

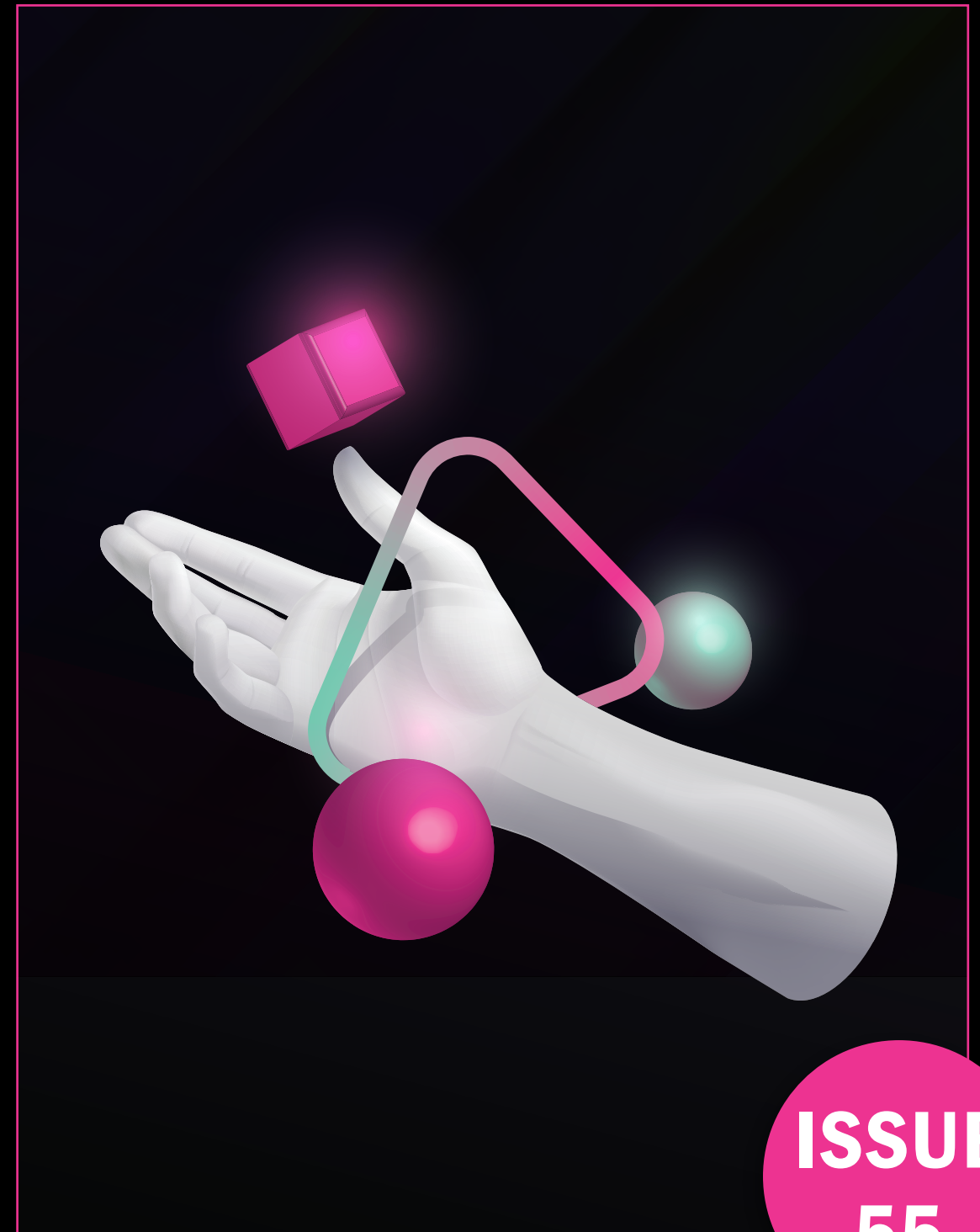
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Journal of Society
Research

Volume 20 • Issue 55 • September 2023 • ISSN: 2791-9781 E-ISSN: 2791-9862



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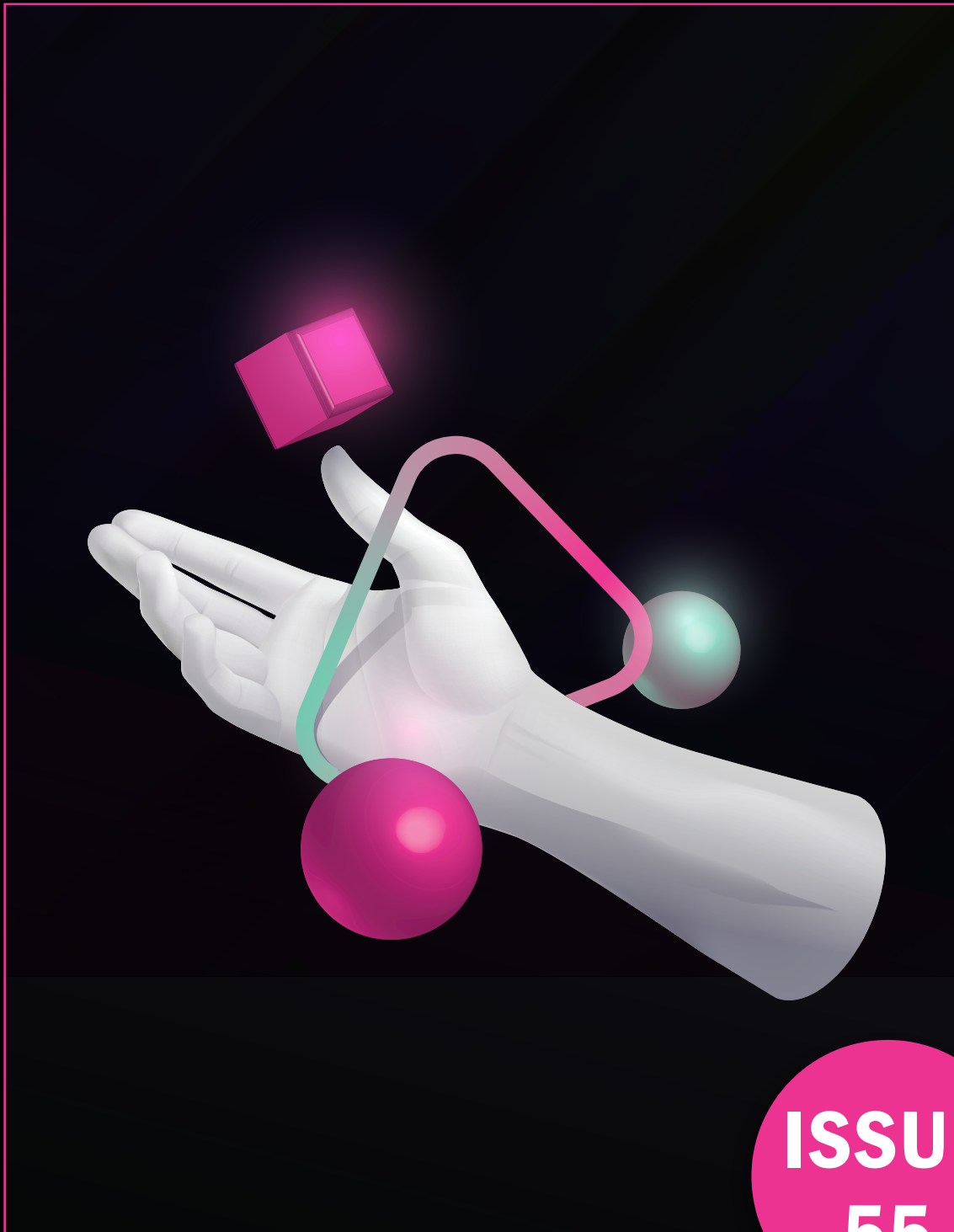
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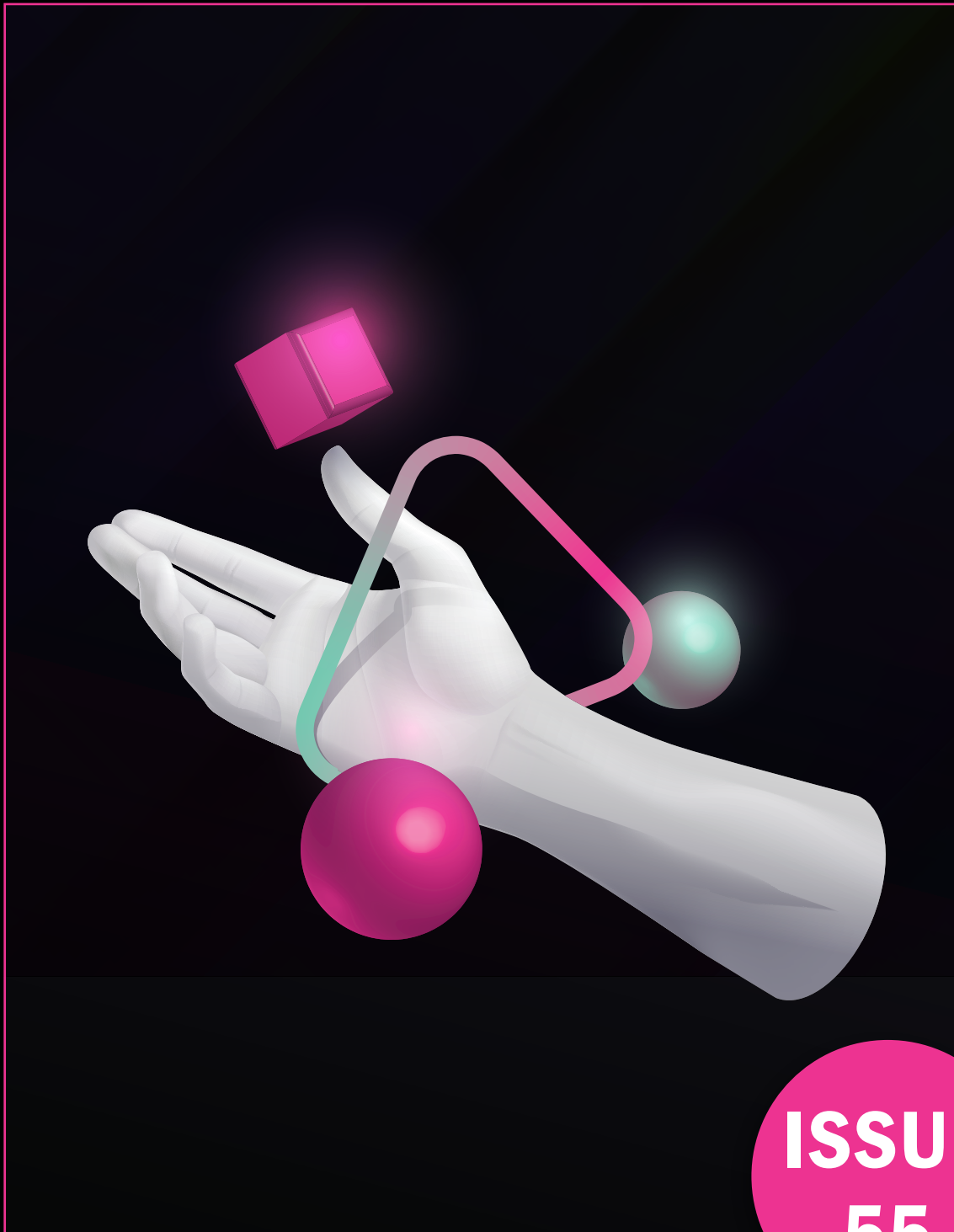
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Research

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**ISSUE
55**

ADAMOR

OPUS ▶

Volume 20, Issue – 55



Journal of Society Researche
Toplum Arařtırmaları Dergisi

ISSN: 2791-9781 – E-ISSN:2791-9862

Issue –55 • September 2023

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Editorial

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OPUS Journal of Society Research (JSR) is abstracted in EBSCO Information Services, ERIHP-LUS European Reference Index For The Humanities and Social Sciences, Cite Factor, TEI Index of Turkish Education, ULAKBIM TR Index, SOBIAD Citation Index and ASOS Index.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

“Whose Voice Resonates?” A Study on the News Content of Four Alternative Digital-native News Websites in Turkey

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1347398](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1347398)

Citation:

Ertuna, C. (2023). “Whose Voice Resonates?” A Study on the News Content of Four Alternative Digital-native News Websites in Turkey *OPUS– Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 533-549.

Abstract

This study examines the news content of Turkish digital-native news websites, namely Diken, Gazete Duvar, Kısa Dalga, and T24. Employing both quantitative and qualitative content analysis approaches, the study initially investigates the utilization of sources and framing techniques within the news articles presented on these platforms. The findings underscore the imperative of embracing reporter-driven journalism to amplify the voices of disadvantaged individuals and groups and foster an alternative news agenda. Furthermore, while these websites prominently exhibit a critical framing towards the government and official entities, a distinguishing feature is adopting a balanced language, rather than one showing positive bias, when reporting on the opposition and associated individuals and institutions.

Keywords: *Alternative media, mainstream media, journalism, digital-native, content analysis*

Öz

Bu çalışmada, Türkiye’deki dijital doğumlu haber sitelerinden Diken, Gazete Duvar, Kısa Dalga ve T24’ün haber içerikleri incelenmiştir. Nicel ve nitel içerik analizi yöntemlerinden yararlanılan araştırmada, öncelikli olarak bu sitelerin haberlerinde kaynak kullanımı ve çerçevelenmeler ele alınmıştır. Ortaya çıkan sonuç, özellikle muhabir temelli haberciliğe yönelmenin, dezavantajlı kişi ve grupların sesini duyurmada ve alternatif gündem inşasında kritik öneme olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca bu sitelerde iktidar ve resmi kuruluşlara yönelik eleştirel çerçevelenme dikkat çekerken, muhalefet ve ilişkili kişi ve kurumlar hakkında ise taraflı değil daha çok dengeli bir dilin tutturulduğu gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Alternatif media, ana akım media, gazetecilik, dijital doğumlu, içerik analizi*

Introduction

In Turkey, digital native news websites that operate within the framework of critical journalism principles and are outside the mainstream are commonly referred to in everyday usage with terms such as "alternative," "independent," and "oppositional.". However, in academic discourse, media practices that symbolize a departure from the mainstream are comprehensively studied under the broad category of "alternative media" (Atton, 2006). Classifications focusing on the different features highlighted by this definition, such as "radical media" (Downing et al., 2001), "grassroots" or "community media" (Howley, 2005), "citizen media" (Rodriguez, 2001), "activist media" (Waltz, 2005), "critical media" (Fuchs, 2010; Sandoval & Fuchs, 2009) and "other media" (Alankuş, 2008), are also made to explain the different facets of this definition. The purpose of this study is to determine whether Diken, Gazete Duvar, Kısa Dalga, and T24, four news websites in Turkey that are not part of the mainstream media, indeed serve as examples of alternative journalism. Instead of focusing on their organizational structures within the newsroom or their revenue models, this approach looks at what they cover in their news, sourcing of the report and whose viewpoints they include. Such a study carried out through the content analysis of news stories, offers a data set to examine whether or not they represent an alternative to the mainstream.

The origin of the word "alternative" can be traced back to the mid-15th century, according to the Oxford English Dictionary, and is derived from the Latin words "alternare" and "alternativus." In contemporary usage, the term signifies things that are available as another possibility, relating to activities that depart from or challenge traditional norms or one of two or more possibilities (Oxford Languages, n.d.). In studies related to alternative media, different criteria are adopted, primarily focusing on the differences with mainstream media, such as the revenue model and the relationships with the state and corporations, organizational models within newsrooms, the involvement and participation of the audience and

user-generated content producers, as well as the assessment of the editorial line and the content. Alternative media is defined in its broadest sense as a radical challenge to the professional and institutional practices within the mainstream (Atton, 2003, p. 267). The framework presented by a participant in Noam Chomsky's seminar offers another broad definition: A media structure under citizen control as opposed to state or corporate control (as cited in Atton, 2006, p. 17). John Downing (2001, p. ix), criticized the concept's "oxymoronic" nature through the assertion that "everything is an alternative to something else". The diversity exhibited over time and space by the communities, formations, structures, and entities referred to as alternative media, as well as the changes and transformations they undergo within various socio-political contexts aided by the possibilities of technology, almost render it impossible to provide a singular definition with universal inclusivity. Therefore, the effort to provide a detailed definition of "non-mainstream media" has been an ongoing quest. Bailey, Cammaerts, and Carpentier (2015) identify four main approaches in studies concerning alternative media. The first approach considers media in the context of serving a community, which could be a geographical community or a virtual/online community. The second approach, as mentioned above, places the focus on being an alternative to the mainstream. This could involve an antagonistic struggle against hegemony or an agonistic, supplementing, or complementary relationship. The third approach evaluates alternative media as a part and component of civil society, examining its relationships with the state and market. Lastly, there is the "rhizomatic" approach that highlights diversity, multiplicity, fluidity, and even ambiguity. Here, Deleuze and Guattari's (1987) metaphor of a rhizome, a non-linear, anarchic, and nomadic network structure is employed to understand the diverse hybrid structure of alternative media (for example, a media practice that touches upon both the local and global, emerges when an event requires it, and can subsequently fade into silence, occasionally forming relationships with the market and the state [Bailey, Cammaerts, Carpentier, 2015]).

Alankuş (2008, p.121), draws attention to the diversity and hybridity of "media initiatives that are representative of counter-globalization, inequalities, discrimination and the search for another world by those who are subjected to inequalities and discrimination, and that try to flourish horizontally and in networks" and proposes the definition of "other media" in contrast to the mainstream media. At this point, it should also be mentioned that the fluidity of the new media environment brings with it a convergence between the mainstream and the "other". Rauch (2016), states that with the ever-increasing convergence in the media, scholars started to drift away from a binary categorization of alternative and mainstream media underlining the fuzzy relationship between the two. By comparing various studies in the field, she argues that, the similarities and differences between the mainstream and the alternative media vary depending on the regime types and also on the periods that they operate. Under the conditions of political and economic instability and under authoritarian and military rules alternative and mainstream media demonstrate greater differences than in liberal democratic contexts in which there is a higher level of economic development, technological access and press freedom.

Furthermore, critiques put forth by Sandoval & Fuchs (2010), particularly within the context of the characteristics mentioned earlier regarding the affirmative stance toward alternative media, also demonstrate that non-mainstream and participatory organizations might not always lead to public good. Despite liberating content and news production from the monopoly of professional journalists and organizations and involving "prosumers" on a smaller scale, this approach could be more costly in terms of time and resources compared to a professionally organized structure. The message may be delivered to a limited audience and, contrary to expectations, could be confined within the walls of an "alternative ghetto." Additionally, while internet technologies allow lower-cost and user-friendly tools to enable the engagement of a wider range of content producers, the persistence of digital

inequalities and the necessity for economic means to become visible/audible must be considered, especially within the context of the media-capital relationship. The participative and horizontal organizational form was thought to play a progressive function, but it has also evolved into a tactic widely used by conservative media groups and even more so by extremist or radical groups in their communication activities. Furthermore, when examined in the context of platform capitalism, participation might not necessarily be interpreted as media democratization; instead, it could be evaluated as the reinforcement of capitalist relations through the commodification of the efforts of "prosumers" sold to advertisers as commodities (Sandoval & Fuchs, 2010).

At this point, it is crucial to briefly mention platform capitalism and the revenue models in the context of alternative digital news media. In an environment dominated by traditional mass media, especially television, as the primary information source, the advertising industry, which was the main instrument for covering costs and generating profits in news and content production, became influential in editorial choices. Advertisers possess a strong and often hidden impact on the exclusion of certain topics as well as shaping content (Aydoğan, Başaran, 2012). According to Smythe (2006), viewers/readers also become commodities in this process. In mass media, the audience is transformed into products sold to advertisers. This is largely applicable to "free to use" internet platforms such as Google, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter etc. as well. One notable difference is that what is marketed to advertisers is not just the passive audience of the old days, but also today's prosumers (those who write messages, upload photos and videos) (Fuchs, 2009). Today, most readers reach the news and the news organizations reach readers/viewers through platforms. According to the Reuters Digital News Report data (Newman et al. 2023), 30% of the respondents said their primary source for reaching news online was social media platforms. Vincent Mosco further emphasizes that the dominance of platforms in the flow of information is not merely a journalistic concern, but rather a democracy issue. Highlighting the power of these profit-

driven corporations to shape public discourse, Mosco (2019), argues that such power, independent of the universal principles of journalism, could only be restrained through public oversight. Similarly, in Turkey, while the share of printed newspapers in the advertising pie continues to decline, it is obvious that digital news sources are losing the majority of their advertising revenues to platforms like Google and Facebook (Çevikel, 2020).

Today, alternative digital news media seem to meet the mainstream in an area dominated by platform capitalism in terms of revenue sources. Further, the organizational structures of the newsrooms in or out of the mainstream, although usually different in size, resemble each other with the replication of "profitable" models. Therefore, defining what alternative is becomes more complex under these circumstances. Finding an answer to the question "do alternative media seek to redress power imbalances? If so, are they able to?" posed by Fenton (2016, p. 11) could be a crucial place to start. At this stage, Fuchs' (2010) recommendation of a content-focused approach might offer media academics a functional analysis tool. According to Fuchs (2010), the aim could be to reach the broadest possible audience with critical content without negating professional production within a capitalist system or imposing constraints based on non-commercial revenue models.

At this juncture, it's also necessary to mention the notion that journalism can be conducted alongside activism and opposition. As Sözeri (2016) points out, this boundary can become blurred in situations where freedom of the press is restricted under intense pressure and censorship, and where traditional mechanisms for reporting news become inoperable. However, at the same time, a journalistic practice defined only through the lens of being "non-mainstream" with its opposition to the ideology of objectivity and rejection of professional norms can pose challenges (Yıldız, 2020). Under normal circumstances, when journalism is pushed to the point of denying universally accepted ethical codes, there's a risk of deviating from the goal of the general public good and being politically ineffective. Sandoval and

Fuchs (2010), argue that it is possible to be an alternative to the mainstream, even in a capitalist system with similar organizational structures and revenue models to that of the mainstream. Content produced within the framework of ethical principles is expected to demonstrate "suppressed possibilities of existence, antagonisms of reality, potentials for change, questions domination, expresses the standpoints of oppressed and dominated groups and individuals and argues for the advancement of a co-operative society" (Sandoval & Fuchs, 2010, p. 148).

Alternative media in Turkey

Çoban and Ataman (2015), examine alternative media in Turkey through three significant periods. According to this perspective, which conceptualizes alternative media in the context of social movements and counter cultures created against the authorities, the first period is characterized by the 1908 Revolution in the Ottoman Empire. The second period encompasses the alternative newspapers and magazines published until the 1980 coup d'état in the 1970s. The third period begins with the Gezi uprising. This approach includes newspapers, radio, and internet sites, as well as critical humor magazines, political publications, films, and film festivals in the analysis set while going beyond focusing solely on journalistic activities. However, even within the context of journalism alone, the Second Constitutional Monarchy era after 1908 also signifies a turning point. Taylan (2012) also notes that the first radical/oppositional newspaper was the socialist weekly "Gave" published in İzmir in 1908.

After 1923, all through the Republican period, journalism practices outside the mainstream allowed for the emergence of a wide range of publications and a rich archive in various mediums such as newspapers, magazines, radio, and television over a span of 90 years. In this lengthy period, media-power relations were, of course, frequently tense. According to Sözeri (2016), apart from a brief period following the 1960 coup d'état, when journalists' rights toward media owners significantly increased, they consistently

experienced major rights losses, particularly during coup eras. Adaklı (2014) argues that the Motherland Party government's lengthy dominance after the 1980 coup established the framework for the banking and financial sector's integration with the media, making it accessible to large corporations in particular. This foundation allowed for the establishment of an organic relationship between political power and the media throughout the Justice and Development Party era (Adaklı, 2014). However, by the early 2000s, with the widespread use of the internet, both the transition of this tradition to digital platforms and the establishment of new alternative news outlets against the growing power and influence of mainstream media conglomerates had become standard practices. Already by 1995, print-based newspapers and news magazines had started to introduce their websites, and TV channels had joined this trend by 1996 (Narin, 2017). An example of the first digital-native news website in Turkey can be traced back to the year 1998 with the establishment of the "Net Gazete" website (Çevikel, 2020, p. 94). Starting from the 2000s, numerous similar news websites outside the realm of the mainstream have also emerged. Gürcan (2005) asserts that the severe economic downturn in the media industry, which resulted in nearly four thousand media sector employees losing their jobs, was the primary cause of this. However, the failure of many of these sites' revenue models prevented them from creating original, exclusive news content and made it impossible for them to subscribe to news agencies. As a result, they frequently used other online content without even changing the punctuation, a practice known as "copy-paste journalism" (Gürcan 2005).

The large-scale public protests in the summer of 2013 and the mainstream media's inability to report those events according to universal ethical standards due to the owners' tight ties to the government represent another critical turning point in the 2000s. Similar to Çoban and Ataman (2005), Çevikel also regards the Gezi protests in 2013 as a turning point, highlighting the diversity brought by journalists who lost their jobs due to political reasons or the closure of their institutions,

and who entered the "post-Gezi period" as owners, managers, or employees of digitally-born news platforms (Çevikel, 2023). Therefore, different from the global trend, the transformation of the media sector from paper based to digital is not only due to decreasing advertisement revenues and technological innovation but also due to political reasons. During the Justice and Development Party rule, significant portions of the media was taken over by bosses close to the government, and many experienced and talented journalists were pushed out of the sector (Keten, 2023). By the end of 2022, Turkey ranked 149th out of 180 countries according to Reporters Without Borders' press freedom index, which 90% of the media is stated to be under the government control. In this media landscape, other than a handful of nationwide TV channels and a few national newspapers, it is primarily the digital news media that pursue critical journalism. A recent study on digital-native media in Turkey also included "non-mainstream" media outlets, demonstrated that the main obstacle in sustainable news and/or content production process is the revenue model (Harman, 2023). Many alternative media organizations cannot survive on the basis of the crowdfunding approach. They engage in a competition that sometimes amounts to "clickbait" in order to benefit from the digital advertising revenues, of which the large digital platforms mentioned in the section above take the lion's share. Further, a study by Kızılkaya and Ütücü (2021, p. 5), demonstrated that the three pro-government media outlets in Turkey received more than 90% of Google's "top stories" positions. While independent media was highlighted only 26.2% of the time in Google news despite the fact that their digital reach of 33.5 million users was about to catch pro-government media's 47.8 million users. Many of the critical news outlets also turn to funds and grants in these circumstances and attempt to diversify their sources of income. Two of the four news websites that are the focus of this study, Kısa Dalga and Duvar, are known to have benefited from international funding (Korkmaz, 2022; Chrest Foundation, n.d.). The news in the pro-government media that T24 received funding were refuted by Doğan Akın, the

founder of the website (Akin, 2020). No such information could be found regarding the Diken website.

Methodology

This study employs a dual approach, utilizing both quantitative content analysis to scrutinize the sources of news stories as well as the individuals, and entities portrayed within the news, and qualitative content analysis to delve into the nuanced news frames pertaining to the government, the opposition, and associated individuals and institutions. First, a content analysis of digital-native Turkey-based critical news websites "Duvar" (gazeteduvar.com.tr), "Diken" (diken.com.tr), "T24" (t24.com.tr) and "Kısa Dalga" (kisadelga.net) is conducted by analyzing the news presented in the "slider" or "carousel" part of their desktop homepages. One limitation of this research is that some other prominent digital-native news websites such as Bianet and Medyascope were not included because of their different web page layouts. Further, other forthcoming news websites that have a higher penetration rate but are part of media groups that engage in broadcast journalism and/or publish newspapers, such as "Halk TV", "Sözcü" and "Artı Gerçek" were not taken into account because they also produce news content for TV and print media and occasionally share contents among these different departments.

According to Berelson (1952, p. 8), content analysis "is a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication". Duverger (2015) states that in a content analysis, parts of a text such as words, phrases, paragraphs, etc. are placed in a number of predetermined categories. These are later classified into a set of statistics and could then be analyzed with mathematical procedures. However, it should be noted that different media could also be treated as textual. There are several types of content that can be used for content analysis, including words or labels in ad copy, news articles, movies, themes in political speeches, specific posts, or complete Facebook interactions (Riffe et al., 2019). Unlike traditional

media tools such as newspapers, radio, and TV, websites demonstrate a more dynamic nature and include a considerable volume of data (Herring, 2004). Secondly, further complexities for content analysis occur because of hypertextuality and multimedia content (McMillan, 2000). In order to minimize these problems, the sample is narrowed down only to the news/content offered in the sliders of the websites. Sliders (or carousels) are frequently used by such websites because they allow the multimedia content to be delivered in an organized and compact manner while allowing publishers to expand the usage of limited screen space (Zhang et al., 2018, p. 45). These are the most prominent and frequently updated sections of the abovementioned websites.

In the study, the news stories (text, audio-video, photo galleries) and op-eds with news values about Turkish politics that appear in this part of the home pages sequentially between the dates August 14-20, 2023 are analyzed. The chosen time frame is between 2 p.m. - 5 p.m., which is the time period when web pages are updated the most according to news industry standards in Turkey. In the morning period, until noon, the carousel/sliders mostly contain the op-eds of mostly staff or freelance op-ed writers, and during the night, the websites are not updated as frequently as during the working hours of the staff. News and op-eds about, foreign news, arts and culture, lifestyle, magazine, sports, and finance are not coded unless they have a political dimension related to the current agenda of the country. While examining the first ten news articles of these sliders was the main goal, another limitation became apparent. Due to journalistic resource limitations in newsrooms and, unless anything spectacular occurs, less political activity in the country, the news content is updated less frequently on weekends than on weekdays. Further, on Diken's website, there are also observable limitations in the volume of content that relates to the study's topic. As a result, there are differences in the numerical metrics between the websites. Therefore, in the next section conclusions regarding the content are contrasted using percentages rather than numbers.

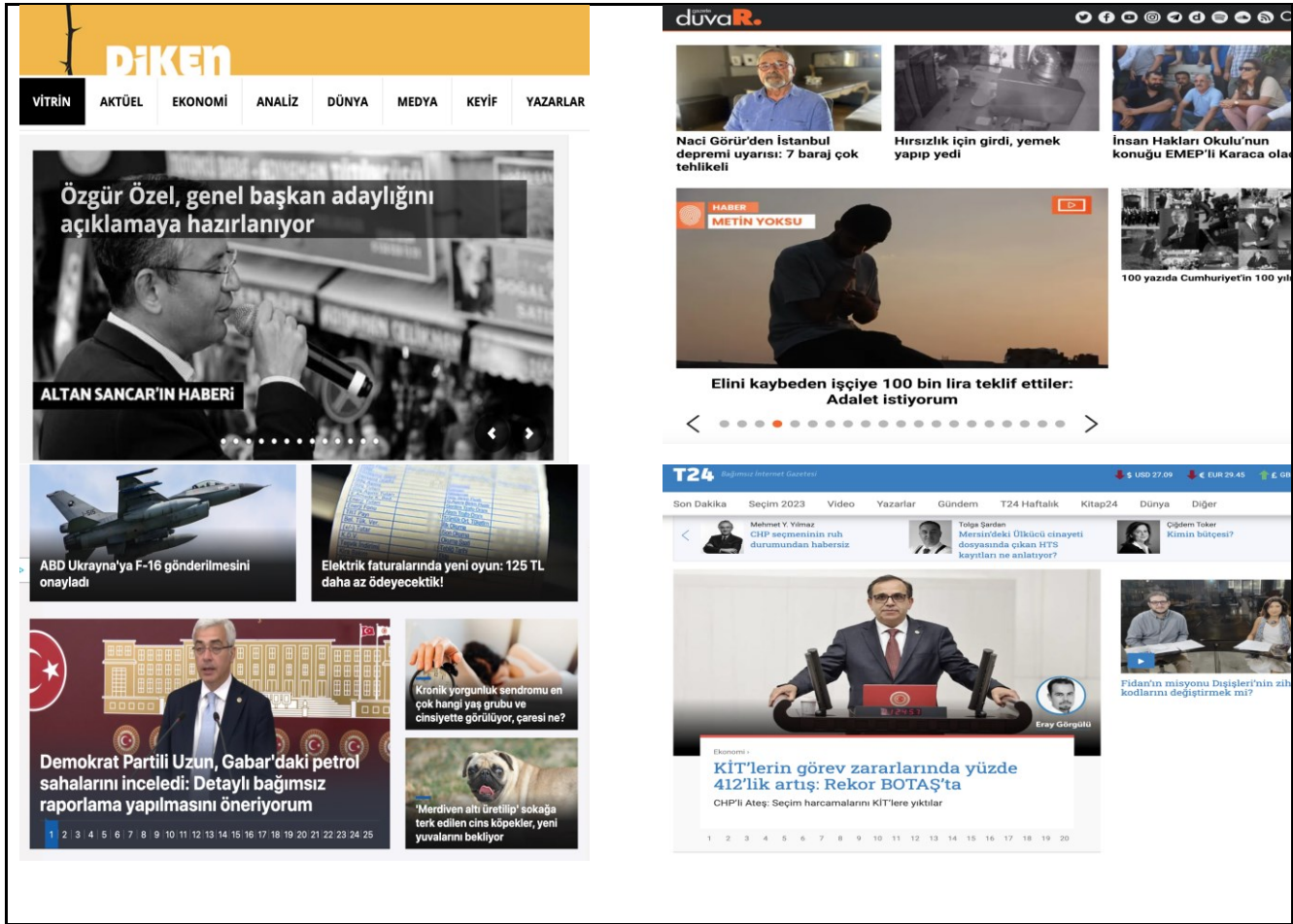


Figure 1 The Carousel/Slider sections of, Diken, Gazete Duvar, Kısa Dalga and T24

In this research, first of all, the type of content in the slider parts are listed (text-based news, audio-video, photo gallery, and op-ed). News stories that include both text and audio-video content are cross-coded. Secondly, sources of the news are analyzed under three main categories: “Exclusive” (news published with a byline of a journalist employed in/by the outlet), “external” (other media organizations, news agencies, social media/user generated content, and institutions/politicians/civil society), or “no source”. The “no source” category includes news stories that have no byline and no attribution is made to anybody or any organization. “External” source cluster are further categorized into three: Pro-governmental, critical/oppositional, and impartial/balanced. Thirdly, the source in terms of whom s/he represents is analyzed (government

officials, opposition figures, civil society, experts, celebrities, and ordinary people).

Analyzing the sources of the news has been an essential topic in studying the media content. In news, the types of sources for direct quotations, commentaries, or other forms provide significant information. By examining the attributions to organizations and institutions, impartiality or balance of the news production process could be revealed (Geray, 2006). It is obvious that governmental organizations and political leaders, as the source of news, are the main agenda-setters due to their control over legitimate information (Bourdieu, 1998; Berkowitz, 1987; Cobb & Elder, 1971; Tuchman 1978). Although the alternative media is expected to offer more critical sources and “give voice to the voiceless”, there have been contrasting results when the sources of the alternative media outlets have been studied. In a

Table 1. Content analysis coding table

Cate gory	Coding Rules	Remarks
Type of news	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Text-based news 2. Op-ed 3. Audio-video 4. Photo gallery 	<p>Analysis of the format of the news. Op-eds are judged according to certain "news value" standards that are based on exclusivity. This is relevant to narratives where the author shares facts and/or data for the first time to the general public as a result of efforts like interviews, data analysis, investigations, and similar pursuits.</p>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Exclusive with byline 	
Sources	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. External <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Other media organizations b. Agencies c. Social media d. Institutions / politicians / civil society 	<p>Pro-government</p> <p>Oppositional</p> <p>Impartial/balanced</p>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. No source 	
Sources 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Government officials and/or govt. affiliated institutions and/or officials 2. Opposition and/or opposition affiliated institutions and/or officials 3. Civil society 4. Experts and/or journalists with an expertise 5. Celebrities 6. Ordinary people 	<p>To investigate whose voice resonates in the news narrative, a sub-grouping was created with regard to outside sources. Cross-coding was done in news stories with more than one sources.</p>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Positive b. Negative c. Impartial/balanced 	
Framing	<p>Government and/or govt. affiliated institutions</p>	<p>Analysis of the representation of government and opposition figures, and policies and those of institutions affiliated with them in three categories if the new story addresses them.</p>
	<p>Opposition and/or opposition affiliated institutions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Positive b. Negative c. Impartial/balanced 	

research in which journalists from both the mainstream and alternative media were interviewed, Tony Harcup (2003) concluded that mainstream journalists privileged the powerful over the powerless, whereas in the case of the alternative media, the results were exactly the opposite. On the contrary, Atton & Wickenden (2005) suggest that even as an activist newspaper, the UK based SchNEWS displayed similar sourcing routines as the mainstream, and the "ordinary" people's visibility was considerably low compared to the elites (in this case, the elites are those that belong to the dissident camp rather than the establishment).

Finally, as the last part of the analysis, the general frames of the contents in the selected news are analyzed regarding the approach towards the government and opposition policies under three broad categories: Positive, negative, and neutral. Entman (1993, p. 52) argues that "to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text". Therefore, to test the general hypothesis that the critical and alternative media are particularly anti-government and pro-opposition, the framing of the government and opposition politicians, policies, and affiliated institutions are analyzed in news stories related to this purpose.

Findings and discussion

Diken (“Thorn” in English) was founded by Harun Simavi in 2014, Gazete Duvar (“the Wall” in English) (by Vedat Zencir in 2016, and Kısa Dalga (“Short Wave” in English) was established first as a podcast platform in 2019 and as a news website in 2022 by Kemal Göktaş. The oldest is the T24, which was found by Doğan Akın in 2009. Akın, Simavi and Göktaş are all journalists who have worked in the mainstream for many years. According to the data of SimilarWeb data (2023), their country ranks are 203, 93, 2533, and 96, respectively. In the period between May-July 2023, Diken had 32.05 million visitors, Duvar had 57.51 million, Kısa Dalga had 2.2 million, and T24 had 54.98 million visitors. Although these news websites differ in terms of rating performance, this does not mean that there are dramatic differences between them. The study demonstrates that their effectiveness is not always impacted by the content variations between them (which are a product of editorial decisions, newsroom structure, and resource availability).

In this research, 260 news pieces are analyzed (ten sequential news items from Duvar, Kısa Dalga and T24 every day in the given period) for a week. Due to the frequency of the number of news items subject to the research in the time period in question, a total of fifty news items from Diken were included.

A substantial majority of the news articles published in the slider sections of these websites are text-based (241 out of 260). In addition to this, overall seven articles are in op-ed style with news value, while six pieces of the content are audio-visual such as podcasts and/or video stories, and other contents consist of photo galleries. Upon examining the sources of these news articles, a general pattern especially about Diken, Kısa Dalga and T24 emerges (Figure 2)¹. A considerable amount of news (nearly %72 of the overall content) originates from external sources beyond the respective newsrooms. More precisely, 30,4% of articles are sourced from other media outlets, 11,2% from news agencies, 14,2% from various social media platforms, and 16,1% from various institutions, including governmental, non-governmental, civil society, and international organizations. Notably, over 5% of the news articles (12 out of 260) lack a byline or any specified source attribution. Kısa Dalga stands out as more than 30% of its news content (22 out of 70) is directly sourced from news agencies, with Doğan News Agency (DHA) and ANKA being the primary contributors. In contrast, T24 does not attribute any news sources to news agencies. The utilization of news agencies by Diken and Duvar is also minimal, comprising only 8% and 4% of their content respectively.

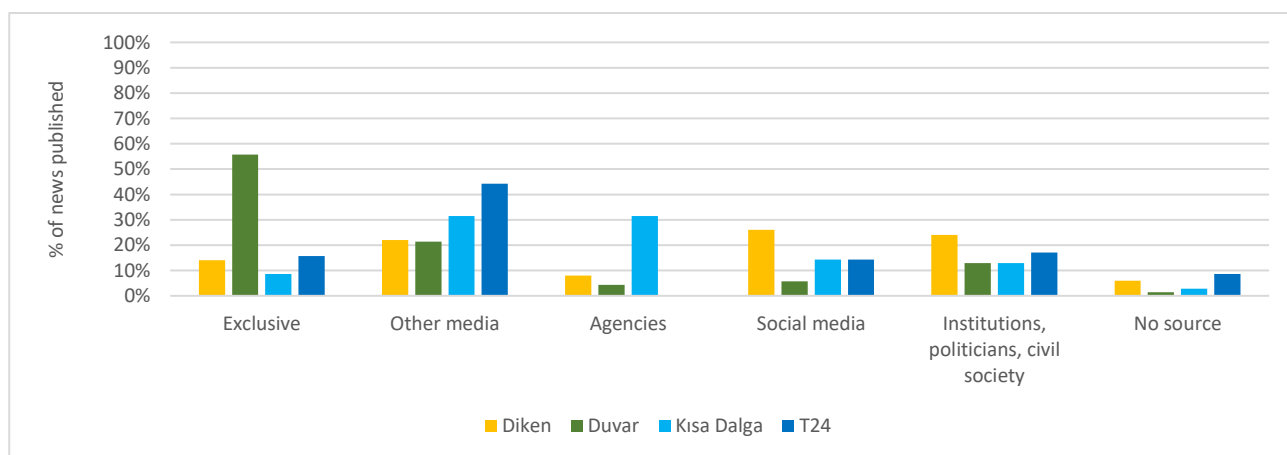


Figure 2. News source

¹ In some news stories, more than one source was used.

Accordingly they were coded as separate sources.

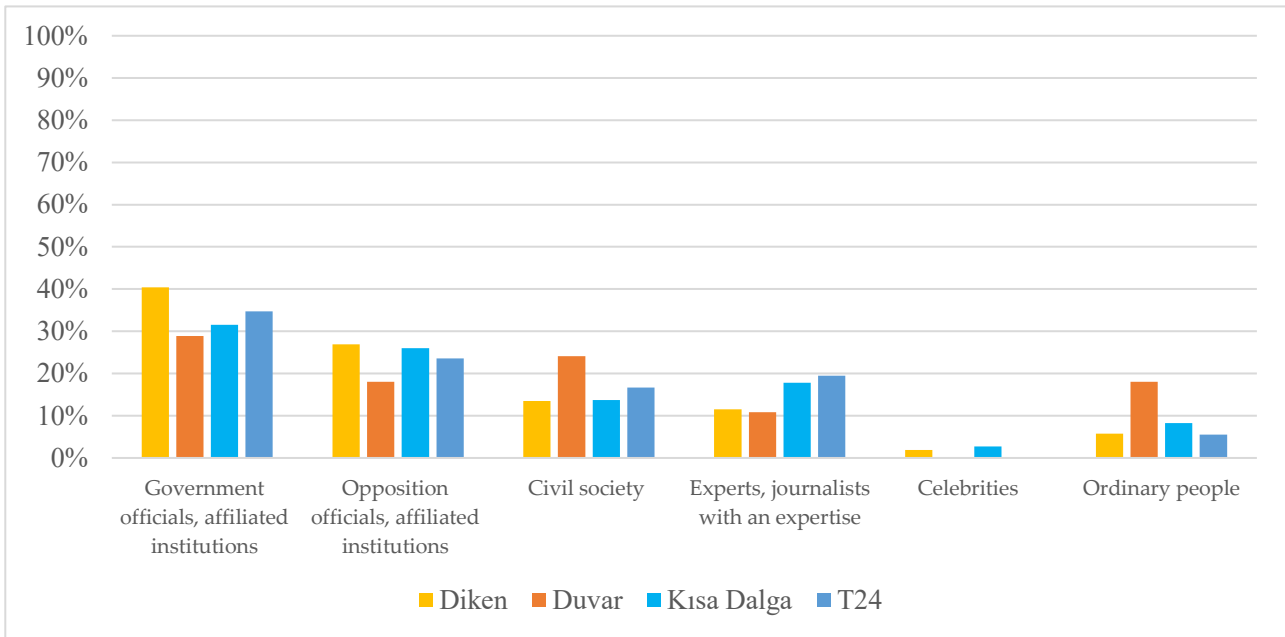


Figure 3. News sources ("whose voice resonates?")

Moreover, at this stage of the analysis, one correlation emerges that calls for further investigation. That is the link between the news's subject and its source. At this point, it is observed that the news website Duvar differs significantly from Diken, Kısa Dalga and T24. Figure 4 illustrates the correlation between the percentage of exclusive news (comprising stories written by staff and/or freelance reporters and writers) and the percentage of stories which includes ordinary citizens cited as news sources.

Duvar is noted to have the most stories with a byline (39 out of 70). There are many journalists that report for this news outlet not only from major cities like İstanbul, and Ankara but from different cities. One report from Van (Cesur, 2023), covers the story of villagers who face immense difficulties in their everyday lives because of the lack of basic infrastructure. Another report (Başakçioğlu, 2023), from an İzmir based reporter about the protests of the people of Marmaris against the local municipality for their planning of a central public

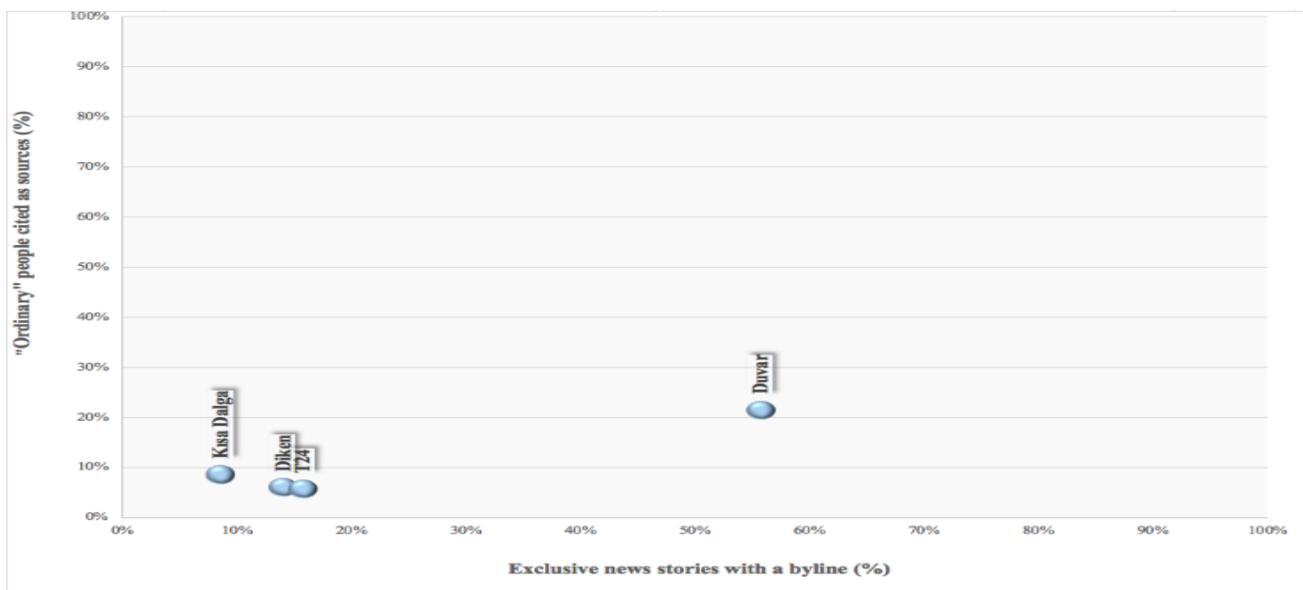


Figure 4. Percentage of ordinary people's stories covered in relation to exclusive stories produced

square as a commercial area. One from Hatay (Günaydın, 2023), in which earthquake victims speak about the hardships they face in finding an adequate shelter after the collapse of their houses, and, one video report from Batman (Yoksu, 2023) in which one young man tells about his struggle for justice after he lost his hand because of an accident at the workplace.

One from Hatay (Günaydın, 2023), in which earthquake victims speak about the hardships they face in finding an adequate shelter after the collapse of their houses, and, one video report from Batman (Yoksu, 2023) in which one young man tells about his struggle for justice after he lost his hand because of an accident at the workplace. It is evident that this outlet leads other by a wide margin in its use of "ordinary people" and civil society institutions as sources for news and, reflecting their struggles and concerns (see figure 4). Further, it is observed that Kısa Dalga fills this gap to some extent through its subscription to the ANKA news agency, which also occasionally reports on the political and social problems in different part of the country by interviewing ordinary citizens. On the other hand, other outlets not only use external resources more for their news production but also give prominence to developments in the political sphere where usually it is a politician that is quoted (Sancar, 2023; Görgülü, 2023). It is also observed that both Kısa Dalga and T24 sometimes publish the news produced by the Turkish services of BBC and DW. This arrangement allows for automatically acquiring news from a partner channel (BBC, DW), driving traffic to both websites. This also prevents tampering with the source news's text, title, and images. At this point, it is essential to introduce critical notions about the "participation" of non-professionals in the content production process. Bailey, Cammaerts, Carpentier (2015), distinguish between participation "in" the media, that is, the participation of non-professionals in the production of the media output, and participation "through" the media which means the ability to participate in public debate and self-representation. They define participation in the media as one of the key differences between the alternative and the mainstream. However, other

than a handful of op-eds in all these four websites, the news is produced either by staff reporters, editors, and freelancers or appropriated from other "professional" sources.

When we look at the political affiliations of other media organizations used as sources, we do not observe a dramatic difference between the news websites in question (see figure 5). When the media in Turkey is considered in the context of power relations and polarization, even agencies (AA, DHA, İHA), which are conventionally assumed to deliver impartial and equitable news, tend to exhibit a pro-government inclination. In contrast, the ANKA news agency primarily focuses on the activities and statements of the opposition. A similar situation is also observed for traditional media organizations. Therefore, in this section, the "impartial/balanced" category includes reputable international news organizations and agencies, which are known for working within the framework of the principles of journalistic ethics they have announced, as well as publications in Turkey, especially those that publish sectoral analyses

It should not come as a surprise that officials and public institutions are still important sources of information, even for the alternative media especially in countries like Turkey, where centralization is consolidating at a growing pace. Further, it is not unexpected that the analyzed news websites utilize content from organizations that generate critical and oppositional perspectives more since they are founded to counter the problems in the mainstream rather than relying on state institutions, governmental bodies, and affiliated media outlets responsible for disseminating official statements.

It is evident that the government, politicians in power and those in the governing alliance, government affiliated, and public institutions receive greater coverage in news stories than those of the opposition (see figure 6 & 7). The data illustrates that coverage of these subjects is predominantly portrayed with a negative, critical frame. In contrast, news concerning opposition parties, politicians, and affiliated institutions tends to adopt a more neutral tone.

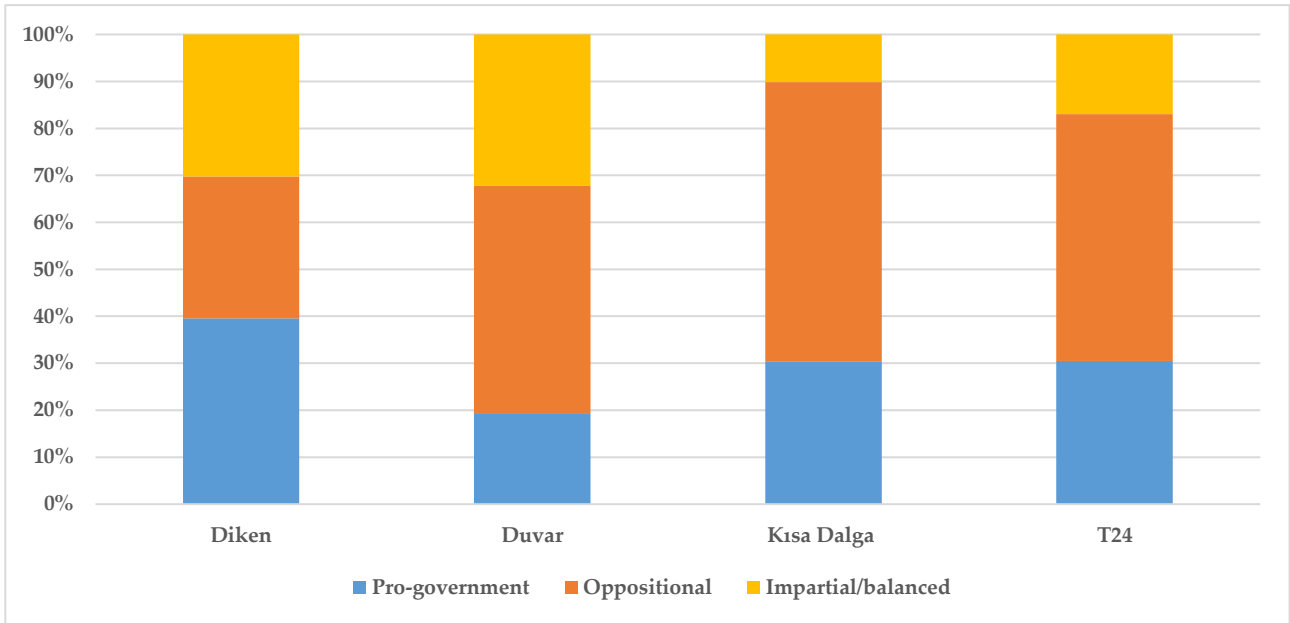


Figure 5. The political stance of the other news sources that are utilized

Notably, a substantial portion of the "positive" framing originates from press statements issued by politicians and officials, in which they reaffirm their policies. These statements, which are occasionally published, either as a direct transcript from a TV coverage or via the feed of a news agency or directly from a social media post, without an extra editorial effort like fact-checking or providing a broader framework about the claims etc., result in a positive framing of the subject and/or subject matter. Further, it can be argued that these news sites, although disp

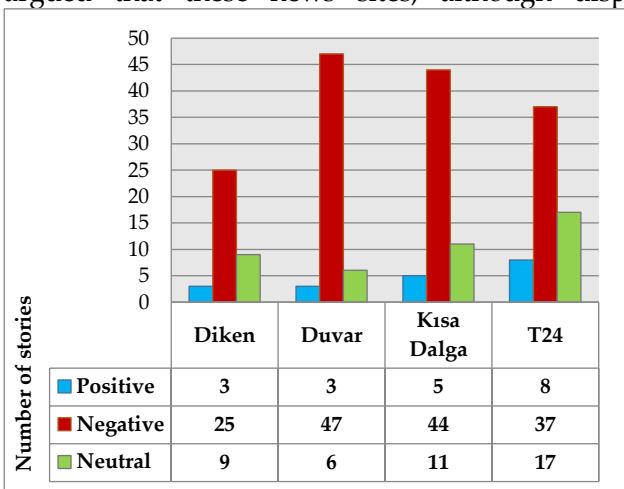


Figure 6. Framing of the news about the government and affiliated institutions

laying a critical stance about the government, ruling elites and state institutions' policies, their

orientation may not inherently align with the pro-opposition viewpoint.

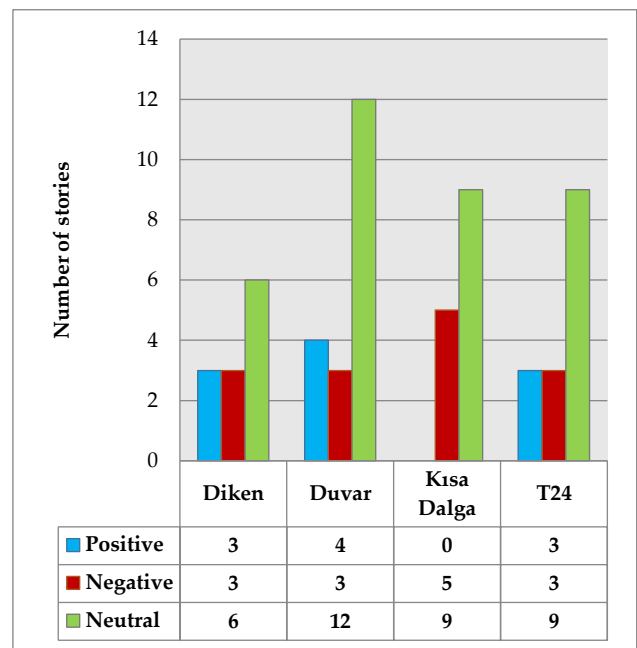


Figure 7. Framing of the news about the opposition and affiliated institutions

Conclusion and future research

The founders of the four news websites that are the focus of the research define their aims as follows: Harun Simavi of Diken: "To be the thorns of the media, which is being transformed into a rose

garden in our country, and to defend our democracy, fundamental freedoms, and secularism, which began to shake from its roots.” (Simavi, 2014). Vedat Zencir of Duvar: “Gazete Duvar will never be a mission newspaper. It will be a newspaper that does its own work... We made an effort to be with people who stand out with their journalistic identities rather than their oppositional identities and who have stability in this regard.” (Karaca, 2016). Kemal Göktaş of Kısa Dalga: “Kısa Dalga’s motto is good journalism. We try to do what good journalism requires...” (Korkmaz, 2022). Doğan Akın of T24 “We are not the voice of any community. We don’t have any fixed opinions, ideological engagement. Journalism without ideological obsessions, without financial obligations, without working unregistered, is possible.” (T24, 2021). Although none of the founders stress the concept of alternative journalism in an academic sense, they underline the need to counter the mainstream. In a country where more than 90% of the media is under the control of the government through different mechanisms, pursuing critical journalism qualifies news outlets as alternatives to the mainstream. However, there is still one unanswered question at this point: “Whose voice is heard in these outlets? Is it the agenda set by the elites (be it from the government or the opposition) or the problems, concerns and, struggles of ordinary citizens and the civil society circles that we are hearing?”. Approached from the framework established by Sandoval and Fuchs (2010), a real alternative to mainstream should focus on oppressed and dominated people while underscoring the antagonisms in society and seeking possible potentials for change. Establishing the link among the hegemonic political agenda and its effects on disadvantaged groups is a vital starting point for an alternative journalistic effort. This study demonstrates that, although harboring many similar traits, it is not possible to categorize these news websites as a monolithic structure. The differences may not be very noticeable at first glance. However, analyzing the editorial choices made and investigating whose voice is being “heard” in news stories helps to understand whether what is being done really

constitutes an alternative to the mainstream. The number of reporters in different parts of the country reporting the problems and struggles of ordinary people, groups and organizations that are unheard in the media is more vital in the number and diversity of op-ed writers in countering the mainstream. The overreliance on other media as sources creates a vicious circle of the existing agenda, at least from a critical perspective. Further studies about the reasons why non-mainstream critical news outlets cannot fulfill this condition are vital, especially by analyzing not only the volume and sources of revenues and sustainability in newsrooms but also by concentrating the allocation of already limited resources with regards to editorial policy.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

A Bibliometric Analysis of Populism in Turkey

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May 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1331499

Abstract

Populism, as a political concept, has garnered substantial attention emerging as a subject of growing global concern. This bibliometric research seeks to investigate the prominence and trends of populism, with a specific emphasis in academic publications in Turkey indexed in Dergipark. The keyword "populism" emerged as the most effective, leading to the exclusion of other keywords from the analysis. The primary objective of this study is to observe the evolving role in academic publications. This analysis does not seek to comprehend the underlying drivers and consequences of populism on democratic values and institutions. Instead, it aims to contribute to the expanding body of knowledge about populism by providing a comprehensive bibliometric analysis of scholarly works. Drawing upon data retrieved from Dergipark, a prominent repository of academic publications, this study will discern publications on populism and its related subtopics, aiming to identify patterns and shifts over time. As a result, this bibliometric analysis will not only underscore the significance of the concept of populism but also lay a foundation for further in-depth research on the topic. By concentrating on Turkey and utilizing data from Dergipark, this study endeavours to enrich the academic understanding of the rise of populism.

Keywords: Populism, Dergipark, Bibliometric Analysis, Turkish Populism Research.

Citation:
Gocekuyu, E. (2023). A
Bibliometric Analysis of
Populism in Turkey
OPUS- Journal of Society
Research, 20(55), 550-560.

Öz

Popülizm, siyasi bir kavram olarak küresel düzeyde artan bir endişe kaynağı haline gelmiş ve bu bibliyometrik araştırma ile Dergipark'ta dizinlenen akademik yayınlarda popülizm kavramının zaman içinde nasıl bir evrim geçirdiğini anlamak hedeflenmiştir. "Popülizm" kavramı mevcut diğer arama kavramları arasında en etkili anahtar kelime olarak ön plana çıkmıştır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, ülkemizde yayımlanmış akademik makalelerde popülizmin gelişen rolünü çalışmaktır. Analiz, popülizmin demokratik değerler ve toplumsal kurumlar açısından etkilerini anlamayı hedeflemektedir. Bununla beraber araştırma popülizm konusunda kapsamlı bir bibliyometrik analiz sunarak bilgi birikimine katkıda bulunmayı amaçlamaktadır. Dergipark'tan elde edilen verilere dayanarak popülizm ve ilgili alt konulardaki yayımları belirleyerek zaman içindeki anlamsal değişimleri tespit edilmiştir. Bu bibliyometrik analiz yalnızca popülizm kavramının önemini vurgulamakla kalmayacak, aynı zamanda konuyla ilgili daha derinlemesine araştırmalara temel teşkil edecektir. Türkiye'ye odaklanarak ve Dergipark'tan elde edilen verileri kullanarak, bu çalışma popülizmin zaman içinde akademik anlayışı nasıl etkilediğini anlamayı hedeflemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Popülizm, Dergipark, Bibliyometrik Analiz, Türk Popülizm Araştırması.

Introduction

Populism, as a political concept, has been a subject of considerable scholarly debate and ambiguity over the years. It emerged as a unique form of governance following the decline of fascism, presenting itself as a hybrid between constitutional government and dictatorship, exhibiting elements reminiscent of both liberal democracy and fascism (Finchelstein, 2019). The term "populism" has been applied to a diverse range of political actors across various countries and historical periods, leading to questions about its precise meaning and analytical usefulness. This study aims to explore different perspectives on populism and assess its broader implications. Federico Finchelstein and N. Urbinati argue that populism signifies a transformation of representative democracy (Finchelstein & Urbinati, 2018). In this context there are references to early studies on populism as a critique (Toprak, 1992, p. 41) for not having included Turkey. According to Toprak early Turkish prominent scholars such as Kemal Karpat and Tarık Zafer Tunaya the preferred term was *halkçılık* (Karpat, 1967, p. 61) that could be translated as populism but possessed a much broader meaning than the one that is recognized today. Toprak argues that the meaning of populism today has significantly altered as it has come to refer to nationalism and even fascism and racism (Toprak, 1992, p. 48). Most modern and developed form of populism may thus be observed within modern representative democracies, where populism desires to reshape fundamental democratic principles. In a rudimentary sense, populism constructs a comprehensive image of the people, often under the leadership of a strong figure, who promises grand national objectives. However, this approach frequently involves downplaying pluralism and marginalizing political and cultural minorities. By stretching democratic procedures to their extreme limits, populism challenges the very essence of democracy itself. Other prominent thinkers of early nationalist tendencies were important historical figures such as Ziya Gökalp and later thinkers such as Yusuf Akçura and Nihal Atsız. For the latter the protectors of the cultural heritage could only be the peasants and the peasant

rhetoric. This depiction had a much stronger conservative marking than racial populist movements that are prominent in our age.

Onni Hirvonen and J. Pennanen approach populism from the perspective of the neo-Hegelian theory of recognition (Hirvonen & Pennanen, 2019). They argue that while populism aims to address the lack of recognition experienced by certain groups, it can lead to social pathology. Populist formulations of political goals tend to oversimplify and essentialize collective identities, inhibiting genuine mutual recognition between individuals and groups. Matthijs Rooduijn identifies four core characteristics shared by populists across different times and regions (Akkerman et al., 2016) which include emphasizing the central position of the people, criticizing the elite, perceiving the people as a homogenous entity, and proclaiming a severe crisis. These elements form the core of populism and help distinguish it from other political ideologies. Parallel to these studies the more recent studies in Turkey demonstrate a contemporary understanding of modern populism in the sense that populism is attached to extremism, racism (Baykan, 2017; Beriş, 2019; Yildirim, 2017; Yılmaz, 2017). Contemporary scholars have a better focus on the threats of populism as an ideological tool put to use for political gain.

According to Ben Stanley, populism can be characterized as a 'thin' ideology that encompasses a specific set of ideas related to the political realm (Stanley, 2008). Although it may lack analytical precision in isolation, populism interacts with well-established ideational traditions of comprehensive ideologies. This perspective aids in placing populism within a broader ideological context. P. Taggart proposes that the core assertion of populism is the concept of 'unpolitics' (Taggart, 2018). Populism challenges the functioning of representative politics and presents an alternative vision of governance. This confrontation contributes to the potency and provocative nature of populism in contemporary representative democracies. Davide Vittori focuses on examining the impact of populism on party organizations with different ideological backgrounds (Vittori, 2020). Populism can be adopted by various political parties, but its effects on organizational

structures vary significantly. This analysis sheds light on the complex relationship between populism and party politics. P. Chilton delves into the issue of meaning at the core of populism (Chilton, 2017). He argues that the term "people" is pivotal to understanding populism, but it also triggers cognitive processes inherent to human nature. The elusive nature of the term allows for its effective use in political rhetoric. Jean Comroff examines the increasing appeal of populism as a trope in modern political discourse (Comroff, 2011). While the term can serve as both an analytical tool and a disparaging label, it appears to be acquiring distinct and disquieting features in the context of late modern times.

Despite the ubiquity of the term 'populism' in political discussions, its study has often been confined to specific countries or regions (Mudde & Kaltwasser, 2012). However, Mudde and Kaltwasser offer a unique cross-regional perspective on populism and its implications for democracy. Through analysing current instances of populism in both Europe and the Americas, they demonstrate that populism can simultaneously pose a threat to and serve as a corrective for democratic systems. Notably, scholars have also drawn attention to intriguing parallels between right-wing and left-wing populism. Both varieties of populism tend to advocate for a political model that is not fundamentally against democracy but rather in conflict with liberal democracy. On a different note, Eurosceptics vary in intensity and their arguments against the European Union (EU), as they target different aspects of Europeanization and engage in various levels of scepticism and opposition (Krouwel & Abts, 2007). The label of Euroscepticism encompasses a range of attitudes towards authorities, the regime, and the community, varying in reflexivity and negativism. This spectrum of political discontent gives rise to diverse types of Euroscepticism, spanning from cautious trust to scepticism, political distrust, cynicism, and alienation.

The surge of populism in Europe during the 1990s exhibited a close connection with the rise of Euroscepticism. Populist leaders capitalized on the concerns of many Europeans regarding the EU, presenting themselves as the voice of those who

perceive the EU as undemocratic and unaccountable. In their comprehensive article, Mudde and Rovira Kaltwasser argue that the rise of populism is not driven by a singular factor, but rather, it is an intricate outcome shaped by a combination of factors, including economic grievances, cultural anxiety, and political alienation. Their analysis delves into the intricate interplay of these elements, shedding light on how they coalesce to fuel the surge of populism. Moreover, the authors contend that while populism has historical roots, its prevalence has escalated in contemporary times due to various influences such as globalization, economic inequality, and the pervasive impact of social media platforms. Through their in-depth examination, the article illuminates the complexities surrounding the rise of populism and its manifestation in the modern political landscape. Jan-Werner Müller's argument revolves around the idea that populism poses a fundamental threat to the bedrock of democracy (Müller, 2017). This includes endangering crucial elements like the rule of law, the separation of powers, and the system of checks and balances. Rather than viewing populism as merely a variant of democracy, Müller contends that it directly challenges the very essence of democratic governance. His comprehensive analysis sheds light on how populism's appeal to the concept of the "people" can lead to the marginalization of pluralism, creating an environment where individual liberties and democratic norms are put at risk.

On the other hand, Ruth Wodak explores the significant role played by the media in facilitating the rise of populism. (Wodak, 2019). In her work, Ruth Wodak posits that the media serves as a potent conduit for propagating and disseminating populist messages, amplifying their reach and impact. She further examines how media coverage can inadvertently contribute to the legitimization of populist leaders and their ideologies. By delving into the complex interplay between populism and the media, her book sheds light on the media's complicity in shaping public perception and, consequently, the political landscape. On a different note, Jose Van Dijck's article concentrates on the significant role played by the internet in

fuelling the rise of populism (Van Dijck, 2012). The author argues that the internet has revolutionized the way populist leaders engage with their audiences, facilitating seamless communication and message dissemination. This digital platform enables direct interaction between populists and voters, contributing to the mobilization of support. Additionally, Van Dijck emphasizes the internet's role in fostering echo chambers, where individuals encounter information that reinforces their existing beliefs, creating an environment conducive to the propagation of populist ideologies. Through this exploration, the article underscores the internet's influential role in shaping the dynamics of populism in the digital age.

Methodology

This study adopts a bibliometric analysis approach (Martínez-López et al., 2018) to investigate the prominence and academic trends on the concept of populism in Turkey. Bibliometric analysis involves quantifying and analysing scholarly publications, providing valuable insights into the research landscape on a specific topic (Moral-Muñoz et al., 2020). In this research, the focus will be on populism, its related subtopics, and their connections to Turkey. To ensure scientific reliability and consistency (Creswell & Miller, 2000), this analysis will solely rely on Dergipark as the primary data source. Dergipark is a reputable and comprehensive academic repository that offers a vast collection of research articles published by Turkish scholars and researchers. As a widely used platform, Dergipark provides a reliable basis for gathering data and ensuring adequate representation of scholarly work related to populism in Turkey. To capture the multidimensional nature of populism, a set of relevant keywords were initially chosen to conduct the analysis. The selected keywords included the following array of choices "populism," "populism Syria," "populism nationalism," "populism Islam," "populism Netherlands," and other Western countries among others. These keywords are used to identify publications that address populism in various research, allowing for a comprehensive analysis of the topic. However, all except

"populism" were after careful evaluation discarded as they were unfit for further analysis. The study has considered all possible mix of searches for publications available on Dergipark that explicitly discuss or analyse populism published in Turkey. To maintain the focus on populism, publications that only tangentially mention the term without substantial analysis were therefore excluded from the analysis. Additionally, only peer-reviewed scholarly articles, and journals between the years 1990 and 2023 are included, as this period is technically considered viable and reliable sustainable for understanding the flow of publications in Turkey.

The data collection process is carried out systematically and iteratively. An initial search using the selected keywords is conducted on Dergipark's database, yielding a pool of relevant publications. The full texts of the identified publications are retrieved for thorough examination. The data extraction involved recording essential metadata, including publication title, authors, publication year, journal/conference name, and abstracts. The bibliometric analysis began with a quantitative assessment of the collected data. There were 212 published articles that included the keyword "populism" on the website of Dergipark. Then, for descriptive statistics, publication trends over time and the distribution of publications across subtopics were analysed. For this purpose, I conducted text analysis on the abstracts of the publications and also performed a frequency count of the keywords used in these works (see Graph II). Due to the fact that this study is not interested in a citation analysis it is not conducted. This would serve the purpose to identify highly influential works and to uncover the intellectual structure surrounding the concept of populism. To enhance the presentation and comprehension of the findings, data visualizations, such as graphs are employed and constructed by way of Excel. Such visual aids help to illustrate the patterns and trends of populism-related publications published in Turkey, as well as the relationships between different subtopics and research fields. The latter analyses are conducted under a separate section. Despite its comprehensiveness, this bibliometric analysis does pose limitations. Firstly, the study is

limited to publications available on Dergipark, potentially excluding relevant research hosted on other platforms or published in non-indexed journals. Secondly, the reliance on existing data could lead to some gaps or biases in the analysis. Nevertheless, the chosen methodology allows for a rigorous and systematic exploration of publications on populism in Turkey and contributes to the understanding of how populism is studied over the selected period.

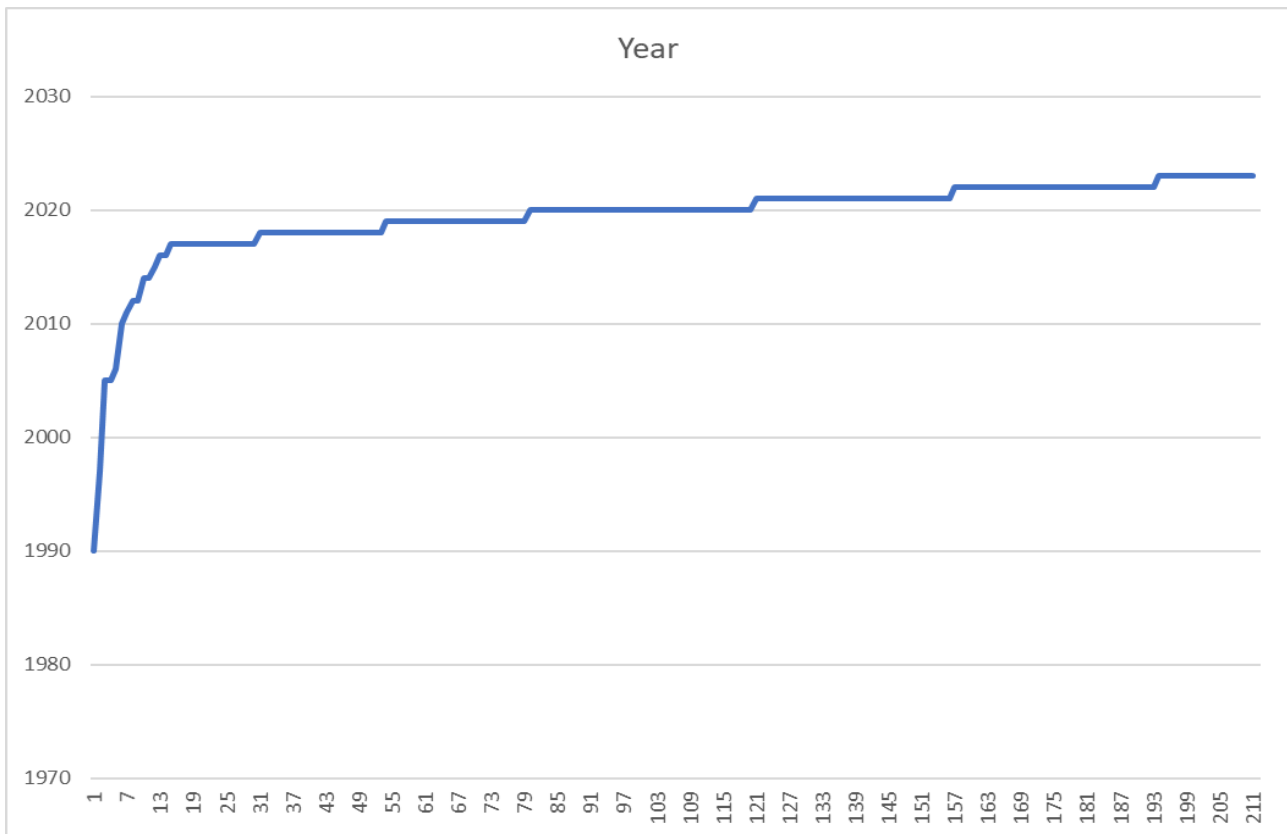
Data Analysis

Graph 1 below shows the number of publications with populism as a central theme on Dergipark over time. The x-axis shows the years of which 1990 until 2023 are the most relevant years. The graph shows that the number of articles on populism has been increasing steadily over time, with a few notable exceptions. In 1980, the number of publications decreased from the previous year. This may be due to a number of factors, which are beyond our objectives in this study. In 2000, the number of publications on populism has increased drastically. This may very well be correlated with

the terror related events in 2001 against the Twin Towers in the United States. Yet, again this paper does not intend to make the correlation, however this is such a big and global event that it may very well be related. The overall trend in the graph is an increase in the number of publications on populism over time. This suggests that the theme has been steadily more popular ever since. Thus, the two exceptions to this trend are in 1980 and 2000: in 1980, the number of publications on populism demonstrated to decrease, and in 2000, the number of publications on populism demonstrated an increase that was quite sharp.

While the number of publications on populism has been increasing at an accelerating rate since 2000, the peak number of publications was in 2020. The number of publications on populism has been declining since 2020. Hypothetically, one explanation may be sought due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Overall, the graph shows that the number of visitors to the website has been increasing steadily over time.

Graph II shows the frequency of keywords that appear the most in the keyword section of the publications. According to this graph populism



Graph 1: Frequency of published articles

appears is a central theme in the publications, with the highest frequency. The prevalence of populism suggests that these publications likely explore various aspects of populism. Democracy is another prominent topic, indicating a focus on political systems, governance, and democratic principles. Modern Turkey appears less frequently but still represents a significant sub-theme. The focus on Modern Turkey may suggest an examination of Turkey's political and social evolution in a contemporary context. The presence of political economy indicates an interest in the relationship between politics and economics. These publications may explore economic policies, government interventions, and their effects on society. Economic populism suggests a focus on economic policies and strategies that appeal to popular sentiment. Government policies may suggest a discussion of the actions and decisions made by governments.

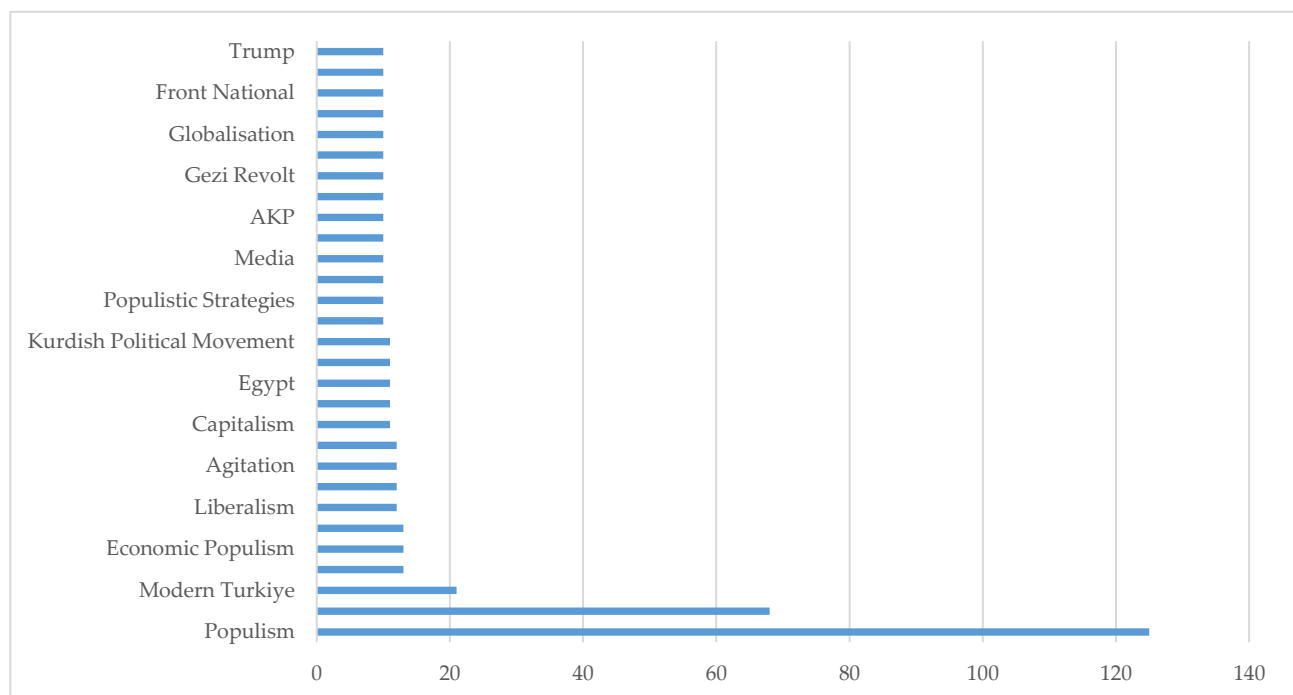
The rest of the keywords, each appearing 10 times, represent various aspects of politics, society, and ideology. This data demonstrates that the publications are likely to cover a wide range of topics related to populism, democracy, modern Turkey, political economy, and other political and social issues. The prominence of certain keywords indicates their significance in the discussions

within these publications, while others represent sub-themes and specific areas of interest.

Analysis of the Abstracts

Throughout the 1990s, academic articles predominantly focused on the historical and theoretical aspects of populism. Articles on populism predominantly took a historical and theoretical approach. Scholars delved into the emergence and development of populism, examining its ideologies and impacts on political cultures and origins tracing its roots in various political movements and historical contexts. However, as time passed, the nature of these articles evolved, encompassing a wide array of topics and regions.

Theories and conceptual frameworks were developed to better understand populism's nature and its implications for political systems. As time passed, the nature of articles on populism evolved, reflecting the shifting landscape of political discourse such as that of the work on Chantal Mouffe which centred on the rise of populism in liberal Western Europe. The work was intended to examine the populist understanding and struggle through the lens of radical democracy presented a left-wing populist strategy,



Graph II: Frequency of keywords in publications

criticizing the political understanding of socialist and social democratic parties. Another area of exploration emerged, centring on the debate around populism in the context of Jean-Jacques Rousseau's theories relating to the ideas as sources for populism. Such works were read as critiques of populist regimes and political styles. The relationship between populism and liberal democracy also garnered significant attention. Scholars argued against viewing populism as an internal aspect of liberal democracy and instead proposed understanding it as a separate ideology, shaping democracy akin to liberalism. This shift in perspective sheds new light on the complexities of populism's impact on democratic systems. One area of focus was the rise of populist politics in Turkey, particularly centred around nationalism and religious discourse. Researchers analysed the nationalist views and discourses of political parties based on various types of nationalism. This shift in focus from historical and theoretical aspects to specific country contexts demonstrated a more in-depth examination of populism's concrete manifestations.

Geographical variations in the study of populism were also evident. In Turkey, populism was historically associated with right-wing ideologies. Embedded within the socio-political fabric of each region is its distinctive political culture—an amalgamation of shared beliefs and values pertaining to the realm of politics. Several crucial factors in this respect come to the forefront in academic studies concerning the rise of populism across geographies. Each of these factors can contribute to the complexities of how populism may be constructed. The historical events within a geography may often carry profound implications for the emergence and evolution of populist movements within set borders. Some established liberal democracies such as Switzerland, Canada or the United States have been witnesses to early flows of immigration that pertained specific types of populism whereas other countries such as Turkey though imperial experiences have pertained type of populism that is intrinsically different. Such historical inflections may profoundly contribute to the collective consciousness, influencing how individuals

perceive populism and their likelihood of endorsing populist leaders. It is through the lens of history that we can gain insight into the resonating echoes of past populist surges and their enduring impact on a region's political landscape.

However, recent developments influenced by Western left-wing intellectuals led to a revision in the Turkish left's approach, causing an ambivalent attitude towards populism driven by ideological concerns. Representative democracies faced challenges due to the rise of populism. The polarizing political approach of populism and its opposition to compromise were identified as factors damaging the representative democratic system. Furthermore, the emergence of new Islamic populism in various parts of the Muslim world was explored as a response to the contradictions of globalized capitalism. Scholars focused on countries like Indonesia, Turkey, and Egypt to present an alternative perspective on the analysis of Islamic politics. A comparative analysis between bureaucratic authoritarian and populist regimes sheds light on their distinct principles. Bureaucratic authoritarian regimes relied on expertise to address social issues, while populism challenged the restriction of national will by experts, both with potential negative consequences for democratic politics. Religious populism in Iran was defined through the analysis of Iranian President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad's political discourse within the context of the Islamic Revolution and Ayatollah Khomeini's legacy. The discursive approach gained prominence in the study of populism, with scholars focusing on analysing political discourse to gain deeper insights into the intricacies of populist politics. Lastly, the transformative effects of radical left and right parties with populist strategies on French politics after the 2022 French Presidential election were highlighted. The rise of nationalist and internationalist camps in French politics added complexity to the political landscape.

The analysis of the texts reveals a comprehensive exploration of populism, covering various aspects and regions. One prominent theme that emerged is the examination of the rise of populism in Europe, particularly in countries such as Germany, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Poland,

Austria, and Turkey. Scholars delved into the reasons behind the surge of populist movements, emphasizing factors like globalization, economic inequalities, and emotional elements. Furthermore, the impact of populism on political culture, democracy, and political parties garnered considerable attention. The discussion on the rise of right-wing populist parties in the European Union and the threats they pose to the EU reflects the concerns about potential authoritarian structures within the bloc. The intersection between secularism, Christianity, and populism in modern Europe was explored, aiming to understand the compatibility of Islam with European values and its impact on Europe's religious heritage. In addition, they addressed the influence of populist rhetoric on various political issues, such as migration policies, nuclear disarmament, and global protests during the COVID-19 pandemic. Scholars analysed the negative representations of migrants and refugees in right-wing populist discourse, the erosion of the "Welcome Culture" for refugees in Germany, and the association of conspiracy theories with populist rhetoric in shaping public demonstrations. Moreover, the texts touch on broader global issues, including the erosion of the global order and the impact of Donald Trump's presidency on liberal internationalist circles. They investigate the reliability of health data during the COVID-19 pandemic and the potential implications for representative democracy and public trust. Additionally, there are studies on the transformation of the image of the artist in contemporary capitalist societies and the fusion of the art and entertainment industries.

Moreover, the texts discussed the role of media in shaping political images and the impact of neo-populism on global events, including the Ukraine-Russia war, Brexit, and international politics' volatility. The analysis also uncovered studies that explored populism's normative evaluations, distinguishing between "good populism" and "bad populism," aiming to understand and evaluate populism from a normative perspective, especially in the context of democratic systems. Overall, the texts provided a diverse and comprehensive examination of contemporary issues in politics and

democracy, with populism serving as a central theme.

Scholars in the published articles have undertaken research efforts to understand the intricate factors that contributed to the rise of populism and its far-reaching consequences for political systems, ideologies, and societies in diverse regions worldwide. A particular focus has been placed on investigating the connection between the visibility of populist leaders and their utilization of the media. Countries like the UK, the Netherlands, and Turkey have been subject to specific examination in this regard. The influence of media systems on the efficacy of populist communication has emerged as a significant and pertinent subject of study, reflecting the growing recognition of the media's pivotal role in shaping and disseminating populist messages. The perceptions on Ukraine in Polish society were also studied, revealing traditional spatial narratives and geopolitical concepts that influenced Poland's views on Ukraine. Furthermore, the rise of right-wing populism in Poland and its impact on public opinion towards Ukraine showcased a growing concern with the interplay between populism and international relations. Scholars investigated the impact of political and economic reforms, European Union accession, and populist movements on democratic transformation in post-communist Poland. This indicated a broader engagement with the relationship between populism and democratic consolidation, with a focus on post-communist contexts. Further publications in Dergipark on populism were the examination of domestic elections and the monitoring of organizations in Turkey and their role in establishing electoral integrity and legitimacy of political and societal subdivisions. Such is the research that reflects the increasing interest of Turkish researchers in populism's effects on electoral processes and democratic norms.

Studies on the migration policies of European far-right parties in countries like Germany, France, the Netherlands, and Denmark demonstrated a focus on populism's implications for immigration and refugee issues. As the decade progressed, articles were also published on the crisis of liberal democracy, the rise of far-right populism, and the

exclusionary stances towards immigrants and refugees in Europe. This reflected a broader exploration of populism's implications for European politics and society. Moreover, scholars studied the electoral success of the Populist Radical Right parties in Central and East European Countries in the context of EU membership, revealing a growing interest in the interplay between populism and European integration. The analysed texts cover a diverse range of topics and themes, reflecting the interconnectedness of populism with various political, social, and cultural issues. The texts explore the impact of populism on political discourse, identity, migration policies, and international relations, as well as the rise of extreme right-wing parties, the influence of social media on populist ideologies, and the challenges posed by global events such as the COVID-19 pandemic and Brexit.

In the context of Turkey, several studies were published on the dynamics of populism during local elections, the historical roots of the Turkish right wing, and the transformation of the AKP's political identity. Additionally, there are analyses of populist discourse in India's elections, the impact of extreme right-wing activities on social media, and the role of populism in Ottoman history during the Second Constitutional Period. The impact of populism on European politics is a recurring theme in the analysed texts. Studies explore the rise of extreme right-wing parties in various European countries, the challenges faced by the European Union, and the implications of Brexit on the EU's democratic legitimacy. The influence of populism on European identity, particularly in Eastern European countries, is also examined.

As a result, the academic exploration in Dergipark concerning populism in Turkey has evolved significantly over time. From its historical and theoretical underpinnings, studies have progressed to cover a wide range of topics, including its relationship with democracy, ideologies, and political systems. Geographically diverse, these works contribute to our understanding of populism's prevalence and impact on different political landscapes worldwide. The evolution of articles on populism

during the 1990's showcases a transition from predominantly historical and theoretical explorations to more context-specific and issue-oriented analyses. The changing nature of the articles indicate a deepening interest in the diverse facets of populism, its impact on political systems and ideologies, and its prevalence in different regions of the world. The analysed texts often employ a multidisciplinary approach, drawing on fields such as political science, international relations, anthropology, and sociology. They use various research methods, including critical discourse analysis, content analysis, quantitative and qualitative methods, and historical analysis. One important inference of this analysis is that research on populism within the Turkish scientific context is largely a derivative of current national and international political agendas. This is evident in the way that the research demonstrates a pattern on specific existing phenomena in relation to populism. Additionally, the research is often motivated by a desire to understand and explain the rise of populism, rather than to develop a theoretical understanding of the concept. However, it also limits the potential of research on populism to contribute to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. To address these limitations, it is necessary for research on populism within the Turkish scientific context to become more autonomous from current political agendas. Such an approach would allow researchers to make a more significant contribution to our understanding of populism.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the bibliometric analysis of academic publications on populism in Turkey indicates a significant and growing interest in the subject over the years. The research reveals a diverse and comprehensive exploration of populism, encompassing various aspects and regions globally. From its historical and theoretical aspects in the 1990s, the articles have evolved to focus on more context-specific and issue-oriented analyses. Scholars have investigated populism's impact on political systems, ideologies, and societies across different regions, offering valuable

insights into its rise and implications for democratic systems.

The research also highlights the interconnectedness between populism and different topics, such as its effects on various political issues, migration policies, and significant global events like the COVID-19 pandemic and Brexit. The analysis demonstrates a multidisciplinary approach, with scholars drawing from political science, international relations, anthropology, and sociology. Geographically, the emphasis on Europe and Turkey in the last decade indicates the prevalence of populism in different political landscapes worldwide. The rise of right-wing populist parties in Europe and their potential implications for the European Union are subjects of particular concern, raising questions about authoritarian tendencies within the bloc.

Moreover, the analysis explores how populism intersects with media usage and the visibility of populist leaders, providing valuable insights into the role of the media in shaping and disseminating populist messages. It also delves into populism's association with identity, migration, international relations, and democratic consolidation in various contexts. Overall, this bibliometric analysis reveals the richness and diversity of populism research, with scholars approaching the topic from various angles and regions. As populism continues to be a growing concern worldwide, the insights provided by this analysis contribute significantly to our understanding of its prominence and trends, with potential implications for political discourse and democratic systems in different parts of the world.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

A New Perspective to University Students' Online Learning Self-Efficacy: A Structural Equation Modeling

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1345678

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to examine the relationship between university students' online learning self-efficacy and academic self-efficacy using structural equation modeling and to create a statistically significant model for online learning self-efficacy. In the study, the cross-sectional survey model, one of the quantitative research methods, was used. The sample of the study consists of 322 university students studying in various programs and at different grade levels in the faculty of education in the 2022-2023 academic year. Demographic information form, academic self-efficacy scale, student's engagement scale in online learning environments, online learning systems acceptance scale and online learning self-efficacy scale were used as data collection tools. The results obtained from the study indicated that academic self-efficacy had a positive and significant effect on student's engagement in online learning environments and online learning systems acceptance, while student's engagement in online learning environments and online learning systems acceptance had a positive and significant effect on online learning self-efficacy. In addition, academic self-efficacy was a stronger predictor for student's engagement in online learning environments, and student's engagement in online learning environments was a stronger predictor for online learning self-efficacy.

Keywords: Online learning self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, student's engagement in online learning environments, online learning systems acceptance, structural equation model

Citation:

Demir, S. (2023). A New Perspective to University Students' Online Learning Self-Efficacy: A Structural Equation Modeling. *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 561-575.

Öz

Bu araştırmanın amacı üniversite öğrencilerinin çevrimiçi öğrenme özyeterlikleri ile akademik özyeterlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi yapısal eşitlik modellemesi kullanılarak incelemek ve çevrimiçi öğrenme özyeterliği için istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir model oluşturabilmektir. Araştırmada, nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden kesitsel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemini 2022-2023 eğitim öğretim yılında, eğitim fakültesinin çeşitli programlarında ve farklı sınıf düzeylerinde öğrenim gören 322 üniversite öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak; demografik bilgi formu, akademik özyeterlik ölçeği, çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılık ölçeği, çevrimiçi öğrenme sistemleri kabul ölçeği ve çevrimiçi öğrenmeye yönelik öz-yeterlik ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre akademik özyeterlik, çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılığı ve çevrimiçi öğrenme sistemleri kabulü üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahipken çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılığı ve çevrimiçi öğrenme sistemleri kabulü ise çevrimiçi öğrenme özyeterliği üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahiptir. Ayrıca akademik özyeterlik, çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılığı için çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılığı ise çevrimiçi öğrenme özyeterliği için daha güçlü bir yordayıcıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çevrimiçi öğrenme özyeterliği, akademik özyeterlik, çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamlarında öğrenci bağlılığı, çevrimiçi öğrenme sistemleri kabulü, yapısal eşitlik modeli

Introduction

The effects of rapidly developing technology in the 21st century show themselves in the field of education and all areas of life. It is possible to claim that developing technology is used primarily to provide individuals with more effective learning environments. In this respect, it is clear that technology has been an indispensable part of the educational process. Especially after the COVID-19 pandemic, technology-based approaches have been current education issues, and technology-supported learning environments have been created. In this context, comprehensive awareness of the importance of technology is provided, and most countries have adopted online learning. Online learning refers to using technology (Means et al., 2009). Considering the importance of online education today, it is seen that many studies discussing online learning from different aspects are conducted.

In the study conducted by Simándi (2017), it was expressed that the online learning environment could be effectively utilized for community learning. Meanwhile, the study by Homoki et al. (2023) revealed that most students perceived online education as effective, and it was further noted that students' digital competence showed improvement due to their engagement in online education. In another study conducted by Lu et al. (2022), individual characteristics, internal factors, external factors, and online learning strategies affecting adults' online learning were examined through 124 articles published between 2005 and 2021. The results indicated that self-efficacy in using information and communication technologies was an effective internal factor for online learning. In addition, according to Lai's (2011) study conducted with civil servants in Taiwan, self-efficacy for online courses was among the predictors of the effectiveness of online learning. At this point, it is possible to state that self-efficacy is essential for effective online learning. *Self-efficacy* focuses on the task or behavior an individual perceives s/he can do rather than his/her actual performance (Bandura, 2010). Online education experts stated that individuals with low self-efficacy preferred not to enroll in the

program or were less likely to complete the program even if they were enrolled (Zimmerman and Kulikowich, 2016). On the other hand, *online learning self-efficacy (OLS)* can be described as an individual's perception of his/her ability to carry out prescribed tasks essential for online learning (Zimmerman and Kulikowich, 2016). There are various studies on the factors related to OLS in the literature. For example, according to Alqurashi's (2016) study, a literature review including research conducted from 1997 to 2015, a correlation existed between OLS and computer self-efficacy, internet and information-seeking self-efficacy, learning management systems self-efficacy, and academic self-efficacy. In a similar study conducted by Peechapol et al. (2018), a comprehensive analysis of the research literature encompassing the studies conducted between the years 2005-2017, the factors linked to self-efficacy in online learning were categorized into five different classifications: online learning experience and knowledge, feedback and reward, online communication and interactions, social impact, student motivation, and attitude.

According to studies in the literature, academic self-efficacy was found to have a positive effect on students' academic performance, motivation, and their perception of the effectiveness of internet-based or online learning systems (Chyung et al., 2010; Lim et al., 2016; Tsai et al., 2011). *Academic self-efficacy (AS)* can be described as an individual's confidence and belief in their ability to accomplish academic tasks (Schunk, 1985; Solberg et al., 1993; Zimmerman, 1995). According to Bandura (1997), who associated AS with the self-efficacy theory, AS was an individual's belief that s/he could succeed academically. It also included self-regulated learning, effective in the stages of students' resource use, execution of tasks or activities, planning, controlling, and analyzing in the preparing learning outcomes (Nielsen et al., 2018; Schunk and Pajares, 2009). Based on the structural equation model developed by Calaguas and Consunji (2022), AS had a positive predictive relationship with computer use, learning management system, and internet and information self-efficacy. Furthermore, computer use self-efficacy, learning management system self-

efficacy, and internet and information self-efficacy were positively associated with OLS.

There were indications of a connection between OLS and other variables, such as student engagement in online learning and the acceptance of online learning systems. *Student engagement*, defined as the effort and time students spend on education, is associated with voluntary participation in educational activities and perseverance (Carini et al., 2006; Junco et al., 2011; Krause and Coates, 2008). Accordingly, *student's engagement in online learning environments (SEOLE)* refers to the time and effort that students invest in these digital learning settings. In a meta-analysis study conducted by Chang and Chien (2015) involving 26 primary studies, the connection between AS and student engagement was explored, and a significant correlation was discovered between AS and student engagement. On the other hand, *online learning systems acceptance (OLSA)* incorporates the dimensions of perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness from the Technology Acceptance Model formulated by Davis (1986). Technology acceptance was employed to investigate why users accept or reject information technologies (Legris et al., 2003). Perceived usefulness reflects an individual's belief in how much the system they use can enhance their job performance, while perceived ease of use pertains to an individual's belief in the minimal effort required to use the system. Ease of use and perceived usefulness play crucial roles in determining the acceptance of the system (Davis, 1989).

Law et al. (2010) stated that self-efficacy was associated with individual attitudes and expectations, whereas Prior et al. (2016) found a significant relationship between attitude, digital literacy, and self-efficacy. A separate research conducted by Topal (2020) determined that SEOLE was significantly higher in the online learning group enriched with gamification compared to the online learning group without gamification. According to Fredricks et al. (2004), as a student's engagement in learning environments increased, his/her cognitive development and learning level also increased. Junco et al. (2011) stated that students with high engagement in educational settings were more willing and courageous to use

technology. In addition, Arbaugh (2000) noted that ease of use and perceived usefulness of the internet-based course environment made a student's attitude towards course experience positive. Accordingly, students would ask to attend internet-based courses again in the future. In the study of Koca and Usluel (2007), teachers' intention to use information and communication technologies was shaped based on ease of use, perceived usefulness, social impact, and self-efficacy factors. In their study, a structural equation model was constructed by Şahin and Shelley (2008) to determine students' perceptions of distance education. The study found that computer knowledge, flexibility, and utility variables explained more than half of the variance in satisfaction with distance education.

In addition, there is some evidence that OLS may be related to AS, SEOLE, and OLSA. However, it is determined that there is almost no research using a structural equation modeling based on the relationships between these variables. Pearl (2012) defined the structural equation model as a causal inference method. The basic steps of structural equation modeling are (1) determination of the model, (2) evaluation of the model definition (if the specific estimation of each parameter in the model is theoretically possible, that model is defined), (3) selection of the scales to be used, data collection and preparation for analysis, (4) model estimation (model fit is evaluated, parameter estimations are interpreted if the model is compatible with the data, equivalent or close equivalent models are taken into account), (5) re-determining the model if the model fit is not good enough, and (6) reporting the results (Kline, 2016; Tabachnick and Fidel, 2013).

The study aims to investigate the correlation between OLS and AS among university students using structural equation modeling and to establish a statistically significant model for OLS. To achieve this goal, a structural equation model (Figure 1) was developed based on the existing literature, and the model's fit was assessed through testing. The hypotheses, aligned with the study's objective, are presented below.

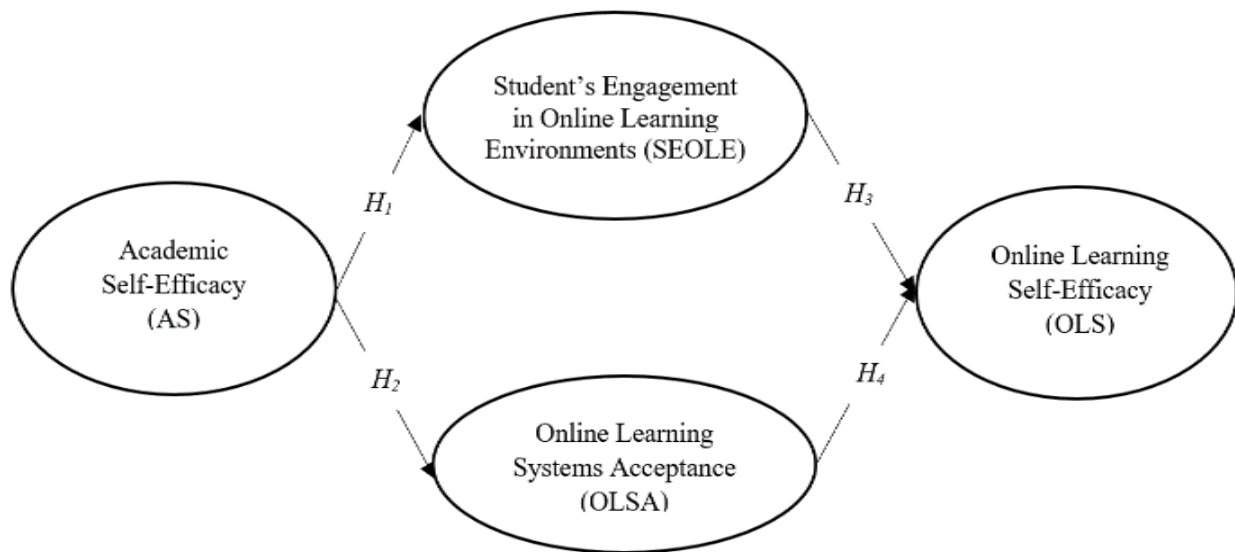


Figure 1. A model of university students' OLS

*H*₁: AS of university students affects SEOLE positively.

*H*₂: AS of university students affects OLSA positively.

*H*₃: SEOLE affects university students' OLS positively.

*H*₄: OLSA affects university students' OLS positively.

The significance of this study lies in the potential for its results to furnish educational policymakers, curriculum planners, and educators with valuable insights regarding OLS. In addition, this study is expected to provide valuable contributions to the related literature as it can be regarded as suggestive for future studies that aim to increase university students' academic achievement.

Method

The study was designed in a cross-sectional survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. In survey research, it is aimed to describe the characteristics of the sample according to one or more variables (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009) and to describe the characteristics of the universe based on the sample (Creswell, 2012). In cross-sectional surveys, data on the current attitudes, thoughts, or beliefs of the sample drawn from a predetermined universe are collected (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel

and Wallen, 2009). Therefore, in this study, the cross-sectional survey model was used because it was tried to understand and describe the current situation regarding the sampling in a certain time period, the effort to generalize the results to the universe, and the presence of different developmental periods such as grade level in the sample.

Participants

This study included a sample of 322 university students studying in various teacher training programs in a state university and at different grade levels in the 2022-2023 academic year.

The reason why the participants were chosen from the faculty of education is that when pre-service teachers start working as a teacher, they will undertake tasks, such as utilizing information and communication technologies effectively during the teaching-learning process, planning the teaching process most effectively in accordance with current conditions, and preparing their students for the future (MoNE, 2020).

The participants were determined using a convenience sampling model. Students, who had received online, or hybrid education before, were included in the sample. Once the students were informed about the research, the study group was constituted of those who willingly chose to

participate. Table 1 indicates the demographic information of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic information related to participants

Variable		N=	%
		322	
Age ($\bar{X} \pm sd$)	21.39 \pm 3.10		
Department/Program	Physical Education and Sports	13	4.0
	Guidance and Psychological Counseling	62	19.3
	Fine Arts Education	18	5.6
	Maths Education	47	14.6
	Science Education	34	10.6
	Special Education	15	4.7
	Preschool Education	40	12.4
	Classroom Education	56	17.4
	Social Sciences Education	23	7.1
	Language Education	14	4.3
Class Level	1 st Grade	24	7.5
	2 nd Grade	95	29.5
	3 rd Grade	142	44.1
	4 th Grade	61	18.9
Gender	Female	239	74.2
	Male	83	25.8
Do you have a personal computer?	Yes	212	65.8
	No	110	34.2
Do you have internet access whenever you want?	Yes	248	77.0
	No	74	23.0

As indicated in Table 1, the mean age of the participants consisting of 322 university students was 21.39 ($sd= 3.10$). Students from 10 different teacher-training departments/programs of the university and four different class levels were included in the sample. The majority of the sample consisted of women (74.2%). In addition, it was seen that the rate of those who had a personal computer (65.8%) and those who had internet access whenever they wanted (77.0%) was high.

Data Collection Tools

While gathering the data, the researcher employed the "Demographic Information Form" and utilized the following scales: the "Academic Self-Efficacy Scale," the "Student's Engagement Scale in Online Learning Environments," the "Online Learning Systems Acceptance Scale," and the "Online Learning Self-Efficacy Scale." The reliability and validity of these scales were assessed using data obtained from the study's sample. Cronbach's

alpha coefficient and composite reliability (CR) values were computed to evaluate scale reliability. Cronbach's alpha assessed the internal consistency and homogeneity of the scale items. On the other hand, CR value indicated the construct reliability of the factors. If the construct reliability of the factors was high, it was accepted that concurrent validity was provided. Values between .60 and .70 for both indicated an acceptable level of reliability, and values greater than .70 were interpreted as highly reliable or high reliability (George and Mallery, 2003; Hair et al., 2005). In this respect, these values were expected to be above .70 for the scales used in the study. In addition, the construct validity of the scales was evaluated through the use of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and calculated goodness-of-fit indexes were interpreted considering the intervals suggested by Kline (2016) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). Google Forms, a web-based and free software, were used to collect the data. Google Forms, providing the opportunity to gather information online and to download the data in Excel file format, were sent to the participants via e-mail. The data were collected in the fall semester of the 2022-2023 academic year.

Demographic Information Form

The questions, including the student's department/program, grade level, gender, age, having/not having a personal computer, having/not having internet access at any time, and having/not having received online or hybrid education from a formal education institution before, were developed by the researcher and consisted of seven items.

Academic Self-Efficacy Scale

It was developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1981) and adapted into Turkish by Yılmaz et al. (2007). The scale comprised a unidimensional structure and encompassed a total of seven items. The items in the scale were in a four-point Likert type with (1) *does not fit me at all*, (2) *fit me very little*, (3) *fits me*, and (4) *fits me completely*. Six items in the scale were positive, and one was negative (item 7). The minimum score that could be obtained from

the scale was 7, and the maximum score was 28. In the current study, the mean score obtained from the scale was 19.56 ($sd=3.10$), and the total variance explained in unidimension was 41.76%. Cronbach's alpha coefficient and CR value were calculated as .74 and .83, respectively using the data acquired from the participants. These calculated values showed that the reliability of the scale was high. In addition, the goodness-of-fit indexes achieved as a result of CFA ($\chi^2[14, N=322]=41.186$; $p<.01$; $\chi^2/df=2.94$; $CFI=.94$; $GFI=.97$; $SRMR=.045$; $RMSEA=.078$) indicated that the proposed one-factor model was well-fitted with the data and was acceptable.

Student's Engagement Scale in Online Learning Environments

It was developed by Sun and Rueda (2012) and adapted into Turkish by Ergün and Usluel (2015). The scale consisted of three dimensions: *Behavioral Engagement* (5 items), *Affective Engagement* (6 items), *Cognitive Engagement* (8 items), and included 19 items. The items in the scale were in a five-point likert type with (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *neither disagree nor agree*, (4) *agree*, and (5) *strongly agree*. 16 items in the scale are positive, and three items are negative (items 2, 3, 11). The minimum score obtained from the scale was 19, and the maximum score was 95. In the current study, the mean score obtained from the scale was 63.87 ($sd=10.43$), and the total variance explained in the three dimensions was 54.03%. In the study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients calculated for the three sub-dimensions of the scale were calculated as .67, .91, .80, and CR values as .68, .92, and .82, respectively. Therefore, it was seen that while the *Behavioral Engagement* dimension of the scale had acceptable reliability, the other dimensions had high reliability. When goodness-of-fit indexes achieved as a result of the second level CFA and three modifications in total ($\chi^2[146, N=322]=397.640$; $p<.01$; $\chi^2/df=2.72$; $CFI=.90$; $GFI=.88$; $SRMR=.063$; $RMSEA=.073$) were examined, it was found that the GFI was below the expected value. Jöreskog and Sörbom (1988) stated that GFI values of .85 and above indicated an acceptable model fit. Therefore, it was seen that the proposed three-

factor model, based on other goodness-of-fit indexes, was compatible with the data at an acceptable level.

Online Learning Systems Acceptance Scale

It was developed by Ilgaz (2008). The scale comprised two dimensions, *Perceived Ease of Use* (2 items), *Perceived Benefit* (4 items), and 6 items. The items in the scale were in seven-point Likert type with (1) *strongly disagree* - (7) *totally agree*. All of the items in the scale were positive. The minimum score that could be obtained from the scale was 6, and the maximum score was 42. In the current study, the mean score obtained from the scale was 28.80 ($sd=7.67$), and the total variance explained in the two dimensions was 81.46%. In the study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients calculated for the three sub-dimensions of the scale were calculated as .84, .91, and CR values as .87 and .90, respectively. Accordingly, it was seen that both dimensions of the scale had high reliability. In addition, goodness-of-fit indexes obtained as a result of CFA ($\chi^2[8, N=322]=20.510$; $p<.01$; $\chi^2/df=2.56$; $CFI=.99$; $GFI=.98$; $SRMR=.022$; $RMSEA=.070$) indicated that the proposed two-factor model was well-fitted with the data.

Online Learning Self-Efficacy Scale

It was developed by Sun and Rogers (2020) and adapted into Turkish by Yörük and Özçetin (2021). The scale consisted of four dimensions, *Technology Use Self-Efficacy* (7 items), *Online Learning Self-Efficacy* (4 items), *Instructor and Peer Interaction and Communication Self-Efficacy* (7 items), *Self-Control and Motivation Effectiveness* (13 items), and included 31 items. The items in the scale were in six-point Likert type with (1) *strongly disagree*, (2) *disagree*, (3) *somewhat disagree*, (4) *somewhat agree*, (5) *agree*, (6) *strongly agree*. All of the items in the scale were positive. The minimum score that could be obtained from the scale was 31, and the maximum score was 186. In the current study, the mean score obtained from the scale was 135.14 ($sd=23.61$), and the total variance explained in four dimensions was 63.60%. In the study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients calculated for the four sub-dimensions

of the scale were calculated as .89, .86, .93, .93, and CR values as .90, .76, .90, and .91, respectively. These values showed that all dimensions of the scale had high reliability. When goodness-of-fit indexes obtained as a result of the second level CFA and three modifications in total ($\chi^2[427, N=322]=1226.369; p<.01; \chi^2/df=2.87; CFI=.88; GFI=.80; SRMR=.078; RMSEA=.076$) were examined, it was found that the GFI was below the expected value. However, considering that models that represent a theoretically meaningful and useful description of the data based on a single fit index should not be rejected (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1988; Shevlin and Miles, 1998), it can be claimed that the four-factor model proposed for the scale based on other calculated goodness-of-fit indexes, was compatible with the data at an acceptable level.

Data Analysis

Before commencing the analysis of the gathered data, the requirements and assumptions of the structural equation model were tested. These include missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, multicollinearity and singularity, and sample size (Çokluk et al., 2012).

In the data collected from 327 university students via Google Forms, no missing data was observed in the data set since the "required" option was activated for all items in the data collection tool. Standardized *z* scores and Mahalanobis distance were calculated to examine the outliers in the data set. Three outliers outside the *z* score [-3,3] range (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013) and two outliers in which Mahalanobis distance was greater than the critical chi-square table value $\chi^2(5)=20.52, p<.001$ (Kline, 2016) were removed from the dataset. As a result, the data of 322 students remained in the data set. Power analysis was performed using the statistical software G*Power v3.1.9.7 to determine the required sample size (Faul et al., 2007). The analysis results indicate that for a model with three predictors, power=.95, alpha=.05, and an effect size ranging from small to medium, specifically $f^2=.075$, the required sample size was calculated as 233 participants. Cohen (1988) classified the effect size as small, medium, and large for .02, .15, and .35, respectively. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) test

results, applied to determine whether the sample size was sufficient, were between .807 and .941, which could be interpreted as a sample size of 322 was sufficient (Çokluk et al., 2012).

Univariate normality was examined via skewness and kurtosis coefficients, and multivariate normality was examined via Bartlett's Sphericity test for the data of the study. When the skewness and kurtosis values were examined, it was seen that the calculated values were between -1.5 and 1.5; thus, univariate normality was achieved (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In addition, it was seen that the results of Bartlett's Sphericity test were significant ($p<.001$), indicating that the assumption of multivariate normality was met (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The fact that the assumption of multivariate normality was provided could be interpreted as the assumption of linearity was also provided (Çokluk et al., 2012). Therefore, it can be inferred that this study's linearity assumption was also met because the normality assumptions were met. Tolerance, variable inflation factor (VIF), and condition index values were examined to determine whether the research data fulfilled the assumption of multicollinearity and singularity. The tolerance values were found to range from .64 to .82. and were greater than .20 (Kalaycı, 2010), VIF values varied between 1.217 and 1.558 and were less than 3.00 (O'Brien, 2007), and condition index values were between 1.00 and 24.29 and were less than 30 (Freund and Littell, 2000). These obtained values were interpreted as there was no multicollinearity problem in the study data. As a result, all analyses of the current study were carried out on the data set of 322 university students, which provided the requirements and variances of the structural equation model.

In this study, the Structural Equation Model (SEM) was employed to examine the theoretical model of OLS and analyze the direct and indirect effects between the variables encompassed by this model (Çokluk et al., 2012). The recommended procedures outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) and Kline (2016) were followed during the structural equation modeling analysis. IBM SPSS Statistics 22 and AMOS 22 were utilized to conduct the analyses. Covariance-based, maximum likelihood-structural equation modeling (ML-

SEM) was used in the analysis of the data, based on the fact that the variables considered in the study were continuous, that the data provided univariate and multivariate normality assumptions, and that the sample was large enough (Hair et al., 2012). In the analysis process, firstly, it was examined whether the measurement model associated with the structural equation model developed in accordance with the existing literature was verified. Then, the research hypotheses in the structural model were tested. In evaluating model fit, χ^2 and its p value, χ^2/df , CFI, GFI, SRMR, and RMSEA, one of the most frequently used model fit indexes in the literature (Kline, 2016; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013) were used.

Findings

In the current study, a structural equation model was created regarding the OLS of university students. In the structural equation model created, firstly, it was investigated whether the measurement model was verified. When fit indexes calculated after two modifications ($\chi^2[162, N= 322]= 414,211; p< .01; \chi^2/df= 2.56; CFI= .92; GFI=$

Table 2. Results of the structural model

Paths	β	C.R.	p	Hypotheses	Hypothesis results
AS→SEOLE	.55	5.84	< .001	H ₁	Supported
AS→OLSA	.23	3.37	< .001	H ₂	Supported
SEOLE→OLS	.76	5.79	< .001	H ₃	Supported
OLSA→OLS	.32	4.93	< .001	H ₄	Supported

β : Standardized path coefficient
C.R.= Critical ratio.

As seen in Table 2, the effect of AS on SEOLE ($\beta=.55; p< .001$) and OLSA ($\beta=.23; p< .001$) was found to be significant. Similarly, the effect of SEOLE on OLS ($\beta=.76; p< .001$) and the effect of OLSA on OLS ($\beta=.32; p< .001$) was also found to be significant. The Critical Ratio (C.R.) value, calculated by dividing the parameter estimate by the standard error, indicated statistical significance of parameters (Byrne, 2001). C.R. values exceeding 1.96 in absolute value were statistically significant at the $p< .05$ level, and the null hypothesis was rejected (Khine, 2013). It was seen that all C.R. values in Table 2 exceeded 1.96. These findings showed that all research hypotheses were supported. The path coefficients between the latent

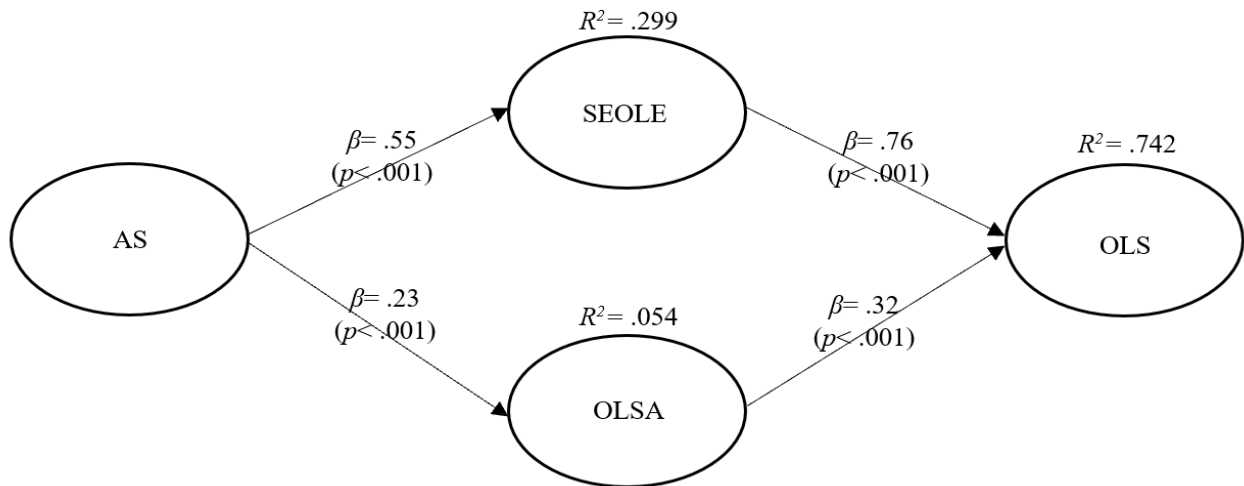


Figure 2. The structural model of OLS

.89; SRMR= .073; RMSEA= .070) were examined, it was seen that the measurement model was compatible with the data at an acceptable level and the measurement model was confirmed.

After verifying the measurement model, the research hypotheses were tested on the structural model. The analysis results of the structural model are presented in Table 2.

variables and the structural model of OLS are shown in Figure 2.

When Figure 2 was analyzed, it was seen that AS of university students had a positive and significant effect on both SEOLE and OLSA. In addition, it was seen that AS of university students was more effective on SEOLE. Similarly, SEOLE and OLSA had a significant and positive predictive

effect on university students' OLS. At this point, it was seen that SEOLE was more effective on students' OLS. In the created model, AS explained approximately 30% of the variance in SEOLE and approximately 5% of the variance in OLSA. In addition, the structural model explained about 74% of the variance in OLS. Therefore, it was seen

In the current study, it was aimed to create a statistically significant model that explained the OLS of university students. A comprehensive literature review was done, and it was inferred from this review that OLS might have a possible relationship with AS, SEOLE, and OLSA (Alqurashi, 2016; Calaguas and Consunji, 2022;

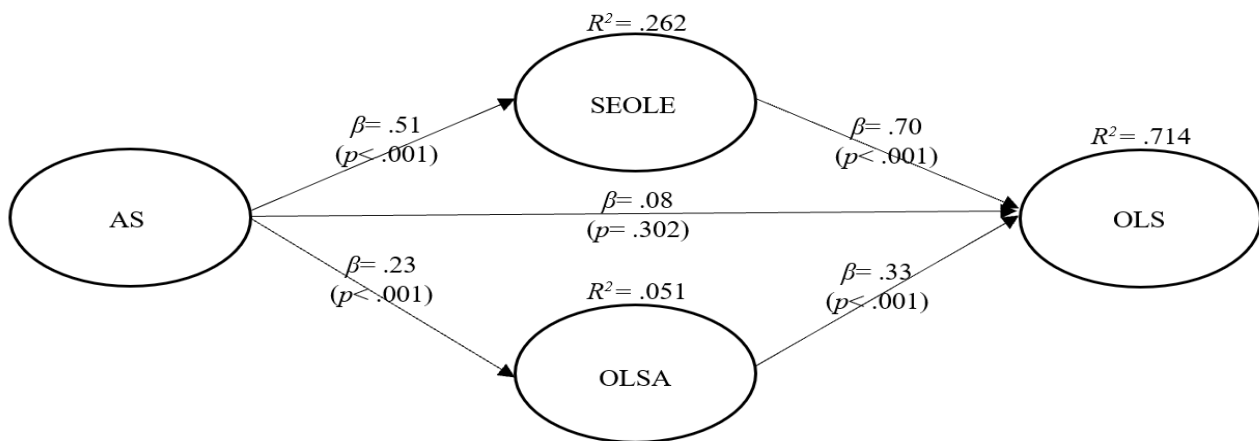


Figure 3. The direct effect of AS on OLS

that the structural model created with the support of the literature was a satisfactory model for OLS. As an alternative to the structural model in the study, the model in which the direct effect of university students' AS on OLS was examined is presented in Figure 3.

When the values presented in Figure 3 were compared with Figure 2, both the positive and significant effect of AS on SEOLE ($\beta = .51$; $p < .001$) and OLSA ($\beta = .23$; $p < .001$) and the positive and significant effect of SEOLE ($\beta = .70$; $p < .001$) and OLSA ($\beta = .33$; $p < .001$) on OLS remained almost the same. In addition, it was determined that AS had a positive and significant effect on OLS before other variables were included in the model ($\beta = .45$; $p < .001$), and approximately 21% of the variance in OLS was explained by AS. On the other hand, in the model in Figure 3, in which other variables were included, the effect of AS on OLS ($\beta = .08$; $p = .302 > .05$) was not significant and approximately 71% of the variance in OLS was explained with AS, SEOLE and OLSA variables. It was seen that these calculated values also supported the structure created in the current study and presented in Figure 2.

Discussion and Conclusion

Chyung et al., 2010; Fredricks et al., 2004; Junco et al., 2011; Koca and Usluel, 2007; Lim et al., 2016; Şahin and Shelley, 2008; Topal, 2020; Tsai et al., 2011). Based on this, the possible effects of the three variables above on OLS were investigated. It was believed that the study would contribute to the related literature by providing a perspective on OLS. Accordingly, the model created for university students' OLS through structural equation modeling was statistically significant.

The results of the study indicated that AS predicted SEOLE and OLSA positively and significantly, and it was also a stronger predictor for SEOLE. The studies in the literature also supported these results. In their study, Deng et al. (2021) determined that self-efficacy and positive emotions mediated the relationship between regulatory focus and online learning engagement. The structural equation model study conducted by Oriol-Granado et al. (2017) determined that self-efficacy was a strong predictor of academic commitment and increased academic performance. The study conducted by Allen et al. (2002) determined that students resisted using of technology because technology was seen as easily perishable, they were not used to working with machines, and they thought that the created

technological environment could not replace the natural classroom environment. In addition, in the study conducted by Koca and Usluel (2007) to determine the predictors of teachers' intention to accept and use information and communication technologies, perceived usefulness, ease of use, social impact, and self-efficacy factors were determined as strong predictors.

In addition, according to the results of the structural equation model conducted by Bakır (2022), student engagement was predicted by positive and negative feelings toward success, and one of the variables that most affect student engagement in an online learning environment was feelings about being successful. The predictive relationship may be due to the power of AS to include learning-related issues. Individuals with high AS had abilities, such as controlling academic learning, generating and applying new ideas, setting difficult goals, and using their performance effectively (Chemers et al., 2001; Margolis and McCabe, 2004). These individuals were highly motivated and had characteristics such as resisting difficulties and minimizing emotional negativities (Bandura, 1994). In light of the findings supported by the literature, it can be deduced that higher AS results in higher SEOLE and OLSA. In other words, the high AS also increased the level of SEOLE and OLSA.

Another striking result was that SEOLE and OLSA in the constructed structural model predicted OLS positively and significantly, and SEOLE was a stronger predictor. Hence, a rise in a SEOLE and acceptance of the used systems will also provide an increase in self-efficacy in learning. Considering the studies revealing the relationship between OLS and SEOLE or OLSA, this positive correlation was expected. For example, Pintrich and De Groot (1990) and Sun and Rueda (2012) claimed that student engagement in the learning process was related to interest, high motivation, academic performance, self-efficacy, and self-regulation. In addition, it was revealed that students with high learning engagement showed intense effort and concentration in the academic tasks assigned to them (Skinner and Belmont, 1993). Lee and Mendlinger's (2011) study, which supported the results of the current study on

students studying in online classrooms, found that perceived self-efficacy positively affects acceptance of online learning, and perceived usefulness of online learning systems positively affected online learning acceptance and student satisfaction. Accordingly, it can be deduced that student engagement which was a mental, emotional, and behavioral process that uninterruptedly supported the student's desire to be involved in learning activities in positive or negative situations (Skinner and Belmont, 1993), and student acceptance, which referred to having a positive perspective on used learning systems (Davis, 1986; Davis, 1989) can be regarded as indicators of student's self-belief and confidence in learning. In this context, it is possible to infer that engagement in all learning processes can be regarded as a primary concern to provide acceptance of used systems, which may be the reason why SEOLE is a stronger predictor compared to OLSA.

The model created in the current study provided statistically significant evidence for the theoretically established relationships and contributed to the literature in the direction that AS should be improved to improve SEOLE and OLSA, and that SEOLE and OLSA should be improved to improve OLS. It was proven that the variables included in the model were statistically significant predictors of OLS. Therefore, the model provided insight into what influenced university students' OLS levels. In addition, it was anticipated that the model would provide educators with an idea about students with low OLS. Furthermore, it can be recommended that program executives should work on improving AS, SEOLE, and OLSA to improve OLS. Also, it was assumed that the findings would give an idea to the education policymakers, curriculum planners, and educators to develop OLS. High self-efficacy increases engagement to target (Bandura, 2010), which increases academic achievement (Alpaslan and Ulubey, 2021; Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2021). Education institutions, especially universities, should attach importance to AS and SEOLE to enhance OLS by conducting studies, which increase awareness for online learning. At this point, plans, interventions, and studies can be

conducted to increase efficiency in online learning environments based on the created model. It is recommended to make the curriculum well-aligned to the students' needs for online learning practices.

The results of the current study are limited to university students enrolled in teacher training programs. The study was applied to a limited sample. Thus, further research should be conducted using different universes and samples to increase the generalizability of the results of this study because learners who study in different departments of a university (social, science, health, etc.), or at different education levels (primary school, secondary school, high school) and who have received online education in a certain period of time may have different opinions. Additionally, cross-sectional survey design used in this study carries limitations in drawing causal inferences.

For future studies, it may be recommended to conduct longitudinal studies in which experimental design is preferred to present stronger cause-effect relationships. Apart from these, studies that include different variables associated with OLS can also be designed. In addition, qualitative studies can be designed to examine the variables explaining OLS in the tested model in depth. Independent from the model created in the current study, the direct effect of university students' AS on OLS was also examined through an alternative model in order to provide the opportunity to make comparisons and to provide an idea for future researchers. Although AS had a positive and significant effect on OLS before SEOLE and OLSA were included in the model, it was determined that the effect of AS on OLS was not significant in the model that included SEOLE and OLSA variables. Based on this, it can be deduced that SEOLE and OLSA may be mediating variables in the relationship between AS and OLS. In this respect, future studies can be conducted to examine the mediating effect of these variables.

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<https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2016.1193801>

RESEARCH ARTICLE

A Study on the Appearance of the Kahramanmaraş Earthquake on Social Media

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1347043

Citation:
Gökmen, E. (2023). A Study on
the Appearance of the
Kahramanmaraş Earthquake on
Social Media.
OPUS– Journal of Society
Research, 20(55), 576-591.

Abstract

This study is aiming to reveal how the earthquake, dated February 6, 2023, with the epicenter of Kahramanmaraş, appears on social media. In the study, content analysis method was used, and a total of 500 images (still images with or without sound) shared with the hashtag "6 February" on Instagram were examined and how the earthquake was reflected with these contents was tried to be determined. Shared images were classified under certain themes and recorded by counting. Then, the images selected as samples and the obtained numerical data were analyzed and interpreted qualitatively. This analysis enabled us to reveal the meanings and representations produced by the visuals. The results obtained in the study were also compared with the results of similar studies in the literature. As a result of the study, it was seen that the earthquake dated February 6, 2023 was heavily represented on social media with dramatic and manipulative posts.

Keywords: Social media, Instagram, earthquake, representation, sharing.

Öz

Bu çalışma 6 Şubat 2023 tarihli merkez üssü Kahramanmaraş olan depremin sosyal medyada nasıl görüldüğünü ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlayan bir araştırmadır. Çalışmada içerik analizi yönteminden yararlanılmış olup, Instagram'da "6şubat" hashtag'i ile paylaşılmış olan toplam 500 görsel (sesli ya da sessiz hareketsiz görüntü) incelenmiş ve depremin bu içeriklerle nasıl yansıtıldığı belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Paylaşılan görseller belirli temalar altında sınıflandırılmış ve sayılarak kaydedilmiştir. Ardından örneklem olarak seçilen görseller ve elde edilen sayısal veriler nitel olarak analiz edilmiş ve yorumlanmıştır. Bu analiz, görsellerle üretilen anlamları ve temsilleri ortaya çıkarmamızı sağlamıştır. Çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlar alan yazındaki benzer çalışma sonuçları ile de karşılaştırılmıştır. Çalışma sonucunda 6 Şubat 2023 tarihli depremin sosyal medyada yoğun olarak dramatik ve manipülatif içerikli paylaşımlarla temsil edildiği görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sosyal medya, Instagram, deprem, temsil, anlam

Introduction

Social media is one of the most widely used media platforms currently and it is outmost affective on societies. Social media emerged with the development of new communication technologies. New communication technologies have developed rapidly in the world and with that development, the traditional media concept has begun to leave its place to the concept of "new media". Interactive television, digital radio, e-broadcasting, mobile communication and social media are among the basic tools of new communication technologies. The "traditional media," which is one-way and uses a passive user, has started to make way for the "new media," also known as interactive media, which is two-way and uses an active user. Social media represents one of the most important components of this process. The emergence of social media with the spread of Web 2.0 technology has fundamentally altered communication and produced a totally different media environment than what existed previously. Social media is the name of the system where the user can produce content and interfere with the produced content, interact with other individuals, institutions, and organizations, and are represented as an active entity. In the traditional media era, social media enabled the content produced and controlled by media professionals to be produced and controlled by users and made the ordinary individual a part of this process.

In this context, this study aims to shed light on what kind of environment social media created in regard to the earthquake of February 6, 2023, and what kind of a representation it created in conveying the earthquake. The study's goal is to look at how the February 6, 2023, earthquake, which has a significant global impact and is regarded as one of the largest earthquakes ever recorded, appeared on social media. Furthermore, this study demonstrates how social media might contribute to the interpretation of social events. As a result, it has been attempted to ascertain the mental representation and policies made by social media, which after traditional media comprises a significant global force, in conveying natural disasters. In the study, the sample of Instagram representing social media was studied. Still images

(photos, pictures, cartoons, tables, figures, etc.), text and text samples shared with the hashtag "6 February" on this social network were examined and it was tried to determine how the earthquake was reflected with these contents.

In this context, content analysis method was used in the study, and a total of 500 images (still images with or without sound, text, and text) related to the earthquake that occurred on February 6, 2023, and whose epicenter is Kahramanmaraş and shared on Instagram with the hashtag "6 February" were chosen as the sample. Shared images were classified under certain themes and counted and recorded. These themes were created in order to reveal the demonstrations of the earthquake. Then, the images selected as samples and the numerical data obtained were analyzed qualitatively and interpreted. This analysis enabled us to reveal the meanings and representations produced in the images. With this analysis, it was tried to determine what kind of sub-meanings were formed behind the examined visuals and which mental representations of the earthquake were reflected.

Although there have been some studies on the use and visibility of social media during natural disasters, it appears that no previous research has been done about the February 6 Kahramanmaraş earthquake on Instagram. In particular, there was no study related to the appearance of the earthquake dated February 6, 2023, on social media, similar to the content and method of this study. This study, which explores how an earthquake, whose impacts and reflections are relatively vast in the world, appears on social media and what kind of meanings are formed, is regarded to make a valuable contribution to the literature. This study is also important in terms of revealing the meaning-making potential of social media. It is believed that the research done under this framework is crucial for a better comprehension and utilization of social media. In the first part of the study, the internet and new communication technologies, the concept of new media, the web 2.0 period, the basic dynamics of social media and the features of Instagram were discussed. In the second part, the method was explained and how the application is carried out is emphasized. In the third part, the social media

images that make up the sample were analyzed by tabulating them under the determined categories. In the fourth and the last section, conclusion and recommendations were given.

New Communication Technologies, New Media Concept, Basic Dynamics of Social Media and Instagram

The world's first computer network bearing the name ARPANET emerged on September 1, 1969, when the first four connections of the network were made "at the University of California in Los Angeles, the Stanford Research Institute, the University of California in Santa Barbara and the University of Utah" (Castells, 2008, p. 59). The invention and the development of the internet and internet-connected communication networks in the world have forever differentiated the system of new communication technologies, the architecture of the network, the culture and communication styles of the people around the network (Castells, 2008, p. 473). New communication technologies are the basic technologies that enable the emergence of new spatial systems, interactions and trends (Morley and Robins, 1997, p.110).

According to Sager et al. (1996, p. 42), new communication technologies are microchips, microelectronics, computers and telecommunication applications that offer new opportunities or improve existing ones and create more control and interaction opportunities for individuals. According to Geray (1994, p. 32), new communication technologies are tools that enable and develop communication between users and between users and information, using microprocessors.

In our age, computer, internet environment, which finds widespread usage practices in all areas of daily life day by day, causes a radical transformation of daily life practices even if we are not aware of it, whose usage area is gradually expanding due to various needs of social life, which has become an element of the body, "mobile phones, game consoles, ipod or palm data bank recorders and communicators", each of the digital technologies mentioned in a different way is called new media (Binark, 2007, p. 21). According to

Lister et al. (2009, p. 13), new media includes digitality, interactivity, containing texts with links, virtuality, having a network structure, and simulation features. According to Binark (2007, p. 23), while the new media individualizes people on the one hand, they also socialize them in the virtual world on the other. New media tools are primarily based on individual use. It also includes qualities such as interactivity and multimedia stylistic in its structure (Binark, 2013, p. 165).

The term Web 2.0 was first mentioned in the world in 2004. As a matter of fact, it has emerged as a platform where all of the users are involved in this process as participants and collaborators, and the content can be changed by individuals, rather than the content and applications are no longer produced and shared by certain people. The term, whose popularity has spread widely as of 2005, is used to refer to different forms of media content mostly open to the public and produced by end users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010, pp. 60-61). With the Web 2.0 era, the user as an active participant is a marketing parameter that directs the transition of market power from productive forces to consumer individuals and from traditional media platforms to personalized new media platforms (Constantinides and Fountain, 2008, p. 232).

Social media utilizes 'mobile-enabled and web-based technologies' to create interactive platforms where individuals and groups share, discuss and differentiate user-generated content. Considering the enormous exposure of social networks in today's popular press, it can be said that we are in a completely new communication landscape (Kitzman et al. 2011, p. 242). According to Boyd and Ellison (2007, p. 211), social media are virtual spaces where individuals prepare fully or partially public profiles for themselves, create and share a list of individuals they interact with, and see the profiles and relationships of other social media users. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, p. 59-61) define social media as "a group of user-generated internet-based applications that allow content production and sharing, which was built on the ideological and technological foundations of web 2.0".

Social media is one of the areas that make dialogue possible. Social media reveals activities

and actions among masses of people who come together online to share knowledge, experience, and ideas by creating an environment of dialogue. Speech environments are web-based applications that make it possible to produce and simply share content in the form of words, pictures, videos, and sounds (Safco and Brake, 2009, p. 4-6).

Social networks can be roughly classified as follows (Dawley, 2009, p. 111):

Social sites: MySpace, Facebook, Twitter.

Photo Sharing Sites: Flickr, PhotoBucket.

Video Sharing: YouTube.

Professional Networking Sites: LinkedIn, Ning.

Blogs: Blogger.com, Wordpress.

Wikis: Wetpaint, PBWiki.

Content labeling: MERLOT, SLoog.

Virtual Word: SL, Active Worlds, There, Whyville, Club Penguin, HiPiHi.

One of the most basic features of social networks is that users turn into content producers with the content they create in the network environment. The functions of these networks can be listed as follows (Carlık and Terzi, 2020, p. 733): "Identity, conversation, sharing, presence, relationship, fame and group". Myfield (2008, p. 6) lists the basic forms of social media as follows: "Social networks, blogs, wikis, podcasts, forums, content communities, microblogs".

One of the most popular tools of social media is Instagram. Instagram places art culture in a broad cultural and historical context, including photography, cinema art, graphic design, design trends, music and k-pop practices. Common social media tools use Instagram as "a window to the identities of a young global generation connected by cultural sensitivities and visual aesthetics" (Manovich, 2017, p. 4). Instagram, which emerged as a platform for the iPhone on October 6, 2010, has become the new age face of mobile photography, unlike older desktop photo sharing sites as Flickr. In September 2015, Instagram announced in a blog post that it had reached 400 million users, 75% of whom were outside the United States, and that 80 million posts were shared every day. Instagram is a platform that millions of users use in countless different ways. During the 19th and 20th centuries, the photographic culture, which was reflected in different forms, was combined in a simple

application. In this single platform, it is possible to take, edit, share photos, see photos of other users, find other photos via search, interact with them (by liking, commenting, resharing, forwarding to other networks), communicating with photo authors and other individuals on the platform (Manovich, 2017, p. 11).

Use of Social Media Tools in Natural Disasters and Crisis Management Process

The natural disaster that resulted in the greatest loss of life and property in Türkiye to date was a pair of earthquakes with magnitudes 7.7 and 7.6, which struck on February 6, 2023, and whose epicenter was Kahramanmaraş. In the earthquake that affected a total of 11 provinces, namely Kahramanmaraş, Hatay, Gaziantep, Adana, Adıyaman, Diyarbakır, Malatya, Kilis, Osmaniye, Şanlıurfa and Elazığ, it was reported by the Ministry of Internal Affairs that there were 50 thousand 500 casualties as of April 14 (<https://www.bbc.com>).

Natural phenomena, technology incidents, and human-caused events all contribute to disasters. Individuals and groups suffer physical, economic, social, and environmental setbacks as a result of them, disrupting routine everyday life and activities. When a community lacks the capacity to manage and recover from such occurrences using local resources, the situation can quickly deteriorate into a disaster. The presence of these elements determines the likelihood of an occurrence developing into a disaster (Ergunay and Gulkan, 2008, p. 302).

Social media is unquestionably one of the settings that contribute significantly to disaster and crisis circumstances. With the effective use of social media, the effects of destruction caused by natural disasters or crises can be reduced and an important communication network can be created. When the crisis management process is broken down into its three stages crisis preparation, crisis improvement, and crisis intervention, it can be said that social media can be used for information sharing, disaster planning and education, collaborative problem solving, decision-making, and information gathering activities in all of these processes. Many international organizations use

social media tools to improve crisis management capacity (Zincir and Yazıcı, 2013, pp. 72-75).

The emergence of numerous social media platforms has significantly differentiated the landscape of crisis management in recent times, and “social action possibilities” have now become reality. With social media tools such as online discussion groups and news aggregators, institutions and organizations can now convey information to large audiences more quickly and efficiently and obtain the information they need. Although social media has the potential to prevent a crisis from getting out of control, it can also cause the emerging crisis to worsen. At the beginning of the crisis, “crisis managers and response teams” use social media to help understand the “source and seriousness of the crisis” and convey the necessary messages to the affected areas. In addition, social media platforms can also be used to improve a community’s potential to predict and prepare for a crisis (Chan, 2013, pp. 2-5).

Social media plays an important role in managing the process related to natural disasters by allowing people to transfer information and request help. Social media is also of great importance for recovery efforts following crises that require the rebuilding of infrastructure and where stress management is of vital importance. The wide range of social media tools makes it possible for individuals experiencing disasters to quickly communicate with the necessary resources. There are many groups on popular social media sites around emergency awareness that allow people to communicate in certain areas, transfer information to each other and create a discussion environment. However, an individual’s natural tendency to sensationalize information might result in a significant misinterpretation of crucial information, which can give rise to rumors that can mislead people. During this process, confidential information may be lost, and victims may not be correctly informed about the changed security measures. As a matter of fact, lack of continuous communication flow can lead to confusion (Velev and Zlateva, 2012, pp. 41-44).

In short, it can be said that social media tools have a key role in the process of eliminating the effects of natural disasters and crises. During

natural disasters, an interactive environment is created with social media tools, and the information needed by both earthquake victims and individuals in society can be conveyed through social networks. Social networks are also of great importance in terms of collecting aid and creating an environment of social solidarity. Social media networks, which can be utilized efficiently in crisis management, may, in addition to these aspects, also carry the risk of disseminating false information to society and fomenting falsehoods. In this regard, these tools should be used with extreme caution during times of crisis.

Related Studies in the Literature

The literature on the topic was also examined within this study on how the February 6, 2023, Kahramanmaraş earthquake was discussed on social media. Important studies that have been done both internationally and in our country are listed below:

In their study titled “Communicating on Twitter during a disaster: An analysis of tweets during Typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines”, Takahashi et al. (2015, p. 392-393) examined Twitter usage during and after Typhoon Haiyan, which hit the Philippines. In the study, the researchers investigated the use of social media by individuals (e.g., those affected by the disaster, journalists, celebrities, etc.) and organizations (e.g., government organizations, media, non-governmental organizations, etc.) during and after a natural disaster. Content analysis method was used in the research. The research results revealed that social media is used extensively by different stakeholders for the transfer of second-hand information, coordination of relief efforts and commemoration of disaster-affected people. In the study titled “Analysis Of The Regionality Of The Number Of Tweets Related To The 2011 Fukushima Nuclear Power Station Disaster: Content Analysis”, Aoki et al. (2018) carried out a regional analysis of the number of tweets related to the 2011 Fukushima Nuclear Power Plant Disaster using the content analysis method. The study reveals how the number of tweets sent by citizens about the disaster on Twitter varies regionally.

Gurman and Ellenberger (2015, p. 687) in their study titled "Reaching The Global Community During Disasters: Findings From A Content Analysis Of The Organizational Use Of Twitter After The 2010 Haiti Earthquake" aimed to reveal whether organizations' Twitter usage has changed after the earthquake that occurred in Haiti in January 2010. Research results show that the way organizations use Twitter varies over time. According to the analysis, there has been a decrease in the rate of organizations using certain strategies, such as the use of links, to convey information via Twitter. In the study titled "Influence Of Content And Creator Characteristics On Sharing Disaster-Related Information On Social Media", Li et al. (2021) aimed to reveal the effects of social media users' content types, locations and social capital on the virality of disaster-related information. The research revealed that the virality of different types of information about the Yiliang Earthquake differs according to the social capital of the users who share the said information.

The aim of Splendiani and Capriello's (2022) study titled "Crisis communication, social media and natural disasters – the use of Twitter by local governments during the 2016 Italian earthquake" was to examine the data in four regions of Italy during the 2016 Italian earthquake and to reveal the role of Twitter in crisis communication by examining the Twitter posts of local public authorities. Research results revealed that Italian regions affected by the earthquake used Twitter only to convey information, without reflecting a full and detailed view of the disaster. Subba and Bui (2017, p. 284) in their study titled "Online Convergence Behavior, Social Media Communications And Crisis Response: An Empirical Study Of The 2015 Nepal Earthquake Police Twitter Project" aimed to reveal how the police force used Twitter to communicate with the public during the 2015 Nepal Earthquake. In the study, Tweets of Nepal Police after the 2015 Nepal Earthquake were analyzed by content analysis. The research results revealed that Twitter serves as an environment that enables public authorities and citizens to communicate effectively. Muralidharan et al. (2011, p. 175) in the study titled "Hope for Haiti: An analysis of Facebook and Twitter usage

during the earthquake relief efforts", based on framing theory, they analyzed Facebook and Twitter posts shared by non-profit organizations and media organizations and revealed the differences between these organizations regarding social media use. According to the study findings, non-profit organizations and media organizations effectively provided the transfer and disclosure of information, but they weren't able to adequately benefit from the two inherent aspects of communication of social media tools.

Cho et al. (2013, p. 28-38) in their study titled "Social Media Use During Japan's 2011 Earthquake: How Twitter Transforms The Locus Of Crisis Communication" analyzed the use of social media during the earthquake that occurred in Japan in 2011 by using the content analysis method. In this context, the posts made on Twitter during the earthquake and the posts made by the Japanese government on its Twitter account were examined. Study findings show that Twitter was used effectively in "initiating search/rescue operations, collecting donations, providing emotional support, and creating, transmitting, and sharing information" during the 2011 Japan Earthquake. Amiresmaili et al. (2021-7) questioned the role of social media in earthquakes in their study titled "Role Of Social Media In Earthquake: A Systematic Review". Study findings revealed that social media can be used effectively to exchange information between earthquake victims and other people and has important functions in the earthquake management process. In their study titled "Earthquake: Twitter As A Distributed Sensor System", Crooks et al. (2013, p. 124-144) examined the use of Twitter during the earthquake that occurred on the East Coast of the United States on August 23, 2011. Study findings reveal that environmental geographic information received from Twitter has great potential to improve situational awareness. Additionally, it has been revealed that geographical information has evolved from traditional media (maps, images, etc.) and authoritative sources to the content that Twitter disseminates. Kongthon et al. (2014) in their study titled "The Role Of Social Media During A Natural Disaster: A Case Study Of The 2011 Thai Flood" aimed to reveal how Thai people used social media during the 2011 Thailand Flood,

one of Thailand's biggest disasters. One of the methods used in the study was content analysis, Twitter posts were examined with content analysis. The study was conducted to understand the role of social media in natural disasters. Kim and Hastak (2018) in their study titled "Social Network Analysis: Characteristics of Online Social Networks After a Disaster" examined the interaction environment created by social media users with Facebook and Twitter during the disaster. Research findings reveal that social media consists of three units: "individuals, emergency agencies, organizations". According to the findings, user interaction on Facebook was higher than Twitter during emergency interventions. In their study titled "The Social Role of Social Media: The Case of Chennai Rains", Yadav and Rahman (2016, p. 1-10) aimed to determine what role social media played in the Chennai flood incident in India. Study findings revealed that during natural disasters, social media, and especially Twitter and Facebook, play an important role in conveying facts and real-time details of the disaster. The study identified six key uses of social media during the Chennai Flood: "situation awareness, crowdsourcing, survival response, social cohesion and remedial initiatives, donations, and sharing and observing emotions."

Some of the studies conducted in Türkiye are as follows:

Ünal and Sezer (2023), "Tweets Directed to the Ministry of Health Following the 2023 Kahramanmaraş Earthquakes: A Content Analysis of the Earthquake Disaster in Türkiye, Koçyiğit (2023) "Fighting Against Disinformation on Social Media and Crisis Communication in Emergency Situations: An Analysis on the Kahramanmaraş Earthquake", Şahin and Demirbilek (2023), "The Effect of Social Media on Natural Disaster and Crisis Management: A Study on the Kahramanmaraş Centered Earthquake Disaster", Arın (2023) "Social Media Use in Natural Disasters: Twitter Example in the 2023 Kahramanmaraş Earthquake", Ebru (2020), "Media In Disaster Crisis Management: 30 October 2020 Izmir Earthquake."

Method

Content analysis method was used in the study. According to Berelson (1952), content analysis can be expressed as a research technique that reveals objective, systematic and quantitative definitions of the explicit (written/explicit) content of communication. With content analysis, various written texts, photographs, videos, and texts containing audio elements, communication patterns between individuals can be examined (as cited in Berg and Lune, 2015: 381). Content analysis is a research technique used to draw systematic and unbiased conclusions from certain characters presented in a text (Stone, Dunphy, Marshall, 1966: 213). According to Krippendorff (1980: 25), content analysis is a research technique used to draw reproducible and valid conclusions from data about its content. In content analysis, qualitative research data is analyzed in four stages: These are the stages of "(1) coding the data, (2) finding the themes, (3) organizing the codes and themes, (4) defining and interpreting the findings" (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011: 228).

In this framework, the universe of the study is the shared content (containing moving or still images, sound, text, or script) on social media sites related to the earthquake on February 6, 2023, the epicenter of which is Kahramanmaraş and affecting 11 provinces. In the study, 500 Instagram images with the hashtag "February 6" that contained still images (still images with or without sound, photos, pictures, tables, figures, cartoons, etc.) were studied as a sample. Images were selected by random sampling technique. This is because the subjects under which the shared images are featured without restriction can be established objectively. Then, the images forming the sample were numerically classified under the determined themes. The goal of this categorization was to identify the representations that were present in the shared images and at what level. The themes related to the examined images were determined by counting and the numerical data obtained were analyzed qualitatively. Shared images could be counted under one or more themes. That is, each image may contain more than one theme, not a single theme. The themes were

revealed through examining the visual (moving or fixed image), written text, news and literature on the earthquake dated February 6, 2023. In this context, the themes are as follows:

- The physical appearance of the earthquake (sharing related to the occurrence and appearance of the earthquake)
- Sharing with dramatic content (sharing with pain and sadness)
- Sharing of political content

Positive political sharing (positive posts related to state administration, government or opposition party representatives, municipalities, contractors)

Negative political sharing (negative posts related to state administration, representatives of ruling or opposition parties, municipalities, and contractors)

- Sharing with social content

Sharing with social integrity and solidarity

Sharing with social criticism (critical sharing against the society and those responsible for the earthquake)

- Sharing about earthquake aids

Sharing about what the aids are

Sharing about how the aids should be

Sharing of international aids

- Sharing with advertising content
- Sharing with informative and educational content
- Religious sharing
- Legal sharing
- Earthquake reminder sharing
- Getting well soon and condolence sharing

Within the framework of the above themes, 500 images (still images with or without sound, text, and script) selected by random sampling technique on Instagram were examined and a qualitative analysis was carried out in the context of the numerical data obtained. This analysis was carried out to reveal which meanings, sub-messages and representations related to the earthquake were included in the images. All elements in the images, including still images, sound, text, and script, were examined and it was tried to determine which meanings and representations were produced through these elements.

Findings

In the study, the numerical data obtained as a result of the content analysis related to the appearance of the earthquake on 6 February 2023, the epicenter of which was Kahramanmaraş, on social media are tabulated below:

Table 1. Number of Social Media Posts Related to the Earthquake of February 6, 2023

Themes of shares	Number
The physical appearance of the earthquake (sharing related to the occurrence and appearance of the earthquake)	126
Sharing with dramatic content (sharing with pain and sadness)	244
Total sharing with political content	56
Positive political sharing (positive posts related to state administration, government or opposition party representatives, municipalities, contractors)	7
Negative political sharing (negative posts related to state administration, representatives of ruling or opposition parties, municipalities, and contractors)	49
Total sharing with social content	93
Sharing with social integrity and solidarity	62
Sharing with social criticism (critical sharing against the society and those responsible for the earthquake)	31
Total sharing about earthquake aids	47
Sharing about what the aids are	18
Guided sharing with how the help should be	27
Sharing with international aid	2
Sharing with advertising content	10
Sharing with informative and educational content	112
Religious sharing	21
Legal sharing	8
Earthquake reminder sharing	35
Getting well soon and condolence sharing	130

Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

Physical appearance of the earthquake (sharing related to the occurrence and appearance of the earthquake)

As a result of the content analysis carried out in the study, a total of 500 images (with or without sound, still images, text, and script) shared with the hashtag "6 February" were examined and the "physical appearance of the earthquake" theme was encountered in 126 images. This means that a significant part of the earthquake shares made as of 6 February 2023 reflect the physical appearance

of the earthquake. In the shared images, the ruins of 11 provinces affected by the earthquake were seen. It is aimed to reflect the magnitude of the earthquake by sharing the destroyed buildings, structures, and the grave situation of the cities. With these shares, it is seen how much destruction the earthquake caused. The posts reflect different cities and the ruins of these cities and show the severity of the earthquake to social media users. These posts reveal the potential of social media to reflect and display natural disasters and social events to the society. A significant majority of individuals in the society perceive the earthquake through the visuals and texts they watch on social media, and representations about it are formed in their minds.

Sharing with dramatic content (shares with pain and sadness)

In the study, a total of 244 “sharing with dramatic content (shares containing pain and sadness)” themes were encountered in 500 images whose content was analyzed. This means that almost half of the images were shared with dramatic content. When these shares were examined, it could be stated that the images were very emotionally effective visuals that reflect the pain and sadness of the earthquake. Images are posts that aim to affect social media users emotionally and create a serious effect on them. In the posts, emotional states such as pain, sadness, tears, unhappiness, helplessness, loneliness, conscience were pointed out and it was aimed to leave emotional effects on individuals in the society. Instead of concentrating on the causes and consequences of the earthquake, these posts reflected dramatic and manipulative content, and in fact, it was tried to activate the feelings of pity and conscience of the society with the images shared. The fact that such posts contain almost half of the analyzed visuals means that dramatic and manipulative mental representations of earthquakes are created, and individuals are tried to be influenced in this way. It is thought that such posts related to earthquakes may cause significant pathological disorders by creating fear and anxiety in individuals instead of informing and raising awareness. These images can be

interpreted as sharing that reveals the media's policies to gain more viewers and users, and profit motivation. Despite this, it should not be forgotten that some of the images are shared by media professionals and a significant portion of them are shared by social media users. Although not all of the shares are made by media workers, it reveals the feature of social media to be used as a manipulative field.

Total sharing with political content

- Positive political sharing (positive posts related to state administration, government or opposition party representatives, municipalities, contractors)
 - Negative political sharing (negative posts related to state administration, representatives of ruling or opposition parties, municipalities, and contractors)

In the study, the theme of "sharing with political content" was encountered in a total of 56 of 500 images analyzed by content analysis method. While 7 of these images were positive political posts, 49 were negative political posts. First, when all 500 images are considered, it can be stated that 56 images do not constitute a significant ratio. When these images were examined, it can be seen that there were intensely negative political posts. These posts contained criticisms such as not reaching the earthquake zones on time, not providing the necessary assistance to the earthquake zones, leaving the earthquake victims alone. In this context, it can be said that negative political contents are intensely related to power and state administration. At the same time, there were criticisms against the contractors as the earthquake caused great destruction and many people lost their lives. Such criticisms were also discussed under this theme. Visits and assistance provided to earthquake zones by officials of the government and opposition parties are considered positive political posts. However, it can be claimed that only 7 photographs received good political shares; so, in this sense, these shares constituted a low rate. When the images included in the category of "sharing with political content" were examined in general, it can be stated that social media offers an area of criticism to individuals, but the mechanism of criticism does not work properly in

this area. In this sense, while social media creates a great dramatic environment related to the earthquake, it is not seen as an area where the freedom of individuals to express their opinions and criticize is sufficiently exposed.

Sharing with Social Content

In the examination, it is seen that 93 of 500 images are included in the theme of "sharing with social content". 62 of these images are in the theme of "sharing that includes social integrity and solidarity". These posts contained the message that the destructive effect of the earthquake could be eliminated through social solidarity and integration. The posts were intended to arouse in social media users a desire to unite and stand by those who were affected by the earthquake. The images under examination support and demonstrate the integrity and cohesion of society. In this respect, it can be stated that social media plays a significant role in terms of organizing and guiding society in order to diminish the damage caused by a natural disaster. In addition, it is seen that a total of 31 visuals are "shares containing social criticism (shares containing criticism against the society and those responsible for the earthquake)". These posts were generally about looters, thieves, and contractors in earthquake zones. Criticisms of contractors were included both in this theme and in the "negative political sharing" theme. For as much as, it is believed that this type of critique serves as both political and social criticism. At the same time, some of the posts included in the category of social criticism were related to the social reactions of the voters in the earthquake regions in the May 2023 General Elections, when they voted for the AK Party. After the election, the high AK Party votes in the cities where the earthquake was experienced caused a social reaction and some individuals expressed their reactions on social media. They shared reaction messages to the earthquake sufferers, expressing their disappointment that their help was ineffective. In this sense, it was observed that social criticism was shared against these messages and reactions were expressed to those who wrote these messages.

Sharing about earthquake aids

- Sharing about what the aids are
- Sharing about how the aids should be
- Sharing of international aids

In the examination, it is seen that a total of 47 of 500 images are in the theme of "sharing containing earthquake aids". 18 of these posts are within the scope of the theme of "sharing that includes what the aids are". In these images, aids made to earthquake zones could be seen. These aids were physical needs materials or support and training activities. It can be stated that such shares were very few among 500 images. A total of 27 shares are seen as "directive sharing that includes how the help should be". These types of posts are posts that aim to direct the society to help and what kind of assistance should be given. These posts have an important function in terms of raising awareness and directing the society. It was seen that two of the examined images were "international aid sharing". These images demonstrated the earthquake relief efforts carried out by other countries. However, it may be claimed that there weren't many of these kinds of images. In short, it can be stated that the images inspected under this category are images that reflect and reveal social solidarity in order to eradicate the destructive impacts of the earthquake, but they are shared in few numbers.

Sharing with advertising content

It can be noticed that 10 of the 500 graphics used in the study that were reviewed contain advertising. Even though these images had the hashtag "6 February" on them, they appeared to be more focused on advertising and sales. It can be said that the images contained images and texts for sales and advertising purposes related to the products or services of certain social media users or organizations. For this reason, it can be stated that although the 10 visuals examined were related to the earthquake, they had the purpose of activating the users associated with the product or service. Although some of the shares inspected belong to the people and organizations located in the

earthquake zone and promoting them on Instagram, while they were considered as helpful posts, the advertising target was quite clear in these 10 images rather than directing the society to help. However, it is evident that among the 500 photographs, there were not many such shares.

Informative and Educational Sharing

It can be seen that the theme of "informative and educational sharing" was present in 112 of the 500 images that were subjected to the study's analysis. Some of these images included various information related to the earthquake, while the others provided educational content. In this regard, it is believed that the images were crucial for conveying the details of the earthquake that occurred on February 6th, its causes, and the circumstances surrounding it. It can be stated that instead of dramatic posts that have a manipulative effect and may lead to pathological situations by leaving the society in anxiety and fear, such information-content sharing will provide greater contributions to individuals. Educational posts also contain information and training topics that social media users can benefit from during the earthquake. It can be said that such posts are also functional for the earthquake process to be overcome more easily. It was observed that journalists post informational and instructional images most frequently. In the meantime, while social media fulfills the task of informing and raising awareness of the society with such posts, the political and ideological aspects of some posts were also remarkable. Some of the shares were thus also explored in relation to the political sharing theme. This situation reveals the potential of social media to inform and educate the society on the one hand, and to manipulate it with certain political ideologies on the other.

Religious Sharing

It is clear that the study's 21 images, which were reviewed, fall under the category of "religious sharing." In light of the magnitude and devastation of the earthquake, these images in particular serve as a reference for the deeds of "prayer and taking

refuge in Allah." In the posts, the solidarity and integrity of the society were tried to be ensured around the traditional religion and belief system, and social media users were integrated around religious motifs. Images were set up with images of prayer and supplication to Allah. However, it can be stated that the rate of such images was low compared to the total number of images examined.

Legal sharing

According to the study, 8 of the 500 photos contained the concept of "legal sharing" in them. These pictures were constructed around the concepts of law and rights in relation to the earthquake. In the posts, a critical attitude was displayed against those responsible for the destruction caused by the earthquake (political administration, municipalities, related institutions and organizations, contractors, etc.). As a result, these posts fall under the heading of "sharing with political content". It can be seen that the number of shares issued is rather low. This indicates that during the earthquake process, social media could not be used effectively in the context of criticism and freedom of expression. There is a significant issue with "media freedom" when a natural disaster that affects 11 provinces and is regarded as one of the largest earthquakes in history does not generate enough criticism and opinions on social media.

Earthquake reminding sharing

As can be observed, the theme of "earthquake reminder sharing" is present in 35 of the 500 images that were analyzed for the study. These images are reminder posts that contain the message that the devastating effects of the earthquake still continue, even after a while. Images showing that 1 month or 6 months have passed since the earthquake were intensely shared. Some of these images were also included in the category of "sharing with dramatic content". In as much as, the fixed images and texts in the images had emotional and dramatic content. Earthquake reminder images are stimulating images that aim not to make individuals forget about the

earthquake. It was not, however, very prominent in the researched images.

Getting well soon and condolence sharing

The theme of "get well soon or sharing condolences" is present in 130 of the 500 visuals that were investigated for the study. The images were either shared personally or institutionally. In images shared by institutions and organizations, the sadness over the earthquake is densely conveyed along with wishes for "get well soon" or "condolences". The number of these images was relatively high. Images, in particular, contained corporate representations and ensured the fulfillment of a social responsibility. Institutions and organizations demonstrated their sensitivity to earthquakes and sadness over these messages.

Conclusion

Important information was gathered in this study's examination of how the social media community viewed the February 6, 2023, earthquake, which had Kahramanmaraş as its epicenter and affected 11 provinces. A total of 500 images shared with the hashtag "6 February" on Instagram were analyzed by content analysis method and these images were recorded under the determined themes. The themes were created by examining all images (video and still images), text, script, news, and related literature related to the earthquake dated February 6, 2023. The visuals examined by the content analysis method consist of still images, sound, text, and script elements. In the study, video images containing moving images were excluded from the sample. Images were counted under the themes they were related to. An image could be included in more than one theme. This is because some of the images contained different representations with the image, sound, text, and text elements.

It was seen that the posts made with the hashtag "6 February" on Instagram were mostly included in the "sharing with dramatic content" theme. A significant part of the images examined were evaluated as dramatic posts aiming to affect social media users emotionally. These were the posts that contain pain, sadness, tears, and that can affect

individuals emotionally and conscientiously at a high level. Dramatization in the visuals was provided with both image and sound, text, and text elements. Especially music was one of the important tools supporting this dramatization. These posts revealed the power of social media to manipulate society. While such sharing activates the emotions of individuals in the society, they can also lead to significant pathological disorders. Specifically, images that support the growth of fear, anxiety, and other psychological illnesses in people were shared. It can be stated that these posts do not create meaningful representations in order to eliminate the destructive effects and consequences of the earthquake. It has been perceived as manipulating images that are more worried about being viewed. It might be claimed that these social media messages put people who witnessed the earthquake and watched it in the news under a lot of psychological pressure.

It is seen that a significant part of the visuals examined in the study were "get well soon or sharing their condolences" related to the earthquake. Such images were shared especially by people with a high number of followers on Instagram or by institutions promoting products and services. These posts contained important representations for the fulfillment of social responsibility and social sensitivity. With this aspect, social media is an important area of integration and solidarity.

It is seen that an important part of the visuals examined in the study were in the category of "sharing that includes the physical appearance of the earthquake". Due to the mental representations, they convey, these images influence how earthquakes were perceived by social media users. These pictures were provided to people for use in describing the earthquake that happened on February 6. In this sense, social media uses the image element very effectively and produces mental representations of a natural disaster in this way. Images depict the magnitude and devastation caused by the earthquake, and people in the community construct certain images and meanings in their minds. The earthquake that occurred on February 6 is depicted in the images under investigation as a significant and severe

disaster. This demonstrates how effectively social media can frame and reflect current events.

In the examination, visuals related to the earthquake, with information or educational content, were also encountered. One of the most basic functions of social media is to inform the society. Individuals can access the information they need through the media. In this sense, it can be said that social media constitutes an important power and is one of the tools that fulfill the function of informing the society. Some of the visuals examined were visuals that aim to educate the society about the earthquake process. It can be claimed that these photographs have significant representations for those who experienced the earthquake firsthand and those who saw it on television. In this sense, it is thought that such posts can make significant contributions to individuals when interpreted carefully. However, the unquestioning approval of every information or educational sharing by individuals is also an important problem. These shares need to be supported and questioned by different sources.

In the context of the visuals examined in the study, the potential of social media to provide social integrity and solidarity has also been encountered. In order to mitigate the destruction and disaster caused by the 6 February earthquake in 11 provinces, calls for social integration and solidarity were made through social media, and the society was directed towards unity and solidarity and aid in earthquake zones. Social media, in particular, has contributed to the social atmosphere of sympathy that has brought earthquake sufferers both nationally and internationally. This shows that social media is used as a very important field in ensuring social integrity in natural disasters and catastrophes. However, it can be stated that the social solidarity shares examined in the study are not very intense. Because social media seems to be an environment where more dramatic content was shared during the 6 February earthquake. However, one of the most basic functions of social media is the socialization function. It is of great importance for solidarity to use this function and potential more intensively in natural disasters and catastrophes.

During the earthquake on February 6th, political posts were also made on social media. It is seen that these posts are mostly negative political posts. In these posts, political administration, representatives of power, municipalities and contractors are shown as responsible for the great disaster. In this sense, it can be said that social media has an important function as an area of "freedom of thought". Social media has the potential to be used as a space where individuals can freely express their opinions. However, in the analyzed visuals, political posts are not made intensively, and it is seen that social media did not fully realize this potential during the earthquake process. Regarding social media and the right to free speech, this situation is viewed as worrisome.

During the 6 February earthquake, religious posts were also made on social media. Social media also has the potential to establish social solidarity and integration around religious discourses and motifs in natural disasters and disasters. As a matter of fact, religious posts should also be considered in the context of freedom of thought. However, it is clear that in the sample under consideration, such shares are extremely low. In this sense, social media does not appear to be an area where religious discourse and content are evident during the 6 February earthquake. Few legal posts were made about the 6 February earthquake on social media. These posts were constructed around the ideas of rights and the law being used against those in charge of the disaster. Such posts make social media appear as an area of social criticism. However, it can be said that social media does not fully fulfill this function, as there are very few shares.

When the findings of this study were compared with similar studies in the literature, the following conclusions were reached:

Relevant studies in the literature appear to heavily include Twitter and Facebook samples. Takahashi et al. (2015), Aoki et al. (2018), Gurman and Ellenberger (2015), Splendiani and Capriello (2022), Subba and Bui (2017), Muralidharan et al. (2011), Cho et al. (2013), Crooks et al. (2013), Kongthon et al. (2014), Kim and Hastak (2018), Yadav and Rahman (2016), Ünal and Sezer (2023), Arğın (2023), Koçyiğit (2023), Şahin and

Demirbilek (2023) examined Twitter or Facebook in their study. Among these studies, no Instagram sample was encountered.

In this study, it is seen that social media tools are used as an important area of interaction of the society during natural disaster processes and have an important function, especially for the transmission of news and information. The result of the study is similar to some studies in the literature. Takahashi et al. (2015), Aoki et al. (2018), Li et al. (2021); Splendiani and Capriello (2022), Subba and Bui (2017), Muralidharan et al. (2011), Cho, Jung and Park (2013), Amiresmaili et al. (2021), Crooks et al. (2013), Kongthon et al. (2014), Kim and Hastak (2018), Yadav and Rahman (2016), Ünal and Sezer (2023), Arğın (2023), Koçyiğit (2023), Şahin and Demirbilek (2023), Ebru (2020) revealed in her studies that social media is used effectively for news and information transfer.

The study concluded that social media tools were used as tools that ensure social solidarity and cooperation during natural disaster processes. This situation is also seen in certain studies in the literature. Takahashi et al. (2015), Subba and Bui (2017), Cho et al. (2013), Amiresmaili et al. (2021), Yadav and Rahman (2016), Ünal and Sezer (2023), Arğın (2023), Şahin and Demirbilek (2023), Ebru (2020) revealed in her studies that social media is used for social solidarity and integration.

The study concluded that social media tools reflect the physical appearance of the earthquake (ruins, debris, etc.). This result is similar to some studies in the literature. Muralidharan et al. (2011), Cho et al. (2013), Amiresmaili et al. (2021), Crooks et al. (2013), Yadav and Rahman (2016), Arğın (2023), Ebru (2020) states in her studies that the physical appearance of the earthquake was reflected on social media.

The study concluded that social media tools were used extensively for dramatic content sharing during natural disasters. This finding does not stand out among research in the literature. In these studies, it is stated that social media is mostly used around the themes of information sharing, social solidarity, cooperation, help requests, suggestions, debris information, announcements and interaction. In the studies of Yadav and Rahman (2016), Cho et al. (2013) and Ünal and Sezer (2023), attention is drawn to the posts with emotional

content. The studies in the literature are extensively examinations on Twitter, therefore, it can be concluded that this study's findings regarding intensely dramatic posts reflect a feature of Instagram. Because Instagram is primarily a photo and video sharing platform rather than a text-based publishing platform like Twitter, emotional shares are more notable.

It was concluded in the study that although not intensively, social media tools were also used with the function of social and political criticism during natural disaster processes. Similar findings can be found in the investigations of Ebru (2020) and Ünal and Sezer (2023).

In summary, in this study, which examined the social media appearance of the earthquake dated February 6, 2023, it can be said that social media seems to be an area where intensely dramatic content is shared. Shares are manipulative posts that can cause sadness, unhappiness, fear and anxiety in individuals and may cause pathological disorders. This shows that social media is used as a profit-oriented field. With the posts that attract the attention of individuals and affect them emotionally, it may be possible to increase the destructive effects of the earthquake beyond being eliminated. For this reason, the functions of providing information, education, socialization, freedom of thought of social media should be used more accurately and clearly. Otherwise, the disasters experienced may negatively affect a much larger part of the society.

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Can I become a social media specialist? A descriptive content analysis on the skills and qualifications necessary in job postings in Türkiye

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466/opusjrs.1341187

Citation:

Cıngı, Mustafa. (2023). Can I become a social media specialist? A descriptive content analysis on the skills and qualifications necessary in job postings in Türkiye. *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 592-611.

Abstract

The increase in the demand for digital skills has attracted attention in job postings published in the communication sector in recent years. The aim of this study is to reveal the frequently demanded skills and qualifications for the position of social media specialist, which is directly related to digital skills, in the context of Türkiye. For this purpose, descriptive content analysis was employed on 244 job postings published on Bigumigu.com and Mediacat.com, which publish the job postings of agencies in Türkiye. As a result of the analysis, it is possible to say that the most dominant demand of the job postings is experience in terms of years. Having agency experience, being fluent in English, being able to work in a team and having high communication skills are among the most demanded qualifications. Digital content management, digital advertising management, data analytics, design, reporting, and presentation skills are also among the most frequently requested skills. The most surprising result of the research is that agencies do not require a university education. It is important for universities to revise their curricula on the basis of these demands to respond to the needs of the sector and to train qualified graduates.

Keywords: Job postings, social media specialist, digital competencies, digital skills, university education

Öz

Dijital becerilerdeki taleplerin artışı iletişim sektöründe son yıllarda yayınlanan iş ilanlarında dikkati çekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı da dijital becerileri doğrudan ilgilendiren sosyal medya uzmanlığı pozisyonu için sıklıkla talep edilen beceri ve nitelikleri Türkiye kapsamında ortaya koymaktır. Bunun için Türkiye'deki ajansların ilanlarını yayınlayan Bigumigu.com ve Mediacat.com sitelerinde yayınlanmış olan 244 ilan üzerinde betimsel içerik analizi uygulanmıştır. Analiz neticesinde ilanların en baskın talebinin yıl bazında tecrübe olduğunu söylemek mümkündür. Ajans tecrübesine sahip olmak, akıcı İngilizce konuşabilmek, takım çalışmasına yatkınlık ve yüksek iletişim becerisine sahip olmak ilanlarda en çok talep edilen niteliklerin başında gelmektedir. Dijital içerik yönetimi, dijital reklam yönetimi, veri analitiği, tasarım, raporlama ve sunum yapabilme becerileri de en sık talep edilen becerilerdendir. Araştırmada elde edilen en sürpriz sonuç, ajansların bir üniversite eğitimi şart koşmuyor olmalarıdır. Yaklaşık her beş ilandan dördü diploma şartını aramamaktadır. Sektörün ihtiyaçlarına cevap verebilmek ve nitelikli mezunlar yetiştirebilmek için üniversitelerin eğitim müfredatlarını bu taleplere göre güncellemeleri önem arz etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İş ilanları, sosyal medya uzmanı, dijital yeterlilikler, dijital beceriler, üniversite eğitimi

Introduction

The number of students graduating from universities in Türkiye is constantly rising due to the increasing number of universities and departments. In 2023, the number of university graduates reached approximately one million (<https://www.yok.gov.tr/>, 2023). However, since the need for employment has not increased at the same rate, this has negatively affected the employment of university graduates for many years (Uzun, 2007; Yalçıntaş & Akkaya, 2019). The fact that university education remains slow in the face of the speed of technological developments in the fields of work also increases this negativity. This situation has led to research comparing the demands of the sector and university education not only in Türkiye but also globally. Studies investigating the demands of the sector from university graduates have been conducted in engineering (AbdElall et al., 2012; Fourati-Jamoussi et al., 2021; Shi, 2008) health sciences (Saruan et al., 2015), tourism (Kokt & Strydom, 2014; Wang & Tsai, 2014), banking (Güler, 2020), education (Heggart & Dickson-Deane, 2022), real estate (Ting & Su, 2008), energy (Plaksina et al., 2017), business (Mozahem, 2021), industry (Gazquez et al., 2021), architecture (Kim et al., 2012), social services (Morales-Trujillo & Garcia-Mireles, 2019), agriculture (Kassem et al., 2021), textiles (Christine, 2008), forestry (Lindberg, 2000) and communications (Bernhard & Russmann, 2023; Ciochina et al., 2019; Daugherty, 2011; Flynn, 2014; Jashari et al., 2022; Lane & Johnston, 2017; Meganck et al., 2020; Todd, 2014).

Demands of the communications sector in Türkiye

Since the 1990s, the communications sector in Türkiye has been a subject of rigorous scholarly investigation (Dağtaş & Kaymas, 1998; Gülsünler, 2008; Nalçaoğlu, 1998; Özer, 2006; Tokgöz, 2003). Büyükaslan and Mavnacioğlu (2017) conducted a comprehensive assessment of the sector's demands, focusing on the curricula of communication faculties. Their findings reveal a conspicuous disparity between theoretical and

practical coursework, underscoring a misalignment with industry expectations. In response, it is recommended that the curriculum be adjusted to incorporate a greater emphasis on vocational English courses, foster closer collaboration between academic institutions and the industry, and enhance the efficacy of internship programs.

Üçler and Büyükçelikkok's (2021) research into job postings within the media sector accentuates that the employability of communication program graduates transcends conventional knowledge in areas such as news production, language proficiency, and corporate communication. The ability to actively engage with communication-oriented digital technologies is paramount for securing employment opportunities in this dynamic field. A comparative study by Arslan and Duğan (2019) scrutinized job postings in both the United States and Türkiye. Notably, job postings in the United States featured an extensive array of professional prerequisites, encompassing proficiency in communication technologies, strategic planning, report writing, presentation skills, crisis management, positivity, interpersonal communication, and teamwork. In stark contrast, the requirement of a bachelor's degree in communication was often absent in Türkiye's job postings, as elucidated by their research.

Meganck et al. (2020), in their meticulous analysis of one thousand job postings within the public relations field, underscore the burgeoning demand for digital communication skills, particularly among entry-level positions. Correspondingly, Bernhard and Russman's (2023) examination of vacancies corroborates the emphasis on digital communication skills within the field.

The emphasis on digital communication skills in job postings in the field of communication is noteworthy. van Dijk & van Deursen (2014) examine digital communication skills under two main headings as "media-related skills" and "content-related skills" and in the following six categories:

1. *Operational skills*: Entering an address on the web, using menus, viewing

files such as photos, videos, PDF files and downloading them to the device.

2. *Formal skills*: Navigating and surfing on and between websites without losing the starting point and target direction.

3. *Information skills*: Knowing which website to search for information and how to search for it and being able to evaluate the results.

4. *Communication skills*: Being able to communicate with other users on the Web, to establish a network, to send and receive messages through this network, to negotiate and make decisions together with those who are followed and those who follow them.

5. *Content production skills*: Ability to produce a variety of content such as text, music, photos, videos, etc.

6. *Strategic production skills*: To be able to move towards a goal, take the right steps towards that goal, get there, and reap the intended benefits.

On the other hand, considering the demands in job postings in the communication sector, it is possible to see that communication skills and qualifications used in the communication process with the target audience such as developing strategies for digital media, digital content design, digital content management, digital advertising management, data analytics, SEO, SEM, social media networks, social media marketing are emphasized as digital communication skills (Ciochina et al., 2019; Kılınç & Akyol, 2018; Meganck et al., 2020; Özarslan, 2019; Şentürk & Fidan, 2016). There is a professional field that directly demands these digital communication skills, and that is "social media expertise". In job postings, it can be seen that both personal and professional digital communication skills and qualifications are directly demanded in positions related to social media expertise.

Social media specialization

The skills and qualifications demanded in social media specialization are frequently mentioned in

sectoral publications. Gollin (2020) lists the positions in the field of social media and states that a social media specialist should have skills such as strategy creation, development and execution, increasing brand awareness on social media, driving traffic, campaign execution, copywriting, community management, comment moderation. In its report on the subject, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics adds qualities and skills such as creating, sharing, tracking, measuring, using analytics tools, understanding, and interacting with target audiences, and collaborating with other professionals to these skills. The report also mentions education, stating that it is advantageous to have a bachelor's degree in communication programs, particularly in public relations and journalism, or in business administration. On the other hand, it adds that experience is more important in recruitment (Torpey, 2016). In the Australian Government National Skills Commission Emerging Occupations Report (<https://www.nationalskillscommission.gov.au/>, 2020), one of the main skills and qualifications for social media specialization is to develop, implement and manage strategies, content, and campaigns for brands' social media presence. In parallel with the literature, the most essential expectations are to have skills in social media platforms, social media tools, digital marketing, social content, social media marketing, Adobe Photoshop, community management and copywriting. In addition, according to the Social Media Center (2018) a unit of the Academy of Art University, among the most intensive demands of a business are skills such as time management, storytelling, strong visual aesthetics, following trends, using different social media platforms, social media ad management, SEO, KPI determination, analysis and interpretation. As highlighted by one of Türkiye's most popular career websites, producing meaningful content on social media platforms and resolving customer criticism/complaints quickly and sensitively are the most prominent skills for social media specialists (<https://www.kariyer.net/>, 2023). The website lists other responsibilities as creating online content such as original text, images, and videos daily; editing and publishing them;

conducting research; analyzing data; preparing analytical reports; benchmarking them; monitoring social media traffic; staying on top of social media trends; creating a marketing plan for social media; creating an editorial calendar; acting on the basis of this calendar; and collaborating with other departments.

Although the skills and qualifications required for social media specialization are mentioned in various sectoral reports and websites, the number of academic studies is quite limited. The aim of this study is to reveal the skills and qualifications that are frequently demanded for social media specialization scientifically within the context of Türkiye. For this purpose, I developed the following research questions:

- **RQ1.** What are the key skills and qualifications demanded from social media specialists?
- **RQ1.1.** What are the most demanded skills?
- **RQ1.2.** What are the most demanded qualifications?

The fact that the position of social media specialist consists of a number of levels (Gollin, 2020; Verma et al., 2021), may also enable us to identify and compare the expectations of each level of position. This is important because the skills and qualifications demanded from a person who has just graduated from university and a person who has years of experience in the field are different both in terms of their position and their salary. Based on this, I formulated the research question:

- **RQ2.** How do skills and qualifications vary by positions?
- **RQ2.1.** What are the most demanded skills by position?
- **RQ2.2.** What are the most demanded qualifications by position?

As a result of finding out the key skills and qualifications expected from social media specialists, we can see what digital communication skills are in more depth. In addition, considering that users who use social media platforms intensively but in an amateur way could consider

themselves as social media specialists, we can also understand how deep skills and qualifications this position actually requires.

Method

Data collection

I analyzed 244 job postings to find out what businesses in the communications sector demand from their candidates in terms of digital skills, qualifications, and competencies. I obtained the postings by conducting a complete census of job postings for social media specialization on the websites Bigumigu.com¹ (105 postings) and Mediacat.com² (139 postings) for 24 months from January 2021 to December 2022. The main reason for conducting the analysis on these websites is that they only contain job postings from communications agencies. I limited the job postings to those of communication agencies because the requirements in different sectors (a hospital, a school, or a café) can vary significantly depending on their field of activity. In addition, depending on their size, businesses may ask social media specialists to perform tasks in different departments (secretarial, modeling, e-commerce, errands, etc). The qualifications and skills that communication agencies expect from their employees are much more homogeneous. In addition, although social media is a field of work, I excluded job postings such as "digital project manager", "digital account manager", "digital media sales specialist", "digital talent manager" or "influencer manager" from the scope of the analysis and included job postings such as "digital content manager" or "digital marketing specialist" that a social media specialist can easily handle. I also considered only one repeated job posting by the same agency for the same position on different dates. I excluded 45 such postings (Bigumigu.com: 24; Mediacat.com: 21) from the analysis.

¹ <https://bigumigu.com/is-ilanlari/>

² <https://mediacat.com/kariyer-merkezi/>

Measurement

I conducted descriptive content analysis to analyze the job postings. Content analysis is a popular technique used to examine the words in a document and present them in patterns (K. H. Krippendorff, 2003; Neuendorf, 2001). In descriptive content analysis, the main objective is to identify trends in the analysis (Cohen et al., 2007). Content analysis is one of the most frequently used methods by researchers in terms of identifying the demands of the sector (Bernhard & Russmann, 2023; Meganck et al., 2020; Todd, 2014; Verma et al., 2021). I collected the job postings on social media specialist from the relevant websites with the *WebCollector* tool of the MAXQDA Pro Analytics software (Gizzi & Rädiker, 2021) and coded the criteria in the job postings. The main purpose of the coding process is to reach codes, then categories, and then to reach some thematic findings by analyzing the relationships between codes and categories (Saldana, 2015). While coding the criteria mentioned in each job posting, I relied on studies that reveal the demands in social media expertise (Gollin, 2020; <https://www.kariyer.net/>, 2023; <https://www.nationalskillscommission.gov.au/>, 2020; Social Media Center, 2018; Torpey, 2016). During the coding process, I first coded separately for each item in the job postings. Then I combined the codes close to each other under a single code³. For consistent and reliable coding, First, I analyzed 20 job postings by the skills and qualifications specified in the literature. We can see that the study has a deductive approach in this form. After completing the analysis, I analyzed the same 20 job postings again to reveal the consistency between the resulting codes (K. Krippendorff, 2004; Lacy et al., 2015). As a result of the analysis in *Intercoder Agreement* section in MAXQDA, the consistency was 0.92 over the Cohen's Kappa coefficient. I preferred Cohen's Kappa coefficient because the MAXQDA software provides values based on this coefficient. Considering that the recommended range is between 0.85-0.90, we can see that this

coefficient value is quite high (Creswell, 2015). The main reason for the high coefficient may be that the criteria in the job postings are stated so clearly that they are not open to interpretation. According to this analysis, I created the coding book and analyzed all the job postings on Bigumigu.com. In the following sections of the analysis, I needed to develop some new codes that were not included in the literature. From this point of view, the study gains an inductive feature. I also needed to code these new codes in the previous job postings. Therefore, I re-scanned the previous job postings with keywords using *Lexical Search* section in MAXQDA and coded the results with the new codes. I did the same analysis again for all the job postings in Bigumigu.com from the beginning and the consistency ratio between the two coding was 0.61. This ratio is below the recommended range (Creswell, 2015). Therefore, I compared the two coding files to see the difference. The main reason for the difference was due to the multiple codes I assigned to the same criterion. I eliminated these differences and increased the consistency rate in Bigumigu.com postings to 0.85 by re-coding. I carried out the same process on the postings on MediaCat.com. I increased the initial consistency rate of 0.77 to 0.85 by re-coding. As a result of this study, with the consistency rate of 0.85, I analyzed a total of 244 job postings and made a total of 4080 coding.

Analysis

I grouped the 4080 coding under five main categories: "positions" (colored in red), "year experience" (colored in dark blue), "competencies" (colored in blue), "social media skills" (colored in blue) and "personal qualifications" (colored in green). I also clustered 244 job postings by position variables through the documents. This way, I was able to see which skills and qualifications were prominent for which position while revealing the skills and qualifications required for social media expertise. In this process, I used the features of the software such as *set creation according to variables*,

³ For example, codes that are close to each other such as "being able to lead the team well" and "having a leader's spirit" are combined under the code "team management".

Code Matrix Browser, Code Relations Browser and Code Map. I visualized the data then. After categorizing the positions into groups, I analyzed the experience requested based on skills and qualifications. In the last step, I visualized the most required skills and qualifications in job postings through the Hierarchical Code-Subcodes Model and Code Co-occurrence Model on the same software and ended the analysis both descriptively and based on positions.

Results

As a result of the analysis of the job postings on social media specialization, we can see that the yearly experience requirement is a requisite in almost all the postings and that the positions are formed by years of experience. For this reason, I started the analysis by classifying the positions by their years of experience. As can be seen in Figure 1, the 39 positions for social media specialists are arranged according to years of experience. The blue dots in the figure indicate the years of experience requested in the job postings; the red dots indicate the position of the job posting; the numbers in parentheses indicate the number of postings; the line between two dots, the number above the line and the thickness of the line indicate the density of the relationship between the two dots; and the size of the dots indicates the number of postings.

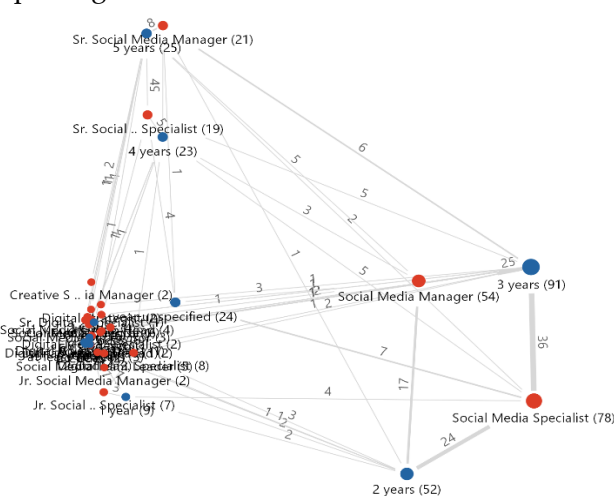


Figure 1. Positions by year

⁴ The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of times the criteria are coded in the job postings. The number of codes is not equal to the number of postings because some criteria may be coded 2-3 times under the same code in a posting. For example, in the job posting numbered JP163M, which

As we can see in Figure 1, with 2-3 years of experience, social media specialist (78) and social media manager (54) job postings are located close to each other, while with 4-5 years of experience, Sr. Social Media Specialist (19) and Sr. Social Media Manager (21) job postings are located close to each other. On the bottom left, there are positions requiring fewer years of experience and the positions requiring slightly more years of experience. The main reason for the relatively close positioning of these positions is that the number of vacancies is quite low compared to specialist and senior vacancies (see Appendix 1. to see how many years of experience each position requires). Based on this, I classified the positions mentioned in the job postings into four main categories: "junior", "specialist", "senior", and "director". Since almost all of the job postings require years of experience, I also analyzed what kind of experience is required in terms of qualifications and skills and presented it in Figure 2.

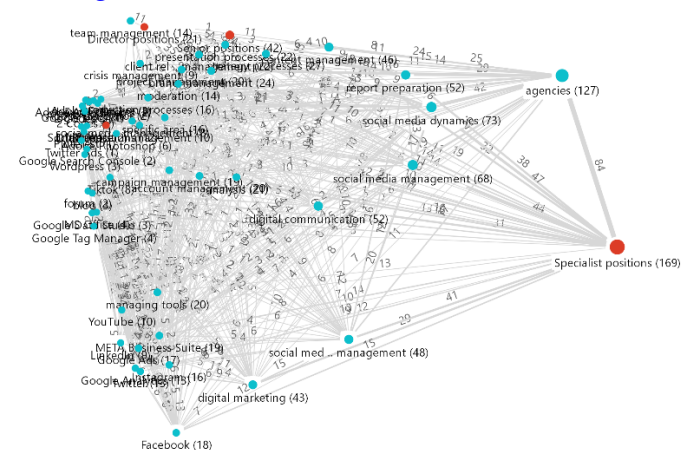


Figure 2. Locations of qualifications/experience by positions

Figure 2. presents the map of code relations related to positions and their intensely related competencies/experiences. In accordance with this map, the codes that are intensely related to each other are located close to each other. As we can see on the right side of the figure, agency experience (127) is one of the most intensely related competencies or experiences of the specialization positions⁴. Since the scope of the study is

was given to carry out the social media activities of a game-oriented business, the criteria "Having a good command of popular e-sports games" and "Having a good command of the dynamics, terms and general world of LoL" were coded twice under the code "specific area". While the first of

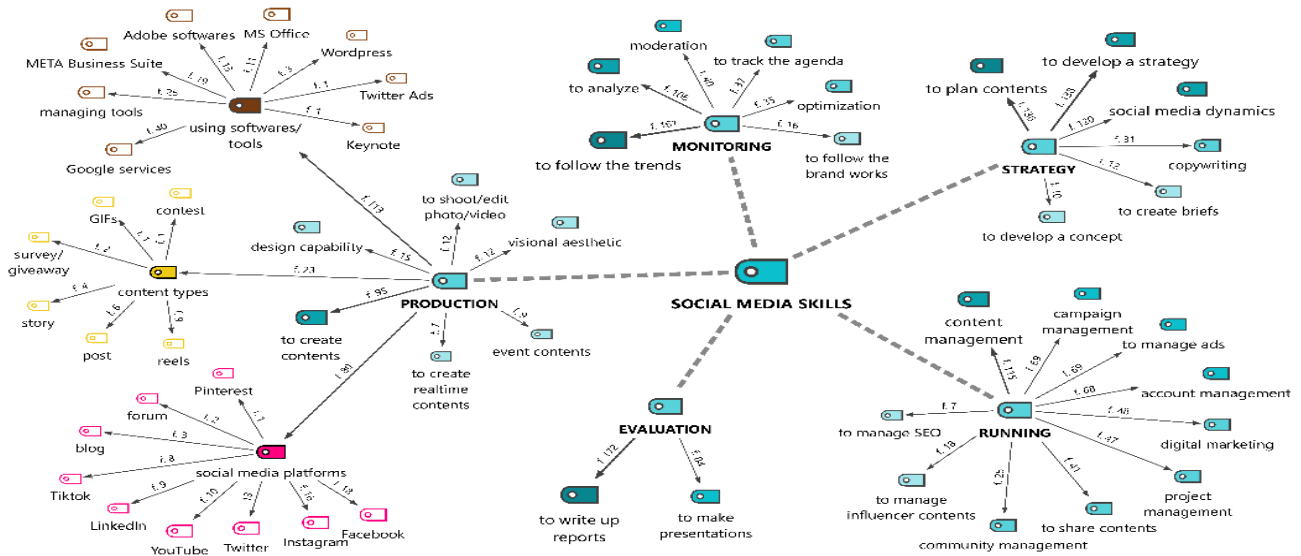


Figure 3. Social media management qualifications that candidates should have according to the job postings

communication agencies, the demand for agency experience is not surprising. Excluding this experience, the most frequently demanded competencies/experiences by agencies are having a good command of social media dynamics (73), having a good command of social media management (68), being familiar with social media reporting (52), having digital communication skills (52), having managed social media postings (48) and having digital marketing experience (43). The use of programs and tools related to social media management is one of the most demanded skills for specialist positions, although it is not obvious because it has many subcodes. Again, excluding agency experience, experience in using social media networks and tools is the most demanded skill for junior positions; mastery of social media dynamics and proficiency in digital communication skills is the most demanded skill for senior positions; and being able to work with, lead and manage a team as well as mastery of social media dynamics is the most demanded skill for director positions (See [Appendix 2](#) for detailed information of which experience is demanded by position).

Figure 3. shows which technical skills related to social media management are demanded in postings for social media expertise. As a result of the 1971 coding, I grouped the skills that share a

common process with each other into five main categories: monitoring, strategy, running, evaluation, production. While grouping, I took into account the stages and processes in the communication process (Avery, 2013; Gregory, 2015; Knights, 2010; Morgan et al., 2004; Sha, 2013; R. D. Smith, 2004). I visualized the labels of the most frequently repeated requests in the postings in large and bold. The numbers above the arrows indicating the relevant skill show the number of times that skill was mentioned (coded) in the postings.

In the Monitoring category, I listed skills that mainly involve monitoring and analysis processes on social media platforms. Following trends (161) and agenda (37), conducting analyses (106), moderating (40) and optimizing (35) social media content are the main skills in this category. In the Strategy category, I coded the skills related to creating or developing a strategy and making plans based on the data obtained. Accordingly, developing a strategy (138) according to social media dynamics (120) and planning content based on it (136) are the most demanded skills in this category.

Creating social media contents (95) is included in the Production category. For this purpose, skills related to the use of a number of software and tools (113), especially Google (40) and Meta (19)

these criteria represents the entire field, the second one stipulates a deeper requirement by directly naming the game. Therefore, there are differences between the number of codings and the frequencies in the job postings in

Appendix 2, Appendix 3 and Appendix 4. While the number of codings may be duplicated in a job posting, there are differences between the numbers in the appendices as they only show the relationship revealed through a single job posting.

skills related to strategy development and management increases.

It is possible to see that job postings on social media specialization include personal qualifications as well as technical skills. These qualifications, which I coded 1454 times, can be seen in [Figure 8](#). under three categories: "necessities", "agency" and "individual" qualifications.

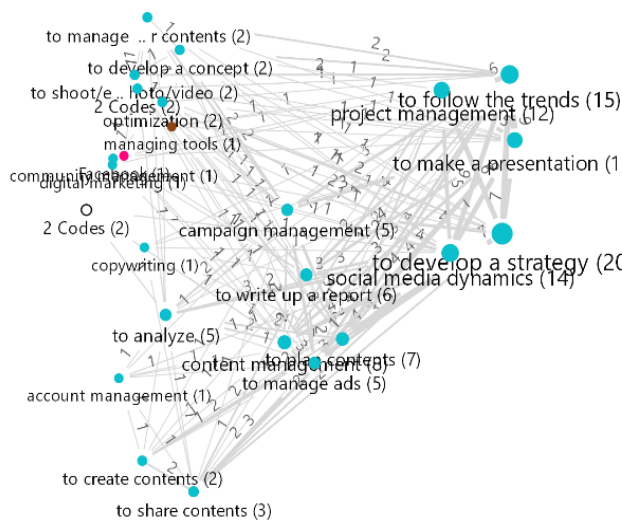


Figure 7. Director positions

The most frequently mentioned requirement under the Necessities category is English under the language category (155) and it is possible to see a demand for English in almost every position and job posting. Fluency has almost become a standard criterion in vacancies. On the other hand, it is also possible to see the demand for presentations in English in most job postings. In addition to English, Turkish (67) is also commonly used in vacancies. For agencies already located in Türkiye and whose employees already speak Turkish, such a request may seem strange. However, when it comes to corporate communication, the use of proper grammar and compliance with Turkish spelling rules are important. In addition, the fact that young people in Türkiye often prefer abbreviations and slang instead of regular use of the language in social media correspondence may also be a factor in this (Öztürk Dağabakan, 2019). Preparation of contents in accordance with the language of social media platforms (22) and the corporate communication languages of the brands are also among the requested qualifications.

In the Necessities category, there is a situation that directly involves graduates of departments such as communication or visual design, which is

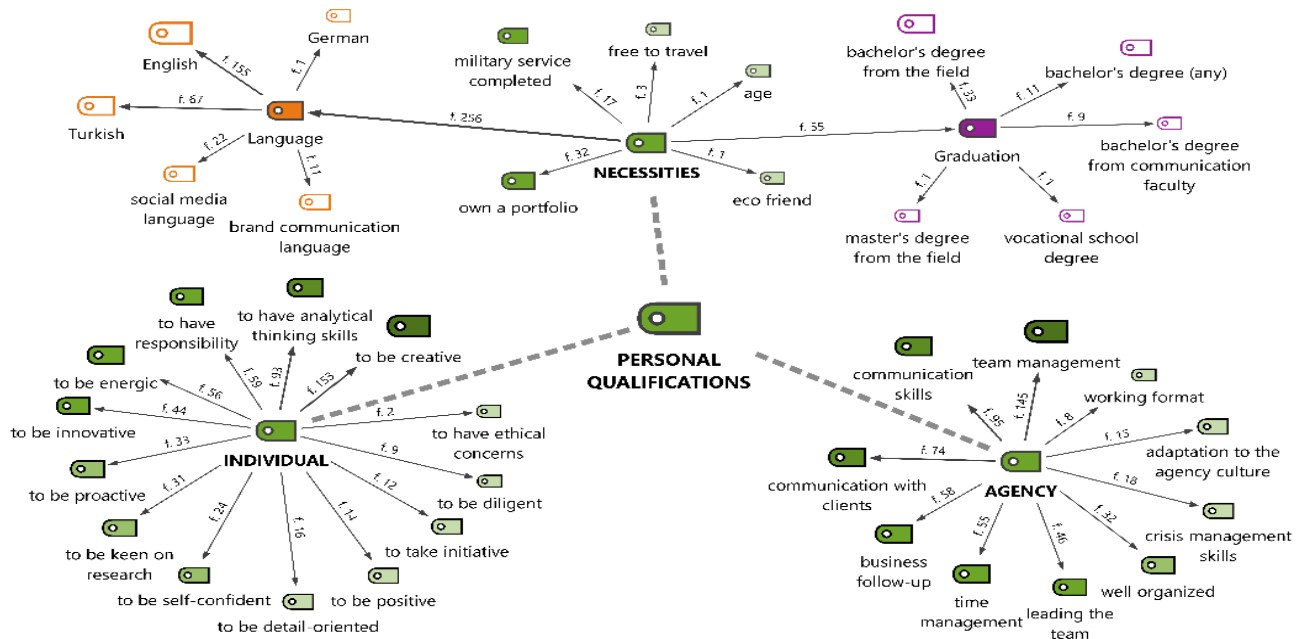


Figure 8. Personal qualifications that candidates should have according to the job postings

that graduation is not a frequently asked for qualification in job postings. In fact, in 244 job postings, the demand for "graduation in a field" (fine arts, design, etc.) was coded 33 times and "graduation from a faculty of communication" was coded 9 times, which reveals that university graduation is not very crucial for approximately 4 out of each 5 job postings. According to the postings, what is crucial is experience, for which candidates are expected to submit a portfolio (32). Demands for qualifications in the work environment are coded under the "agency" category. Skills such as the ability to work in a team (145), high interpersonal communication skills (95) and communication skills with clients (74), the ability to follow up on work (58) and to manage time well (55) by being well organized (32) are among the main demands for the working environment. Crisis management qualification (18) is important in terms of indicating that dealing with crises is an important feature in social media management. The ability to lead a team is also emphasized, especially in senior and director positions (46).

Qualifications directly related to one's own attitudes and behaviors were also coded under the "individual" category. The most expected qualifications identified in the job postings are creativity (153) and analytical thinking (93). Taking responsibility (59) and initiative (12) in their work, being excited, dynamic, and full of energy (44), self-confident (24) and positive (16) are the personal features most frequently mentioned in the postings. (See [Appendix 4](#) for a detailed breakdown of which personal features are demanded by position).

When we analyze the personal qualities in job postings by position, we can see that interpersonal communication and teamwork skills come first in the demands for junior position ([Figure 9.](#)) with 9 coding.

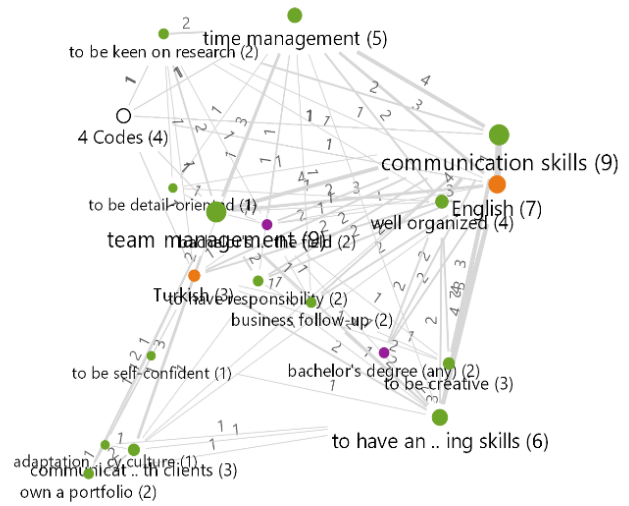


Figure 9. Junior positions

These are followed by speaking English (7) and analytical thinking skills (6). For junior positions, having a portfolio was coded 2 times, which is interesting because junior positions are for people who are just starting to work. As indicated in [Figure 1.](#) and [Figure 2.](#), even for junior positions, experience is required both in terms of years and qualifications.

Analyzing the requirements for the specialist position ([Figure 10.](#)), we can see that creativity (122) and speaking English (105) are the most prominent.



Figure 10. Specialist positions

The emphasis on being able to work in a team and lead them (85) is noteworthy, as the specialists often have to work with different departments such as the department of design. Before that, the ability to understand what the client wants and to

In parallel to this, university students are also aware of the importance of sectoral experience and want to gain this experience during their university education (Aşkın et al., 2020; Daugherty, 2011; Morkoç & Doğan, 2014). However, considering that social media is a very dynamic field where new developments are experienced every second, it will increase the workload of faculty members to follow the expectations of the sector instantly and train students accordingly. A more sustainable solution may be to enhance the qualifications of students through practices such as internships and mentorships with university-sector cooperation (Çelik, 2011; Daugherty, 2011; Meganck et al., 2020; Tükeltürk & Balcı, 2014).

It should be noted that students are afraid of making mistakes and damaging the organization during internships (Daugherty, 2011). Establishing social media labs in universities or conducting some social media workshops is important for students to be able to work comfortably without fear of making mistakes.

Following trends, conducting analyses, developing a strategy, planning, and sharing content in line with this strategy, and then making some optimizations in the content by correctly managing the interaction from the target audience are among the most prominent demands in job postings on social media specialization. These findings are in line with other studies in the literature (<https://www.kariyer.net/>, 2023; <https://www.nationalskillscommission.gov.au/>, 2020; Meganck et al., 2020; Social Media Center, 2018), especially Gollin (2020). In Specialist positions, the requirement to manage contents using social media software and tools is more prominent compared to other positions. There is one point that should be especially noted here, which is that almost all job postings mention the preparation of monthly reports and presentations. We can say that collecting, analyzing, and reporting all the data about the activities carried out on social media and evaluating the success in a presentation constitutes almost the common demand of all agencies.

The demand for the presentation to be made in English is specifically mentioned in many job

postings. The ability to speak and write fluent English is one of the most important qualifications in all job postings and positions. Being fluent in English is one of the only qualifications that is expected from both someone with 10 years of experience and someone who has just graduated from university. Therefore, it is imperative to improve the quality of English education in universities, especially in faculties of communication. Considering the high number of requests for Turkish grammar and spelling rules in the job postings, it is possible to conclude that although universities offer courses in English and Turkish, the quality of these courses should be enhanced.

Teamwork and communication skills are among the most demanded qualifications in the job postings. The ability to communicate with teammates, being positive and energetic are emphasized so much in the postings that one wonders what kind of working environment agencies have. This demand is also stated in Arslan and Duğan's (2019) study. The reason why it is emphasized that employees should not be asocial, bored or soulless in the work environment can perhaps be explained by the fact that young people today live more individually (Pittman & Reich, 2016; D. Smith et al., 2021; Yang, 2016). Nevertheless, the fact that this demand is included in almost all job postings, regardless of position, shows that more in-depth research is needed.

While it is possible to see that there are demands from junior and specialist positions that employees should personally carry out the practices related to social media management, it is possible to state that these demands have shifted towards team management in the approximately ten-year process of senior and director positions. It is possible to say that senior and director positions are mostly the ones who set the strategies, while specialist and junior positions are the ones who implement them.

To summarize, a student can be equipped with certain qualities such as critical thinking, problem solving, social responsibility, respect for human rights and ethical principles with the theory-based education given at the university. However, these qualifications are not sufficient when we consider

that specialization in digital communication is demanded in the sector. The study reveals that skills and qualifications such as digital content management, digital advertising management, data analytics, graphic design, reporting, presentation, and English are the most demanded qualifications in job postings. However, unfortunately, there are very few courses that respond to these demands in university curricula, and therefore this study takes its place on the side that criticizes the sectoral adequacy of university education (Büyükaşlan & Mavnacıoğlu, 2017; Üçler & Büyükçelikok, 2021). Especially in communication faculties, there is a need to revise the curriculum for social media content management, advertising management, digital data analysis and tools, strategy and concept development, professional design, professional report preparation, presentation, and especially English practice. It is possible to say that the curricula of foundation universities in Türkiye are better able to respond to sectoral expectations than those of state universities (Akyazı, 2018; Özarslan, 2019). In addition to curriculum development, workshops should also be developed in line with these needs. With the workshops operating within the school, it can also be ensured that students gain experience during their education. In addition to all these, Can (2018) emphasizes that academia and the sector should act together in order to meet the expectations of the sector in communication education, and workshops can provide the most suitable environment for this.

One of the most surprising findings of this study is the low demand for university education in job postings. Agencies do not require a university degree for their applicants, but they attach great importance to experience. They also emphasize teamwork and being positive, enthusiastic, and energetic. To understand the reasons for all of this in more depth, I recommend that future studies conduct in-depth interviews with agency professionals to gain a deeper understanding.

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Appendix 1.

Positions by years in job postings

Positions by job postings	Year(s) experience											US	Sum	
	NN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		Frequency	%
Junior positions (5 positions)														
Social Media Intern												1	1	0,4
Jr. Digital Marketing and Social Media Manager		1											1	0,4
Jr. Social Media Analyst			1										1	0,4
Jr. Social Media Manager			2										2	0,8
Jr. Social Media Specialist	1	3	2									1	7	2,9
Specialist positions (24 positions)														
Social Media Data Analyst												1	1	0,4
Digital Content Executive												1	1	0,4
Social Media Content Executive												1	1	0,4
TikTok Content Creator												1	1	0,4
Social Media Moderation Specialist		1											1	0,4
Social Media and Account Executive			1										1	0,4
Digital Content Manager				2									2	0,8
Brand Digital Partner				1									1	0,4
Social Media Executive				2									2	0,8
Digital Brand Executive				2									2	0,8
Digital Marketing Manager				1									1	0,4
Content Creator				1	1								2	0,8
Digital Marketing Specialist			3	2	1							2	8	3,3
Digital Marketing and Social Media Manager				1									1	0,4
Digital Marketing and Social Media Specialist				1									1	0,4
Digital Media Specialist				1							1		2	0,8
Digital Strategist				1		1							2	0,8
Social Media and Content Specialist				1	1								2	0,8
Social Media Account Manager				1									1	0,4
Social Media Specialist		4	24	36	5	2						7	78	32,0
Social Media Manager			17	25	3	5	1					3	54	22,1
Content Strategist					1								1	0,4
Creative Social Media Manager						2							2	0,8
Digital Communications Specialist							1						1	0,4
Senior positions (4 positions)														
Sr. Digital Marketing and Social Media Manager				1									1	0,4
Sr. Digital Marketing Specialist						1							1	0,4
Sr. Social Media Manager			1	6	5	8						1	21	8,6
Sr. Social Media Specialist				5	5	4	1					4	19	7,8
Director positions (6 positions)														
Social Media Team Leader			1	1			1	1			1		5	2,0
Social Media Supervisor					1			2					3	1,2
Social Media Group Head						1		3					4	1,6
Social Media Director						1	1		1		3		6	2,5
Digital Communications Group Head							1			1			2	0,8
Digital Group Head											1		1	0,4
Sum	1	9	52	91	23	25	6	6	1	1	5	24	244	100

Notes: NN = not necessary; US = unspecified.

Appendix 2.

Competencies/expected experiences by positions in job postings

Competency/experience in	Positions				Sum	
	Junior	Specialist	Senior	Director	Frequency*	%
Agencies	7	84	24	11	126	13,7

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Using software/tools	10	82	13	1	106	11,5
Social media networks	10	58	8	2	78	8,5
Social media dynamics	4	47	14	7	72	7,8
Social media management	1	44	11	5	61	6,6
Digital communication	2	31	13	5	51	5,5
Report preparation	1	38	9	2	50	5,4
Social media advertising management		41	1	4	46	5,0
Content management	2	32	11		45	4,9
Digital marketing		29	4	1	34	3,7
Strategy processes		19	3	3	25	2,7
Brand management		14	4	5	23	2,5
Client relationship management		14	5	3	22	2,4
Presentation processes	1	11	6	4	22	2,4
Account management		15	5		20	2,2
Analysis	1	16	3		20	2,2
Project management		11	4	5	20	2,2
Campaign management	1	13	3	1	18	2,0
Production processes	3	10	1	1	15	1,6
Moderation		10	4		14	1,5
Specific area		11	2	1	14	1,5
Team management		2	1	11	14	1,5
Influencer management		7	1	2	10	1,1
Crisis management		6	3		9	1,0
Social media community management		7	1		8	0,9
Sum	43	652	154	74	923	100

* Independent frequency of job postings

Appendix 3.

Social media skills by positions in job postings

Social media skills	Positions				Sum	
	Junior	Specialist	Senior	Director	Frequency*	%
Monitoring						
To follow the trends	4	105	24	13	146	8,5
To analyze	5	59	13	3	80	4,7
Moderation	2	30	5		37	2,2
To track the agenda	1	30	4	1	36	2,1
Optimization	1	24	3	2	30	1,7
To follow the brand works	2	10	2	1	15	0,9
Strategy						
To develop a strategy	5	75	16	13	109	6,3
To plan contents	6	85	12	6	109	6,3
Social media dynamics	4	72	18	11	105	6,1
Copywriting		23	5	1	29	1,7
To create briefs		8	4		12	0,7
To develop a concept		8		2	10	0,6
Running						
Content management	4	70	19	7	100	5,8
To manage ads		49	4	5	58	3,4
Campaign management	2	41	9	5	57	3,3
Account management	3	44	8	1	56	3,3
Project management	2	24	7	9	42	2,4
To share contents	2	26	6	3	37	2,2
Digital marketing		29	5	1	35	2,0
Community management	1	21	1	1	24	1,4
To manage influencer contents	3	11	2	2	18	1,0
To manage SEO	1	5	1		7	0,4
Evaluation						
To write up a report	6	115	23	6	150	8,7
To make a presentation	3	50	14	10	77	4,5
Production						
Using software/tools						

Google Services						
Google Ads	1	10	4		15	0,9
Google Analytics	1	10	2		13	0,8
Google Tag Manager		3	1		4	0,2
Google Data Studio		3			3	0,2
Google Search Console		1	1		2	0,1
Google Docs	1				1	0,1
Managing tools	1	13	1	1	16	0,9
Socialbakers	1	1			2	0,1
Semrush		1			1	0,1
KWFinder		1			1	0,1
DV360			1		1	0,1
META Business Suite	1	14	3		18	1,0
Adobe Software						
Adobe Photoshop		6			6	0,3
Adobe Premiere		3			3	0,2
Adobe Illustrator		2			2	0,1
Adobe After Effects		2			2	0,1
Microsoft Office Software		4			4	0,2
MS PowerPoint	2	2			4	0,2
MS Excel	1	1			2	0,1
MS Word		1			1	0,1
WordPress	1	2			3	0,2
Twitter Ads		1			1	0,1
Keynote		1			1	0,1
To create contents	2	59	15	2	78	4,5
Social media platforms						
Facebook	1	15	1	1	18	1,0
Instagram	2	12	2		16	0,9
Twitter	2	9	2		13	0,8
LinkedIn	1	7	1		9	0,5
YouTube	2	7			9	0,5
TikTok	1	4	1	1	7	0,4
Blog		2	1		3	0,2
Forum		2			2	0,1
Pinterest	1				1	0,1
Content Types						
Reels		7	1	1	9	0,5
Post	1	5			6	0,3
Story	1	3			4	0,2
Survey/giveaway	1		1		2	0,1
Contest		1			1	0,1
GIFs			1		1	0,1
Design capability	3	10	1		14	0,8
Visional aesthetic	1	10	1		12	0,7
To shoot/edit photo/video	1	7	1	2	11	0,6
Event contents	1	6	2		9	0,5
To create realtime contents		6	1		7	0,4
Sum	88	1268	250	111	1717	100

* Independent frequency of job postings

Appendix 4.

Personal qualifications by positions in job postings.

Personal qualifications	Positions				Sum	
	Junior	Specialist	Senior	Director	Frequency*	%
Individual						
To be creative	3	94	17	10	124	9,4
To have analytical thinking skills	6	46	16	8	76	5,8
To have responsibility	2	42	9	5	58	4,4
To be energetic	1	45	6	1	53	4,0
To be innovative		32	9	1	42	3,2
To be keen on research	2	21	5	2	30	2,3
To be proactive		17	5	3	25	1,9

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To be self-confident	1	15	5	1	22	1,7
To be detail-oriented	1	11	2	2	16	1,2
To be positive		11	1	1	13	1,0
To take initiative		8	3		11	0,8
To be diligent	1	7		1	9	0,7
To have ethical concerns		2			2	0,2
Agency						
Team management	6	68	23	17	114	8,6
Communication skills	8	51	12	8	79	6,0
Communication with clients	3	45	12	8	68	5,2
Business follow-up	2	42	8	5	57	4,3
Time management	4	31	10	7	52	3,9
Leading the team		8	11	16	35	2,7
Well organized	4	21	4	2	31	2,4
Crisis management skills		12	3	2	17	1,3
Adaptation to the agency culture	1	14			15	1,1
Working format		8			8	0,6
Necessities						
Language						
English	7	104	25	17	153	11,6
Turkish	3	54	9	1	67	5,1
Social media language		18	4		22	1,7
Brand communication language		6	3	2	11	0,8
German		1			1	0,1
Graduation						
Bachelor's degree from the field	2	30	1		33	2,5
Bachelor's degree (any)	2	6	2	1	11	0,8
Bachelor's degree from communication faculty	1	6	1	1	9	0,7
Master's degree from the field		1			1	0,1
Vocational school degree		1			1	0,1
Own a portfolio	2	21	6	2	31	2,4
Military service completed		14	3		17	1,3
Free to travel	1	2			3	0,2
Age		1			1	0,1
Eco/animal friend		1			1	0,1
Sum	63	917	215	124	1319	100

* Independent frequency of job postings

RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Effect of Sleep Deprivation on Musical Auditory Performance

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September 2023
Volume:20
Issue:55
DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1326363](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1326363)

Citation:
Karahan, S. A. & Kayabekir, M.
(2023). The Effect of Sleep
Deprivation on Musical
Auditory Performance
Research, 20(55), 612-619.

Abstract

Sleep deprivation causes cognitive problems such as difficulty in establishing a cause-effect relationship, decreased problem-solving abilities, loss of concentration and attention. This study aims to determine the effect of sleep deprivation on interval, chord, rhythmic, melodic dictation skills and perception in students with Musical Hearing Reading and Writing (MHRW) activity, which has a high relationship with learning and memory. The experimental research was conducted with 18 students (14 men and 4 women) who volunteered to participate (Age: 22±2.1, Mean Body Mass Index: 24,6 ± 2.3). To determine the levels of effect of sleeplessness in the study group, the present experimental study made use of the pre-test – post-test model. Although the participants' pretest and post-test success levels were not statistically significant in intervals and chords ($p > .05$), a statistically significant decrease was found in rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation writing success levels ($p < .05$). These findings clearly show that sleep deprivation which negatively affected musical learning and memory consolidation significantly decreases the achievement levels of students in MHRW.

Keywords: Sleep Physiology, Memory, Musical Hearing, Learning

Öz

Uyku yoksunluğu neden-sonuç ilişkisi kurmada güçlük, problem çözme yeteneğinde azalma, konsantrasyon ve dikkat kaybı gibi bilişsel sorunlara neden olur. Bu çalışma, öğrenme ve hafıza ile yüksek ilişkisi olan Müzikal İşitme Okuma Yazma (MİOY) etkinliği ile öğrencilerde uykusuzluğun aralık, akor, ritmik, melodik dikte becerileri ve algı üzerindeki etkisini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Deneysel araştırma, katılmaya gönüllü olan 18 öğrenci (14 erkek ve 4 kadın) ile yürütülmüştür (Yaş: 22±2.1, Ortalama Vücut Kitle İndeksi: 24,6 ± 2.3). Çalışma grubundaki uykusuzluğun etki düzeylerini belirlemek için bu deneysel çalışmada ön test – son test modeli kullanılmıştır. Katılımcıların aralık ve akorlarda ön test ve son test başarı düzeyleri istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamakla birlikte ($p > .05$), ritmik dikte ve melodik dikte yazma başarı düzeylerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir düşüş bulunmuştur ($p < .05$). Bu bulgular, müziksel öğrenmeyi ve hafıza güçlendirmeyi olumsuz etkileyen uyku yoksunluğunun, öğrencilerin MHRW'deki başarı düzeylerini önemli ölçüde azalttığını açıkça göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Uyku Fizyolojisi, Hafıza, Müziksel İşitme, Öğrenme

Introduction

Sleep is a physiological and behavioral process that an individual requires to carry out their daily functions. The process of sleeping during which reflex responses decrease but brain functions actively is a vital brain activity in which body tissues are restored and memory is reinforced and protected and which plays a significant role in creative thinking and actions as well as learning. This physiological need, which should be met every night, is either postponed or underestimated by modern life-style humans (Kayabekir, 2019; 2020). Individuals with sleep deprivation more often report such cognitive issues as loss of attention, decrease in concentration and problem-solving abilities and difficulty in establishing cause and effect relationships (Zammit et al., 1999; Van Dort, 2016). A healthy young adult starts sleeping with NREM sleep and moves from NREM sleep to REM sleep and vice versa in 90-minute intervals. Body tissues and brain tissues are restored during NREM (Non-Rapid Eye Movement) sleep (calm, synchronized sleep, deep wave sleep) and REM (Rapid Eye Movement) sleep (moving, desynchronized, paradoxical sleep), respectively. On the other hand, motor integration takes place during REM sleep, and sensory network integration takes place during NREM sleep (Kayabekir, 2019; Jones, 2005; Stickgold, 2001; Rechtschaffen et al., 1989). It has been shown that while REM deprivation alone instead causes problems about the quality of life and learning, total sleep deprivation causes more effective physical and cognitive problems (Divac et al., 1987; Mc Namara & Bulkeley, 2015).

Cognitive functions of the brains, namely learning and memory (attention, concentration, and problem-solving abilities) are the essential duties of the brain cortex. The first encounter with a language in the brain is through hearing followed by the visual language via reading and the visual information conveyed with written words. Memory is defined as the ability to encode, store, memorize and recall information. The psychological processes in the memory consist of registration, short-term memory, rehearsal of memory, long-term memory, and recall (Fraize et

al., 2016; Kryger et al., 2011; Turner et al., 2007). A significant amount of human sensory experiences is turned into their equivalents in one's language before they are stored in the memory areas in the brain and before being processed for other mental purposes. For example, when someone reads a book, words themselves or their meanings and associations are stored in their memory instead of visual images created by words. Wernicke's Area is the area which analyzes and interprets languages in the dominant hemisphere of the brain, and this area is in a close relationship with the auditory region of the temporal lobe. The reason for this close relationship is probably that the first encounter with a language is through hearing (Guyton & Hall, 2016; Stickgold & Walker, 2013, Mc Namara & Bulkeley, 2015). Memory processes that are involved in capturing and retaining acoustic information aggregate one's experience with spoken language into functional acoustic-phonetic units, speech sounds such as /d/ or /a/ (Sayako et al.; Joannis et al.).

The first encounter of an individual with music is also through hearing. The individuals hear music actually starts to store the melodic and rhythmic images, that is, the meanings in the musical language and the thoughts provoked by them, in the memory area of the brain (Gracyk, 2007; Davidova, 2012). Musical Hearing Reading Writing (MHRW) can be deemed as the most crucial lesson in studying music, especially in establishing the connection between sounds and music and between sounds and images and in comprehending music. When the contents of MHRW classes are examined, it can be seen that their topics are pervasive (sound formation and perception and its fundamental characteristics, intervals, chords, tempos, meters, scales, modes, solfege, rhythmic dictation, melodic dictation, etc.) and their aim is to teach a vast number of theoretical and applied basic knowledge and abilities. It is also stated that the student's level of knowledge and dictation skills are the primary indicators of their ability to link sounds and symbols. (Özgür & Aydoğan, 2006; Şengül, 2006; Hacıev, 2007).

The development of cognitive processes in a musical activity has a special role for broadening

musical experience: perceptions of musical hearing are created and musical perception develops only by listening to music and participating in various musical activities (Davidova, 2012). A student who aims to acquire the ability to write intervals is first required to know sounds theoretically and to discern the intervals performed in various frets nominally. In other words, students are required to identify intervals with different hearings from each other. The teaching method used in interval studies is also used in chord studies. The only difference is that students are required to identify three notes. Rhythmic dictation is very different from both interval and chord writing abilities. A student who aims to acquire the ability to write rhythms first needs to learn the time values of notes and rests and their beats. Afterward, they are taught metric clefs. A student who aims to acquire the ability to write melodic dictation is required to write a melody's tone, metric clef, and rhythms as well as the notes, which make up the melody on the staff. The development of cognitive processes in a musical activity has a special role for broadening musical experience. Musical notions and perception are a process which tries to establish links between sounds of music (Karahan, 2016; Gracyk, 2007; Sağer et al., 2013; Ece & Kaplan, 2008).

As can be seen, MHRW courses cover very important topics related to professional music education. However, Karahan (2016:922) emphasizes that the main objectives of MHRW courses are to gain the knowledge and skills of being able to write the names and notes of intervals and chords, as well as to write the rhythmic dictation in various scales and melodic dictation in various tones and modes and to read solfege. These basic knowledge and skills, which are aimed to be gained in MHRW courses in all programs of professional music education (Department of Music Education, Conservatory, etc.), also affect the success levels of students in other courses. Ece and Kaplan (2008:294) found a positive, low-level significant relationship between the success levels of students in Musical Hearing, Instrument and Voice Courses. Sağer, Gürpınar and Zahal (2013: 313) also concluded that students' achievements in the MHRW course positively affected their achievement in other field courses in the first,

second and third grades. For this reason, the success levels of students in MHRW courses affect their success both in the education-training process and in their professional lives.

When the related literature was reviewed, although many studies were conducted on MHRW lessons, no study was found in which the effects of sleep deprivation on the success levels of interval, chord, rhythmic and melodic dictation writing were examined. MHRW education during which various theoretical and applied knowledge and abilities offers an opportunity for researchers to understand the cortical functions. Knowing that sleep, especially REM sleep, has an important effect on memory, attention, hearing and thought creation motivated us to examine the impact of sleeplessness on musical hearing. The study aims to determine how much sleep deprivation affects students' skills and perception to write intervals, chords, rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation by comparing with the cognitive functions.

Problem Statement

Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in the MHRW examination?

Sub-Problems

1. Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing intervals?
2. Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing chords?
3. Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing rhythmic dictation?
4. Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing melodic dictation?

Materials and Methods

Participants

The study group consisted of second-year students in Music Teaching Undergraduate Program at Harran University in which the researcher himself works. The experimental research was conducted with 18 students (14 men and 4 women) who volunteered to participate (Age: 22±2.1, Mean Body Mass Index: 24,6 ± 2.3). To determine the

levels of effect of sleeplessness in the study group, the present experimental study made use of the pre-test – post-test model.

Experimental Design and Procedure

The study group was given a test, which consisted of questions about intervals, chords, rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation as the pre-test at 10:00 a.m. Afterward, the study group whose participants didn't sleep for 24 hours was given the post-test at 10:00 a.m. the day after. Thus, the study group was given the post-test 24 hours after the pre-test without any sleep and how much sleep deprivation affected the students' success levels was determined by examining the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores. The students were given equal opportunities to meet their physiological needs during the sleepless-24-hours in the experimental study (Why 24 hours? In this study, a -total -sleep deprivation was targeted. In this way, the restoration activities of both NREM and REM periods in the brain during sleep were experimentally prevented).

Inclusion criteria of participants: (a) Not having a systemic disease (individuals have undergone basic health checks by a medical doctor). (b) Not having sleep disorders (Sleep diaries reviewed by a physician working in the field of sleep disorders). (c) Not using drugs and other drugs that affect the Central Nervous System.

Precautions: Subjects rested overnight. Blood pressure was followed by heart rate measurements.

Pre-test-Post-test Exam Questions

In the selection of the pre-test and post-test questions, the success level of writing interval, chord, rhythmic and melodic dictation, which are the most basic knowledge and skills of MRHW lessons, were included in the scope of the research. In addition, 4 sub-problems were formed based on these basic topics. In determining the difficulty levels and numbers of the questions, the questions of interval, chord, 8-measure rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation, which are taught in MRHW courses, were created based on expert opinions.

The study group was given a total of 10 questions about intervals, ten questions about chords, eight questions about rhythmic dictation and eight questions about melodic dictation in the pretest. To decrease the possibility of students' remembering the questions given in the pretest, the order of the questions about intervals and chords asked in the pretest was switched and the same questions were given to the students as the posttest. The meters in the questions about rhythmic dictation asked in the pretest were changed using the same method and the same questions were given in the posttest. As for melodic dictation in the posttest, another melody was created using the same metric clef and tonal and rhythmic structures used in the questions about melodic dictation asked in the pretest. Moreover, expert opinions were obtained regarding the equality of the levels of the melodies asked in the pretest, and the posttest. Below is given some examples about the questions about intervals, chords, rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation asked in the pretest and the posttest (Figure 1,2,3,4).

The example questions about intervals and chords given in Figures 1 and 2 were played with the piano twice. For each question about intervals and chords, first, a la note was given, and then, students were asked to write the notes forming the intervals and chords on the staff.



Figure 1. Interval Questions



Figure 2. Chord Questions

The students were asked 1 rhythmic dictation which consisted of 8 meters. Rhythmic dictation was started with playing 1. and 2. meters and 1. and 2. meters were performed again after 30 seconds. 3. and 4. meters were played after 30 seconds, and the same procedure was used for the rest of the meters. In other words, the question about rhythmic dictation which consisted of 8 meters was applied with this method.

The students were asked one melodic dictation which consisted of 8 meters. The students were first given a la note. After providing the starting note of the melody, melodic dictation was started with playing 1. and 2. meters and 1. and 2. meters were played again after 30 seconds. 1., 2., 3. and 4. meters were played after 30 seconds, and 3. and 4. meters were played again after 30 seconds. The question about melodic dictation was applied which consisted of 8 meters with playing the rest of the meters using the same method.

The example meters about the questions about rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation are given in Figures 3 and 4.



Figure 3: Rhythmic Dictation Question



Figure 4: Melodic Dictation Question

Analysis

The research data were gathered with literature review and in the experimental environment created. Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the test of normality and the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for the data gathered. The results showed that there were deviations from normality in only two dependent variables and their levels were acceptable. That's why it was decided to use parametric tests. The students' success levels in the experimental environment were determined with the pre-test and the post-test exams. The data gathered were analyzed with SPSS 24 and interpreted with paired samples t-test according to $p < .05$. The scoring table which was used to evaluate the hearing abilities of the study group is given in table 1.

Table 1. Scoring Table

Questions	Number of Questions	Points per Question	Total Points
Interval questions	10	1,5 points	15 points
Chord questions	10	1,5 points	15 points
Rhythmic Dictation	8	3,75 points	30 points
Melodic Dictation	8	5 points	40 points
Grand Total			100 points

The study group was evaluated according to the correct answers given to the questions about intervals, chords, rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation. It was decided in the evaluation that each interval question was 1.5 points, each chord question was 1.5 points, each meter of rhythmic dictation was 3.75 points and each meter of melodic dictation was 5 points.

Findings

The results related to the 4 sub-problems as part of the study are presented in a total of 5 tables.

Table 2. Coefficients of Skewness and Kurtosis for Points and Results of Significance Level for Shapiro-Wilkinson Test

	N	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro Wilkinson (S-W)
				P
Interval Pretest Score	18	.32	-1.20	.15
Chord Pretest Score	18	-.14	-1.10	.44
Rhythm Pretest Score	18	.24	-1.36	.06
Melody Pretest Score	18	.25	-1.35	.06
Total Pretest Score	18	.24	-.77	.36
Interval Posttest Score	18	.41	-1.25	.10
Chord Posttest Score	18	-.84	.37	.10
Rhythm Posttest Score	18	.81	-.80	.00*
Melody Posttest Score	18	1.16	-.10	.00*
Total Posttest Score	18	.99	-.29	.01
Grand Total Score	18	.74	-.57	.07

When table 2 is examined, it can be observed that the scores the study group obtained in the pre-test and the post-test are normally distributed except for the score variables of Rhythm and Melody in

the post-test. The coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for these two score variables which present deviations from normality can be deemed as acceptable when 95% (acceptability -1.96 - +1.96) safe interval calculation is taken into consideration.

Table 3. Results of Paired Samples t-Test for Interval Success Scores in Pre-test and Post-test

Score	Groups	N	\bar{X}	SS	Sh $_{\bar{x}}$	t_{Test}		
						t	Sd	p
Interval	Pre-test	18	7.00	5.07	1.19	.94	17	.36
	Post-test	18	6.42	4.96	1.17			

When table 3 is examined, it can be seen that there is not a significant difference in paired sample T-test for interval score variable after sleeplessness. However, as can be observed in their average scores, when the average scores in the post-test are taken into consideration, there is an 8.3% decrease.

Table 4. Results of Paired Samples t-Test for Chord Success Scores in Pre-test and Post-test

Score	Groups	N	\bar{X}	SS	Sh $_{\bar{x}}$	t_{Test}		
						t	Sd	p
Chord	Pre-test	18	10.20	3.21	.76	1.29	17	.22
	Post-test	18	9.33	3.77	.89			

As the result of the analysis done in table 4, it is determined that there is not a significant difference in chord scores as in interval scores. However, as can be observed in their average scores, when the average scores in the posttest are taken into consideration, there is an 8.5% decrease.

Table 5. Results of Paired Samples t-Test for Rhythmic Dictation Scores in Pretest and Posttest

Score	Groups	N	\bar{X}	SS	Sh $_{\bar{x}}$	t_{Test}		
						t	Sd	p
Rhythm	Pre-test	18	13.33	10.78	2.54	3.96	17	.00*
	Post-test	18	8.75	10.61	2.50			

In the analysis of the paired sample T-test for the rhythm scores which were the third score variable

in the study in table 5, it can be seen that there is a significant difference (p=.00) between the pretest and the posttest scores.

Table 6. Results of Paired Samples t-Test for Melodic Dictation Scores in Pretest and Posttest

Score	Groups	N	\bar{X}	SS	Sh $_{\bar{x}}$	t_{Test}		
						t	Sd	p
Melodic Dictation	Pre-test	18	18.89	14.20	3.35	4.12	17	.00*
	Post-test	18	10.76	14.74	3.47			

It can be seen that there is a significant decrease in the posttest scores in the analysis done for the melody variable in table 6.

Table 7. Results of Paired Samples t-Test for MHRW Total Success Scores in Pre-test and Post-test

Score	Groups	N	\bar{X}	SS	Sh $_{\bar{x}}$	t_{Test}		
						t	Sd	p
Total	Pretest	18	49.42	23.62	5.57	5.69	17	.00*
	Posttest	18	35.26	25.86	6.10			

In the analysis of MHRW total scores, there is an important deviation from significance (p=.00).

Discussion and Results

The study examined whether and how much sleep deprivation affects volunteer participants' interval, chord, rhythmic dictation and melodic dictation writing skills. As a result, when the total pretest and posttest success scores were examined, it was found that the success levels of the volunteer participants decreased significantly due to sleep deprivation.

As a result of the research, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test success levels of the students in interval writing, but there was a decrease of 8.3%, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test success levels in chord writing, but there was a decrease of 8.5%, and there was a significant

difference between the pre-test and post-test success levels in rhythmic and melodic dictation writing, and also there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test success levels of the students in general. The results related to the problem and sub-problems of the research are discussed and presented below.

Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing interval?

Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing chords?

While the musical hearing is an important learning process, the brain should perform memory functions in order for learning to occur. Sensory memory as the first impression of a stimulant indicates consciousness. Stored information either is treated as short-term memory or disappears rapidly (Kryger, vd., 2011; Kerstin, Dominik, Heib, Philippe, 2014). The students who volunteered for the study were asked to identify the interval which they had theoretically learned nominally when they were performed in various frets. However, the sensory memory which enables the first identification of a stimulant couldn't continue its function. Because the REM and NREM phases of sleep are especially essential factors in recalling the sensory memory, the volunteer participants who were deprived of REM-NREM sleep for 24 hours had difficulty in identifying sounds in the questions about interval and chords and their success levels decreased. Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing rhythmic dictation?

Short-term or working memory is limited in its capacity. It stores information in several fragments and transforms it into direct behavior cooperating with the cognitive system. If these components of the memory fail to work appropriately, new information disappears immediately, and the memory capacity decreases. In other words, this memory provides information for immediate use and helps the repetitive cognitive processes or the rehearsal memory continue copying. When there is a problem in rehearsal, the learning activity decreases and new information starts to disappear (Kryger, Roth, Dement, 2011; Kerstin, Dominik, vd., 2014). The volunteer students who had rehearsed MHRW, who were known not to have experienced problems in sleep duration and

quality up to that point in the study were asked questions about rhythmic dictation. The volunteers who were known to have learned about the time values and beats of notes and rests theoretically experienced a significant decrease in their success levels due to sleeplessness in this type of question which engages mental functions along with the short-term and long-term memories. The volunteers who couldn't remember the time values and beats of notes and rests had problems about consolidation of short and long-term memories. Moreover, the volunteers who experienced lack of attention and concentration while following the sensory and auditory stimulants were especially under the influence of REM deprivation.

Does sleep deprivation affect students' success levels in writing melodic dictation?

Long-term memory covers consolidation process or organizing information based on its meaning. Neurophysiological defects stemming from the loss of the ability to store data for a long-time result in inefficiency in the functions to learn, maintain or apply. Retrieval covers recalling information. If there is a defect in this function, spontaneous recalling will be lost (Turner, Drummond, Salamat, Brown, 2007; Kerstin, Dominik, Heib, Philippe, 2014). The statistically most significant failure in the current study due to sleeplessness took place in melodic dictation following rhythmic dictation. It is safe to say that this failure stemmed from the adverse effects of sleeplessness on music mental abilities which require follow-up and comparative mental performances, because musical phrasing and writing it down require procedural memory abilities. Similarly, it is possible to say that the significant difference in rhythm score was due to this reason as well.

The volunteer students were required to keep the sounds to form both the rhythms and the melody in their memory and to transform all this information into notes during melodic dictation writing. The current study attempted to involve not only the long-term memory and the consolidation of the brain but also the short-term memory, the ability to control and maintain attention and the mental focus against distracting factors. When the positive relationship between the long-term memory and memory consolidation

and REM sleep is taken into consideration, the volunteer students' success levels in melodic dictation writing decreased significantly especially due to REM deprivation.

Sleeping as a function of the brain has positive effects on long-term and short-term memories which are very important for learning. Postponing or losing this function effects listening, understanding and learning negatively and decreases the success of the lesson. The deep refreshing sleep called NREM greatly contributes to the declarative memory, and the brain waves which belong to the paradoxical sleep called REM contribute especially to the memory consolidation and the long-term memory (Kerstin, Dominik, Heib, Philippe, 2016).

In general, our study closely examined the cognitive functioning of individuals learning music through sleep deprivation and musical hearing model. Studies on music and sleep are limited in the literature. Our study has realized an original idea experimentally in this field. We accept the limited aspects of our study, for example, the number of samples and students being aware of the relationship between sleep deprivation and mental performance. Future studies will need to confirm the directionality of these findings and will need to examine physiological measures of sleep in larger sample sizes. Our experimental design allows to make a statement about the relationship between sleep deprivation and musical hearing skills. However, it does not allow to reach definitive conclusions about cognitive processing. In our future studies, we want to use polysomnography and multiple sleep latency tests (Kayabekir, 2019) including sleep EEG and reveal more electrophysiological findings.

In conclusion, it should be kept in mind that the cognitive activities needed during the MHRW training process have a strong connection with sleep duration and quality.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Job-Occupation Choice and Happiness at Work of Refugees: A Cross-Country Qualitative Research¹

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September 2023
Volume:20
Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1343806

Abstract

This study aims at examining and comparing the situational conditions, terms and resources that are effective in the choice of job-occupation and situations that make them happy in their job in the country of origin (the country they come from) and the host country (Türkiye) from which they migrate. In line with this aim, the phenomenology approach, which is one of the qualitative research methods, has been used in this study. Qualitative data obtained as a result of structured interviews with 16 refugees who came to Türkiye from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq, currently working in an organization or running their own business, have been subjected to content analysis. According to the findings of the study, it has been determined that the majority of the refugees (f=13) have different jobs in the country of origin and the host country, and the factors that affect their choice of job-occupation have changed. While the main factor that causes the choice of job-occupation in the country of origin is the orientation of the family and being raised in that occupation from childhood (f=6), in the host country, the job-occupation is a necessity rather than a choice (f=11), the obligation to look after the family and financial needs have been the source of the motivation to work in any kind of job. When the two countries are compared, it has been determined that the reasons for the happiness of the refugees in the work they do in the host country also change. The sources that make them happy at work in the country of origin are spending time with family, achievement, service to the country, passion for the work, financial gain, spirituality, dignity and trust. Resources that make them happy at work in the host country are financial gain, social support, autonomous working conditions, being helpful to others, equity, appreciation and spirituality

Keywords: Choice of job-occupation, happiness at work, well-being, refugee workers, qualitative study

Citation:

Yastioğlu, S.& Alparslan, M, A. (2023). Job-Occupation Choice and Happiness at Work of Refugees: A Cross-Country Qualitative Research. *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 620-636.

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı, göçmenlerin menşe ülkede (geldikleri ülkede) ve göç ettikleri ev sahibi ülkede (Türkiye'de) iş-meslek seçiminde etkili olan ve işlerinde mutlu olmalarını sağlayan durumsal şartların, koşulların ve kaynakların neler olduğunu tespit etmek ve karşılaştırmaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda çalışmada nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden biri olan fenomenoloji yaklaşımı kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada; Suriye, Afganistan ve Irak'tan Türkiye'ye gelen mevcutta bir işletmede çalışan veya kendi işini yapan 16 mülteci ile yapılan yapılandırılmış görüşmeler sonucu elde edilen nitel veriler içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Çalışmanın bulgularına göre mültecilerin çoğunluğunun (f=13) menşe ülkede ve ev sahibi ülkede yaptıkları işlerin ve iş-meslek seçiminde etkili olan unsurların farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Menşe ülkede iş-meslek seçimine kaynaklı eden temel unsur ailenin yönlendirmesi ve çocukluktan o meslekte yetişmesi iken (f=6) ev sahibi ülkede ise yapılan işin-mesleğin bir seçimden çok zorunluluk olduğu (f=11), aileye bakma yükümlülüğü ve mali ihtiyaçların herhangi bir işte çalışma güdüsüne kaynaklık ettiği bulunmuştur. İki ülke kıyaslandığında mültecilerin ev sahibi ülkede yaptıkları işte mutluluk sebeplerinin de değiştiği tespit edilmiştir. Menşe ülkede işlerinde mutlu olmalarını sağlayan kaynaklar aileyle vakit geçirme, başarıya, vatana hizmet, yapılan işe tutku, maddi kazanç, maneviyat, saygınlık ve güvendir. Ev sahibi ülkede işlerinde mutlu olmalarını sağlayan kaynaklar ise maddi kazanç, sosyal destek, özerk iş koşulları, başkalarına faydalı olma, hakkaniyet, takdir ve maneviyattır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İş-meslek seçimi, iş mutluluğu, iyi oluş, mülteci işçiler, nitel araştırma

¹ This study is the revised and expanded version of the paper titled "Mültecilerde İş Mutluluğu: Ülke Karşılaştırmalı Nitel Bir Araştırma" presented in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University between the dates November 03-05, 2022, in the 9th Organizational Behavior Congress and published in the proceedings book.

Introduction

At the end of 2022, 108.4 million people worldwide have been forced to leave their countries and seek for asylum in other countries due to conflict, violence, human rights violations or events which has deeply caused harm for public order (UNHCR, 2023). Türkiye is one of the countries hosting the highest number of asylum seekers in the World by hosting approximately 3,6 million registered Syrian refugees as well as approximately 320,000 refugees and asylum seekers of different nationalities (UNHCR Türkiye, 2023). In Türkiye, only in 2021, 168,103 foreigners were given work permits. Of these, 91,500 are Syrians, 2,479 Iraqis, and 2,923 Afghans (Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2021). A significant number of immigrants and refugees, whether registered or unregistered, are in the labor market in the host country (Çoban, 2018).

Although migrant workers occupy a significant portion of the workforce in many countries, they are often disproportionately forced to work in high-risk roles, difficult jobs, and low-paying jobs with no job security that locals do not want to work (Eurofound, 2012; ILO, 2020; WHO, 2020). In fact, this situation is similar for refugees in Türkiye, and the biggest economic and social problems for them are the challenges in participating the workforce and working conditions (Kocadaş, 2018). This is the fact that refugees accept to work in unqualified jobs with all kinds of hardships for much lower salaries than local employees in order to earn an income and sustain their lives, employers perceive refugees as a 'cheap labor source' (Ciğerci, 2012). The problem is not just about unemployment or low salaries.

Refugees, who work in qualified jobs in the country of origin, have a professional occupation and a good career, can work as blue-collar jobs in the host country without job security, and they can change their professional identity to rebuild their work life, and their professional qualifications may become invalid (Chen, 2016; Luksyte et al., 2014; Chen, 2008). They are faced with the obligation to give up their professional identity and to do business different than their expertise for reasons such as clinging to life under financial pressures, financial needs, and the obligation to look after

their families (Man, 2004). They may even work informally in difficult and dangerous working conditions, for low wages, in daily and seasonal jobs with no job security (Hill et al., 2019) and they may leave their professional identities, perhaps they may stay away from their own identities. Studies conducted in Türkiye also support this situation. On the other hand, Syrians who have certain jobs or belong to a workforce in their own country become unemployed in Türkiye or they are forced to work in jobs that do not match with their profession. For example, in a study conducted with 150 immigrants, while the rate of those who stated that they were unemployed in Syria was 0.7%, this rate increased to 31.3% after coming to Türkiye. In addition, while the rate of people who were craftsmen, tradesmen, merchants, or had a professional job in Syria was 52%, in Türkiye, this rate decreased to 13.4%. Besides, in the same study, it is seen that 35.3% of immigrants work in daily temporary jobs or paid jobs (Çetin, 2016, p. 1006-1007).

The fact that refugees face many difficulties in professional and social integration (Hynie, 2018) that brings mental and physical health problems for them. It also negatively affects their happiness and psychosocial well-being in their work and life. Some refugees in Türkiye may experience difficulties due to reasons such as lack of work permits, limited work permits, poor working conditions, working in jobs with high levels of danger, poverty and anxiety about being sent back home, even if their education level is high in the country they come from (Civan, 2017; Yalim, 2020, p. 109). These challenges bring about mental health problems for them, trigger symptoms such as depression and anxiety, and reduce their well-being (Lindert et al., 2009; Alemi et al., 2016). Besides, the current study indicates that refugee workers are more unhappy in their jobs than domestic workers (Liu et al., 2020; Bretones et al., 2020).

Refugees, who work in insecure, low-paid and precarious jobs that are less preferred by native workers, are exposed to labor exploitation on the one hand, and have to struggle with discrimination, exclusion and language barriers on the other (İncili & Aysan, 2023, p. 211). However, refugee workers receive almost half less wages

than native workers working in the same workplace and/or doing the same job (Lordoğlu & Aslan, 2016, p. 802), and they have a harder time meeting their nutritional and shelter needs (Çinar, 2018, p. 125), wages are underpaid or delayed by employers (Engin, 2017, p. 8). Compared to native workers, this economic and social exclusion situation has a more negative impact on the well-being and satisfaction (satisfaction) of refugee workers in their social lives and jobs (Spitzer et al., 2023, p. 11-12; Herold et al., 2023, p. 931).

In general, happiness at work or employee happiness is defined as a person's physical, emotional and mental well-being and satisfaction with life both at work and outside of work (Danna & Griffin, 1999). When the literature is examined, it is seen that there are many factors and resources for experiencing happiness at work. Feeling happy in performing the job, characteristics of the job, interactions with managers and colleagues (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Suojanen, 2012), individual characteristics such as psychological capital, sources of intrinsic motivation and life satisfaction (Ramirez-Garcia et al., 2019; Khatri & Gupta, 2019), finding meaningful work (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2023) are some of these sources. On the other hand, excessive workload and job insecurity, lack of work-life balance, exposure to unfair treatment, stress and uncertainties in business life cause individuals to be unhappy (Singh & Aggarwal, 2018).

Socio-economic reasons such as not recognizing the skills and qualifications of refugee workers, challenging job demands, fear of losing the job, long working hours, language barriers, and social exclusion negatively affect the refugee workers' well-being (Wang & Sangalang, 2005; Colic-Peisker & Tilbury, 2007; Paul & Moser, 2009). A sense of belonging, access to economic and social rights, organizational inclusion and social support increase the well-being of refugee workers (Newman et al., 2017; Le et al., 2018; Le et al., 2022). It is suggested that refugees may experience different levels of welfare depending on the conditions of the host country they migrate (Rosenberg et al., 2019). In addition, well-being may be affected by work and non-work conditions in the context of the host country as well as their

individual skills and competencies or other psychological and physical factors (Jiang et al., 2018; Vaquera & Aranda, 2011). Besides, as an opposite supporter to the social exclusion, organizations in the host country with the inclusive perception may foster the wellbeing of the refugee workers as they may feel valuable for being a part of the organization.

Some of the refugees are able to use the qualifications they have in the host country to a certain extent (Luksyte et al., 2014) with unstable working conditions (Bretones et al., 2020), some have to change their occupation or cannot find a suitable job compatible with their professional occupation (Çetin, 2016), experience resource loss, and their subjective well-being may change depending on the context (Shirmohammadi et al., 2023). However, there are relatively few studies on the comparison of past and present work experiences, determining the reasons for choosing these jobs, and how their choices are a source of well-being in the working life of the refugee workers. It has been considered that finding the solutions to unanswered questions is essential in order to comprehend the working conditions, psychological and job needs of refugees in a better way. However, there is still lack of sufficient studies about the job happiness and improving the well-being of migrant workers in the context of host country and working conditions, examining the special needs and capacities of refugees (Le et al. 2018; Le et al., 2022) for further clarification by conducting interviews (Shirmohammadi et al., 2023) which have been one of the motives for the current study. Within the scope of this information given, the study includes the following questions: "What are the jobs-occupations and the reasons for choosing the jobs-occupations in the country of origin and the host country?"; "Has there been a change in the reasons for choosing a job-occupation?"; "What are the sources that make them happy at work?"; "Have the reasons that make refugees happy at work changed in Türkiye?" and "Is it more satisfying for refugees to work in the country of origin or in the host country, and what are the reasons?".

Method

In the current study, the phenomenology design, one of the qualitative research methods, has been used. Phenomenology studies allow the researcher to explore and deeply examine the phenomenon that is required to be understood better or to describe by directly referring to the experiences of the participants (Creswell, 2016). The cases of the study have been determined as 'the choice of job-occupation' and 'the sources of happiness at work'. The study aims at examining the jobs they do in their countries of origin and in Türkiye, the reasons for choosing these jobs and the reasons that make them happy in their jobs, based on their personal and business life experiences, and to investigate them with an exploratory approach. To explore of their occupation, jobs, reasons for choosing these jobs, and the sources that make them happy in their jobs, both in the country of origin and in the host country has provided a comparison between the two countries.

Data Collection Tools

Before data collection process, Institutional Review Board permission for research was obtained from University's Ethical Committee in 2022. Semi-structured interview (Merriam, 2018, p. 87) was used as a qualitative data collection method in the study. The interviews were conducted face-to-face and online. Due to the fact that some of the participants who agreed to participate in the research were in different provinces, and some of them could not find suitable time intervals due to their working hours, online interviews were applied in addition to face-to-face interviews. Thus, time and space problem barriers were tried to be removed for interviews (Carter et al., 2021, p. 713). While preparing the questions that will serve the purpose of the research in the interview guide, open-ended questions were preferred instead of narrow-scoped questions, so the quality of the data to be obtained was intended to be increased (Merriam, 2018, p. 101). In the first part of the structured interview form prepared in accordance with the guideline, questions about age, country of origin, marital status, number of family members in Türkiye and duration of stay in Türkiye were

included. In the second part of the interview form, questions prepared in order to determine the reasons for choosing a job/occupation and the sources of happiness in the country of origin and Türkiye, to compare them and to see the changes were included. The questions posed to the participants in this section are as follows:

-What was your job and what did you do before you came to Türkiye? What were the reasons behind you choosing your job-occupation?

- What do you do in Türkiye, what is your occupation? What were the reasons behind you choosing your job-occupation?

- 'Can you explain the reasons why you were happy by remembering 2 memories when you felt very good/happy at your job when you were in your country?'

- 'Can you explain the reason why you are happy by remembering 2 memories when you felt very good/happy at your current job (in Türkiye)?'

- 'Was it more satisfying to work in your own country? Are you happier working in Türkiye? Can you explain the reasons with your experience?'

Besides, probes have been added during the interview due to language constraints so that the participants could better understand the questions, detail their answers and take examples. Interviews have been conducted in Turkish, and since one participant did not know Turkish very well and spoke English, the interview was conducted in English. Before starting the interviews, the participants were informed about ethical issues such as the research procedure, that the research was conducted for scientific purposes, that their identity information would be kept confidential, that they could withdraw from the research at any time and that audio recordings would be taken in line with their consent. Verbal and written consent was obtained from the people who agreed to participate in the study. The interviews, which lasted an average of thirty minutes, were held outside the workplaces. Some participants did not want to be audio recorded. In this case, while one of the researchers conducted the interview, the other recorded the interview in writing.

Participants

Snowball sampling, which is one of the purposeful sampling methods, has been used to determine the study group (Patton, 2005). Snowball sampling has been chosen as a sampling method due to reasons such as the difficulty of reaching refugees, lack of information about them, and their refusal to meet with a foreigner (researcher). In addition, the risk of bias in including participants in the research was attempted to be reduced by snowball sampling (Naderifar et al., 2017, p. 2). The criteria for inclusion of the participants in the study; regardless of gender, age, country of origin, and the industry they work, they are determined as 'immigrants who have worked in a job in the country of origin and currently working in a job in Türkiye, provided that they volunteer to participate in the research.

16 refugees living in four different provinces in Türkiye, with different work permit and protection status, participated in the study. (Some of the participants requested that the provinces they live, their protection status and work permit status should be kept confidential, and that this information should not be included in the study. For this reason, relevant information was not included in the study.) The research process was terminated when it was determined that the data obtained as a result of the interviews reached saturation, in other words, the answers became repetitive and the thematic saturation was obtained (Silverman, 2016; Bengtsson, 2016, p. 10).

When the socio-demographic characteristics of the study group have been examined; 13 of the 16 participants in the study were male and 3 were female. 8 participants are Syrian, 6 are from Afghanistan and 2 are from Iraq. Their ages range from 30 to 44, with an average age of 38.5. 13 of the participants are married and 3 of them are single. The number of people they are responsible to look after is between 1-6 people and their stay in Türkiye is between 2-10 years. While 5 of the participants work in their own business, 11 of them work in different businesses. There are participants with different graduation levels from Primary School to University.

Data Analysis

The analysis process of the data started with the transcription of the raw audio recordings and written interview notes, the data were ready to proceed for analysis, and then the analysis and coding process was operated. First of all, each participant was coded as P1, P2, ... P16. Then, the data organized on the basis of basic research questions were analyzed with an inductive approach and content analysis technique. Thus, the data were analyzed in depth, prominent/important statements related to the phenomena were determined, and previously unambiguous codes and categories were also revealed (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Christensen et al., 2020, p. 410). In addition, the eight-step process proposed by Tesch (1990, pp. 142-149) was also taken into account in the coding process.

In the final case, the reasons for choosing a job-occupation in the country of origin of the participants, the reasons that make them happy in their jobs, and the reasons why they choose their job in Türkiye and make them happy in their jobs are classified, categorized and named according to their similarities and differences. By analyzing the participants' statements of regarding the reasons for their choice of job-occupation in the country of origin and Türkiye, 12 codes and 2 categories formed by the codes were obtained. Some of the participants gave more than two examples while describing their happiest moment, and all the reasons they mentioned were included in the analysis. As a result of the classification, similar expressions of the entrepreneurs regarding the sources of happiness in the country of origin are 14 codes and 8 categories in which the codes are collected; similar statements regarding the sources of happiness in Türkiye were arranged under 12 codes and 7 categories where the codes were collected. The literature (e.g. Herold et al., 2023; Shirmohammadi et al., 2023; Jaiswal & Arun, 2020; Gauche, et al., 2017; Pescud et al., 2015) was used in naming codes and categories.

Validity and Reliability

After the interview questions were prepared, they were checked by a faculty member who had previously worked in the refugee sample in the field of organizational behavior and another faculty member who studied the concepts of career, well-being and happiness, and their approval was obtained. In addition, preliminary interviews were conducted with 3 refugees to test the comprehensibility of the interview forms and it was concluded that there was no problem in the clarity of the questions. Besides, with the researcher diversification method, two researchers took part in both the collection and transcription, analysis, coding and interpretation of the data. In order to describe the phenomena correctly, it is significant to reach out consensus at all steps. Thus, descriptive validity (Christensen et al., 2020, p. 404) was aimed to be provided. For reliability, no

guiding hint or question was made to the participants during the interviews, participant views were adhered to during the analysis and interpretation phase, researcher biases or self-interpretations were tried not to be included in the analysis process (Yalçın, 2022, p. 227).

Findings

The results obtained as a result of the content analysis of the qualitative data obtained from the interviews in order to find answers to the research questions of "What are the reasons for choosing the job-occupation and the job-occupation of the refugees in the country of origin and the host country? summary findings and category-code list are presented in Table 1 and Table 2. When Table 1 is examined; it is indicated that 13 of the 16 participants work in a different job in Türkiye than their job-occupation in the country of origin. A

Table 1. Occupations and reasons for choice in country of origin and host country (Türkiye)

Country	Country of Origin	Host Country (Türkiye)		
Participant	Job/Occupation	Choice Reason	Job/Occupation	Choice Reason
P1 (G:M,A:39)	Private driver (in a company)	Passion for cars	Paper collector	Obligation, freelance and independent work
P2 (G:M,A:42)	Baker	Growing up in the job since childhood	Baker	Professional occupation
P3 (G:M,A:42)	Chief of the restaurant (own job)	Starting own business	Paper collector	Obligation, freelance and independent work
P4 (G:W,A:39)	Owner of the job (Garment)	Starting my own business as a woman	Textile worker	Obligation
P5 (G:W,A:31)	Owner of the job (Hairdresser)	Appreciation of the job and starting a business as a woman	Worker in a hairdresser	Obligation, professional occupation
P6 (G:W,A:33)	Teacher	Like children and teaching	Textile worker	Obligation
P7 (G:M,A:30)	Healthcare worker	To help family and humanity	Worker at a furniture firm	Obligation, obtain an occupation
P8 (G:E,A:31)	Farmer	Family occupation	Grocer	To start own business
P9 (G:M,A:37)	Merchant	Family occupation	Grocer	To do the job I like and to do the job I know
P10 (G:M,A:44)	Motor mechanic	To do this job at a very early age	Textile firm (own business)	To start own business, freelance and independent work
P11 (G:M,A:43)	Sect leader	Spirituality	Human rights worker	Spirituality
P12 (G:M,A:44)	(...) manager	To protect the country	Worker at a coffee house	Obligation
P13 (G:M,A:38)	Pharmacist	To have a good occupation, to plan my own job	Textile worker	Obligation
P14 (G:M,A:42)	Tiling worker	To do this job since childhood	Worker at a sawmill firm	Obligation
P15 (G:M,A:30)	Police officer	To protect the country and status	Building worker	Obligation
P16 (G:M,A:43)	Mechatronic engineer	It is a decent job	Technician	Obligation

Note. P: Participant, G: Gender, W: Woman, M: Man, A: Age

P12 requested that the full name of his profession not be written as a condition of participation. For this reason, a part of his occupation is indicated with (...).

remarkable finding is that 6 white-collar workers who have a job in the country of origin are working as blue-collar workers in the host country.

sources of happiness in the work of refugees in the country of origin and in Türkiye are presented in

Table 2. Code and category list of reasons for job-occupation selection in country of origin and host country (Türkiye)

Category	Code	Example Statement of the Participant
The reasons of choosing the job/occupation in the country of origin (f=16)	Family and childhood upbringing (f=6)	<i>"I have been in the bakery since my childhood, I started as an apprentice and became a master. I love baking, the oven. I always continued in that job..." (P2, G: M, A:42); "Merchant is the family business, and it is my father's job. I am a student of my father, I continued like him..." (P9, G: M, A:37)</i>
	Passion, love the profession/job (f=3)	<i>"Ever since I was little, I loved children, I tried to teach my siblings what I learned at school. I also loved to read and learn. This is why I wanted to be a teacher..." (P6, G: W, A: 33)</i>
	Start own business, autonomy (f=3)	<i>"As a child, I loved to do makeup for women. I learned by looking, then I went to school (hairdressing). Then I wanted to start my own business and do it myself, I stood on my own feet..." (P5, G: W, A: 31)</i>
	Statue, prestige (f=3)	<i>"It is important to become an engineer in my culture. Everyone wants to be an engineer. It is a very prestigious job. So I wanted to become an engineer..." (P16, G: E, A: 43)</i>
	Patriotism (f=2)	<i>"I have loved my country very much and wanted to protect it at the same time. That's why I got the training of that occupation, then I became ..." (P12, G: M, A: 44)</i>
	Be beneficial to society (f=2)	<i>"My brother was killed three months before my university exam. ... I chose to be in the healthcare service because of this ... To help the wounded, to take on a mission..." (P7, G:M, A:30)</i>
Reasons to choose occupations in the Host Country (f=16)	Spirituality (f=1)	<i>"My religion is my biggest reason, I started at the mosque at the age of 12. I was an sect leader- imam for 27 years. Everything to be in the way of Allah ..." (P11, G: M, Y: 43)</i>
	Obligation- Be responsible to take care of the family and financial needs (f=11)	<i>"...I have to take care of my family, I will do anything. ...I have to do this job... I don't want to beg for help ..." (P13, G: M, A: 38)</i>
	Autonomy (f=4)	<i>"I don't take orders from anyone in this job. There is no one superior than me I can take care of my job and my life..." (P3, G:E, A:42)</i>
	Own business (f=3)	<i>"I just wanted to do the occupation I already know and I wanted to continue my occupation...It was already my occupation..." (P:9, G:M, A:37)</i>
	Obtain an occupation, start own business (f=2)	<i>"I had to learn a new job to continue my life here, to take care of my family. I wanted to be a furniture maker; I could be a master in this business. One day I might open a shop of my own ..." (P7, G:M, A:30)</i>
	Spirituality (f=1)	<i>"Again, to be in the way of Allah, to gain Allah's consent..." (P11, G: M, A: 43)</i>

Note: f=Frequency (Number of participants' statements), P=Participant, G= Gender, W=Woman, M=Man

When Table 1 and Table 2 are evaluated together, it is seen that the reasons for choosing a job-occupation in the country of origin and the host country of refugees differ greatly. The main reason for choosing a job-occupation in the country of origin is the guidance of the family and being brought up in that job from childhood (f=6). In the country of origin, no one mentioned the obligation to look after a family or financial needs as reasons for choosing an occupation. In the host country, the main reason for choosing a job-occupation is obligation (f=11).

As a result of the content analysis carried out in order to answer the research question, "What are the resources that make refugees happy in their work in the country of origin and in the host country?"; the codes and categories describing the

Table 3 and Table 4. However, an example of participant statement representing the codes is included in both tables.

In Table 3, there are codes and categories based on the experiences of the participants in their country of origin, in which they felt good and happy. The two categories most frequently cited by respondents as a reason for happiness at work in their country of origin are 'family and social relationships' and 'achievement', respectively.

Table 3. Happiness sources of the refugees in the country of origin

Category	Code	Example Statement of the Participant
Family and Social Relationships (f=9)	Spending time with family(f=3)	"Thank Allah,, I was happy there while I was working. If your family is healthy and you have Money for bad days you are happy. If my family is happy and if I can spend more time with them and if I have time to make my children study and take them out I am happy ... " (P13, G: M, A: 38)
	To sustain the family business (f=2)	"My father was a big merchant. I learned to shop from him. My father died later. I was actually going to go to another school, but I took over his business. I know I carry on his legacy, I'm happy about it." (P9, G: M, A:37)
	To make the family proud (f=2)	"The first day I finished school and got a job was my happiest day. I paid my father's debt, I made him proud. Very happy to be proud of it. ... " (P7, G: M, A: 30)
Social relationships at workplace(f=2)	Social relationships at workplace(f=2)	"... My friends were with me, I was happy to work with them..." (P3, G: M, A: 42)
	Competence (f=5)	"...I don't know whether you call it competent or mastery, sister. I was the master of my job. One day a very rich man brought his car. The seat is torn. He said that the upholstery of the chair will be changed, look, if the same does not happen, you will not get your money. I was the master of my job and he didn't know. I did it so well that they brought it from the same vehicle, they looked and I did the same. I was so happy." (P14, G: M, A: 42)
Achievement (f=7)	Self-actualization (f=2)	"...There are no women in our family who do their own business. I wanted it, I did it. I opened my shop, I grew it, I was very happy, I provided job to female friends. ... " (P5, G: W, A: 31)
	To protect the country (f=2)	"I chose this job to protect my country. I was honest, I would fight, I was telling those who worked for me to be good, to be honest, I was saying that we are needed to protect our country." (P12, G: M, A: 44)
Serving the country (f=4)	Be beneficial to society (f=2)	"...I got a job in the hospital, I was going to help the injured, heal them. I did it and I was very happy" (P7, G: M, A:30)
	Love the profession/job(f=4)	"... There are tourists coming to our place. I learned English. I became a private driver in Rent a Car company. I was a driver for important people who came. ... The car is like my life. I am happy every time I drive." (P1, G: M, A: 39)
Passion (f=4)	Earning money (f=3)	"...I earned my own Money. I became happy. I took care of my children." (P4, G: W, A: 39)
	Spiritual pleasure (f=2)	"Doing this job was like a gift from Allah, helping children learn something. I was trying to teach them moral information in the most correct way. I was doing a job that I was very satisfied with spiritually. ... " (P6, G: W, A: 33)
Spirituality (f=3)	Faith (f=1)	"Happy at work, felt close to Allah, happy in the world. I became mouezzin at nine years old, I became an imam-sect leader at the age of twelve. My voice is fine. Miracle of Allah, I was always in the mosque, I was happy. ... " (P11, G: M, A: 43).
	Status (f=2)	"Engineering is a prestigious job. opened my business and they even brought the machines of big companies to me. I have earned respect with my job, I am valuable. I was happy..." (P16, G: M, A: 43)" (P16, G: M, A: 43)
Dignity (f=2)	Trust (f=2)	"In our country, the employer trusts his worker, he does not despise him, we also trust him. It's only been a week, I went to work and he entrusted me and he made me the cashier... He also trusted my work so he told the customers me to do it. There are no cameras everywhere like here..." (P10, G: M, A: 44)
	Trust (f=2)	

Note: f=Frequency (Number of participants' statements), P=Participant, G= Gender, W=Woman, M=Man

When the category of family and social relations is examined; spending time with the family, maintaining the family business, making the family proud with the work done and social relations at the workplace are the sources that make the participants happy in their country of origin. In the category of achievement, there are sources of happiness (codes) of competence and self-actualization. The other two categories that make up the codes frequently expressed by the participants are 'service to the country' and 'passion. There is the code of protecting the country and being beneficial to the society under

the service to the country category and loving the job/occupation under the passion category. Other sources (categories) that the participants stated as a reason for happiness in their work are, in the order of frequency of expression, 'material gain', 'spirituality', 'respect' and 'trust'. There is earning money under the category of material gain, spiritual satisfaction and faith under the category of spirituality, and status under the category of dignity.

Table 4. Sources of happiness in the work of refugees in the host country (Türkiye)

Category	Code	Example Statement of the Participant
Financial Income (f=13)	Making money (f=7)	"I am unhappy here. If my happiness at work is the top of Everest, here is the Mariana trench. Still, if you say something you're happy about for your job, I'm not helping anyone (asking for help from others). I somehow take care of my family, I can send my children to school, I can get their needs.." (P16, G: M, A: 42)
	Fixed income assurance (f=6)	"The day I got my work permit was my happiest day at work. Before that, I worked in construction, I was a waiter, I did the cleaning. It was very difficult. I couldn't find a job. Sometimes they didn't give my money, or they gave very little. I don't think about how to take money from my family anymore. I don't think about what I'm going to do tomorrow. ..." (P7, G: M, A:30)
Social Support (f=8)	Friendly and supportive workplace colleague (f=2)	"Of course, people were happier doing their own work, but here they saw my work first. Later, when they heard that I was Syrian, other friends did not behave badly. They are happy, they are having dinner with me together. They invite me and my children to their home. They help me when I need something. It was a pleasure for me to be treated well by my colleagues at work. I go to work happily because of these reasons." (P5, G: W, A: 31)
	Manager Support (f=2)	"My employer is a very good man. I worked in a tire shop before. I would do any of his work, but he treated me very badly. Now my business owner asks me how I am. ... I called one night and said the child is sick. He came, he helped me. Sometimes I say I don't understand (what is said in Turkish), he doesn't shout, he tries to teach me and explain. He listens and smiles it is good because I am away from my homeland." (P2, G: M, A: 42)
	Establishing Social Relationships (f=2)	"Customers come here. There are also people from my own country, but there are also Turkish customers from other countries. I talk to them, they know me. Then we become friends with some of them. I earn money thanks to this place, but I am very happy to meet good people and make friends...." (P8, G: M, A:31)
Autonomous Working Conditions (f=8)	Respect (f=2)	"I was despised and ostracized because I was Syrian. People didn't talk to me in some of my jobs. Then I got into this job. As they get to know me here, people treat me with respect, which is what I am most happy about. They do not despise me, they do not humiliate me... ." (P6, G: W, A: 33)
	Autonomy (f=4)	"I am happy with this job. I don't have a master. I worked at the washer. Get up, go shout. I do not understand, I say you are right, insult, anger. I said I hated it, let it go, it's any kind of money. I bought these vehicles. ... I work independently. I am comfortable, I know my own business..." (P1, G: M, A: 39)
Be Beneficial to Others (f=5)	Shifts/Flexible working hours(f=4)	"...I worked somewhere before. I worked six days, I worked at night. The boss called me all the time, he says come and go there. It's evening and the work doesn't end. There is no holiday. Now, this job is on time. I can do all my work. I'm going home in the evening. I take care of both my work and my life. I play with the children. I have time for my family." (P3, G: M, A: 42)
	Helping people in need (refugee/immigrant) (f=5)	"I help poor orphans. The customer always takes something even he has no money. Doing this job also allows me to help them. If someone starts a business, we find the money and give it to him. ... The patient needs a wheelchair. He will go to the hospital, he will leave. I took it. If it wasn't for this job, maybe I wouldn't have gotten it, I wouldn't have been able to help that much. I share what comes from Allah." (P9, G: M, A:37)
Fairness (f=4)	Fair and equal treatment (f=4)	"...I worked in day jobs. They didn't give me the money I deserved. I saw that they were giving more money to Turkish workers. But we worked in the same job. No matter, we have to, whatever is given, of course. I've felt bad. We found this job, there is no other job. But here they give me the same money, they treat me the same as they treat other workers." (P15, G: M, A: 30)
Appreciation (f=3)	Appreciation of the occupation (f=3)	"...I made furniture for a client by myself. It had been six or seven months since he had been employed. The closet was finished, ... brother liked it very much. He said that you learned this job, it was very nice. I went to the client's house and put it on, they liked it very much. I was very happy that day" (P7, G: M, A: 30)
Spirituality (f=2)	Earning Allah's approval (pleasure)(f=2)	"...There is no one happier than me when I help other people for the sake of Allah. Earlier, I was gaining his consent by helping spiritually, now I am still struggling for his consent, whether financially. Who needs me here I come, I'm going. Someone was going to get married, take this money and get married. I am so happy. they are smiling I am smiling" (P11, G: M, A: 43)

Note: f=Frequency (number of participants' statements), P=Participant, G= Gender, W=Woman, M=Man

In Table 4, codes and categories created based on the participants' experiences in which they felt good and happy in their work in the host country (Türkiye) are presented.

The two categories most frequently stated by the participants as the reason for happiness at work in Türkiye are 'financial income' and 'social support', respectively. When the financial income

category is examined; earning money and having a regular income are the sources that make the participants happy in Türkiye. Within the social support category, there are sincere and supportive workplace friendship, manager support, socialization and respect happiness sources (codes). Two other categories frequently stated by respondents are 'autonomous working conditions'

and 'useful to others'. Under the category of autonomous working conditions, there is the code of autonomy and working hours/flexible working, being helpful to others and helping refugees/migrants in need. Other sources (categories) that the participants stated as a reason for happiness in their work are "equity", "appreciation" and "spirituality", in the order of frequency of expression. Fair and equal treatment under the category of fairness, appreciation of the work under the category of appreciation, and gaining Allah's approval under the category of spirituality.

Categories and codes have been compared in the context of sources of happiness in two countries in order to find answers to the questions of "Have the reasons that make refugees happy at work changed in Türkiye?" (See Table 3 and Table 4). As a result of the comparison, it has been determined that the sources and priority reasons that make the participants happy in their jobs have changed in general. For example, while the number of participants who stated that they were happy in their job because they earned money in their country of origin was 3, none of the participants mentioned regular income security or permanent job guarantee as a reason for happiness. In Türkiye, earning money and the security of regular income have been the first reason for happiness that comes to mind and responded by 13 participants out of 16. Again, while none of the participants in the country of origin stated autonomous working conditions as a reason for happiness in their job in the country of origin, 8 participants in Türkiye stated that they were happy in their jobs because they could be autonomous in their work and working hours were convenient/flexible.

Finally, in order to find an answer to the question "Whether it is more pleasing for refugees to work in the country of origin or the host country and what are the reasons?", the answers of the participants were analyzed, and 6 codes were created under 2 categories. The findings are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The country where refugees feel happier at work and its reasons

Category	Code	Example Statement of the Participant
To work in the country of origin (f=14)	Belonging (home country, mother-tongue, fellow citizen) (f=12)	"... I am from Damascus, think like Ankara. My own country, my language, my friends. There is no fellow citizen here, they exclude us. They despise. I want to go back from here and start my business again..." (P3, G:M, A:42).
	To be able to do his/her own job-occupation (f=9)	"...I can't do my own business here; they don't accept my professional certificate. I thought to become a business partner with a Turkish. How comfortable and happy I was really doing my own business there. ..." (P13, G:M, A:38)
	Feeling valuable as a human being (f=7)	The people we do business in Türkiye do not respect or trust us. They want us to work in hourly, daily paid jobs. They don't value us. In our own country, we were valuable both as a business and as a human being..." (P14, G: M, A: 42)
To work in Türkiye (f=2)	No homeland to return and life safety (f=1)	"...I am very happy in Türkiye, I am Iraqi. War in Iraq, life is in danger. I don't have a home to return to... I'm happy no matter what job I do here ..." (P1, G:M, A:39)
	To own a regular job and life in Türkiye (f=1)	"...I started my own business here; I've been here for years. I have income. We're rooted here too ..." (P10, G:M, A:44)

Note: f=Frequency (number of participants' statements), P=Participant, G= Gender, W=Woman, M=Man

According to the findings, 14 out of 16 refugees stated that working in their own country was more pleasing," while only two stated that working in Türkiye was more pleasing and they did not want to return to their country of origin. The reasons why doing business in their own country is more enjoyable have been stated as belonging to the country and culture, being able to practice their own occupation and having built a career and being valued as a human being. The two reasons for those who say they are happier in their jobs in Türkiye and do not want to return are that there is no land to return, and they have a regular work-life in Türkiye.

Discussion and Conclusion

Individuals spend most of their time at work due to a choice or an obligation. A job where you spend

most of your time is not only a means of making money, but also a source of career choice, meaning and happiness. However, individuals' access to employment in qualified jobs may be restricted because they are in the disadvantaged group compared to the labor market and others due to the changes, difficulties, and obligations they experience. Especially for refugees who are included within the sample group of the current study, find themselves within the borders of another country and working environment and face with challenges such as not recognizing their education and vocational documents, exclusion in the labor market, and low social cohesion may make them work in a different occupation or in precarious jobs (agricultural worker, waiter, construction worker). etc.) to work (Çoban, 2018; Agudelo-Suárez, et al., 2021, Güneri, 2021). Besides, the level of happiness at work may differ from person to person, and the primary sources of happiness at work can also vary according to culture, physiological-psychological individual needs and factors, work and social life conditions. It is also known that refugees in the host country are more unhappy in their jobs than local workers, they have different working conditions with local workers of the same qualification, and the reasons for happiness differ (Liu et al., 2020). From this point of view, in this study, it has been aimed to reveal the reasons for the choice of work-occupation of refugees in their own countries and in Türkiye, the reasons that make them happy in their business life, and it has also been attempted to determine whether the resources that make them happy in their work in Türkiye have changed when compared to their own countries.

In line with the aim of the study, when the job-occupation and choice reasons of refugees are examined; refugees appear to be currently working in jobs appropriate to their qualifications, preferences and values and have financial security in the country of origin. In Türkiye, only three refugees who call themselves lucky are able to continue their occupation, whereas refugees with qualifications in the country of origin (teacher, police, engineer, pharmacist, health worker, etc.) do not have diplomas or professional qualifications in Türkiye and find jobs suitable for

them. It is observed that they are working as unskilled workers as they couldn't find jobs that match with their qualifications. Dietz et al. (2015) state that the more skilled and qualified immigrants are, the less likely they are to find a job compared to their local colleagues. Thirteen refugees face barriers to access to decent work (Fedrigo et al., 2021) due to various obstacles such as not having a work permit, social exclusion (economic, cultural exclusion, etc.) or not recognizing their qualifications. In the country of origin, refugees are able to continue the family business in the flow of career choice, family orientation, mastering the work that started as an apprentice in childhood, following their passions, self-employment and autonomy motivation, achieving status-respect, loyalty to the country, the desire to be useful to society and spirituality by choosing their career choices with these spiritual approaches. In the host country, the choice of job-occupation differs, and it is seen that the majority of the participants do not have the luxury of choosing a job-occupation, they work in jobs that are not suitable for their qualifications, they only want to support their families, not to become needy or dependent on others, and to improve their living standards again. A small group is striving to regain a permanent occupation, and the job motivation of the person whose career choice was spiritual in the country of origin remained the same in the host country.

In line with the other purpose of the study, the relevant sources of happiness at work were categorized in order to discover what the sources of happiness in the country of origin and in Türkiye could be for refugees to be happy at work. The sources that make them happy in their job in the country of origin are, in order of frequency of expression; family and social relations, achievement, service to the country, passion, financial income, spirituality, dignity and trust. The fact that family happiness and emotional ties contribute greatly to their happiness at work reveals once again that happiness at work depends on social life as much as it is affected by the work environment. Family relationships are one of the most fundamental factors affecting the happiness of individuals (Lambert, et al., 2010). Satisfaction

with life and emotional well-being constitute some of the building blocks of happiness at work (Ender-Büyükbay & Bozbura, 2017; Khatri & Gupta, 2019). However, the statement of emotion-intensive resources in the first place can be characterized as a reflection of the importance given to relationships and family bonds in eastern cultures.

The sources that make refugees happy at work in Türkiye are, in order of frequency of expression; financial income, social support, autonomous working conditions, being useful to others, equity, appreciation and spirituality. The priority in the host country that keeps refugees happy at work has changed. It has been found out that earning enough money that they do not need anyone to look after their families and having a regular income security are important reasons for them to be happy in their jobs. Again, while autonomous working conditions are not a reason for happiness in the country of origin, half of the participants in Türkiye report that working in jobs where they can be autonomous, not working under a person's command and working hours are suitable for them, along with social support in their jobs are the potential reasons for happiness at work. This change may be due to the change of dominant needs in the hierarchy of needs (Ginevra et al., 2021) and the limited access to decent work (Stave et al., 2021).

When the research findings are evaluated in general, it can be concluded that the needs of refugees to be successful in their jobs and self-actualization remain hidden in Türkiye. In a recent study, it was found that the most basic desire of refugees is to have a job, to have financial resources, to obtain a residence permit to access the rights and services offered by the host country in order to meet the physiological and safety needs of themselves and their families. Elements such as self-development, realization and leisure time outside of work have been expressed very little (Ginevra et al., 2021). Therefore, the fact that they have enough financial income to meet their vital needs makes them happy. Again, supportive relationships in the workplace increase refugees' self-worth perception and job satisfaction which has also been proven by other studies that they experience psychological problems when their perception of social support is low or when they

are exposed to social discrimination (Pasca & Wagner, 2012). It has also been found that refugees who are exposed to high job demands in their jobs and have low freedom of decision-making are at high risk for mental health problems (Porru et al., 2014). One of the striking findings of the study is that refugees report that they are happy to have the opportunity to help those in need with the money they earn from their jobs. Benefiting others is one of the resources that enable individuals to find meaning in their work and professional life and triggers a meaningful work and life happiness (Alparslan et al., 2022; Lips-Wiersma et al., 2023)

It should not be forgotten that business life is central to the well-being of individuals. It is thought that everyone has the right to work in decent working conditions and to reach physical and psychological well-being in business life. As the International Labor Organization (2023) emphasizes, besides generating income, work can lead the way for social and economic progress. It can empower individuals, their families, and the communities to which they belong. However, in this study, the vast majority of refugees are unhappy with their jobs in the host country, and it was found out that they were working in these jobs out of necessity and desperation. As Bastia and Skeldon (2020) stated, despite these difficulties, refugee workers who cannot return to their country due to the difficult living conditions in the country of origin are willing to work in the host country and benefit the country's economy.

Although there are studies in the national literature on topics such as general mental health and well-being of refugees, working conditions and integration, this study is unique in terms of revealing the reasons for job-occupational choice and job happiness by comparing it with the country of origin. However, the study has some limitations. The findings of the study are based on cross-sectional research, and it is thought that a longitudinal study conducted in different time periods can better reveal the cause and effect relationship and changes in the causes of happiness in the host country. Another limitation is that the study was carried out with 16 refugees who could be reached. Although the study was terminated when the codes reached saturation, in other words, when the participants' statements

became repetitive, it is recommended to conduct research that supports the findings of the study or reveals the differences by reaching participants in different provinces and under different working conditions. It is thought that conducting research on a larger and professionally diverse sample in future studies and obtaining more generalizable results from large study groups with the quantitative method will contribute to the literature.

In addition, it is observed that the research conducted in the national literature is mostly on issues such as the immigrant problem, the labor force participation processes of immigrants, working conditions, their effects on the labor market, social exclusions and their consequences, general mental health and social policies that can be developed. However, as in the world, there are very limited studies in the national literature on how immigrants' poor working conditions or their inability to demonstrate their expertise, craft, or profession in the host country affects their quality of life, happiness at work, job satisfaction or positive work attitudes such as work motivation. This may be primarily due to the difficulty of conducting research in host countries, which are understandably reluctant to examine the poor working and living conditions of refugees (Simkhada et al., 2017, p. 6). Additionally, as mentioned before, refugees are in need of these jobs and employers turn this situation into an opportunity, and it can be said that because they are exposed to exclusion and felt unwanted by society, their well-being and happiness are not given due importance by both researchers and practitioners. In particular, as indicated in the study of Erol et al. (2017), there exists a group of people who have skilled professions such as pharmacy, teaching, engineering, and police in the country of origin, but they have to work in daily unskilled jobs in the host country, instead of practicing their own profession. Therefore, even if it is stated that some precautions should be taken, it is a requirement to recognize these skills, control and improve their working conditions, and therefore protect their mental health when including migrant workers into the workforce (Herold et al., 2023), and it can be said that there is

a need for more research and policy development on these issues. Work and labor represent a spirit beyond materiality similar to the context of decent work; considering that everyone has the right to access to good working conditions, welfare, and well-being, it is thought that it is essential to provide refugee workers with working conditions where they can practice their profession, where their work is appreciated, where their rights are protected, and where they can create their identity and happiness, not just to take care of their families or feed themselves..

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Perspectives of Roma Women on Gender Equality: A Qualitative Study in Mersin

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Abstract

This research was conducted with the aim of examining the perspectives of Roma women on gender equality within the framework of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. The study was designed based on the phenomenological approach, which is a qualitative research method. The study group was limited to ten Roma women residing in Mersin. The data for the research were obtained through individual in-depth interviews. In the analysis of the data, the content analysis technique was used. As a result of content analysis, the research findings were examined by forming themes within the sub-goals set for 'Gender Equality,' one of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. These themes include: (1) Education, (2) Discrimination against women and girls, (3) Domestic violence, (4) Early or forced marriage, (5) Economic and social opportunity equality (6) Reproductive health and rights. According to the research findings, Roma community often adheres to traditional views, Roma women experience gender inequality, lack access to quality education, lack economic and social opportunities, and are not sufficiently involved in public spaces and the workforce. It has been revealed that Roma women face discrimination due to both their ethnic origin and gender, which causes double disadvantage in the context of intersectionality

Keywords: Gender equality, United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, Roma women, double disadvantage, intersectionality

Sept 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466/opusjsr.1297338

Citation:

Şanlı, B.& Furtana, S. (2023). Perspectives of Roma Women on Gender Equality: A Qualitative Study in Mersin *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 637-648.

Öz

Bu araştırma, 'Birleşmiş Milletler Sürdürülebilir Kalkınma Hedefleri' kapsamında, Roman kadınların toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliğine ilişkin görüşlerinin incelenmesi amacıyla yapılmıştır. Araştırma, nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden fenomenolojik yaklaşıma dayalı olarak desenlenmiştir. Çalışma grubu, Mersin ilinde ikamet eden on Roman kadın ile sınırlıdır. Araştırmanın verileri, bireysel derinlemesine görüşme tekniği kullanılarak elde edilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde, içerik analizi tekniği kullanılmıştır. İçerik analizi sonucunda araştırma bulguları, Birleşmiş Milletler Sürdürülebilir Kalkınma Hedefleri'nden biri olan 'Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği' için belirlenen alt hedefler kapsamında temalar oluşturularak incelenmiştir. Bu temalar: (1) Eğitim (2) Kadınlara ve kız çocuklarına yönelik ayrımcılık, (3) Aile içi şiddet, (4) Erken yaşta ya da zoraki evlilik, (5) Ekonomik ve sosyal fırsat eşitliği, (6) Üreme sağlığı ve üreme hakları şeklindedir. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, Roman toplumunun çoğu zaman geleneksel görüşlere sahip olduğu, Roman kadınların toplumsal cinsiyet eşitsizliğine maruz kaldıkları, nitelikli eğitim imkanına erişemedikleri, ekonomik ve sosyal fırsat eşitliğine sahip olmadıkları, kamusal alana ve çalışma yaşamına yeterince katılmadıkları belirlenmiştir. Roman kadınların, hem etnik kökenleri hem de cinsiyetleri nedeniyle ayrımcılıkla karşı karşıya kaldıkları, bu durumun da kesişimsellik bağlamında çifte dezavantaja neden olduğu ortaya konmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Toplumsal cinsiyet eşitliği, Birleşmiş Milletler Sürdürülebilir Kalkınma Hedefleri, Roman kadınlar, çifte dezavantaj, kesişimsellik.

Introduction

The concept of gender, pertains to the socially constructed obligations and responsibilities of women and men, femininity and masculinity, rather than physical attributes that lead to differences based on their sex (Günindi-Ersoz, 2016:21-22). According to Giddens (2000:616,621), the term "gender" refers not only to the physical attributes, but also to the socially constructed characteristics of masculinity and femininity. Within the socialization process, the differences between boys and girls regarding what they learn and the cultural expectations of gender-appropriate roles are examined within this concept. Gender is used to indicate that the disparities between sexes are more dependent on social processes rather than biological processes (Dökmen, 2009:23-25). Gender is defined as a culturally, regionally, and historically varying gender identity. This concept not only addresses gender differences but also explains the unequal power relations between genders (Berktaş, 2009:16). "Gender equality" refers to individuals having equal access to and utilization of existing resources, opportunities, and power within various social institutions such as family, work, law, education, politics, religion, and healthcare. Gender-based inequalities encompass social, economic, public, legal, and political rights, as well as issues such as access to education, employment, land, and capital, limited access to healthcare and related services, and experiences of violence, harassment, and abuse (Ecevit, 2003: 83-85).

The United Nations defines "sustainable development" as economic, social, and environmental development that ensures present and future generations' well-being, dignity, gender equality, ecological integrity, and social justice (United Nations, 2014: 26). Sustainable development, which encompasses economic, social, and environmental dimensions, is defined as "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Engin and Akgoz, 2013: 85). The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals consist of 17 main goals and 169 targets. The fifth goal called "Gender equality, empowerment of women and girls" includes targets such as: 'Ending

discrimination against women and girls', 'eliminating all forms of violence, eradicate early and forced marriages', 'promoting the sharing of responsibilities within the family', 'attributing unpaid care and housework', 'providing equal opportunities for women in political, economic and social life and decision-making processes' and 'providing access to sexual health and reproductive rights' (United Nation, 2014).

According to the results of studies conducted on the Roma community in Turkey, Roma individuals face various challenges such as poverty, social exclusion, limited access to education services, insufficient employment opportunities or informal work, lack of social security coverage, inability to benefit from social assistance programs, unhealthy housing conditions, discrimination, and similar issues (Akkan, Deniz, & Ertan, 2011; Aksu, 2003; Arayıcı, 1999; Çelik, & Yüce-Tar, 2015; Fırat, & İlhan, 2019; Kolukırık, 2006; Özkan, 2000). In order to improve the living conditions of the Roma, the "Strategy Document for Roma Citizens" (2023-2030) was prepared by the Ministry of Family and Social Services of the Republic of Turkey. The 'Action Plans' are based on education, employment, housing, health, social services, social assistance and general policy issues. Gender inequality experienced by women in the Roma community; multidimensional disadvantage is most transparently visible. This situation is discussed under the headings of education, employment, health, poverty and social exclusion (Kaymak & Yılmaz, 2022:67). At this point, in addition to the limitations brought by the Roma society, the disadvantages that Roma women experience due to their gender can be defined as a 'double disadvantage' in the context of 'intersectionality'.

In the literature, it is seen that various researches, projects and activities have been carried out by associations and federations regarding Roma. However, it has been determined that scientific studies are limited in number. In this regard, there is a need for research that focuses on Roma women's perspectives on gender equality, taking into account the challenges they face.

The purpose of this research is to examine the perspectives of Roma women on gender equality

within the framework of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. The qualitative study analyzed research findings within six themes, which were created in parallel with the sub-goals established for the Sustainable Development Goal of 'Gender Equality': (1) Education, (2) Discrimination against women and girls, (3) Domestic violence, (4) Early or forced marriage, (5) Economic and social opportunity equality, (6) Sexual and reproductive health and rights.

Method

Model of the Research

This research is designed based on the phenomenological approach, which is one of the qualitative research methods. Phenomenology refers to the sum of lived experiences belonging to a single person (Giorgi, 1997: 236). Phenomenology is a qualitative research method used to describe people's understandings, feelings, perspectives, and perceptions of a particular experience, situation, or concept (Rose, Beeby & Parker, 1995: 1124).

Population and Sample of the Research

The population of this research consists of all Roma women residing in Mersin province. The study group is limited to ten Roma women who are 18 years of age or older, voluntarily participating in the research and selected through snowball sampling method. The distribution of socio-demographic characteristics of the participating Roma women is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of Socio-Demographical Characteristics of Roma Women

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Number
Age	
20-30 years	4
31-40 years	2
41-50 years	3
51-60 years	1
Marital Status	
Married	10
Single	0
Marriage Age	

14-17 years	3
18-21 years	5
21 years and above	2
Family Type	
Nuclear family	4
Extended family	6
Educational Status	
Literate and did not complete primary school	4
Primary school	4
Middle school	1
High school	0
Associate degree	1
Number of Siblings	
1-3 siblings	4
3-5 siblings	0
5-7 siblings	4
7-9 siblings	2
Working Status	
Working	5
Not working	5
Retired	0
Place of Birth	
Adana	4
Mersin	6
Longest Lived Settlement	
Adana	2
Antalya	1
Mersin	6
Niğde	1
Total	10

Data Collection Tools

The data for the study were collected through the "personal information form" and the "individual in-depth interview questionnaire." The "personal information form" aimed to determine the socio-demographic characteristics that could influence the participants' views on gender equality. The "individual in-depth interview questionnaire," which served as another data collection tool, aimed to gather information from Roma women on various topics.

Application of Data Collection Tools

The research data was collected between September 4, 2020, and September 14, 2020, by responsible researchers using the individual in-depth interview technique. The interviews were conducted either at the Mediterranean Roma Associations Federation building, frequently

visited by Roma people in Mersin province, or in the participants' homes. The entire data was recorded using an audio recording device. Verbal and written consent was obtained from the participants for the interviews and recording purposes. The average duration of the interviews was 40 minutes. A total of 382 minutes of audio recordings and 84 pages of transcriptions were obtained.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained from individual in-depth interviews was first transferred to computer software by transcribing the interview transcripts. Content analysis method was used for the qualitative analysis of the transferred data in the computer software. After carefully reading the raw data, the data was coded by the researcher. The coded data was then brought together to form themes. The generated themes were sent to two experts with qualitative research experience for their opinions. After receiving the expert feedback, the content analysis was completed.

Limitations of the Research

The main limitation of the study is the low number of participants who agreed to have face-to-face interviews due to the pandemic.

Findings

The themes and codes obtained from the analysis of the findings collected through interviews on gender equality of Roma women are presented in Table 2.

As indicated in Table 2, the findings obtained through the conducted interviews are categorized under six themes: 'education', 'discrimination against women and girls', 'domestic violence', 'early or forced marriage', 'economic and social opportunity equality', and 'reproductive health and rights'.

Education Theme

In the study, a significant majority of the participants (n=8) have discontinued their education. Most of the participants (n=6) have inadequate study opportunities at home, and a considerable portion of them (n=4) have not been able to access educational opportunities. Among the ten women participating in the research, four have only basic literacy skills or have not completed primary school, while four have completed primary school.

The participants expressed their reasons for not being able to complete their education. Some mentioned having to work at an early age due to poverty (n=3), having the obligation to take care of younger siblings (n=2), and getting married at an early age (n=3). For example, H., a 24-year-old participant, stated, *"I really wanted to study. I wanted to go to regular high school. My older brothers didn't allow it. They hindered me. At that time, I had a friendship with my husband. So, I left my school and eloped with my husband. Now I am married and have two children. I'm very sad that I couldn't pursue my education. I want my children to achieve what I couldn't."*

Theme of Discrimination against Women and Girls

Almost all of the women participating in the research (n=9) expressed a positive outlook on life. Three participants mentioned that life is worth living despite its challenges. For example, Y., a 46-year-old participant, stated, *"I have to stand strong for my children."*

The majority of the participants (n=8) expressed the opinion that there should be different behaviors and attitudes in raising boys and girls within the family. T., a 33-year-old participant who advocated for the necessity of differences in raising boys and girls, stated, *"In my opinion, boys should be in the foreground and girls should be in the background. We need to limit girls. You never know what might happen if we don't set boundaries."*

The participants were asked, *"Are you happy to have been born as a woman?"* Six women answered "Yes", while four expressed the desire to have been born

Table 2.Views of Roma Women on Gender Equality

THEMES	CODES	f
Education	My education was interrupted.	8
	I did not have enough opportunities to study at home.	6
	I did not have access to education.	4
	I can only read and write.	4
	My other family members did not receive education either.	4
	My education was interrupted due to early marriage.	3
	I had to work at an early age due to poverty.	3
	I could not go to school because of the obligation to care for younger siblings.	2
Discrimination against Women and Girls	I have a positive outlook on life.	9
	There should be different behaviors and attitudes about raising girls and boys in the family.	8
	I have a positive view of children flirting.	7
	Being a Roma woman has its challenges.	6
	I am not happy that I was born as a woman.	6
	Girls are limited in the way they dress.	5
	Girls are limited in their entry and exit times.	4
	I am happy that I was born as a woman.	4
	Girls have trouble leaving the house.	4
	Life is worth living despite the difficulties.	3
	I am having difficulties because of the traditional family structure.	3
	There is inequality in gender roles.	2
	There should not be different behaviors and attitudes about raising girls and boys in the family.	2
	There is no discrimination against women and girls.	2
	Domestic Violence	I know the meaning of physical violence.
I have been emotionally abused.		6
I was exposed to economic violence.		5
I don't know about other types of violence other than physical violence.		4
While I was single, I experienced psychological pressure from the family.		5
Women should not be exposed to violence.		5
I have seen physical violence.		3
I experienced psychological pressure in marriage.		3
I have never been pressured.		2
Early or Forced Marriage	My marriage took place between the ages of 18-21.	5
	I married the person the elders saw fit.	4
	I got married at an early age.	3
	I had a forced marriage without my consent.	3
	I regret marriage.	2
Economic and Social Opportunity Equality	Women must work.	10
	Women's participation in working life is viewed positively by other people.	7
	Domestic responsibilities belong to women.	7
	My wife does not participate in the domestic work division.	7
	Men and women are not equal.	6
	I am not currently working in an income generating job.	5
	Equality between men and women is required.	4
	Men and women are equal.	
	Male wives help with domestic chores.	3
	After getting married, I ended my working life.	3
	I have to work.	3
	I want to return to business life.	2
Reproductive Health and Reproductive Rights	I have children.	10
	I only go to the obstetrician if needed.	10
	Every woman must be a mother.	7
	I do not have enough information about reproductive health and reproductive rights.	4
	We had children in the first year of our marriage.	4
I don't think women should necessarily be mothers.	3	

as men. D., a 29-year-old participant who answered "No", explained, "*Being a man is very difficult; they have a lot of responsibilities. They have to provide for a family their whole life.*" S., a 28-year-old participant who expressed the desire to have been born as a man, stated, "*We both work. I cook, take care of the child, and do the cleaning. My husband doesn't help me at all.*"

Domestic Violence Theme

The participants were asked if they were aware of instances of violence within their families and the types of violence they experienced. It was found that all participants (n=10) were aware of what physical violence meant. However, when asked about other types of violence such as economic, emotional, and sexual violence, four participants stated that they were not familiar with these types of violence apart from physical violence. When the concept of violence and its different types were explained to the participants, five mentioned experiencing economic violence, three mentioned physical violence, and six mentioned emotional violence. D., a 31-year-old participant, shared her experience, saying, "*I have experienced every type of violence except for sexual violence in my marriage. That's why I separated from my husband for a while, but later I got back together for the sake of my children.*"

During the interviews, five participants stated that they experienced pressure from their families (mother, father, older or younger brothers) during their singlehood. Three participants mentioned feeling pressured after getting married. Two participants claimed that they never felt pressured at any stage of their lives.

Early or Forced Marriage Theme

All of the participating Roma women (n=10) are married. Three of the participants reported that they had entered into forced marriages without their personal consent. Four participants stated that their marriages were arranged by their families, following the traditional matchmaking process. 46-year-old Y. expressed, "*I am married to my uncle's son. The elders made the decision for my marriage.*" 42-year-old S. said, "*I got married late at*

the age of 34 under pressure. To be fair, they weren't entirely wrong. I was a woman who didn't work or study, so why should I remain at home after the age of 34?" 31-year-old D. commented, "*I married my husband by mutual agreement. However, my three sisters got married through arranged marriages.*"

According to the findings obtained from the interviews, it was determined that three participants got married at a young age, between 14 and 17. Five participants, on the other hand, got married between the ages of 18 and 21. Two participants stated that they regretted their marriage even though they had given their consent beforehand. 29-year-old M. expressed, "*As Roma people, we form our friendships and marriages within our own community, with other Roma individuals. We get married at a young age, and then we regret it.*"

Theme of Economic and Social Opportunity Equality

In the research, participants were asked whether they were employed or not in terms of economic and social equal opportunities. Half of the participants (n=5) stated that they were not employed. However, out of the five participants who mentioned not being employed, three stated that they had worked before getting married but were unable to work afterwards due to having young children and the lack of someone to provide care for them.

All participants (n=10) in the research expressed the opinion that women must work. A significant majority of the participants (n=7) indicated that people generally view women's presence in the workforce positively. Seven participants stated that their spouses did not contribute to household chores and that all the responsibilities fell on them. 42-year-old S. stated, "*As women, we can do many things we want, but we are not equal when it comes to the division of household chores and child care.*"

Four participants expressed the view that "*Women and men should be equal.*" The opinion of 29-year-old S. on this matter is as follows: "*There should be equality between women and men, but I actually expect this equality, the absence of any form of violence, and the increase in job opportunities not from society, but from women themselves.*"

Theme of Reproductive Health and Reproductive Rights

All of the Roma women participants in the study (n=10) are mothers. Four participants stated that they had children in the first year of their marriage. Seven participants advocated the view that *"Every woman should be a mother."* 29-year-old M. expressed, *"Every woman should be a mother. In the Roma society, there is no woman without children."* On the other hand, 33-year-old T. stated, *"Every woman should be a mother. Why should there be unrest in her home? Let her have at least one child. Otherwise, there may be people telling her she is infertile and advising her to give up."*

All of the participants (n=10) stated that they visit a gynecologist when necessary. Four participants expressed that they do not have sufficient knowledge about reproductive health and reproductive rights. 46-year-old Y. stated, *"I last went for a check-up when my son was one and a half years old. Now my son is seven years old."* The views of 42-year-old S. are as follows: *"I cannot afford to have regular check-ups because I don't have health insurance. Our economic situation is not good, so I can't go to the doctor when I need to."*

Discussion

Based on the findings of the study, when evaluating the participants' views on the theme of "education," it has been revealed that Roma women do not have sufficient access to education and do not receive quality education due to various reasons. These reasons include poverty, the lack of prioritization of education due to poverty, early marriages, inadequate physical conditions in the home environment, and the need to work at a young age. The fact that Roma women have to work from a young age due to poverty, the responsibility of taking care of their siblings, and the prioritization of basic physiological needs such as nutrition and shelter due to poverty have directly affected their education process. A 44-year-old participant states, *"Non-Roma girls continue their education when they have boyfriends. We get married at the age of 13-14 and drop out of school immediately."* This statement highlights the

situation of early marriages as a reason for the incomplete education of Roma youth. In the research, the issue of ending educational life in the Roma community is often attributed to environmental factors, as mentioned in this example, and it is stated that very few individuals receive education. According to Günindi Ersöz (2016:68), education is one of the fundamental tools for elevating individuals' social status within society. Despite being a powerful tool for both social and individual change that can minimize gender inequalities, education is not provided to girls or they are forced to drop out early. According to Genç, Taylan and Barış (2015), Roma individuals do not have sufficient access to educational opportunities. The obligation to attend schools based on residential address makes it difficult for Roma individuals living in segregated areas to have educational opportunities with non-Roma groups. In the Roma community, girls' school attendance rate is low because of traditional reasons (Balkız ve Göktepe, 2014: 15). Gökçe (2019:884) evaluated the dropout status of girls from education in the Roma community at the intersection of gender, ethnicity and class.

In the scope of the research, when examining the theme of "discrimination against women and girls," the views of the participants reveal the unequal treatment and gender roles within the Roma community. A 28-year-old participant, S., expresses her opinion by saying, *"I don't think men and women are equal in our society, nor in the Roma community. We restrict and interfere more with girls in terms of how they dress and where they go. Boys are raised more freely and independently. They are not interfered with as much."* Another participant, D., aged 31, states, *"In our community, men are considered superior. Women are always told things like 'you're a woman, cook, take care of your children, and if your husband yells at you, stay quiet.' Women are always oppressed."* It has been observed that although the participants adopt an egalitarian perspective on gender equality (such as equal opportunities in the workforce, choice of partner, and fair division of labor), they feel that they cannot achieve the desired equality in household chores, childcare, commuting hours, and clothing style due to societal expectations and predefined gender roles. The research concludes that the

participating Roma women have an egalitarian view of gender equality and advocate for gender equality. However, they argue that the societal expectations and assigned roles prevent the realization of this equality. According to Dökmen (2009:101), discrimination is the behavioral expression of prejudices and stereotypes. It is possible to mention the existence of racial and gender discrimination. Çetin (2017:86) argues that racial prejudice and discrimination occupy a significant place, especially in Western literature. Throughout history, Roma people have faced prejudice and discrimination, including social exclusion, poverty, unemployment, inadequate housing, and limited access to basic rights and services. According to Uzpeder et al. (2008:1), Roma people in Turkey face prejudice, discrimination, and exclusion from both the general population and other minority groups. They are still not fully accepted as an integral part of society and encounter significant barriers in exercising their basic rights on an equal basis with other citizens. Fırat and İlhan (2019:276) suggest that Roma people are viewed with skepticism due to their lifestyle, behaviors, physical characteristics, and seclusion. As a result, they have constantly been rejected and subjected to various forms of exclusion. Roma women face multiple discriminations at the 'intersection of gender, ethnicity and class'. This situation limits their participation in the public sphere (Ravnø, 2011:12-15). Therefore, Roma women transmit the same problems from generation to generation in a vicious circle.

In the scope of the research, participants' views on various forms of "domestic violence", including physical, economic, emotional, and sexual violence, were examined. Six participants reported experiencing emotional violence, five experienced economic violence, and three experienced physical violence. A 46-year-old participant, Y., said, *"I experienced physical violence in my marriage. It happened, you know. But no woman should experience violence. We see physical violence a lot around us and on television. I think women should have rights. Do they have any? I don't know."* It was determined that Roma women, when they become victims of violence, lack sufficient knowledge about their legal rights as women. Some participants

expressed that even if they were subjected to any form of violence, they couldn't openly talk about it and could conceal it. Additionally, participant H. expressed the opinion, *"Who would admit to experiencing violence?"* All participants in the research stated that they had not experienced sexual violence. It was observed that participants avoided using the term "sexual violence" and instead said, "I haven't experienced that," while avoiding eye contact with the researcher. The acceptance and internalization of violence by women, due to the patriarchal structure of society, may explain why instances of domestic violence are sometimes not disclosed. Furthermore, it was argued that women should be involved in the workforce to have control over their homes, to obtain their needs freely, and to avoid economic violence from their partners. A 42-year-old participant, S., expressed the view, *"Roma women must work in order to raise their voices and say I exist."* Participants believe that economic independence leads to less exposure to inequality, spousal pressure, and domestic violence. When examining the literature, it is stated that violence against women is an important social problem that has persisted from the past to the present, with violence having a learned dimension and being transmitted from generation to generation (Altıparmak, 2018). In patriarchal societies, when the traditional and cultural structures assigned to women and men are examined, the dominance of men over women leads to the occurrence of violence and creates a basis for the normalization of violence. This situation leads to women who internalize violence to choose silence instead of seeking help (Yılmaz, 2015). It can be said that Roma women are suppressed by violence and confined to traditional roles. Institutions such as family, education, state, religion, and media are places where gender roles are reproduced in the social structure. Women's productive powers, fertility, sexuality, freedom of movement, and property rights are controlled by the male-dominant system (Saygılıgil, 2016:9).

When the theme of "early or forced marriage" was evaluated within the scope of the research, it was found that a significant number of women participating in the study got married at a very young age. It was also noted that some marriages

were forced marriages without consent, under the pressure of family or society. Additionally, it is an important finding that all participants in the research were married and had children. This finding alone raises questions about the traditional perspective of the Roma community towards women and family. Based on this information, it can be argued that Roma women are not free to make decisions about their own lives and bodies. When the literature on research conducted in the Roma community is examined, parallel results can be observed. Taylan (2016) revealed that the average age of marriage in the Roma community is 12, and nearly half of the marriages take place before the age of 18. Early marriages lead to Roma women being disconnected from education. The reasons for early marriages include love, ignorance, family wishes, kinship relations, societal conditions, compulsion, family problems, and fear of not being able to marry later. Ugurlu (2013) states that the crowded living conditions of large family members in a single room due to poverty lead to a lack of privacy within families, creating an environment that encourages early marriages for both girls and boys.

When evaluated in terms of "economic and social equal opportunities," the Roma women participating in the research emphasize the importance of being part of the workforce. However, they state that when they are in the working environment, they have a say in their homes and feel stronger and more liberated. H., a 24-year-old participant, expressed the opinion that "...Roma women cannot work in insured jobs because they lack documentation." S., a 28-year-old participant, made an observation stating, "We are marginalized; being both women and Roma is a disadvantage for us." They also mentioned that they often have to hide their identities when among non-Roma individuals. Despite facing discrimination, prejudice, exclusion, gender inequality, and poverty, it is observed that Roma women continue to struggle against the difficulties of life and strive to keep their families together. When examining the research results conducted on Roma people in the literature, it is evident that concepts such as prejudice and social exclusion stand out as the underlying problems in terms of economic and social equal opportunities. The

labeling of Roma people with terms like dangerous, outsiders, others, and risky groups has subjected them to various forms of oppression in the societies they live in. Due to the perceptions formed about the Roma community, they are in a disadvantaged position socio-economically and culturally (Adıguzel, 2020). When the perception of marginalization towards the Roma community is combined with being a woman, women stated that they have to hide their Roma identity next to "gadjos" (non-Roma) and experience a double disadvantage as "other Roma women." Roma women engage in a significant struggle against poverty. (Balkan, 2020). In order to address the discrimination, risks, and other difficulties faced by women due to gender inequality, it is necessary to establish preventive and protective social policies aimed at resolving these issues (Bağdatlı-Vural, 2016:104). The insufficient participation of women in public life, their confinement to the private sphere, and their inadequate access to education and employment opportunities lead to poverty. This situation can be defined as the impoverishment of women. Being dependent on a life without economic freedom makes women vulnerable to all forms of violence in a male-dominated society. The concept of social rights, as defined by Çelik and Yüce-Tar (2015:621), includes the provision of compulsory education, healthcare, and social services to everyone, as well as the right to a civilized and quality life in accordance with the prevailing standards in society. Due to the unequal distribution of social rights, certain segments of the population are deprived of these rights, causing a widening gap between the average and the marginalized. Akkan, Deniz and Ertan (2011:25) underline that Roma people are one of the most disadvantaged groups in Turkish society and being Roma is a state of poverty. The main problem areas mentioned are employment, education, housing, and health. According to Akgül (2021), it has a paradoxical effect that Roma girls have to work at an early age and end their education. While it causes women to remain uneducated, work in informal, insecure and temporary jobs, it causes them to learn to survive by gaining a sense of responsibility and become stronger in public life.

During the research, it was found that the Roma women interviewed had insufficient knowledge about “reproductive health and rights”. They mentioned that they only visit doctors in case of emergency instead of regular check-ups, and early marriages often lead to childbirth within the first year of marriage. It is important to note that all participants in the research were married and had children, which reflects the traditional perspective of the Roma community towards women and family. The educational status of the participants varied, with some being literate but having left primary school, while others had completed primary school or had attended vocational school. It was observed that in the Roma community, having a child is highly valued, and motherhood is seen as a 'duty' for women. Women who are unable to have children are mentioned to be excluded and pitied. As the educational level of Roma women increases, their evaluation styles of events and situations differ. Four participants argued that women who cannot have children are looked upon with pity in the Roma community, while six participants mentioned being excluded and judged for not being able to give birth. A 31-year-old participant named D. shared her opinion, saying, *"As soon as we get married, we should have children. If a woman doesn't have a child, they ask why you don't have a child."* Based on the obtained opinions, it can be suggested that the lack of regular doctor check-ups regarding reproductive health is related to the economic insufficiency and lack of social security. Literature review reveals that there is a lack of research specifically focused on the reproductive health and rights of Roma women. A study conducted by Eskioçak and Akbaşak (2017) comparing Roma and non-Roma women in Edirne province found that 42.8% of Roma women had social security, while 79% of non-Roma women had social security. However, according to a study on Racism Xenophobia by the European Monitoring Centre (2023), which also addresses the issue of Roma women's reproductive health, barriers to Roma women's access to the health system are linked to their working conditions, educational status and culture. In addition, Roma's problems such as difficult working conditions in marginal professions, early marriages, lack of sufficient knowledge about

reproductive and sexual health, high fertility and abortion rates can also be listed among the problems experienced by Roma women.

Conclusion

Through in-depth individual interviews conducted with Roma women residing in Mersin, this research has gathered insights regarding economic, social, and environmental issues, as well as views on gender inequality, discrimination, and disadvantages faced by the community. The participants' perspectives have been examined within the framework of the sub-goals set for achieving "gender equality," one of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. These perspectives shed light on the educational opportunities for Roma women and girls, the discrimination they face, domestic violence often experienced within families, early or non-consensual marriages, decision-making regarding motherhood, reproductive health, as well as access to economic resources, social services, and opportunities.

According to the research findings, it has been determined that the Roma women who participated in the study generally hold egalitarian views regarding gender equality. However, the results obtained from the participants' statements indicate that the Roma community often adheres to traditional beliefs. It has been identified that Roma women are subjected to gender inequality, lack access to quality education, do not have equal economic and social opportunities, and are unable to fully participate in the public sphere and work life. It has also been determined that Roma women experience discrimination not only based on their ethnic background but also due to their gender, highlighting the double disadvantage they face.

Lastly, it has been revealed that women experience inequality due to poverty in addition to being exposed to patriarchal family structure and gender discrimination in Roma society in the context of 'intersectionality'. It is believed that this research will contribute to the literature by examining Roma women within the framework of the Sustainable Development Goals and the perspective of gender equality. Particularly, it is necessary to increase access to education

opportunities for Roma women and promote affirmative actions to enable their participation in the public sphere and employment. In order to improve the quality of life for Roma women, it is essential for the government, local authorities, universities, and civil society organizations to collaborate and develop policies. Projects should be designed to prevent discrimination against Roma women, which is often fueled by prejudiced perceptions and stereotypes. The 'Local Equality Action Plans' of local governments should include the strengthening of the Roma community and the improvement of living conditions. District-based studies should be planned in order for social inclusion to be realized. Thus, through the work with microgroups, a meaningful contribution will be made to the achievement of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals on improving the living standards of the Roma community.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Herstory of the Periphery: Approaching Placemaking through Feminist Autoethnography

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1347503](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1347503)

Citation:

Bektaş Ata, L. & Coşar, S. (2023).

Herstory of the Periphery:

Approaching Placemaking

through Feminist

Autoethnography

OPUS– Journal of Society

Research, 20(55), 649-656.

Abstract

This article elaborated on the possibilities of feminist interference to the reading of informal settlements. In so doing, we focused on a squatter settlement (Limontepe) in a metropolitan municipality (İzmir Metropolitan Municipality) in Turkey, and tried to interrogate the institutional, official history, based on city registers, parliamentary decisions and state and municipality archives. We argue that the way peripheral populations and/or marginalized groups are treated in official histories of nation-states leads to partial knowledge of the place. We propose that the knowledge collected, accumulated and exchanged through everyday lives of the inhabitants, past and present might be a viable option to check the official history writing and fill in the blanks therein. The article is an attempt to walk through feminist (auto)ethnography to tie the knowledge of the past to today's placemaking practices. As feminist researchers we consider engaging in the everyday life practices of inhabitants as a way to participate in the dynamic knowledge production processes of the place.

Keywords: *Informal settlements, ethnography, autoethnography, placemaking, everyday life, positionality.*

Öz

Bu makalede enformel yerleşim bölgeleri hakkında feminist okumanın sunduğu imkânlarla baktık. Bunu yaparken Türkiye'deki bir büyükşehir belediyesi (İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi) sınırlarında yer alan bir gecekondulu mahallesine (Limontepe) odaklandık ve belediye kayıtlarında, meclis kararlarında, devlet ve belediye arşivlerinde toparlandığı haliyle kurumsal resmî tarihin sınırlarını soruşturduk. Metnin arka plânındaki temel argümana göre, çeperlerdeki nüfusun ve/ya da marjinalleştirilmiş grupların resmî tarih kapsamında okunması mekân hakkında kısmî bilgi üretiyor. Böyle bir kısmiliğin farklı, eşitlikçi ve katılımcı önceliklerle şekillendirilen bilgi üretim süreçlerine uygun metotlarla dengelenebileceğini düşündük. Buna bağlı olarak enformel yerleşimlerde yaşayanların gündelik yaşamlarından doğru toplanan, biriken ve paylaşılan bilginin resmî tarihin kısmiliğinin denetlenmesi ve boşlukları doldurmak açısından işler bir seçenek olduğunu düşünüyoruz. Bu makalede, geçmişin bilgisini bugünün mekân kurulum pratiklerine bağlamakta feminist (oto)etnografiye dayandık. Feminist araştırmacılar olarak mahalle sâkinlerinin gündelik yaşam pratikleriyle ilişkilennmeyi mekâna dair durağan olmayan bilgi üretim süreçlerine katılmanın yolu olarak gördük ve metinde bununla ilgili dayanaklarımızı paylaştık. Makale, feminist bilgi üretim süreçlerine farklı pozisyonlardan katılımın yatay ilişkilennmeyle gerçekleştirilmesine bir örnek olarak tasarlandı

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Enformel yerleşimler, etnografi, otoetnografi, mekân kurulumu, gündelik hayat, konumsallık.*

Introduction

Limontepe is one of the informal settlements, constructed at the beginning of the 1970s by rural migrants from different regions of Turkey.¹ In November 2016, Leyla Bektaş Ata was walking around the neighborhood which was on the edge of urban transformation. Then, in January 2017, she officially stepped into her childhood neighborhood as a researcher. In the summer of the same year, she spent almost every day on the field. Towards the end of the year, she completed most of her field work. During the field process, while trying to access the official records of the region, she also listened to the life stories of the locals. Since she has living experience in the region, she included autoethnography in her theoretical work in understanding her knowledge-based encounters in the neighborhood. By using ethnography, she tried to make the daily life dynamics visible. In this process, every step she took at the institutional level resulted in disappointment.

Simten Coşar's involvement in the research process has been as mentor/corresponding author/first reader. She has been in constant contact with Bektaş Ata, reading her journal notes, discussing the points that might result in impasse in the field, in the communication with the research participants, in the way ethnographic and autoethnographic dynamics are balanced. The generational differences between the two authors are also helpful in exchanging intergenerational feedback on fieldwork. Additionally, Coşar's involvement in feminist politics and theory contribute to the feminist autoethnographic tendencies of both authors in reading and writing the field.

In this article, to better discuss the possibilities and limitations of accessing the memory of informal spaces in urban history, we pursue the following topics: 1. What are the implications of feminist autoethnography for informal histories? 2. How can one tie the everyday lives of informal habitants in urban life to placemaking? 3. What are

the basics of making one's own history as marginals in urban places? The article is composed of three main parts. In the first part, we offer a brief account of why and how we look at Limontepe as the field that speaks to feminist methodological concerns, and vice-a-versa. In so doing, we also relate to feminist history writing as a form of looking at the neighborhood. In the second part, we focus on our positionality in the field, in writing the field, and in the constitution of the knowledge of the field. Here, we approach feminist autoethnography as a means to relate the past with the present of a place. In the third and concluding part, we discuss the implications of everyday life narrations for placemaking.

Background to the field - how to read marginalized histories?

In July 2017, Bektaş Ata started her research on the implications of urban transformations in neoliberal times for squatter settlements. Side by side with the fieldwork she approached the municipality registers. As she visited the İzmir Metropolitan Municipality archives, she was directed to Karabağlar Municipality - Limontepe was located within the borders of this municipality during her field study. She could not collect working information there and she was directed to the Konak Municipality - Limontepe had been located within the borders of this municipality before it was merged into the Karabağlar Municipality. Here, Bektaş Ata faced the informalities of formal structures: Limontepe had gained neighborhood status before Konak was registered as a district. Next, Bektaş Ata tried her chance at the Ahmet Piriştina City Archive and Museum; there she could find the records of municipality decisions - alas, not classified, textualized, making it impossible to conduct a viable search - unless you are working imperial historiography. Bektaş Ata continued on the basis of the information that the headman of Limontepe gave to her - she scanned the decisions that were taken in 1979. Still, no working data. She tried local newspapers, other

especially in the 2000s, the majority of the households started to have more livable structures, and the neighborhood was regulated and physically upgraded.

¹ When the migrants came to Limontepe, the place did not have essential services, a proper infrastructure system and transportation. The migrants built incremental houses and

units of the municipalities to no avail. As we all encounter in different stages of fieldwork as women researchers, Bektaş Ata, too, had to endure mansplaining in her trials to collect data in different municipal bodies. As she approached official registers and communicated with the related authorities, all of whom are male, about her research she had to endure their rather uneducated and vulgar interventions about how research should be pursued. Similar experiences can be observed in different fields where one has to encounter non-feminist and non-egalitarian researchers and/or *authorities*: Ignorance of feminist epistemologies is inherent in masculinist knowledge production processes. This ignorance feeds male arrogance the claim the only truth - in knowledge, methods, and related political and social extensions.

The written and oral correspondence she pursued, her archival research has not led her to any working information and/or knowledge. Thus, her relation to the neighborhood as a researcher started from the point of almost no prior institutional information. She relied on the memories from her childhood when she lived in the neighborhood, her parents' acquaintances in the neighborhood to make preliminary contacts. She decided to extend the interviews into conversations that involved group meetings, individual encounters inside the houses, and outside, while walking up and down in the neighborhood, her observations about the neighborhood are organized and re-organized. In this respect, oral history turns out to be an invaluable means to access the accounts of the inhabitants about their everyday experiences. Steven High (2011, p. 226) emphasizes that oral history "allows us to shift from learning about these places from a safe distance to learning with those who live there—to understanding what happened and why in conversation" - it is also valuable in terms of feminist knowledge production. This method allows one to document the micro-history of the squatter. Also, in line with Eduardo Ascensão's (2016, p. 953) arguments, oral history helps one to voice the presence of the Limontepe inhabitants, who have been almost disappeared in the urban registries, from the urban spaces and whose *herstories* are excluded from the

history of the urban placemaking. As someone who lived in the neighborhood for many years, Bektaş Ata also took the opportunity to be *present* in the field not only as an outsider/researcher, but as someone who researches her own experiences in cooperation with those of the other inhabitants. Eventually, she has not refrained from being *present* in the text, too: relating her experiences to the life stories of the inhabitants, and making their experiences audible in her own life story (Daniels, 2002, p. 56).

This has led us to consider autoethnography as one major conduit to write the present of the neighborhood, in accordance with feminist epistemological priorities. Feminist autoethnography helps us in gathering everyday knowledge of Limontepe people, as well as the history of the place. We think that doing so conforms with feminist epistemology in three respects: 1. knowledge of the present involves also talking about the past (Burton, 1992); 2. knowledge-production through personal and collective accounts of those who live in and make the place involves their encounters with institutional, official and chronological histories of the place; 3. autoethnography helps us to have our own narrations about the way we are present in the field, how we relate to it and to knowledge that is produced there as well as that we produce by our presence in the field. Thus, it helps us to be present in the placemaking.

Autoethnography relies on the knowledge derived from researchers' personal experiences to develop a critical approach to the established cultural beliefs and practices. Researchers' relationship with other actors in the field is deemed important in knowledge production. The method questions the distinctions between "I and society", "partial and general", "personal and political" (Adams, Holman Jones & Ellis 2015, pp. 1-2). It tries to show how people live, what they do, the meaning of their struggles, to establish a balance between the intellectual and the methodological. As a form of feminist methodology that opposes the idea of *hygienic research* (Kelly et. al. 1994, p. 46), autoethnography is closely related to the subjectivity of the researcher. Bektaş Ata takes this one step further and defines autoethnography as the

transformation of the researcher into the field. Here we shall clarify what field means to us: We define the field as a plane that somehow starts with the researcher/s but is not limited to them, extends to different settings and then returns to the researcher/s. Hence, we consider field as space that extends from shaping the research idea to contacting the relevant region as part of knowledge production processes.

Before the research in Limontepe started, we certainly had knowledge of feminist criticism of history writing. In parallel, our positioning in the field has long been shaped in accordance with feminist priorities. Thus, we have been keen on minimizing the distinction between the researchers' relations to the field and that of the other participants. Approaching the process mainly as one of knowledge-production, realized in collaboration with all that happen to be in the field helped us in this to a great extent. The same approach eventually led us to consider the way to access background knowledge about the field. Feminist criticisms of history writing have paved the way for two basic research fields: writing herstories (Scott, 1986), finding the women ignored in the histories, and, writing and rewriting feminist histories (Grosz, 2000), not only of the North but also those of the Souths. In all these studies, the institutional, chronological, official histories have proved to marginalize women, and all the other subjects that deviate from the idealized male identities. The fact that Bektaş Ata could not access any systematic, registered historical input about the constitution, consolidation of and the current developments in Limontepe as part of the urban space is directly related to such marginalization:

The scans of the decisions in the City Archive are not in PDF format. It is not possible to perform word-based search via visuals. The fact that each decision spans hundreds of pages makes it impossible to read and follow the decisions. On the basis of the information, I obtained from the personal records of the neighborhood's former headman about its foundation in July 1979, I decided to examine a few months of that year. However, the documents for February to October 1979 are not in the archive. I also couldn't find what I was

looking for in the local newspapers (August 2017, Bektaş Ata's field notes).

Municipal authorities in their offices, archives of all places, museums are constructs and artefacts that seem to serve human purpose to control time and stabilize the spatial fluidity of human life. They help us to get glimpses of what happens when and where; yet we might argue that it is not possible to rely solely on them to elaborate on the history of the present, the relationality of our everyday lives as it emerges in our individual and collective existence. The unfolding of history, the movement of urban spaces in historical accounts lack human existence in its totality when one considers merely the institutionalized, chronological and mostly male historical data. In other words, we lack our everyday experiences in the making of history when we draw our understanding of the place only from the registries -state branches, municipality archives, conventional museums and libraries, which generalizes the officially recognized moments of importance to the whole population, thus fixing the place in *a* moment of time.

In the neglected areas of Turkish cities for decades, where archiving was given minimal importance, and where basic services were accessed through individual (interest-based) relationships, the path to obtain information about these places inevitably lies not in institutions but in the individual archives/memories. Building the knowledge of the place may require painstakingly weaving it together from the memories of its residents (Bektaş Ata, 2021, p. 35).

Urban ethnographers refer to different styles of experiencing the urban space to capture the fluidity of space in time as it shifts between the past and the present in the narrations of people (See for example, Pink, 2008; Lee & Ingold, 2006; Önen, 2016; Bektaş Ata, 2022; Iared & de Oliveira, 2017). Walking ethnography offers the grounds to find the stories that crosscut our memories of and presence in the spaces as we move across them (Jane Ricketts Hein cited in High, 2011, p. 217). Bektaş Ata considers the integration of a mobile aspect to our autoethnographic inquiries about the making of Limontepe as an urban space to be fruitful since it helps us to observe the implications of the subjects' relations with nature and

constructed environments, as well as the implications of mobility for narrating personal and collective experiences. Added to the general habitat of sitting and interviewing, sitting and conversing, sitting and writing, walking and conversing, riding on the bus or in the taxi and conversing sheds additional light on the way the everyday rhythms of the everyday life in the neighborhood and the routine of the inhabitants, as well as those who experience the larger urban space through passing by. Jane Ricketts Hein (2011, p. 218) states "Walking, like telling stories, is the movement between places." Bektaş Ata started research in her childhood neighborhood *to move between spaces of knowledge in the everyday life* of a community that goes through rapid transformation. Her walking, and especially walking together corresponds to the way Lee and Ingold (2006, p. 67) underline in elaborating on participation: "[to] participate is not to walk into but to walk with – where 'with' implies not a face-to-face confrontation, but heading the same way, sharing the same vistas, and perhaps retreating from the same threats behind."

The walks Bektaş Ata took in the neighborhood together with the inhabitants of the place helped her to understand the priorities of the place, as well as the way these priorities talk to her research. Thus, she could "harness the power of place in [the] methodology" as Jon Anderson reminds (cited in High, 2011). The walk she took in her first visit allowed her and her childhood friends to muse over their childhood games, neighborly relations, their longings, what they lost and what they wanted to achieve. The methodology came out of everyday life and encouraged her approach the place as a research field to better understand everyday life and the story of the place. The place allowed her to listen to its own story while she oscillated between the past and the future - a text that can never be fixed, and that can never be written just by the researcher.

Ethnography for historical insights - Past and present in everyday accounts

Coşar's involvement in Bektaş Ata's research can be considered in relation to writing as walking together: asking questions, reading together, and

actually writing on the same page at the same time. Asking questions through the visuals that Bektaş Ata brings into Coşar's world of meanings, reading the visuals, literature and field notes together. Searching for possible answers separately and together. Coşar relates to Bektaş Ata's research within the scope of feminist interventions to academic knowledge production. Before, during and after Bektaş Ata's research in Limontepe the two researchers have always been actively engaged in discussion on feminist knowledge production. For about a decade their intergenerational scholarly relation has unfolded through feminist friendship. In the case of research in Limontepe Coşar positioned mostly as a physical outsider, looking at the stories, getting to know the place by means of the stories; accompanying and monitoring Bektaş Ata's writing process; sharing experience in knowledge production; stepping in when Bektaş Ata encounters impasse in the place; and finally calling back from the place-as-the-field back to the writing desk. Coşar has been well-versed in maleist narrations of history: looking at interstate relations through leaders, classifying eras according to heroic acts, looking at states as actors in themselves, treating daily encounters of people as details, spoiling the explanatory power of *history* writing. Her relation to feminist knowledge production process has unfolded from add and stir formulas to valuing partial accounts of everyday politics as significant assets for understanding the past and the present in social science. In our collaborative reading, learning, discussing and writing experiences both Coşar and Bektaş Ata, thus, rely on feminist history and the women's history that is disappeared in the maleist histories. Bektaş Ata's research experience in and her research about an informal setting are telling in this respect. It offers us the space to consider the knowledge of the place with feminist historical priorities.

Although this space materializes with Bektaş Ata's stepping into the Limontepe, we started our experience sharing and discussions on our approach to field research almost a decade ago. We start with how we feel about the field, the place, the people we talk to, about the way they approach us. Sharing feelings at first hand helps us to

acknowledge the subjective aspects in our readings of the knowledge at hand, get a glimpse of our academic biases, smoothens the prejudgments that we have due to our symbolic capital, and come to terms with the pros and cons of our intergenerational collegiality and feminist friendship. Although we do not use the term "kitchen table reflexivity" (Kohl & McCutcheon, 2014), we are not far from using "our separate stories... to introduce 'everyday talk' as a methodological tool qualitative researchers can use to interrogate their positionalities through formal and informal conversations" (p. 2). In a nutshell, we engaged in critical discursive practices on academic knowledge production with a view to feminist priorities.

Autoethnography is a major part not only in Bektaş Ata's research field but also in our feminist collegial exchanges on academic knowledge production. In this work where we offer an intergenerational account of feminist knowledge production in different fields it contributes to reveal our experiences, expectations, and the hurdles and barriers we have encountered as well as the tactics we have developed. In Bektaş Ata's intergenerational research in Limontepe it has parallel contributions. The meanings of getting an education on the periphery of the city and growing up as an urban poor in the first quarter of the 2000s, were collected from personal narratives and played an important role in understanding the social structure.

Bektaş Ata's relation to her field helped her to evade the problems, caused by the disappearance of the history of the neighborhood in the institutional history. As she notes field adds its own methods and tactics into the researcher's agenda. Thus, she starts with the individual narratives to reach to a collective past narrative. She also adds her own life story as a past resident of Limontepe, during until she graduated from the high school. Thus, life story, ethnography and autoethnography works in her case to have critical look at the everyday life practices in the neighborhood and the use of the place by the inhabitants. Here history of the place unfolds through the first-generation inhabitants in their accounts of placemaking - actual, physical construction of the settlement as a neighborhood.

The second generation talk through a different past but mostly about the present - compared to the first generation they tend to use the place in order to break with it, thus to *unmake* it.

Coşar's involvement in Bektaş Ata's field was indirect to a great extent: she could have brief information about the field from Bektaş Ata's field notes, their planned meetings to discuss the stage of the research, the dynamics of the field, Bektaş Ata's positive and negative experiences on the field, as well as occasional audio, e-mail and video communication when they felt they - the research - asked for it. She could reflect on the problems that Bektaş Ata encountered with a view to her own autoethnographic research on academic knowledge production processes. Bektaş Ata's experiences on the field would help Coşar during self-indulgent moments, quite probable in contemporary academic settings. In parallel, as the academic history has its own well-entrenched male discourse, pushing feminist knowledge to peripheral positions, if not ignoring it she tended to invite the academics to narrate the history of the present. Bektaş Ata's experiences with the personal narrations of people offered feedback to Coşar, in this respect, too, while also confirming that every field calls for its own tactics in listening, conversing, and telling.

We acknowledge that memories differ in personal and group settings, and depending on time and the place they are recalled. They work on particulars, and thus are dubious in social science settings (Chang, 2016, p. 72). Coşar's field in this sense is less risky, since academics themselves are mostly silent in memories about which they are not clear. This creates problems as in some cases they disremember the instances which do not make sense to them. As Bektaş Ata admits people may create, rewrite their lives, and, in a sense, "clear" something while telling (Aleksiyevich, 2016, p. 14). However, we both value the knowledge that unfolds from remembering, telling, keeping silent, retelling the past of everyday lives in different settings - especially when that past is disappeared from the institutional registers.

Conclusion: Placemaking as everyday practices

Bektaş Ata's research gives us a picture about the problems in urban policies, in the example of İzmir Metropolitan Municipality. Neoliberal times invite people to speed in everyday engagements, to self-indulgence in the present at the expense of the past and the future of communities and collectivities. Urban policies that do not prioritize city memory fit into such devaluation, mostly resulting in the lack of accessible city archives and neglect of the local knowledge. Added to the conventional history writing that mostly considers high politics - relations at macro levels, national and/or federal decision-making processes the research in the periphery, with the marginalized, about the poor asks for counter-methodologies - methodologies that counter maleist priorities in knowledge production. Bektaş Ata's resort to the notes that locals keep, their re-membering of the past, and their narration that connect the past and the present helps us to get the local knowledge that otherwise disappears. The intervention of the local knowledge to the placemaking in an informal setting thus reveals the parts of urban life that are mostly excluded from research processes and from the city memory, as registered in the state eye.

As ethnography uses the knowledge of the past in accessing the contemporary dynamics of informal settings it helps us to see the placemaking through bodily and imaginary practices of the people who actually live in the public and private spheres of the place (Pink, 2008). For example, ethnographic look enables us to see the way inhabitants relate to the neighborhood while expecting urban transformation: living with the possibility of total constructional change or learning about similar experiences prevents the inhabitants to make changes on and in their houses. The idea of urban transformation pushes them to postpone their interventions to placemaking practices. As "Places also gather experiences and histories, even languages and thoughts" (cited in Pink, 2008, p. 178). This state of affairs is also fed by contemporary dynamics; as the neoliberal economies sink into crisis everyday life becomes more vulnerable to uncertainty, and fear takes a major role in people's relation to their environment - public and private.

While ethnographic look brings the researchers into the informal, registering its knowledge in the academic knowledge production processes feminist (auto)ethnographies bring in counter-dispositions, as Özcan and Coşar (2023 forthcoming) note, "engaging in autoethnography, we take risks—a popular term in neoliberal times. We risk limiting our accounts to partiality, subjectivity, cultural boundedness, which, in effect, define our narrative" (p. 184). Feminist discussions in and around the research help us explore ways and means to challenge the patriarchal intrusions that await knowledge production. As informal settlements are not designed to be available for walking with - and mostly just for walking towards, walking away, walking from, or walking in - they do not have the opportunity to experience the anonymity of urban publicity. Privacy keeps circulating and pervading the common areas. Feminist autoethnography enables us to see the private in the public of the informal settlements, and the public in the privacy of the houses. It "enables writing that reveals the hidden inequalities in the supposedly balanced meritocracy of academic knowledge production" (Özcan & Coşar, 2023 forthcoming, p. 194). Engaging in knowledge production with such priorities in urban studies gives us the hints to evade exploitative relations with the knowledge of the others. Feminist autoethnography and collaborative knowledge production promise opportunities for more participatory and horizontal relationships in the fields where places are actually created, as well as in the writing processes.

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Digitalization of Workplace Harassment Against White-Collar Women: An Investigation in Professional Online Platforms

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1344239](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1344239)

Citation: Kocabaşoğlu, N. Ö., Baş, Ö. and Emre, Ö. P., (2023). Digitalization of Workplace Harassment Against White-Collar Women: An Investigation in Professional Online Platforms *OPUS– Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 657-670.

Abstract

Sexual harassment against women is one of the important social problems addressed all over the world. It is a fact that has existed for hundreds of years, although the place and types of it change. Harassment has been transferred to the digital environment, as everything has become digital with the Internet. It is claimed that women are subjected to harassment while working or looking for a job. To investigate the prevalence of workplace harassment and harassment on online platforms used for professional purposes and its psychological effects on victims, an online nonprobability sampling survey on 245 white-collar women aged 20-40 working in the private sector was conducted. The results suggest that the harassment that women are most exposed to is cyber harassment. It has been observed that 73 women out of every hundred have been subjected to harassment on professional digital platforms. In the types of harassment experienced, persistent online dating requests, receiving unwanted romantic messages, sexual jokes and insults are the most common types of harassment. It has been revealed that the psychological and physiological effects of physical abuse are also seen in victims of cyber harassment.

Keywords: Cybersexual harassment against women, workplace harassment, digitalization, social media, survey

Öz

Kadına yönelik cinsel taciz, tüm dünyada ele alınan önemli toplumsal sorunlardan biridir. Gerçekleştiği ortam ve türleri değişse de yüzyıllardır var olan bir gerçektir. İnternette birlikte her şeyin dijitalleştiği gibi taciz de dijital ortama taşınmıştır. Kadınların çalışırken veya iş ararken tacize uğradığı iddia ediliyor. Mesleki amaçlarla kullanılan çevrimiçi platformlarda ve işyerinde yaşanan taciz, tacizin yaygınlığını ve mağdurlar üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmak için, özel sektörde çalışan 20-40 yaş arası beyaz yakalı 245 kadın ile anket çalışması yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre kadınların en çok maruz kaldıkları taciz siber tacizdir. Her yüz kadından 73'ünün profesyonel dijital platformlarda tacize uğradığı gözlemlenmiştir. Yaşanan taciz türlerinde; ısrarlı çevrimiçi flört talepleri, mağdurun reddetmesine karşı devam eden, istenmeyen romantik mesajlar almak, cinsel ve tehdit içerikli şakalar ve hakaretler en yaygın taciz türleridir. Fiziksel istismarın psikolojik ve fizyolojik etkilerinin siber taciz mağdurlarında da görüldüğü ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kadına karşı siber taciz, iş yeri tacizi, dijitalleşme, sosyal medya, anket.

Introduction

Harassment against women is one of the most important problems in the world and in Turkey. Many women of different ages and socioeconomic groups are exposed to sexual harassment. The workplace is also among the places where sexual harassment is seen. It is known that sexual harassment experienced by women in the professional working environment affects them psychologically and physically. The world has changed; almost everything has been digitalized day by day. Especially with the pandemic since the beginning of 2020, businesses have also digitalized. Many people have been working remotely since after the pandemic. Many companies work completely remotely or with a hybrid model. This strengthened the business life's connection with technology (Alhabaibeh, 2021; AlMarar et al., 2021; Muniswamy et al., 2021; Zabaniotou, 2021) and there is a need to investigate whether the problem of workplace harassment has moved online.

Cyberbullying and cyber harassment take place on social media platforms and professional platforms, which are useful for finding jobs, expanding networks, and accessing up-to-date information about their professions. Unfortunately, some malicious users use these sites for unprofessional purposes and harass women. White-collar women using these professional platforms are exposed to male users who constantly want to flirt and annoy them intentionally. Women who are exposed to these situations experience various psychological and physiological effects.

Even though there are many studies on sexual harassment against women in the workplace, there is no research that compares both harassment in business life and sexual harassment in professional life via online platforms. Previous research has been done on cyber harassment and cyberbullying (Beh & Panko, 2002; Burnham & Wright, 2012; Gobbler, 2013; Hinduja, 2010; Hutcherson, 2012; Investor, 2011; Kowalski et al., 2012; Morgensten, 2012; Rogers, 2010; Takunaga, 2010; Willard, 2007). However, in these studies, the professional social media platform was not studied. This study

addresses this gap in the literature by investigating white-collar women's experiences of sexual harassment in professional social media platforms. Furthermore, we investigate the psychological effects of cyber harassment against white-collar women by men. Therefore, the main goals of the research are to examine the prevalence and consequences of sexual harassment experienced by white-collar women between the ages of 20 and 40 in business life and on online professional social media platforms.

RQ1: How prevalent is sexual harassment of women in professional life today?

RQ2: What are the different types of online sexual harassment against women in business life in the contemporary digital media landscape?

RQ3: What are the psychological effects of offline harassment and cybersexual harassment that white-collar female employees are exposed to by men on professional social media platforms and other professional tools (email, chat programs, project management tools)?

Sexual Harassment at the Workplace

Sexual jokes, comments, touching, and intimidating are within the scope of sexual harassment (Welsh 1999). Literature investigates those workplaces as one of the places harassment is most common. Unfortunately, workers can be exposed to psychological, physical, or sexual abuse in workplaces (MacIntosh; Wuest; Gray, & Oldous, 2010). Especially women exposed to sexual abuse in workplaces. Studies suggest that regardless of the region, there is sexual harassment against women in business life around the world (Andrijauskaitė 2010; Hindustan Times, 2020; Ouedrago et al., 2017) and people with different titles experience it, as well as in different business lines. This situation is experienced in many sectors, regardless of academia, the health sector, and white or blue-collar employees (Stockdale, 1996). Four female professors participating in this research are among those who answered "yes" (Stockdale 1996). As was discussed in the 1996 book *Sexual Harassment at Workplace*, compiled by Tengri et al. in 1982, inequality in the workplace is one of the most important factors that increase

the sexual harassment of men against women. For example, it is common for a male manager to sexually abuse a female secretary. Men finding women sexy due to friendly intimacy is also one of the factors that cause sexual harassment in business life (Stockdale, 1996). One of the reasons why women are harassed at work is gender stereotypes. The duty assigned to women has always been to be a mother, to take care of the house and to please the man. Men are expected to be stronger, so macho attitudes are considered normal (Doucet & Lightle, 2010).

Sexual harassment against women in business has economic, psychological, and physical consequences. Findings showed that lost time and productivity from sexual harassment cost the government \$188,7 million over two years (Doucet & Lightle, 2010). It has been observed that sexual harassment in the workplace has the following psychological consequences: Dissatisfaction with work and co-workers, symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder, dissatisfaction with life, and quitting. According to the findings, the most common is dissatisfaction in business life (Schneider; Suzanne, & Fitzgerald, 1997) According to a study conducted on kitchen workers, sexual harassment experienced by women in the workplace causes a decrease in their motivation at work and an increase in their desire to leave (Akdağ & Öz, 2020).

Given the existing studies documenting the widespread sexual harassment against women in workplaces, we ask the following question to determine the current state of the situation:

RQ1: How prevalent is sexual harassment of women in professional life today?

Digitalization of Business Life, Social Business Platforms and Cyberbullying

In the previous section, we have showcased the prevalence of workplace sexual harassment against women. Today, with the widespread use of remote work and the integration of technology with business life, online meetings, joint project management programs, and even professional social media platforms that enable job search and networking have emerged.

Matt Invester (2011) defined cyberbullying as “online harassment, verbal affronts and persecutions of challenges of people on web” (p. 95). According to him, few people are fully aware to understand cyberbullying. Kowalski, Limber and Agaston (2012) explained that people from previous generations perceive bullying as physical action. However, it has changed in this age. Digital violence can be extremely dangerous as well as physical. Considering the differences between physical and digital violence, the main dissimilarity is that cyberbullies and victims do not have to be face to face. Secondly, the effect of cyberbullying is generally emotional, unlike the physical type. The other important difference is cyberbullying can be anonymous. Moreover, cyberbullying can occur everywhere and every time, even in safe places, in contrast with real-world bullying (Rogers, 2010). Therefore, how new communication channels that emerged with internet technologies affect the extent of harassment is another issue that needs to be examined.

It is one of the necessities of our age not to be connected to the office in business life, to increase the means of communication, and to maintain communication through technology. As in every field, it is possible to discuss rapid digitalization here. Especially at the beginning of 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic, which destroyed the entire economic and social order in the world, also destroyed the norms in business life. The concept of remote or hybrid working has become normal worldwide (Roźnowski & Wontorczyk, 2022).

When it comes to online communication in business life, not only people working together at the same workplace but also people who network while looking for a job or trying to create a network for work are among the elements of communication. Business social media platforms have become very popular in recent years and are used by many white-collar workers. Human resources employees are recruited in these channels. Job seekers also frequently use these channels to apply for a job. For this reason, it is a medium frequently used by new graduates (Shahani-Denning; Vidhi P. & Julie Z., 2017)

In addition, they are platforms used by over a hundred million professionals, including directors, managers, and C-level managers who want to create a network in business life (Shields 2012).

According to the results of a previous study, although remote working provides advantages such as flexibility and comfort for employees, they are more exposed to technological stress. In people exposed to cyberbullying in business, it can lead to mental problems such as stress, fatigue from work, and decreased commitment to work. This situation can cause problems for organisations and harm individuals (Celuch, Oksa, Savela, & Oksanen, 2022)

When evaluated in terms of establishment and purpose of use, these areas differ from platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and Tinder. The audience that uses it is a more niche audience, not a broad audience like the Instagram or Twitter audience. They are social media platforms that mainly appeal to white-collar employees. Whether or not abuses experienced in other social media channels are experienced in these environments will be expressed in the research findings.

According to the results of the research on Digital Violence in Türkiye, carried out by the Social Information and Communication Association together with KONDA Research Company and with the financial support of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) Türkiye, one out of every five people in Türkiye says they have been subjected to digital violence (Şener, Abınık, 2021). Women are harassed mostly because of their gender and physical appearance. 51% of women receive text, voice or video harassment messages in digital environments, and 46% are persistently followed. "When the frequency of exposure to digital violence of individuals is examined, it is seen that their exposure to digital violence has increased from 18% to 23%. This situation can be interpreted as digital violence behaviours that took place several times in the past are not considered as "violence" (Şener & Abınık, 2021; 4). Only nine per cent of women exposed to online violence have stated that they have taken legal action (Şener & Abınık 2021). According to Article 105 of the Turkish Penal

Code, sexual harassment via the Internet is also among the crimes of sexual harassment. According to the lawyers, this crime will decrease due to the complaints of the people exposed to the crime in question. Unfortunately, some people do not consider this crime as sexual assault and take it lightly (Kulaçoğlu Law Firm).

According to TBID's (Toplumsal Bilgi ve İletişim Derneği) Report on The Guide to Fight Digital Gender-Based Violence, the abuser of digital violence can be a former or current partner, neighbour, work/school friend, a relative or a stranger. Perpetrators are mostly using fake names (Şener; Dirini; Timur; Ahi & Uyanık, 2019). In workplace harassment, the harasser is not an anonymous person. Some women have been sexually harassed by salespeople-customers, hostess-passengers, or directly by their colleagues and managers. In a study of 284 women, 90% of women declared that a man at work harassed them, while half of them stated that they were harassed by their boss or manager (Maling, 2000). From here, it may not be concluded that the people who carry out online harassment are different from those who carry out workplace harassment. We, therefore, ask the following research question:

RQ2: What are the different types of online sexual harassment against women in business life in the contemporary digital media landscape?

In the literature, cybersexual harassment is called different words that have the same meaning, such as online sexual harassment, online sexual aggression, virtual rape, online sexual grooming, online abuse, and online sexism. Although there are different definitions, all of these concepts are about harassment that occurs through Internet communication technologies. Cybersexual harassment has significant negative consequences for individuals, institutions, and governments. Decreased personal cyber security, deterioration of psychology and health, the occurrence of financial loss and loss of reputation in companies where this situation is experienced institutionally; it is inevitable for the state to create negative socio-demographic results (Kuklytè, 2018).

Studies have shown that cyberbullying produces negative outcomes such as depression, anxiety, unhappiness, and low self-esteem (e.g.

Patchin and Hinduja 2006, Baker and Tanrikulu 2010, Hutcherson 2012, Mahbub 2021). According to Gabler, as in traditional violence, there is a relationship between the bully/harasser and the victim in cyberbullying. In the literature, virtual sexual harassment is also considered cyberbullying scope. Australian Human Rights Commission defined sexual harassment as "any unwanted or unwelcome sexual behaviour, which makes a person feel offended, humiliated, or intimidated" (Australian Human Rights Commission, nd). Sexual harassment is a form of harassment, and it is illegal according to civil rights. Bullying behaviour on the internet frequently includes sexual comments or gestures (Willard, 2007). Cybersexual harassment differs from real-life harassment in that there is no physical attack (Halder & Jaishankar, 2021). Online harassment seems harmless because it does not exist physically. However, it is a huge social problem considering the ethical rules and usability of internet platforms, especially for women (Golbeck, 2018). Our final research question investigates the consequences of offline and online sexual harassment (including experienced on online professional social media platforms):

RQ3: What are the psychological effects of offline harassment and cybersexual harassment that white-collar female employees are exposed to by men on professional social media platforms and other professional tools (email, chat programs, project management tools)?

Methodology

In order to answer the research questions, an online survey was conducted with white-collar working women between the ages of 20 and 40 in February 2022. The survey was created online with the Qualtrics platform and contains 33 questions (see Appendix for the questionnaire).

In the survey questions, questions conceptually relevant to the research questions such as the way of working (such as from the office or remotely), whether they are looking for a job, or position in business as well as demographic questions such as where they live, education status, age were asked. Survey questions were also asked to learn about

their social media use habits. Based on the literature (Kowalski 2012; Investor, 2011), different types of harassment (online and offline) that could be experienced in the workplace have been included in the questionnaire. No questions were asked about the effects of harassment to anyone who said that he or she had not been subjected to any of the forms of harassment. The psychological and physiological effects identified in the existing literature were adapted (Anjum; Muazzam; Manzoor; Visvizi; Pollock, & Nawaz, 2019).

The Cyber Negative Acts Questionnaire (CNAQ) scale in Workplace Bullying and Cyberbullying Scales: An Overview (2019) was adapted to this research. This scale was first applied to workers in Great Britain. Here, the results report harassment offline and online (via SMS and phone). In the scale, the situation related to the job and the personal questions were questioned as a post-victim dimension. The difference of the questionnaire in the research from the CNAQ scale is that it questions whether you have experienced harassment or not with the CNAQ scale 1 (daily)-5(never) for 6 months. The reported study here asked whether the harassment types were experienced or not, but with yes-no questions. While creating the survey questions, the types of harassment in the literature were taken as a basis, and yes/no questions were asked accordingly. Sexual jokes, comments, touching, and intimidating are within the scope of sexual harassment (Welsh, 1999). Rape threats, humiliation of gender, dirty emails, dirty jokes, and sexual humiliation, unwanted messages are types of cybersexual harassment that are included in the questionnaire (Barak, 2005; Citron, 2009).

In the study Measuring the Scale and "Scope of Workplace Bullying: An Alternative Workplace Bullying Scale" prepared in 2019 by Anjum, Ambreen & Muazzam, Amina & Manzoor, Farkhanda & Visvizi, Anna & Pollock, Gary & Nawaz, Raheel, the correlation between workplace harassment and stress was measured. Here, a score between 1-5 was made, and a result was obtained according to the average of the questionnaires. While investigating the effects of sexual harassment in the workplace, the expert psychologist Tarik Solmuş (2005) work on sexual

harassment and emotional bullying, written by was used. The effects of decreased self-confidence, anger, low concentration, crying often, depression and anxiety that may occur after workplace harassment mentioned here were included in the questionnaire questions. Questionnaires were asked to what extent they experienced these effects or not.

The online survey link was spread over social media and online chat programs The sample of the research consists of white-collar workers aged 20-40 who have worked in the past or are looking for a job.

White-collar workers between the ages of 20-40 are preferred because the concept of cybersexual harassment in the research appeals more to young and white-collar workers, as professional social media platforms are channels created for this target audience. In addition, email or digital project programs are platforms in this audience's life. Therefore, it was thought that the clearest answer to the research questions would come from this population.

There were posts on professional social media platforms that young white-collar women complained about "harassment" and misuse of the platform This was also effective in shaping the research and determining the sample. Furthermore, to aim the target population directly, the online survey link was also shared as a comment under professional social media platform posts made by women about cyberharrasment related problems they experienced on professional social media platforms.

Findings

The first part of the research involves the demographic characteristics of the participants and the rates of harassment in the workplace and online platforms. Table 1 summarises the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Age Groups		
	N	Percentage
20-24	38	15,2
25-30	131	52,4
31-34	44	17,96
35-40	32	12,8
Total	245	100
No Answer		5
Education Status		
	N	Percentage
High School	7	3,3
Bachelor	152	71,4
Master	49	23
Doctorate	5	2,3
No Answer	37	
Working on Private Sector		
	N	Percentage
Yes	205	96,2
No	8	3,8
No Answer		37
Working Status (Now)		
	N	Percentage
Yes	190	89,2
No	23	10,8
No Answer		37
Working Model		
	N	Percentage
Office	63	34,4
Field	9	4,9
Remote	62	33,9
Hybrid	49	26,8
No Answer		67
Position at Work		
	N	Percentage
Intern	8	4,4
Assistant Specialist/ Specialist or Equal Positions	92	50,3
Mid level manager	38	20,8
C level or director	8	4,4
Other	37	20,2

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

No Answer	67	
Searching Job Status		
	N	Percentage
Yes	15	65,2
No	8	34,8
No Answer	227	

Correlation between demographic variables and experiences of harassment and the frequencies of different types of harassment being experienced under relevant subheadings. The research also focuses on the motivation of professional social media platforms usage and compares the negative effects between harassment in the physical world and online.

305 people answered the questionnaire, but those who were not women and were not within the specified age range were excluded from the data analyses. As a result, the data obtained from 245 participants were included in the final analyses. Except for the women between the ages of 20 and 40, the study sample was excluded from the results. Among the 245 female participants aged 20-40, the 26-30 age group has the majority with 52,4 percent. The majority of the participants of the survey were in the young age bracket. Most participants are living in İstanbul (18,71%). It is not a surprising result. İstanbul is the business capital of Turkey and the most crowded city. The vast majority of employees are living in İstanbul (32,4%) (TÜİK 2021). 71,4% of the participants have a bachelor's degree. With 23%, master's graduates are in second place. 96,2 percent of the participants stated that they had worked in the private sector before, and 89,2% are currently working. Total rates of remote (26,8%) and hybrid work (33,9%) are higher than working in the office every day (34,4). This data will be important to establish the correlation between offline harassment and online harassment.

As a result, parallel to the age range, 50,3% of the participants stated that they work as assistant

specialists or specialists. In addition to those who have worked in the private sector and are currently working, the majority of the participants (65,2%) were not working during the study but in search of a job, which is also an important finding. The harassment rates encountered while looking for a job online are also within the scope of the research. These individuals were included in further data analyses.

Women's Use of Professional Social Media Platforms and Sexual Harassment Potential

While investigating whether sexual harassment in business life continues in the digital environment, examining participants' use of professional social media platforms is necessary. According to the results, 66,3% of the survey participants use professional social media platforms¹. Looking at the frequency of use of the professional social media platform, it has been determined that 36,9 percent log in to the channels at least once a day, and 18,1 percent log in at least 2-3 times a week. Therefore, it can be said that the participants use professional social media platforms frequently. It was concluded that 63% of the respondents used professional social media platforms for networking and job search purposes. It is also used for public relations activities for their companies, social media management of the company they work for and for academic purposes. These purposes have lagged far behind job searching and networking.

Sexual harassment in the workplace

Before questioning cybersexual harassment, it is crucial to understand offline harassment against women before going to a digital environment. The question to respondents was asked whether they experienced sexual innuendo, unwanted physical touches, sexually explicit jokes, persistent flirting etc. at workplaces. 37,1% of the respondents stated they were sexually harassed at work (offline).

¹ In order not to damage the reputation of any brand in the survey questions and research, the brand has not been used explicitly.

As described in the methodology chapter, respondents from different education levels, ages (between 20-40), and different jobs and positions participated in the research. Exposure to workplace harassment was tested according to different variables. The correlation between their experience of sexual harassment and age, education level, working model, and position at work was tested. The relationship between these variables and exposure to harassment was analysed with chi-square analysis. The results suggest that the rate of being exposed to harassment by a male in the working environment increases as the education level increases. The percentage of people who answered positively to the question of whether they have been harassed at work or not changed according to their educational status. Accordingly, 28,57% of high school graduates, 33,09% of undergraduate graduates, 47,8% of master's graduates and 50% of doctoral graduates answered, "I have been harassed at work" (Respondents from different educational backgrounds were not selected in equal numbers. 71,4% of the respondents in the research have a bachelor's degree).

A chi-square analysis was conducted between the age groups of the respondents and their exposure to harassment by a male in their working environment. According to the results of the analysis, 41 of the respondents aged 25-30 were harassed, while a total of 76 respondents were harassed based on the age range (37,05% of the total sample). 45% of the questionnaires between the ages of 31-34 stated that they were harassed at work. On the other hand, 44,4% of people aged 35-40 stated that they were harassed. Results were very close to each other for the 31-34 age range. No significant correlation was found between age group and being harassed offline ($p < 0,05$). However, it was found that the rate of being harassed in all age groups is over 30%.

When the relationship between online harassment and demographic variables is examined, it is seen that high-level managers (C-level or director) are exposed to online harassment at a high rate of 63%. Remote workers are the group that says they experience online harassment the most, with 47%. The fact that people working

online use digital platforms more effectively may be a factor in this. As in offline harassment, no increase was observed as the education level increased. In age groups, the 20-24 age group (42%) and the 25-30 age group (45%) are most exposed to online harassment. It can be said that young workers are more exposed to online harassment.

Table 2 summarizes the prevalence of exposure to different types of online and offline sexual harassment of participants. It is revealed that most of the respondents are exposed to cybersexual harassment (flirty messages, sexual insults, sexual threats, persistent dating requests, etc.) on professional social media platforms or online business platforms (email, joint projects, chat programs, etc.): 73% of the respondents stated that they were exposed to sexual harassment on professional social media platforms, compared to 37,1 percent of the respondents being exposed to sexual harassment in physical workplace environment, as stated above. When the relationship between online harassment and demographic data is examined, it is seen that high-level managers (C-level or director) are exposed to online harassment at a very high rate of 64%. Overall, the results suggest that sexual assault against women is more common in cyberspace than offline harassment.

Table 2. Types of Harassment Experienced by Women Who Have Been Abused

	N (Yes)	%
"Unwanted physical touches"	22	8,80
"Insistent flirting offers"	30	12,00
"Sexually explicit jokes"	29	11,60
"Physical pressure or coercion"	4	1,60
Cyber harassment (flirty messages, sexual insults, sexual threat messages, persistent flirting offers, etc.) on professional social media platforms or online Business platforms (e-mail, joint projects, and chat programs, etc.)?	184	73,60
Unsolicited flirty messages on professional social media platforms?	71	28,40
Sexual harassment and threatening jokes on professional social media platforms?	71	28,40
Despite rejecting the user on professional social media platforms, have you been	71	28,40

exposed to romantic comments and messages from the same user?		
A man's statements that insult your gender on professional social media platforms?	71	28,40
Insults about your sex life or body on professional social media platforms?	71	28,40
Sexual harassment and threatening jokes on business platforms other than professional social media platforms (e-mail programs, joint project management programs, etc.)?	71	28,40
Unsolicited flirty messages on business platforms other than professional social media platforms (email programs, joint project management programs, etc.)?	68	27,20
Despite rejecting the user (email programs, joint project management programs, etc.) on business platforms other than professional social media platforms, have you been exposed to romantic comments and messages from the same user?	68	27,20
Insults about sexual life or body on business platforms other than professional social media platforms (Mail programs, joint project management programs, etc.)	67	26,80
Exposed to a man's statements that insult your gender on business platforms other than professional social media platforms (email programs, joint project management programs, etc.)	67	26,80
Exposure to "Sexual innuendo" by a man in your physical work environment?	31	12,40

answer option, "1" being totally disagree, and "5" being totally agree to. According to Table 3, the decrease in motivation towards their work after exposure to one type of physical harassment has the highest prevalence, with an average of 3,81. It can be said that the respondents' motivation to work decreased after offline sexual abuse.

Table 3. Effects of Offline Harassment

	N	Mean	SD
Depressed mood	63	3,19	1,216
Feeling anxiety	63	3,49	1,294
Displaying aggressive behaviour	63	3,46	1,189
Crying often	63	2,35	1,034
Headaches	63	2,65	1,297
Sleeping problems	63	2,7	1,278
Feeling of tightness in my heart	63	2,67	1,231
Decreased motivation towards my work	63	3,81	1,242
Decreased productivity at work	63	3,63	1,286
Intention to leave/quit the job	63	3,67	1,308

The Effects of Offline and Online Harassment

Research question 3 investigates the psychological effects of exposure to online and offline sexual harassment of white-collar women in professional life. The question items, "How much do the following statements about the process after being exposed to offline harassment reflect your experiences?" and "What are the psychological effects of cybersexual harassment that white-collar female employees are exposed to by men on professional social platforms and other professional tools (email, chat programs, project management tools)?" were asked to measure offline and online sexual harassment, respectively. Both were responded with a 5-point Likert scale

When Table 4 is examined, the variable of feeling anxiety after being exposed to one of the online harassment situations have the highest value with a mean of 3,29. It can be said that respondents feel anxiety after an online harassment.

Table 4. *Effects of Cybersexual Harassment*

	N	Mean	SD
Depressed mood	62	3,05	0,999
Feeling anxiety	62	3,29	1,206
Displaying aggressive behaviour	62	3,23	1,108
Crying often	62	2,39	1,046
Headaches	62	2,79	1,175
Sleeping problems	62	2,74	1,085
Feeling of tightness in my heart	62	2,53	1,02
Decreased motivation towards my work	62	3,23	1,234
Decreased productivity at work	62	2,53	1,02
Intention to leave job	62	3,23	1,234

Discussion and Conclusions

The research investigated the prevalence of online and offline harassment experienced by women in Turkey as well as their psychological consequences. The results show that sexual harassment against women in the workplace still exists. As stated in the literature (Andrijauskaitė, 2019; MacIntosh, 2010; Ouedrago., 2017), this problem that women have faced since they entered working life is still among the difficulties experienced by women in working life. Our results further revealed that exposure to sexual harassment in the workplace was not related to age, position at work or working model, unlike some existing findings in the literature (Ouedraogo, Sisawo, & Huang, 2017) We did not find a statistically significant relationship between age and exposure to sexual harassment. It is seen that women of all age groups are exposed to this situation. This situation shows that women with different demographic characteristics can be exposed to harassment. Hence, it is reasonable to conclude that sexual harassment of women is still prevalent in professional life today.

One of the study's most surprising findings is that as the education level increases, the victimisation of harassment increases. Although it is difficult to understand the reason for this, it can be explained by the fact that the awareness of

exposure to harassment increases as the education level increases. Even if women are exposed to sexual harassment, they may be reluctant to express it, or they may not consider their situation as "harassment" and normalize it based on the value judgments of society. For this reason, this acceptance can be higher at the lower education level, and the higher the education level, the higher the awareness and self-expression comfort.

Unlike the others, the importance of this research is that it also investigates the harassment experienced in other online channels such as professional social platforms and email. The research results show that the type of harassment that women are most exposed to is cyberharassment. The reason for this situation can be attributed to working less in the office environment and spending more time online with the effect of digitalization. In addition, as stated in the literature (Gabler, 2013; Investor, 2011), it is known that harassers attempt to harass more easily when they are not face-to-face. This explains why the rate of online harassment is higher. Unfortunately, the results confirm that "cybersexual harassment is the new form of workplace harassment." The only positive side of this situation is that if the harassment is experienced on professional social media platforms or platforms used for business purposes such as email, it is more likely to prove because the texts and images here are recorded. If an abused woman seeks her rights, she can punish the abuser. Face-to-face harassment is difficult to prove unless there are witnesses. Likewise, most of the time, witnesses may not act bravely for fear of losing their job. As a result, the abused person may have to move on with his life or quit his job before he can prove it. However, if the intent is to punish, this may mean suspending that person's account on social media platforms, ensuring that they are prosecuted under the criminal law of the country where the harassment took place, or disciplinary action at their workplace.

When comparing professional social media platforms with other online platforms (email or project programs, etc.), it is seen that harassment is more common in professional social media platforms. The fact that some users use the

professional social media platform as different social media channels, and their purpose is not fully understood may cause this. In addition, the fact that the professional social media platform did not take sufficient measures to prevent this situation can be shown as a reason.

In the types of harassment experienced, persistent online dating requests, receiving unwanted romantic messages, sexual jokes and insults are the most common types of harassment. It was stated in the literature that the friendly attitudes of women were misunderstood by men (Stockdale, 1996). Online, it can be said that some prejudices and misunderstandings, such as "if she accepts my connection request, she is open to flirting", cause women to be harassed. Online friendships first start with "accepting a friend request." Afterwards, it usually continues with the likes and then the messages. In this context, if real-life friendly behaviours are chatting, helping, and smiling, the reflection of this in the cyber environment can be accepting requests, liking posts, and sending messages for any reason. Results showed that women generally use professional social media platforms for networking and job search purposes. For these two purposes, the user who logs in to these channels must send a connection request to men or accept requests. They will send messages for networking purposes in a place they think is professional. Just as a woman's smile or friendly chat in a business environment does not necessarily mean she wants to flirt in real life, texting and accepting a connection request online may not necessarily mean she wants to flirt online.

Considering the effects of offline harassment on victims, loss of motivation, thoughts of leaving the job, feeling anxiety and exhibiting nervous behaviours are seen as the most common effects experienced by women. In the literature, the decrease in productivity and efficiency were the prominent results of previous studies (Akdağ & Öz, 2020; Fidan & Yeşil, 2020). Here, it can be said that the thought of leaving the job is high. The reason for this may be that women are now more conscious and quit their jobs and seek their rights more. However, it is seen that the inequality between men and women mentioned in the

literature and the normality of men's macho attitudes have decreased over the years, and the place of women in society has increased. This may result in women's reactions to this type of behaviour being harsher.

Online harassment on victims, the most common effects are feeling anxiety, decreased motivation at work and exhibiting aggressive attitudes. The thought of leaving the job due to online harassment is lower than offline harassment. This means that while online harassment is more common, its effects are not as high as in-person harassment. Considering the effects experienced, it is seen that the violence and harassment online, compared to offline harassment, does not mean that it has milder effects on the victims. It has been revealed that the psychological and physiological effects of physical abuse are also seen in victims of cyber harassment.

The reported findings imply that combating cyber harassment is important. Combating cyberbullying, cyber mobbing or cyber harassment and providing training on this issue are among the responsibilities of both the government and the organisations. "Cyberbullying leaves a digital footprint; this can actually provide useful clues to stop the abuse" (UNICEF nd; 1). The institution can be held responsible for cyber harassment as much as physical violence in the workplace. Carefully selecting the employees, providing special training on this issue, and punishing those who commit cyber harassment are the measures to be taken. As Demirtaş et al. (2018) said, one of the most important issues against cyber-mobbing is to try to prevent cyber-mobbing proactively. In this context, individual and social education is important to control and manage our perceptions in the face of virtual applications.

More detailed results could have been obtained by conducting in-depth interviews in addition to the questionnaire. It has proceeded with the survey method since it is more valuable to measure the situation quantitatively in terms of research questions. However, future studies would do well to employ, focus groups or in-depth interviews with victims to gain an in-depth understanding of the experiences and feelings of women being harassed in workplaces and the effects. In addition,

by interviewing women from different cities, ages, professions, and positions, it is possible to learn in detail how women's professional careers and personal lives are affected and what they do to combat this situation.

In order not to damage the reputation of any brand in the survey questions and research, the brand has not been used explicitly. For the survey participants to understand the problem more clearly, passing the brand could have been more effective for the research. This was a challenge encountered during the research.

Furthermore, in this study, effects such as headaches, anxiety, and loss of motivation experienced by women were not researched comprehensively. It is crucial for scholars of psychology or psychiatry to study the effects of sexual harassment on professional social networking platforms. In research conducted by a specialist, the effects can be examined in the dimension of the disease, and then what important results will be explained based on psychology and psychiatry.

The adequacy of the current law can be investigated by conducting legal research on online sexual harassment. In addition, it can be discussed how regulations will be made. The attitudes and policies of online platforms on this issue can be examined.

Lastly, the way women deal with sexual harassment and how they deal with it or cover it up is a different research topic, which should be tackled by an interdisciplinary approach employing perspectives of communications and psychology.

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Social Impact of Brand Activism Initiatives and Insights for Emerging Markets

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1343046](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1343046)

Citation:

Işıksal, G, D., Özturan, P. and
Karaosmanoğlu, E. (2023).
Social Impact of Brand Activism
Initiatives and Insights for
Emerging Countries
OPUS– Journal of Society
Research, 20(55), 671-686.

Abstract

This paper explores the under-researched area of how emerging market dynamics affect brands that take a sociopolitical stance. Our purpose is to gain a deeper understanding of brand activism in emerging markets and its impact on society and brands in the light of the Scandinavian Institutionalism Theory that deals with the changing meanings of ideas during their transition from one place to another. We have conducted in-depth interviews and alternated between literature reviews. Qualitative thematic analysis is used to comprehend the position of brand activism in emerging markets and present insights for future research. From a macro perspective, our insights propose a taxonomy of social impact for brand activism in emerging markets. This study suggests a dynamic and interactive process in which brand activism ideas and practices are circulated across national boundaries and institutional orders, shifting from generalized notions to embedded practices with local meanings.

Keywords: Brand Activism, Emerging Markets, Scandinavian Institutionalism, Social Impact, Qualitative Research

Öz

Sosyo-politik bir duruş sergileyen markaları ve onlara yönelik algıları incelediğimiz bu çalışmada aktivizm literatüründe henüz yeterince araştırılmamış olan gelişmekte olan pazar dinamiklerinin bu markaların aktivizm girişimlerini nasıl etkilediği üzerine odaklanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada gelişmekte olan pazarlardaki marka aktivizmi girişimlerinin ve onun toplum ve markalar üzerindeki etkisinin, fikirlerin sınırlar, kültürler arasında değişen anlamlarını ele alan İskandinav Kurumsalcılığı Teorisi çerçevesinde daha derinlemesine anlaşılması amaçlanmıştır. Gelişmekte olan pazarlardaki marka aktivizminin konumunu anlamak ve geleceğe yönelik araştırma içgörülerini detaylı bir şekilde ortaya koyabilmek adına derinlemesine görüşmelere dayanan nitel tematik analiz kullanılmıştır. Analizlerimiz sonucunda makro perspektiften elde ettiğimiz içgörülere dayanarak çalışmanın sonunda gelişmekte olan pazarlardaki marka aktivizmi için sosyal etki sınıflandırması önerilmiştir. Bu çalışma marka aktivizmi fikirlerinin ve uygulamalarının ulusal sınırlar ve kurumsal düzenler ötesinde dolaştığı, genel kavramlardan yerel anlam taşıyan gömülü uygulamalara geçişin dinamik ve etkileşimli bir süreç olduğunu önermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Marka Aktivizmi, Yükselen Pazarlar, İskandinav Kurumsalcılığı, Sosyal Etki, Kalitatif Araştırma

Introduction

In the Merriam-Webster (2023) dictionary, activism is defined as a doctrine of taking direct and vigorous action to achieve political and social results, supporting or opposing controversial issues. The root of the word is grounded in 1915 when Swedish ‘activists’ petitioned for the end of that country’s neutrality in World War I (Marchetti, 2016). Back then, activism has taken many forms, such as political activism, consumer activism, brand activism, hashtag activism, etc. Activism manifests itself in consumption settings in several ways, such as consumer resistance (Penaloza and Price, 1993; Holt, 2002), culture jamming (Handelman, 1999), anti-branding (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010), brand avoidance, anti-consumption (Lee et al., 2009), and political consumerism (Micheletti and Stolle, 2004). With such actions, consumers naturally try to push companies to adopt environmental conservation practices, supplier conduct codes, LGBTI+ employee policies, and corporate social responsibility (CSR) efforts (Hoffman, 2001; Bartley, 2003; Raeburn, 2004; Soule, 2009).

Not only individual activists but also organizations are taking part in these initiatives to lead political or social change toward the greater good. Even though it seems organizations have only been recently involved in such movements, their routes lie in marketing practices since the 1960s. With the rise of social marketing, which aims to influence individuals, communities, structures, and societies to bring about positive social change (Zainuddin and Russell-Bennet, 2017), marketing has become a part of social change rather than a self-serving discipline. That transformation has led to the emergence of brand initiatives labeled as brand activism, the rebellious offspring of corporate social responsibility (Sarkar and Kotler, 2018; Moorman, 2020).

Even though consumers are satisfied with the results of brands’ socially responsible activities, today’s consumers expect more from brands. According to a study by Bailey and Phillips (2020), if consumers think a company has conservative values as a part of its organizational culture, it is perceived as less committed to social responsibility

and its community. Additionally, participants become 25.9% less likely to buy its products and 25.3% more likely to buy from a competitor. Another survey conducted with 600 U.S. adults shows that 47% of all respondents (and 51% of Gen-Z) associate CEOs’ social, environmental, and political views with those of their businesses. In detail, 35% said they are more likely to trust brands that take a stand on social, environmental, and political issues. Also, 43% said they specifically favor companies that do so on these socio-political issues (Swant, 2021).

As understood, new-age consumers are more interested in the ultimate good than simply boycotting transgressor companies. They expect them to participate in political or social change actively. Besides the growing consumer expectation of brands to behave purposefully (Hunt, 2019; Swaminathan et al., 2020), it should also be well calculated (Mukherjee and Althuisen, 2020), especially in emerging markets that have a sensitive balance between the market and the society.

To unravel these complexities, we adopt the Scandinavian tradition of neo-institutionalism (e.g., Haverman and Rao, 1997; Lounsbury and Pollack, 2001). This approach goes beyond the pure diffusion of meaning and practice and instead calls for researchers to capture the contextual aspects of how ideas circulate interactively, evolve in a highly iterative manner, and transform into localized meanings and practices (Salles-Djelic and Sahlin-Andersson, 2006; Jamali et al., 2017). As Boxenbaum and Pedersen (2009) summarize, Scandinavian Institutionalism emphasizes “variation and distinctiveness rather than isomorphism and standardization” (p. 179). It focuses on “research objects that are situated, dynamic, unique, ambiguous, fragmented, and emergent” (p. 187). In the light of Scandinavian Institutionalism Theory, our purpose is to understand brand activism better in emerging markets and its impact on society and brands dealing with the changing meanings of ideas during their transition from one place to another (Czarniawska and Joerges, 1996; Sahlin-Andersson, 1996; Sahlin and Wedlin, 2008; Wæraas and Sataøen, 2014).

Turkey is a suitable research context for brand activism among developing countries to seek answers to these research questions. Albeit its high market potential, it also has significant structural challenges that trigger activist movements. According to the OECD (2021), inequality in Turkey is higher than in most advanced economies. The poorest 20% of households earn 6.1% of total income. More than 75% of the population is exposed to harmful levels of air pollution. When we consider the lack of consensual culture, the authoritarian tendencies, the occurrence of political polarization, and the narrow understanding of democracy in Turkey (Szymanski, 2016; Tausch and Heshmati, 2017), it is necessary to reconsider brand activism to translate and adapt it within the dynamics of emerging markets for successful socio-political cause-oriented brand activism.

Analyzing the translation and adaptation of brand activism in developing country contexts will enhance the social impact of activism initiatives by brands operating in emerging markets. Scandinavian Institutionalism formulates the concept of translation as the process of abstracting an idea from its original context, transforming it into a new context, concretizing it in practice, and institutionalizing it over time (Vossen and Van Gestel, 2019). According to the understanding of translation developed by Scandinavian Institutionalists, actors play a crucial role in the translation process (Vossen and Van Gestel, 2019).

When actors with influential roles in organizational decision-making introduce a management idea into their organizations, that idea undergoes changes and acquires new meanings influenced by the cognitive and behavioral characteristics of these actors and the institutional environment. Actively shape, reinforce, ignore, or modify new ideas during the translation process (Vossen and Van Gestel, 2019). They have also been recognized as key elements in effectively translating established ideas into daily practices (Kjeldsen, 2013). Therefore, this study seeks answers to uncover the localized meanings and practices of brand activism from the perspective of the actors who translate, adopt, and implement the construct.

In the following sections, we begin by reviewing the brand activism literature and highlight how it is generated with the Anglo-Saxon perspective on the circulation of ideas. As the next step, along with the interviews, we aim to frame the activism construct and show its positive and negative effects on society and brands. In closing, we synthesize the findings, identify the variation and distinctiveness of brand activism in emerging markets, and offer reflections to guide future contextually nuanced brand activism research.

Literature Review

Brand Activism

In our hyper-connected world, brands no longer remain neutral on sociopolitical matters. A Good Firms (2020) survey found that 63.2% of marketers believe brands should take a political stance. Consumer demand for brands to support social and political causes has risen from 66% in 2017 to 70% in 2019 (N = 1500) ("Brands Creating Change in the Conscious Consumer Era" study). Notably, 77% of consumers expect employees to voice concerns when their company's decisions conflict with its values. This trend, termed "brand activism," is characterized by brands taking non-neutral positions on contested sociopolitical issues to drive social change and marketing success (Vredenburg et al., 2020). For instance, Nike's campaign featuring Colin Kaepernick championed racial equality, and Ben and Jerry's introduced "Pecan Resist" ice cream to challenge policies on various fronts. Such activism involves using public statements, donations, and cause-related marketing.

Compared to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), brand activism emphasizes values and social impact more than actions and outcomes (Vredenburg et al., 2020). It aligns messaging and practices closely and can involve controversial topics. This distinguishes it from CSR, which often focuses on widely accepted, non-divisive issues (Mizrai et al., 2022). However, nuances of brand activism in emerging markets and developing countries remain unexplored. Scholars have primarily focused on developed nations, leaving a gap in understanding how brand activism is

practiced and responded to in emerging markets. This study addresses this point and focuses on professionals' views on brand activism in a Turkish context.

As global interest in brand activism grows, its expression in developing countries becomes increasingly visible. Understanding brand activism beyond developed markets is an essential step in advancing our knowledge in this field.

Dynamics of Turkey as an Emerging Market

Understanding emerging markets is crucial for marketing research as they shape marketing theory and practice (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006; Sheth, 2011). Emerging markets, like Turkey, with rapid growth, a growing middle class, advancing infrastructure, and technological competitiveness, attract multinational companies. These companies face unique challenges and dynamics upon entering these markets. The shift of power towards emerging markets, highlighted by notable acquisitions like Tata Motors and General Electric, demonstrates their influence (Sheth, 2020). Competitive brands in emerging markets offer assortments that cater to customer demands, creating economic value (Layton, 2011). Brand survival in this competitive environment requires understanding the social matrix, anticipating needs, and grasping market dynamics.

Brand activism, a key concept, requires contextual adaptation in emerging markets. It moves beyond diffusion, necessitating a nuanced understanding of local dynamics (Salles-Djelic and Sahlin-Andersson, 2006). With its unique culture and communication style, Turkish society provides an exciting context for brand activism through social media. Social media's democratizing and depersonalized aspects enable both conversation and hijacking. Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory highlights Turkey's collectivist nature and high power distance. Nations with high collectivism, high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, high masculinity, and long-term orientations use social media driven by pro-social needs involving connecting with community members, following the online leaders, understanding the society and

community, and building networks (Pal, 2018). This societal context enables collective movements and indirect communication, offering a potential for successful brand activism. While individuals may not freely express their opinions due to high-power distance, social media enables and empowers such conversations by providing anonymity. Consequently, social media contributes to democratization across various facets of society, especially in non-democratic countries (Fathi-Makvand and Fernandez, 2017), and supports activist initiatives by nurturing the collectivist nature of society. Especially with hashtag activism (e.g., #MeToo, #BlackLivesMatter, #DedimOlabilir), consumers have the opportunity to raise their voices and, hence, more readily support the activist initiatives of brands for the greater good of society.

This study examines brand activism's meaning in the Turkish context, considering social media's impact and outlining its consequences. Turkish characteristics, such as fragmented markets and state intervention, contribute to distinct outcomes of brand activism. Despite challenges, Turkey's cultural heritage and emerging market potential suggest positive impacts of brand activism, promoting societal needs and business strategies. Based on the literature review presented in the previous sections, we ask, "What are brand activism's negative and positive impacts on brands and consumers/society in emerging markets?"

Methodology

To understand brand activism in emerging markets comprehensively, we conducted six online semi-structured, in-depth interviews with opinion leaders, academics, and marketing managers in Turkey. This study adhered to Braun and Clarke's (2013) minimum criteria for small projects with thematic analysis. The interviews, lasting approximately one to one and a half hours each, were conducted without offering incentives, ensuring confidentiality. We employed purposeful sampling to select informants (refer to Table I) through personal contacts, researcher networks, and recommendations from interview participants. This approach allowed us to choose

individuals with substantial experience and expertise in the research area who were willing to openly discuss the study's somewhat controversial nature (Shaheen and Pradhan, 2019).

After transcribing the interviews with the assistance of a research assistant, we entered the coding phase. In the initial coding stage, each researcher manually coded the transcripts, aligning selected statements with the relevant research questions. Subsequently, relevant quotes were translated from Turkish to English. In the second phase, NVivo software was used to organize the data, code transcriptions, and facilitate analysis. Researchers referenced the literature for insights while coding the data (Corbin and Strauss, 2014). Each researcher identified the themes individually and iteratively refined through collaborative discussions until a consensus was reached. The following section presents findings from the in-depth interviews, addressing the research question.

Findings

Given the overall negative impact found in advanced economies, we first outline the negative and positive outcomes of brand activism in emerging markets (see Table II). For brands, engaging in activism in emerging markets is notably costly due to the chronic resource shortages and inadequate infrastructure (Sheth, 2011). For instance, entering into activism areas may require companies to restructure their organizational charts, redefine job roles, and allocate new responsibilities, posing challenges for HR management and incurring related costs.

"...Everyone is actually very active. How they will position this structure, this title, this department is a question... How does it work, where it should be reported, what kind of job description it has, they have issues."

Table I. Informant Profiles.

Participant ID	Title	Industry / Expertise	Foreign/ National Brand	Work Experience	Gender	Education Level
MM-I	Marketing Communications and Corporate Communications Unit Manager	Motor Vehicle Manufacturing	Foreign	2008	Female	Master
MM-II	Assistant General Manager, Consumer Insights & Communications	Retail Apparel	National	1998	Female	Undergraduate
MM-III	Sustainability Manager	Retail FMCG	Foreign	2006	Female	Master
NGO-I	Vice President	Think Tank	Foreign	1999	Female	PhD Candidate
A-I	Full Professor	Higher Education / International Relations	National	1996	Male	PhD
A-II	Full Professor	Higher Education / International Relations	National	1999	Female	PhD

MM-II

Moreover, ESG regulations in emerging markets lack government commitment, transparency, or detail, forcing companies to establish their norms and processes. This often directs their focus inward rather than on social impact assessment.

“Concerning the ESG’s governance dimension, we are struggling. I can say this for all companies in general. While the governance is a plane organized by the state in Europe and is now governed by the regulations, we are always behind in Turkey, as in everything else. ... We are left on a plane to the initiatives of companies in these matters. What happens to my environmental impact, my social impact? In Turkey, this concept is present in some large companies but not in our company. Then the company comes first to focus on its sustainability of financial assets.”

MM-II

Weak institutional practices can hinder companies from developing KPIs (key performance indicators) to measure their initiatives' impact on the firm and the society they intend to serve. This narrow perspective poses a major challenge for brands managing their performance in these areas.

“... Being so emotionally attached to this issue [sustainability], the company -in my opinion- is facing a challenge to go more systematically and to show that it is an owner of this business. Everyone is good, and we are already a sustainable company. But you have to stay focused on your KPIs and manage in a planned way.”

MM-III

Failing to revise existing KPIs or assess each activism attempt individually can lead to poor decisions that may unintentionally cause harm to society's well-being and welfare more than they would if they followed the status quo. MM-III articulates this by;

“Once the gray area is there, all can jump in. [Company X], the company that most pollutes the world and puts plastic on the market, is one of the main elements in the fight against climate change, and it sponsors COP27. Don't be, then?”

To prevent negative outcomes, brands must comprehend public sensitivities regarding specific issues. Negative results are inevitable when brands invest in causes misaligned with consumer

priorities in target markets. In such cases, they may avoid controversial topics and focus on safer areas. However, bypassing these issues only addresses symptoms rather than the root causes, potentially undermining the perceived commitment to brand activism, as it can divert attention from the more contentious aspects of problems requiring more profound solutions. This is usually encountered in the market of brand activism, as the quote from MM-II shows;

“In multi-company participatory research, we conducted on sustainability in Turkey with IPSOS and Sustainable Brands, the main topic that the Turkish nation mentions in the name of sustainability is food waste. The other is violence against women. We do not deal with the issue of violence, but we are a company that thinks a lot about what we can do for women.”

MM-I echoes these challenges and highlights a particular concern for brands under global firms in emerging markets, especially when selecting causes. A poor choice or inadequate implementation can damage the emotional bond between the brand and its customers, reduce the brand's overall social impact in the chosen area, and even harm its broader societal reputation. Boycotts and consumer backlash are significant concerns for global brands engaging in activism in emerging markets. As suggested by MM-I;

“...the negative effects are, of course, there: risking the emotional bond that the brand has established with the consumer or the total benefit it creates by owning a certain area. Or in terms of the positive results: for all consumers to create a positive perception on behalf of the brand.”

These vulnerabilities, along with economic challenges such as high inflation, unemployment, and the prevalence of the grey market, raise doubts about companies' commitment to and prioritization of brand activism. Global events like the Ukrainian war and the COVID-19 pandemic compel organizations to adapt to unstable conditions, diverting their attention from sustainability issues.

“... after the pandemic...countries have started to raise their borders. Free trade agreements, for example, are slowly breaking down. For example, we cannot export products to Egypt or Morocco. ... Because the country said that if you can't produce here, you can't

sell. Then, they relaxed this temper but forbade the outflow of money. Are the axes shifting, especially after the Ukraine-Russia war, which is disrupting the system at the moment? There is a case of globalization being reorganized with relations between different countries. There is a new order in international trade. We are experiencing the difficulties this brings.”

MM-II

Such contextual issues may impact global multinational companies' presence in emerging markets. When organizations downsize or reduce investments, activism tends to take a narrower, self-serving rather than community-serving approach. Hence, the community misses the chance to be supported by the brands in addressing societal problems.

“We had to change our strategy over time. While we were a bigger brand in Turkey [the company used to own a manufacturing plant], we had a social responsibility [note here ‘activism’ is not preferred to be used here] strategy in which we also touched on local societal issues. At the point where we are more of an importer brand, we are trying to touch on areas parallel to the values the global automotive brand is trying to highlight in our societal projects.”

MM-I

This ultimately hurts the general public in emerging markets since even though global firms tend to follow a universal strategy of supporting controversial issues such as LGBT rights, they may tend to localize their global brand purpose and opt for a cautious stance due to strong cultural values in countries like Turkey. This can leave disadvantaged groups without support from global brands. MM-I articulated these hesitations more than once;

“Our global brand has a stance. In many countries, we have bold stances during the Pride Parade, where all logos are changed. But we approach that issue a little more cautiously locally... Unfortunately, we could not support the Pride Parade in Turkey ... Because this subject is still taboo in Turkey. ... On the activism side, we do not do much in Turkey. Frankly, we prefer to be distant from those issues.”

National companies face the challenge of balancing economic growth aspirations with responsible and sustainable practices. Responding to various market needs and consumption cycles may result in over-production, leading local consumers to over-consume. This cycle of over-production and sales can harm consumers' finances and overall well-being.

“... There are eight seasons. ... There is summer, there is winter, ... the early summer, and ... the heat transition. There is winter and dark winter. Now, there is an ever-changing fashion in these eight seasons. This is the concept of fast fashion that Zara started. I will say, unfortunately, because it tires the world. There is more production than necessary; consumption is made more. Our clothing consumption has increased by 60% in the last five years. A piece of clothing is used only seven times, while it was used many times in the past.”

MM-II

Another challenge is the inability to effectively communicate good conduct. Companies deeply committed to a cause and heavily invested in brand activism may hesitate to promote it, fearing it could come across as bragging. However, this reluctance could lead to missed opportunities and losing ground to less competent competitors in activism. MM-III touches upon this;

“... I said at a meeting the other day: We have been doing this [sustainability] for years. We are used to it. For us, this does not seem like a new thing. But a new place [activism domain] has opened, and we still don't have a corner there. [Brand M] has many projects beyond its Geographical Indications. [1] That is the first main project, but we haven't told about it to the others.”

Before discussing the positive impacts, it's essential to highlight both the advantages and drawbacks of social media in shaping and sometimes preventing negative impacts, especially within the ongoing debate over skepticism versus authenticity in brand activism efforts. Social media's pervasive and fleeting nature, along with the influence of online personalities, poses challenges for brands in managing negative or potentially fake news related to less sensitive

¹https://www.wipo.int/geo_indications/en/#:~:text=What%20is%20a%20geographical%20indication,originating%20in%20a%20given%20place.

company actions while addressing activism issues. This can easily sway public opinion since misinformation spreads rapidly. Rather than seeking credible sources, the general public may overlook valuable information. For instance, companies often face communication crises resulting from improper message framing, prompting them to develop new social media-specific communication strategies through firsthand experience.

“A saying about the Dalai Lama was shared in a product advertisement, but this caused a crisis in social media... The crisis has become a system where Corporate Communication first checks the laws and regulations; then, the marketing department can take the post live. It led to designing and implementing social media control processes worldwide.”

MM-I

Interestingly, despite global brands' cautious approach, emerging market audiences tend to overlook negative issues, which fade quickly on social media. This differs from advanced economies, where activism campaigns can polarize consumers. Some may align more closely with brands that share their values, while others may feel alienated, leading to brand avoidance and lower self-brand congruity (Schmidt, 2021). Consequently, brand activism can become strategic (Schmidt, 2021; Mirzaei et al., 2022), especially for companies with individual branding strategies. In emerging markets, consumers are often unaware that different brands belong to the same company, allowing companies to remain profitable even with 'woke washing.' Factors like limited income, high prices, and time constraints may also lead consumers to continue purchasing brands they do not like.

“...when we say such counter, compelling issues, brands take risks. The risk is around 10-15% of my consumer pool. That means I don't take the risk. On the contrary, brands may think I am creating serious brand loyalty. Or I have a wide variety of other brands besides Elidor [a shampoo brand by Unilever that featured a famous Turkish volleyball player who happens to be part of the LGBTI+ community], which I can use for this purpose. One of my brands supports it. I do not put myself at such a big risk when I own different brands in that category. Maybe I even sell more.”

A-II

This highlights the issue of **authentic brand activism**, especially considering the agility inherent in social media. Its flexibility and speed enable brands to express their beliefs and behaviors promptly. However, on the downside, the enduring accessibility of content through archives turns social media brand engagements into a monitoring tool. If a brand intentionally straddles both sides of a polar issue, fully aware that any loss will be compensated, can it still be considered an activist brand? This underscores the necessity of defining the boundaries of authentic brand activism in emerging markets, particularly in the context of social media. Brands' activist efforts in the digital space are susceptible to accusations of clicktivism, hashtag activism, slacktivism, or greenwashing (MS article 2022).

“When I open hashtag, it means ‘This is the topic, let's discuss it together in the public arena, I am leading it.’. But when a brand does it, it can be seen as quite clicktivist. So, there is a possibility of going to Greenwashing again.”

NGO-I

At the other end of the continuum from greenwashing lies green hushing, where some highly activist brands do not communicate their stance on their social media, thinking their efforts are insufficient, which can lead to wide and harmful criticisms.

“We recently conducted a carbon footprint awareness survey with our five very important brands. For example, they were also shy. These become a crisis quickly, and the consumer says, ‘Okay, but you are deceiving me that nothing is happening.’ Many people have awakened. That's why we find it safer to talk by completing the whole process. But this is also a dilemma because if we don't talk, awareness will not increase, and if we talk too much, it will be perceived as greenwashing. In fact, we can focus on finding the model of the optimum point in our research.”

NGO-I

On the bright side, social media's awareness-raising role is consequential. According to the research by Sustainable Brands and IPSOS (Sustainable Brands 2022), 20-30% of Turkish consumers consider environmental conservation important to some extent, while the majority do

not. Those who deem it unimportant cite their limited influence and argue that the government should take action. While this pertains specifically to environmental sustainability, a similar perspective may apply to areas requiring collaboration in social sustainability. Here comes the enabler role of social media to provide awareness and disseminate the news fast;

"Little by little, we are starting to communicate about these issues... Social media will have a very valuable role in raising awareness and involving people in this picture. Of course, these influencers act as role models; unfortunately, there are too many of them, and not all show the same care. That said, especially after the pandemic, it is highly possible to make an impact by using this channel, joining and listening to live broadcasts, and watching videos, that is, accessing the information on demand. Social media is invaluable in democratizing knowledge."

MM-II

"I think that social media has greatly accelerated this issue [brand activism]. I think it has a serious positive contribution in terms of increasing the awareness and dissemination of the issue to enable individual participation, like change.org, on an individual basis. This, of course, also affected the brands. As people's interest, expectation level, or the speed of people's reach increases, brands also play an important role in terms of making more communication about this issue from their social platforms or telling people who are the denominators of the benefit they create on that topic, what this benefit is, etc."

MM-I

During the interviews, three critical indicators for authentic brand activism emerged. The first indicator emphasizes the alignment between **organizational culture** and brand activism initiatives. NGO-I highlights a negative example and stresses the importance of integrating the cause into corporate culture and conduct.

"...the feminist movement says, 'I exist.' As a woman, I have a name. Elidor featured some celebrities in that campaign and said, 'If there is no equality in the workplace, I do not exist!'. The feminist movement does not say, 'I don't exist.' They were criticized for this movement. You need to spend time, eat, and drink with feminists to understand their rhetoric. That's why I think these parties and specialties need attention and should also be in the organization."

NGO-I

"If there is no such thing in the brand's essence, choosing it on March 8th means nothing. A gas station brand tries to keep the proportion of women in a gas pump at a certain percentage. So, it is like keeping this sort of thing together throughout the year, not just March 8th...Is the brand doing something temporarily or infusing it into its entire company policy?"

A-II

While A-II, the academic interviewee, highlights corporate culture's significance, she connects it to the second indicator of authentic brand activism: the sustained integration and the **continuity** of socially responsible practices within corporate culture and conduct. When these practices become ingrained in corporate culture, a brand gains agility for rapid decision-making and problem-solving during unexpected crises. This adaptability is particularly crucial in times of economic instability in emerging markets, where uncertainty management requires agility (Teece et al., 2016). Both interviewees, A-II and MM-III, emphasize that agility on social media should be complemented by concrete business actions, especially during crises;

"It's a spontaneous situation that we talk about all the time in social movements, and how does the brand respond to this spontaneity? It's like another legitimacy given by the fact that the Divan Hotel is open [during the Gezi Park incident, Divan Hotel, owned by the Koç Group, hosted the protestors running away from the police force, while many stores avoided such as Starbucks, eventually facing some boycotts from a group of consumers]. Something that the brand did not expect to encounter much... How strategic of brand activism is this?"

A-II

"Koç Group once did a project called 'Vocational Education: A Crucial Matter for the Nation' project. This is a good example to benchmark for brand activism since it is a long-term project that trains technical personnel and contributes to education. ... Sustainability itself is a medium that needs to make a breakthrough occasionally and do things that temper the brand. For example, everyone used to say that plastic is not good for health, yet when you say that 'you eat as much plastic as a business card or credit card every year,' it becomes much more effective. I think social

media is a suitable place for such things to come out. It stops people for a while, but it is short-lived."

MM-III

Finally, the third indicator of authentic brand activism is **not to abuse the cultural authority role** while addressing the 'what is in it for me?' question. Brands are traditionally seen as representing the values of the nations in which they operate, and they are expected to operate with an economic focus, even if they also care for the triple bottom line of business. This holds true today, in this fertile ground of the digital era, and more so in the emerging market context. This indicator is observed when companies choose, at times, indirect, less visible paths of contributing to society at large about the cause they support with brand activism. Beyond direct consumer engagement, they also focus on raising awareness among their employees and business partners while developing and co-implementing projects for the cause. As suggested by interviewees, being a 360-degree, holistic role model should be the aspiration when adopting brand activism for a cause;

"Of course, because the first thing that comes to the consumer's mind is, 'The brand is deceiving me.'... In global research, when we compare the United States and Turkey, the majority of Turkish people also say: 'I trust what the brand I use tells me.' In the United States, this rate is much lower. ... there is a little more opportunity for brands in Turkey. Because if we start from Hofstede, the Turkish consumer with higher status distances, the more culturally we believe in authority. Therefore, the credibility of the brands seems to still exist in our country."

NGO-I

"... We are a sustainable company anyway... We are like a rabbit against a tortoise. We already ran a lot, and we are very fast, we are very good. But our end-consumer B2C channels are weak. To be known, it is necessary to make serious decisions and changes regarding the communication strategy."

MM-III

"It's about what kind of culture the company is imposing. Because there are huge working masses inside, and what kind of culture does it keep them alive... Our company has three principles: customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, and supplier

satisfaction ... We are a company that says everyone has the right to dress well. That's why we are trying to democratize clothing. That's why there are the sustainability principles of the United Nations. The other mission we are dedicated to is: Social sustainability. One of the duties of this team is strong women, a strong society, strong future. ... I also give the programs created in cooperation with the support of the corporate academy to these women. ... We went to underdeveloped eastern cities and started giving training to men. 'You have a wife; you have a family. Are you aware of women's rights?' We are starting to embroider it softly. We have a dream of getting to the bottom of the problem."

MM-II

In addition to the noted negative aspects, there are positive outcomes rarely seen, even in advanced economies. High unemployment and turnover rates are common in emerging economies. Therefore, when brands embrace values like democracy, inclusion, and diversity, it's often a new experience for many employees. While instilling such a culture in organizations takes time, brands should persist as it yields promising returns. Job satisfaction rates in Turkey are notably low, so brand activism aimed at internal constituents results in happier employees and a more cohesive organizational culture, laying the groundwork for long-term success.

"... We have a leadership model with two wings. Like a bird, you need two wings to fly. On the one hand, there are qualities associated with the right brain, such as fairness, situational leadership, etc. On the other hand, there is a leadership understanding that includes more left-brain concepts such as technical and professional expertise and vision. We try to align the company's culture with that leadership model and understanding... We are trying to create a corporate culture that is very democratic, where everyone can voice their voice, where diversity is very high, and where respect is very high."

MM-II

Brand activism also brings numerous benefits to external stakeholders. Brands can achieve significant gains by prioritizing satisfaction throughout the value chain. Fair procedures and terms, such as flexible payment options for suppliers to effectively manage their costs and revenues, foster lasting and professional buyer-

supplier relationships. Although such over-generational buyer-seller relationships are historically a part of commerce in emerging markets, they become a rare gem compared to those in advanced economies. In terms of mutual returns, this way, brands also ensure better quality raw materials and enhance their own value-added over the competition while decreasing their cost of reaching the right suppliers. Likewise, addressing inequalities in knowledge, expertise, and promoting fairness and transparency in transactions results in higher customer satisfaction. As informants outline;

"When [Brand M] purchases produce, we first say, let's go and teach geographically marked products. We then teach the correct planting techniques. The quality team is a technical team, but if a more technical one is needed, they find it. They give training. They ensure that products are produced with the right applications, and this is what we call the supply side, the side in the chain before M., where it is very strong. And it also creates an effect, an economic effect. Not only the social and environmental benefits but also the economic benefits are considered."

MM-III

"We have two surveys per year about supplier satisfaction. The survey goes to all our suppliers. We are around 80% there, and the goal is to reach the 90s. Being fair, respecting payments and terms... We have KPIs to measure and meet these."

".. Customer satisfaction is the tip of the iceberg. We are a company that says everyone has the right to dress well. That's why we're trying to democratize clothing. That's why among the sustainability goals of the United Nations, we serve with our products and mission to eliminate World inequalities. We are a company that says everyone has the right to dress well and tries to make affordable products accessible."

MM-II

Limited resources in emerging markets drive brands to achieve multiple objectives with a single strategy. Brand activism not only enhances differentiation but also promotes cost efficiency, frugal innovation, and improvisation in operational excellence. For instance, sustainability-focused activism projects necessitate cross-functional teams, even in highly hierarchical organizations, making them leaner and more cost-efficient. Engaging in multiple activist projects

simultaneously enables internal team members to acquire new skills and knowledge, transforming the organization into a learning entity. Additionally, one activism initiative may inadvertently benefit another cause or stakeholder need, creating synergies. Given the suboptimal nature of institutional systems in emerging markets, these opportunities incentivize brands to embark on activism efforts.

"...Because we always work wholesale, products come and go with large pallets. Thousands of tons of these pallets remain on the platforms. A repair workshop is now open for the broken pallets. With our logistics team, we [the sustainability department] have done a project that reduces our costs in the fight against waste economically. We will provide very serious savings."

MM-III

"Why do we donate clothes? ... You always sell your brand's old-season apparel at your outlets. This helps get rid of that product. In fact, it is also part of one's sustainability. That said, cloth garbage, especially in China and Africa, is a hot topic and is criticized a lot right now. We are trying to prevent them so that our products do not end up in the garbage. We are making an effort to reach those in need and share our unsold products with them as philanthropy. This is actually a part of our sustainable business model."

MM-II

Positive returns are more likely and secure when brands invest in causes aligning with consumers' priorities in target markets. Brand identity also plays a vital role in this equation. Brands should select activism areas that resonate with their origins and visions, striving to drive societal change in these areas. For example;

"We support two initiatives. ... a project in which women's stories, those who have left their mark on society, successful women whose dreams have come true. In Turkey, we also support issues such as innovation, sustainability, good life, and well-being, which are parallel to our brand values in different fields. ... As a brand in which women played a very active role in its debut, the company turned into a more male-dominated brand over time, and to break this down, it launched an initiative to increase its communication with women. ... We support girls' and women's stories, and in general, we like to draw attention to gender inequality. There are also different issues, of course. ...we turn into a zero-carbon emission setup in our

factories. This transformation project drives our support on the second initiative.”

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we aimed to comprehend the brand activism construct within emerging markets. We observe the emergence of a growing middle class, increased consumer purchasing power, rapid infrastructure development, and technological competitiveness in emerging markets. These factors have led to the rise of challenger brands (Chattopadhyay et al., 2012) like Huawei and Haier from China, Wipro from India, and the acquisition of global brands such as IBM’s PC division by Lenovo or Godiva chocolates by Ülker. However, the global success of these brands has not necessarily translated into local community development, indicating that their operations are still influenced by the characteristics of their local contexts (Jamali and Carroll, 2017).

Table 2. Negative and positive impacts of brand activism on brands and consumers/society in emerging markets.

Themes	Impact of Activism Initiatives on Brand	Reflections on Society (Impact on Society)
<i>Positive reflections</i>		
Authentic implications	Internationalization of the discourse:	
	Organizational culture and the cause alignment	Sincere contribution to societal changes
	Organizational culture and the leadership alignment	Permanent investment on cause
	Vision and the cause alignment	Higher success rates
	Capable of giving agile reactions	Positive brand perception in society
	360- degree implications, Holistic role-model	Long-term success in society development Decreasing unemployment and turnover rates
Democratic implications		
Cooperating with stakeholders	Eliminating inequalities in knowledge/expertise	Increased education in society
	Encouraging fairness and transparency in transactions	Increasing marketing literacy in society

	Higher customer satisfaction	Elimination of inequalities in consumption
	Supplier satisfaction	Equitable distribution of limited resources
	Cross-functional teams	Creating synergies
	Sustainable business model	Circular economy
		Sustainable society, environment
<i>Negative reflections</i>		
Reorganizational costs	More focus on internal processes	Less focus on social impact assessment
	Lack of strong institutional practices	Fail to serve the society
	Creating gray areas	Harm to environment, society’s well-being and welfare
	Surface-level approach	Redirect the attention from more controversial sides of the problems
Downsizing/limiting investments	Narrowing activism (Focusing firm-serving activism than community serving)	Missing the chance of being supported by the brands in order to find solutions to societal problems.
		Disadvantaged groups in emerging markets with strong cultural values cannot receive the support of global brands.
Unsustainable implications	Vicious cycle of overproduction/sales	Harmful for environment, consumers’ wallets and in general well-being
	Not being fluent in communicating	Society unaware the support
	Suffering from wrong message framing in social media	Offending the societal sensitivities
	Wrong choice of areas and/or	Damaging total social impact of the brand in the chosen area
Woke washing	Inadequate implementation	Harm the total positive attitude towards the brand in larger society
	Hurt brand credibility	Misled, deceived society
	Risking emotional bond with customers	

According to institutionalists, the adoption of institutionalized practices is driven by isomorphic pressures, which can lead to increased homogeneity over time. However, the unique dynamics of emerging markets suggest that blindly applying Western brand activism studies may not be suitable, as it overlooks local nuances

and dynamics. Scandinavian Institutionalism emphasizes the varying interpretations of ideas and standards based on different actors, allowing for localized application (Cassinger et al., 2016; Vossen and Van Gestel, 2019). Our qualitative study focuses on the process of brand activism and its local implications, aligning with this perspective (Boxenbaum and Pedersen, 2009).

Regarding the meaning of brand activism, we observe a broad approach that encompasses a wide range of societal and environmental issues beyond the partisan causes often addressed in advanced markets. This raises the question of whether brand activism is universally defined or culturally contingent, drawing parallels with the 'linkedemic' and 'adapted etic' debate in international marketing (Douglas and Craig, 2006). Our research pioneers an exploration of these distinctions, encouraging further discussion toward a unified conceptualization that applies across different contexts.

In emerging markets, the selection of brand activism causes, and the establishment of safe and risky boundaries often contribute to a 'us' vs. 'them' divide, especially in the context of rising right-wing populism. This challenge is more pronounced in emerging economies due to the significant role of the private and third sectors, influenced by state interventions. This highlights the need for a fresh definition of brand activism in emerging markets, warranting empirical validation.

The roots of CSR and activism are deeply embedded in emerging markets, suggesting a potentially favorable environment for such business conduct. As the digital landscape expands alongside social media, the question arises whether brand activism could find a platform for expression in the absence of a centralized structure. This query is of particular concern given the high level of state censorship on traditional media in emerging markets (Enikolopov et al., 2018). Our interviews indicate the potential for brand activism to drive positive behavioral change in emerging markets, leveraging brands' higher respect and recognition within the public sphere.

Given the vulnerabilities associated with employing social media (e.g., trolls and fake

negative publicity) in emerging markets to plant brand activism, we argue that brands should engage in authentic brand activism. More specifically, they should align their organizational culture with the activism initiatives of the brand. The fit discussion is already part of research in the area (e.g., Karaosmanoglu et al., 2016) advocate such a stance. Furthermore, the integration of CSR into marketing conduct is mentioned in recent work (Ozturan and Grinstein, 2022). Yet, in emerging markets, for brands to refrain from greenwashing claims and not to be shot in the foot by trolls or skeptical consumers is a go or no-go issue when investing in a brand activism cause.

Secondly, brands leave their marks in the digital space, and therefore, any discontinuity or one-shot approach to brand activism besides the aforementioned misalignment with organizational culture backfires. This is the continuity aspect of any authentic brand activism effort (Morhart et al., 2015). Since current literature on CSR or activism also lacks the dynamics component, this is an issue to be tested in the advanced economies context as well. Gatignon (2022) recently highlighted this aspect where activism in the form of, e.g. corporate volunteering, is valuable in developing countries as long as the company and its stakeholders continue their commitment to such efforts over time.

Finally, the brands still have legitimacy and are looked up to in emerging markets. Hence, they may enter this unexplored activism territory to gain higher profits. Yet suppose they tend to abuse the cultural authority role while addressing the 'what is in it for me?' question. In that case, they may be questioned a lot for their conduct and face the negative outcomes as their advanced economy constituents. More specifically, even for CSR efforts that usually are tied to, on average, positive returns, there are some boundary conditions. For example, when stakeholders are more suspicious of the brand's CSR efforts and motive, this can lead to negative reactions (e.g., Yoon et al., 2006). To overcome consumer skepticism, brands should sincerely employ KPIs that are not only based on eWOM, profits, etc., but also on metrics that build and evaluate their impact on people and the planet (Porter and Kramer, 2011; El-Akremiti et al., 2018). This responsible conduct in company policies

should be reflected in its digital policies too (Lobschat et al., 2021).

This study is based on one emerging economy and a limited set of participants. While we tried to reach breadth in terms of views and opinions, a further exploratory study that can complement our findings with a more comprehensive case study (e.g., Jurietti et al., 2017) could be beneficial. We suggest further quantitative work to explore which dimensions of social media play a motivator or a hijacker role by including participants from the field, i.e., brand managers and marketing executives. This would be fruitful for understanding the management perspective more deeply. Empirical work using secondary data could also be promising for understanding the consumer, social media audience, and participant perspective. We think some brands actively support and stand in solidarity with the underdogs of society or causes. Yet we did not look at social media activities, e.g., in Twitter, to fully claim the under- and non-represented groups/causes of a society in an emerging market, i.e. Turkey. That is, the positive returns we propose in our work need more valid tests by examining, for example, the tweets of brands in Turkey for the last two years based on a keyword library that represents human rights issues. By tracking replies and tweets, including related hashtags, we can then aim to analyze the tone and direction of the reflections on these issues. Despite these limitations, we hope to trigger attention to this novel yet inspiring domain and encourage new researchers and participants to join. This way, we will further encourage the benefits of social media in enhancing brand activism.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Review of the Effect of Problem-Solving Training Group on the Social Problem-Solving Skills of Female Convicts

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Abstract

This study aims to examine the effectiveness of the psycho-education group-based program aimed at improving the social problem-solving skills of female prisoners. The applied program is adopted by Çekici & Güçray (2012) based on the five-stage approach model in social problem-solving (D'zurilla & Nezu, 2007; Nezu et al., 2007). The research is in the semi-experimental design, and one of the types of the experimental design, "real experimental model with pretest-posttest control group" was used. The implementation was carried out with 36 convicts in Karataş Prison in Adana province in the Women's Open Penal Institution. Since the sample did not show a normal distribution, it was evaluated by the Wilcoxon Signed Rows Test, one of the non-parametric analysis methods used to compare the difference between the scores of the two sets of measurements. As a result of the analysis, it was found that the use of a positive orientation-rational problem-solving style to the problem, which is a positive coping style, increased social problem-solving skills in female convicts who participated in social problem-solving group practices, and their use of inattentive and avoidant styles, which are negative orientation to the problem and negative coping styles, decreased. This did not change in the results of the monitoring measurement in which the persistence of the effect was evaluated. The findings were interpreted in light of the literature data.

Keywords: Female Convict, Social Problem Solving, Social Problem-Solving Styles, Psycho-Education Group.

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı, kadın mahkumların sosyal problem çözme becerilerinin geliştirilmesini amaçlayan psiko-eğitim grubu temelli programın etkililiğinin değerlendirilmesidir. Uygulanan program, Çekici ve Güçray'ın (2012), sosyal problem çözmeye beş aşamalı yaklaşım modelini (D'zurilla & Nezu; Nezu et al., 2007) temel alarak hazırladıkları programdan uyarlanarak geliştirilmiştir. Araştırma yarı deneysel desende olup, deneysel desenin türlerinden biri olan "öntest-sontest kontrol gruplu gerçek deneysel model" kullanılmıştır. Uygulama, Adana ili Karataş Cezaevinde Kadın Açık Ceza İnfaz Kurumu'ndaki 36 hükümlü ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Örneklemin normal dağılım göstermemesi sebebiyle iki ölçüm setine ait puanlar arasındaki farkı karşılaştırmak amacıyla kullanılan parametrik olmayan analiz yöntemlerinden Wilcoxon İşaretleli Sıralar Testi ile değerlendirilmiştir. Analiz sonucunda sosyal problem çözme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamalarına katılan kadın hükümlülerin sosyal problem çözmeye olumlu bir baş etme tarzı olan probleme olumlu yönelim-rasyonel problem çözme tarzı kullanımının arttığı, probleme olumsuz yönelim ve olumsuz başa çıkma tarzları olan dürtüsel-dikkatsiz ve kaçınan tarzların kullanımının azaldığı bulunmuştur. Etkinin kalıcılığının değerlendirildiği izleme ölçümü sonuçlarında da bu durum değişmemiştir. Elde edilen bulgular alanyazın verileri ışığında yorumlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kadın Hükümlü, Sosyal Problem Çözme, Sosyal Problem Çözme Tarzları, Psiko-Eğitim Grubu.

September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: [10.26466/opusjsr.1299808](https://doi.org/10.26466/opusjsr.1299808)

Citation:

Sağdıç, Ü, E., Çolaklıoğlu, O. and Demir, S. (2023). Review of the Effect of Problem-Solving Training Group on the Social Problem-Solving Skills of Female Convicts. *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 687-703.

Introduction

Throughout history human beings have faced various problems in meeting their most basic needs. These problems have emerged in different forms over time in the stage of modernization of society, progress and complexity of social life, and socialization of man. People face these problem situations in various content and frequency in social life. Problems in social life can be a source of stress, so the person activates the problem-solving skills that exist in the face of problems. As well as the existence of the problem, how the person tries to solve the problem, in other words, the problem-solving styles, is also an important factor. In this direction, the person's approach to the problems and how they react become as significant as the problems they encounter.

Researchers have generally defined social problem-solving as a self-directed, cognitive-behavioral process in which individuals, couples, or groups try to find effective solutions to various problems encountered in their daily lives (D'Zurilla, 1986; D'Zurilla & Nezu, 1982). In this process, the individual searches for solutions for himself and tries to choose the most effective solution. Social problem-solving is perceived as an activity that occurs at the level of consciousness, is rational, and serves a purpose. Problem-solving goals are aimed at improving the problematic situation, reducing the emotional distress it produces, or reducing both (D'Zurilla & Chang, 1995; D'Zurilla et al., 2004).

The social problem-solving theory states that there are generally two structures in solving problems. The first of these is the orientation to the problem and the second is the problem-solving style. D'Zurilla & Goldfried (1971) defined problem orientation as a meta-cognitive process that encompasses the study of a person's general problems, assessments, and feelings about the problems he or she experiences, as well as a set of relatively stable cognitive and emotional schemata that reflect his or her problem-solving ability. This process serves as an important motivation in the process of social problem-solving. Problem orientation is divided into two positive problem orientation and negative problem orientation.

Positive orientation is based on constructive cognitive evaluation in the form of seeing the problem as a part of life rather than a threat, believing that it is solvable. Negative orientation is based on unconstructive cognitive assessment in the form of seeing the problem as a threat, not believing that it is solvable, expectations of negative outcomes, and frustration (Chang & D'Zurilla, 1996; D'Zurilla & Maydeu-Olivares, 1995; Sadowski et al., 1994).

Problem-solving styles are also divided into two: positive and negative. A positive problem-solving style involves considering the situation from a realistic point of view and applying the necessary problem-solving steps to solve the problem. The negative problem style refers to the inability to evaluate the situation from a realistic point of view and to exhibit an inattentive and avoidant structure (D'Zurilla et al., 2004).

Problem-solving is a very important process for social life. That is because people who cannot solve their problems are more likely to exhibit criminal behavior. The phenomenon of crime is seen in every segment of society, in every race and religion, in every community, and no human community living in the world is exempt from this crime phenomenon (Kepenekçi & Özcan, 2000). A person is defined as a living being in society and may have different views with social expectations at various periods of his life and even show various destructive and aggressive behaviors against the social order (Jhangiani & Tarry, 2022; Kaner, 1992).

The lack of a clear consensus on what are the causes that enable the phenomenon of crime also makes it difficult to define the phenomenon of crime. The phenomenon of crime considered a sociological process at the same time as it is a legal process, emerges as a result of the interaction of the personality structure formed by the biological and psychological structure of the individual and the social structure formed by social, economic, and cultural factors. Recently, there has been an increasing number of ideas that the social structure plays a more active role in the formation of crime (Çoğan, 2006; Kızmaz, 2005). With the development of gender equality and the inclusion of women in life, the social roles undertaken by men in the previous periods are now made by

women, and their legal as well as illegal behaviors have started to attract attention. Accordingly, female delinquency has also become a problem. On the other hand, studies conducted so far (Allen et al., 2002; D'Zurilla et al., 1998; Sumi, 2012) have revealed that women's social problem-solving skills are lower than those of men.

The inability to solve social problems can often be associated with distress. In this context, researchers have also suggested that ineffective problem-solving results in stressful outcomes and psychological maladjustment (Chan, 2001; Dermitzaki et al., 2009). Conversely, effective social problem-solving skills may protect inmates against the negative emotional effects of prison and facilitate better coping in prison settings (McMurran et al., 2005; Pont et al., 2015). Improving the social problem-solving skills of convicts is also an important determinant of their ability to cope with imprisonment. Individuals who have difficulty coping with imprisonment and life events in prisons may suffer from various mental illnesses and self-harm (Hawton et al., 2014; Pont et al., 2015). Research shows that people who attempt suicide may have poorer problem-solving skills in a more general way (Chu et al., 2018; Gustavson et al., 2016; Hirsch et al., 2012; Labella et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2015; Linehan et al., 1987; McLeavey et al., 1987; Pollock & Williams, 2001).

Teaching problem-solving skills abroad is used in situations involving behavior disorder, substance abuse, gambling, and criminal offenses, and problem-solving training are provided more frequently in education and prison settings (McGuire, 2005). In this context, social problem-solving programs have become one of the most important areas in offender treatment and rehabilitation. Cognitive-behavioral programs designed to improve social problem-solving skills are seen to be carried out with experimental and semi-experimental studies and positive results are obtained (Chinaveh, 2010; Lo ̇sel, 1995; McGuire, 2002; Ross & Ross, 1989). McMurran & Duggan (2005) noted that problem-solving therapy or training can be used in the process of acquiring cognitive or social/interpersonal skills, providing significant advantages in establishing standard forms of intervention in criminal justice facilities

such as prisons, community-based supervision, and safe mental health settings. Evidence of the effectiveness of cognitive behavioral programs in the rehabilitation of convicts has also been found in several meta-analyses (Andrews et al., 1990; Pearson et al., 2002). Overall, the results of these studies suggest that problem-solving is an important factor in adaptation and that problem-solving training is important in improving a person's adaptive functioning and, ultimately, in reducing and preventing psychological and behavioral disorders (D'Zurilla & Chang, 1995).

When we look at the studies on problem-solving in the literature, it is seen that women use negative coping styles more often than men, and their problem-solving skills are lower (D'Zurilla et al., 1998; Kelleci, 2003; Robichaud et al., 2003). It is also complicated for women who have lower problem-solving skills to cope with the unique problems of prisons in prisons. In this process, female convicts experience various life pressures caused by various stress factors such as loss of independence, separation from family, being in an overcrowded environment, lack of social support, disciplinary punishment, and physical health problems (Constantino et al., 2016; Nuria et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2019). In addition, studies have shown that female suicide rates are higher than males (Cheng et al., 2009; Kwok & Shek, 2010). Problem-solving training is of great importance in dealing with these problems. For this reason, social problem-solving training for female prisoners is thought to contribute to the literature.

In this study, the Five-Step Approach to the Social Problem Solving model which D'Zurilla and Golfried first structured in 1971 and revised over time (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007; Nezu et al., 2007), which was finally adopted by Alıcı ve Güçray (2012), and in which some changes were made by the researcher in its content, was examined whether the social problem-solving skills training had a positive effect on the development of social problem-solving skills of women convicted of a crime; the permanence of this effect was also examined. In this context, the effectiveness of the program was tested with the following experiments:

- *Hypothesis 1:* There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style, and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the experimental group after applying the social problem-solving psycho-education group program.
- *Hypothesis 2:* There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the control group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program is not applied.
- *Hypothesis 3:* There is no significant difference between the post-test and follow-up test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the experimental group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program is applied.
- *Hypothesis 4:* There was no significant difference between the post-test and follow-up test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the control group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program was not applied.

Method

In this study, social problem-solving psycho-education based on the Five-Step Approach to Social Problem-Solving was applied to determine whether group experience had an effect on the social problem-solving levels of women convicted of a crime. In the study, one of the types of experimental design, "pretest-posttest, follow-up test measured and semi-experimental design with control group" was used. While the independent variable of the study was social problem-solving psycho-education group experience, the dependent variable was the social problem-solving levels of female convicts.

The research was conducted on two groups of female prisoners. One of the groups formed is the experimental group, and the other is the control group. The experimental group was applied with the Five-Step Approach to Social Problem-Solving Model (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007; Nezu et al., 2007) and the "social problem-solving psycho-education program" developed by Çekici & Güçray (2012) and in the content of which some changes were made by the researcher. The program was structured in the form of 9 sessions, and the 1st was implemented by the author. No interventions were applied in the control group.

In the study, three measurements (pre-test-post-test-follow-up test) were made to female prisoners in the experimental group and control group. With this approach, it is possible to compare the experimental and control groups with the help of a pre-test before the experimental process, which allows it to be suggested that if the groups are similar at the beginning, it is due to the experimental process that the two groups are likely to be observed between the post-test measurements.

In this experimental study, internal and external validity conditions were tried to be met. To ensure internal validity, the same measurement tool was applied to the participants in the group room under the supervision of the group leader in the experimental and control groups. No information was given on what the measurement tools applied to prevent them from being prone to positive behavior in the scale-filling process were

measured. In addition, the participants in the experimental group were asked not to share the practices and procedures in the psycho-education group life process with anyone other than the group members. To ensure external validity, to reduce the Hawthorne effect, which affects the power of generalizability, participants were not told which group they were in. To control the "Measurement-Response Interaction Effect", 10 days were left between the pre-test application and the beginning of the sessions, 1 week between the post-tests and the end of the sessions, and 2 months between the last test and the follow-up test. With the realization of the follow-up test after 2 months, the effect of the changes due to the "time-intervention interaction" was tried to be controlled, and the participants were not informed about the research experiments and the application process and prevented them from "developing special tendencies that would affect their performance".

Research Model

In the study, one of the types of experimental design, "pretest-posttest, follow-up test measured and semi-experimental design with control group (2x3)" was used. In this pattern, the first factor represents independent groups of operations (experiment and control), while the other factor shows repeated measurements of the dependent variable under different conditions (pre-test, post-test, and follow-up measurements). The reason for the choice of semi-experimental design is the use of this technique especially in social sciences and educational sciences in cases where it is not possible to assign the experimental and control group randomly with the random technique (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012; Karasar, 2004). Research pattern is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Research pattern.

Groups	Pre-Test	Process	Post-Test	Process	Follow-up test
Experiment	Social Problem -Solving Scale	Social Problem -Solving Psycho-Training Program	Social Problem -Solving Scale	No Processes	Social Problem -Solving Scale
Control	Social Problem -Solving Scale	No Processes	Social Problem -Solving Scale	No Processes	Social Problem -Solving Scale

Study Group

The working group consists of 36 female convicts who volunteered to participate in the study at the Women's Open Penal Institution in Karataş Prison in Adana Province between 2018-2019. The mean age of the participants in the experimental group was 34.72, and the average age of the participants in the control group was 35.50. Within the scope of this study, sociodemographic information about the experimental and control groups is presented in Table 2:

Table 2. Sociodemographic information about experimental and control groups.

Variables	Experimental Group		Control Group	
	N	%	N	%
Educational Background				
Literate	6	33.3	6	33.3
Primary education	9	50	8	44.4
High School	2	11.1	4	22.2
University	1	5.6	-	-
Marital Status				
Married	7	38.9	4	22.2
Single	3	16.7	5	27.8
Reserved	8	44.4	9	50.0
Age Range				
20-29	5	27.8	3	16.7
30-39	8	44.4	10	55.6
40-49	5	27.8	5	27.8
Total	18	100	18	100

When Table 2 is examined, it can be seen that 6 (33.3%) of the experimental group members were literate, 9 (50%) of them were primary education graduates, 2 (11.1%) of them were high school graduates, and 1 (5.6%) was university graduate; 7 (38.9%) of them were married, 3 (16.7%) were single, 8 (44.4%) were separated, 5 (27.8%) were

between 20-29 years old, 8 (44.4%) were in the 30-39 age range, 5 (27.8%) were in the 40-49 age range, and 6 (33.3%) of the control group members were literate, 8 (44.4%) were primary school graduates, 4 (22.2%) were high school graduates, 4 (22.2%) were married, 5 (27.8%) were single, 9 (50%) were separated, 3 (16.7%) were between 20-29 years old, 10 (55.6%) were between 30-39 years old, and 5 (27.8%) were 40-49 years old.

Selection of participants and creation of groups:

The necessary permissions were obtained before starting the research. The participants in the study were contacted via announcement, and the participants who volunteered to participate in the study stated that they wanted to participate in the study with a petition. Pre-test measurements were taken by applying the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form to 52 convicted female participants who volunteered for the selection of the participants in the study groups. In addition to this measurement tool, the personal information form prepared by the researcher was used to determine and control personal variables. This information form includes various questions to determine the factors that may have an impact on the results of the research, such as whether participants have participated in such a skill training before, whether they have received any psychiatric diagnosis in the past or now, and whether they have not experienced a traumatic event recently. Participants who were undergoing psychiatric treatment, who had recently experienced severe traumatic experiences, etc., and who were outside the normal distribution curve were not evaluated.

At the end of these stages, the group of 36 people was divided into two an 18-person experimental group and 18-person control group according to the matching method. The first session of the study was held on 10/19/2018 at the Karataş Women's Open Penal Institution Seminar Hall. Following this date, the participants in the experimental group were studied for eight weeks, and after the last session on 28.12.2018, the last tests were applied to the experimental and control group after one week. Follow-up measurement was made after a mean of 2 months.

Psycho-Education Group Sessions and Content

The social problem-solving psycho-education program developed by Alici & Güçray (2012) was applied to female convicts by making updates in the content of this study. The overall objective of the applied psycho-education group program is to help participants develop social problem-solving skills in a group environment. In the creation of the content of the program, books and articles on social problem-solving and problem-solving were used from basic sources (Chang et al., 2004; Cormier & Nurius, 2003; D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007; Gorsky, 2003; Jones & Robinson, 2000; Nezu et al., 2007).

Social problem-solving psycho-training program consists of 8 sessions (Çekici & Güçray, 2012). In this study, with the idea that the participants are female prisoners and that they will need more sharing due to their environment, a session was added to help the participants express their experiences with their own reflections in the group process and to look at their own processes from the outside before the goodbye session, and it was designed as a program consisting of a total of nine weeks.

The group leader worked as a Social Worker in prisons for about 12 years and continues to work in the institution where the research was conducted. The leader has been trained in the fields of dance, movement therapy, and in psychodrama, she has reached the level of "Trainer". The leader also completed family counseling and supervision training at IF Weinheim Institute for Systemic Training. Based on these experiences, the sessions were arranged in a way that the female prisoners could understand, and sample problems, incidents were selected from the situations they encountered or may encounter. At the same time, breathing exercises in exercises and warm-up games were supported with body movements. For inmates who have been in prison for a long time, living with rules and being in order helps them feel safe. Therefore, when some prisoners move from a closed prison to an open penal institution, they have difficulty in adapting to the reduction of rules and restrictions and return to the closed penal institution.

Breathing exercises and doing the same movements both build confidence and help them warm up physically and mentally on the other hand. While making arrangements in all these contents, contributions were made by two faculty members in the field of Psychological Counseling and Guidance. In the program arrangement part, a joint decision was made about the activity writing, selection and duration control. The sample situations and sample sentences to be discussed in the sessions were evaluated together, and whether the content of the activities was suitable for the purpose or not was discussed together. The implementation process of the program was also carried out under the supervision of two faculty members in the field of PCG. Permission was obtained from the participants to carry out this supervision. The program was held in nine sessions. The group process was continued with one session each week. The sessions usually lasted between 2 and 2.5 hours. The details of these sessions are explained below:

First session: The purpose of this session is to introduce the members, to determine the rules and procedure, and to introduce the intervention program. After the warm-up game and introduction, the basic logic of the psychoeducation program and the group rules are explained. Then, information was given about social problem-solving, the place of problem-solving in human life, the basic characteristics of the social problem-solving psycho-education program, theoretical basis, and these were explained with examples. The session ended with a summarization by enabling the members to determine their personal goals.

Second session: The objectives of this session are to help participants evaluate themselves in problem situations about their orientation to problems and problem-solving styles and to observe themselves in relation to the feelings and thoughts they feel in a problem situation and what solutions they apply. The session started with a warm-up and a summary of the previous session, then information was given to them to evaluate their own problem-solving skills and to monitor themselves, and this information was supported with sample applications, homework was given on

this subject, and the session was concluded by summarizing.

Third session: The aim of this session is to help participants recognize the factors that prevent them from having a positive problem orientation. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Then, according to Nezu and D'Zurilla (2007), low self-esteem, negative thinking and negative emotional reactions that prevent positive orientation to the problem were explained, the shares of the participants about each factor were taken, and the work was reinforced with the "thought, emotion and behavior wheel poster", thinking errors, thought record forms. Afterwards, the session was summarized, homework was given about their own thought errors, the thought errors of others, the thought errors in the songs they listened to, and the games were played using psychodrama techniques, and the session was ended to increase the motivation of the participants about the group and to see different perspectives through the flexibility of role-playing roles.

Fourth session: The aim of this session is to help participants transform irrational thoughts into rational thoughts that negatively affect their positive orientation to the problem. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Then, information about the positive orientation to the problem and cognitive structuring was given. Irrational thoughts, which are basically divided into 4, were explained as "imposition", "terrification", "low threshold of inhibition" and "general valuation of oneself and others", and examples of how each irrational thought was transformed into rational thoughts were given, and participants were asked to translate them into rational thoughts by giving examples of irrational thoughts. In addition, the process was reinforced with exercises in which irrational thoughts were transformed into rational thoughts. Afterwards, the session was summarized, 2 assignments related to the topic of the session were given, the "circle of trust" exercise was performed to move the group cohesion and trust building forward, and the session was ended.

Fifth session: The aim of this session is to help participants become aware of their emotions that negatively affect their positive orientation to the problem. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Afterwards, information was given about the emotions that negatively affected the positive orientation to the problem. The pre-prepared list of emotions was read by a volunteer participant, and "I language" exercises were done to cope with the emotions that prevented us from turning to the problem positively. Afterwards, the session was summarized, homework related to the topic of the session was given, "I play, you play like me" exercise was done to leave the group with positive emotions, and the session was ended.

Sixth session: The aim of this session is to help participants to apply the steps of dealing with anger, anxiety and depressive state from the negative emotions that accompany the problem-solving process and social problem-solving. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Afterwards, information was given about problem-oriented and emotion-oriented and personal coping reactions. From relaxation exercises, deep breathing and smiling exercises were applied, steps of social problem-solving were explained, sample applications were made. Afterwards, the session was summarized, relaxation exercises related to the topic of the session were given as homework, and the session was ended.

Seventh session: The aim of this session is to help participants develop different perspectives on the problem-solving process. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Afterwards, information was given about the six-hat thinking method in problem-solving; groups of 6 people were formed to share their problems, and others were asked to offer alternative thinking opportunities to the participant who shared the problem. After the sharing was completed, the session was summarized, a problem encountered in connection with the subject of the session was

given as homework according to the six-hat thinking technique, and the session was ended.

Eighth session: The aim of this session is to help the participants express their experiences in the group process with their own reflections and to look at their own processes from the outside. The session started with the warm-up activity, summarization of the previous session and sharing of assignments. Afterwards, the participants were divided into small groups to share their experiences in 7 sessions to share what was reflected on them in the sessions so far. After the sharing, they expressed them interchangeably in the large group. The session was then summarized and concluded.

Ninth session: The aim of this session is to evaluate the general evaluation and individual achievements. The session started with the warm-up activity and the summary of the previous session. Afterwards, the past sessions were summarized; the social problem-solving skills of the participants and the gains they gained from group life were shared, and the extent to which the members achieved their personal goals was discussed. The general evaluation of the group process was made by the leader and the members, the exercise called "warm chair" was applied to leave the group with positive emotions, and the process was ended by saying goodbye to the members.

Data Collection Tools

In this study, personal information forms and Social Problem-Solving Inventory Short Form (SPSI) were used as data collection tools.

Socio-Demographic Information Form: Within the scope of this research, a personal information form was used to determine and control personal variables as well as a measurement tool for the convicts who volunteered to participate in the study. In the personal information form prepared by the researcher, various questions are included to determine the factors that are considered to affect the results of the research, such as whether they have participated in such a skills training group before, their health status in general,

whether they have received psychiatric treatment in the past or now, etc.

Social Problem-Solving Inventory – Short Form (SPSI): The Social Problem-Solving Inventory was developed by D’Zurilla et al. (2002) to determine the problem orientations and problem-solving styles of individuals. The scale consists of 5 sub-scales. These sub-scales include Positive Orientation to Problem (POP), Negative Orientation to Problem (NOP), Rational Problem Solving (RPS), Inattentive Style (IS), and Avoidant Style (ST). The scale has a total of 25 items. Items are answered by ticking one of the five categories such as 0 (Not completely eligible), 1 (Less eligible), 2 (Partially eligible), 3 (Very eligible), and 4 (Completely eligible). The total score can be taken from the scale or the total score for each subscale. The highest total score that can be taken from the scale is 100, and the lowest total score is 0. A high score indicates a "good level" of social problem-solving ability, while a low score indicates a "low level" of social problem-solving ability. The highest score that can be achieved from each subscale is 20 while the lowest score is 0. A high score on the problem-positive orientation and rational problem-solving subscales indicates good social problem-solving skills, while a low score indicates a low level of social problem-solving skills. In addition, a high score in the subscales of negative orientation to the problem, inattentive style, and avoidant style indicates that the problem-solving skill is at a low level, and a low score indicates that the social problem-solving skill is at a high level.

The adaptation study of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form was carried out by Çekici (2009). As a result of the factor analysis process carried out on the data obtained from three separate sample groups in the research, a 4-factor

orientation to the problem and rational problem-solving factors were collected in one factor. These include the 1st Factor: positive orientation to the problem-rational problem solving (POPRPS); the 2nd Factor: negative orientation to the problem (NOPS); the 3rd Factor: inattentive style (IS); the 4th Factor: the avoidant style (AS). Confirmatory Factor Analysis Compliance Indices Values CFI =.95, RMSEA =.057, SRMR= .056, NNFI=.95,

GFI=.90, and these values were found to adequately explain the model. Within the scope of the reliability studies of the scale, the internal consistency Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the subscales were calculated. The internal consistency coefficient values obtained for each sub-scale were found to be =.81 for POP-RPS, = .76 for NOP, .74 for AS, and = .61 for IIS. These correlation coefficient values show that the properties measured by the items in the subscales are similar/consistent. In addition, the item total score correlation values of the measurement tool were significant at the level of .01, and as a result of the reliability analysis performed by the test re-test method, the reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .85 (Çekici, 2009).

Data Analysis

The pretest, post-test, and follow-up data collected from the experimental and control groups with the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form (SPSI) were evaluated according to the hypotheses of the research and with Wilcoxon Signed Rows Test using SPSS 20.0 program. The Wilcoxon Signed Rows Test is one of the non-parametric analysis methods used to compare the difference between the scores of two sets of measurements when the sample is not normally distributed

Table 3. Pre-test, post-test and follow-up test score averages and standard deviations of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory sub-dimensions of the experimental and control group participants.

SPSI-Subscales	Experimental Group				Control Group							
	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Follow-up test		Pre-Test		Post-Test		Follow-up test	
	X	Ss	X	Ss	X	Ss	X	Ss	X	Ss	X	Ss
POP-RPS	33.55	10.17	38.55	7.28	36.77	7.71	38.70	9.42	37.38	7.53	36.83	7.82
NOP	12.77	2.67	10.00	2.47	10.94	4.95	11.22	4.88	10.94	5.87	11.16	4.80
IS	13.07	4.58	8.88	2.39	11.61	4.60	11.09	5.56	11.72	4.81	11.83	4.32
AS	12.50	5.91	8.05	2.38	9.72	3.69	9.92	5.14	10.56	4.88	10.00	3.42

structure emerged in which the positive (Karasar, 2004).

Findings

The arithmetic mean, standard deviation scores of the participants in the experimental and control group from the Positive Orientation to Problem-Rational Problem-Solving (POPRPS), Negative Orientation to the Problem (NOP), Inattentive Style (IS) and Avoidant Style (AS) sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory (SPSI) in the pre-test, post-test and follow-up test are shown in Table 3.

In Table 3, the scores of pre-test, post-test and follow-up test of the experimental and control groups in the sub-dimensions of positive orientation-rational problem-solving, negative orientation to the problem, inattentive style, avoidant style are given. Accordingly, the following experiments were tested to examine whether there was a significant difference between the measurements and groups.

Hypothesis 1. "There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the experimental group after applying the social problem-solving psycho-education group program." The Wilcoxon Signed Rows test was used to test the first hypothesis of the study, and the findings are presented in Table 4.

When Table 4 is examined, it can be seen that there is a significant difference between pretest and post-test scores of sub-scales in the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form such as Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving ($z=-2.01$, $p<.05$), Negative Orientation to Problem ($z=-2.52$, $p<.05$), Inattentive Style ($z=-2.72$, $p<.05$) and Avoidant Style ($z=-2.70$, $p<.05$) in the experience group, and this difference is in favor of the post-test scores. With this result, it was revealed that the participants in the experimental group had an increase in the average scores of positive orientation-rational problem-solving to the problem, and there was a decrease in the average scores of negative orientation,

inattentive style, and avoidant style to the problem. This result shows that the first experiment of the research has been confirmed.

Table 4. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test analysis results of the pretest and post-test scores of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory (SPSI) subscales of the experimental group.

Group	SPSI-Subscales	Pretest-Posttest	n	Order Average	Total Order	z	p
Experiment	POP-RPS	Negative Order	4	8.50	34.00	-2.01	.044*
		Positive Order	13	9.15	119.00		
		Equal Order	1				
	NOP	Negative Order	12	8.75	105.00	-2.52	.010*
		Positive Order	3	5.00	15.00		
		Equal Order	3				
	IS	Negative Order	12	11.17	134.00	-2.72	.006*
		Positive Order	5	3.80	19.00		
		Equal Order	1				
	AS	Negative Order	14	10.54	147.50	-2.70	.007*
		Positive Order	4	5.88	23.50		
		Equal Order	0				

* Based on negative sequences

Hypothesis 2. "There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the control group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program is not applied." The Wilcoxon Signed Rows test was used to test the second hypothesis of the study, and the findings are presented in Table 5.

When Table 5 is examined, it has been observed that there is not a significant difference between pretest and post-test scores of sub-scales in the

Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form such as Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving ($z=-1.164$, $p>.05$), Negative Orientation to Problem ($z=-.831$, $p>.05$), Inattentive Style ($z=.806$, $p>.05$) and Avoidant Style ($z=-.415$, $p>.05$) in the control group.

Table 5. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test analysis results of the pretest and post-test scores of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form (SPSI) subscales of the control group.

Group	SPSI-Subscales	Pretest-Posttest	n	Order Average	Total Order	z	p
Control	POP-RPS	Negative Order	4	11.38	45.50	-1.16 4	.244
		Positive Order	13	7.54	90.50		
		Equal	1				
	NOP	Negative Order	6	8.67	52.00	-.831	.406
		Positive Order	10	8.40	84.00		
		Equal	2				
	IS	Negative Order	7	8.50	59.50	-.806	.420
		Positive Order	10	9.35	93.50		
		Equal	1				
	AS	Negative Order	5	12.00	60	-.415	.678
		Positive Order	11	6.91	76		
		Equal	2				

* Based on negative sequences

Therefore, this finding revealed that there was no change in the scores of the control group that did not undergo experimental processes, and the second hypothesis of the study was confirmed.

Hypothesis 3. "There is no significant difference between the post-test and follow-up test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the experimental group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program is applied." The Wilcoxon Signed Rows test was used to test the third hypothesis of the study, and the findings are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test analysis results of the post-test and follow-up test scores of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form (SPSI) subscales of the Experimental Group.

SPSI-Subscales	Post-test - Follow-up Test	n	Order Average	Total Order	z	p
POP-RPS	Negative Order	11	10.18	112.00	-1.156	.248
	Positive Order	7	8.43	59.00		
	Equal	0				
NOP	Negative Order	7	7.43	52.00	-.456	.649
	Positive Order	8	8.50	68.00		
	Equal	3				
IS	Negative Order	5	8.30	41.50	-1.920	.060
	Positive Order	13	9.96	129.50		
	Equal	0				
AS	Negative Order	7	8.43	59	-1.157	.247
	Positive Order	11	10.18	112		
	Equal	0				

* Based on negative sequences

When Table 6 is examined, it is observed that there is no significant correlation between pretest and post-test scores of sub-scales in the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form such as Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving ($z=-.349$, $p>.05$), Negative Orientation to Problem ($z=-.456$, $p>.05$), Inattentive Style ($z=-1.920$, $p>.05$) and Avoidant Style ($z=-1.157$, $p>.05$) in the experimental group. The findings obtained show that the increased scores of the participants in the experimental group after the experimental procedure were permanent. This result confirms the third hypothesis of the study.

Hypothesis 4. "There was no significant difference between the post-test and follow-up test scores from the Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving, Negative Orientation to the Problem, Inattentive Style and Avoidant Style sub-dimensions of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory among the participants in the control group in which the social problem-solving psycho-education group program was not applied." The Wilcoxon Signed Rows test was used to test the

fourth hypothesis of the study, and the findings are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test analysis results of the post-test and follow-up test scores of the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form (SPSI) subscales of the Control Group.

SPSI Subscales	Post-test Follow-up Test	n	Order Average	Total Order	z	P
POP-RPS	Negative Order	10	9.80	98.00	-.546	.585
	Positive Order	8	9.13	73.00		
	Equal	0				
NOP	Negative Order	5	6.10	30.50	-.673	.501
	Positive Order	7	6.79	47.50		
	Equal	6				
IS	Negative Order	1	2.00	2.00	-.577	.564
	Positive Order	2	2.00	4.00		
	Equal	15				
AS	Negative Order	9	9.44	85	-.883	.377
	Positive Order	7	7.29	51		
	Equal	2				

* Based on negative sequences

When Table 7 is examined, it is observed that there is no significant correlation between pretest and posttest scores of sub-scales in the Social Problem-Solving Inventory-Short Form such as Positive Orientation to the Problem-Rational Problem-Solving ($z=-.546, p>.05$), Negative Orientation to Problem ($z=-.673, p>.05$), Inattentive Style ($z=-.577, p>.05$) and Avoidant Style ($z=-.883, p>.05$) in the experimental group. The findings have revealed that the scores of the participants in the control group continued in a similar way. This result confirms the fourth hypothesis of the study.

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study, which was conducted to examine the effects of social problem-solving skills training group practices on the social problem-solving skills of convicted women, have supported the hypothesis that female convicts participating in

social problem-solving skills training group practices would increase the use of a positive orientation-rational problem-solving style to the problem, which is a positive coping style in social problem solving, and their use of inattentive and avoidant styles as a negative orientation to the problem and negative coping styles would decrease, it was found that this condition continued in the follow-up test. In this context, there are similar studies in Turkey that support the results of the research, such as Akgün (2018) and Kızılkaya et al. (2022). Akgün (2018) investigated the effect of a 6-session group work on the social problem-solving skills of female convicts. According to the findings of the study, group work contributed positively to female convicts' positive approach to the problem and their rational behavior. On the other hand, it was observed that there was a decrease in their negative approach to problems. A significant difference was also found in the sum of the social problem-solving scale. Kızılkaya et al. (2022) also investigated the effect of an 8-session psycho-education program on the social and problem-solving skills of female convicts. As a result of the research, they found that the psycho-education program increased the social skills and problem-solving skills of female convicts. According to the results obtained from this study, it can be thought that the psycho-education program prepared is effective in increasing the social problem-solving skills of female convicts.

D'Zurilla & Nezu (2007) indicated that the problem-solving skills training prepared should mainly help the participants to develop a positive attitude towards the problem and to gain the ability to solve their problems by applying rational problem-solving steps. In particular, the researchers emphasized the necessity of working on irrational thoughts in problem-solving skills training to correctly define problems without twisting.

In the applied social problem-solving skills training group applications, social problem-solving was taken in five steps, and what should be done at each step was explained. In the group sessions, sample problem-solving activities were presented to the volunteer members, and asked to

apply what they learned, and it was seen that the volunteer members were able to make the examples by the social problem-solving steps. In addition, sample social problem situations were given to the members as homework assignments, and it was seen that the members could do these assignments successfully.

Studies indicate that problem-solving skills are a learned process and that the problem-solving skills of individuals will be developed through various group experiences (Bingham, 2004; Biggam & Power, 2002; Gorsky, 2003; D'Zurilla and Nezu, 2007; Nezu et al., 2007; Webster-Stratton, 2005). According to these results, it can be considered that social problem-solving training creates a statistically significant difference in the positive coping of the participants in the experimental group, that is, it improves the problem-solving skills, and in this case, it causes a decrease in the participants' negative orientation to the problem and negative coping styles. It is thought that these score changes seen in the subscales are due to the content of the applied social problem-solving skill training group applications. The findings are consistent with other research results in the literature (Arean et al., 1993; Bannan, 2010; Cameron et al., 2008; Çekici, 2009; Hay et al., 2000; Hayward et al., 2008; Heppner et al., 1988; Kızılkaya et al., 2022; Liberman et al., 2001; Meyers et al., 2011; O'Connor, 1996; Spiropoulos et al., 2005;).

In the follow-up measurement, there was no significant difference found between the positive orientation-rational problem-solving skills of the participants to the problem, that is, the positive coping style scores and the negative coping styles scores. The fact that there is no significant difference between the final test scores and the follow-up test scores shows that the change continues even after 2 months as a result of the problem-solving skill training program applied using cognitive and behavioral techniques. This is consistent with research results (Bannan, 2010; Bingham & Power, 2002; Öztaban & Adana, 2015; Pine, 2016).

D'Zurilla & Nezu (2007) state that working on the rational-unrealistic thoughts of the participants in problem-solving skills training will reduce the

twists of the problem. Researchers state that unrealistic thoughts, which complicate the process of perceiving reality and therefore make it difficult to accurately perceive and describe the problem faced by the person, play a key role in problem-solving. In light of this information, in the sessions of the intervention program in the study, exercises were carried out to explain the connection between the positive orientation to the problem and thoughts and feelings to correctly define the problems faced by the participants. In these exercises, brief information was given to the participants and then they were supported to share experiences within the group. In studies where the sharing of personal experiences was carried out in smaller groups, the participants felt safe and expressed themselves clearly. In this context, the positive therapeutic factors provided by the group atmosphere are thought to contribute positively to the development of the participants.

As a result, in this study, in general, it has been observed that social problem-solving skill training group practices increased the positive coping style scores of the female convicts and decreased the negative coping style and negative orientation to the problem scores and this situation continued in the follow-up test.

This study was applied to a limited group of female prisoners in an open prison. The results obtained are limited to this study group. Therefore, in subsequent research, applications in different, large working groups with adolescents, male prisoners, male and female prisoners together may enrich the literature. It can also be applied to individuals who remain in closed prisons and are on probation. In addition, the relationship of social problem-solving psycho-education program with different variables such as anger, anxiety, coping with stress, depression, hopelessness and its effect on these variables may also be new research topics. To support the validity and reliability of the experimental process, more in-depth information about the process can be obtained through various qualitative techniques such as interviews, focus group interviews, session and group evaluation forms. In this study, a 2-month follow-up study was conducted, a follow-up study can be performed at intervals such as six months and one

year, and the findings regarding the permanence of the program can be evaluated. This study is designed in a quasi-experimental design. Subsequent studies can examine the effectiveness of the program using stronger experimental patterns. However, it can be enriched by increasing the number of sessions. In this study, the psycho-education program is based on the Five-Step Approach to Social Problem-Solving model (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007; Nezu et al., 2007). This approach can be integrated with different theories in future studies and different training programs can be prepared.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Effect Of Patients' E-Health Literacy On Their Preoperative Anxiety Levels And Fears About Anesthesia

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1343782

Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of e-health literacy on preoperative anxiety levels and fears about anesthesia of individuals who will undergo surgery. The research was carried out with 219 patients waiting in the preoperative waiting unit. The Amsterdam Preoperative Anxiety Scale (APAIS) was used to evaluate the preoperative anesthesia anxiety, the E-Health Literacy Scale was used to determine the e-health literacy, and the questionnaire form was used to determine the fear of anesthesia, which was created by using the items in the literature in previous studies on anesthesia fear. According to the results of the research, the three items that patients fear the most about anesthesia are; "feeling pain during surgery", "feeling pain after the effect of post-operative anesthesia" and "waking up in the middle of surgery". There is no significant difference in anesthesia-related fears of patients with low, medium and high e-health literacy, only a significant difference in preoperative anxiety scores between patients with low and high e-health literacy. Study results were interpreted as the ability of individuals with high e-health literacy to evaluate the data obtained through digital channels in terms of reliability prevents them from experiencing unnecessary anxiety based on erroneous information.

Keywords: Preoperative Anxiety, Fear of Anesthesia, E-Health Literacy

Citation:

Saltalı, Ö, A. (2023). The Effect Of Patients' E-Health Literacy On Their Preoperative Anxiety Levels And Fears About Anesthesia. *OPUS- Journal of Society Research*, 20(55), 704-712.

Öz

Bireylerin tedavi sürecinde ameliyat kararının alınması çoğu hasta için gerek ameliyatın nasıl geçeceği gerekse ameliyat sürecindeki anestezi uygulamalarıyla ilgili olarak kaygı yaratan bir durumdur. Bu çalışmanın amacı cerrahi operasyon geçirecek bireylerin e-sağlık okuryazarlıklarının preoperatif kaygı düzeylerine ve anesteziye ilişkin korkularına etkisinin incelenmesidir. Araştırma ameliyat öncesi bekleme ünitesinde bekleyen 219 hasta ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Hastaların preoperatif anestezi kaygılarının değerlendirilmesinde Amsterdam Preoperatif Kaygı Ölçeği (APAIS), e-sağlık okuryazarlıklarının belirlenmesinde E-Sağlık Okuryazarlığı Ölçeği, anesteziye ilişkin korkularının belirlenmesinde ise literatürde daha önce anestezi korkusu ile ilgili çalışmalarda yer alan korku maddelerinden faydalanılarak oluşturulan anket formu kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca demografik verilerin belirlenmesinde kişisel bilgi formu kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre hastaların anestezi ile ilgili en çok korktukları üç madde; "ameliyat sırasında ağrıyı hissetmek", "ameliyat sonrası anestezinin etkisi geçince ağrı hissetmek" ve "ameliyatın ortasında uyanmak" şeklinde belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca e-sağlık okuryazarlığı düşük hastaların preoperatif kaygılarının e-sağlık okuryazarlığı yüksek olan hastalardan anlamlı düzeyde yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Preoperatif Kaygı, Anestezi Korkusu, E-Sağlık Okuryazarlığı

Introduction

More than 300 million surgical operations are performed worldwide each year (Gillespie et al., 2021). The decision taken from the moment the decision to make a surgical operation is announced to the patient has some effects on the patient. One of these effects is the preoperative anxiety experienced by the patients. According to studies, hospital-related anxiety is observed in approximately 60-80% of patients who will undergo surgery (Julian, 2011). Since preoperative concerns negatively affect many health parameters of the patients both during and after the operation, it is important to understand well and to take steps to eliminate them (Tanik Türkan, 2021; Jjala et al., 2010). Lack of knowledge and uncertainties about the surgical process and anesthesia play a role in the formation of these anxieties in most of the patients who have preoperative anxiety, especially in patients who do not have previous surgical experience. Many patients refer to different sources of information in order to eliminate the uncertainty about each stage of the surgical process (Tulgar et al., 2017). Rapid advances in digital technologies have made digital technologies with internet access an important data source for patients. There are conflicting results in the literature, stating that obtaining information in the preoperative period reduces anxiety (Chan & Molassiotis, 2002), increases (Moore & Pace, 2003) or does not affect (de Oliveira Cuman et al., 2013). At this point, it is thought that the e-health literacy of individuals who use e-resources as a source of information may affect their levels of preoperative anxiety and fear about anesthesia. The aim of this study is to examine the effects of e-health literacy on individuals' preoperative anxiety levels and their fears about anesthesia.

Method

Study type

This cross-sectional study was conducted with patients who had undergone surgical operation between January 2023 and June 2023, met the

inclusion criteria and volunteered to participate in the study.

Study group

The study group of this research consisted of 219 patients who voluntarily accepted to participate in the study among the patients who would undergo elective surgery. Some selection criteria were taken into account in the selection of patients. Between the ages of 18-65, non-health worker, American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) classification I and II, native Turkish speaker, no previous surgical operation, literate and reading comprehension, no history of psychological disorders and drug use, vision, hearing or language problems Patients who do not have a problem that prevents communication, use digital technologies, have access to a smart device, and use e-resources on health-related issues as information sources were invited to participate in the study. The distribution of patients according to demographic information is as follows. The arithmetic mean of the ages of the patients aged between 18-64 was 35.11 (sd=12.67) 72 women and 147 men. 116 of them work in a regular job, 103 of them do not work. 88 of them have primary education, 80 have high school, 51 have university or higher education level. 128 of them live in the city center, 26 in the district and 65 in the village. 184 patient have no additional disease, 35 patient have got. 178 of them live in nuclear families and 41 of them live in extended families. 125 of them are married, 88 of them are single, 6 of them are separated from their spouses. 117 have children, 102 have no children. 116 of them smoke and 103 of them do not. 42 of them are ASA I and 177 are ASA II patients. 114 of them were operated under general anesthesia and 105 of them were operated under spinal anesthesia.

Data Collection Tools

Personal information form: The personal information form consists of questions containing demographic information about the patient (age, gender, marital status, education level, living place, employment status). In addition, the personal information form includes a section of

three questions to be filled by the anesthesiologist, which includes information about the surgical operation the patient will undergo, the ASA score, and the type of anesthesia to be administered.

E-Health Literacy Scale: The E-Health Literacy Scale, which was developed by Cameron D. Norman and Harvey A. Skinner. Turkish validity and reliability studies were conducted by Gencer (2017), was used to determine the e-health literacy levels of patients who will undergo surgical operation in the study. The scale consists of eight items in total. It includes a five-point Likert type evaluation as (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree. High scores obtained from the scale indicate the high level of e-health literacy. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale calculated in this study was .95.

Preoperative Anxiety Scale (APAIS): The Amsterdam Preoperative Anxiety and Knowledge Scale (APAIS) was used to assess preoperative anxiety. APAIS is a 6-item measurement tool that includes three sub-dimensions and a five-point Likert-type assessment. Sub-dimensions of APAIS; anesthesia-related anxiety, surgery-related anxiety, and the desire to obtain information. It was translated into Turkish and used for the first time in our country by Aykent et al. (2007). Within the scope of this study, the sub-dimension of the scale measuring anxiety related to anesthesia was used. The scores that can be obtained from this sub-dimension vary between 2 and 10, and an increase in the score indicates the high level of anesthesia anxiety. In our study, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient of this sub-dimension was calculated as .88.

Anesthesia Fears Questionnaire: "Anesthesia Fears Questionnaire Form" was used to determine the fears of the patients about anesthesia. Türkyılmaz et al. (2018) and the items used in the study of Çelik and Edipoğlu (2018) regarding the fears that patients who will undergo surgical procedures may experience due to anesthesia were used. Participants answered each question in the questionnaire by choosing one of the options: no, I have never experienced (0 points) and yes, I have experienced (1 point). The fact that the arithmetic mean value of each question approaches one

indicates that the patient's fear of anesthesia is experienced by the patients at a high rate, while the approach to zero indicates that the patient's fear of anesthesia is experienced at a lower rate.

Data Collection

Data were collected from patients who met the inclusion criteria and volunteered to participate in the study by filling out the measurement tools on paper while they were in the preoperative waiting unit before undergoing surgery.

Analysis of Data

IBM Statistical SPSS 23.0 statistical package program was used in the analysis of the data. The suitability of the data to the normal distribution was examined with skewness and kurtosis values. Then, analyzes were carried out in line with research purposes. Arithmetic mean and standard deviation values were used in comparisons, t-test was used for independent groups in cases where there were two groups, and one-way analysis of variance was used in cases where there were three groups. Tukey's test was used to determine which groups were significantly different when there was variation between groups in the analysis of variance.

Ethical Dimension of Research

Ethics committee approval of the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of KTO Karatay University Faculty of Medicine, Non-Pharmaceutical and Medical Device Researches, with the decision number 2023/023, dated 2023. All of the patients included in the study participated voluntarily and written informed consent was obtained from all of them.

Results

According to the results obtained from the study, the statistical analysis results regarding the e-health literacy, preoperative anxiety levels and the differentiation status of anesthesia fears of the patients who will undergo the operation according

to the gender, marital status, employment status, education level, and living place of the patients are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparisons of patients' e-health literacy, preoperative anxiety levels and anesthesia fears according to some variables

Dependent Variables	Gender	Independent Variables			
		Marital status	Employment status	Education level	Living place
E-health literacy	F= 29.33 M= 28.28 t=0.880 p=0.380	Ma= 27.48 S=29.85 t=-.667 p=.499	E= 28.89 UE=28.32 t=-0.468 p=.640	PS= 26.23 SS= 29.93 HE= 30.74 F=5.593 p=0.004***	V=27.76 D=28.84 T=30.26 F=1.685 p=.188 (PS-SS, PS-HS)
Preoperative Anxiety Level	F= 4.35 M= 3.37 t=3.916 p=0.000***	Ma= 3.58 S= 3.75 t=-1.894 p=.060	E=3.56 UE=3.81 t=-1.125 p=.262	PS= 3.78 SS= 3.68 HE= 3.63 F=.065 p=.937	V=3.55 D=4.08 T=3.81 F=1.171 p=.312
Anesthesia fear item 1	F= .50 M= .47 t=2.536 p=0.012**	Ma=.50 S=.47 t=0.397 p=.692	E=.30 UE=.41 t=-1.666 p=.097	PS=.35 SS=.35 HE=.35 F=.001 p=.999	V=.38 D=.27 T=.34 F=.539 p=.584
Anesthesia fear item 2	F=.50 M=.44 t=3.168 p=0.002**	Ma=.48 S=.47 t=-.385 p=.700	E=.25 UE=.37 t=-1.923 p=.058	PS=.32 SS=.29 HE=.33 F=.164 p=.849	V=.31 D=.16 T=.27 F=1.940 p=.146
Anesthesia fear item 3	F=.50 M=.43 t=4.510 p=0.000***	Ma=.49 S=.46 t=1.230 p=.220	E=.32 UE=.38 t=-0.978 p=.329	PS=.42 SS=.30 HE=.29 F=1.756 p=.175	V=.34 D=.35 T=.37 F=.104 p=.901
Anesthesia fear item 4	F=.48 M=.37 t=3.058 p=0.000***	Ma=.44 S=.38 t=1.520 p=.130	E=.16 UE=.24 t=-1.340 p=.182	PS=.26 SS=.19 HE=.24 F=.653 p=.522	V=.24 D=.19 T=.23 F=.109 p=.897
Anesthesia fear item 5	F=.49 M=.41 t=2.440 p=0.016*	Ma=.47 S=.42 t=1.384 p=.168	E=.24 UE=.32 t=-1.348 p=.179	PS=.30 SS=.24 HE=.29 F=.536 p=.586	V=.27 D=.23 T=.32 F=.517 p=.597
Anesthesia fear item 6	F=.45 M=.39 t=1.401 p=0.164	Ma=.42 S=.41 t=.140 p=.889	E=.19 UE=.25 t=-1.150 p=.251	PS=.25 SS=.24 HE=.14 F=1.321 p=.269	V=.21 D=.27 T=.22 F=.216 p=.806
Anesthesia fear item 7	F=.39 M=.18 t=3.217 p=0.002**	Ma=.45 S=.41 t=.930 p=.354	E=.19 UE=.30 t=-1.792 p=.075	PS=.25 SS=.28 HE=.22 F=.316 p=.729	V=.21 D=.32 T=.25 F=2.645 p=.073
Anesthesia fear item 8	F=.49 M=.43 t=2.226 p=0.028*	Ma=.46 S=.44 t=.675 p=.500	E=.26 UE=.33 t=-1.048 p=.296	PS=.28 SS=.29 HE=.29 F=.008 p=.992	V=.30 D=.27 T=.29 F=.065 p=.937
Anesthesia fear item 9	F=.49 M=.43	Evli=.47	E=.26 UE=.33	PS=.26 SS=.31	V=.28 D=.35

	t=2.420 p=0.017*	Bekar=.45 t=-1.201 p=.231	HE=.31 F=.335 p=.715	T=.29 F=.217 p=.805	
Anesthesia fear item 10	F=.42 M=.37 t=1.867 p=0.064	Ma=.38 S=.42 t=-.954 p=.357	E=.16 UE=.24 t=-1.311 p=.191	PS=.16 SS=.22 HE=.23 F=.807 p=.448	V=.27 D=.22 T=.21 F=1.413 p=.246
Anesthesia fear item 11	F=.46 M=.31 t=3.058 p=0.003**	Ma=.41 S=.33 t=1.486 p=.139	E=.17 UE=.24 t=-1.323 p=.187	PS=.18 SS=.13 HE=.22 F=.994 p=.372	V=.18 D=.12 T=.18 F=.888 p=.413

Note: The abbreviations in the table are as follows. Gender: F= Female, M=Male; Marital status: Ma=Marriage; S=Single; Employment Status; E=Employee, UE=Unemployee; Education level: PS= Primary school, SC= Secondary school, HE= Higher education, Living place; V=Village, D=District, T=Town

According to the results obtained from the study, it was determined that the e-health literacy, preoperative anxiety levels and anesthesia fears of the patients who will undergo the operation did not differ according to the variables of marital status, employment status, and place of residence ($p>0.05$ for all comparisons). For the education level variable, e-health literacy of only primary school graduates was found to be statistically significantly lower than high school and university graduates ($p=0.004$). The education level variable did not create a significant difference in anesthesia fears and preoperative anxiety levels ($p>0.05$). However, according to the gender variable, the preoperative anxiety levels ($t=4.089$ and $p<0.001$) and anesthesia fear levels (except for item 6 and item 10) of female patients were significantly higher than male patients, statistically (Table 1). The results of the analysis regarding the average of the anesthesia-related fear scores of the patients are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of patients' fear of anesthesia

Anesthesia Fears Questionnaire Questions	Mean	Sd
1. Feeling the pain during the surgery	.49	.35
2. Waking up in the middle of surgery	.47	.31
3. Feeling pain after the effect of post-operative anesthesia wears off	.48	.35
4. Having nausea and vomiting problems after surgery	.45	.23
5. Being permanently disabled	.42	.28
6. Inexperience of the anesthesiologist	.41	.22
7. Needling and other procedures to be done	.43	.25
8. Not being able to wake up from anesthesia	.45	.29

9. Paralysis due to anesthesia	.45	.29
10. Do not engage in undesirable behaviors due to anesthesia	.40	.20
11. Having problems with remembering in the postoperative period	.38	.17

When Table 2 is examined, according to the results of the analysis of the patients' fears about anesthesia, the three items they fear the most are; "feeling pain during the surgery", "feeling pain after the effect of the anesthesia after the surgery" and "waking up in the middle of the surgery". The three items that they fear the least are "having remembering problems in the post-operative period", "behaving undesirable due to anesthesia" and "inexperience of the anesthesiologist".

Some values were calculated before the analyzes to determine the effect of patients' e-health literacy on their preoperative anxiety levels and anesthesia fears. First of all, patients' e-health literacy was categorized as low, medium and high. In determining these levels, arithmetic mean (Mean=28.63) and standard deviation values (Sd=9.00) of patients' e-health literacy were used. One standard deviation below (19.63) and one standard deviation above (37.63) of the arithmetic mean was determined, and patients with a score in this range were considered to be at intermediate level of e-health literacy. Those with a score less than one standard deviation below the arithmetic mean were considered low e-health literate, and patients with a high score above one standard deviation were considered high e-health literate. Then, preoperative anxiety levels and fears about anesthesia of patients with low, medium and high e-health literacy were compared. The results of the arithmetic mean, standard deviation and comparisons between the groups of the groups are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparisons of Anesthesia Fears and Perioperative Anxiety Levels of Patients with Low-Medium-High E-Health Literacy

	Arithmetic Means and Standard Deviation by E-Health Literacy			F	p (Significance)
	Low	Medium	High		
Preoperative Anxiety Level	3.91 ±1.89	3.50 ± 1.61	3.03 ± 1.45	3.511	.032 (Low-High)
Anesthesia fear item 1	.48 ± .34	.48 ± .36	.52 ± .33	.056	.945
Anesthesia fear item 2	.40 ± .19	.46 ± .29	.54 ± .43	2.932	.055
Anesthesia fear item 3	.49 ± .38	.47 ± .34	.48 ± .35	.084	.920
Anesthesia fear item 4	.42 ± .22	.43 ± .24	.42 ± .22	.336	.715
Anesthesia fear item 5	.40 ± .19	.46 ± .30	.45 ± .28	.855	.427
Anesthesia fear item 6	.37 ± .16	.42 ± .22	.44 ± .25	.505	.604
Anesthesia fear item 7	.47 ± .25	.42 ± .23	.45 ± .29	.360	.698
Anesthesia fear item 8	.33 ± .12	.46 ± .31	.48 ± .33	2.492	.085
Anesthesia fear item 9	.37 ± .16	.48 ± .34	.42 ± .23	2.875	.059
Anesthesia fear item 10	.33 ± .13	.43 ± .24	.33 ± .12	2.278	.105
Anesthesia fear item 11	.34 ± .13	.39 ± .18	.38 ± .17	.277	.759

When table 3 is examined, it is seen that there is no significant difference in anesthesia-related fears of patients with low, medium and high e-health literacy ($p > 0.05$), only a significant difference in preoperative anxiety scores between patients with low and high e-health literacy ($p = .032$). It was determined that the preoperative anxiety of the patients in the low e-Health literacy group was significantly higher than the patients in the high e-Health literacy group.

Discussion and Conclusion

Surgical interventions are one of the important situations that cause patients to experience anxiety. Almost half of patients undergoing surgery experience preoperative anxiety (Abate et al., 2020; Friedrich et al., 2022). In particular, preoperative anxiety appears as a feeling of uneasiness that affects the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system and manifests itself with the deterioration of hemodynamics, resulting from not

knowing the situations that the patient will encounter. The surgical procedure applied to the patient, the risks involved in the procedures, the problems that may be experienced during and after the procedure, the anesthesia applied during the surgical procedure, the fears of the individual regarding anesthesia and many demographic factors play a decisive role on the anxiety levels experienced by the patients (Abate et al., 2020; Çevik Acar & Yıldız Hazelnut, 2015). In this study, preoperative anxiety levels and anesthesia fear levels of female patients were found to be statistically significantly higher than male patients according to the gender variable. Many studies have reported that female patients have higher preoperative anxiety levels than males (Abate et al., 2020; Friedrich et al., 2022; Khalili et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2019; Maiye & Dal Yılmaz, 2022). It is seen that the result of the study is compatible with the literature. In the literature, it is argued that the expression of emotions by men is perceived as weakness by some societies and therefore men do not explain emotions such as anxiety and fear. It is also known that hormonal fluctuations in women are also effective on anxiety levels (Mavridou et al., 2013; Matthias & Samarasekera, 2012). For these reasons, it was thought that the anxiety levels of the women might have been high.

Preoperative anxiety is higher in patients with a high need for information. It is reported that patients try to access health-related information in order to eliminate ambiguities, and e-health literacy levels are examined in parallel with the increase in the use of digital resources (Chang et al., 2020; Friedrich et al., 2022). Health literacy, defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1998, is defined as cognitive and social skills that determine the ability of individuals to access, understand and use information (Nutbeam, 1998). In this study, the e-health literacy levels of the patients were evaluated and it was determined that the education level variable was effective. It was determined that the e-health literacy of primary school graduates was statistically significantly lower than those of high school and university graduates. It is reported in the literature that there is a positive correlation between education level and health literacy levels (Chang et al., 2020; Rosenbaum et al., 2015; Scarpato et al.,

2016). It is known that health literacy is affected by many factors. Therefore, it is possible to have low levels at higher education levels (Cho et al., 2007). The research results showed that there was no significant difference in the anesthesia fears of patients with low, medium and high health literacy. However, the three items that patients fear and fear most about anesthesia are; It was determined that "feeling pain during the operation", "feeling pain after the effect of anesthesia after the operation" and "waking up in the middle of the operation". In the study conducted by Demir et al. (2009), it was determined that 39.1% of the patients experienced fear of anesthesia, and it was reported that the subjects they feared the most were "not being able to wake up after the surgery (68.7%), not being able to sleep fully during the surgery (18.3%) and feeling pain (17.2%)". In addition, in the same study, it was determined that 41.2% of the patients did not have a specific reason for these fears. In a study of 200 people by Zvara et al. (1997), the main concerns of patients about anesthesia are listed as the anesthetic drug to be used, the induction method and the side effects of these procedures after surgery. The findings of the study are similar to the literature. Knowing the subject that patients are most afraid of will be important for enlightening the patient. In addition, it is thought that it is important to make patient-specific evaluations and to organize special trainings for the evaluation results.

In addition to informing healthcare professionals as a source of information, patients also use digital platforms widely with the developing technology. This situation has revealed e-health literacy, which is a version of health literacy. However, the lack of awareness of the use of digital resources may cause patients' anxiety to increase, the inability to distinguish between true and false information when appropriate data sources are not used, and the increased sense of anxiety may lead to more health screenings. This situation can be explained by the new concept of cyberchondria. Cyberchondria, which is made for the research of health information due to the concerns that develop in the individual about health; however, it is defined as long-term and repeated searches on the Internet, which increases the anxiety

experienced more. At this point, it is important for patients to obtain information from the right sources (McMullan et al., 2019). Demir et al. (2009) reported that 90% of the patients wanted to get information about anesthesia from the anesthesiologist in their study on anesthesia applications. Egbert et al. (1963) showed in their study that the anesthetist preoperative visit was more effective than barbiturate in reducing anxiety. Jlala et al. (2010), in a study they conducted, the satisfaction rates of patients who were informed via multimedia before the surgery were found to be high. Lozada et al. (2016) reported that 97% of the patients who were evaluated for preanesthetics by telephone were satisfied with receiving information by telephone. Anesthesiologists have a great responsibility in this matter.

Finally, in the study, it was determined that there was no significant difference in the fear of anesthesia ($p>0.05$) in patients with low, medium and high health literacy ($p>0.05$), but there was a significant difference in preoperative anxiety scores between patients with low and high e-health literacy ($p=.032$). It was found that the preoperative anxiety of the patients in the low e-Health literacy group was significantly higher than the patients in the high e-Health literacy group. This result was interpreted as the ability of individuals with high e-health literacy to evaluate the data obtained through digital channels in terms of reliability prevents them from experiencing unnecessary anxiety based on erroneous information.

In conclusion;

Preoperative anxiety is a critical problem for patients undergoing surgery. It is seen that the gender variable is important on the anxiety experienced by the patients in the preoperative period, and the educational status is important on the e-health literacy levels. It will be important that patients' fears of anesthesia are reduced by anesthesiologists, who are appropriate sources of information, and that they are tailored to the individual needs of the patient in order to develop effective management strategies. In addition, patients with low e-health literacy have high preoperative anxiety levels. Therefore, in today's

conditions where digital resources are used so widely, developing policies to increase patients' e-health literacy may contribute to reducing the anxiety level of patients before surgery.

Disclosure Statement

The author reports no conflicts of interest in this work.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Attention: Artificial Intelligence is Coming! What Do Healthcare Professionals Say About This in Türkiye?

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September 2023

Volume:20

Issue:55

DOI: 10.26466//opusjsr.1353823

Citation:

Yılmaz, K. F., (2023). Attention:
Artificial Intelligence is Coming!
What Do Healthcare
Professionals Say About This in
Türkiye?

OPUS– Journal of Society
Research, 20(55), 713-721.

Abstract

Artificial intelligence (AI) technology has been in growing use in healthcare to promote health via identification, prevention and treatment of diseases. The current study determined the perceptions and opinions of healthcare professionals (HPs) concerning the use and the pros and cons of AI. The study's quantitative arm included 233 HPs who completed the AI Pros and Cons Scale in İstanbul, Türkiye. The qualitative arm of the study included 11 physicians whose opinions were asked with interviews. In the quantitative arm, perception scores of HPs were high about pros and cons of AI, with higher scores favouring pros. In the qualitative arm, the majority of the physicians considered AI an indispensable assistant in their clinical practice, making clinical decisions faster, reducing workload and time consumption, and providing an early and accurate diagnosis. AI was not considered to fully replace the profession of HPs and final decisions would always be in the hands of physicians. There were also considerable concerns about overdiagnosis, insensitivity to emotional factors, and medical errors that might result from an insufficient amount of data. Currently, AI has already taken a long way in undertaking numerous tasks that once were only performed by HPs. This is particularly valuable for HPs to enhance their knowledge and capabilities.

Keywords: Artificial intelligence, health, healthcare professional, artificial intelligence pros and cons scale

Öz

Sağlık hizmetlerinde yapay zeka teknolojisi, hastalıkların tanımlanması, önlenmesi ve tedaviyle sağlığın geliştirilmesinde giderek daha fazla kullanılmaktadır. Bu çalışma, sağlık profesyonellerinin yapay zekanın sağlıkta kullanımı, artıları ve eksileri hakkındaki algılarını ve görüşlerini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmanın nicel bölümü, Yapay Zeka Artıları ve Eksileri Ölçeği'ni tamamlayan İstanbul'da görev yapan 233 sağlık profesyonelinin kapsamaktadır. Araştırmanın nitel bölümünde ise 11 hekim ile görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcıların, nicel yöntemde yapay zekanın artıları ve eksilerine yönelik algı puanlarının yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Nitel sonuçlara göre hekimlerin çoğunluğu yapay zekayı klinik uygulamalarında daha hızlı klinik kararlar veren, iş yükünü ve zaman tüketimini azaltan, erken ve doğru tanı sağlayan vazgeçilmez bir yardımcı olarak görmektedir. Yapay zekanın sağlık profesyonellerinin işini elinden alacağı düşünülmemekle birlikte nihai kararın her zaman hekim tarafından verileceği ifade edilmiştir. Hekimlerin, aşırı tanı, duygusal faktörlere duyarsızlık ve yetersiz veri miktarından kaynaklanabilecek tıbbi hatalar konusunda da önemli endişeleri bulunmaktadır. Şu anda yapay zeka, bir zamanlar yalnızca sağlık profesyonelleri tarafından gerçekleştirilen çok sayıda görevi üstlenme konusunda şimdiden uzun bir yol kat etti. Bu, sağlık profesyonellerinin bilgi ve yeteneklerini geliştirmeleri açısından özellikle değerlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yapay zeka, sağlık, sağlık çalışanları, yapay zekanın artıları ve eksileri ölçeği

Introduction

The use of artificial intelligence (AI) has been growing constantly in the healthcare sector, with an extensive debate in the literature about its pros and cons. In the 1940s, AI emerged from the question, "Could machines think?" (Jiang et al., 2017; Sucu, 2019; Pirim, 2006; Filiz et al., 2022), which entered the literature in 1956. AI is defined as a "computer and computer software that can think, analyze and learn like humans" (McCarthy, 2022; Gupta, 2017; Büyükgöze & Dereli, 2019)

Artificial intelligence technology has been in growing use in diagnostic imaging, genetic diagnosis, laboratory procedures, screening for early detection, and health communication (Nadarzynski et al., 2019) for many purposes to promote health, identify and prevent diseases, and treat illnesses (Jiang et al., 2017; Aladağ, 2021; Davenport & Kalakota, 2019). It is also time and effort-saving for healthcare professionals in long processes such as evaluating patients' radiology images and reports (Akalin & Veranyurt, 2021).

Among its applications in healthcare is the *Watson for Health* algorithm used in difficult-to-diagnose diseases and decision-making (Büyükgöze & Dereli, 2019; IBM, 2019), the *Veebot* used to facilitate drawing blood (Jeelani et al., 2015), the "*Robot Era*" to help elderly people with daily work (Di Nuovo et al., 2015; Karagöz, 2018).

There have been increasing reports in the literature on the use of and attitudes of healthcare professionals (HPs) to AI. A study from Saudi Arabia found that three out of four HPs had insufficient knowledge about AI and its advantages. In another study, a substantial proportion of HPs (78%) expressed their concerns that AI might replace HPs (Abdullah & Fakieh, 2020). Conversely, South Korean doctors and medical students displayed favorable attitudes toward AI, opposing to the opinion that AI would replace their roles in the future (Oh et al., 2019).

The current study aimed to determine the perceptions and opinions of HPs concerning the use of, and the pros and cons of, AI and its impact on the patient and the future of AI.

Methodology

Research Design

This quantitative and qualitative study was conducted on a cross-sectional design and a case-based design, respectively to determine perceptions of HPs on AI.

Recruitment

For the quantitative arm of the study, snowball sampling method was used for recruitment from state and private hospitals in the Anatolian Region of İstanbul, Türkiye. The minimum sample size was estimated by using a confidence interval formula with the following specification: a margin of error 5%, confidence level 95%, and response distribution 72%. A 21-item questionnaire was administered to 233 HPs (physicians, nurses and technicians). The questionnaire was developed using a Google survey template with the addition of seven socio-demographic items (gender, occupation, age, education status, work duration, department, and hospital) and 14 items adapted from the literature (Abdullah & Fakieh, 2020; Oh et al., 2019) concerning AI-related HPs' perceptions (4 items), advantages (5 items) and problems (5 items) as measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). Each participant gave informed consent before starting the questionnaire.

For the qualitative arm of the study, convenience sampling was used, for which 15 physicians were selected from different disciplines in eight state and three private hospitals in the Anatolian Region of İstanbul, Türkiye between 19 and 30 April, 2022. Eleven of these physicians agreed to participate and were available for online or face-to-face interviews. The questions of this questionnaire, which includes eight open-ended questions, were prepared by the researchers in the light of the literature (Özlü et al., 2021). For testing and verification, a pilot study with two physicians was conducted under the guidance of two investigators. Initially, verbal consent from all participants was obtained either by the Zoom program or in person. The second author of this paper conducted each interview for approximately

30 - 45 minutes. All interviews were recorded after the verbal consent of the participants, were transcribed by the researchers and eventually a content analysis was carried out on 13.181 words.

Ethics Approval

The study was approved by the Hamidiye non-Interventional Research Ethics Committee of the University of Health Sciences Türkiye (April 8, 2022, and no:22/225) and conformed to the principles of the Helsinki Declaration.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were processed using SPSS for Windows 22.00 software and AMOS software. After the domains of the scale were determined, confirmatory factor analysis was applied to verify the factor structure of variables. Descriptive statistics were expressed in frequency tables. The independent two-sample T-test was used for comparison between two groups and the one-way ANOVA analysis for three or more groups and, in case of insufficient sample size, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H-test. Relationships between the variables were sought using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. Qualitative data from the open-ended interview form were converted into text in the Word program, and content analysis was made using the Maxqda 12 program, which creates a code list and places list items into specific categories to be turned into themes, which were separately checked by two investigators.

Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Data

The researchers paid particular attention not to interrupt the participants' responses during the interview. Conducting some interviews via Zoom program allowed participants to respond in a comfortable environment from their homes. The recordings were transcribed word by word by two investigators.

All procedures including design, data collection and analyses, and the results were presented to three academics with expertise in qualitative research for review and received approval thereof.

Validity and Reliability of the AI Pros and Cons Scale in Healthcare (AIPC Scale)

The AI Pros and Cons Scale (AIPC Scale) was verified using an exploratory factor analysis, which yielded a probability value of $p < 0.000$ and a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.774 on Bartlett's test with the excellent fitting-in factor analysis (Karagöz, 2019). Moreover, the overall concept exploratory was found as 49.26%, indicating a sufficient level of representation.

Explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses of the AIPC Scale are shown as supplementary materials. After excluding four items (items 2, 3, 10, 14) with factor loading values of < 0.32 , the reliability of the scale was found to be high, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of > 0.60 .

The confirmatory factor analysis was performed using AMOS version 22.0 (Meydan & Sesen, 2011), with all sub-dimensions included in the exploratory factor analysis preserved. Factor loadings of all items ranged from 0.57 to 0.96, showing the acceptability of the quantification model.

The confirmatory factor analysis was considered significant since the model fitting values χ^2 and χ^2/df were found as 68.757 and 32 ($p < 0.000$). Since the fitting indexes of the model [GFI (0.947), CFI (0.959), SRMR (0.063), RMSEA (0.070)] were within the acceptable range, the confirmatory factor analysis was considered valid for the AIPC scale (Meydan & Sesen, 2011).

Results and Discussion

Sample Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of the 233 participants are summarized in Table 1. The mean age of the participants was 33.2 ± 11.0 years. Females accounted for 70%, and nurses and physicians 60.3%. Most of the participants (60%) had a university degree, and 55.8% were working in outpatient and inpatient clinics.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the participants (n=233)

Variables	Groups	n	%
Gender	Female	163	%70.0
	Male	70	%30.0
Occupation	Nurse/midway	110	%47.4
	Physicians	30	%12.9
	Technicians	92	%39.7
Education status	High school graduate	27	%11.6
	University graduate	140	%60.3
	Master/Ph.D. graduate	65	%28.0
Department	Inpatient clinics	67	%28.8
	Outpatient clinics	63	%27.0
Hospital	Other	103	%44.2
	Public hospital	77	%33.0
Work duration	Training and research hospital	76	%32.6
	Private hospital	34	%14.6
	Other	46	%19.7
Age	0-10	137	%58.8
	≥11	96	%41.2
	33,20 ± 11 year	Min=19	Max=65

All participants responded to all items of the AIPC scale. According to descriptive statistics, kurtosis and skewness values were between -2 and +2, validating the use of parametric tests (George

& Mallery, 2010). The reliability thresholds of all scales were sufficient (Cronbach’s alpha coefficient between .710-.829) (Kalaycı, 2010). The distribution of AIPC scores according to variables is

Table 2. The distribution of AIPC scores according to variables

Variables	Pros of using AI in healthcare				Cons of using AI in healthcare				Total			
	\bar{X}	SS	Test	p	\bar{X}	SS	Test	p	\bar{X}	SS	Test	p
Gender												
Female	27.45	4.33	t= -2.027	.044*	11.71	2.21	t= 2.555	.011*	33.73	4.31	t= -3.132	.002*
Male	28.73	4.61			10.90	2.25			35.82	5.42		
Work duration												
0-10 year	28.07	4.35	t= .955	.341	11.64	2.24	t= 1.418	.158	34.42	4.49	t= .224	.823
>11 years	27.50	4.58			11.22	2.23			34.28	5.14		
Occupation												
Nurse/midway	27.56	4.16	F= 1.341	.264	11.57	2.04	F= .302	.740	33.99	4.07	F= 1.728	.180
Physicians	27.07	5.37			11.50	2.62			33.56	6.60		
Technicians	28.39	4.46			11.33	2.38			35.05	4.80		
Education												
High school	27.96	4.32	H= .195	.907	10.89	2.29	H= 1.431	.489	35.07	4.65	H= .280	.870
University	27.92	4.56			11.54	2.29			34.37	4.73		
Master/Ph.D.	27.55	4.32			11.54	2.14			34.01	4.94		
Department												
Inpatient clinic	27.12	4.91	F= 1.211	.300	11.70	2.08	F= .611	.544	33.41	4.99	F= 1.887	.154
Outpatient clinic	28.14	4.58			11.48	2.29			34.66	5.04		
Other	28.11	4.01			11.31	2.33			34.79	4.37		
Hospital												
Public hospital	27.66	5.03	F= .730	.535	11.42	2.10	F= 1.177	.319	34.24	5.61	F= 1.425	.236
Training hospital	27.92	3.63			11.74	2.00			34.18	3.85		
Private hospital	27.09	4.8			11.65	2.77			33.44	4.52		
Other	28.52	4.33			10.98	2.41			35.54	4.67		

summarized in Table 3. Male participants had higher scores (28.7±4.6) on the pros of AI as well as a higher total score, whereas females had higher scores (11.7±2.2) on the cons (p=.011). Comparisons of other categories yielded similar results (Table 2).

Perceived degrees of pros and cons of AI are shown in Table 3. "AI can speed up the processes in health care" and "it is free from burn-out or physical limitations inherent to humans", and these two items have the highest mean scores among perceived degrees of pros of AI. The lowest-ranked item was the response to, "I have high prospects about AI applications in the health care sector" with a mean of 3.69.

The response, "AI has low ability to sympathize and consider the emotional well-being of the patient" ranked first with a high mean of 4.14 in the perceived degree of cons, a moderate level on the range of scores.

Table 3. Perceived Degrees of Pros and Cons of AI (n=233)

Perceived Degrees of Pros of AI				
Items	Mean (Sd)	Rate (%)	Level*	
1. I have good knowledge about AI.	3.88 (.94)	72.00	High	
4. I have high prospects about AI applications in the healthcare sector.	3.69 (.97)	67.25	High	
5. AI can speed up the processes in health care.	4.21 (.74)	80.25	High	
6. Utilization of AI can reduce medical flaws.	3.82 (1.01)	70.50	High	
7. AI can provide real time high-quality clinically relevant data.	3.98 (.86)	74.50	High	
8. AI has no space and time constraints.	4.10 (.88)	77.50	High	
9. AI is free from burn-out or physical limitations inherent to humans.	4.15 (.92)	78.75	High	
Total	3.98 (.64)	74.50	High	
Perceived Degrees of Cons of AI				
11. AI is not flexible enough to be applied to every patient.	3.61 (.90)	65.25	High	
12. AI cannot be used to provide opinions in unexpected situations.	3.73 (.92)	68.25	High	
13. AI has low ability to sympathize and consider the emotional well-being of the patient.	4.14 (.87)	78.50	High	
Total	3.82 (.75)	70.50	High	

*Range of scores 1-2.6, 2.6-3.4 and 3.4-5, indicate low, moderate, and high, respectively, perceived degrees of pros of AI.

Based on the responses provided by the participants to the questions, 44 codes were created under five themes. The themes, code list of the generated codes and selected responses of qualitative research are shown in Table 4.

All participants (n=11) stated that they knew about AI, only 27% of them had partial knowledge. In a response to the question, "Will AI replace your job?", participants said that although the use of AI is inevitable, it cannot replace HPs, because the final decision would always be made by physicians (n=10).

The response of the participants (n=11) to the question, "Does AI make your job easier or harder?" was that AI made their job easier and things much faster. One participant (P10) briefly described "It makes our job easier. It warns us, especially in cases that escape our notice. It speeds up our task, makes the diagnosis easier, and time is efficiently used."

Another item on the questionnaire was "What are the positive effects of AI in the diagnosis process?". The respondents stated that AI could see things that escape the human eye (n=4) and provided superior results, particularly in radiologic imaging (n=3). The answers given by two participants to the above question were as follows: P.1: "AI enables us to reach more precise decisions and results, as it can perform very complex analyses free from human emotions." P.8: "A treatment plan that can take hours for a physician to construct can be provided by AI in only one minute, even less".

The negative effects of AI on the diagnosis process were also interrogated (Item 6). The majority of the participants stated that AI ignored patients' emotional states. P.1: "AI lacks emotional aspects; instead, it uses a mathematical approach, bypassing human dimensions without flexibility".

The physicians were also asked what patients thought about AI (Item 7). Many physicians stated that patients' attitudes towards AI largely depended on their socio-demographic characteristics. Conservative patients may not easily adopt innovations such as AI.

Qualitative Results

Table 4. Themes, codes and selected responses of qualitative research

Themes	Codes	Selected Responses
Will AI replace your job?	Technology utilization	P2: "It will replace human tasks to some extent, but the control will be in the hands of the physician..." P7: "AI will be the greatest helper/excellent assistant in our jobs rather than replacing us". P10: "I don't think it will fully replace our jobs, but it will be one of our greatest supporters, especially in diagnostics..." P11: "Robots or AI will never replace surgeons. It will make things easier, but humans will still be involved."
	Inevitability	
	Productivity	
	Critical helper	
	Guidance/assistance	
	May replace physicians to some extent	
	Physicians make final decisions	
	Fewer errors than humans'	
	More utilization in internal medicine	
	More background in surgical branches	
Does AI make your job easier/more difficult?	Jobs are easier	P1: "It facilitates our tasks." P3: "Our jobs have become much easier" P7"...Of course, there are disadvantages as well as advantages. Especially in the case of complications, the human factor will come into play." P8: "It makes it easier for us to undertake part of the service we have to provide."
	Less workload	
	Both pros and cons	
	Time-saving	
	Errors are less likely	
	Facilitates our jobs	
	Stronger memory	
	Much faster	
	Superior	
	More precise	
Positive Effects on the Diagnostic Process	Superior results in radiologic imaging	P2: "... Reduces malpractice. Increased quality..." P4: "I can evaluate diverse conditions simultaneously and use time efficiently..." P6: "AI may notice things that you may miss or cannot think of." P11:"...AI evaluates better than normal people in many areas of health..."
	Time-saving	
	Contributes to human experience	
	Rapid and accurate diagnosis	
	Early detection	
	More reliable	
	More objective	
	Overdiagnosis	
	Diagnosis should not be left entirely to AI	
	May be misleading	
Negative Effects on the Diagnostic Process	May lead to unnecessary analysis, examination, imaging	P1: "AI lacks emotional aspects; instead, it uses a mathematical approach, bypassing human dimensions without flexibility." P7: "The more advanced technology is, the more prudent we should be..." P9: "Risk of overdiagnosis. This can also be costly. "
	Emotional factors are ignored	
	Patients will support AI.	
	Interpersonal approach will differ. Conservative patients will be more cautious.	
	They may have concerns about AI.	
	There may have a negative attitude.	
	Patient attitudes may differ according to services provided by AI.	
	Attitudes may vary based on the socio-demographic characteristics of the patient.	
	It's hard to predict.	
	Patients will approach positively	
Patient attitudes to AI		"P5: "Patients who prefer traditional treatment methods may approach AI more reactively compared with patients who prefer modern treatment methods." P7: The health outlook of each society is different. Turkish society is open to the use of technology in health. P10: "The patient should be correctly informed, so that they can look positively at AI."
Additional opinions		P1: "AI cannot replace the doctor-patient relationship." P:7 "AI is a very important tool. It has the power to transform health. In the future, the provision of healthcare is unlikely without digital health technologies." P8 "I am hopeful for the future." P9: "Its spread will be faster in internal medicine, but slower in surgical branches."

Discussion

The current study showed high levels of knowledge and awareness about AI among HPs, which is nearly a common finding of other studies

conducted among HPs and health sciences students (Filiz et al., 2022; Yılmaz et al., 2021).

In the quantitative arm, high perception scores of HPs about pros and cons of AI, with higher scores favouring pros. The situation can be elucidated by healthcare practitioners'

considerable degree of technical preparedness. The significance of "technology readiness" in influencing the acceptability of technological innovation within the realm of healthcare is widely acknowledged (Shaikh et al., 2021).

In the qualitative arm, only physicians were selected for their opinions about the applications of AI in the field of health. The majority of the physicians considered AI an indispensable assistant in their clinical practice, making clinical decisions faster, reducing workload and time consumption, and providing an early and accurate diagnosis. AI also has a limitless memory capacity and may detect abnormalities that are not discernable to the human eye. Moreover, AI has the advantage of being free from burn-out or physical limitations inherent to humans. On the other hand, AI was not considered to fully replace the professional of HPs and final decisions would always be in the hands of physicians. More specifically, AI provides a good opportunity for physicians to better prepare themselves for tasks that are special to human beings and skills that require empathy, persuasion, and big-picture integration, all of which are purely human attributes. This was also verified by the highest mean score obtained in response to the item: "AI has low ability to sympathize and consider the emotional well-being of the patient". There were also considerable concerns about overdiagnosis, insensitivity to emotional factors, and medical errors caused by insufficient amount of data. Our results are parallel with those reported by other studies (Jing et al., 2017; Davenport & Kalakota, 2019; Özlü et al., 2021). The consideration of artificial intelligence as a potential threat necessitates the inclusion of ethical dimensions in discussions surrounding the occurrence of erroneous medical practices (medical malpractice) that may arise from implementing artificial intelligence applications. An essential concern in this context is determining responsibility for the resulting repercussions. Additional subjects that were addressed encompass the deficiency of artificial intelligence in terms of its capacity for "natural" communication and empathy and its tendency to overlook multidimensional circumstances pertinent to real-world scenarios

within the context of medical decision-making (Çalışkan et al., 2021).

It may be true that AI may bring about some job losses by reducing the amount of work in a particular subject, but it would generate new job opportunities, even novel jobs when AI applications become widespread. It is speculated that, among HPs, those who would most likely lose their jobs would be those who refuse to work in cooperation with AI (Davenport & Kalakota, 2019). Furthermore, it is vital to acknowledge that the integration of artificial intelligence in the realm of healthcare has the potential to give rise to novel sectors of commerce, consequently generating fresh prospects for employment.

Interestingly, we noted a gender difference in approaching to the pros and cons of AI, with significantly higher scores in favor of pros among male participants and significantly higher scores in favor of cons among female participants. This is in contrast with the finding of Abdullah and Fakieh (2020), who found no gender difference state about pros and cons of AI.

Conclusion

Currently, AI has already taken a long way in undertaking numerous tasks that once were only performed by humans. This is particularly valuable for HPs in healthcare to enhance human knowledge and capabilities. AI will also contribute our efforts to enhance connected care and holistic approaches, from which both patients and healthcare providers would benefit most.

Limitations and Strengths

The present study has some limitations. First, the participants were enrolled from centers located in only the Anatolian Region of İstanbul, limiting generalization of our results for the whole HPs population of Türkiye. Second, the quantitative data of the study were obtained by self-reported responses through an online survey, an approach that is inferior to one using face-to-face inquiries. On the other hand, utilization of both quantitative and qualitative methods enhances the strength of the study about HP perceptions concerning the pros and cons of AI.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank all participants in this study.

Funding

The authors declared that this study received no financial support.

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