24091120_obezte.pdf

⁵ https://www.aacap.org/AACAP/Families_and_Youth/Facts_for_Families/FFF-Guide/Obesity-In-Children-And-Teens-079.aspx

Parents' Child Feeding Behaviors and Obesity

Many studies have shown that parents' behaviors influence their children's eating behaviors, food choices, and consumption. (Golan ve Crow, 2004).

Preschool is a period in which many habits form the basis for adulthood, including all kinds of warnings and activities that provide the child's emotional, social, mental, and physical development, covering the period from birth to 6 years old. Therefore, in addition to supporting all developmental stages, it is also important to gain healthy eating habits.

The family's eating preferences, the types of food at home, and the way of eating affect obesity. In addition, it has been reported that a strong relationship exists between the child's breastfeeding period, physical activity, and the use of television/media and obesity. (Inal & Şahiner, 2012)

The parents' feeding style is closely related to the children's eating behavior and is one of the important factors determining the eating behavior. It is stated that a virtual sense of pleasure develops, and there is an increase in the emotional eating tendency in children who are given food as a reward when eating education is provided in childhood.⁶Akt. (Özer, ve diğerleri, 2014)

Scientific circles agree that we should not use food to reward or control negative moods. (Beşikçi, 2010)

When we look at the psychological dimension of obesity, especially in young girls, self-esteem decreases, causing social isolation, anxiety, and depression. (Yılmazbaş & Gökçay, 2018)

How parents perceive their children's weight status is very important in shaping their children's eating behaviors.

The body perception and psychological functionality of children and adolescents who encounter the cynical attitudes of their mothers or fathers due to their weight are affected. And especially mothers' comments

⁶ Meyer JE, Pudel V. Experimental studies on food intake in obese and normal weight subjects. *J Psychosom Res* 1972;16:305-8

strongly affect girls' concerns about gaining weight and their attempts to lose weight. (Avşaroğlu, 2015:72)

Bad body image can trigger eating disorders. One of them is "**binge eating disorder.**"

In this disorder, there is repetitive overeating and an inability to restrain oneself quickly. Many reasons lead a child to overeat, such as the acquisition of bad eating habits in the family from early childhood, the wrong attitudes of parents about nutrition, the use of food as a reward or punishment, the lack of the habit of eating at the same table for all family members, and the use of junk food to silence the child. (Akıncı, ve diğerleri)

The first of the feeding behaviors that parents often show is to pressure the child to eat (*pressure to eat*), and this behavior includes behaviors such as forcing the child to finish the food on his plate or to consume certain foods. The second is the restricted behavior of the child's eating (*restriction*). It means preventing the child from consuming certain foods. (Birch ve ark., 2001). And the third behavior is to monitor what the child eats (*monitoring*). And means to be aware of where, when, how much, and what the child eats.⁷Akt. (Müren & Yasin, 2021) All these behaviors are associated with body mass index and obesity risk in childhood and later periods in various studies. (Faith ve ark., 2004b; Rodgers ve ark., 2013)

Studies have shown that an authoritative/democratic parenting style is associated with more healthy food consumption and a lower risk of obesity in children compared to other parenting styles. (Chen ve Kennedy, 2004; Kremers ve ark., 2003; Sleddens ve ark., 2011) Akt. (Müren & Yasin, 2021)For example, it has been determined that individuals who define their parents as "authoritative/democratic parents" in adolescence consume more fruit and have a more positive attitude towards fruit consumption than individuals raised with other parenting styles. (Kremers, Brug, Vries, & Engels, 2003)

⁷ Birch, L. L., & Davison, K. K. (2001). Family environmental factors influencing the developing behavioral controls of food intake and childhood overweight. *Pediatric Clinics*, 48(4), 893-907. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-3955\(05\)70347-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-3955(05)70347-3)

Health Problems Caused by Obesity

Obesity has negative effects on all systems in the body and the psychological state, and these effects cause many health problems. It is known that excess weight and obesity cause respiratory system disorders—cardiovascular diseases, and high blood pressure increase in overweight and obese people. Fat accumulates on the chest and abdominal walls due to being overweight, and obesity restricts respiratory movements. In addition, the rate of carbon dioxide in the blood increases in obese individuals, making people inclined to sleep. (Tedik, 2017)

Obesity causes early development in children. It causes diseases such as cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, and diabetes to appear in childhood. Blood fats and cholesterol levels increase. Skin infections may develop with an increase in subcutaneous adipose tissue. Orthopedic problems such as flat feet and curvature of the legs are frequently observed. Walking is delayed. Difficulty in breathing is common. Fat accumulation in the breast area (gynecomastia) is seen in boys. (Avşaroğlu, 2015:72)

Obesity Treatment

Preventing obesity is crucial to children's health and well-being. Prevention of obesity in children can only be achieved with parents' conscious and active participation. An obesity prevention strategy should start early in life, and mothers should be encouraged to breastfeed for at least six months.

Scientific studies have shown that breastfeeding prevents obesity early and in adulthood. In addition, studies have shown that breastfed babies develop self-regulation skills in feeding and prevent overfeeding. It has been determined that breastfed babies learn to control milk intake better, whereas bottle feeding has a limiting effect on this skill. (Erkuran & Karadeniz, 2019)

Obesity treatment aims to reduce the morbidity and mortality risks related to obesity, to give the individual a healthy and balanced diet, and to increase the quality of life.

For a successful treatment, first, one must determine the causes of obesity correctly, and good teamwork is necessary. Working with a pediatrician, psychiatrist (Child and Adolescent), dietitian, and, if possible, sports

physician in treating obese children will increase treatment adherence and provide good results. Apart from teamwork, another way to facilitate treatment adherence is dietary regulation, psychological support, and physical activity. In addition, one should establish cooperation with family, friends, and teachers to create permanent and positive behavioral changes. (Bülbül, 2019)

Diet: A balanced and low-calorie diet is applied. Physicians, families, and dietitians should cooperate in treating obese children.

The nutrition list, which will be prepared by the dietitian according to the child's age, gender, and daily exercise level, with appropriate calories and content, is explained in detail to the patient and the family. While preparing the diet list, the number of calories to be given is determined according to the goals taken. Diets that slow weight gain is preferred rather to weight loss diets. This way, it aims to reach the ideal weight as the child grows. (İşlek, 2018)

Exercise: Diet and exercise are complementary to each other. World Health Organization: stated that energy metabolism is balanced with regular physical activity in maintaining body weight and that physical activity is an important part of the energy cycle. Lack of physical activity is one of the most important causes of obesity. (Lubrano, ve diğerleri, 2003)

Regular physical activity has many well-documented health benefits and disease prevention properties, including the ability to help individuals maintain energy balance and prevent weight gain.

Behavioral Treatment: Behavioral approaches aim to change the eating habits, activities, and ways of thinking of obese patients. The basis of behavioral techniques lies in the self-discipline of the individual. Again, one of the most important goals of behavioral approaches is to give patients the habit of regular physical activity. (Babaoğlu & Hatun, 2002)

Obesity treatment is difficult. Therefore, the easiest way is prevention. In protection, the 5-2-0-1 rule is the easiest way to recommend children. These are:

- Five or more vegetables and fruits
- Less than 2 hours sitting in front of the TV/computer

- 1-at least 1 hour of movement a day and
- 0-sugar drink (drink low-fat milk or water instead).

The important thing is not to treat obesity well but to prevent obesity. (Bülbul, 2019)

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In its simplest definition, obesity is an increase in excessive fat accumulation in the body in a way that impairs health. If the energy taken with food is more than the energy spent, the excess energy is stored as fat in the body and causes obesity. Obesity has negative effects on all systems and psychological states in the body, and these effects cause many health problems. Childhood obesity is a serious medical condition that affects children and adolescents. Childhood obesity is reflected in adulthood and causes significant problems. Many studies have shown that parents' behaviors influence their children's eating behaviors, food choices, and consumption. Preventing obesity is crucial to the health and well-being of children. Being healthy is not limited to the physical well-being of the child. At the same time, the child's psychological well-being is a condition that creates a whole with the development of a positive self-perception about himself.

Prevention of obesity in children can only be achieved with parents' conscious and active participation. Family members should be good role models for children regarding nutrition and physical activity.

Should eat regular breakfast, lunch, and dinner meals should not be skipped. Should do light to moderate physical activity (brisk walking, running, jumping rope, cycling, dancing) for 30-60 minutes daily. The time spent inactive in front of the television and computer tablet should be limited to two hours per day. Eating in front of the screen should be stopped. Should prevent exposure to television advertisements for food, drink, and junk food.

Recommendation:

- Family members should be good role models for children regarding nutrition and physical activity.
- It is important to take care to eat together regularly.

- Having rules about nutrition, screen time, use of social media and physical activity in the family and preventing eating in front of the screen are important factors in preventing obesity.
- Should inform children about nutrition.
- Should provide safe and accessible environments for physical activity so children of all ages can participate.
- Physical education classes should be increased in schools.

It is very important to provide psychological support along with the physical activity. In addition, it should ensure cooperation with family, friends, and teachers to create permanent and positive behavioral changes.

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ANXIETY DISORDER AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN ADOLESCENTS

Muedin Kahveci, Tuna Tüner, page 31-47

ABSTRACT

Adolescence is when the individual develops and changes physically and spiritually, which begins after childhood. The individual started forming his ideas and thoughts and tried establishing his independence and identity in this period. In this process, the individual grows physically with her biological development and tries to understand her sexist identity with her sexual story. Because she has passed into the abstract period, she also forms her cognitive development. In adolescence, the period when all these developments are experienced, the individual is to gain and create his own identity. With the psychological effect of changes, adolescents are in stress and anxiety. As the state of anxiety causes positive situations in adolescents, this anxiety in which the physical and mental balance cannot establish causes psychological-based disorders. Anxiety disorder is one of them. Anxiety disorder occurs due to genetics, drugs, stress, and chemical substance use. It is a mental and physical disorder that the individual shapes without any relation to reality, has consequences on the adolescent, and affects the development and life functioning of the adolescent. These are panic attack disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, social anxiety disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and separation anxiety disorder. Conditions such as the adolescent's not continuing his education, his family's attitude, and the adolescent's personality traits affect this situation.

Keywords: adolescence, anxiety disorders, anxiety.

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INTRODUCTION

Anxiety defines as the individual's feeling of incompleteness in the environment, the uneasiness or inner apprehension caused by fear in this process, the emotional state that does not make the individual feel good, and the reaction he will show against the dangers he will face. (Akduman, 2014). Anxiety arises from the unconscious individual's interpretation of objects in their way and seeing them as threats. (Öztürk, 1981). The person experiences constant inner uneasiness independent of external events and phenomena, interprets them differently and perceives them as a threat to herself, and therefore is constantly on the alert, causing anxiety to complicate the individual's life. In the case of anxiety, the individual has a general state of worry and gives mental and physical reactions. While these anxiety states sometimes show very mild symptoms, they sometimes occur at a level that affects the functional competence of the individual. (Tükel, 2006). In the periods when anxiety is most intense, symptoms that tire the individual physically and mentally are observed. These concerns emerge because the individual cognitively miscodes events and objects. (Köroğlu, 2011).

Many experts have made many definitions on topics such as the definition of anxiety, its causes, and its emergence. According to Cannon, anxiety is an effort to adapt to threatening events that will disrupt the physical balance of the individual. On the other hand, Goldstein explained that the factor that causes the emergence of anxiety is that the individual's current abilities are different from what they should be or what is expected from the individual, as a state of incompatibility. (Geçtan, 1978). Freud stated that the emergence of anxiety is due to suppressed libido. Moreover, he says that conflicts occur in different personality processes and cause anxiety. According to Freud, pressure consists of three types. These; are ego-based realistic anxiety, id-based neurotic anxiety, and superego-based moral anxiety. (Snowden, 2013, Akt: Şahin, 2019).

Anxiety also helps to create a reaction against danger and prepare the individual against it in situations that the individual deems dangerous. This situation is closely related to the individual's cognitive dominance and bodily integrity. It can have positive effects as well as negative effects. Since the anxiety process is stimulating to the individual, it can show performances above the individual situation. In the negative case, it also

affects the developmental process of the individual. Since anxiety disorder impairs functionality in the individual, it forces the individual's functioning and flow of life and causes problems. (Toluç, 2020).

Anxiety disorders occur when the state of anxiety becomes permanent in the individual's life and affects the individual from physiological and psychological aspects. More than one anxiety disorder has been defined under anxiety disorders. In DSM-5 are the categories of anxiety disorders that negatively affect the individual and disrupt his life. Anxiety disorders are generalized anxiety disorder, selective mutism, specific phobia, social anxiety disorder, panic attack disorder, agoraphobia, separation anxiety, substance/drug-induced anxiety disorder, anxiety disorder due to another health condition, and other specified anxiety disorders, an unspecified anxiety disorder. (Kafes, 2021)

CAUSES OF ANXIETY

There are many reasons for the emergence of anxiety. An individual's feeling weak, perceiving events and facts as a threat to himself, being under stress, and feeling helpless in the face of events cause anxiety. Anxiety disorder defines as the continuity of this situation and the negative impact on the individual's life. The causes of anxiety differ from person to person. However, as a result of the research, good causes of stress in all societies were determined. These; include internal conflict, withdrawal of support, uncertainty, and waiting for a bad outcome. (Cüceloğlu, 2007; McKenzie, 2006). Again, Freud stated in his studies that the definition of anxiety emerged as a result of sexual inhibitions. On the other hand, according to psychoanalytic theorists, anxiety results from the individual's internal conflicts. Definitions of anxiety are generally caused by the inability to keep internal stress and worries in cognitive and behavioral balance. Behaviorist theorists describe anxiety as what the individual sees and learns from their environment and sees their family as a role model. According to cognitive theorists, it is not events or facts but how the individual understands them. According to the biological understanding, it is explained as the emergence of symptoms such as accelerated heartbeat and breathing and increased blood pressure with the growth of sympathetic activity in the individual's nervous system. (Özpoyraz, 2005, Snowden, 2013).

Another study on anxiety explained that anxiety stems from childhood life. The individual's environment and the attitudes and thoughts of the people he is within social relations have also been shown to cause concern. (Geçtan, 2019).

As a result of studies on anxiety disorder, it has been explained that there are many causes. The generally accepted reasons are;

- **Genetics:** the presence of psychological or mental disorders in the parents or close relatives of the individual increases the risk of developing an anxiety disorder.
- **Neurochemical changes:** There are chemical interactions between nerve cells in the brain. In the absence of this chemical interaction, an anxiety disorder occurs in the individual.
- **Stress:** The primary condition that causes anxiety disorder is stress. The stress factor the individual encounters during the day with his family, friends, or work life is the cause of anxiety disorder.
- **Some chronic diseases:** Chronic diseases that the individual has experienced cause anxiety. Diseases such as diabetes, heart, lung, chronic pain, tumors, and asthma are diseases that cause anxiety disorders. These diseases, which are recurrent and occur at any time, are risk factors for anxiety disorder.
- **Medications:** medications used by the individual for a long time cause anxiety as a side effect (medicalpark.com).

THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF SYMPTOMS SEEN IN ANXIETY AND FEAR

As a result of the research, similarities and differences detect between fear and anxiety. The cause of fear is known. Fear emerges as an emotion accepted by everyone. Anxiety is an individual situation that occurs according to the individual's feelings and thoughts. Anxiety is a phenomenon that is unique to the personal and does not create the same sense for everyone. On the other hand, fear is more severe in development and takes a shorter time as a process. It starts with the existence of the phenomenon that will cause the individual to be afraid and ends with the disappearance of this phenomenon. In anxiety, the situation is different. Anxiety is a concept that is less severe than fear, but its effect lasts longer

than fear. Since fear has judgments everyone accepts, the reactions given in the fear process are normal for everyone. Still, because the anxiety process is special, not everyone is met with the same responses. The normal reaction of the individual to the fear process of others provides the individual with the motivation to defend against the feared event. While fear comes from momentary events and gives the individual the right to protect himself consciously, anxiety leaves the individual in a state of constant uneasiness because it comes from the individual's past life. Fear leaves the individual vulnerable, as it may not be due to the event but to be in thought. (Şahin ve Seven, 2020).

WHAT IS ADOLESCENCE?

Adolescence is when the individual develops and changes physically and spiritually, which begins after childhood. The individual started forming his ideas and thoughts and tried to establish his independence and identity in this period. In this process, the individual grows physically with her biological development and tries to understand her sexist identity with her sexual story. Because she has passed into the abstract period, she also forms her cognitive development. In adolescence, the period when all these developments are experienced, the individual is to gain and create his own identity. Adolescence is the transition period to adulthood, the period of preparation for adulthood. (Parlaz ve ark., 2018). Adolescence consists of three phases. These are early adolescence, middle adolescence, and late adolescence. The early adolescence period, the beginning stage, covers the ages of 12-14. During this period, the adolescent tries to understand and adapt to his rapidly developing body and spiritual changes. Adolescents start thinking and discussing political and philosophical issues during this period, as there is a transitional phase from concrete thought to abstract thought. Gender identity develops during this period. Peer communication and togetherness gain importance for adolescents and family communication remains in the background. The middle adolescence period covers the ages of 15-18. Adolescents are very fond of their independence and freedom during this period. He tries to impose himself and his thoughts on his family. In this process, he has conflicts with his family. This situation may negatively affect the adolescent's self-concept. Bilateral relations gain importance in this period. Adolescents need to know what their peers think about them during this period. The late adolescence period begins at 18 and ends with the adolescent forming

his own identity. Adolescents try to form their identities within the framework of social and psychological situations. If the adolescent can answer questions such as "who am I" in this period, it is explained as having completed his identity development; if he cannot, this shows that the adolescent is in identity confusion that can continue until adulthood. During this period, the adolescent can establish close relationships and choose a spouse and job. During this period, moral and cognitive development increases. Also, late adulthood is called early adulthood. (Derman, 2008).

Due to spiritual development during adolescence, emotions increase; because of this increase, contradictions in feelings and thoughts are seen in adolescents. Adolescents experience internal conflicts in this process, which reflects in all their relationships. During adolescence, there are emotional states such as daydreaming, wanting to be alone, shyness, and uneasiness. (Koç, 2004). Adolescence has been named a stressful and stormy period as the adolescent's mood. Youth, in which psychological changes and developments are experienced, is stated as a period in which psychological disorders increase—factors such as hormonal change, psychological change, neurological change, and environment cause many diseases in adolescents. It was determined that the symptoms of schizophrenia increased mostly between late adolescence and early late adulthood. (Balaban, 2020).

Some factors cause psychological problems experienced by adolescents during adolescence. These;

- Adolescent age group
- Attitudes of the adolescent's family
- Continuity of education
- Individual differences between adolescents
- It is the social acceptance period of the adolescent. (Koç, 2004).

The age group of the adolescent, the society they live in, whether the adolescent continues their education and the attitude of the adolescent's family affect the adolescent psychologically. Psychological disorders experienced cause anxiety disorders in adolescents.

ADOLESCENCE ANXIETY DISORDERS

An individual's reaction to the events and phenomena he encounters within the scope of stress is explained as anxiety. These individual reactions appear as behavioral, cognitive, emotional, or physiological. Anxiety disorder is a developmentally related psychological disorder that occurs at any age. The concept of anxiety emerges according to the individual's perception and internalization of events. Anxiety includes individual differences. It is said that most individuals in adolescence have an anxiety disorder. Adolescents' most common anxiety disorders are social phobia, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder, separation anxiety disorder, and panic disorder. Psychological, physiological, and hormonal changes in adolescents cause anxiety disorder. (Balaban, 2020).

Anxiety Disorders in Adolescents

1. Social phobia
2. Generalized anxiety disorder
3. Obsessive compulsive disorder
4. Separation anxiety disorder
5. Panic Disorder

1-SOCIAL PHOBIA IN ADOLESCENTS

Social phobia is an anxiety disorder that usually appears in adolescence, which begins with the thought of being watched by the people around him. It is also known as social anxiety. The individual who thinks he is being watched avoids being in crowded environments. The individual who believes that other people are watching him is constantly afraid. The basic reason for fear the individual is that he thinks that he will do something that will humiliate him, that he will be ashamed.

Symptoms of social phobia;

1. Being introduced to others
2. Introducing authorized persons
3. Using a phone
4. Receiving guests
5. Being watched while doing something
6. Joking

7. Eating with acquaintances
8. Eating at a restaurant
9. Writing in front of others
10. Using public restrooms
11. Speaking in a public
12. Doing shopping (Ergün, 2005).

Adolescents with social anxiety disorder cannot express themselves in crowded environments. These situations affect all social relations of the adolescent, such as school, family, and friends. When adolescents want to go shopping or eat out, they think they are watched by other people and become uneasy. The social anxiety disorder of the adolescent, trying to create himself and gain his identity under the influence of hormones during adolescence, causes internal conflicts and bodily reactions to discomforts. It is observed that adolescents with social anxiety remain passive in their interpersonal communication and are reluctant to speak in public and speak to the opposite sex. (Demir, 2009). Social phobia negatively affects adolescents, especially in the developmental age, because humans are social creatures. On the other hand, the adolescent cannot escape this phobia as he is constantly together with people (Butler, 1989). The individual, who will pass into adulthood after adolescence, has problems in relationships such as work and marriage due to social anxiety disorder. Therefore, we should treat social phobia as soon as possible.

2- GENERALIZED ANXIETY DISORDER IN ADOLESCENCE

Although individuals with generalized anxiety disorder do not experience attacks, they generally feel nervous or anxious. Adolescents are overly anxious and uncontrollable about many issues, such as health, family, school, and money. On the other hand, physiological symptoms include fatigue, muscle tension, irritability, and sleep problems. Since the adolescent spends most of the day in anxiety and worry, he experiences difficulties in his daily life. (Şahin, 2019).

Generalized anxiety disorder symptoms;

- 1- Inability to calm down (restlessness) or to be nervous or constantly on edge,
- 2- Getting tired easily,
- 3- Difficulty concentrating or mental discharge,

- 4- Getting angry easily,
- 5- Muscle tension,
- 6- Sleep disturbance (difficulty falling asleep or staying asleep, or an unsatisfying sleep that is not restful) (Başer, 2020).

Conditions such as the genetic structure of the adolescent, environmental factors, health status, school life, family structure, and personality traits cause the adolescent to experience a generalized anxiety disorder. A diagnosis of generalized anxiety disorder is made if these symptoms are present for at least six months and at least three of the symptoms are present. Adolescents experience problems in their social relationships, such as school, family, and friends, because they cannot keep this process under control. Fear of failure in education life due to generalized anxiety disorder. Patients with generalized anxiety disorder cannot relax, affecting their physiological and mental systems. Cognitively, adolescents have symptoms such as focusing problems and mental confusion. On the other hand, their education life can also fail due to excessive anxiety and lack of control. The most common condition is the lack of balance of consciousness and unexpected cognitive deterioration. Although there may be individual differences, the severity and frequency of occurrence vary from person to person. The extremely anxious state of the adolescent affects his whole life, such as education and family-friend relations. Physically, it appears as symptoms such as tremors, tiredness, aches, and muscle pains. It can be seen together with depression and other anxiety disorders and can also occur with substance addictions. The treatment process is important for the positive and healthy progress of the adolescent's life, such as in school and family life. (Bal, 2018).

3- OBSESSIVE COMPULSIVE DISORDER IN ADOLESCENTS

Obsessions and compulsions impair the individual's function in life and affect them negatively. An obsession with a set of repetitive thoughts in mind causes the individual distress and involuntarily experiences environmental conditions. It is called compulsion when the individual becomes rigid and unresponsive to these behaviors. It is explained that obsessive-compulsive disorder is caused by genetic, biological, and psycho-social factors, the individual's personality, the structure of the cognitive scheme, neurochemical substances, and the relationship of the individual with the mother. Obsessions, also known as addictions, are repetitive behaviors that distress the individual and that they know are not

true. Compulsions are behaviors done to get rid of obsessive thoughts. Since adolescence is a developmental period, obsessive-compulsive disorder is seen in adolescents. It arises as a result of the cognitive distortions of the adolescent. (Savaş, 2019). There are specific definitions of obsessions and compulsions. These include doubt, symmetry, contamination, sexuality, religious issues, hoarding, desire to keep under control, frequent washing, and approval. Examples include being unsure of what the adolescent is doing, having doubts, wanting things to be symmetrical, collecting some items or objects he does not need, and constantly washing his hands.

Obsessive Compulsive Disorder Symptoms in Adolescents

Common obsession symptoms;

- Excessive skepticism and the need to constantly feel safe
- Desiring everything to be in order, symmetry, and perfection,
- Excessive religious sensitivity, fear of falling into sin
- Fear of making mistakes or making mistakes
- Fear of hurting other people
- Thinking that the environment is dirty and that it is dirty and that you will get a germ

Common compulsion symptoms;

- Avoiding handshakes, not holding doorknobs
- Continuous hand washing and showering
- Collecting and hoarding non-needed, non-valuable objects
- When making a business plan, do it in a certain number and a certain order
- Eating meals in a certain order
- Being stuck on thoughts and images that are restless, disrupt sleep, haunt the mind
- Desire to do things aloud or by counting while doing routine daily tasks.
- Placing items in their particular order

- The desire to constantly check the items that should be turned off when not in use, such as stoves, keys, and irons (www.medicalpark.com).

Adult and adolescent obsessive-compulsive symptoms are similar. Contagion obsession is the most common obsession among adolescents. Shows are washing, cleaning desires, and avoiding behavior. Handwashing behavior is the most common. Adolescents constantly exhibit handwashing behavior in their social life. The second most common obsession is doubt. Adolescents approach all events and behaviors with suspicion. Another common compulsion in adolescents is the desire to control. The other is thoughts repeated in mind. During adolescence, these thoughts focus on sexuality or aggression. After these thoughts, the patient feels ashamed of himself. Then they are followed by symmetry, precision, slow down, and hoarding. Obsessive-compulsive disorder negatively affects the developmental process and social life of the adolescent. (Karaman ve Erdem, 2011).

4- Separation Anxiety in Adolescents

When people are born, they want to feel safe. In this process, she creates a trust-based bond with her mother, the closest primary caregiver. Insecure attachment occurs when this bond is not established. Moreover, this relationship affects individuals' social relations in adolescence and adulthood. On the other hand, the death of a family member and leaving home can lead to traumatic situations. Separation anxiety disorder, which starts in childhood, can continue until adulthood, and some separation disorders may appear later. Illness in the family or individual, mental problems, change of place or school, the birth of a sibling, bullying at school, over-protective parents, or having a dependent personality of the parents cause separation anxiety in adolescents. (mentalica.com).

Symptoms of Separation Anxiety;

A. Having at least three of the mentioned diagnoses, having too much anxiety and fear at a level that is not suitable for the development of the individual after separating from the person with whom they are connected:

1. Excessive repetitive anxiety in case of separation or the possibility of separation from the individual's home or person,

2. Thinking that the individual will lose the people with whom they are connected, worrying that something bad will happen to them,

3. The individual thinks that they will break up with the person they love, as a result of bad events, that these thoughts are constantly repeated,

4. Not wanting to leave the bonded person, not agreeing to go to school or other places,

5. Not wanting to be alone at home due to separation anxiety, not wanting to be in other environments without the people with whom they are connected, and being uneasy because of the possibility of this happening,

6. Not wanting to stay outside of their own home, not accepting to sleep unless they are with the bonded person,

7. The individual has constant nightmares by thinking about the separation and worrying about it,

8. Physical symptoms include recurrent headaches, abdominal pain, nausea, and vomiting when separation is experienced or possible with the person with whom the bond is established

B. Reactions such as avoidance, fear, and anxiety are persistent, lasting at least four weeks in children and adolescents and at least six months in adults,

C. Separation anxiety disorder negatively affects all personal social relations, such as school and work

D. A different mental illness cannot explain separation anxiety disorder, such as: showing excessive resistance in autism and not leaving home, reactions to separation in psychosis disorders, not being in an unsafe place in agoraphobia, worrying that something will happen to your loved one in generalized anxiety disorder. (Kaya, 2021).

In separation anxiety disorder, factors such as the adolescent's reluctance to go to school, constantly worrying that something bad will happen to the people he loves, and disruption of sleep patterns create negative reasons for the adolescent in the developmental period. At this point, the family needs to understand and recognize the adolescent and early diagnosis.

5- PANIC DISORDER IN ADOLESCENTS

Panic disorder is an anxiety disorder in which the individual may experience other attacks that occur unexpectedly with symptoms such as shortness of breath, palpitations, dizziness, fear of death, avoidance, and behavioral changes due to aggression. If the panic disorder in childhood continues, it encounters general medical and mental problems, alcohol addiction, and problems in marriage and business life. Panic disorder is a risk factor because it is in the development process of adolescents. In its emergence, Factors such as genetic reasons, personality structure, tobacco and alcohol use, chemicals, habits, anatomical disorders, and past events are effective. Suicide attempts increase as panic attacks progress. (Sapma ve ark., 2017).

Panic Attack Symptoms;

- Palpitations, hearing heartbeat, rapid heartbeat
- Sweating
- Shaking or hugging
- Feeling as are choking on the shortness of breath
- Shortness of breath
- Feeling pain in the chest and feeling distressed
- Nausea, abdominal pain
- Dizziness, feeling like you are about to pass out
- Derealization (unrealism) or depersonalization (feeling detached from one's self.)
- Fear of losing control and fear of going crazy, fear of death

Feeling numb, feeling cold, experiencing sudden hot flashes

A diagnosis of panic disorder is made if at least four of the symptoms are found and their severity increases within ten minutes, and if anxiety and fear are felt (Kavak, 2009). Since adolescence is a period in which individual recognizes and develops themselves mentally and physically, it poses a risk of panic disorder. In this process, adolescents should be helped to know themselves well and to gain identity. Early diagnosis is important so that panic disorder does not affect the adolescent's future life.

CONCLUSION

Adolescents go through a psychologically sensitive developmental period under the influence of the adolescence period. Changes in the environment and physiological structure affect the adolescent. Adolescent searching for identity tries to establish a balance in this period, which puts them adolescent under stress which causes anxiety disorders. Anxiety disorders affect all adolescent relationships, such as education, family, and social life. Psychological anxiety disorders also cause physiological conditions such as physical palpitations, tremors, headaches, and abdominal pain. Anxiety disorders that occur due to the adolescent's cognitive distortions and environmental factors continue in adulthood and negatively affect the individual's life when not treated.

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THE CONCEPT OF GENDER AND RELATED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Şehida Rizvançe Matsani, page 49-64

ABSTRACT

Considering the fact that society treats women and men differently by assigning different characteristics, roles and responsibilities, the increasing number of studies on the causes of these differences has drawn attention to the concepts of "sex" and "gender".

The concept of gender can be named as the stereotypes, judgments and prejudices acquired by the individual regarding gender during the socialization process, unlike the biological sex of the person. Gender is a socio-cultural phenomenon that emerges with the socialization process of the individual.

The concept of gender is used to express the qualities built within the complex social relations network, the meanings attributed to femininity and masculinity, and the behaviors expected from them, apart from the concept of gender, which denotes the biological characteristics that define men and women.

In this study, sex, gender roles, Gender equality/ Gender inequality and related theoretical approaches will be discussed in order to better understand the concept of gender.

Keywords: Sex, Gender, Gender Role, Gender equality/ Gender inequality, Theoretical Framework

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Introduction

Considering the fact that society treats women and men differently by assigning different characteristics, roles and responsibilities, the increasing number of studies on the causes of these differences has drawn attention to the concepts of "sex" and "gender".

Studies conducted in the context of gender show that the ongoing gender stereotypes in societies affect women negatively; underlines that it reinforces the subordinate position of women and reproduces discrimination based on gender. Another point that gender studies draw attention to is the active role of women in reproducing and reinforcing these processes that are against them (Zeybekoğlu Dündar, 2012).

The concept of gender can be named as the stereotypes, judgments and prejudices acquired by the individual regarding gender during the socialization process, unlike the biological sex of the person. Gender is a socio-cultural phenomenon that emerges with the socialization process of the individual. Gender concept, which implies the culturally determined roles and responsibilities of men and women, varies across different cultures and in time. Gender refers to the characteristics of women, men, girls and boys that are socially constructed. This includes norms, behaviours and roles associated with being a woman, man, girl or boy, as well as relationships with each other.

As it is known, the biological sex of people is natural, their gender, in short, the roles and stereotypes assigned to people as men and women are socio-cultural. It is very difficult to separate biological sex and gender completely from each other, because it has been stated that what culture expects men and women to do is not completely independent of their biological sex.

The concept of gender is a human invention, learned and therefore can change. It may differ from society to society, from one place to another, from one time to another. Society treats men and women differently; assigns them different characteristics, behaviors, duties.

Gender is one of the fundamental ways in which the social life of human beings is organized. Indeed, one of the first questions people ask when they hear of a birth is whether the child is a boy or a girl.

Sex and Gender Concepts

Undoubtedly, the first thing to do when starting a study on gender is to define the concepts of sex and gender and to reveal the distinction between them.

In the scholarly literature, the following objective definitions are common: sex indicates the biological status of male or female, whereas gender is a label used to indicate characteristics that are believed to be learned and acquired by males or females as a result of social experience (Galambos, 2004). While sex is acquired at birth; gender, which is a concept related to how society sees us, how it perceives us, how it thinks and how it expects us to behave as men and women, is learned during the socialization process. Gender is defined as keeping women in lower positions than men in social, cultural, political and economic fields (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002). While the concept of gender emphasizes our biological, physiological and psychological characteristics, that is, the characteristics that are with us from the moment we are born, the concept of gender roles emphasizes the cultural characteristics attributed to male and female genders (Ersoy, 2009).

The concept of gender refers to the meanings and expectations that society and culture impose on being a woman or a man; it meets a cultural structure and generally includes the psychological characteristics associated with the biological structure of the individual (Yaşın Dökmen, 2015). Gender is a concept used to distinguish socially and culturally determined sex from biological sex; It points out the socialization process and the characteristics of being a woman and a man acquired in the culture, defines the socially determined roles and responsibilities of women and men, and determines their positions and behaviors in society (Altınova and Duyan, 2013). The society in which the baby is born shapes it according to the behavioral patterns it deems appropriate for men and women. Accordingly, everything from children's diets, clothes, toys to books, textbooks, cartoons and computer games they encounter when they take their first steps to school, are loaded with images that are assumed to be suitable for both genders (Gümüšoğlu, 2006, cited in Özgür, 2010).

Gender values and practices, which started with the preference of pink for the things of girls and blue for the items of baby boys, continue throughout life. For example, all orders and behaviors created from the

moment a baby learns that it is a boy aim to shape its gender. In this way, the individual grows by learning to be a woman or a man. They play the roles assigned to their genders and have to shape their lives according to this order.

Gender roles

The term role is a sociological term borrowed from theatre. Role indicates the position of the individual in an organized social structure, the responsibilities and privileges associated with that position, and the rules governing interaction with people in other positions. Different roles such as motherhood, fatherhood, teaching, neighbor, worker can be mentioned. The different roles given to women and men are known as gender roles. Women and men are expected to "play" their roles, adhering to the "script" written by society. The term gender roles is used to reflect gender stereotypes or gender differences determined by society (Yaşın Dökmen, 2015). Gender roles certainly overlap with gender stereotypes, but stereotypes are attitudes about members of a group, and roles are behaviors that people engage in, characteristics or attributes that they possess, or positions they hold in a society (Blakemore, et al. 2009).

Gender roles are a concept that reveals how women and men should behave and the different tasks that are expected of them, just because they are women or men. In all societies, there are a series of socio-cultural values that separate men and women from each other and form their social roles, and they have a feature that shapes, directs and controls individuals. The individual internalizes gender-based roles at every stage of the socialization process (Zeybekoğlu Dündar, 2012).

Gender roles, as one of the collective identity categories that emerge depending on how the differences between women and men are perceived socially, include socially constructed "expectations" due to the status responsibilities that the gender category imposes on individuals (Zeybekoğlu, 2013).

According to the literature, gender roles show significant differences, especially in the roles of men and women in working life, social life and family life. When the reflections of gender roles on working life are examined; Roles such as working in jobs with lower status and wages and getting permission from their husbands to work are considered

appropriate for women. In social life; There are judgments such as women not going out alone at night and women not living alone. Looking at family life; If women are subjected to violence by their husbands, they are expected to hide this situation, and to take care of things such as child care and cleaning at home (Yılmaz et al. 2009) . The above-mentioned discriminations regarding work, family, marriage and social life negatively affect the social status of women. For this reason, women could not reach the desired status in the society and lag behind men in many areas, resulting in an inequality between the sexes. No discussion of gender roles would be complete without a discussion of the differential power and status of males and females. As adults, men in general have more legal, economic, and political power and higher social status than women in general, although there are some obvious exceptions. The economic provider role has more power and status than the homemaker role, and female-dominated occupations are generally lower in status, power, and pay than male-dominated occupations (Eagly et al., 2000, cited in Blakemore et al. 2009).

Gender equality/ Gender inequality

Women and girls represent half of the world's population. Gender equality, as well as being a fundamental human right, is essential to achieving peaceful societies with full human potential and sustainable development. In addition, it has been determined that the empowerment of women is an important element in promoting productivity and economic growth.

Gender equality is a global norm and embodies various standards for ensuring gender mainstreaming, women empowerment, elimination of discrimination against women, gender-balanced decision making or state responsibility for gender-based violence and stereotyping.

Gender equality means that women and men have equal rights and opportunities in both public and private spheres, and both participate equally in these fields. However, neither in our country nor anywhere else in the world can we talk about the existence of gender equality in this sense. For example, research shows that in no country in the world, women cannot fully benefit from the rights and opportunities that men have (Gültekin et al. 2013).

One of the main phenomena caused by gender inequality is violence against women. Gender-based violence against women is defined as gender-based violence that is “directed against a woman simply because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately” (Demirgöz Bal, 2016).

According to OECD 2019 data, the country with the highest rate of violence against women in the world is Pakistan with 85%. This rate is 78 percent in Senegal, 67 percent in Yemen and 61 percent in Afghanistan. Among OECD countries, Canada has the lowest rate of male violence against women with 2 percent. Just above it is Chile with 7 percent and Switzerland with 10 percent (<https://tr.euronews.com>).

Although many theories and approaches have been developed on gender, the biggest common denominator of these theories is that the issue of gender is a universal feature in almost all human societies. On the other hand, gender content is quite diverse and diverse. While gender existed in some form in every society, it gained a universal quality as well as a cultural feature. The existence of gender in every society also prevented equality between men and women, that is, between the sexes (Çelik, 2008).

Despite the efforts made around the world in order to ensure equality between the sexes and to eliminate gender discrimination, the desired level has not been reached yet. Despite all these facts, the situation regarding gender equality is changing, sometimes slowly and at other times accelerating. In order to prevent gender discrimination all over the world, the underlying causes of discrimination against girls should be identified and tried to be eliminated. From the moment they are born, children should be brought up without bringing their gender to the fore.

The problem of gender inequality is a universal and historical problem and is the subject of various studies in which international comparisons are made. When we evaluate the data of 2020 from the World Economic Forum-Global Gender Equality Reports; It is seen that North Macedonia ranks 70th out of 153 countries in terms of gender equality (WEF, 2020).

Gender Theories

Biological Theory

Biological theory argues that the main reason for psychological and behavioral changes between men and women is biological differences (Miller, 2016). According to this view, hormonal differences constitute gender differences and femininity is identified with motherhood and masculinity with power. Those who adopt the biological approach argue that a completely equal society cannot exist, and according to them, people have an innate capacity. They can improve their abilities within this capacity (Özgür, 2010).

The biological approach argues that the difference between men and women is in their biological nature. In this view, it is argued that the different reproductive roles of men and women lead to differences and division of labor between the sexes, that is, hormonal differences create gender differences, and femininity is identified with motherhood and masculinity with power. For this reason, those who adopt the biological approach argue that a completely equal society cannot exist, and according to them, people have an innate capacity. They can develop their abilities within these capacities. They cannot do more because their biological nature does not allow it (Suğur, Demiray ve Eşkinat, 2006).

According to this discipline, human beings, like other species, have developed ways to carry their own genes to the future and to keep their genetic characteristics alive for generations. According to this view, gender roles have emerged for this purpose (Dökmen, 2015).

Social learning theory

Social learning theory was developed by Bandura. The concept of gender was integrated into this theory by Mischel (1970) (Lott & Maluso, 1993; cited in Yaşın Yaşın Dökmen, 2015; Miller, 2016).

Social learning theory talks about observing, internalizing, transforming the attitudes and behaviors of other people around us, and transforming the perception of gender, which consists of gender differences, into behavior when appropriate. Another situation that affects behavior is the possibility of others exhibiting the same or similar behaviors as a result of reinforcement or punishment of the individuals exhibiting the behavior (Kes, 2022).

According to social learning theory, children's learning of gender roles occurs through rewards or punishments for their behaviors. For example, a boy may be rewarded by his parents when he plays with a toy car, but punished by his parents when he plays with a more feminine doll. Thus, the child learns to behave in accordance with the gender role (Dönger, 2022). The child can learn by modeling as well as learning with reward and punishment. For example, when the child observes that the teacher in kindergarten rewards a group of boys for playing with a toy car, or that there is no girl in this group playing with a toy car, her behavior is reinforced in accordance with gender roles. (Miller, 2016; Ruble et al., 2007).

Social learning theory emphasizes that the child acquires behaviors that are appropriate or unsuitable for the gender role by rewarding and punishing, and it is also important to observe and take an example (Pehlivan, 2017).

Social Cognitive Theory

In social cognitive theory, the development of gender is explained by triple reciprocal causation. In the model of triadic reciprocal causation, personal factors, behavioral patterns and environmental events are considered together. Personal factors; cognitive, emotional, and biological phenomena, gender-related conceptualizations, behavioral and judgmental standards, and self-regulating effects. Behavior refers to patterns of activity linked to gender. Environmental factors, on the other hand, show a wide network of social effects encountered in daily life (Yaşın Dökmen, 2015).

Three types of sociocognitive effects are mentioned in the development of gender: modeling, direct experience and teaching. Their effects vary, depending on the developmental status of individuals and the social construction of experiences. Accordingly, the effects of each of them are greater in some developmental periods. For example, modeling is present from birth and the baby is very open to learning through modeling. Three types of sociocognitive effects are mentioned in the development of gender: modeling, direct experience and teaching. Their relative effects vary depending on the developmental status of individuals and the social construction of experiences. Accordingly, the effects of each of them are greater in some developmental periods. For example,

modeling is present from birth and the baby is very open to learning through modeling. (Yaşın Dökmen, 2015).

Cognitive Development Theory

Cognitive development theory is an important theory that we need to consider when explaining gender. Piaget and Kohlberg are the pioneers of this theory. Largely focused on explaining gender development in the childhood years, Kohlberg asserted that children are active processors of information and that they categorize individuals (including themselves) according to gender (Galambos, 2004).

According to Kohlberg, achieving gender constancy is a critical milestone in gender development. The idea of gender constancy is analogous to Piaget's concept of conservation of physical properties in that gender constancy refers to understanding that gender is an invariant human property that is stable across time and superficial changes in appearance. Kohlberg outlined three developmental stages that children achieve in order to have gender constancy. The [first stage](#), gender identity, is children's basic awareness that they are either boys or girls. The [second stage](#), gender stability, refers to the recognition that gender identity does not change over time. The [third stage](#), gender consistency, represents the achievement of gender constancy and refers to the understanding that gender is not changed by transformations in gender-typed appearances, activities, and traits. In other words, once children achieve gender constancy, at about age 6–7 years, they understand that they are either a girl or a boy (gender identity), that they will grow up to be an adult of the same gender (i.e., a woman or a man) (gender stability), and that their gender will not be changed if they do things such as put on opposite sex-typed clothes (gender consistency), (Ruble ve diğ. 2007; Yaşın Dökmen, 2015; Miller, 2016). Kohlberg emphasized that children's knowledge about gender progresses through three stages, and that children come to guide their own gender development because of valuing things in the environment that they perceive to be for them (e.g., a boy comes to like playing with trucks because he comes to think that trucks are for someone like him—a boy), (Blakemore et al. 2009).

Due to her age, she makes choices in accordance with the gender stereotype and they are appreciated in this direction. As children begin to understand the concept of gender, they try to act in accordance with the

rules of that gender. Contrary to social learning theory, this motivation to act appropriately is internal rather than extrinsic. (Miller, 2016).

Ecological Theory

The research of a group of researchers discussing and examining the ecological context of gender development in the family shows how parental work roles, parental gender attitudes, the presence of siblings in the family influence gender notion. Children, especially girls, are more likely to hold traditional gender roles when their parents have traditional gender attitudes, their mothers do not work outside the home, and there are children of both sexes in the family. Bronfenbrenner encouraged him to contextualize children's development, to examine children's natural environments, and to understand how complex human development processes really are. His theoretical view has been very convincing to developmental psychologists. It is possible to say that there is much to be learned about the ecological context of children's gender development, as it has produced research on many processes involved in children's gender development (Blakemore et al. 2009).

In the 1970s, developmental psychologist Urie Bronfenbrenner proposed an ecological theory of children's development. Bronfenbrenner conceptualized children's development as being influenced by a series of processes involving the child and the environment. Bronfenbrenner considered the environment as a set of nested systems or layers, with the child at the center. Bronfenbrenner refers to the child's actual environment as the microsystem. The microsystem consists of the actual interactions the child experiences. These experiences may be in the family, or with other children in the neighborhood or at school, with teachers and others. There are several processes in the microsystem that might influence this aspect of gender development. Parents put more pressure on boys to control certain emotions, especially sadness or fearfulness and they are less likely to talk about emotions that signal vulnerability with boys. In addition, they respond differently to emotional behavior in boys and girls, attending more to sadness and fearfulness in girls and to anger in boys—giving the emotional behavior of boys and girls a different payoff or reward (Blakemore et al. 2009).

After the microsystem, the next layer in Bronfenbrenner's ecological system is the mesosystem. This refers to the interactions or

connections among the various parts of the environment that affect the child. In terms of children's social development in general, Bronfenbrenner held that children were likely to develop best when there were strong, consistent, and supportive relationships among the significant parts of the child's environment. For gender development, it has examined the attitudes or sexist behaviors of children who have consistent or inconsistent influences on important people and institutions in their lives (Blakemore et al. 2009).

Bronfenbrenner's next layer is the exosystem. This system refers to experiences that the child does not take part in directly, but that may impact on the child indirectly. A good example of the exosystem consists of experiences that parents have outside the family that may affect the parents' interactions with their children. Parents' influences at work or school (e.g., if they return to or continue in school after their children are born) may influence how they treat their children (Blakemore et al. 2009).

The next layer in Bronfenbrenner's system is the macrosystem. This refers to the general cultural context of development. This could be as narrow as social class in a particular country, or the entire culture of a group, a nation or even the world. Clearly, for gender development the significant changes in gender attitudes and gender roles that have taken place over the past several decades is potentially important. There is certainly evidence that attitudes about gender and family roles have changed over the last few decades will be an important part of the macrosystem's impact on children's gender development (Blakemore et al. 2009).

The final part of Bronfenbrenner's system is the chronosystem. This refers to chronological change, either in the child or the environment. The cultural context may change, the child's family moves or has another child, the mother gets a job outside the home—all of these events change the ecology of the child's development. One particularly important part of the chronosystem is the child's age (Blakemore et al. 2009). Perceptions about gender are transforming as a part of the process of social change and the influence of all social institutions, especially the family, is seen in the process of gaining gender. If we evaluate it in terms of ecological theory, all codes related to the concept of gender are acquired almost from the first years of life and can affect the individual in every period of his life.

Gender schema Theory

Gender schema theory, which is considered as one of the important explanations about how children acquire thoughts and behaviors related to gender, was developed by Sandra Lipsitz Bem by combining the basic views of social learning and cognitive development theories (Dökmen, 2015). Gender schema theorists ask how and when children learn gender schemas, what kind of information they learn, and how their knowledge influences their behavior (Blakemore et al. 2009). It is possible to define the schema, which is the basic structure of the theory, as a cognitive structure that makes sense or directs the thoughts of the individual. The information, terms, and judgments received for the creation of the schema must be related to the schema. Any information obtained on the subject is processed by subjecting it to femininity and masculinity classifications in the gender schema (Kes, 2022).

According to gender schema theory, children process information according to a constantly evolving gender schema. Schemas are a network of cognitive connections that contain information about one's self and their gender, and they affect one's behavior, perception, attention, and way of thinking (Miller, 2016; Ruble et al., 2007 cited in Dönger, 2022). Children growing up in a society emphasizing the distinction between men and women learn to process information about themselves, others, events and objects according to these perceived gender associations (Yaşın Dökmen, 2015).

The concept that is accepted in the society but has nothing to do with gender can also be evaluated in these schemes. For example, while the concepts of "nightingale" and "gentle" resemble women, concepts such as "eagle" and "dashing" can be considered in the group of men. Gender schema is also a framework that forms the basis for perceiving male and female characteristics and processing information (Pehlivan, 2017). Bem (1981) proposed individual differences in the gender schemas that people hold. Genderschematic individuals see the world and themselves in terms of gender stereotypes; that is, males should be and act masculine, whereas females should be and act feminine (Cited in Galambos, 2004). The strong feature of the child is male; encoding the feature of being emotional for women is an example of a gender schema. (Değer, 2018).

According to the gender schema theory, children develop a gender schema through the learning process and these schemas describe gender-based characteristics. A schema is a cognitive construct; It is a network of associations that organizes and directs an individual's perceptions. A schema provides readiness to explore and absorb incoming information in terms associated with the schema. Individuals who are ready to process information through a certain schema can immediately encode information appropriate to the schema, organize it into categories related to the schema, and make differentiated judgments related to the schema. Processing information according to the gender schema leads to categorizing traits and behaviors into feminine and masculine categories. Even things that have nothing to do with gender are treated as feminine or masculine. For example; Traits such as “gentle” and “nightingale” can be placed in the feminine category, and traits such as “dashing” and “eagle” can be placed in the masculine category. Gender schema is also a framework that forms the basis for the perception of male and female characteristics and the processing of information (Franzoi, 1996, cited in Anar, 2011; Yasin Dökmen, 2015). Bem (1981) proposed individual differences in the gender schemas that people hold. Genderschematic individuals see the world and themselves in terms of gender stereotypes; that is, males should be and act masculine, whereas females should be and act feminine (Cited in Galambos, 2004). Gender schema theorists ask how and when children learn gender schemas, what kind of information they learn, and how their knowledge influences their behavior.

Conclusion

Gender is an important concept that shows how societies take a social and cultural form around gender-based and current gender perception. Gender shows the perception of gender formed in social life beyond the biological origins of being a woman and a man.

Traditional gender roles, stereotypes, and the belief that men and women are different have negative consequences for both men and women. These troubling results make people feel nervous.

In this study, one of the important points emphasized while discussing what is the issue of gender is or not is that the concept includes many social structures together.

In today's societies, the transformation of the traditional family structure into the nuclear family, the change in the roles and responsibilities of the individuals within the nuclear family structure, the increase in the education level of women and the fact that they are freed from being economically dependent on men have caused changes in the status of women in the society.

Although gender perceptions, perspectives on women and men, norms and roles have begun to change in the modern world, the secondary position of women still continues.

In many parts of the world, women are still unable to change their subordinate position and experience gender-based problems such as violence against women, lack of education and being left behind, deprivation of inheritance, inability to rise in business life and exposure to many discriminations. Gender-based discriminatory attitudes and it is very difficult to get rid of negative prejudices. Against the acquired rights of men, women have to struggle to obtain their rights.

While the structure of gender-based roles and responsibilities negatively affects women and puts them at a disadvantage, it can provide privileges to men in different areas of life. Gender stereotypes constantly reinforce the subordinate position of women. The sexist ideology produced by social institutions, which also determines gender; As we grow, it grows with us, multiplies and is passed on from generation to generation.

It is necessary to accept the existence of the gender phenomenon and to sensitize all parties, including the society, on this issue.

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HYPER PRESIDENTIALISM AND FIRST YEAR OF THE TURKISH TYPE OF PRESIDENTIALISM

Ahmet Ekinci, Azam Korbayram, page 65-97

ABSTRACT

The new government system of Turkey can be described as hyper-presidentialism, this is because the president then becomes the arbiter of all powers. In another word, the power to enact decrees, appoint bureaucrats and judicial officials into offices, and the power to dissolve a parliament belongs solely to the president. As strong presidency fuse with disciplined party system as well as concurrent elections and 10 percent electoral threshold, the president possibly poses a great danger to the separation of powers. Additionally, with regards to the presidential term, the president constitutionally holds the power to be elected only for two terms in Turkey. However, Erdoğan and his supporters believe that the 2017 constitutional amendments that changed the system of government has reset the agenda. Thus, the 2017 amendments offered Erdoğan a secret opportunity to join the presidential election race for a third, and even a fourth term.

Keywords: Hyper-presidentialism, Turkish presidentialism, Presidential decree, concurrent election, Erdoğan's term limit, Turkish government system

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Introduction

The 2017 referendum in Turkey sired the acceptance of a new system of government. As a result of this choice, the parliamentary system which had been in place for 95 years was replaced by a kind of monist government system. Turkey's ruling party for 17 years, Justice and Development Party (Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi, AKP), and its members have defended the new Turkish type of presidentialism which has a strong, turbo presidency against the parliamentarism (Tecimer, 2019). They alleged that this system of governance would be an invention of Turkey in which they described as *Presidentialism of the Republic (Cumhurbaşkanlığı Hükümet Sistemi or Cumhurbaşkanlığı Sistemi)* (Gülener and Miş, 2017). According to a report by Hurriyet Daily News (2015), president Erdoğan in the Governors Meeting of February 2015 stated that *"With the skillfulness of a bee, let's gather our share from flowers and then turn it to honey."* Furthering this narrative, *"he noted that they would eventually form an "authentic presidential system framed by Turkish customs and traditions"*.

In the whole build up to the referendum and the eventual transition to the new system of government, there is no doubt whatsoever that Erdoğan and his supporters were right on their avowals that Turkish system is not a pure presidential system like the USA presidential system. However, it will be wrong to dismiss the truism that lies in the fact that the system is an "authentic" one. The new government structure is presidentialism, one can observe this fact in the countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America and East Europe, and, that the president dominates the legislature and judiciary. Drawing from this perspective, Özsoy (2016) asserted that the Turkish government system is a form of hyper-presidentialism. In June 2018, Turkey experienced the concurrent elections first time within our policy practice. After the 2018 elections, the new system came into force in July 2018. This essay observed the outputs of the first year of the new system of government. To analyze the outputs of the system, the study focused on the formal and informal powers of the president and the second section analyzed the president's formal powers.

In compliance with the purpose of this study, empirical data about Presidential Decrees (*hereafter PD*) which have the force of law and presidential appointment orders (Cumhurbaşkanlığı atama kararı) with

regards to Erdoğan's first year (July, 2018 – July, 2019) were collected, after which the usage of PDs were investigated. The study observed that the president produced policy by means of PDs more than the parliament did. Additionally, during that period, the origin of the important part of the laws which the Grand National Assembly of Turkey (Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, TBMM) enacted is the executive branch even if the president does not have to propose the bill. Even so, the president can compensate this deficiency because of his informal powers. One can count the informal powers as proportional to the electoral system, concurrent election, 10 percent electoral threshold, and the disciplined party system of Turkey. Bringing all these measures to mind, there is no doubt that a president can have a meaningful majority of parliament either his/her party or his/her coalition. Based on the foregoing, the study analyzed the president's informal powers in the third section. It is important to mention that the work of Özsoy (2016) lent credence to the results of the second and third section of this study.

In reality, Turkish political system is democratic but because of some non-formal situations, Erdogan cannot be defeated electorally. Nevertheless, as a conclusion of long-time leadership, the system can be converted to a kind of *big-man rule* (Hyden 2006, 94), particularly, within the post-2017 period. However, it is unclear how long Erdogan will stay in office. Consequent on this, there remain a lot of concerns that require clarification, one of which is the problem of whether Erdoğan's first presidency period (that is, between 2014 to 2018) should be counted for the new system or not. Additionally, article 116 (3) of Turkish constitution regulated that "If the Assembly decides to renew the elections during the second term of the President of the Republic, he/she may once again be a candidate." This rule, together with previous controversial issue, offers Erdoğan a secret opportunity for running the presidential elections for a third and even fourth term. If these two scenarios become a reality, Erdogan can remain in office till 2032. For this reason, this study in the fourth section examined the situation of freedom and democracy in Turkey and the continuity of Erdogan's leadership.

I. Theory of Hyper Presidentialism

In 1994, Guillermo O'Donnell categorized some Latin American democracies as "delegative democracy". The Author used this pattern for countries that accepted a new constitution, non-institutionalized after

post-autocratic regimes (O'Donnell, 1994, p. 62). Nevertheless, he categorized the countries as democratic regimes in conformity with Robert Dahl's measures (O'Donnell, 1994, p. 56). However, in these regimes, since the elected presidents can do everything – to the extent of the power-relations (O'Donnell 1994, p. 59), until the next election, the regimes are majoritarian democracies but more or less liberal one (O'Donnell 1994, p. 60). The prominent feature of this regime is the fact that a president elevates himself/herself to a superior position over the parliament and judiciary because the president is elected from the national constituency, while legislators represent only a part of voters. Other horizontal accountability mechanisms such as Congress and the Judiciary are nuisances for the president (O'Donnell 1994, p. 60).

Hence, whether the president has majority of parliament or the majority belongs to the opposition party, the opposition lacks the ability to prevent the president from realizing his/her policies, thus, creating a government structure where whoever wins the presidency claims entitlement to govern as he/she sees fit (O'Donnell 1994, p.59). It does not matter whether the president garners support from the majority of parliamentary or not. Consequently, one can easily say that the president executes the policies by PDs. Already, on the contrary, presidents tend to expand their decree authority despite existing constitution (O'Donnell 1994, pp.59-62). As a result, presidents enact policies fast and immediately implement them.

In the same train of thought as enunciated by O' Donnell (1994), Larkins (1998, p.56) explains hyper-presidentialism as an extreme point of delegative democracies. In fact, Larkins noted that hyper-presidentialist regimes have check and balance mechanisms. For instance, parliament does not have a mere reactive position on paper; as a matter of fact, the opposition parties can control the parliament (Larkins 1998, pp63-66). Even so, presidents can dominate the parliament by decree power, full or partial veto power and referendum power to mention but a few. In a different narrative from (Larkins, 1998), Rose-Ackerman et al. (2011) posited that parliaments are weak as a result of immaturity of opposition parties or unimproved institutional understanding. Nonetheless, presidents desire the parliaments that supports their personae and administration as well as a parliament that goes even further to affirm legitimacy of their (president) actions or inactions. The judiciary on the

third hand of the ‘tripartite design’ (i.e. executive, parliament and judiciary) is designated as a control mechanism to checkmate the president. According to Larkins (1998, 66-69), the judiciary has as its designative role the power to check presidents’ political and economic decisions. Unfortunately, in countries where hyper-presidentialism is in practice, neither the judiciary nor the parliament has lived out its responsibilities in checkmating a president when understudied from an historical perspective. Historical antecedents have shown specifically that presidents who have over-shot their mandate by pitching tents in the corridors of power for too long a time are thus permitted to fulfill judicial responsibilities.

On the contrary, presidents, most likely, are able to provoke judicial constrains (Rose-Ackerman et. al. 2011, p.246). That is why judiciary, specifically Constitutional Court or Supreme Court, would restrain itself gradually or lose legitimacy. On the legitimacy of the judiciary, Bernal (2013, p.351) painted a vivid picture when he expressed that if presidents have the power to appoint judges of the Supreme Court and other judicial supreme bodies cum offices, in the event that the president remains in power for a long time, the judiciary would start to obey the orders of the president and lose its independency. In other words, the judiciary becomes a ‘toothless bulldog.’ The described pattern of the system is only an overview of the game area. Worthy of note is that the difficulties in constraining a president can exist in any presidential system including that of the USA (Rose-Ackerman et. al. 2011, p.249) because that check and balance mechanism falls short. In the spirit of emphasis, this study attempts to establish an institutionality of the pattern for hyper-presidentialism in order to apply this pattern in the case of Turkey.

Therefore, the common powers that all presidents have and the advantages they benefit in the hyper-presidential systems should be detected. This line of thought prompted the inclusion and utilization of Özsoy’s (2017, pp.175-177) criteria relating to hyper-presidentialism for this study. Firstly, a president or presidential candidate often wants to make sure he/she gains the support of the parliament. This support can come from any political party, not necessarily that which the candidate belongs and pledges allegiance to. Nonetheless, before joining the electoral race, a presidential candidate could establish an electoral/governmental alliance. For the purposes of stability and sustainability, this alliance should be in

a manner where the said candidate gets majority of the parliament into his/her camp as this would hold simultaneously both the presidential and parliamentary elections as a useful tool. Thus, a median voter would think that parliamentary and presidential candidates of same party/alliance are parts of the same team. Usually a median voter would vote for parliamentary candidates of the same party/alliance with the presidential candidate (Shugart 1995, p.30; Samuels and Shugart, p.2010 128; Molina 2001, pp18-19). This is described as “unity of purpose” and it does not comply with classical separation of power that presidential and parliamentary election is different, as such, there is “*separation of purposes*”(Erikson, 1988; Samuels and Shugart 2003).in spite of this, Mainwaring and Shugart (1997, p.410) posited that a president can have a friendly parliament easily.

According to a study by Barragán (2015, pp.214-216), a president have simple majority of parliament with 83% if the president is elected by absolute majority of voters and concurrent elections are held. This possibility is 62% in countries where elections are held on separate dates. However, what is interesting about this is that if focus is on the absolute majority of parliament, yields of the concurrent elections are more highlighted. While the president cannot get more than 50% support of parliament in countries where elections are held on separate dates for presidential and parliamentary, the possibility is 35% in countries where presidential elections with absolute majority and parliamentary elections hold on the same day (Barragán 2015, p.219). Electoral alliances should be encouraged in context of the preference on concurrent elections in multiparty systems. Otherwise, presidents will be minority in parliament since they cannot have stable executive coalitions and stable parliamentary majorities (Mejia-Acosta 2006, p.69, 71). If electoral alliance and concurrent election practices apply together, post-electoral coalitions would be more stable (Machado 2009, p.90). However, in systems with separate elections such as mid-term election of the parliament, parties of presidential coalition can leave from coalition with the aim of searching for more feasible position in the next election.

In the first situation, pre-electoral alliances would be transformed to post-election coalition and can continue as long as any problem is not experienced until the next elections (Amorim Neto et. al., 2003 pp. 563,

575-576; Mejia Acosta 2006, pp.69, 71; Power 2010, 226; Machado 2009, p.90). Furthermore, according to Borges and Turgeon (2017), the more the ideological proximity of the parties of an electoral alliance increases, more core coalition members will be utilized from the coattail effect of their presidential candidates. That is why, in a system that electoral alliances and concurrent elections apply together, a pre-electoral alliance can be counted as most likely post-election coalitions.

Secondly, the president does not take into consideration the position of parliament on significant political issues. To attain this feat of confidence, the president either has the decree power constitutionally (as with the case of Russia) or declares it as para-constitutional, like that of pre-1994 Argentina (Carey and Shugart 1998, p. 14). This therefore gives the presidents a free passage to regulate what e/she wants. In situation where the parliament is of an opposition party, the president in this case pitches the parliament against the people through of her/his decree using her/his popularity. In that case, the president benefits from his/her *first mover* position (Moe and Howell 1999, pp. 855-856; Mayer 1999, p.450; Cox and Morgenstern 2001; Amorim Neto et. al., 2003, pp.568-569; Calvo 2007, p.270; Figueiredo 2013, p.11). Consequently, the president publishes decrees that immediately come to force to change the existing status quo since he/she does not require any form of negotiation with other branches of government. Once the status quo is changed by the presidential decree, in order to revert the decree, and protect the old status quo, parliament must issue a new law that requires a presidential approval.

However, this action is not so easy. When a president establishes a new status-quo through a decree, a change in the new rule (law) destroys everything that exists. Unfortunately, many MP do not want to take up this responsibility (Moe and Howell 1999; Figueiredo and Limongi, 2000, p.155; Pereira et. al., 2005). Due to this, most of the fracas between the president and parliament end in favor of the president because of his "*first mover*" position. Interestingly, as long as presidents have popularity, parliaments either approve the decrees or keep mum (Ames 2002, p.164). Nevertheless, presidents do not just issue decrees except in cases where they have minority position. Even if a president has a stable majority in parliament, decree power is a useful tool for both the president and parliament. For the parliament, as a result of the weak opportunity, lack of resource and low expertise to investigate every issues diligently in

addition to the fact that a president can reach all of them easily, it is often considered more sensible to permit the president to issue the PDs (Reich, 2002, pp.6, 16; Özsoy 2016, p.13). Within this simulation, parliament and president have same ideology and political goals. Therefore, the parliament benefits from the executive expertise to make policy while it evades from work-load (Carey and Shugart 1998, pp17-18; Moe and Howell 1999, p.586; Pereira, et. al., 2005, p. 181).

From the preceding assertions it is becomes obvious that the President will be free from any form of opposition from the parliament while she/he publishes the decrees. As a result of this, it can be suggested that if the president has to issue PD constitutionally, he/she do could do so without hesitation. This is scenario is different from what is obtainable in a parliamentary system. In classical presidential system, the parliament approves bills while the president vetoes the bills and in the parliamentary systems, the executive branch proposes a bill to parliament and the parliament approves or vetoes it (Tsebelis 1995, p.325). However, in hyper-presidential regimes, president regulates decree and publishes it. At this point, the status quo becomes changed in which case the parliament either approves the bills or keeps mum. So, the fact that the decisions on legal issues are made by president, the decision-making process becomes toppled even if parliament, subsequently, would approve the bill openly or tacitly.

Thirdly, according to Özsoy (2017, pp.176-177), although it is rare, dissolution of parliament by president can be found in some hyper-presidentialist regimes. This rarity is because the power to dissolve a parliament is a typical feature of parliamentary system (Özsoy 2017, pp.176-177). Generally, as a response that the parliament has the power of remove the cabinet, the cabinet can demand from head of state the dissolution of parliament. The rule of the game about the ability to end power's life reciprocally necessitates the description of the parliamentary system as "*fusion of powers*" (Alder 1999, p.82; Barnett 2002, p.119). However, in hyper-presidentialism regimes, although formally the parliament does not have the power to remove the president from office, the president, in some cases, possesses dissolution power (Özsoy 2016, p. 15). Consequently, the presidents can evoke this power to align with his/her political desires. At this point, if parliament, even in rare cases,

takes an opposing position to the president, they can encounter threats of dissolution.

Fourthly, it highlights presidential appointment powers. Shugart and Carey (1992) gives the highest point to the government systems if the president is able to appoint their ministers without any confirmation or approval from the parliament, also if the parliament does not have to censure the ministers (Shugart and Carey 1992, pp.152-154). However, what this translates to is the president's dominance on appointments. If a president can freely appoint to important positions and the parliament does not have to conduct any check. This power according to Hyden (2006, p.94) converts the president to a big man. By virtue of this power, the president dominates both the executive and judiciary arms of government (Özsoy, 2016, p.16). Nonetheless, Kim (2013, p.530) revealed that presidential powers in certain areas such as appointment, foreign policy-making and government formation are relatively conflict-prone, therefore a strong president will have a domineering influence on polices in times of peace but becomes chief culpable person during crisis periods. As can be seen, generally, the issues investigated are transitional features of the system between presidentialism and parliamentarism or separation of power and fusion of power. When a president controls areas of parliament such as decision-making by decrees in addition to getting majority of parliament by concurrent elections, it creates a situation where the president operates without any problem. When parliament or judiciary try to check and balance the president, the president claims that the system has separation of power, as a result, the president defends him/her actions and argue against the imposition of check and balances initiated by other branches and institution (Rose-Ackermanet. al., 2011, p. 247).

Scholars claimed hyper-presidentialism is not a permanent but a temporary period (Larkins, 1998, pp. 62-68; Özsoy, 2016, p.8). It either fails to remain democratic and becomes autocratic or returns to delegative democracy at the extent of periodical power relations of branches (Özsoy, 2016, p. 8). The key point to detect transforming moment of a hyper-presidentialism to authoritarian regime is whether or not the president endeavored to *stay in office for third term or more* (Tull and Simons 2017, p. 93; Posner and Young 2018, pp. 267-268). Moreover, in the words of Baturo (2010), esteem to the term limits is a *litmus-paper of democracy*. If a system has an effective and applicable term limits for a presidential

term, this mechanism highlights serves as a measure to check the presidential acts (Bernal 2013, p. 251). Since a president already knows that they will leave office and relinquish their power at the expiration of their term in office, he/she would respect the principle of the separation of powers and civil rights in order to avoid future infringement charges due to their negative acts and decisions during their stay in office (Maltz, 2007). Additionally, by virtue of term limit for presidency, the incumbency of a president rarely coincide with the term limits of high ranking civil servants and judges of Supreme Courts. As a natural result, even if the president has strong appointment power for this positions, judicial independency and bureaucratic professionalism are provided spontaneously (See. The Judgement of Constitutional Court of Colombia, [2010], Sentencia: C-141/2010, *Title 6.3.6.1.1. La segundareeleccion y los periodos de los altos dignatarios estatales*).

II. President's Informal Powers: Concurrent Elections and Party Discipline

Most important informal power of president is support of TBMM. For this purpose, first and foremost, there is the need to examine the circumstances that makes possible a president-friendly majority within TBMM. The president is elected by absolute majority of voters. If any candidate obtains the absolute majority first round, the second round shall be held (Act. 101 of Constitution). Scholars claim that if the president is elected by a double-round electoral system, and if there would be multiparty system, it would be hard to get a presidential majority in the parliament¹. In that case, a divided government is birthed. To overcome this problem in the case of Turkey, the country accepted the concurrent elections. AKP's constitution-makers like Karatepe (Karatepe 2017) clearly explained that making presidential and TBMM elections simultaneously aim to solve the “divided government problem” (Karatepe 2017, p. 34). As a result of the 2017 amendment, the first round of presidential election and TBMM elections were held on the same day. Due to this concurrency, it was observed that voters who prefer a presidential candidate, tend to vote for the presidential candidate's party or alliance.

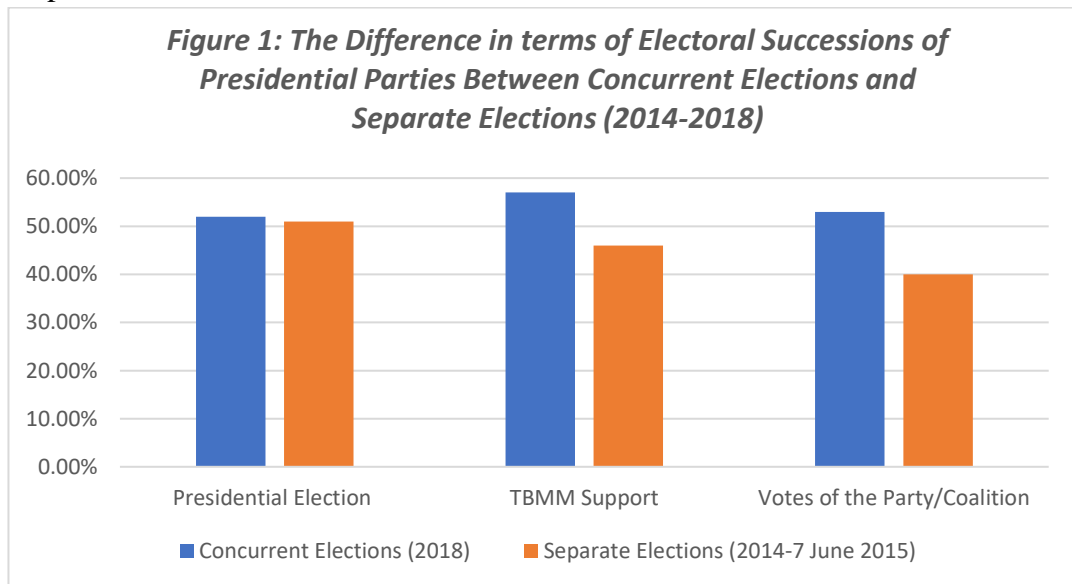
1

Members of TBMM are elected through of a proportional representation system with D'Hondt and a 10% national threshold (Yokuş, 2018, p. 11). However, this national threshold transforms the system to a type of majoritarian electoral system since the highest threshold of the world as highlighted by Hale (2008, p. 238) is a key factor in limiting both inter and intra party competition and, grants the larger parties to have parliamentary overrepresentation in comparison to their actual votes (Ayan Musil 2015, p.78; Kabasakal 2019, p.179). Therefore, voters abstain from small parties so as not to waste their votes (Hale 2008, pp.238-239; Ayan Musil 2015, p.78). As a consequence of this, the electoral system therefore damages the small parties and yields electoral disproportionality. Due to the 10% national threshold, even if party fragmentation does not reduce, effective party number in TBMM overtly reduces. This threshold is one of the causes of AKP's becoming the dominant party in Turkey since 2002 (Gümüscü 2013, p.229-230; Ayan Musil 2015, p.78). However, instead of reducing 10% threshold, Turkish constitutional engineers melted electoral threshold and concurrent elections within the same pot. They also aimed to benefit from other sides of the concurrent election practice: stable electoral/post electoral alliances.

For this purpose, prior to 2018 elections, electoral alliances were encouraged by a law that if parties organize an electoral alliance in parliamentary elections and the sum of the votes cast for alliances were more than 10%, it would be accepted as if every party in the alliance surpassed the threshold (Hale 2008, p.236). In line with this, specific ruling parties like AKP and MHP formed an alliance aimed to draw support of all parties which had concerns about passing the threshold (Yokuş 2018, p.18). In 2018, for the first time in Turkey, TBMM elections and the first round of presidential elections were held simultaneously. Two essential alliances participated in the elections. On one side, there was *Cumhur İttifakı* (Public Alliance). This alliance was formed by AKP and MHP (National Movement Party). The presidential candidate of *Cumhur İttifakı* was the incumbent president, Erdoğan. In reality, the both partners in the coalition were right-wing and coherent parties (Miş and Duran 2018, p.30). These partners exploited Erdoğan's coattail effect maximally. On the other side, there was *Millet İttifakı* (Nation Alliance); this alliance was formed by *CHP* (Republican People Party) and *İP* (Good Party). The alliance had separate presidential candidates who participated

for the first round of presidential election to take advantage of the *coattail effect* (Tavits 2009, pp.141-142). In addition to these alliance, the Kurdish Party, *HDP* (People’s Democracy Party), participated in the elections without been included in any alliance.

As a result of the forgoing this study investigated the presidential and TBMM elections between 2014 and 2018. The justification for choosing this period was because it was during this period that the two separated elections and concurrent elections were experienced. Furthermore, the study excluded the 1st of November, 2015 TBMM election and this was due to its exceptionality. The results are coherent with the reality of empirical studies.



As illustrated in Figure 1, concurrent elections gifted a stable majority support for Erdoğan unlikely the June 7, 2015 TBMM election which was held a year after the 2014 presidential election. Even though Erdoğan’s AKP got the simple majority and even if it was a fewer majorities than 50%, the “Public Alliance” got an absolute majority of TBMM. Hence, the Turkish type of presidentialism, like those of countries in Latin American, Asia and Post-Soviet, has started to fuse legislature and presidency automatically.

Essentially, the division of the parties as a two block structure reflects the historical journey of Turkish policy based on center-periphery. The CHP and IP represent the secular part of the society and coastal provinces of

the country while AKP and MHP represent the conservative parts of the society, inner parts and center-Anatolian areas of the country. Due to the fact that Erdoğan's political acts are based on populism combined with this coalitional separation, a deepen cleavage that Kalaycıoğlu (2011, pp.1-22) nominated as *Kultur kamphf*, arose intensely. In all fairness, this deepen cleavage gave rise to stabilization of the political positions which the Erdoğanist majority of TBMM usually dominates the policy. Hence, the coalitions are built by parties transform to permanent and semi-obligatory collaborations after the elections. This phenomenon is overtly seen if one observes the voting of TBMM's plenary sessions. Usually, CHP and IP vote as a block while AKP and MHP vote in the same way. For this reason, the Erdoğanist majority of TBMM always determines the results (Arabacı, 2019).

The majority support for presidential policies in parliament do not constitute danger for the system if the system has checks and balances between two branches. Specifically, members of the parliament (*hereafter MP*) can provide an independent future to themselves from the president. In this case, the MP can reflect their own will if need be against the presidential policies in which case, check and balances are established spontaneously. On the other hand, if the political future of MP belongs to their party leaders, their inner-parliament behavior is formed by their leaders. It is worth a mention that candidate selection procedure and quality of electoral system are important variants for the issue. As Shatterschneider (1942, p.64) observed, "*the nature of nominating procedure determines the nature of the party; he who can make the nominations is the owner of the party.*" In line with this though, Siavelis and Morgenstern (2008, pp. 39-40) highlighted that, at the time candidates are selected, the more the process is centralized, the more it produces candidates loyal to the party/leader. Similarly, district magnitude and list type are another variant on parliamentary loyalty. In closed-list proportional systems, even candidate with high qualities lose and this is due to the fact that the party becomes the main decisive actor on the nomination of candidates. In this systems, It does not matter whether candidates have reputation in his/her constituency or not. Voters make choice among parties but not candidates (Siavelis and Morgenstern 2008, 37-38).

In Turkey, both the closed-list proportional system and centralized candidate selection exists. For this reason, party leaders control their MP in terms of both candidate selection and election system. As a result of this, a median MP obeys the party leader's directives. The organizational model of the Political Parties Law in Turkey seems consistent with democratic principles since party leaders and executive committees are elected by party congress. Nevertheless, historically and at present, all parties display strong oligarchic tendencies (Ozbudun, 2000, pp.246-247; AyanMusil 2015, p.85). The fact that party leaders decide candidate lists of their parties makes it less likely to challenge the party leader's decisions (Kabasakal 2019, 182). A recent empirical research based on the June 12, 2011 and June 7, 2015 general elections showed that no change happened in this observation. For these elections, the party leaders decided who would be candidate in the general election after suitability assessments were made within the party (Dönmez, 2016, pp.210-213). Furthermore, Turkish political leaders rarely left the chairmanship (Özbudun p.2002, 247; Sayarı, 2002), this, according to Kalaycıoğlu (2013, p.487) reveals a lack of party institutionalization and makes the party leaders more prominent than their parties.

This hegemony and oligarchic structure is reflective in the actions of party members and MPs. As a result of this, it could be inferred that the party leader's control over their MP is form of full hegemony (Ayan Musil 2015, p.85; Kabasakal 2019, p.181). Also, it should not be forgotten that the president (Erdoğan) has been the leader of his party since 2017. In 2017 amendments, the rule that elected president who is a party member must resign from the party was removed. When a party leader with the party leader's full hegemony is associated with party leader being president, it is inevitable that the MP's will not be obedient to the president (Yokuş 2018, pp.14-15). The hegemony of president over MP's of his party and coalition can be explained bringing a more recent example into focus. The draft that permits the thermal power plants to operate without installing filter was approved by votes of the members of AKP and MHP. However, because the draft was strongly criticized by the public through their opinion as recorded on different media particularly, social media, the president and AKP leader Erdoğan vetoed this draft to satisfy public opinion (Hurriyet Daily News, 2019).

Subsequently, this draft was changed in TBMM commission to comply with the presidential veto in line with the criticisms and opinions of the public. So far, everything is normal. However, fascinating about this was that some of the MP's who proposed and approved the draft thanked and congratulated the president immediately after his veto decision aired on the social media at night². This fact clearly shows that for the MPs, what is more important is to be liked by their party leader as well as sustain a good relationship with the president than their own parliamentary actions and responsibilities. The both nature of the electoral system which almost guaranteed the majority of TBMM by virtue of concurrent elections together with 10% national threshold and presidential hegemony over this majority as party leader reveals a dominant-presidential system clearly (Yokuş 2018, 14-15; Castaldo 2019, 479;).

III. President's Formal Powers in the Turkish Type of Presidentialism

Presidential powers that transformed the Turkish type of presidentialism to hyper-presidentialism are president's law-making powers such as decree power and veto power to propose the budget bills as well as the appointment power to select people to positions like high-ranking executive officials and judges of TCC and CJP.

Legislative Powers

In modern times, presidents have to be "chief legislators" as well as "chief executive" (Chasquetti 2011, p.10; Bulmer 2017, pp.3, 6). This therefore makes some particular periods such as periods of economic crisis or calamity a heavy responsibility for presidents. This is because, citizens, particularly those in delegative democracies, expect the president to act with urgency to solve problems when parliament does not take the responsibility to act urgently when it is needed. It is for reasons such as this that presidents, even if they do not have the constitutional power, can issue decrees which have the power and force of law to by-pass Congress. This scenario was witnessed in the action of the president of Argentina, Menem, in pre-1994 (Negretto, 2001, pp.94-95; Onainda 2009, pp.44-45). In contrast, a system that has powerful executive branch, the decree power can have a constitutional place as with the case of Brazil and Indonesia of

² Turkish Minute, "AKP deputies make U-turn after Erdoğan's veto of law on thermal power plants", <https://www.turkishminute.com/2019/12/03/akp-deputies-make-u-turn-after-erdogans-veto-of-law-on-thermal-power-plants/>, (10.12.2019).

the post-democratic transition (Power, 1998, pp.199-202; Negretto, 2001, pp.88-90; Etsi 2009, pp.272-276).

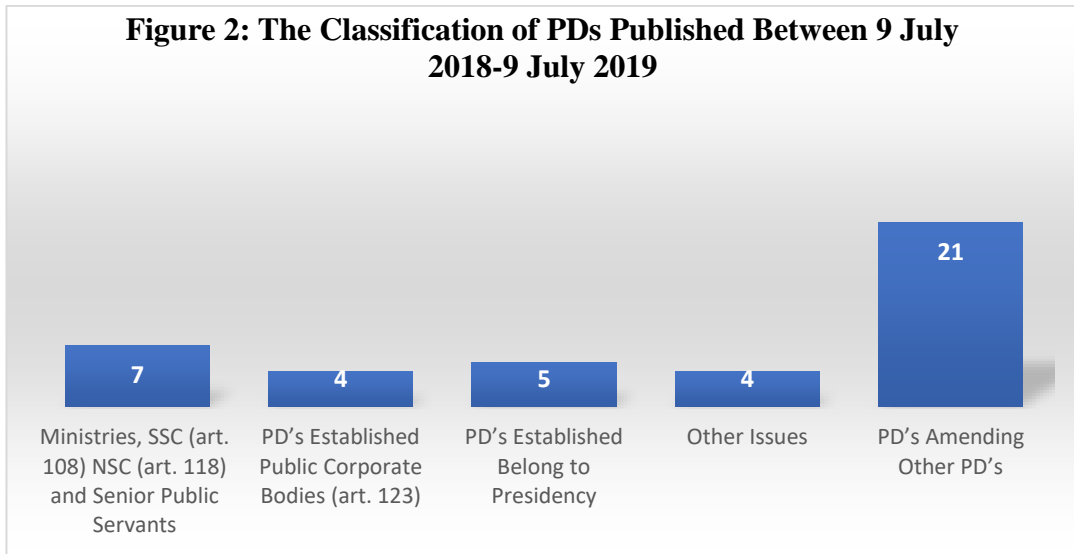
In Turkey, from 1971 to 2017, the Turkish executive branch had a type of delegative decree power (*kanun hükmünde kararname-decree-law*). According to article 91 of pre-2017 version of the Turkish Constitution, the Cabinet was able to wield this type of decree as long as TBMM approved it by an “authorization law” that indicates the scope and time of decrees. These delegated decrees could not regulate basic human rights but economic and social rights. Also, in emergency periods, cabinet could publish decree-law without basing it on an “authorization law” with a condition to submit to TBMM immediately. In total, the cabinet published 706 decree-laws (average 14.1 per year) including emergency decree-laws between 1971 and 2018. Through all of these decrees, the Cabinet made regulations on privatization; public official reforms which resulted in the dismissal of a hundred thousand public servants in post-2016 coup attempt. This means that the executive branch of Turkey became use to administration by decree-laws. Owing to this historical reasons as well as the perception of the powerful executive in recent times, the makers of the 2017 amendments gave to the president a constitutional decree power (Shugart and Carey 1998; Colomer and Negretto 2003, p.38; Payne 2007, p.89). The key feature of this constitutional decree power for Turkish president is that president does not have to be base on any “authorization law”. This power is directly obtained from the constitution. According to article 104 of 1982 Constitution, the scope of PD has to be the issues within the executive branch and must exclude *the fundamental rights, individual rights and duties, political rights and duties (Article 104/17)*. A major discussion is about place of PDs on the hierarchy of norms. According to article 104 (17), “*No presidential decree shall be issued on the matters which are stipulated in Constitution to be regulated exclusively by law. No presidential decree shall be issued on the matters explicitly regulated by law. In the case of discrepancy between provisions of the presidential decrees and the laws, the provisions of the law shall prevail. A presidential decree shall become null and void if the Grand National Assembly of Turkey enacts a law on the same matter*³”.

³ See. Article of 104, Turkish Constitution, https://global.tbmm.gov.tr/docs/constitution_en.pdf, 11..12.2019.

These provisions clearly show that the constitution favors supremacy of the laws instead of PDs. However, some other provisions of the constitution make create a form of uncertainty. Even if these provisions are about inner organization of executive branch, it is not easy to detect the front line of these domains. These domains – *establishment, abolition, the duties and powers, the organizational structure of the ministries, and the establishment of their central and provincial organizations, shall be regulated by the presidential decree. (article 106), The functioning of the State Supervisory Council, the term of office of its members, and other personnel matters relating to their status (article 108), organization and duties of the General Secretariat of the National Security Council (Article. 118)* “shall be made by presidential decree. Also, public corporation bodies shall be established by PDs as well as the law (Article. 123). Due to the fact that the structural form of the provision used “shall” instead of “can”, some Turkish scholars asserted this issues can be regulate by the President only. This implies that these are reserved domains of executive branch and TBMM cannot issue any law about it (Gözler 2019, p.867; Atar 2019, p.257). Conversely, majority of Turkish scholars suggest that the Constitution does not explicitly prohibit the TBMM from regulating those domains (Ardıçoğlu, 2017, p.44; Anayurt 2019, p.325). In fact, the constitution does not clearly distinguish “the executive domain”, the president freely regulate a specific area denoted as the executive domain. Therefore, the constitution gives the president a “carta blanca” on law-making (Çalışkan, 2018, p.27), though, this issue remains on the front burner and awaits resolve on the TCC. The court is still yet to decide on the issue.

Together with the 2018 elections, the president has guaranteed the TBMM majority. This has made it easy for the president to issue any PD if and when needed. Moreover, before it came to force as a new government system in July 2018, TBMM approved an authorization law. Based on this law, the Cabinet issued its no.703 delegated decree on July 9, 2018. The aim of this decree was to abolish laws regulating issues relating to the domains of the PD, thus, the government prepared a legal structure for the PDs. In fact, according to Yıldırım (2019, p. 336), what was made was a domain cleaning. Furthermore, post June 2018, TBMM consciously and as a political choice, have not regulated issues relating to what PDs can regulate.

Figure 2: The Classification of PDs Published Between 9 July 2018-9 July 2019



The first year of the system (July, 2018 –July, 2019)⁴ showed that constitutional decree power is basic instrument to make law and to produce policy for the president. When law-making performance of president is compared with TBMM's law-making performance, we see that the president is a more effective law-maker than the TBMM. As can be seen from Figure 2, the president has published all type of constitutional decrees in alignment with his constitutional authority. The president regulated the ministries (PD no. 4), National Security Council (PD no. 6) and issued an appointment of high-ranking public servants (PD no. 3), established public corporate bodies and entities belonging to the presidency. In addition to the preceding decrees, the president published different decrees in relation to executive branch (PD no. 8, 9, 10 and 25). What is remarkable is in these entire decrees is that majority of the PDs amended other existing PDs. This amount to the amendment of 21 decrees of the last 28 PDs published. Hence, this implies that 50% of the PDs were amended one, specifically on PDs no. 1, 2, 3 and 4. Some possibilities in terms of this behavior of president include the following;

First and foremost, the president maybe experienced some unforeseen necessities of modern administrative organization. As a result, the new requirements necessitated new decrees. Nonetheless, the period in

⁴Data are collected using Official Gazettes between July 9, 2018 and July 9, 2019. See. <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/>.

question in which this study examined is rather short for unforeseen requirements as much as 21 PDs. Second, it was not carried out with a diligent and prepared process. In fact, this is highly possible since the process of publishing is faster than making laws and fewer actors participate in the process. With regards to the process that a law comes to force, initially, one or more MP proposes a law draft and President of TBMM scrutinize the draft and subsequently the president of TBMM sends the draft to the commission and the details of the law are formed. To buttress the second reason, in plenary session of TBMM, law draft is usually discussed article by article and if it is approved, TBMM forwards it to the president; meanwhile, the public opinion is sorted and considered. In the event that the public opinion is negative, the president can use his/her veto power on the draft. As a result of this, the draft is tested a lot of time.

However, the publishing process of PD has not wide-participation and deliberative as much as law drafts. That's why, mistakes can be determined frequently. Thirdly and an important reason is the political aims. In this case, the president, due to the fact that he is the leader of his political party, feels that he has to rewards his supporters and, political and bureaucratic allies through executive positions. In doing so, he enacts decrees that will ensure the legality of the appointment of his allies to executive positions. Such PDs that regulate the executive positions change frequently. For example, decree-law no. 703 regulated that rectors of state universities are appointed by the president. Then, PD no. 3 regulated the appointment conditions of university rectors. One of conditions for this appointment was that the appointee must been a "professor for 3 years". Two months after this decree, another decree, PD no. 17, changed the condition and stated that all that is needed to be a rector was to have attained a "professorial level." From this, it can be inferred that any reasonable justification is put forth as reason for the needed change. In any event, the earlier views of Fuller (1969, p.39) lent credence to the implication of this situation that PDs makes legal security and rule of law questionable.

To further grasp presidential dominance on law-making, the president's performance of issuing PD should be compared with TBMM's performance of approving laws. The president issued average 3.5 PDs per

month. In same period, 42 bills have been enacted by TBMM⁵. For a moment, it seems that both the president and TBMM equally enacted regulations with force of law. However, if the laws are diligently counted, the presidential dominance prevails. Of the 42 laws, 11 were about ratifying of international agreements that executive branch has direct role on the signing of⁶. Also, the budget and final account bills that the president proposed are place within all of laws approved by TBMM⁷. So, the president has played an effective role on the 13 (30.9%) of the laws approved by TBMM between July 2018 to July 2019.

The presidential veto power is another essential power of president together with decree power. The potency of the veto power is measurable when the parliament is hostile to president. It is obvious that in a situation of any tension between the president and parliament, precedence have revealed that the president would evoke this power. On account of this, the nature of the president's veto power gains significance. In comparative presidentialism studies, it seems that the majority to override the presidential veto is different from one country to another. While, the parliaments of some countries insist it must be by the vote of 2/3 of the members of parliament to override the veto, in some other country, this requirement can be absolute majority or 3/5 of the parliament. Of these three choices, the one that most highlights the power of parliament is the second one. In this parameter, when the government is divided whereby the parliament is dominated by the opposition parties, parliament takes a chance to challenge the president's political ambitions. For this reason, one can suggest that the Turkish parliament have an opportunity to overcome the presidential veto since the TBMM can have the majority and can overturn the presidential veto by absolute majority. However, a consolidated opposition is a necessity for TBMM to be able to operate as

⁵ Legislative year is started on 1 October. Therefore, I investigated period between 1 October 2018-1 October-2019. First law that was published in the Official Gazette on 11 October 2018 is the law no. 7147. The last law that is published in the Official Gazette on 19 July 2019 was the law no. 7186.

⁶ These are the laws no. 7154, 7158, 7160, 7168, 7169, 7170, 7171, 7172, 7173, 7177 and 7178.

⁷ 2019 budget law is denominated as "Budget Law of Central Administration of the year of 2019 No. 7156" See. <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/12/20181231M1-1.htm>; Meanwhile, 2017 final account law is denominated as Final Account Law of Central Administration of the year of 2017 No. 7157, See. <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/12/20181231M2-1.htm>.

a forceful institutional mechanism in the divided government period. The succeeding paragraph reveals that the concurrent elections and 10% national threshold remains an obstacle to elect an MP from small parties, consequently prevent the building of an effective oppositional majority in TBMM.

President's Appointment Power

Turkish president has hegemony on the executive branch. The president controls a huge administrative structure both constitutionally and legally. He can appoint and dismiss almost all the members of the state apparatus freely as well as their ministers. According to article 104 of the constitution, the president shall appoint vice-presidents, ministers and high-ranking executives. The president also according to PD no.3, shall appoint servants of presidential offices and ministries, ambassadors, the members of the High Education Council, university rectors, police chiefs, generals of army, governors and vice-governors of provinces, governors of districts (*kaymakam-qaymaqam*), ministerial directors of provinces, police directors of provinces, even regional governors or muftis of province etc. (Article. 2 and 3 of the PD no. 3). In addition to this, the president shall appoint the members of independent administrative authorities such as High Council of Radio and Television, Competition Authority, public Procurement Authority, Energy Market Regulatory Authority etc.

As a result, the president dominates all sides of the executive branch. Based on this appointment power, president Erdoğan published more than 300 presidential appointment orders (*Cumhurbaşkanlığı atamakararı*, hereafter "the order") between July 9, 2018 and July 9, 2019⁸. However, one can see that there is no unique or monotype implementation about publishing procedure of the orders. Sometimes, the president makes multi-appointments through only an order, specifically, for the appointments of governors of provinces and districts, muftis, ambassadors or rectors⁹. In reality, the appointments which are made by president Erdoğan are bigger than we thought.

⁸The data are collected using Official Gazettes between July 9, 2018 and July 9, 2019. See. <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/>.

⁹ For example, in 2018, presidential appointment orders no. 200, 201 (for muftis), 230 and 231 (for ambassadors) 260-268 (for governors of provinces and districts), and, in 2019, 2019/84, 2019/132 (for university rectors) included the multi-appointments.

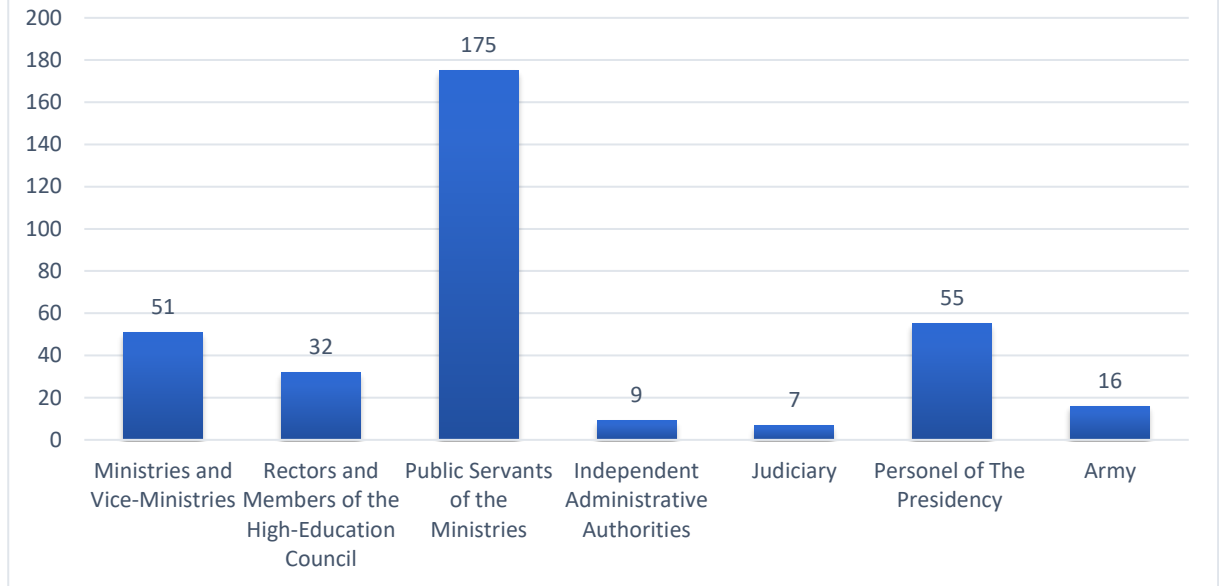
In addition, a president, according to constitution shall directly appoint one-fourth of the Council of State (Article 155), 12 of the 15 members of TCC (Article 146) and 3 of 13 members of CJP (Article 19). However, there is no doubt that he can intervene in the appointment of the 3 members of TCC and CJP which TBMM selects. President Erdoğan found the chance to appoint Justices for Supreme Courts of Turkey, this included five appointment for Court of State (*Danıştay*)¹⁰ and two appointment to Constitutional Court¹¹ within the first year of the Turkish type of presidentialism. President Erdoğan has also appointed five Justice to the TCC since 2014¹². If accounts of these appointments are carefully considered, the TCC is comprised by 15 Judges. Hence, one can observe the effectiveness of Erdoğan dominance within the Court.

¹⁰ Appointments for Court of State are published at Official Gazette by Presidential Appointment Orders no. 14, 15, 16 17 and 244. See. Official Gazette, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/07/20180717-4.pdf>, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/07/20180717-5.pdf>, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/07/20180717-6.pdf>, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/07/20180717-7.pdf>, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2018/11/20181129-1.pdf>, 19.12.2019.

¹¹ Appointments for Constitutional Court is published at Official Gazette by the Presidential Appointment Orders no. 2019/37 and 2019/158. See. <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2019/01/20190125-8.pdf>, <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2019/07/20190706-2.pdf>, 19.12.2019.

¹² They are Kadir Özkaya, Recai Akyel, Yusuf Şevki Hakyemez, Yıldız Seferinlioğlu and Selahaddin Menteş.

Figure 3: The Quantity of Presidential Appointment Orders between June 9, 2018-June 9, 2019



Erdoğan's power on the TCC can be perceived better in the Post-2016 Coup when the government declared a state of emergency. By the emergency decree-laws, more than 100,000 public servants were retrenched while media outlets and newspapers agencies were closed etc. CHP made applications to TCC to lift some of the measures of the emergency decree-laws, however, TCC *alleged* that the emergency decree-laws regulated the issues in the country out of the emergency. However, TCC, contrary to its jurisprudence which was established in 1990's¹³, rejected these applications with reason that the Court does not have the authority to abolish the emergency decree-laws (See. E. 2016/167, K.2016/160, 12 October 2016, Official Gazette, November 4, 2016 -29898). This interpretation means that TCC chose a literal interpretation of Article 148 of the Constitution that emergency decree - laws are out of review of TCC (Haimerl, 2017). Therefore, the president obtained the power to regulate what he/she wanted using emergency decree-laws (Acar, 2019; Castilla-Ortiz 2019, pp.58-59).” This situation can be explained not only through the understanding of the self-restraining

¹³In 1991, Constitutional Court ruled that calling any measures a decree adopted under a state of emergency would not avoid constitutional review if the scope of the decree went beyond what was necessary under a particular state of emergency. In other words, the Court had held that the government may not regulate matters that are irrelevant to the exigencies of the state of emergency via emergency decrees.

originated from the post-coup period but also through an increasing ideological proximity between the president and the majority of all the judges of the TCC due to the fact that their appointment were from the presidential appointments.

IV. A Key Ticket to Salvation from the Authoritarian Regime: Presidential Term Limit

Going by the 2017 referendum, AKP government changed a lot of article in the constitution, particularly, those related to government system. Afterward, the presidential and TBMM elections held in 2018 and Erdoğan was elected for a second term as president. What is fascinating is that a norm was not amended along with the huge amount of amendments made. This norm is article 101 of the constitution that regulates the presidential term limit. This norm explains that the president has a limitation of only two terms since 2007. However, they did not foresee any transition article about Erdoğan's first presidency (2014 - 2018). At this point, some questions that is raised when we take on the account of the fact that Erdoğan was elected as president by an elections of 2014 and 2018 includes; Can Erdoğan be a candidate in 2023 presidential elections again? Should Erdoğan's first presidency which served together with a prime minister within a double-headed executive count for the new system?

AKP supporters have suggested any claim about these issues are purveyed by opposition and prefer to keep silence. However, it is clear that they support the idea Erdoğan's first term (2014-2018) should not be include to the post-2017 period since the new system is significantly different when compared to the pre-2017 double-headed executive. Their views on the issue can be understood clearly when one visits the Web page of the Turkish Presidency for a short time. The Web page introduces Erdoğan as the first president of the Turkish type of presidentialism. Hence, so there is a tacit understanding to exclude the Erdoğan's first presidency from the new system (Tecimer, 2019). They can argue that Erdoğan's first term was within a semi-presidentialism. Erdoğan had limited powers within this period unlike in the Turkish type of presidentialism. This constitutional understanding of the presidency evolved from the 2017 amendment (Tecimer, 2019). Therefore, the new understanding resets the clock in the case of Erdoğan. However, there is no reason to justify this

argument. In order to reset the old president's term limits, there is need for a reasonable and clear constitutional provision or constitution-maker should make a new constitution (Ginsburg et. al., 2011, p.1848; Tull and Simons 2017, p.84). Moreover, in the case of Turkey, what is made in 2017 was only constitutional amendment but was not a constitution making. As a rule, constitutional amendments cannot affect the situations which are formed with constitutional practices made in the pre-amendment period. The only exception to this rule may be to regulate the situations of old president's term limits by a transition article.

Unfortunately, any transition article about Erdoğan's first term which took place between 2014 -2018 was included. Therefore there is no reason to deviate from general interpretation of the law (Gözler, 2019, p.795). According to the 1982 constitution, Erdoğan was elected first time in 2014 and the second time in 2018. Thus, it can be defended that, except the foreseen conditions in article 116 (3), Erdoğan cannot be candidate for next presidential election. Then, what does the article 116 (3) say? Article 116 (3) states that *"If the Assembly decides to renew the elections during the second term of the President of the Republic, he/she may once again be a candidate."* This means that if a president serves his second term and wishes to be elected for the third time, he must negotiate with the TBMM and ensure a TBMM decision for snap elections. If the president is victorious in the decision of the TBMM, he/she would be guaranteed to be a candidate for next presidential elections "to compensate his/her for an uncompleted second term" again. The constitution does not place a restriction on TBMM's decision on the snap election, as long as TBMM decides the snap election by 3/5 votes of total members (Article 116/1), this decision cannot be prevented. President must take into account only political distribution of parties in TBMM to get 3/5 majority. However, if a president, like Erdoğan, has served as head of government for 17 years, what he will want when he participates in elections is to win. Through media channels, newspapers, state bureaucracy, electoral council and other unofficial state sources, the elections *-at least presidential elections-* can be won easily. Therefore, even if the president does not have the 3/5 majority of TBMM for the snap election decision, he/she can sacrifice any source of state to convince the people that he did. For the 2023 elections, Erdoğan needs to have 60 MP at least and this MP's can be ensured by İP or HDP. To move from the current status quo, that is, the Turkish regime with hyper-presidentialism and return to democracy, the only thing that

can be done is to protect the term-limit rule which is regulated by articles 101 and 116 so that corrupt politicians do not interpret these rules to satisfy their desires.

Conclusion

Turkish type of presidentialism has obviously been converted to a hyper-presidentialism since it came to force in 2018. To make this inference, this study observed the first year of the system and made the arrived at the following conclusions.

(1) The president dominated TBMM using his coalition. The dominance was provided by the concurrent elections and an electoral law which permits electoral alliances on TBMM elections. This suggestion is verified spontaneously when we compared the 2018 TBMM elections which was held together with the presidential elections and the June 7, 2015 TBMM elections which held only parliamentary election. By virtue of the concurrent elections, president Erdoğan got a majority support of the TBMM. In addition to this, he is officially the party leader of AKP which is the biggest party within TBMM. Therefore it is clearly impossible to enact a bill that will be at loggerhead with the opinion of the president.

(2) Erdoğan is in a position that will ensure a co-partnership along with TBMM on making policy and regulations which possesses force of law by his decree power and budget power. According to empirical data, Erdoğan published more regulations which have force of law than TBMM did. Moreover, it can be said that even if TBMM is against Erdoğan, it rarely can reject the budget law because of provisions of the constitution. Therefore, the president directs the law-policy of the state.

(3) Erdoğan governs the administrative organization of the state. However, his authority is not limited to central government which includes ministers, vice-presidents or public servants of presidential offices. He governs provincial public servants (like muftis, qaymaqams, governors of provinces), universities (through of rectors and High Education Council) and independent administrative authorities by virtue of his appointment power. In addition, the president possesses a dominant position on the Judiciary by virtue of his appointment power to TCC, HSK

and Danıştay within last a few years. As a conclusion, it can be said that Erdoğan have dominance on all state branches in his presidential reign.

(4) In order to make Turkey a democracy again, Erdoğan must respect the constitutional term limits. Thus, the ruling will pass the presidency to the opposition candidate or another person within AKP. Thanks to this transition, check and balance can be functioned even if it is limited.

Notes on Contributor

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VOCABULARY LEARNING AND VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

Arafat Useini, page 99-108

ABSTRACT

Vocabulary learning is an important component in language learning and of critical importance to the typical language learner. It is a basic constituent of learning a language. If students lack vocabulary they will be unable to function in any particular communication. Also, the grammar or the structure of a language is also important. But if we wish to express ourselves effectively we need enough vocabulary. The more words we know, the better we understand what we read and listen to. Unfortunately, the importance of vocabulary teaching is being neglected by most of the language teachers. They assume that their students will learn words incidentally. It is thought that vocabulary expansion will happen through the practice of other language skills. Teachers need to be aware of and expand vocabulary teaching techniques. Furthermore, the language teacher needs to have a deep knowledge on Vocabulary Language Strategies, thus find systematic ways of helping learners in building vocabulary. This paper deals with some of the ways vocabulary is taught by pointing out the Vocabulary Learning, Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Learning Strategies.

Keywords: Vocabulary, Vocabulary Teaching, Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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Introduction

Concept of learning can be defined as permanent change in a behavioral tendency resulted with reinforced practice. Brown (1994:7) defines learning as “acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience or instruction”. However the concept ‘teaching’ can be defined as guiding and facilitating learning, enabling learners to learn, setting the conditions for learning. Brown (1994:7) defines teaching as “showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand”. Learning is an active process and it is personal and individual. Dawson (1984:17) states that “students learn by actively involved in the lesson. They do not learn just by listening to you”. “People learn more by doing things themselves rather than by being told about them. Learners are intelligent, fully functioning humans, not simply receptacles for passed-on knowledge. Learning is not simply a one-dimensional activity, but involves the whole person” (Scrivener, 1994:4). However, Learning strategies and language learning strategies will be defined in the next section, because their definitions are the basis in understanding the Vocabulary Learning Strategies.

Learning Strategy and Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Learning Strategy can be defined as behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner process information. Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robins (1999:2) defines Learning Strategies as “procedures or techniques that learners can use to facilitate a learning task”. Learning Strategies are employed in all learning no matter what the content or the context is. Thus, learning strategies are used in learning and teaching math, science, history, languages and other subjects. “Learning Strategies instruction can help students of English become better learners. Students become more motivated as they begin to understand the relationship between their use of strategies and success in learning English”(Chamot,1999;1). “Familiarity with Learning Strategy can enhance understanding of what goes on in classrooms”(Nunan,1989;47).

Language Learning Strategies are any sets of operation, steps, plans, routines, techniques, specific actions used by the learner to facilitate the internalizing, storage, retrieval, and the use of the new

language. Learning is “the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used”(Schmitt,1997;203). Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies are :

1. Language Learning Strategies are learner generated.
2. Language Learning Strategies enhance language learning and help to develop language competence.
3. Language Learning Strategies may be visible (behaviours, techniques) or invisible (thoughts, mental processes).
4. Language Learning Strategies involve information and memory.
5. Language Learning Strategies allow learners to be self directed.
6. Language Learning Strategies expand the role of language teachers.
7. Language Learning Strategies are problem-oriented.
8. Language Learning Strategies can be taught.
9. Language Learning Strategies are flexible.
10. Language Learning Strategies are influenced by a variety of factors.
11. Language Learning Strategies involve many aspects, not just cognitive.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars and they have studied the use of strategies by learners. For Example O’Malley (in Brown,1994;115) classifies Language Learning Strategies into three main groups :

1. **Metacognitive Strategies** : These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self direct language learning. It involves: planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one’s production or comprehension and evaluating learning after an activity is completed.
2. **Cognitive Strategies**: are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself.

3. **Socio-affective Strategies** : It can be stated that socio-affective strategies are related with social–mediating activity and transacting with other.

Each of these major categories describes a large number of strategies, so more detailed taxonomies are possible .

Oxford (in Griffiths and Parr,2001;250) classifies Language Learning Strategies into six groups: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social affective strategies.

An important distinction exists between communication and Language Learning Strategies. Communication Strategies are used by speakers intentionally and consciously in order to cope with difficulties in communicating in a foreign language. The purpose is to participate in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Being a broad concept, Language Learning Strategies are used to refer to all strategies foreign language learners use in learning the target language and communication strategies are one type of Language Learning Strategies.

2.3.1 A taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS)

Vocabulary Learning Strategies are a part of Language Learning Strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies. Nation (2001:217) tries to define what a strategy is by listing the following requirements:

1. involve choice ,that is, there are several strategies to choose from.
2. be complex that is, there are several steps to learn.
3. require knowledge and benefit from training .
4. increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use.

There are numerous strategies which have these features. Learners should know all about these strategies and have skills in using them.

Schmitt developed an extensive taxonomy organized around Oxford's social, cognitive, metacognitive strategies. But he needed to create a new category for this taxonomy: Determination Strategy. Fowle

(2002:383) defines Determination strategy as “deducing the meaning of a new word by one’s self”.

In order to give some impression of the range of possibilities of Vocabulary Learning Strategies, we should have a look at Schmitt’s list:

Strategy group	Strategy
Strategies for the discovery of a new word’s meaning	
DET	Analyze part of speech
DET	Analyze affixes and roots
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures
DET	Guess meaning from textual context
DET	Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)
SOC	Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1
translation	of new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Interact with native speakers
MEM	Connect word to a previous personal
experience	
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and
antonyms	
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Image word’s meaning
MEM	Use Keyword Method
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word

COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Put English on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook.
MET	Use English-language media(songs, movies, newscasts, etc)
MET	Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal)
MET	Test oneself with word tests
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time (Schmitt,2000;134)

Schmitt (2000:133) categorized the list in two ways in order to make such a long list more understandable. First he divides the list into two major classes: (1) strategies that are useful for the initial discovery of a words' meaning, and (2) those useful for remembering that word once it has been introduced . This reflects the different processes necessary for working out a new word meaning and usage and consolidating it in memory for future use. Second , Schmitt (2000:135-136) ; Schmitt (1997:208-216) classifies strategies into five groups:

Determination Strategies (DET) : used by an individual when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise. If learners do not know a word, they must discover its meaning by guessing from their structural knowledge of the language, guessing from an L1 cognate, guessing from context, using reference materials.

Social Strategies (SOC) : use interaction with other people to improve language learning. One can ask teachers or classmates for information about a new word and they can answer in a variety of ways: giving the L1 translation if they know it, giving

a synonym, giving a definition by paraphrase, using the new word in a sentence or any combination of these.

Memory Strategies (MEM): involve relating the word to be retained with some previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery, or grouping. A new word can be integrated into many kinds of existing knowledge. Fowle (2002:383) states that “the memory strategies utilized includes studying the word with a pictorial representation, connecting the word to synonyms and antonyms, using semantic maps, using clines for gradable adjectives, grouping words together, using new words in a sentence, studying the spelling of a word, underlying the initial letter of a word (words are recorded alphabetically), studying parts of a speech and paraphrasing the word’s meaning”.

Cognitive Strategies (COG) : are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning. They are similar to memory strategies, but are not focused so specifically on manipulative mental processing; they include repetition and using mechanical means to study the vocabulary including the keeping of vocabulary notebooks.

Metacognitive Strategies (MET): are used by students to control and evaluate their own learning by having an overview of the learning process in general. This includes improving access to input, deciding on the most efficient methods of study and testing oneself. It also includes which words are worth studying and which are not .

Vocabulary Learning Strategies seem to be simple repetition and taking notes on vocabulary. Schmitt (2000:133) states that:

Rather than being used individually, multiple VLS are often used concurrently. This means that active management of strategy use is important. Good learners do things such as use a variety of strategies, structure their vocabulary learning, review and practice target words and they are aware of the semantic relationships between new and previously learned L2 words, that is

they are conscious of their learning and take steps to regulate it.

Ellis and Sinclair (1989:14-15) confirm this view as “...the most effective learners seem those who discover some kind of pattern, for example semantic groups, or those who make their own associations, for instance with a visual image in their mind”. Teachers need to consider the overall learning context in order to consider which vocabulary learning strategies to recommend to his/her students. Schmitt (2000:133) points out that “the effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used will depend on a number of variables, including the proficiency level, L1 and culture of students, their motivation and purposes for learning the L2, the task and text being used and the nature of the L2 itself”. Students need to take some responsibility for their own vocabulary learning. However, teachers should know the Language Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Learning Strategies so that will make teaching and learning of vocabulary more effective.

Conclusion and Implications

The purpose of this paper was to point out the importance of using vocabulary teaching strategies and teaching vocabulary learning strategies to students in order to facilitate the increment of their English vocabulary.

Teachers need to be aware of and expand vocabulary teaching techniques. They need to consider the overall learning context in order to consider which vocabulary learning strategies to recommend to his/her students.

Students need to take some responsibility for their own vocabulary learning making it necessary to introduce them to vocabulary learning strategies so that they can do this more effectively.

After language learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies have been mentioned, teachers should know all about Language Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Learning Strategies before teaching so that will make teaching and learning of vocabulary

more effective. If teachers take the importance of Vocabulary Learning Strategies on the surface level, they will be able to solve many problems that the students may face with in learning vocabulary .

The teachers also recommend employing a number of classroom activities or tasks such as vocabulary games, dictations, spoken and written repetition, and group work. They certainly believe that those tasks could provide their students with a great deal of practice time as well as constant exposure to the language.

It is important that teachers should treat the teaching of vocabulary not only at the level of teaching students vocabulary learning strategies and apply them as an isolated issue, but as an integral part of the group that will help them develop in learner's communicative skills

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INTEGRATION OF JURAN'S TRILOGY, DEMING'S QUALITY CYCLE AND DMAIC METHODOLOGY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGEMENT WITH QUALITY COST METHODOLOGY

Cvetanka Velkoska, page 109-123

ABSTRACT

This paper presents systematized approach to introducing and implementing a management system with quality costs, with a development of a management methodology using quality costs which, in a structured and systematic manner includes all relevant procedures (algorithms), with a view fully expressing the benefits and usefulness of the quality costs. The methodological approach includes the algorithm for introducing and implementing the management system with quality costs, the algorithm for the selection of a relevant quality costs approach and model, the quality costs identification and categorization algorithm, the quality costs measuring algorithm, as well as the quality costs management algorithm and the algorithm for management with quality costs. The scientific contribution of this paper involves the integration of the three known methodologies used in quality management: Juran's trilogy, Deming's quality cycle – PDCA, and the DMAIC methodology, in the development of the methodology for quality management with quality costs, aimed at improving the effectiveness of the management system with quality costs and the sustainability of the company.

Keywords: quality costs, Juran's trilogy, PDCA, DMAIC.

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INTRODUCTION

Today, one of the most fundamental consensuses reached between the theoreticians and the practitioners in the area of quality costs, revolves around the need to exert continuous pressure to improve the level of quality until a perfect quality level, i.e., 100% compliance with the quality requirements. This approach suggests that perfection can be achieved by a bigger focus on and investments in the prevention costs, rather than the costs for repairing of failures. Quality can no longer be sustained and guaranteed by increased product inspection and control, because modern quality management relies on quality control and inspection, which entails prevention of potential and implementation of an effective monitoring system that offers new possibilities to guarantee quality (Nel and Pretorius 2016). Modern developments, such as smart technologies, high automatization and computerization levels contribute to reducing the previously accepted material failures, product failures, and human resource failures, which, in turn results in opportunities to aspire to a higher level of quality with least possible quality costs which converge to a value of zero.

Considering that modern management science is fully dedicated to management with total quality (Mantri and Jaju 2016), then this justifies the need to apply the quality costs concept which will help find out the system, process, and product weaknesses, as well as learn new things about improving the work of the companies (Mahmood and Kureshi 2015). Unlike the traditional approach, where the quality concept focuses on descriptive and diagnostic analytics), the modern approach uses predictive and prescriptive analytics) and answers the questions: what will happen, what is the best thing to do, and how to achieve it (Jegannathan, Aishwaraya, and Nandakumar 2016).

When making optimal decisions in the company management process using the quality costs concept, one should not only know the quality costs model categories and elements (Sailaja, Basak, and Viswanadhan 2015), but also how to identify, record, store and analyze the quality costs quickly and economically for proper, predictable, and enhanced analytics (Selim 2021).

The quality costs concept still waves in the scientific and professional communities with its controversy, its nature, the different aspects, and approaches to the understanding of this concept, as well as

the critical overview and the discussions about the importance and the usefulness of applying this concept (Cebeci 2013). One of the main scientific gaps relates to the method of implementing quality costs, having in mind the obvious subjectivity, invasiveness, and the hard work in identifying the quality costs category elements. The various aspects of defining the concept of quality depending on the circumstances and the context wherein it is used, the quality costs monitoring systems, which are neither traditional accounting systems, nor a classical cost calculating methodology are the reason for and the threat of subjectivity when identifying quality costs (Nel and Pretorius 2016). No broad consensus has yet been reached regarding the definition of the quality costs structure. The analyzed scientific literature and the recorded industrial practices still have not completely answered the question how to determine all of the elements in the categories of the quality costs, having in mind that the determination of all of the quality costs elements represents one of the most important prerequisites for an effective and an efficient quality costs management system (Snieska, Daunoriene, and Zekeviciene 2013). The improper and untimely identification and measurement of the quality costs elements, the different level of maturity of the management system with quality costs, the different existing approaches to quality costs, the different quality costs models, the difficulties and the impossibility to identify the quality costs elements, related to consequences of poor quality for the user and society, further complicate the implementation of quality costs and introduce dilemmas in the determination of the correlation between the level of quality and the costs of quality (Schiffauerova and Thomson 2006). It is necessary to generate a comprehensive, structured, and systemic framework arising from the identification of the scientific gaps and dilemmas, which represents a basis in the development of the methodology for management with quality costs.

DEVELOPING A METHODOLOGY FOR MANAGEMENT WITH QUALITY COSTS

The methodology for management with quality costs should serve as a tool to make informed management decisions, while helping plan and forecast, in all stages of product creation (design, manufacturing, use, and disposal of used products in the form of waste), in order to achieve minimal total costs of quality and the lowest possible sensitivity of the product to external influences, which would lead to a sustained quality levels and increased company profits. The development of the

methodology for management with quality costs (figure 1) begins with an Algorithm for Introducing and Implementing the System for Management with Quality Costs, also applicable and flexible from the point of view of the different maturity levels of the quality and the quality costs of companies, structured using the well-known trilogy of Joseph M. Juran (Quality Planning, Quality

Control and Quality Improvement) (Godfrey and Kenett 2007) and Deming's quality cycle - PDCA (Plan Do, Check, Act), (Sokovic et al., 2009) presented on figure 2.

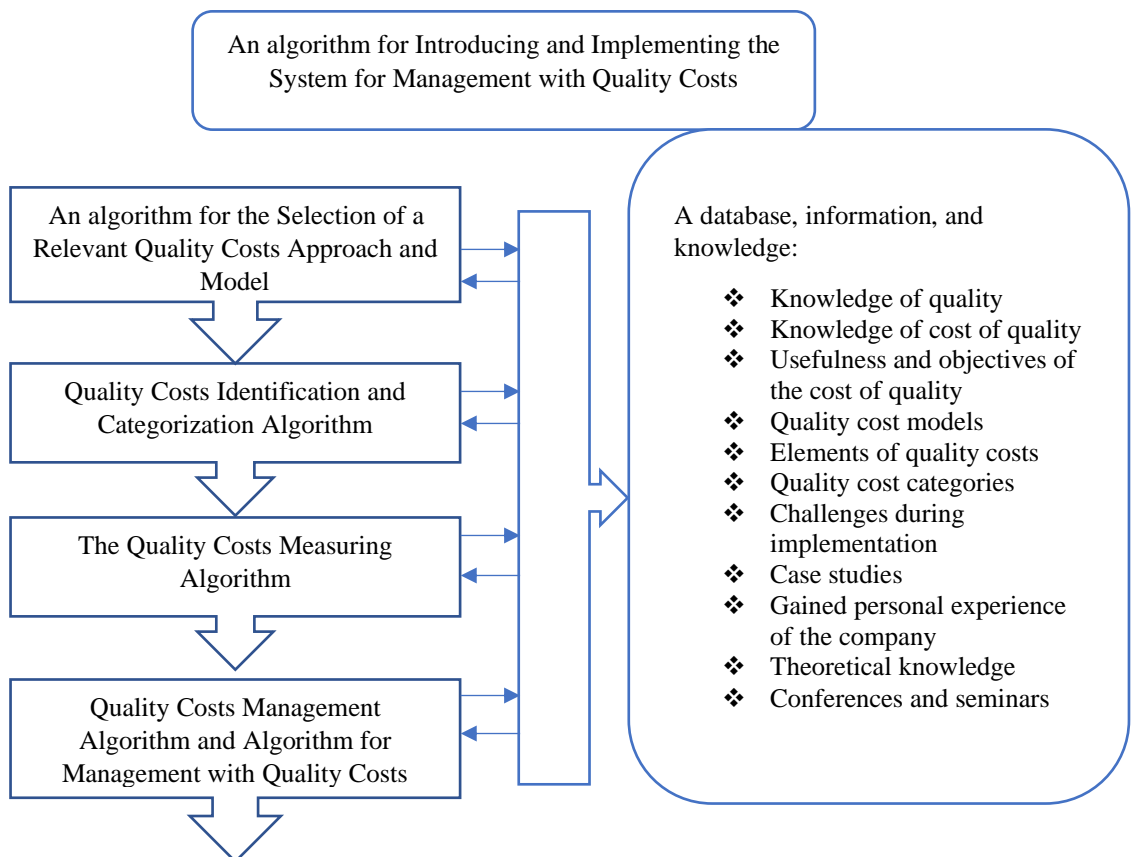
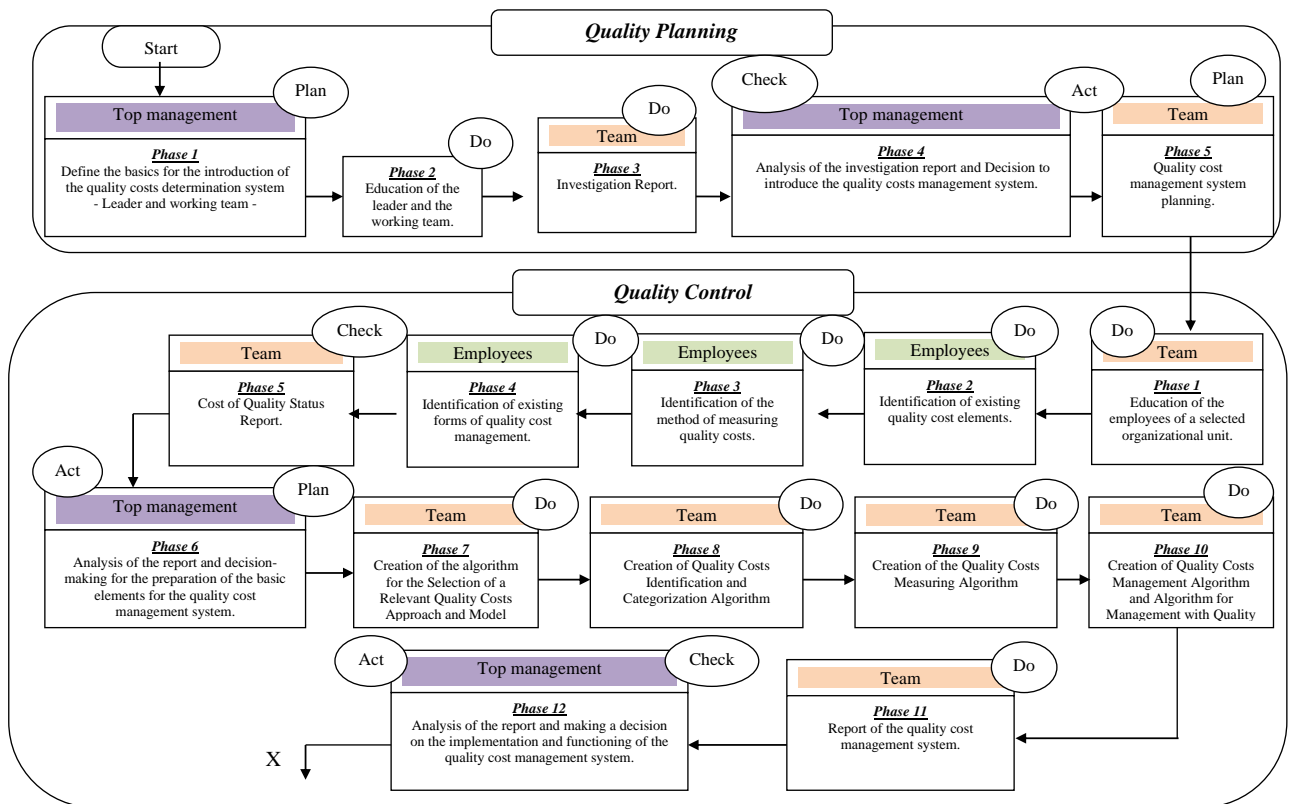


Figure 1. Development of the methodology for management with quality costs.

The new trends of the 21st century necessitate a shift towards a visionary approach to the understanding of quality costs and the management with quality costs, which should integrate the technical and technological aspects, the environmental aspect, and the innovation aspect into the existing knowledge of quality costs (Jaju, Mohanty, and Lakhe (2009). Table 1 presents the characteristics of the classical, the modern and the visionary approach to quality costs (Tomov and Velkoska 2021; Velkoska, Kuzinovski, and Tomov 2018). This requires a quality costs model based on the integration of the already proven approaches and models, as well as the complementarity (cumulation) of their benefits, in order to develop a robust quality costs model (Czajkowski 2017). The selected quality costs model is expected to develop into a formal framework for monitoring the behavior of the quality costs categories and elements and a tool for companies to track the investments in quality, as well as the returns on the investments in quality, i.e., to appraise the efficiency of the improvement measures.



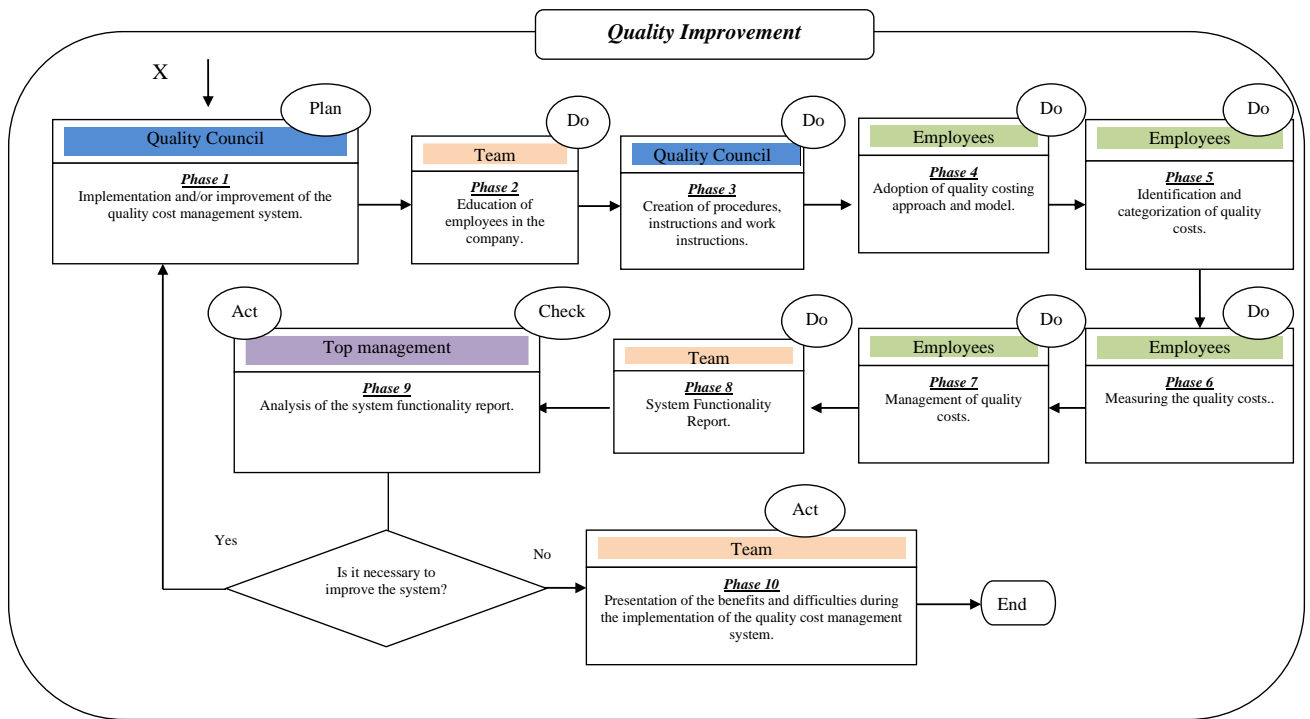
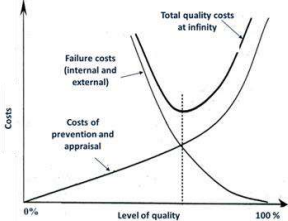

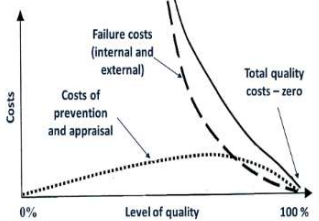


Figure 2. An Algorithm for Introducing and Implementing the Management System with Quality Costs.

Table 1. Classical, modern and visionary approach to quality costs

Criterion	Classical approach to quality costs 	Modern approach to quality costs 	Visionary approach to quality costs 
Concept	Economics of quality	Zero defects	Ecology of quality
Standard for quality	Economic quality level	Perfect quality	Sustainable quality
Nature of approach	Static	Dynamic	Dynamic
Focus	Reduction of quality costs	Continuous improvement	Continuous refining of improvement
Matrix of thinking	Failure mindset (inspection)	Prevention mindset	Sustainability mindset
Behavior of total quality cost	Higher level of quality, higher costs	Higher level of quality, lower costs	The highest level of quality - zero costs
Maturity of quality	Low level of quality maturity	High level of quality maturity	Sustainable quality level
Investments in costs of prevention and appraisal	Unjustified	Justified	Mandatory
Behaviour costs of prevention and appraisal to perfect level	Asymptotic to infinity	Exponential to finite cost	Convergence to zero cost
Time perception	Sustainable in the short term	Sustainable in the long term	Sustainable in the long term
Responsibility	Quality Control Department	Corporate Department	Social Accountability

After the analysis of the literature, an overview of generic quality costs models was prepared for the period 1996-2017, presented on figure 3. It is evident that there is no universal model. The PAF model and the process cost model are likely the most frequently generic quality costs models (Tomov and Velkoska 2022).

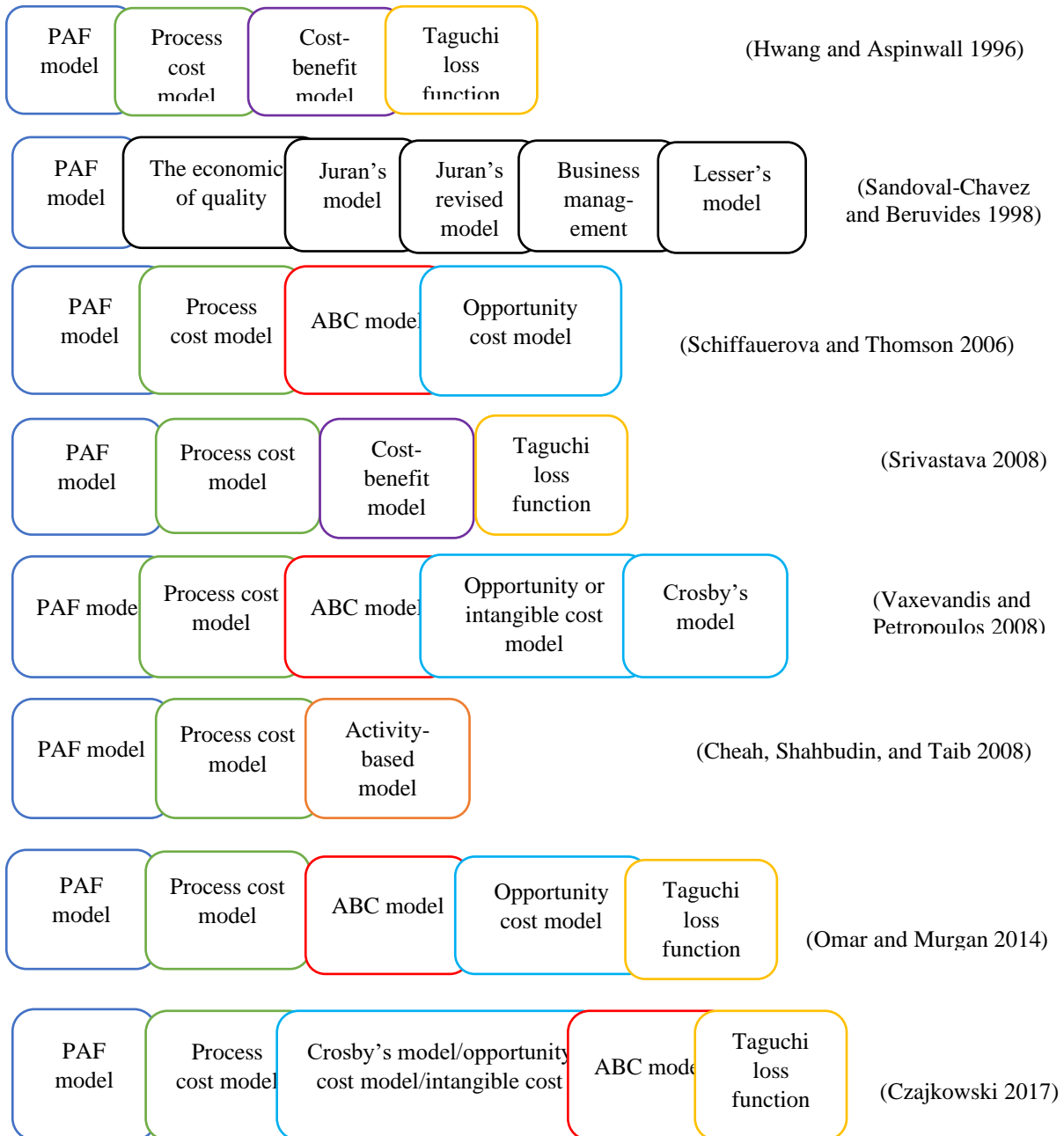


Figure 3. An overview of generic quality costs models for the period 1996-2017.

the Quality Costs Management Algorithm (figure 5). Figure 6 presents the Algorithm for Management with Quality Costs through the prism of the DMAIC-D methodology, considered from the point of view of reducing the total quality costs and increasing company performance.

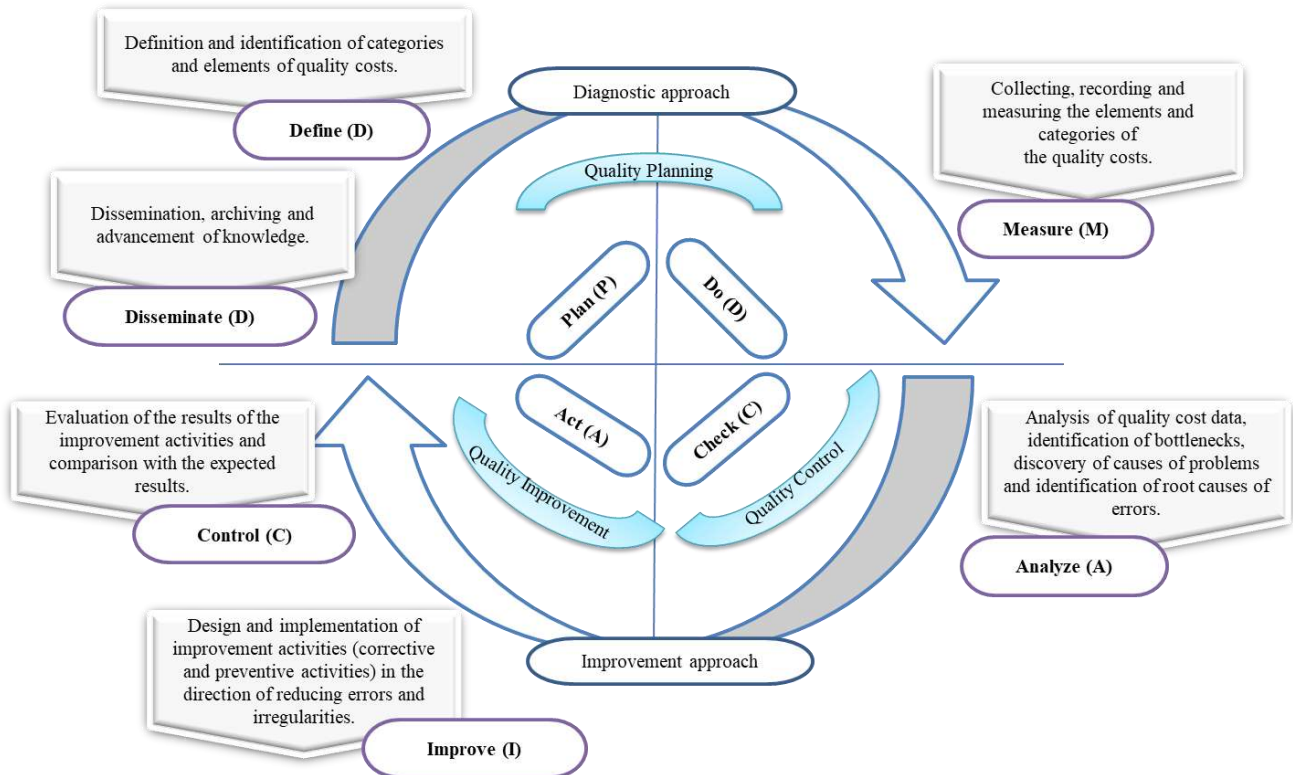


Figure 5. Quality Costs Management Algorithm

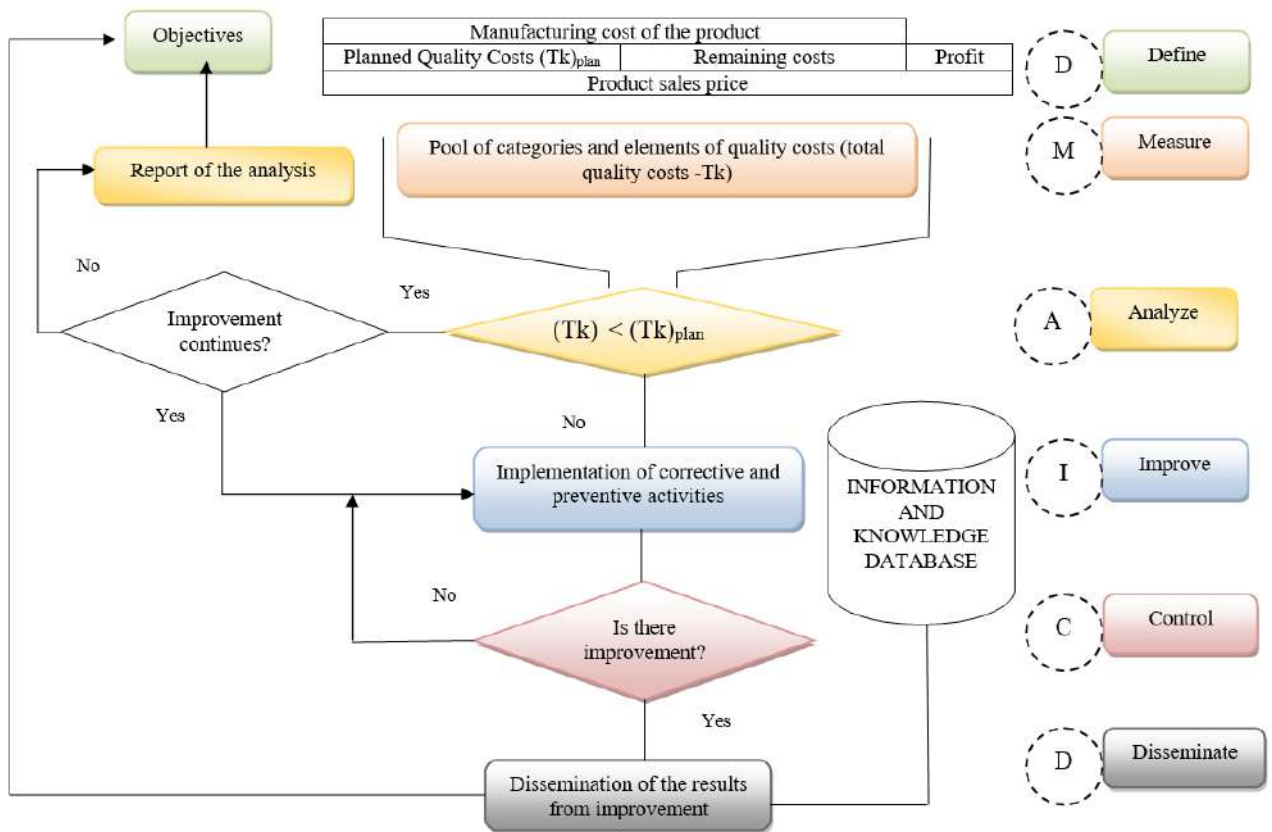


Figure 6. An Algorithm for Management with Quality Costs

CONCLUSION

The comprehensive research and literature sources, as well as the author's own understanding of quality and the costs of quality, confirm that the methodology for management with quality costs should include, in a systematic and structured manner, all relevant procedures (algorithms), with a view of fully expressing the benefits and the usefulness of quality costs. The introduction and implementation of a management system with quality costs is preceded by a methodological approach with structured and sequential phases that provide clarity in the understanding and systematizing the interconnected complex processes, locating the highest responsibility of senior management, making decisions based on informed facts, managing of risk, with a view of constantly improving the processes through teamwork and organizational learning. The decision to select a model and an approach to considering quality costs should be made based on the company goals and requirements. The identification and the

categorization of the quality costs depends on the proper description and understanding of the quality costs and their distinction from the other costs, their unique identification, and the knowledge of the possibilities for support from the company IT and accounting systems. The adequate, proper, and accepted quality costs measurement systems have the highest efficiency if the staged approach and the consequent systematization in appropriately designed algorithms facilitate the identification and the tracking of quality costs where such costs actually occur, and not where they are discovered. Management with quality costs through the prism of the constant improvement methodology DMAIC-D, represents one of the ways to increase the possibility of generating sustainable quality, by eliminating potential failures as early as possible. Decisions informed by management with quality costs, as well as by quality costs management increase the effectiveness of the management system with quality costs, influence company quality policy and the increase of competitiveness of the company. The market economy requires companies to know how to manage cost optimization with a view of skillful and rational resource utilization, which is possible if the decisions are informed by quality costs. This research presented in this paper provides practical framework for the sustainable development of the companies.

One limitation of this research is that the quality cost identification and categorization algorithm is not presented. It is a challenge for the future research to be conducted.

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