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EDITORIAL

Dear Readers,

We have started the 7th Volume of the journal with our first issue published in May 2021.

In this issue, a study, produced from an Erasmus+ K12 project, in which the development of Emotional Intelligence, one of the important features that today's people should have, is researched with a three-day intensive training is presented to the readers. However, in our new issue, there is also an original research that examines the effects of Life Satisfaction and Self-Efficacy beliefs, which is defined as the belief that people can fulfill their responsibilities successfully, on the difficulties people encounter in their professional lives, specifically for child development specialists and special education teachers. Also, in this issue, (i) a historical study examining the formation and effects of regionalism in Europe, which is a combination of many different local identities, and the role of these regions in Europe and (ii) a study examining the dynamics of the three important fields that affected the public sphere before the French Revolution, namely Freemasonry, salon and academy, and discussing how certain segments affected social thought and how they shaped the mental atmosphere in society before the French Revolution are presented to the reader and the literature.

The acceptance rate of Current Research in Social Sciences Volume 7, Issue 1 was 33.3%, and I would like to thank to the authors, referees, members of the editorial board and editors who took part in the publication process of the journal. See you in our next issues.

Greetings and regards.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Duygu TÜRKOĞLU
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EDİTÖRDEN

Sevgili Okurlar,

2021 yılı Mayıs ayında çıkan ilk sayımızla dergimizin yedinci cildine geçmiş bulunmaktayız.

Bu sayımızda, bir Erasmus+ K12 projesinden üretilmiş, günümüz insanının sahip olması gereken önemli özelliklerden biri olan Duygusal Zekânın geliştirilebilirliğinin üç günlük yoğun bir eğitimle araştırıldığı bir çalışma okuyuculara sunulmaktadır. Bununla birlikte bireylerin Yaşam Doyumunun ve kişilerin sorumluluklarını başarılı bir şekilde yerine getirebileceklerine yönelik duydukları inanç olarak tanımlanan Öz-Yeterliklerinin, mesleki yaşamlarında karşılaştıkları güçlüklere ne yönde etkisi olduğunu çocuk gelişimciler ve özel eğitim öğretmenleri özelinde inceleyen bir orijinal araştırma da yeni sayımızda yer almaktadır. Yine bu sayımızda birçok farklı yerel kimliğin birleşiminden oluşan Avrupa'da bölgeselciliğin oluşumu ve etkileri ile bu bölgelerin Avrupa içindeki rolünün incelendiği bir tarih çalışması ile Fransız Devrimi öncesinde kamusal alanı etkileyen üç önemli alan olan masonluk, salon ve akademinin dinamiklerinin incelenerek, belirli kesimlerin toplumsal düşünceyi nasıl etkilediğinin ve Fransız Devrimi öncesi toplumdaki zihinsel atmosferi nasıl şekillendirdiğinin tartışıldığı bir çalışma da okuyucuya ve alanyazına sunulmaktadır.

Current Research in Social Sciences 7. Cilt 1. Sayısının kabul oranı %33.3 olup, derginin yayın sürecinde yer alan yazar, hakem, yayın kurulu üyeleri ve editör arkadaşlarıma teşekkür etmek isterim. Sonraki sayılarımızda görüşmek üzere.

Selam ve saygılarımla.

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Effectiveness of an Intensive Three-Day Emotional Intelligence Training**

Üç Günlük Yoğun Bir Duygusal Zekâ Eğitiminin Etkililiği

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Abstract

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is considered an ability which helps to recognize and regulate of one's own and others' emotions. EI was suggested to be one of the important factors for maintaining a successful personal and professional life. EI is considered as an ability that can be developed through practice. Thus, numerous studies attempted to examine effects of EI training programs. This study examined the effects of an intensive three-day training program on EI, difficulties in emotional regulation, reflective functioning, and psychological symptoms. The participants were 18 adults in the treatment group and 18 adults in the control group. The results showed that the EI training have led to a significant decrease in difficulties in emotional regulation over three days of training among participants in the treatment group. In particular, participants' in the treatment group impulse control difficulties decreased, whereas such a decrease was not observed in the control group. There was some increase in the Reflective Functioning Uncertainty scores of the participants' in the treatment group. There were no significant changes in overall emotional intelligence and psychological symptoms. The findings suggested that the intensive EI training led to better impulse control ability and an increase in mentalizing capacity.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence Training, Emotion Regulation, Reflective Functioning, Psychological Symptoms.

Öz

Duygusal Zeka (DZ), bireyin kendisinin ve başkalarının duygularını tanımasını ve düzenlemesine yardımcı olan bir beceri olarak bilinir. DZ başarılı bir kişisel ve profesyonel hayat yürütmek için var olan önemli faktörlerden biridir. DZ'nin uygulama yaptıkça gelişen bir beceri olduğu düşünülür. Dolayısıyla, pek çok program DZ eğitim programlarının etkilerini araştırmıştır. Bu çalışmada, üç günlük yoğun bir DZ eğitim programının DZ, duygu düzenlemede güçlükler, yansıtıcı işleyiş ve psikolojik semptomlar üzerine etkisi incelenmiştir. Katılımcılar, müdahale ve kontrol gruplarında eşit sayıda olmak üzere toplam 36 yetişkindir. Sonuçlar, üç gün süren yoğun DZ eğitiminin müdahale grubunda duygu düzenlemede güçlükleri anlamlı ölçüde azalttığına işaret etmiştir. Spesifik olarak, müdahale grubundaki katılımcıların dürtü kontrol güçlüğünde azalma görülmüştür; ancak böyle bir azalma kontrol grubunda görülmemiştir. Ayrıca, müdahale grubunda Yansıtıcı İşleyiş Ölçeği Belirsizlik alt ölçeği puanlarında bir yükselme görülmüştür. Genel DZ puanlarında ve psikolojik semptomlarda ise bir değişiklik gözlenmemiştir. Bu sonuçlar yoğun DZ eğitiminin dürtü kontrolündeki ve zihinselleştirme kapasitesindeki iyileşme ile ilişkili olduğuna işaret etmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Duygusal Zeka Eğitimi, Duygu Düzenleme, Yansıtıcı İşleyiş, Psikolojik Semptomlar.

Introduction

1.1. What is Emotional Intelligence?

There are two major approaches to the definition of Emotional Intelligence (EI). The first model suggests that EI refers to a mental ability, which includes emotions and intelligence. It involves a set of interrelated skills which contribute of appraisal, expression, and regulation of emotion in oneself and others, and using emotions in adaptive ways such as to motivate, plan, and achieve in life (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 2008). Individuals with high EI were expected to pay attention, use, understand, and manage emotions in a way that would benefit themselves and others (Mayer et al., 2004; Salovey & Grewal, 2005). The four branch model of EI suggests that EI involves emotional abilities from four classes: *Perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions,* and *managing emotions*. The four branch model of EI includes perception and appraisal of emotion (i.e. infants perceiving emotions in caregiver's face); utilizing emotional experiences to facilitate thinking and direct attention (i.e. a manager using a low-energy emotion to help himself to focus on a detailed task); understanding and reasoning about emotions and using language to explain emotions (i.e. understanding anger stems from unjust behavior); management and regulation of emotions in self and others (i.e. calming a friend's anxiety) (Mayer et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 2011). On the other hand, the second model, mixed model of EI, suggests that EI has a broader concept. It includes abilities of EI mixed with personality characteristics that might accompany EI, such as genuineness, warmth, persistence, optimism, diversity-sensitivity (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Bar-On, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Mayer et al., 2011).

EI was shown to be a predictor of successful social relationships, work performance, and mental and physical well-being (Ruiz-Aranda et. al, 2012; Slaski & Cartwright, 2013). High levels of EI contributed to better physical and mental characteristics (Mayer et al., 2008). People with higher EI detected variations in their heartbeats better (Schneider et al., 2005) and more accurately recognized and reasoned about the emotional consequences of events (Dunn et al., 2007). Emotional knowledge of children influenced academic achievement after controlling for intelligence, emotionality, and attention (Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). Understanding and analyzing emotions predicted cumulative grade point average (Mohzan et al., 2013) and literacy and numeracy scholastic performance (Billings et al., 2014). EI predicted engagement in risky behaviors. Higher levels of EI were associated with lower levels of substance abuse, adjustment problems, and aggressive behavior (Rivers et al., 2013). A greater ability to perceive emotions of others in adolescents was associated with lower levels of alcohol consumption and participation in group street drinking behavior, and episodes of drunkenness (Gonzales-Yubero et al., 2019). In males, lower levels of EI were associated with illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviors, and poor relationships with friends (Brackett et al., 2004). Couples with low EI showed lowest scores on the depth, support, and positive relationship quality, and highest scores on conflict and negative relationship quality (Brackett et al., 2005).

1.2. Nature of EI Trainings

EI has been considered as an ability that can be developed through deliberate practices. EI trainings were provided in various settings, such as firms and schools (Mayer, et al., 2008; Motamedi et. al, 2017). EI trainings mainly focused on two abilities: emotional awareness and emotion regulation. In order to increase emotional awareness, facial recognition software exercises, self-assessment measures of EI, and ranking emotions were used. Also mindfulness, perspective taking, and relaxation techniques were taught to improve emotion regulation (Thory, 2013). The trainings in corporate settings emphasized empathy, building social relationships, a sense of belongingness, and getting in contact with coworkers. Ultimate aim of the most EI programs appeared to be developing a wiser inner self that is capable of handling emotions of one's self and others and thus creating a trustful, motivating and meaningful environment (Thory, 2016). Duration of the EI trainings varied in different studies. Training programs were designed as daily, weekly, or monthly sessions.

Sessions at one sitting have lasted from an hour to full day of training (Groves et al., 2008; Fletcher, et. al, 2009).

1.3. Effectiveness of EI Trainings

Previous studies showed after the EI trainings, the experiment groups' EI scores increased while there was a slight decrease in scores in time as measured by the follow-up measurements (Karahan & Yalcin, 2009; Nelis et. al, 2009; Ruiz-Aranda et al., 2012; Mehrabi et al., 2017). The findings suggested EI was a skill that could be developed through training and sustained over time for the most part with deliberate practice (Motamedi et. al, 2017).

Effectiveness of EI trainings were demonstrated in various studies. Gorgas et al. (2015) conducted a very brief intervention focusing only one sub-skill of EI, social awareness. Participants received a 2-hour session training covering basic information about EI concepts and discussion of four case scenarios. The findings showed that EI scores for intervention group (N = 19) increased from pre-test to follow-up (at 6 months) while control group's (N = 14) scores remained stable. In another brief intervention study, a single session workshop for 4-hours, nurses focused on recognizing and managing emotions (Kozlowski et al., 2018). The researchers provided a detailed personalized report for each participant in a private feedback session two weeks after the intervention. The results showed elevated EI scores for the intervention group but no change was observed in the control group. Elevated EI scores remained stable for 3 months after the intervention. Another study investigated effects of an 8-hour training program, which delivered general knowledge about EI and discussed hypothetical emotionally challenging situations and ways to manage these situations. After the intervention, participants received personal feedback from the trainers. The findings of this study indicated that this intervention enhanced participants' recognition, understanding, and management of emotional skills, which remained significantly elevated one year after the intervention (Dugan et al., 2014).

EI training programs were utilized to increase not only emotional intelligence but also to improve health and work-related variables. After an EI training, an increased perception of self-efficacy was observed among female patients with multiple sclerosis (Mehrabi et. al., 2017); participants in the intervention group displayed fewer clinical symptoms such as lower levels of anxiety, somatization, and atypicality (Ruiz-Aranda et al., 2012); participants' consistent anger levels decreased significantly after the training and the results remained stable 3 months after the intervention (Yilmaz, 2009). An intervention led to an increase in EI in trained healthcare staff compared with the control group (Bamberger et al., 2016). In another study, twelve educators participated in coach certification based on EI skills. The findings showed that at post training the educators and their clients showed deeper commitment to teaching EI skills, increases in self-awareness and self-management, and improved relationships with others (Patti et al., 2015). On the other hand, Slaski & Cartwright's (2013) study showed that even though participants benefitted from EI personally and had higher levels of health and well-being scores post-training, the training program did not affect their work performance. Several factors determined how effective utilization of EI techniques was going to be, such as time pressure, hierarchical position in the company, and perception of the technique (Thory, 2013). For example, managers and employees adopted different conflict management strategies due to their positions and tolerating disagreements were perceived as losing control by some of them. Police officers experienced problems in regulation of negative emotions, because acceptance and tolerance of negative emotions were associated with loss of control, helplessness, and "giving up" in their high-risk job (Berking et al., 2010). In addition, personality characteristics were among moderating variables that enhanced or prevented benefiting from EI training programs. Agreeableness and conscientiousness traits of the Big Five were found to moderate the effectiveness of EI training. People who were high in agreeableness and conscientiousness benefited significantly more from the EI training when compared to people who were low in these traits (Herpertz et al., 2016). Duration of EI training programs is another factor which affects the outcome, besides personality, working environment, and health related variables. An EI training taught EI skills through teaching perception,

understanding and managing emotions via using mini-lectures, video clips, case studies, group tasks, discussions, and role-playing for 2 hours for 11 weeks (Pool & Qualter, 2012). The findings showed a significant effect of intervention on understanding and managing emotions. Pool and Qualter (2012) compared their study with Nelis et al.'s (2009) study which was carried out over 4 weeks and did not produce significant results regarding understanding emotions. The researchers stated that longer period of their study may have led to success in understanding emotions.

In summary, EI trainings varied in duration, content, and teaching techniques. These variables affected the outcome of the EI trainings in positive and negative directions (Nelis, 2009; Pool & Qualter, 2012; Dugan et al., 2014; Gorgas et al., 2015). A metanalysis study suggested techniques used in the training programs enhanced positive outcomes more compared to the duration of the intervention (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019). Techniques such as analyzing a case or meeting with a coach were suggested to lead to a more active and personal training and eventually a higher effect size for studies.

Previous research showed improvements in EI could be accomplished through cost and time efficient brief EI training programs. Current study aimed to investigate the effects of a time-limited EI program on participants' EI, emotion regulation difficulties, mentalizing abilities, and psychological symptoms. The training program offered a theoretical understanding of the EI while utilizing practical tools such as role-playing, classroom discussions, psychodrama activities, mindfulness exercises, and relaxation techniques. Compared to other brief EI interventions described in the literature, both theoretical information about all domains of the EI and practice was integrated in this study.

1.4. Hypotheses

Significant increases in EI and mentalization scores were expected among the treatment group at post training. Significant decreases in emotional regulation difficulties and psychological symptoms were expected among the treatment group at post training.

Method

2.1. Participants

Eighteen participants participated the training from several European countries, including Turkey (7), Netherlands (5) Greece (2), Slovenia (2), Spain (1) and Bulgaria (1). The participants in the intervention group consisted of 13 females and 5 males. The participants worked in education and psychology. The age varied between 24 and 62 (M= 35.5, SD=11.13). Eleven participants held 4-year college degree, 6 of them held a master's degree, and 1 of the participants held a doctoral degree. Yearly income levels fell into four groups: less than 10.000$ (N =6), between 10.000$ - 29.999 (N =7), between 30.000$ – 49.999$ (N =1), between 50.000$ and 69.999$ (N =6). Most participants were employed either for wages (N = 14) or self-employed (N = 1). The participants were referred to this study by the project partners of an EU Erasmus+ project. After receiving this training, the participants were going to train the youth on EI in their home countries.

The control group consisted of 15 females and 3 males who resided in Turkey. The participants in the control group were matched to the ones in the intervention group regarding occupation and education levels. They worked in psychology (N=6) and education (N =5). Age ranged between 21 and 59 (M= 35.9, SD=11.36). The majority of the participants held a 4-year college degree (N =12); one held a 2-year college degree (N =1); four had a master's degree; and one participant had a doctoral degree. The control group's yearly income levels fell into two categories, less than 10.000$ (N =12) and between 10.000$ - 29.999$ (N =6). Similar to the experimental group, majority of the control group was employed for wages (N =12), three were retired, one was a student, and two were unemployed.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale (SSEIT) *(Schutte et al., 1998)*

The SSEIT was designed to measure emotional intelligence. It involves 33 items scored on a 5-point Likert Scale, scored as 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree. Higher scores indicate higher levels of EI. The SSEIT has high test-retest reliability (.78) and internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha .90. The SSEIT has positive correlations with mood and optimism, and negative correlations with alexithymia, depression and impulsivity measures. In this study, Cronbach alpha values for SSEIT showed internal consistency for pre-training (α = .87) and post-training (α = .88).

2.2.2. Difficulties in Emotional Regulation Scale (DERS) *(Gratz & Reamer, 2004)*

The DERS was designed to measure individuals' ability to regulate one's own emotions. The DERS consists of 36 items and it is scored on a 5-point Likert Scale. Higher scores indicate greater difficulty in emotion regulation. It has 6 factors, including nonacceptance of emotional responses (NONACCEPT), difficulty in engaging goal-directed behavior (GOALS), impulse control difficulties (IMPULSE), lack of emotional awareness (AWARENESS), limited access to emotion regulation strategies (STRATEGIES) and lack of emotional clarity (CLARITY). The scale has high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha α = .93). Its construct validity was established with emotion regulation and emotional expressivity measures. Cronbach alpha values for the DERS measurements at pre and post training were .90 and .92, respectively; which indicated a high level of internal consistency.

2.2.3. Symptom Checklist 90-R (SCL-90-R) *(Derogatis, 1977)*

The SCL-90-R assesses the intensity of psychopathological symptoms. It gives a total score of psychopathology as well as subscale scores in nine categories. The subscales are somatization, obsession-compulsion, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism. The 90 items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale, between 0 and 4. Higher scores indicate more severe psychological symptoms. The SCL-90-R has high internal consistency (Cronbach's alfa between .77 and .90) and test-retest reliability (between .78 and .90). The Cronbach alpha values of SCL-90-R in this study were .97 at pre-training and .97 at post-training.

2.2.4. Reflective Functioning Questionnaire (RFQ) *(Fonagy et al., 2016)*

The RFQ measures mentalizing ability which refers to a capacity to interpret both the self and others in terms of mental states such as feelings, wishes, goals, desires, and attitudes (Allen et al., 2008). The ability to mentalize one's own and others' feelings can be seen an important determinant of EI due to its necessity in empathy, emotional awareness, and emotional regulation. The scale's total score is assessed in two different categories which indicates either hypermentalizing (RFQ_C, certainty about mental states) or hypomentalizing (RFQ_U, uncertainty about mental states). Higher points in hypomentalizing shows an inability to understand complex models of one's own mind and/or that of others. On the other hand, higher scores in hypermentalizing refer to excessive mentalizing which leads to the generation of mentalistic representation of actions without sufficient observable evidence. The RFQ consists of 54 items that are scored on a 7-point Likert Scale between 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). Scores on both scales can range from 0 to 78. Very high scores on the RFQ-U reflect complete lack of knowledge about mental states, while lower scores reflect acknowledgment of opaqueness of own and others' mental states, which is a characteristic of genuine mentalizing (Fonagy et al., 2016). Very high scores on the RFQ-C reflects extreme expressions of certainty about mental states of others that can be seen as extraordinary. RFQ's positive correlation with mindfulness and perspective taking, and negative correlation with symptoms of Borderline Personality Disorder indicates construct validity of the scale. Test re-test reliability of RFQ_U and RFQ_C are 0.84 and 0.75, respectively.

In this study, RFQ_C scale Cronbach alpha values were .89 at pre-training and .91 at post training. Cronbach alpha values for RFQ_U at pre and post trainings were .79 and .74, respectively.

2.3. Procedure

This study was conducted as a part of an EU Erasmus+ Program Project for cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices in June 2017, in Ljubljana, Slovenia. The participants signed an informed consent prior to the participation of this study. The ultimate goal of the project was to increase EI skills of the youth to increase employability. The participants in the intervention group attended a 3-day (30 hours in total) EI training program. The training program was generated as an intellectual output of this Erasmus+ project and first used in this study.

For this study, an intensive EI training program was conducted in 3 consecutive days. The training provided detailed information about EI as a general concept and its' subdomains. Following the EI as an ability approach, the content of the training was arranged according to the 4 domains of the EI: Perception of emotions and using emotions to facilitate thought processes (targeted on the first day), understanding emotions (targeted on the second day), and managing emotions (targeted on the third day). Theoretical information about EI was provided and engaging exercises were used to teach the concepts. All domains of the EI were introduced to the participants in detail and psychodrama activities, classroom discussions, group activities, self-reflection, relaxation techniques, and role playing activities were utilized to teach the materials under each domain.

First day of the training covered information about meaning of emotions, emotional intelligence in private and professional life, emotional awareness, emotional responses in difficult situations, coping with unpleasant emotions at the workplace, and working with thoughts that trigger emotions. Icebrakers, panel discussions, watching videos regarding EI, small group discussions, teamwork on concepts of EI, individual reflective exercise on listening to music and reflection on feelings were utilized. The training on the second day covered a mindful approach to emotion regulation, understanding stress response, stress coping mechanism, resilience, empathy, defining difficult emotions, and effective emotional awareness and regulation. Exercises on mindfulness (i.e. mindful drawing and mindful breathing), detecting authenticity of emotions, role plays regarding reacting to coworker's difficult emotions, team work, observing group members, individual self-reflection, relaxation exercises, and use of media showing facial expressions were utilized. The third day of the training covered information about conflict, conflict management, detecting others' emotions, working with difficult people, role of communication skills, building credibility in the organization, developing assertiveness in the working team, and general assessment of trainings. Individual weaknesses were determined, strategies for dealing with difficult people, and strategies for assertiveness were discussed. Participants filled out the questionnaires prior to the start of the training and at the end of the training.

2.4. Data Analyses

Demographic variables were correlated with the SHUTTE, DERS, SCL-90-R, and RFQ total scores in order to determine the covariates in the study. Repeated Measures ANCOVA tests were computed to assess change in the SHUTTE, DERS, SCL-90-R, and RFQ total and subscale scores.

Results

3.1. The Relationships between the Demographic Variables and Dependent Variables

Demographic variables were correlated with the intervention group SSEIT, DERS, SCL-90-R, and RFQ total scores in order to determine the covariates which had substantial correlation with the dependent variable and to adjust the results for differences existing among the participants before the start of the study (George & Mallery, 2006). Demographic variables that showed significant correlations were treated as covariates in the following Repeated Measures ANCOVA analyses. As shown on Table 1, race and income were significantly correlated with the SSEIT total score; race and income were significantly correlated with the DERS total

scores; marital status was significantly correlated with the SCL-90-R total score; race was significantly correlated with the RF uncertainty score.

There was a negative correlation between DERS pre training and post training scores and income, r= -.52, p=.04, r= -.62, p=.01, respectively. There was a marginal significant relationship between race and DERS post training scores, r= .46, p=.058. There was a negative correlation between SCL-90-R post training total score and marital status, r= -.47, p=.05. There was a negative correlation between SSEIT pre training and post training scores and race, r= -.50, p=.04, r= -.60, p=.00, respectively.

3.2. Change in the SSEIT Scores

A Repeated Measures ANCOVA test was computed to examine change on the SSEIT from pre-training to post-training. Race and income were included as the covariates. The results showed that there was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the SSEIT from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,30)= .10$, p= .75, $\eta p2= .00$.

3.3. Change in the DERS Total and Subscale Scores

A Repeated Measures ANCOVA test was computed to examine change on the DERS IMPULSE scores from pre-training to post-training, where race and income were treated as covariates. The results showed that change in DERS IMPULSE scores was significant from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,30)= 12.40$, p= .00, $\eta p2= .29$. As shown on Figure 1, there was an interaction effect of the DERS IMPULSE score and treatment group. The rate of change in IMPULSE scores from pre-training to post-training was different for people in the intervention group and control group $F(1,30)= 5.13$, p= .03, $\eta p2= .15$, the intervention group pre-training (M=12.70, SD=4.32), post-training (M=11.11, SD=3.08), the control group pre-training (M=11.81, SD=3.97), post-training (M=11.00, SD=3.23).

Figure 1

DERS IMPULSE Scores from Pre-Training to Post-Training for People in the Intervention Group and Control Group

Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: What is your race? = 1,0882, What is your own yearly income? = 1,5882

A Repeated Measures ANCOVA test was computed to examine change on the DERS total score from pre-training to post-training, where race and income were treated as covariates. The results showed that there was not a significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding decrease on the DERS total score from pre-training, post-training, $F(1,30)= .48$, $p= .49$, $\eta p2= .02$, no interaction effects were observed. There was a significant effect of income on DERS total scores, $F(1,30)= 4.04$, $p= .05$, $\eta p2=.12$.

Repeated Measures ANCOVAS were computed to examine change in subtests of the DERS, as income and race were covariates. There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the NONACCEPT pre-training and post-training scores, $F(1,30)= .02$, $p= .89$, $\eta p2= .00$, no interaction effects were observed.

When race and income were controlled, there was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the GOALS scores from pre-training to post-training , $F(1,30)= .66$, $p= .42$, $\eta p2= .02$, no interaction effects were observed.

There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the AWARE scores from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,30)= .97$, $p= .33$, $\eta p2= .03$, when race and income were controlled. No interaction effects were observed.

There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the STRATEGIES scores from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,30)= .38$, $p= .54$, $\eta p2= .01$, when race and income were controlled.

There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the CLARITY scores from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,30)= .00$, $p= .99$, $\eta p2= .00$, when race and income were covariates.

3.4. Change in the SCL-90-R Scores

There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups regarding change on the SCL-90 from pre-training to post-training, $F(1,29)= .00$, $p= 985$, $\eta p2= .00$, when marital status was treated as a covariate. Furthermore, no significant changes were observed on the subscales of the SCL-90-R from pre-training to post-training between intervention and control groups. From pre-training to post-training, there was no change on somatization, $F(1,29)= .54$, $p= .47$, $\eta p2= .02$; obsession-compulsion, $F(1,29)= .11$, $p= .74$, $\eta p2= .00$; interpersonal sensitivity, $F(1,29)= .00$, $p= .95$, $\eta p2= .00$; depression, $F(1,29)= .27$, $p= .61$, $\eta p2= .01$; anxiety, $F(1,29)= .00$, $p= .95$, $\eta p2= .00$; hostility, $F(1,29)= .41$, $p= .53$, $\eta p2= .01$; phobic anxiety, $F(1,29)= .00$, $p= .99$, $\eta p2= .00$; paranoid ideation, $F(1,29)= .12$, $p= .74$, $\eta p2= .01$; and psychoticism, $F(1,29)= .16$, $p= .69$, $\eta p2= .01$, controlling for marital status.
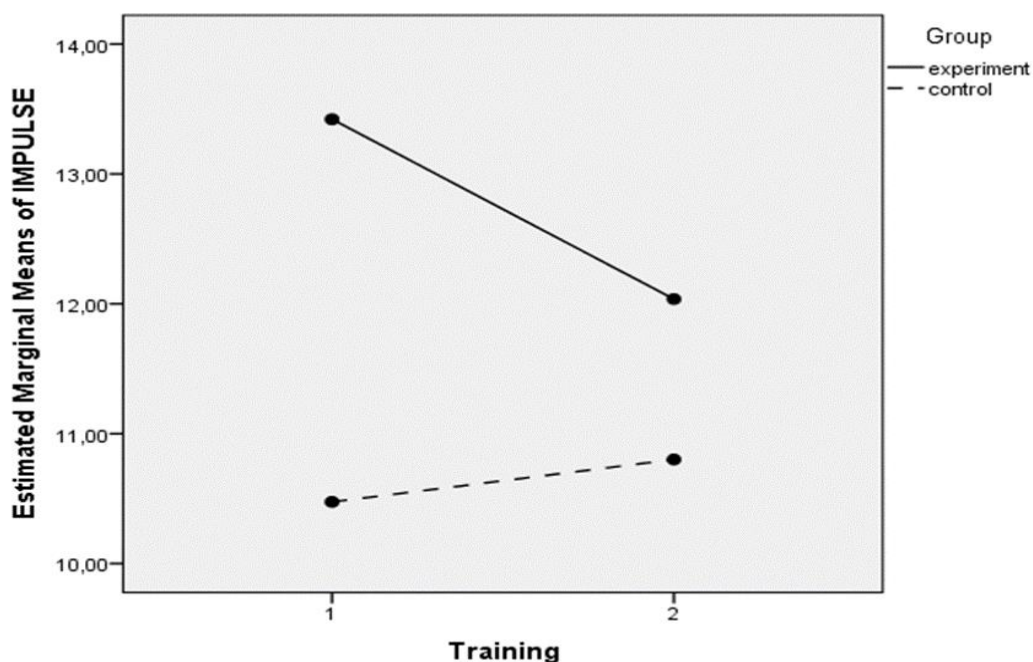
3.5. Change in the RFQ Scores

A Repeated Measures ANCOVA test was computed to examine change on the RFQ scores from pre-training to post-training, where race and income were treated as covariates. The results showed that there was an interaction effect of the RFQ_U score and treatment group. As shown on Figure 2, the rate of change in RFQ_U score from pre-training to post-training was different for participants in the intervention group and control group, $F(1,28)= 5.75$, $p= .02$, $\eta p2= .17$, the intervention group pre-training (M=4.86, SD=4.43), post-training (M=6.64, SD=5.80); the control group pre-training (M=8.44, SD=7.14), post-training (M=7.33, SD=6.24). While change was marginally significant for the intervention group, $F(1,11)= 4.48$, $p= .058$, $\eta p2= .29$; it was not significant for the control group, $F(1,16)= .01$, $p= .92$, $\eta p2= .00$. Change in the RFQ certainty from pre-training to post-training was not significant for the participants in the intervention group and control group, $F(1,28)= .99$, $p= .33$, $\eta p2= .03$.

Figure 2

RFQ_U Scores from Pre-Training to Post-Training for People in the Intervention Group and Control Group
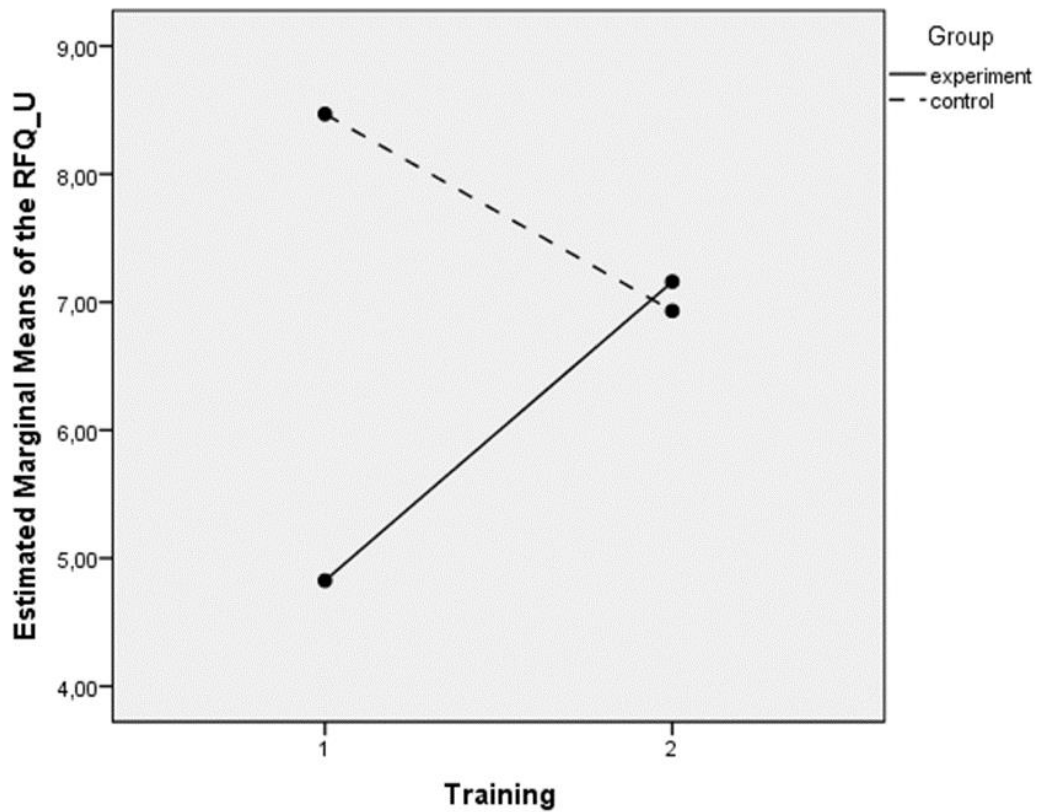
Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: What is your race? = 1,0938, What is your own yearly income? = 1,5313

Table 1

Correlation of the Variables for the Intervention Group

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Age	1																
2. Gender	.27	1															
3. Marital Status	-.48*	-.20	1														
4. Race	-.24	-.15	-.10	1													
5.Religous affiliation	-.23	-.18	.37	.22	1												
6.Education level	.37	-.05	-.31	-.18	-.16	1											
7.Employment status	-.28	-.04	.25	-.10	.30	-.14	1										
8.Yearly income	.36	.08	-.10	-.26	-.61*	.24	-.34	1									
9. SSEIT pre-test	.22	.15	.30	-.50*	-.26	.17	.18	.45	1								
10. SSEIT post-test	.29	.18	.13	-.60**	-.37	-.01	.23	.50*	.83**	1							
11. DERS pre-test	-.27	.14	-.04	.03	.33	.30	-.08	-.52*	-.41	-.54*	1						
12. DERS post-test	-.32	.11	-.14	.46*	.40	.13	-.16	-.62*	-.47*	-.67**	.83**	1					
13. SCL90 pre-test	-.11	-.36	-.40	.13	.21	.10	-.12	-.39	-.56	-.55*	.49*	.50*	1				
14.SCL90 post-test	.22	-.19	-.47*	.42	.18	.05	-.18	-.44	-.46	-.51*	.28	.46	.71**	1			
15.RFQ-C pre-test	.37	.32	-.02	-.31	.50*	.04	-.09	.49	.66**	.65**	-.42	-.47	-.26	-.03	1		
16.RFQ-U pre-test	-.42	-.15	.08	.53*	.32	-.14	.02	-.30	-.67**	-.76**	.28	.44	-.33	.30	-.56*	1	
17.RFQ-C post-test	.43	.43	-.08	-.24	.38	-.06	.06	.44	.63**	.66**	-.48*	-.48	.31	-.08	.95**	-.61*	1
18. RFQ-U post-test	-.41	-.05	.02	.25	.27	.02	.07	-.40	-.39	-.62**	.40	.57*	.27	.14	-.67**	.75**	-.71**

* p < .05   ** p < .01

Discussion

The findings showed that there was a significant change on the DERS IMPULSE score at post-training compared to pre-training for the intervention group, even after controlling for differences existing among the participants before the start of the study, such as race and income, but not for the control group. Therefore, our second hypothesis was confirmed. This finding suggests that after receiving a 3-day training on the EI skills, individuals are able to learn to regulate their own emotions when they are upset. Upon completion of the training, the participants' impulse control difficulties decreased in the intervention group but not in the control group. Those in the intervention group reported less difficulty in emotions as overwhelming and out of control; in feeling and becoming out of control. Parts of the training, such as mindfulness practices, exercises which improved awareness of emotions, exercises which taught strategies to deal with difficult people might have contributed to this finding. In this training, participants in the intervention group learned how to recognize their negative emotions (such as frustration, worry, anger, dislike, and disappointment) but not necessarily to act on them. It appears this skill can be taught and implemented in an intensive 3-day EI training. Future studies might choose to investigate the role of specific activities that lead to changes in impulse control difficulties. Change in the DERS IMPULSE scores from pre-training to post-training suggests that 3-day EI training had met an important goal of an EI training, i.e. harnessing emotions productively and managing emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1996). This study also pointed out positive influences of a higher income on decreased levels of emotion regulation difficulties. This finding emphasizes the importance of equal employment opportunities among individuals for better emotion regulation skills.

Even though the participants reported significantly less difficulty in emotion regulation, no changes were observed in the SSEIT scores. While DERS only assesses emotion regulation difficulties, The SSEIT is a more comprehensive measure, as it assesses emotion perception, utilizing emotions, managing self-relevant emotions, and managing others' emotions. It is possible that change in all areas of EI require more extensive or longer lasting trainings. Also, the literature shows that the knowledge gained in EI trainings might take up to 6 months to translate into applied skills (Nelis et al., 2009). Previous research showed not all areas of EI change post-training. For instance, a study that utilized a 4-week EI training has shown there were no changes in emotion understanding at the end of the training (Nelis et al., 2009).

There were no changes in psychological symptoms as measured by the SCL-90-R. Previous research showed EI skills trainings had a positive effect on anxiety and depression levels (Ozcelik, 2007); and anger levels (Yilmaz, 2009). These findings suggest that changes in psychological symptoms might be prompted by skills training programs. However, these studies had a 12-week program to teach EI skills. It is possible that psychological symptoms are persistent, and individuals need longer than a 3-day program to show decreases in psychological symptoms. In addition, lack of changes on the SSEIT and SCL-90-R might be attributed to the limited sample size, as our power analysis showed the sample sizes would have to increase up to N = 54 for group differences to reach statistical significance at the .05 level.

On the RF, participants' RF_U scores were on the lower end to begin with, which was suggestive of a high mentalizing capacity. Still, RF_U scores of the intervention group increased, while such an increase was not observed among the control group. This suggests that after the EI training, participants in the experimental group acknowledged more lack of knowledge about mental states. This might enable participants' to decrease engaging in negative thoughts such as mind-reading. One would have also expected to find significant changes on the RFQ_C after the EI training. Nonetheless, lack of such a finding is compatible with previous research which showed no changes in self-understanding after a 4-week EI training (Nelis et al., 2009) and that significant changes in RF require more intense work and are obtained over long-term therapeutic work (Levy et al., 2006; Hörz-Sagstetter et al., 2015).

This study has several limitations. Due to the nature of this training, the number of participants had to be relatively small. Nevertheless, trainings provided to larger group of individuals might yield statistically more

robust results. Second, participants in the control group had to be recruited from only one country. This is a limitation of a control group and future studies might consider having a more inclusive control group. Third, having a 6-month follow-up could have enabled researchers to assess intervention gains and compare the results of this study to similar studies, which measured effectiveness of EI trainings. Finally, this study aimed to investigate effects of an intensive training lasted for 3 days. EI trainings longer in duration might result in more opportunities to apply acquired knowledge and therefore increase the gains from an EI training.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

The Europe of

Regions and Separatism

Bölgelerin ve Ayrılıkçılığın Avrupası

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Abstract

This study focuses on regions and approaches to regionalism in Europe, which has a long history and heritage. It was anticipated that the regions would be represented more strongly at the European level when the European Common Market was completed. Indeed, after joining the European Union, many European countries have guaranteed to govern their regions in accordance with the principles of subsidiarity and subordination. But some autonomous regions, such as Catalonia, emerged with "radical" demands such as independence rather than broad autonomy. The study tackled the issue from a current and historical point of view by carrying out some debates on the major regions of Europe. In the first part, regions that have evolved into separatism in Europe from time to time were discussed by focusing on the autonomous regions in Spain and the United Kingdom. In the second part, the regions in Italy were discussed, and the issues of identity, ethno-linguistic belonging, internal colonization and economic backwardness were elaborated. Finally, the establishment of the Committee of the Regions, a European Union institution, for the institutional solution of regional problems within the European Union and the criticisms faced by the Committee were evaluated. Thus, the way of ensuring the regional governance of the European Union institutions and their perspectives on regional differences were also revealed.

Keywords: European Union, Regionalism, Subsidiarity, European Regions.

Öz

Bu çalışma uzun bir geçmişi ve mirası olan Avrupa'da bölgelere ve bölgeselcilik anlayışlarına odaklanmıştır. Avrupa Ortak Pazarı tamamlandığında bölgelerin daha bir güçlü bir şekilde Avrupa düzeyinde temsil edileceği öngörülüyordu. Gerçekten de Avrupa Birliği'ne üye olduktan sonra pek çok Avrupa ülkesi bölgelerini yerindelik ve yakınsaklık ilkeleri uyarınca yöneteceğini taahhüt etti. Fakat Katalonya gibi bazı özerk bölgeler geniş özerklik yerine bağımsızlık gibi "radikal" taleplerle ortaya çıktı. Çalışma, Avrupa'nın belli başlı bölgelerine ilişkin bazı tartışmalar yürüterek meseleyi güncel ve tarihsel olarak ele almıştır. İlk bölümde İspanya ve Birleşik Krallıktaki özerk bölgelere odaklanılarak zaman zaman ayrılıkçılığa evrilen bölgelere değinilmiştir. İkinci bölümde ise ağırlıklı olarak İtalya'daki bölgeler tartışılarak kimlik, etno-linguistik aidiyet, iç sömürge olma durumu ve ekonomik geri kalmışlık meseleleri üzerinde durulmuştur. Son olarak, Avrupa Birliği Bölgeler Komitesi'nin Avrupa Birliği içinde bölgesel problemlerin kurumsal bir şekilde çözümü için kurulması ve Komite'nin maruz kaldığı eleştiriler değerlendirilmiştir. Böylece Avrupa Birliği kurumlarının bölgesel yönetişimi temin etme yolu ve bölgesel farklılıklara yönelik bakış açıları açığa çıkarılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Avrupa Birliği, Bölgeselcilik, Yerindelik, Avrupa Bölgeleri.

Introduction

As the European Union [EU] intensifies its integration and enlargement processes, it has been observed that the regionalist tendencies tend to increase among member countries. The rise of regionalism within the EU can be attributed to several reasons. The earliest and main reason why regionalist movements gained momentum within relevant countries is the ethno-linguistic and cultural differences of these regions. These differences are seen in many regions within the EU such as Catalan and Basque regions in Spain, Scotland and Wales in the ex-EU member UK and Corsica in France.

Regionalism has ethno-linguistic and political dimensions, as well as being a theory of economic integration. In this study, concepts and issues that dominate political and sociological aspects such as nationalism, identity, and language will be discussed. Since not all regionalist approaches in 27 countries can be examined, regionalist movements in the relatively new member countries will not be emphasized. Rather, countries with deep-rooted regionalist movements within the EU will be discussed comparatively. As the separation of the UK from the EU is still a hot issue, the Brexit and regionalism in the UK are also within the scope of this study.

The notion of Europe of regions bears many implications for the present and future of Europe. Without the role of regions probably one cannot talk about a comprehensive European identity. Europe is a combination of many local and regional identities. The Europe of regions may not necessarily pose a threat to nation-states. However, regional differences and regional development strategies which aim to construct specific remedies for specific problems of regions keep influencing the European project. Hence, the relations between nation-states and the EU have been deeply shaped by such notions as subsidiarity and regional autonomy.

It seems that the regions of EU demand more economic and political autonomy. The factors that trigger or strengthen this demand can be examined under two basic categories and parts. The first part is the kind of internal colonialism put forward by the regions like Corsicans in France. According to this view, the development of Corsica has deliberately been blocked by the central government in Paris. In the second case, there happens to be seen Italy's Northern League. According to them, the poorer, dependent and less industrialized, less developed, yet more dominant in the national political arena, the Southern Italy has become a hobble for the Northern Italy and this is why, the North deserves more autonomy and independence in its internal affairs.

Alongside the desire for autonomy, there is also a concern that the supranational, central Brussels administration will not care about the needs and priorities of local centers. This problem was tried to be overcome by the EU's policy of subsidiarity, which stipulates that the Union's policies are to be carried out through the lowest possible administrative unit. However, the reason why regionalism is gaining strength and playing an increasingly dominant role cannot be attributed to one single, precise, simple reason. In many cases, regionalism tends to exist at varying levels within different regions.

For centuries one of the most fundamental entities of states has been their sovereignties (Özdemir, 2012, p. 380) and the positions of regions in Europe have been paving the way for disputes regarding the sovereignty of states. Also, due to the disputes concerning the external borders of Europe and the challenges its diversity present it is hard to define what Europe and European is (McCormick, 2011, p. 61). Regions lie at the heart of these disputes and discussions concerning what Europe and European are.

In this regard, this study focused on several regions of Europe, mainly the regions of Spain, Italy, France and UK. In the first chapter, the separatist movements in Spain and UK were examined. In the second chapter, the regional differences of Italy and France were tackled and a comparison regarding the regional developments of these countries was made. Further, the role of EU institutions in regional governance was discussed through an examination of the Committee of Regions.

1.1. The Europe of Regions

Due to supranationalism, European integration and the strong effects of regionalism, the concept of nation-state is seriously being discussed within the EU. In a way, "giving more autonomy to smaller regions could block nationalist currents that slow down the integration process and help these small regions solve their economic and political issues within the EU context. In fact, EU regionalism has a character that rejects constitutional definitions" (Calleya, 2000, p. 27).

However, looking beyond the economic reasons for the rise of regionalism within the EU, the most obvious reason seems to be the existence of ethno-linguistic differences. This difference is probably the most fundamental feature that distinguishes one society from another. Small groups that have existed for centuries in modern democratic states and also in line with the EU's principle of subordination have the right to speak more for their own political needs and interests.

In this vein, there are some parties in Spain representing Catalan and Basque minorities that have emerged due to these ethno-linguistic differences. The two leading parties among them are the Catalan Republican Left Party and the Basque National Party. These parties can be described as ethno-lingusitic, and "such nationalist parties tend to increase their support as their decision-making bodies become more nationalistic. Convergence and the Unity Party is on a more moderate line. These parties made significant gains in the Spanish parliament in the 1977 and 1986 elections" (Scully & Richard, 2010, p. 134).

Subsequently, the main regional parties, the Proximity and Unity Party and the Basque National Party, strongly supported Spain's accession to the EU. These two parties acted in accordance with their common interests by opposing Madrid's strong centralist policies. However, the separatism in Catalonia was sparked by a series of events, which resulted in the exile of pro-independence leader Carles Puidgemont (Ulusoy, 2020, p. 147). In fact, in the face of Madrid's harsh response, Puidgemont left the independence decision to members of parliament. Hereafter the members of parliament declared a unilateral independence. Following this decision the Madrid government abolished the Catalan parliament and issued an arrest warrant for some Catalan leaders including Puidgemont (Ulusoy, 2020, p. 147). In spite of EU membership and a relatively long democratic experience the Catalan nationalists pursue independence and deny centralism. The reforms put into practice between 1982 and 2006 in Spain and the re-definition of Spanish nation fell short to suppress the independence movements peacefully (Humlebæk & Jiménez, 2018, p. 153). Further, the Spanish central government pointed out the Scottish independence referendum to support its thesis that with strong autonomy and rights a region can willingly coexist with a central government in a European context.

Although it is not a part the EU anymore, the UK is still an important European power and culture. So, to understand European regionalism, one also should look at regionalism in the UK. The understanding of regionalism in the UK is also fed by the identity differences of the English people and the peoples of Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The separatist movement was also effective in Northern Ireland for a long time.

Scotland, on the other hand, was far from separatist rhetoric until 2014. But in 2014, Scotland held a referendum to decide to leave or remain a part of the UK, in which the majority decided to remain. However, in the aftermath of the Brexit the Scottish nationalists demand another referendum for Scottish independence and EU membership. The Scottish Nationalist Party is the party that had strongly supported independence in the 2014 referendum. This movement, which is the strongest party in Scotland, is at the center of regionalism and demands for independence rather than autonomy (Mattelaer, 2017, p. 4). In this case, the implementation of Brexit was inevitable. From the point of view regionalism in Europe this could spark a new conflict. Nevertheless, whatever the composition of the British government, it could not have avoided the political imperative to deliver Brexit and make the best of an unknown situation. Given that the debate over immigration played such a prominent part of the Leave campaign, it is obvious that the principle of free movement of

persons cannot be maintained in the future relationship between the UK and the EU (Mattelaer, 2017, p. 4). The emphasis on the control of immigration applies to all four autonomous regions of Britain.

In this regard, in Northern Ireland, the dusts seem to have settled. In the region where religious and cultural differences are predominant, Sinn Fein and the pro-central government Ulster United and Democratic Union parties have varying levels of influence. In Wales, the regionalist party called Plaid Cymru is struggling to protect Welsh culture and identity, even though it does not have a very sharp separatist rhetoric. It can also be said that it was partially successful in this because around a fifth of the Welsh population can speak their mother tongue today. Thus, Wales has no desire to leave the Union yet.

It is clear that economic factors along with cultural differences can trigger regionalist movements within a country. The internal colonialism criticism or approach also has an economic aspect. There are many regions that feel that they are not treated equally by the central government and therefore feel humiliated due to their underdevelopment. Corsica and Breton regions in France express their regionalist approach through this discourse. The Breton Liberation Army, which emerged in the 1960s, for example, expressed the demand for political autonomy for Breton, claiming that the Breton people were neglected by the Paris administration. They demanded from France to devote more resources to regional development and improve the economy of the region. This is an indication that the people of the region feel forgotten and neglected.

These regions have linguistic distinctness as well as economic backwardness. The regions which remain undeveloped in terms of economy compared to other regions put the blame on the center, which leads to stronger regional and nationalist movements. The model here is internal colonialism. As the disadvantaged region feels exploited, it thinks that its resources are transferred to the center, and also if this region is culturally and linguistically different, the regionalist and nationalist reaction will be stronger. Ultimately, "conflicts can be prevented by more specifically defining the region, space and community building processes with the EU core values" (Rumelili, 2007, p. 158).

The EU itself has put in place Structural funds to solve at least some of these problems. Tools such as the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund, the European Agricultural Guidance Fund, and the Cohesion Fund have been created to serve this purpose. Efforts were made to compensate for the regional development gap through these funds. In this context, a partnership has been established between the EU and local governments and local authorities. Whether the objectives of the fund were achieved or not was followed up with the help of this partnership. Moreover, the Committee of Regions was established in 1994 to establish stronger links between the regions and the central Brussels administration. "Of course, this institution has been criticized because of the current crisis, unemployment and its ineffectiveness except for the Committee's advice and lobbying activities. Local governments who held big hopes for the committee were disappointed" (Scully & Richard, 2010, p. 6).

According to the Lisbon Treaty, the Committee has the right to apply to the Court of Justice for the follow-up of the subsidiarity principle. This increased the political role and significance of the Committee of the Regions. Despite this, the Committee's decisions still have not gone beyond being advisory. In fact, even before the Committee was established, regional governments were able to open offices in Brussels (Hooghe & Marks, 1996, p. 83).

1.2. Identity, Margins, New City States

If we look at other major political regions within the EU countries, one of the locations where regional differences have serious political effects is the Northern regions of Italy. Regions such as Lombardi where Milan is located are more industrialized, richer and less influenced by organized crime organizations compared to Southern Italy. Because of this, Northerners feel that the backward Southern and corrupt central Roman governments stall their efforts to become richer. This brought about the emergence of various factions which have demands ranging from more autonomy to full independence.

Lombardi, Venice, Piedmont, Emilia, Romagna, Liguria, Tuscany and Friuli regions were gathered under a single party roof. The Northern League was founded in 1991 under the leadership of Umberto Bossi, who previously ran the Lombard League. The Southern economy, which received a large amount of government support, could not recover (Agnew, 1995, p. 156). Infrastructure investments and industrialization efforts did not yield results. In addition, the Southerners benefited more from the recruitment of the state, which started to offend the Northerners. These disappointments started to be expressed strongly by the Northern League.

During the Berlusconi period, important ministries were given to the MPs from the Northern League. In 2009, a system that could be called tax federalism was passed by the representatives of the Northern League. In 2012, the founder of the League, Umberto Bossi, left his post. The basic philosophy of the movement can be defined as political federalism, tax federalism and regionalism. This movement can contribute to EU regionalism by filing away excessive ideas within the framework of the EU's multi-layered governance understanding (Gualini, 2004, p. 225). Following the ideas of Bossi Matteo Salvini first became the leader of the Lega and then became minister of internal affairs for a while and now the Lega stresses the irregular immigration issue rather than the backwardness and underdevelopment of the South (Gualini, 2004, p. 225).

Similar examples resonating the Italian regions can be found in regions of Spain, discussed above. Catalonia, Galicia, Euskadi (Basque Country) and Andalusia can all be considered relatively successful in terms of economic development and growth. These four regions benefit seriously from the autonomy existing in Spain. The reason why these regions demand self-governance and more strong participation in decision-making mechanisms is that they are relatively rich regions in terms of economic indicators.

Apart from the ethno-linguistic difference and economic problems, which are the driving force of the growing regionalism, there is a suspicion that the Brussels central administration, which operates with a supranational administration model, will not be able to meet the needs of many large and small regions within the EU. The EU tries to overcome these with principles such as subsidiarity and subordination, which stipulate that the Union's policies are carried out by the lowest possible administrative units. Although it may seem like a paradoxical relationship at first, regionalism and supranational centralism cooperate in weakening national centralist understandings and reducing the influence of national governments. In fact, some of the doubts of the regional governments have been justified.

How can regional governments rely on a supranational government when they cannot rely even on their national governments to pursue their aspirations and interests? How long will the Committee of the Regions serve this purpose? Already, EU regions have started to criticize this committee (Syssner, 2006, p.38). Almost everyone in the EU agrees that regional development should be done from the bottom, not with government aid or private funding to peripheral locations, but rather from the bottom up, with the dynamics of the region itself (Syssner, 2006, p. 38). Therefore, the Committee of the Regions is expected to bring forward the problems of the EU regions more often.

Restricting centralization at the state level can weaken nationalism and strengthen integration within the nation. But if the EU integration triggers economic problems, on the contrary, in this case, nationalist and unitary movements may get stronger and cause internal conflicts. The rallying of right-populist parties both in national elections and in the EU Parliamentary elections may mean an increase in regional conflicts. To prevent this trouble, the EU institutions should bring the decision-making processes for Europe closer to ordinary citizens (Loughlin, 2001, p. 26).

There are already strong autonomous regions within the EU, but the Catalan region, Scotland and the Basque regions seriously put forward independence beyond autonomy. The regionalist and separatist movements in these regions, which believe that the center will not contribute to the economic development of the region and stall the self-governance of those regions, indicate that center-region / periphery conflicts will take place in the EU for a longer time than anticipated.

Implementing the EU policies through the lowest possible administrative unit lies in meeting the demands and needs of many regions within the EU. The concept of nation-state in the EU is being eroded by regionalist powers and EU integration, but the economic failures and the central Brussels administration's awkward governance and its occasional indifference to the needs of the regions for the benefit of the nation-state structures such as France might mean that the Regions of Europe will face difficulties.

As can be seen, there are various factors that lead to the strengthening of regionalism within the EU member states. These factors include demands for autonomy, the strengthening of existing autonomies or the independence demands of already autonomous regions. These demands are manifested primarily in the ethno-linguistic difference, the feature that distinguishes one region from another in its simplest form. This kind of ethno-linguistic regionalism is found in regions such as Catalonia, Basque, Andalusia, Breton, Corsica, Scotland and Flanders. However, another demand for political and economic autonomy or independence lies in the sharp regional differences within nations.

The emergence of regional movements leads the discussion to two main points. The first is that a region's demand for political and economic autonomy or independence stem from the fact that a region feels to have been exploited by the central government and sees itself as a kind of internal colony. The second point is that a region thinks that its economic potential is strong, that its region is more advanced than the rest of the country, and that the central government is a serious obstacle to realizing its potential and its development can only be achieved through a strong autonomy. The first situation is seen in Corsica and Breton regions of France, in regions such as Northern Ireland and Scotland and Flanders.

The second issue is an argument and discourse carried out by regions such as Catalonia, Galicia and the North of Italy who want to have more say on the money they earn and tax they collect because their economies in general are stronger than the other regions of their countries. In addition, concerns that a supranational central government based in Brussels would not be responsive to regional problems led the Union to adopt the principle of subsidiarity. Accordingly, the lowest possible administrative unit was made responsible for the implementation of EU policies. This principle is also effective in weakening centralization, strong national governments and nationalism.

The result of giving more importance to regional movements is the acceleration of European integration. From the weakening of central governments and nation-states benefits both regionalists and European integrationists, and their interests overlap. Thus, granting greater autonomy to smaller regions facilitates European integration and becomes effective in meeting the needs of regions within the EU.

Furthermore, it can be concluded that there are two different trends within the EU countries other than the regional approaches mentioned above. These trends can roughly be described as euro regionalism, a form of supranational regionalism, and nation-state regionalism. EU regionalism also has an attitude that is reminiscent of the old European city-states and that draws inspiration from these city-states (Jönsson et al., 2003, p. 132). Decentralized city-states can also contribute to national development by preserving the diversity of regions. In the formation of the regionalism of the EU, on the basis of this historical perspective, a bottom-up management model has been made effective by "bringing together the political and economic mind" (Jones & Keating, 2001, p. 171).

The revival of extremist movements which assert that in the EU integration process the peoples of Europe are not actors but subjects and a kind of expert authority direct the course of EU is closely related to the regional issues. It is the search for a new European identity that pushes peoples to question their national, regional and local identities. Although the European integration process has been continuing more than fifty years, we cannot talk about a collective European identity yet (Karlsson, 2007, p. 80). As an economic entity the Union is a reality but in terms of cultural and identity values it is far from being a union.

The idea of Europe, a new narrative for Europe, and unity in diversity may sound a romantic historization of Europe (Cederberg, 2017, p. 39) but for regions of Europe this ideal and romantic historization may play a role in restructuring the idea of Europe. The city states of ancient Europe, the Renaissance city states and brand mark cities of modern Europe, all provide relief for stronger regions. Being in a region also means being in a margin. To combine unity and diversity, to resolve the tensions between universal and particular values are challenges Europe face. In fact as Jacques Rupnik puts it: "There are historically different ways of belonging to Europe and although the center of Europe might be difficult to identify, it has several peripheries" (Ifversen, 2019, p. 27).

The EU is a model under pressure, its approach to regions and regionalism is also under the influence of this pressure:

> Recent crises in the European Union have tainted outsiders' perceptions of it as a model of specific policy regimes; yet, the most fundamental problem has crystallised in Brexit, which expresses principled opposition to the very idea of regional cooperation. Nevertheless, the notion that regional cooperation can help nation states to secure peace and enhance economic prosperity continues to be most prominently embodied by the European Union – remaining an attractive one in a world in which conflict and poverty are still pervasive (Lenz, 2018, p. 1).

The EU process is a complicated and dynamic process and as it happens in almost all dynamic process fears and anxieties emerge too. In some cases these fears and anxieties may outweigh opportunities (Çelebi, 2002, p. 115). The same thing applies to regionalist approaches for the EU. Regionalist views are parts of dynamic processes that shape the architecture of the EU and its institutions.

Conclusion

This study tackled the regions of Europe by comparing several regions in Europe in terms of their ethno-linguistic differences, economic structures and identities. The governance system of EU and its impact on the regional developments were analyzed. Throughout the integration process European regions gradually have asserted their agenda on the European level. However, the demand for independence has been perceived as an action that pushes the limit of European tolerance on the autonomy of regions.

Step by step, today multilevel governance and Europeanisation have given regions a key role in understanding the complex and fragmented system of European politics. In this sense, this article has illustrated how Europeanization reinforces multilevel dynamics of regions. However, the article also reveals how fragile the balance between the center-region relations is and to what extent Europeanization arbitrates the conflicts.

The future role of the regions in the process of European integration in the aftermath of Brexit, whether the regions influence the multilevel governance and the significance of sub-national actors through a historical perspective were discussed. Constructing Europe from bottom, instead of a top-down approach, which marked the foundation of European project, is the demand of peoples of Europe. The implementation of principle of subsidiarity, empowerment of regional parliaments and brandization of cities resonate a comeback to city states of antiquity. The Europe can deepen its integration through rebranding of regions and cities as cultural, economic and political centers.

This study predominantly discussed the regions in UK, France, Italy and Spain. In discussing these regions, the concepts of margin, periphery, center, identity and governance become conspicuous. Therefore, one way to conceptualize Europe is to lay stress on its regional differences and diversity, on its universality in particularity. Europe is not solely made of nation-states. Nor does it belong to a single structure deciding for all peoples of Europe. Historical lines, the legacy of city states generate a convergence among European regions as well as generating tensions between regions and centers.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Public Traces in Pre-Revolutionary France: Trivets of the Public Sphere

Fransız Devrimi Öncesinde Toplumun İzleri: Kamusal Alanın Sac Ayakları

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Abstract

Examination of the mechanism of the changes in history demands to propagate into the formations in the background. Considering the political, social and structural transformations, the atmosphere in Pre-revolutionary France provides a good example for the people's development under these formations which exert influence on the public sphere through freemasonry, salons, and academia. These formations can be discerned as heuristic tools through which people produce new ideas and exchange these thoughts in an intellectual environment. In light of these, the purpose of this study is to present three tenets of the public sphere in 18th century France: freemasonry, salons, and academia. As these three components correspond to the formation of a public opinion and public sphere; freemasonry, salons, and academia can be regarded as the nucleus of extensive freedom of thought and sharing. Thus, this article will display the dynamics of these three trivets and reveal how they contribute to the intellectual mindset of society.

Keywords: 18th Century France, Academia, Public Sphere, The French Revolution, Heuristic Tools.

Öz

Tarihteki değişim mekanizmalarını incelemek, arka plandaki oluşumları da irdelemeyi gerektirmektedir. Fransız Devrimi öncesinde Fransız'daki gelişimleri anlamak adına masonluk, salon ve akademi gibi insanların zihni gelişimlerine katkıda bulunduğu düşünülen kamusal alanların oluşumuna dair iyi bir örnek olmuştur. Bu yapılar keşifsel araçlar olarak görülebilir ki insanlar entelektüel bir ortam içinde yeni düşünce oluşumlarına katkıda bulunmuş ve bu düşünceleri birbirleriyle paylaşma olanağı elde etmiştir. Bunların ışığında, bu çalışma, 18. yüzyıl Fransasında kamusal alanı etkileyen üç önemli ayağa, masonluk, salon ve akademiye insanların nasıl düşüneceklerini keşfetmelerine katkıda bulunan bir keşifsel alan olarak bakmayı ve incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Bu alanların dinamikleri de incelenerek, belirli bir kesimin toplumsal düşünceyi nasıl şekillendirdiği ve Fransız Devrimi öncesindeki zihni atmosferi nasıl biçimlendirdiği ve önayak olduğu ortaya konacaktır. Hem kamusal düşünce hem de kamusal alanın oluşumunda etkili olan bu oluşumların düşünce özgürlüğü ve düşüncenin dolaşımına da etkide bulunduğu düşüncesiyle, bu oluşumların toplumsal zihniyete ve entelektüel hazineye nasıl katkıda bulunduğu ortaya çıkarılacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: 18. Yüzyıl Fransa, Akademi, Kamusal Alan, Fransız Devrimi, Keşifsel Araçlar.

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Introduction

There are a plethora of articles and books on the Revolution in France and its underlying factors all of which had a purpose to shed light on this milestone in the history of France in social, political and cultural perspectives. For instance, proceeding from recent to previous one, Colin Jones, brilliant scholar on the history of France, examines the political history of 18th century France in his book *The Great Nation: France from Louis XV to Napoleon 1715–99*, particularly the years between 1715 and 1799 which was ignored by most of the scholars. He reexamines the traditional approach of *Ancien Régime* and insists on investigating the developments, weaknesses and strengths of France which took place in the "glorious" period of France before the Revolution. In addition, he criticizes the teleological understanding of French Revolution. On the other hand, one-to-one observer of the French Revolution, Alexis de Tocqueville (d. 1859), who was a French philosopher and politician, provided well-articulated and insightful comments on the reasons of French Revolution. He argued that contrary to common belief, the French Revolution did not aim to destroy the prevailing religious beliefs, nor it had an effort to extend disorder to the society. The intention was to set the stage for public authority and create a more uniform and simpler social and political regime based upon social equality (de Tocqueville, 2008). François Furet, on the other hand, criticized the insufficiency of Tocqueville's analysis in terms of the reasons of French Revolution since he thought that Tocqueville's analysis was lack of "sociological conditions" (Furet, 1989, p. 39). In Furet's perspective, political conditions were attached to the subjects, their composition of groups and their relations with the power all of which is related to political sociability. Then, he mentioned the transformation in the world of political sociability beyond the monarchy where the individual came to forefront. He expressed that people garnered in cafes, salons or Masonic lodges to utter their opinions and, by this way, they composed and revealed the public opinion (Furet, 1989).

Overall, they all mentioned the public spheres in the composition of a "public" more or less, however, the concept of "public sphere" deemed a much more in-depth discussion. In this point, Jürgen Habermas and Keith Michael Baker came to forefront. Although their opinions established on divergent points for the function and the extent on the public sphere, Jurgen Habermas and Keith Baker proposed the most prevalent and pivotal arguments on the topic. Firstly, Habermas took a sociologically referent stance as to the concept of public sphere by elaborating on a variety of places where the public opinions raised in the pre-Revolutionary period in the 18th century France by regarding the public sphere as a type of bridge connecting old and new. By blending his reference to the original meaning of the public sphere and its reflections on the contemporary world, for him, the public sphere was "a part of civil society" of which "came into existence as the corollary of a depersonalized state authority" (Habermas, 1991, pp. 3, 19). Yet, this sphere was not the product of "any particular political system" (Nathans, 1990, p. 621). The public sphere, then became a place where "the mutual willingness to accept the given roles and simultaneously to suspend their reality was based on the justifiable trust that within the public" (Habermas, 1991, p. 131). Therefore, people shared and discussed their opinions in an egalitarian way. As a result, they composed their own communities or groups to freely circulate their thoughts. In this perspective, salons and other societies generated the centers of critical discussion, respectively, literary and artistic works and the public policy of the state (Nathans, 1990). Moreover, he highlighted the mingling of the bourgeois intelligentsia with the nobility. He argued that at the outset, bourgeois public sphere made itself attainable to the different layers of society through social groups, as a consequence, public sphere broadened and encompassed the "public". Hence, it became a tool between the state and the society (Nathans, 1990).

On the other side, Baker put emphasis on a political ground while examining the public sphere. Setting his arguments on the basis of public opinion together with the public sphere, Baker (1990) defined public sphere "in which the nation could reclaim its rights against the crown" and he adds that through this space the French Revolution became conceivable since this space offered a new political space (p. 199). In addition, he mentioned a discursive construct of the public opinion in which challenges the role of the state and its deeds.

While analyzing the public opinion and sphere, one of eminent aspects of his arguments was his structure where he blended the not only the canonical texts but also the lesser-known ones to reveal broader contexts (Maza, 1993). Both sociological indications and political considerations are actually blended in considering the freemasonary, *salon*s and academia as they not only serve the enlightenment of the people by serving the discovery but also become a preparation ground of the political changes as in the case of French Revolution. These three trivets are regarded as heuristic tools in the scope of the article because heuristic, which means "serving to find out" (Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 215) inherently associated with the knowledge exchange in freemasonary, *salon*s and academia where people come together to interchange their ideas and learn from each other influencing their way of thinking, as well. The heuristics is benefitted from wide range of academic fields. Highlighting the Polya's (2004) statements, heuristics aspires to "a better understanding of the mental operations" (p. 132). Although he puts forth the purpose of the heuristics in a different context, his point is sustainable as it will be convenient tool to understand the mechanism of these three formations in which the change in the mental process of the people begins to be observed in the eve of French Revolution.

Above all, the fundamental aim of this paper is to present three tenets of the public sphere in 18th century France: freemasonary, salons and academia. Indeed, they are important components of the society of pre-Revolutionary France as heuristic tools since they were the nucleus of enlightening and improving society and their seal of intelligence can be considered as "being a torch" against the restriction of the freedom of mind, namely, the monarch and the clerical understanding of the Church. Thus, this paper will demonstrate how freemasonry, academia and salons are formed as heuristic tools in the 18th century France.

1.1. Three Trivets in the Surface: Freemasonry, Salons and Academies

The freemasonry, salons and academies were the main centres of the circulation of knowledge. It has to be kept in mind that the status of the people in these circles are not ordinary citizens, but the elites who were also pioneered and impacted the society composing the educated and enlightened part. In one way or another, directly or indirectly they were determinant factors in the nucleus of a new generation on the process and the eve of French Revolution. Indeed, their degree of relation into the politics is still a going debate, however, they are deeply influential in steering the period's context. For instance, as Kenneth Loiselle (2014) states "Freemasonries did not merely represent a space where a distinct form of political culture anchored in elections and following written laws, could take hold- actual talking about actual politics could and did occur within the lodge" (p. 236). *Salon*s created a space of socialization between men and women, not excluding the politics, political decisions, and events (Kale, 2004). Academies serves to the seeds of the future lineage by offering an official instruction. Considering their particular role, they propagated into the mentality of the society and they were influential in the fate of the French politics.

1.1.1. Freemasonary

Freemasonry groups, aside for being a highly cultured aspects of the members, might be the vaguest groups among the diverse sphere due to their secrecy where the members where the members swore an oath in order not to give away the mysteries of their order, and they regularly referred to non-members of their group as the "profane" (Melton, 2001, p. 253). In the atmosphere of 18th century France, freemasonry attributed an importance in which the members established a new form of individual power by involving in the governmental issues through an opponent stance (Jacob, 1991). The freemasonry groups were the social mixing places where the member of it get title and status. The group was both skeptical and useful category of analysis for the scope of pre-Revolutionary France through their deeds and aims. The members of the freemasonry had the ideal understanding of the world with their intentions and activities. For them, they bound to each other with the link of brotherhood with all of their members with the aim of being the "model subjects" for the people by being exemplary citizens who brought light to the world with the knowledge and hard work (Beaurepaire, 2006, p. 409).

As a part of developing intellectual sociability, the first masonic lodge was opened in 1721 and the first Parisian one was in 1725 or 1726, afterwards they were spread quickly throughout the urban space (Jones, 2014). Some early studies, however, suggests that freemasonry was not that widespread in the aforementioned time span, asserting that, out of the département of the Seine (where there were some 4,000 masons which belonged to sixty-one lodges), there were some 10,000 paid-up masons as the members to the 187 lodges of the Grand-Orient de France, being the highly populated one (Wright, 1991). For Colin Jones (2002), their rapid growth ended up with their being organized under the Grant Orient of France, at the end of 18th century "as many as 1,000 lodges throughout France containing between 50,000 and 100,000" masons (p. 367).

Their inner structure was close to a democratic set-up. In their hierarchy, there were degrees according to their experience and knowledge, however, their concept of "brotherhood" enabled them to overcome the obstacle of a strict hierarchy in which they abolished the status among them. That could be the reason why they could provide a milieu by generating their constitutions and election as if they were a microscale of a democratic system. Yet, their inherent democracy was open to discussion in the sense that the members of the freemasonry could be significantly aristocratic, also, although they were claimed to have been equal among each other, they blamed to have copied the social hierarchy in the French society (Jacob, 1991). The reason was that the members were not integrated into their own hierarchy according to their birth-based status in the society but based on their merit. On the other hand, James Van Horn Melton (2001) stated that their structure -albeit egalitarian- and secrecy resembled to the "absolutist political culture" which considered that politics could only be understood by certain, privileged few, in addition, he challenged this argument by asserting that masons were both trying to protect the esoteric knowledge they had and composed a zone of autonomy against the state and its institutions (p. 253).

Even though freemasons seemed to be naïve and well-meant, the monarchy was suspicious about their blurred political existence. It is known that the Cardinal Fleury, cardinal and the chief minister of Louis XV, was against their rituals finding it them irreligious, also, their secrecy and aristocratic membership (Jones, 2014). Their stance seemed to have been a threat both to the monarchy and the Church. Actually, there were other assumptions which claims that the members of freemasonry rarely looked for local power or the governance. Furthermore, the representatives of the monarch and the institutions of local power seemed to have been interested in the French lodges by the 1770's, nevertheless, after that time, the French Grand Lodge search for having a public presence in Paris by becoming near to the government to diminish suspicions directed to them (Burke & Jacob, 1996). Particularly the French authorities were suspicious about the Freemasons as "their rituals made them look like a new religion and because they had attracted aristocratic membership" (Jacob, 2019, p. 22). Overall, it seems that they were active in the generation of the environment where the members of the freemasonry provided a self-enclosed model of the civilized and participant sphere before the French Revolution.

1.1.2. Salons

*Salon*s can be regarded as one of the major institutions in the French society in terms of its vivid structure and hosting of leading characters of the 18th century France. By providing a social and intellectual milieu, they were the place where the attendants garnered around the intellectual discourse in which they experienced the art of conversation than having a conversation. Besides, they were the socially blended zones where social elites merged with the artists, musicians and the writers of the Enlightenment (Jones, 2014). In the first place, it has long been argued that women played a significant role as the host of salons in a male-dominated society. Thus, these salons became tool of women integration into the intellectual sphere (Outram, 2013). They were deciding who would attend the meeting, who would be invited, and which topics could be discussed, also, took part as the discursive agents of the conversations. As different from the other components of the public sphere such as coffeehouses where there were nonexistent patrons of salons ended up with being more egalitarian (Calhoun, 2012).

On the other hand, as contrary to widespread arguments related to *salon*s, Antoine Lilti's approach to the salons is quite a challenging one since he revisits the imagination of the salons. To begin with, he is extremely critical about the well-defined, concrete existence of the salons as a cultural institution (Caradonna, 2006). Caradonna (2006) conveys from the book by stating that the term salon (*salonnière* in French) is the invention of the 19th century, thus, 18th century had no concept of salon in the first place (p. 2). Therefore, attribution to salon as a miniature Republican environment or any other denotation was not that useful, even, he went further by asserting that it was an anachronistic perspective to look at salons as well-defined establishments.

Secondly, Lilti challenged the fact that salons were the tool of feminization the Republic of Letters which was particularly put forth by Dena Goodman. For Lilti, the appearance of women in the salon went back to the "tradition of aristocratic hospitality" in which women, as a hostess of the house, had a role to play and they were not actively involving intellectual discussions among men. He highlights that women who had a wish to publish books, wanted to be noted as authors, scholars, or poets were disentitled in the salon environment, and even, they humiliated as "femmes savantes" (Caradonna, 2006, p. 10). Thus, as Steven Kale (2002) argued, it would be better to think salons as "mixed-sex gathering than as a vehicle for the empowerment or emancipation of women" (p. 137).

Building on her own arguments, she mentioned how the Republic of Letters (intellectual community) would be challenged as to the public sphere. Firstly, she argued that the term public sphere should be reconsidered since she thought that this cannel became the public utility of the intellectual community. Secondly, she related this situation to the aim of "nationalization" where she highlighted the fact that intellectual innovations and their flow in the society were proceeded and monitored by national institutions often, however, the desire of "political social elites" were ample for manipulating this fashion in the context of national projects (Lilti, 2009, p. 11). For him, the Republic of Letters was not a suitable concept for *salon*s to name suggesting that worldliness was much more fitting since referred to an interaction among "court society, elite networks, and the literary sphere" (Lilti, 2009, p. 11).

Beyond the contested arguments about the salons, it was a fact that their existence as a part of public sphere in which they manifested themselves as the centers where people felt pulse of intelligentsia of that time. In their elite and attractive atmosphere, the certain features of the salons made them a tool of brainstorming and discussion. One of the prominent examples of the salon of the 18th century was the Holbach's house due its attendants and the atmosphere. The hospitability of Holbach and his wife created a comfortable and open place of discussion where people exchanged their ideas, "debate philosophical and scientific questions, read and criticize new work" (Blom, 2010, p. 8). Their quests were quite impressive, to name some of them: Denis Diderot, Voltaire, Rousseau and d'Alembert who were claimed to pave the way for the path of Revolution with their brainstorms where the news and enlightened ideas were flourished. The *salon* of d'Holbach was open to these kinds of rumors. For example, some claims were that the members of the salons were planning the French Revolution while they were appearing to discuss economics, some others claimed that they were running a factory where they were publishing illegal books which had a purpose to influence people to overthrow monarchy (Blom, 2010). In addition, for Blom, the salient attendants of the salons were literally forming revolutionary ideas or overthrowing the Catholic Church, nevertheless, it was much more than a political revolution they proceeded, and the most significant deed was writing, publishing seditious books through which, people would not have a fear of oppression and fall into the trap of ignorance irrespective of gender and live their lives fully (Blom, 2010).

Despite the controversial stance of the salons in the 18th century France, namely, their being a nest of forward looking ideas all of which produced in the discussions, conversations and the contributions of different thinkers such as Diderot, Voltaire, Rousseau and many more, also, the idea of salons in which people gathered around social and cultural domination through literature: generating and uttering poetry, playing witty games, performing theatrical performances (Lilti, 2009), they expressed a lot about the gender, the manner of polity

and sociability. No matter what, salons were the active environment of exchanging clashing and conflicting ideas if the literary devices could be thought of an expression of ideas blended and furnished with the period's political turmoil.

1.1.3. Academies

Academies are key institution in 18th century France composing of diverse social components. They both preserved the "cultural justification for the monarchy" and contributed to the generation of a new elite which was also against the hierarchy with egalitarian aims (Knight, 1979, p. 766). In Daniel Roche's interpretation, the academies provided a balance in a culture which is full of stress because they were in-between the innovation and the tradition (Knight, 1979). Particularly, local elites got together for brainstorming and they granted award for the essays on certain topics in the provincial academies which encouraged prospective scholars to involved in the education process (Maza, 1993). Roger Chartier (1991) mentioned academies, along with the salons, as the place where the thoroughgoing definition of humanism shattered and the distinction of *litteratur* and the scholar became visible (p. 59). For example, they were the center of science and art, especially, Royal Society and Paris Academy were the most progressive and up-to-date ones (McClellan, 1985). They were greatly influenced by the Renaissance academies in terms of organizational structure. Hence, there was an active environment of learning and it was not restricted to the individual but a collective one.

The academies, in time, began to contribute to the local learning or "enlightening" process to the urban milieu by being a transmitter of knowledge through libraries which carried knowledge to the public. For example, they were important representatives in process of providing access to the traditional libraries in 18th century and made them to become widespread (Melton, 2001). Actually, the Enlightenment writers highly condemned the "representational function of princely and aristocratic libraries" and they drew attention to the fact that libraries should have been open to public readers (Melton, 2001, p. 105). These criticisms raised awareness and the libraries of provincial academies in France, commenced to open their sources to the use of public reader, even, the libraries of the academies in Bordeaux, Pau, La Rochelle, and Nancy shared their collections to the readers two or three days a week in the 1730's and 1740's (Melton, 2001).

Although they were educating a generation who were knowledgeable and who were going through a scientific education, the newly developed free schools which also aimed to provide scientific education, however, different from the provincial academies, they were trying to fuse the sciences and the arts to carry technical and practical knowledge to the general, working class public by opening new programs (McClellan, 1985). Apart from that, academies were too rigidly integrated themselves into the locality enjoying themselves with the privileges, however, they began to have been not flexible enough to compensate the needs of the society they lived in at the latter part of the 18th century (McClellan, 1985). Yet, they were the institutions which laid the ground for Enlightenment and the progressive thought.

Conclusion

Behind every convulsive incident in history, there are opinions which are shaped by the prudent minds in specific times within the certain places. The revolutionary ideas of these minds can only be generated through a milieu that remove the pressure on the liberating mind, provide both an amiable place enough for one to express ideas freely and challenging enough to clash variety of ideas which gives birth to commutative thoughts. For French Revolution, this kind of sphere was not a single one, however, it ranged from coffee houses to salons. Yet, salons, academies and freemasonry groups can be regarded as the trivets of the public sphere in the 18th century France. Even though they are dissimilar to each other in terms of their composition and structure they can be considered as the heuristic tools of the pre-Revolutionary Era in 18th century France in which people stimulate their own awareness and wisdom.

A close analysis to these trivets reveals important characteristics which are subjected to the studies related to the emergence of public sphere. Habermas highlights their sociologically nature of the public sphere in which people partake in commensurably and freely express their opinions. Fundamentally, this kind of public sphere excludes the state from its boundaries adding that salons, for instance, for him, was an apolitical place where people were educating themselves in the way of critical public comments and came to be a bridge between the "collapsing" "courtly-noble society" and "the bourgeois public sphere" (Habermas, 1991, p. 30).

Yet, his arguments paved the way for the discussions on public sphere with contesting ideas. Michael Baker, for instance, located public sphere into a political ground where these places not only enabled people to express their opinions freely but also turned into an action place against the existent monarchy. Sarah Maza, extended this argument by highlighting the public sphere as a triggering factor for the French Revolution. Among all the diverse comments on public sphere, then, how can we situate and interpret the freemasonry, academies and *salon*s?

Inherently, these trivets were highly complementary to each other with their specific aspects with different roots but similar aims on the way of training and creating a fairer and egalitarian society. For instance, although academies and freemasonaries remained male-dominated in the pre-Revolutionary period in France, the salons were the places where women integrated themselves into this sphere by being the hostess of these intellectual environment (although their active involvement into the intellectual discussion was discussable). They are all claimed to be or tried to be egalitarian in their nature. They were places where people express their opinions in relative freedom. They had an effort to make France a place where people embraced freedom without the pressure of monarchy or the church by being respectful to people's thought, religion and other dynamics that made them human. Yet, these kinds of places were not away from the political thoughts or the policies of their time. Although Habermas approached this issue with his sociological base and Baker put emphasis on the political references, it could be more than that. Colin Jones (2002), for instance, argues that there was a bourgeoisie public sphere as claimed by Habermas, nonetheless, he put emphasis on the role "in opening up new spaces for cultural and political exchange … before 1789, these new spaces were invaded by pre-existing political actors and provided venue for existing debates" (p. xxv). Thus, he draws attention to a public sphere which had already generated through the existing polity largely inherited by the Bourbon polity (Jones, 2002a). In that sense, Jones frames a public sphere which is not developed independent from the ongoing politics but a dependent one. In 1787-8, the protests which were ushered by the *parlement* and the wave of support from the public sphere could be an important example of how the public sphere and the polity is mingled with each other, closely.

Last but not the least, the understanding of the ruptures in history, as in the case of French Revolution, requires the wholistic apprehension of the social dynamics intermingled with the broader political contexts. Besides, it needs certain tools which helped historians to reveal these changing dynamics or the composition of these dynamics. In this paper, *salon*s, academies and freemasonries served this aim. They are salient components not only for the pure "public" sphere, but also a public sphere taken its roots and inspiration from the political setting of the 18th century France. Without their voice, it could be impossible to grasp the nucleus of the Enlightenment idea, too, with their effects on the way to the French Revolution which was deemed by most of all intellectual members of the society hand in hand with the public but ended up with being the Reign of Terror.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

The Impact of Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Life Satisfaction on the Professional Difficulties Faced by Child Development and Preschool Teachers

Çocuk Gelişimi ve Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Mesleki Yaşamlarında Karşılaştıkları Zorluklara Öz Yeterlik İnançları ve Yaşam Doyumlarının Etkisi

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Abstract

Employment opportunities in special education and rehabilitation centers are provided for child developers and preschool teachers after graduation. However, due to undergraduate programs not being as broad as those for graduates in the field of special education, educators in this branch may encounter certain problems and put up with some difficulties, especially when first starting their profession. Educators' self-efficacy beliefs are among the factors thought to have an effect on these difficulties being experienced. Educators' self-efficacy beliefs have been determined to affect the professional difficulties they experience. On the other hand, the level of satisfaction educators get from their experiences also affects the difficulties they experience. Educators with high life satisfaction are seen to encounter few difficulties. This study aims to test the effect of the self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers on the difficulties they encounter in their professional lives. The sample of the research consists of 200 educators (132 child developers and 68 preschool teachers) between the ages of 21 and 52. A personal information form as well as the Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale, Satisfaction with Life Scale, and Tool for Determining Difficulties Special Education Teachers Experience have been used as data collection tools for being able to obtain detailed information related to the teachers participating in the study. The study analyzes the obtained data using the package program SPSS 24.00. The independent samples t-test, one-way analysis of variance, and Pearson correlation analysis have been used in analyzing the data. Relationships have been found for life satisfaction with difficulties experienced and self-efficacy beliefs as well as between difficulties experienced in special education and self-efficacy beliefs. The obtained findings have been discussed within the scope of the literature, and some suggestions have been made as a result.

Keywords: Special Education, Life Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Difficulties, Analysis.

Öz

Çocuk gelişimciler ve okul öncesi eğitimcileri mezun olduktan sonra istihdam olanakları özel eğitim ve rehabilitasyon merkezlerinde de sağlanmaktadır. Ancak lisans programları özel eğitim alan mezunları kadar geniş olmaması nedeni ile bu branştaki eğitimciler özellikle mesleğe ilk başladıklarında bazı problemlerle karşılaşabilmekte ve birtakım güçlükler çekebilmektedirler. Bu yaşanılan güçlüklere etki eden faktörler arasında eğitimcilerin öz yeterlik inançları gelmektedir. Eğitimcilerin öz yeterlik inançlarının mesleki anlamda yaşadıkları güçlükleri etkilediği belirlenmiştir. Diğer taraftan eğitimcilerin yaşam memnuniyet düzeyi de yaşadıkları güçlüklere etki etmektedir. Bu çalışmada özel eğitim ve rehabilitasyon merkezinde çalışan çocuk gelişimci ve okul öncesi öğretmenlerin öz yeterlik inançları ve yaşam doyumlarının mesleki yaşantılarında karşılaştıkları güçlüklere etkisini test etmek amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemini yaşları 21 ile 52 arasında değişen 132 çocuk gelişimi 68 okul öncesi öğretmeni toplam 200 eğitimci oluşturmaktadır. Veri toplama aracı olarak "Kişisel Bilgi Formu", "Öğretmen Öz Yeterlik İnancı Ölçeği", "Yaşam Doyumu Ölçeği", "Özel Eğitim Alanında Çalışan Eğitimcilerin Yaşadıkları Güçlükleri Belirleme Aracı" kullanılmıştır. Çalışmadan elde edilen veriler SPSS 24.00 paket programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde bağımsız gruplar t testi, tek yönlü varyans analizi, Pearson korelasyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Yaşam doyumu ile yaşanılan güçlükler ve öz yeterlik inancı arasında, Özel eğitimde yaşanılan güçlükler ile öz yeterlik inancı arasında ilişki bulunmuştur. Elde edilen bulgular literatür kapsamında tartışılmış ve sonucunda bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özel Eğitim, Yaşam Doyumu, Öz Yeterlik İnancı, Güçlükler, Analiz.

Introduction

One of the most important links in the education system are teachers (Gürkan, 1993; as cited in Sezgin-Kanık, 2019). Teachers' competencies are important in terms of having quality special education services. In order to be a proficient teacher, one must have a good command of the field in which they will teach; additionally, one's knowledge of the teaching profession and level of general culture must also be at a proficient level (Karagözoğlu, 1996). When dealing with special education, important issues are found in addition to the characteristics that teachers who will work in these centers must have, such as knowing well the developmental characteristics of the children who enroll in special education, determining the developmental status of these children correctly, and implementing the proper intervention programs alongside these determinations. These competencies that all teachers need to have are the qualifications that definitely need to be found in educators working in special education (Kargın, 1996). Accordingly, teacher self-efficacy belief is defined as the belief about a teacher being able to have their student succeed no matter who they are. Educators with high self-efficacy beliefs are willing and persistent in terms of teaching. Educators behave this way thanks to their belief in themselves and their students. Beliefs toward teaching also positively impact students' enthusiasm toward learning (Kahyaoğlu & Yangın, 2007).

The concept of self-efficacy is one of the concepts frequently encountered in the literature in recent years. Many researchers have described it from various aspects. According to Bandura, who introduced this concept for the first time, self-efficacy is the belief felt in regard to an individual being able to fulfill their responsibilities successfully. Bandura (1977, 1989; as cited in Beyhan, 2018), who also introduced a new concept with this definition, also defined self-efficacy as an individual's beliefs in their ability to use their potential for performing the tasks they for which they are responsible. Self-efficacy beliefs affect people's emotions, thoughts, motivations, and even their struggle to cope with problems. Self-efficacy beliefs affect one's belief in fulfilling their responsibilities; the higher they are the more willing a person is, while individuals with lower self-efficacy have lower motivation levels (Bandura, 1977; as cited in Beyhan, 2018).

Life satisfaction in its most general form is the expression that results from when what one hopes for is actually consistent with what one experiences. Life satisfaction emerges with one's self-assessment (Beyhan, 2018). With respect to social cognitive theory, many studies have been performed on self-efficacy as one of the factors affecting life satisfaction, and information has been obtained about its positive effect on life satisfaction. Namely, as an individual's self-efficacy belief decreases, so does their life satisfaction (Luszczynska et al., 2005a; Leganger et al., 2000; as cited in Beyhan, 2018). When examining other studies that have been performed, a positive correlation has additionally been determined between individuals' self-efficacy beliefs and their life satisfaction in their work life (Luszczynska et al., 2005b; as cited in Beyhan, 2018). When examining other definitions for life satisfaction, it has been explained as people maintaining their lives in a quality way an feeling good about themselves (Dikmen, 1995). People who assess their living conditions positively and who can view events and situations positively are identified as individuals with high life satisfaction (Yavuzer & Civilidag, 2014). Diener (1984), who argued life satisfaction to have a structure that can change at any moment, also explained that people can change according to the quality and condition of their life. Work life is a situation that covers a rather large part of people's lives and also has an impact on their life satisfaction. States regarding one's life satisfaction, such as how enjoyably one does their job, whether or not they are happy at work, and whether or not they do their job willingly is considered to affect life satisfaction (Beyhan, 2018).

Korucu (2005) was able to identify the problems experienced in special education and rehabilitation services in Turkey and developed recommendations regarding the problems that emerged in these institutions and what changes need to occur. Educators being trained with different sources brings along problems where they have different knowledge and skills on the issue of educating the mentally disabled, and therefore their approaches

toward how they apply education-training and the methods and techniques used when applying will also differ. In Çetin's (2004) research, the difficulties that educators experience in the various professions that work in special education and rehabilitation centers are seen to show significant differences with respect to the department from which they graduated. Based on that study, one of the aims of this research is to determine the areas in which child developers and preschool teachers experience problems. Making new regulations in accordance with the difficulties encountered is thought to be able to positively affect educators' self-efficacy beliefs as well as their life satisfaction. Therefore, this research is considered important in terms of revealing the problems experienced by educators employed in educating disabled individuals. Preschool teachers, child developers, and educators work with disabled children more than special education teachers in private and state schools. Preschool teachers are able to work in special education and rehabilitation centers as well as in primary schools and kindergartens. Child developers, however, are able to work in areas such as health and social services and education (Tercan & Yıldız Bıçakçı, 2016).

No study could be accessed that had examined the life satisfaction and difficulties experienced by child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers. However, studies are found in which life satisfaction and self-efficacy have been evaluated together (Akgündüz, 2013; Ansari & Khan, 2015; Aydıner, 2011; Chang, 2011; Kim et al., 2019; Martinez-Marti & Ruch, 2017; Telef, 2011). According to the findings obtained in the study by examining the experienced problems alongside the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction, light is additionally expected to be shed on the measures and regulations that need to be taken in the future in regard to supporting child developers and preschool teachers working in the field of special education through in-service training courses and certificate programs. The study's aim is to examine the effects that the self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers have on the difficulties they encounter in their professional lives. The obtained findings are considered to be able to both contribute to the literature as well as bring a new perspective to the practices of educators working in the field. In light of this general aim, answers to the following questions are sought:

1. Does a relationship exist among the difficulties, self-efficacy beliefs, and life satisfaction that child developers and preschool teachers experience?

2. Do child developers' and preschool teacher's self-efficacy beliefs differ with respect to branch, age, experience, income level, love for their profession, participation in educational activities, monitoring of scientific publications, satisfaction with work conditions, or work hours?

3. Do the problems child developers and preschool teachers experience in special education and rehabilitation centers differ with respect to marital status, work hours, educators' branch, age, experience, diagnostic group being studied, participation in educational activities related to the field, monitoring of scientific journals, choosing their profession willingly, love for their profession, income level, or satisfaction with work conditions?

Do child developers' and preschool teachers' life satisfaction differ with respect to the educators work hours, branch, marital status, diagnostic group being studied, love for their profession, monitoring scientific journals, participation in educational activities, satisfaction with work conditions, age, experience, or income level?

Method

2.1. Research Model

This study has been designed using the quantitative research design for the purpose of testing whether or not the self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers has an effect on the difficulties they encounter in their professional lives. The relational screening model has been used in this design for the purpose of determining the relationships

among the phenomena. The relational screening model researches the coexistent presence or degree of change that occurs between two or more variables (Karasar, 2015).

2.2. Study Group

The universe of the study consists of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers. The sample of the study was chosen as the snowball sampling method, which is among the purposive sampling methods. In the snowball sampling method, the participants with the desired characteristics are determined. Interviews are held with these participants. The people who are interviewed become a source of information for other people who can be included in the sample (Balcı, 2013). The sample size of the study group was determined using the program G*Power. By means of this program at a test power value of .95 and a Type 1 error rate of .05, the total number of educators needed for determining whether or not a significant difference exists between at least two averages and a significant relationship exists between two scales was determined to be between 132 and 176. A total of 200 voluntary participant educators participated in the study. With an average age of 26.49 years, 138 participants (69%) were determined to be child developers and 62 (31%) to be preschool teachers.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

The study uses the Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale for identifying educators' self-efficacy belief levels, the Satisfaction with Life Scale for determining their life satisfaction levels, the Tool for Determining Difficulties Special Education Teachers Experience for specifying the challenges experienced in the special education field, and a personal information form developed by the researchers for coming up with the demographic information for the study group.

2.3.1. Demographic Information Form

This has been developed by the researchers for the purpose of coming up with the demographic information of the educators participating in the research and for being able to make better identifications of the study's sample group. The form has items related to learning information that identifies the educators' status in regard to age, major, gender, education, marital status, income, getting permission from the institution for teaching, participation in educational activities, monitoring of scientific publications, the diagnostic group being studied the most, satisfaction with institutional standards, choosing their profession willingly, choosing the same profession if they had the chance to choose again, love for their profession, professional confidence, having dreamed of working in special education, bringing work home, and experience in special education. Before having the participants fill out the demographic form, they were given information about the study; an informational text was shared with them that explained participation as being on a voluntary basis.

2.3.2. Satisfaction with Life Scale

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was developed by Diener et al. in 1985 for the purpose of identifying the satisfaction individuals get from their lives. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Dağlı and Baysal (2016). The scale is a 5-point Likert-type scale composed of five items. Cronbach's alpha of internal consistency has been determined as 0.88 and the test-retest reliability as 0.97. The results from the performed factor analysis reveal the SWLS to show a single-factor structure just like the original scale and to consist of five items, also like the original scale. Obtaining low scores on the scale is accepted as indicating low satisfaction with life. As a result of the validity and reliability analyses that were performed, the scale has been determined to be a valid and reliable tool able to be used for identifying teachers' perceptions regarding life satisfaction.

Cronbach's alpha has been calculated for the purpose of determining the reliability of the SWLS in line with the data obtained in this study. Cronbach's alpha for the overall score from SWLS has been found to be 0.89.

2.3.3. Tool for Determining Difficulties Special Education Teachers Experience (DDT)

This tool was developed by Çetin (2004) with the aim of determining the difficulties experienced by educators working in various fields in special education and rehabilitation centers. The measurement tool was revealed to consist of 28 questions. DDT is a 4-point Likert-type assessment tool. In order to determine the construct validity of the scale, principal component analysis was applied to the obtained answers, and a 2-factor structure was obtained. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the overall scale and each of the two factors for the purpose of determining the tool's internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha was specified as 0.85 for the first factor and as .80 for the second factor. Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was calculated as 0.88. The data obtained as a result of all the analyses showed the tool to be valid and reliable.

Cronbach's alpha has been calculated in line with the data obtained in this study for the purpose of determining the tool's reliability. Cronbach's alpha has been found as 0.924 for the overall scores from DDT, as 0.878 for the sub-dimension of difficulties experienced in the education process with self-competencies (SCD), and as 0.896 for the sub-dimension of difficulties experienced in relation to institutional structure and functioning (IFD).

2.3.4. Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale

The Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (TSEB) scale was developed by Çolak et al. (2017) for the purpose of identifying teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. A 27-item 4-factor structure has emerged as a result of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) performed for the scale's structural validity. The reliability of the scale has been assessed through Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient and the differences between average scores for the items for the groups' upper and lower 27th percentile. Cronbach's alpha of internal consistency has been found as 0.75 for the factor of academic self-efficacy (ASE), 0.86 for professional self-efficacy (PSE), 0.88 for social self-efficacy (SSE), 0.87 for intellectual self-efficacy (ISE), and 0.93 for the overall scale. For the current study, these respective values have been found as $\alpha_{ASE} = 0.80$, $\alpha_{MOY} = 0.87$, $\alpha_{SSE} = 0.89$, $\alpha_{ISE} = 0.87$, and $\alpha_{TSEB} = 0.93$. Based on these findings, the scale can be said to adequate, valid, and reliable for determining self-efficacy beliefs.

Cronbach's alpha has been calculated for the purpose of determining TSEB's reliability in line with the data obtained in this study. Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale has been calculated as $\alpha_{TSEB} = 0.966$ and for the sub-dimensions as $\alpha_{ASE} = 0.902$, $\alpha_{PSE} = 0.931$, $\alpha_{SSE} = 0.934$, and $\alpha_{ISE} = 0.936$.

2.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The study's data were collected from a sample of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers in December 2020. Firstly, ethical permission was obtained from the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board of the University of Health Science Hamidiye Insitute of Health Sciences through approval number 11.12.2020-27/11. Teachers working in the rehabilitation center were reached by phone, whatsapp and e-mail. Data have been collected using a digital platform. IBM's package program SPSS Statistics 24 has been used in analyzing the data, the significance level has been accepted as $p < .05$ in the analyses.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test has been performed with the aim of identifying whether or not the scores collected from the Satisfaction with Life Scale, Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale, and Tool for Determining Difficulties Special Education Teachers Experience are normally distributed. The skewness and kurtosis values were calculated. The data belonging to the results from the performed analyses are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Results From the Normality Tests for the TSEB, SWLS, and DDT and Their Sub-Dimensions

	Variable	Descriptive Statistics					Normal Distribution Analysis				
		n	Min	Max	x̄	Ss	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	sd	p
Demographic Variables	Age	200	21	52	26.49	4.946	2.236	5.619	.254	200	.000
	Work Time	200	4	11	7.90	.899	-1.175	5.884	.401	200	.000
	Home Working Time	200	0	5	0.44	.781	2.186	6.311	.408	200	.000
SWSL		200	5	25	13.6850	3.85748	.175	-.077	.073	200	.012
TSEB		200	31	135	108.68	19.135	-1.007	1.520	.095	200	.000
TSEB Sub-Dimensions	ASE	200	6	25	19.28	4.324	-.609	.032	.095	200	.000
	PSE	200	8	35	30.09	5.001	-1.286	2.309	.163	200	.000
	SSE	200	8	40	33.18	6.396	-1.209	1.680	.143	200	.887
	ISE	200	9	36	26.14	6.329	-.396	-.383	.083	200	.002
DDT		200	10	82	41.29	15.079	.205	-.390	.053	200	.200
DDT Sub-Dimensions	SCD	200	1	41	18.2700	7.89613	.441	-.172	.094	200	.000
	IFD	200	4	39	21.8050	8.14979	.015	-.798	.056	200	.200

When examining Table 1 and looking at the normality tests the skewness and kurtosis values are seen to be between ±3. Based on this, it can be said that the data have a normal distribution (Liang et al., 2008).

Findings

This section includes the findings and interpretations regarding the data that have been obtained in line with the general and sub-purposes of the research. In order to examine the relationships among the scores from SWLS, TSEB, and DDT and their sub-dimensions with respect to the ages and hours worked at home and at the centers for the educators in the study group, the research has first off performed the Pearson correlation analysis due to the data being normally distributed. Table 2 presents the obtained results.

When examining Table 2, no significant relationship was detected among the educators' ages, work hours, or hours worked at home with the total scores from the scales as a result of the Pearson correlation analysis. Similarly, no significant relationship was encountered among the other variables with hours worked at the workplace. When examining the relationships among the scales, positive relationships with weak levels of significance are found for the scores from SWLS with those from TSEB ($r = 0.261$, $p = .000$) and with the sub-dimensions of academic self-efficacy ($r = 0.225$, $p = 0.001$), professional self-efficacy ($r = 2.76$, $p = .000$), and social self-efficacy ($r = 2.38$, $p = .000$) and a positive relationship with a very weak level of significance is found with the sub-dimension of intellectual self-efficacy ($r = 0.176$, $p = 0.13$). Negative relationships with weak levels of significance have been found for the scores from SWLS with the scores from DDT ($r = -0. 383$, $p = .000$) and its SCD ($r = -0.368$, $p = .000$) and IFD sub-dimensions ($r = -0.317$, $p = .000$). While a negative relationship with a weak-level of significance has been found between the overall scores from DDT and the

overall scores from TSEB ($r = -0.350$, $p = .000$), negative relationships of mid-level significance have been between the scores for DDT's SCD and IFD sub-dimensions ($r = -0.418$, $p = .000$), between the scores for TSEB's PSE sub-dimension and DDT's SCD sub-dimension ($r = -0.414$, $p = .000$), and between the scores for TSEB's SSE sub-dimension and DDT's SCD sub-dimension ($r = -0.412$, $p = .000$). A negative relationship with a weak level of significance has been found between the scores for TSEB's ISE sub-dimension and DDT's SCD sub-dimension ($r = -0.334$, $p = .000$); no relationship has been encountered for the scores from any of the TSEB sub-dimensions with DDT's IFD sub-dimension.

Table 2

*Pearson Correlation Analysis Results (*n = 200) on the Relationship Among the Ages and Hours Spent Working at Home and at Work for Educators Working in Special Education and Rehabilitation Centers with SWLS, TSEB, and DDT and Their Sub-Dimensions*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Age (1)	1											
p												
Work Time (2)	-0.003	1										
p	0.962											
Home Working Time (3)	-0.043	0.046	1									
p	0.546	0.518										
SWLS (4)	0.004	-0.084	-0.168*	1								
p	0.959	0.239	0.017									
TSEB (5)	-0.029	-0.027	0.017	0.261**	1							
P	0.685	0.700	0.814	.000								
ASE (6)	0.017	-0.010	0.007	0.225**	0.868**	1						
P	0.807	0.892	0.923	.001	.000							
PSE (7)	0.070	-0.002	0.033	0.276**	0.860**	0.723**	1					
p	0.325	0.981	0.645	.000	.000	.000						
SSE (8)	-0.028	-0.035	-0.031	0.238**	.812**	0.615**	0.664**	1				
p	0.695	0.627	0.659	.001	.000	.000	.000					
ISE (9)	-0.102	0.006	0.056	0.176*	.861**	0.685**	0.639**	0.535**	1			
P	0.150	0.933	0.433	.013	.000	.000	.000	.000				
DDT (10)	0.016	0.060	0.038	-0.383**	-0.350**	-0.290**	-0.308**	-0.336**	-0.245**	1		
P	0.822	0.398	0.591	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
SCD (11)	-0.037	0.021	0.041	-0.368**	-0.464**	-0.418**	-0.414**	-0.412**	-0.334**	0.896**	1	
p	0.604	0.765	0.562	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
IFD (12)	0.063	0.103	0.013	-0.317**	-0.154*	-0.086	-0.125	-0.186**	-0.102	0.892**	.616**	1
P	0.376	0.149	0.850	.000	0.029	0.227	0.078	0.008	0.149	.000	.000	

*p<.05, **p<.01

This section applies the independent t-test to determine whether or not the scores the educators received from the SWLS, TSEB and its sub-dimensions, and DDT and its sub-dimensions have significant differences among the average scores with respect to demographic variables. The demographic variables that have significant differences among the averages are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Table 3

Independent t-Test Results for the Educators' Average SWLS Scores with Respect to Certain Demographic Variables (N = 200)

Variables		n	x̄	Sd	df	t	p
Marital Status	Single	146	13.34	3.943	198	-2.082	.039
	Married	54	14.61	3.482			
Bringing Work Home	Yes	60	12.60	3.836	198	-2.643	.009
	No	140	14.15	3.785			
Educational Permissions	Yes	122	14.35	3.562	198	3.127	.002
	No	78	12.64	4.086			
Participation in Educational Activities	Yes	141	14.41	3.766	198	4.293	.000
	No	59	11.94	5.530			
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	14.05	3.736	198	2.061	.041
	No	60	12.83	4.030			
Satisfaction with Conditions	Yes	73	15.10	3.600	198	4.115	.000
	No	127	12.86	3.774			
Choosing the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	13.93	3.804	198	2.759	.006
	No	21	11.52	3.709			
Rechoosing the Same Profession	Yes	127	14.53	3.590	198	4.288	.000
	No	73	12.30	3.870			
Love for the Profession	Yes	179	14.00	3.830	198	3.464	.001
	No	21	11.00	3.000			
Having Dreamt of Working in Special Education	Yes	56	14.96	3.479	198	2.982	.003
	No	144	13.18	3.893			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	14.04	3.789	198	3.461	.001
	No	26	11.30	3.507			

As shown in Table 3, significant differences among total score averages from the Satisfaction With Life Scale with respect to educators' marital status (t = -2.082; $p < 0.05$), bringing work home (t = -2.643; $p < 0.05$), educational permissions (t = 3.127; $p < 0.05$), participation in educational activities (t = 4.293; $p < 0.05$), monitoring scientific publications (t = 2.061; $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with conditions (t = 4.115; $p < 0.05$), choosing the profession willingly (t = 2.759; $p < 0.05$), rechoosing the same profession (t = 4.288; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession (t = 3.464; $p < 0.05$), having dreamt of working in special education (t = 2.982; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence (t = 3.461; $p < 0.05$).

Table 4

Independent t-Test Results for Educators' Average Scores from TSEB and Its Sub-Dimensions with Respect to Certain Demographic Variables (N = 200)

Variables		n	x̄	Sd	df	t	p
TSEB							
Participating in Educational Activities	Yes	141	112.88	17.021	198	5.082	.000
	No	59	98.66	20.297			
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	111.85	18.026	198	3.684	.000
	No	60	101.30	19.754			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	109.77	18.633	198	2.370	.019
	No	21	99.43	21.280			
Would Choose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	111.83	16.685	198	2.914	.004
	No	73	103.22	21.843			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	112.10	16.237	198	7.357	.000
	No	26	85.81	21.554			
ASE							
Participating in Educational Activities	Yes	141	20.15	3.957	198	4.612	.000
	No	59	17.20	4.487			
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	20.31	3.852	198	5.540	.000
	No	60	16.87	4.432			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	19.49	4.240	198	1.982	.049
	No	21	17.52	4.729			
Would Choose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	19.76	4.103	198	2.105	.037
	No	73	18.44	4.592			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	20.01	3.820	198	6.804	.000
	No	26	14.42	4.429			
PSE							
Participating in Educational Activities	Yes	141	30.87	4.485	198	3.218	.002
	No	59	28.20	5.671			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	30.44	4.781	198	2.951	.004
	No	21	27.10	5.915			
Would Choose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	30.85	4.410	198	2.718	.004
	No	73	28.75	5.681			
Love for the Profession	Yes	179	30.34	4.923	198	2.130	.034
	No	73	18.44	4.592			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	30.87	4.336	198	6.305	.000
	No	26	24.81	5.973			
SSE							
Participating in Educational Activities	Yes	141	34.23	5.650	198	3.340	.001
	No	59	30.66	7.359			
Educational Permissions	Yes	122	33.95	5.642	198	2.034	.044
	No	78	31.97	7.301			
Satisfaction with Conditions	Yes	73	34.63	6.369	198	2.462	.015
	No	127	32.25	6.286			
Would Choose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	34.25	5.409	198	2.934	.004
	No	73	31.32	7.505			
Love for the Profession	Yes	179	33.56	6.274	198	2.476	.014
	No	21	29.95	6.674			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	34.29	5.390	198	7.071	.000
	No	26	25.77	7.680			
ISE							
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	27.35	5.990	198	4.309	.000
	No	127	32.25	6.286			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	26.46	6.270	198	2.093	.038
	No	73	31.32	7.505			
Would Choose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	26.96	5.918	198	2.449	.015
	No	73	24.71	6.794			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	26.94	5.771	198	4.861	.000
	No	26	20.81	7.370			

Table 4 shows significant differences among educators' average total scores for the TSEB with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = 5.082$; $p < 0.05$), monitoring scientific publications ($t = 3.684$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen the profession willingly ($t = 2.370$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = 2.914$; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence ($t = 7.357$; $p < 0.05$); among their average overall score for ASE with respect to participating in educational activities ($t = 4.612$; $p < 0.05$), monitoring scientific publications ($t = 5.540$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen the profession willingly ($t = 1.982$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = 2.105$; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence ($t = 6.804$; $p < 0.05$); among their average overall scores for TSEB's PSE sub-dimension with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = 3.218$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen their profession willingly ($t = 2.951$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = 2.718$; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession ($t = 2.130$; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence ($t = 6.305$; $p < 0.05$); among their overall scores for TSEB's SSE sub-dimension with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = 3.340$; $p < 0.05$), educational permissions ($t = 2.034$; $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with conditions ($t = 2.462$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = 2.934$; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession ($t = 2.476$; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence ($t = 7.071$; $p < 0.05$); and among the overall scores from TSEB's ISE sub-dimension with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = 5.489$; $p < 0.05$), monitoring scientific publications ($t = 4.309$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen the occupation willingly ($t = 2.093$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = 2.449$; $p < 0.05$), and professional confidence ($t = 4.861$; $p < 0.05$).

In Table 5, significant differences have been determined to exist for educators' average scores on the DDT with respect to educational permissions ($t = -5.888$; $p < 0.05$), participation in educational activities ($t = -5.659$; $p < 0.05$), their monitoring scientific publications ($t = -3.532$; $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with conditions ($t = -6.854$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen the profession willingly ($t = -2.542$; $p < 0.05$), would chose the same profession again ($t = -5.726$; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession ($t = -3.010$; $p < 0.05$) and professional confidence ($t = -7.242$; $p < 0.05$); their average scores for DDT's SCD sub-dimension with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = -5.551$; $p < 0.05$), educational permissions ($t = -3.772$; $p < 0.05$), monitoring scientific publications ($t = -4.045$; $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with conditions ($t = -3.676$; $p < 0.05$), having chosen the profession willingly ($t = -2.927$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the profession again ($t = -5.187$; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession ($t = -2.679$; $p < 0.05$) and professional confidence ($t = -7.415$; $p < 0.05$); and their average scores for DDT's IFD sub-dimension with respect to their participation in educational activities ($t = -4.038$; $p < 0.05$), educational permissions ($t = -7.074$; $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with conditions ($t = -9.336$; $p < 0.05$), would choose the same profession again ($t = -4.832$; $p < 0.05$), love for the profession ($t = -2.705$; $p < 0.05$) and professional confidence ($t = -3.353$; $p < 0.05$).

When examining the other research results, a significant difference ($F = 5.871$; $p < 0.05$) is seen to exist between the average scores from SWLS with respect to educators' income status. Scheffé's method, a multiple comparison test that researchers are able to choose when intergroup variances are equal, has been used. Those with above average incomes have been determined according to this method to have higher average scores ($\bar{\chi} = 17.89$) compared to those with average ($\bar{\chi} = 13.49$) and below-average ($\bar{\chi} = 13.46$) incomes. A significant difference is seen between the average scores for the TSEB with respect to educators' income status ($F = 4.377$; $p < 0.05$). Those with above-average incomes are determined to have significantly greater average scores ($\bar{\chi} = 121.89$) compared to those with below-average incomes ($\bar{\chi} = 101.91$). Significant differences are seen between the mean scores for TSEB's ASE sub-dimension ($F = 3.806$; $p < 0.05$). Those with an above-average income have been determined to have significantly higher average scores ($\bar{\chi} = 22.56$) compared to those with below-average incomes ($\bar{\chi} = 17.75$). A significant difference is seen among the average scores for TSEB's PSE sub-dimension ($F = 3.379$; $p < 0.05$). Those with above-average incomes have been determined to have significantly higher averages scores ($\bar{\chi} = 33.67$) compared to those with below-average incomes ($\bar{\chi} = 28.84$). Significant differences are seen among the average scores for TSEB's SSE sub-dimension ($F = 3.797$; $p < 0.05$). Those with average incomes have been determined to have significantly higher scores ($\bar{\chi} = 33.61$)

compared to those with below-average incomes ($\bar{\chi} = 30.47$). No significant differences were able to be found among the score averages for SWLS, DDT and its sub-dimensions, or TSEB and its sub-dimensions with respect to educators' experience or disability status of those with which they work.

Table 5

Independent t-Test Results for Educators' Average Scores from DDT and Its Sub-Dimensions with Respect to Specific Demographic Variables (N = 200)

Variables		n	x̄	Sd	df	t	p
DDT							
Educational Permissions	Yes	122	36.65	13.770	198	-5.888	.000
	No	78	48.55	14.217			
Participation in Educational Activities	Yes	141	37.66	13.566	198	-5.659	.000
	No	59	49.97	15.077			
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	38.89	14.232	198	-3.532	.000
	No	60	46.88	15.629			
Satisfaction with Conditions	Yes	73	32.60	13.415	198	-6.854	.000
	No	127	46.28	13.690			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	40.37	14.741	198	-2.542	.012
	No	21	49.10	16.028			
Would Chose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	36.99	13.427	198	-5.726	.000
	No	73	48.77	14.955			
Love For the Profession	Yes	179	40.21	14.851	198	-3.010	.003
	No	21	50.48	14.158			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	39.11	14.460	198	-7.242	.000
	No	26	55.88	10.405			
SCD							
Participation in Educational Activities	Yes	141	16.28	6.885	198	-5.551	.000
	No	59	23.01	8.184			
Educational Permissions	Yes	122	16.64	7.202	198	-3.772	.000
	No	78	20.82	8.296			
Monitoring Scientific Publications	Yes	140	16.75	7.163	198	-4.045	.000
	No	60	21.80	8.442			
Satisfaction with Conditions	Yes	73	15.64	7.785	198	-3.676	.000
	No	127	19.77	7.585			
Having Chosen the Profession Willingly	Yes	179	17.72	7.671	198	-2.927	.004
	No	21	22.95	8.417			
Would Chose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	16.20	6.915	198	-5.187	.000
	No	73	21.86	8.242			
Love For the Profession	Yes	179	17.76	7.730	198	-2.679	.008
	No	21	22.57	8.176			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	16.85	7.093	198	-7.415	.000
	No	26	27.76	6.345			
IFD							
Participation in Educational Activities	Yes	141	20.35	7.913	198	-4.038	.000
	No	59	25.27	7.705			
Educational Permissions	Yes	122	18.88	7.443	198	-7.074	.000
	No	78	36.37	7.067			
Satisfaction with Conditions	Yes	73	15.87	6.201	198	-9.336	.000
	No	127	25.21	7.122			
Would Chose the Same Profession Again	Yes	127	19.80	7.364	198	-4.832	.000
	No	73	25.28	8.323			
Love For the Profession	Yes	179	21.27	8.029	198	-2.705	.007
	No	21	26.28	7.969			
Professional Confidence	Yes	174	21.19	8.224	198	-3.353	.006
	No	26	25.88	6.383			

Discussion and Results

This study has examined whether or not the self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers has an effect on the difficulties they encounter in their professional lives. The relationship among the three variables have been examined for this purpose in particular, and the findings that have come up reveal significant relationships among the variables. According to these findings, the difficulties educators face in their professional lives decrease with increases in life satisfaction. Again, as educators' self-efficacy beliefs increase, so do the difficulties they encounter in their professional lives decrease. A negative relationship is found between life satisfaction and self-efficacy beliefs with the difficulties encountered in professional life. Additionally, the study has examined the relationships between life satisfaction and self-efficacy beliefs and determined a positive relationship to exist between them. In a study performed with teachers, Telef (2011) found a positive relationship between teachers' general self-efficacies and life satisfaction. Similarly, Beyhan's (2018) study performed with healthcare professionals found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and life satisfaction; those findings coincide with those from our study. Şahin's (2010) study found individuals with low life satisfaction to also have a decreased sense of personal accomplishment. When considering the relationship between personal accomplishment and self-efficacy beliefs, the high level of difficulties people with low life satisfaction in our study have faced and their self-efficacy beliefs being low also supports that study. Şişman (2009) stated self-efficacy to be important for teachers and thus is an issue that needs to be addressed. The literature states self-efficacy beliefs to be an indispensable part of the education process (Azar, 2010). Teachers with high self-efficacy being able to use their existing potential in the best way is among the advocated views (Avcı, 2020). As a result, the view can be put forth that a teacher with high self-efficacy will be able to better cope with the difficulties they experience in the education process. Our study has also found a negative relationship between self-efficacy and the difficulties that are encountered. Self-efficacy has been mentioned to have a significant impact on the individual, and individuals with high self-efficacy have been determined to have increased motivation toward their job (as cited in Beyhan, 2018; Bandura, 1994). When educators increase their self-efficacy, their motivation levels are also thought to increase and the intensity of the difficulties they encounter also decreases. Encountering fewer difficulties also raises life satisfaction. The example of the relationship between work satisfaction and life satisfaction may be shown in regard to how encountered difficulties decrease life satisfaction. According to Yiğit et al.'s (2011) study, employees with high work satisfaction also have high life satisfaction. Professional competence or the characteristics of institutional structures are able to exemplify factors that can affect work satisfaction. The experiences educators have in relation to professional competence or institutions can also impact life satisfaction just like it can reflect onto their job satisfaction. According to the results regarding our educators' marital statuses, those who are married are identified as having higher life satisfaction. According to Fırat and Cula's (2016) study, however, a result different from our study emerged among their findings, which revealed life satisfaction to not differ with respect to marital status. According to other research (Yılmaz & Aslan, 2013; Ünal et al., 2001), results in parallel with our study have emerged where the life satisfaction of married educators was found to be higher. It is stated that there is a relationship between loneliness and life satisfaction (Yılmaz & Aslan, 2013). It can be said that because single individuals experience more loneliness than married individuals, their life satisfaction is lower (Parmaksız, 2020). It is stated that married individuals have higher life satisfaction due to their higher social support than singles (Gümüş, 2015). Another study performed in relation to teachers' life satisfaction did not encounter any relationship for teachers' education level, experience, or work hours at school with life satisfaction (Fırat & Cula, 2016). This shows parallels with the findings from our study. Another factor affecting life satisfaction is income. Life satisfaction has been determined to increase with higher income, which coincides with Aydıner's (2011) study.

When looking at the other findings from the study, no relationship was found between educators' self-efficacy beliefs and age. In Kaya's (2019) study on teachers' self-efficacy, no significant relationship was found between

age and self-efficacy. Again, in the study of Yılmaz and Çokluk Bökeoğlu (2008), it was found that there was no difference between age and self-efficacy beliefs. These results are similar to the findings of our study. Avcı's (2020) study concluded teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to increase with age, which presents a result different from our study. The study has shown education level and major to have no effect on self-efficacy beliefs. Avcı (2020) study also put forth the result that educators' major had not affected their self-efficacy beliefs; this coincide with the results from our study. The extent to which teachers develop themselves affects their self-efficacy beliefs. According to the study results, those who participate in educational activities related to their field were concluded to have higher self-efficacy beliefs. Benzer's (2011) study also supports this. The study findings also show teachers feel more competent when they attend in-service courses/seminars. Benzer's (2011) study concluded that educators who read professional publications have higher self-efficacy perceptions. Our study supports this in that teachers who monitor scientific publications have higher academic self-efficacy and higher intellectual self-efficacy beliefs. Another finding of the study is that neither the duration working in special education nor experience impact self-efficacy beliefs. Aydıner's (2019) study found no relationship between teachers' self-efficacy perceptions and experience, which supports this finding from our study. According to Avcı's (2020) study, those with less than 15 years of experience have higher self-efficacy beliefs compared to those with over 15 years of experience. The high level of professional motivation of teachers in the period when they started the profession may have increased their self-efficacy beliefs. However, the feeling of professional burnout that increases over time may affect teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. No relationship was found between educators' marital status and their self-efficacy beliefs. Avcı's (2020) study, however, reached the result that married teacher have higher self-efficacy beliefs, which presents a different result than our study. Sezgin Kanık's (2019) study found the self-efficacy beliefs of unmarried teachers to be higher.

As a result based on all the findings and literature reviews, the conclusion has been reached that as the self-efficacy beliefs and life satisfaction of child developers and preschool teachers working in special education and rehabilitation centers increase, the difficulties they encounter in their area of work will decrease. As educators develop themselves professionally, their self-efficacy beliefs will increase; as a result, the difficulties they encounter will decrease and their life satisfaction levels will increase. In addition to educators developing themselves, the conditions institutions provide also directly impact educators' life satisfaction as well as the difficulties they encounter. First of all, undergraduate programs need to be developed. In-service trainings should be planned for teachers who start working in institutions. Likewise, teachers should be encouraged to take postgraduate education. Teachers' following scientific publications and attending congresses related to their field will have positive effects on their self-efficacy. It is thought that improvements in the social rights of teachers will contribute to their motivation level.

One of the limitations of the study is the effect of data collection on teachers' life satisfaction and the difficulties they encounter during the pandemic period. Another limitation may be that only two occupational groups were included in the study. Researchers on the subject can design different studies with variables such as job satisfaction, burnout, and occupational anxiety by including various branches. As a result, having special education and rehabilitation center administrators make the required regulations by taking these things into consideration will support educators. In light of this study, future studies can examine this in more detail using mixed designs by addressing both the quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Studies can also be handled by examining variables such as educators' job satisfaction and professional satisfaction.

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