



HATAY MUSTAFA KEMAL UNIVERSITY
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences

ISSN 2630-5933

Journal of Politics,
Economy
and
Management

JOPEM

Year: 2021 Volume: 4 Issue: 1



HATAY MUSTAFA KEMAL UNIVERSITY
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ISSN 2630-5933

Journal of Politics,
Economy
and
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JOPEM

Year: 2021 Volume: 4 Issue: 1

Journal of Politics, Economy and Management, Volume 4, Issue 1, June 2021**Owner**

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The Journal of Politics, Economy and Management is an international refereed journal published twice a year

The Journal of Politics, Economy and Management is indexed and abstracted in Index Copernicus, DergiPark, Google Scholar, ResearchBib, JournalSeek Idealonline and ASOS index

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We would like to thank the reviewers for their insightful comments on the papers of the issue 4, volume 1, (June) 2021 of JOPEM

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A Foreword from the Editor

We are proud to publish the first issue of the forth volume of the *Journal of Politics, Economy, and Management (JOPEM)*. The number of articles published with this issue has reached 35, we continue to grow with valuable academic articles. *JOPEM* is an interdisciplinary of economy and administrative sciences, peer-reviewed academic journal of published bi-annually by the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences in Hatay Mustafa Kemal University.

JOPEM is indexed or abstracted by the following: Index Copernicus, ResearchBib, JournalTOCs, Google Scholar, Ideonline, ASOS index. As an indicator of our quality, our applications for new indexes and abstracts are continuing. Within the framework of academic ethics, the *journal* is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License.

A double-blind peer-review method is used in the acceptance of manuscripts, and compilations, conceptual discussions, empirical and applied research manuscripts are accepted for publication. With its broad scope bridging a wide variety of subjects, the journal is dedicated to the advancement of novel empirical research and spread of scientific knowledge. Thus, we accept manuscripts in the fields of economics, business administration, political science, public administration, international relations, finance, industrial relations, information systems and management, econometrics and other subjects related to these topics. The language for such manuscripts could be either Turkish or English, preferable full in English.

As part of the *forth* volume *first* issue of *JOPEM* I am delighted that the authors who have submitted articles demonstrated an interest to share their research with the readers of this journal. In addition, I would like to thank the people who contributed to the *forth* volume *first* issue a few months, especially the editorial board of *JOPEM*, the staff in our Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, and many others. The last, but not the least my thanks go to the publishing team of our Journal, whose members put a lot of time and energy into this enterprise.

We hope you will enjoy the format and content of the *JOPEM's* the *forth* issue of the *first* volume. Encouraging many more authors to submit manuscripts in the following issues, we hope that this issue arouses our readers' interest so that the articles published in *JOPEM* may motivate new research ideas. If you have any feedback, please do let us know.

28.06.2021, Hatay-TURKEY

Prof.Dr. Songul KAKILLI ACARAVCI

Editor in Chief, owner of JOPEM

(Behalf of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Hatay Mustafa Kemal University)

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*Research article***Medikal turizme yönelik faaliyetler: Antalya’da bulunan hastanelerde bir araştırma¹**Semra ALTSOY²

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Received date: 18.12.2020 **Accepted date:** 18.04.2021**Suggested citation:** Altsoy, S. & Taştan Boz, İ. (2021). Medikal turizme yönelik faaliyetler: Antalya’da bulunan hastanelerde bir araştırma [Activities regarding medical tourism: research in hospitals in Antalya]. *Journal of Politics, Economy and Management* 4(1), 1-16.

Öz: Medikal turizm, sağlık hizmetine ihtiyaç duyan bireylerin, bu ihtiyacı karşılamak üzere çeşitli nedenlerden dolayı farklı bir ülkeye seyahat ederek bir günden fazla bir yıldan az olmak koşuluyla o ülkede bulunması olarak tanımlanabilir. Bu çalışma, ülkelerin ekonomisine önemli getirileri olan medikal turizm alanındaki çalışmaların tespit edilmesi amacıyla yapılmıştır. Ve medikal turizme katkı sağlayacağı düşünüldüğünden dolayı önem arz etmektedir. Araştırma turistik şehir olma özelliğine sahip olan Antalya’da, nitel araştırma yöntemine dayalı olarak 14 hastane yetkilisi ile görüşme tekniğiyle yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma kapsamında halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlama ile ilgili kurum bazlı çalışmalar, yazılı görsel ve dijital çalışmalar, hastane dışından alınan hizmetler gibi çalışmalar yapıldığı tespit edilmiştir. İnsan kaynakları ile ilgili doktor seçiminde kriterler ve personel seçiminde kriterler belirlenmesi gibi çalışmalar yaptıkları saptanmıştır. Hasta hakları ve etik ile ilgili yabancı dillerde form çalışmaları, sağlık turistlerine tercüman desteği, hastaya kendi dilinde evrak sunulması gibi çalışmalar yaptıkları belirlenmiştir. Hastanenin altyapısı ile ilgili personel bazlı çalışmalar ve hastane bazlı çalışmalar yaptıkları bulunmuştur. Kurumların sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerle ilgili desteklerden haberdar oldukları fakat tümünden faydalanmadığı anlaşılmıştır. Yapılan araştırmada sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerden faydalanan hastane sayısının az olduğu görüldüğünden dolayı ileride yapılacak olan çalışmalara sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerle ilgili çalışmalar yapılması önerilebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Medikal turizm, medikal turizm çalışmaları, hastaneler.**Activities regarding medical tourism: research in hospitals in Antalya**

Abstract: Medical tourism can be defined as traveling to a different country for various reasons to meet this need for individuals in need of health care, and stay in that country for more than a day and less than a year. This study was carried out in order to determine the studies in the field of medical tourism, which has important benefits for the economy of countries and it is important because it is thought to contribute to medical tourism. The research was conducted in Antalya, which has the characteristic of being a touristic city, by interviewing 14 hospital officials based on the qualitative

¹ Bu çalışma “Sağlık turizmi alanında faaliyet gösteren hastanelerdeki mevcut sorunlar ve çözüm önerileri” başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinden faydalanılarak hazırlanmıştır.

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research method. Within the scope of this study, it has been determined that studies such as institution-based studies on public relations and marketing, written visual and digital studies, services out of the hospital are carried out. It has been detected that they conduct studies such as determining criteria in the selection of doctors related to human resources and criteria in the selection of personnel. It was determined that they carried out studies such as form studies on patient rights and ethics in foreign languages, interpreter support for health tourists, and presentation of documents to the patient in their language. It has been found that they are conducting personnel-based studies and hospital-based studies regarding the infrastructure of the hospital. It has been understood that institutions are aware of the supports related to financial incentives in health tourism but do not benefit from all of them. Since the research shows that the number of hospitals benefiting from financial incentives in health tourism is low, it may be recommended to work on financial incentives in health tourism for future studies.

Keywords: Medical tourism, medical tourism activities, hospitals.

JEL Codes: L83, Z3, I11

1. Giriş

İnsanların yaşadıkları ülke sınırları dışında birtakım nedenlerden dolayı yirmi dört saatten az bir yıldan fazla olmamak koşuluyla seyahat ederek sağlık hizmetini alma faaliyeti olarak ifade edilen sağlık turizmi, gün geçtikçe önemi artan bir kavramdır. Sağlık turizmi türlerinden medikal turizmin tercih edilmesinin çeşitli nedenleri vardır. Yaşanılan ülkede mevcut sağlık kurum ve kuruluşlarının yetersizliği, sağlık hizmetlerinin maliyetlerinin yüksek olması bu nedenler arasında sayılabilir. Ayrıca yaşanılan ülkedeki sağlık profesyonellerinin teknik ve mesleki donanımlarının yetersizliği, hasta mahremiyetinin hasta için önem arz etmesi, talep edilen sağlık hizmetleri konusunda arkadaş tavsiyeleri de hastaları medikal turizme yönlendirebilir (Şengül ve Bulut, 2019, s. 58). Bazı gelişmiş ülkelerdeki sağlık harcamalarının ekonomi açısından ciddi bir yük oluşturması, tedavi için uzun bekleme süreleri, bazı prosedürlerin sigorta kapsamında bulunmaması, ulaşım ve teknolojiye gelişmeler ve ulaşım maliyetlerinde düşüşler gibi faktörler de medikal turizme olan ilgiyi artırmaktadır (Buzcu ve Birdir, 2019, s. 313).

Türkiye, medikal turizm alanında aracılık yapan şirketlerin, Hindistan ve Kostarika ile birlikte en fazla önerdiği ülkelerden biridir. Türkiye, alanında ileri tıbbi bilgiye sahip doktor ve sağlık çalışanı, sağlık kurum ve kuruluşlarında otel konforunda hizmet sunulması, akreditasyon belgesine sahip hastanelerinin olması, ulaşım destinasyonlarının çeşitliliği, kaliteli ve düşük maliyetli sağlık hizmeti imkanları sunulması, hastaların tedavi ihtiyacının vakit kaybetmeksizin karşılanması, tedavi ile birlikte tatil yapma imkanına sahip olunması, tarihi, kültürel ve doğal güzelliklere sahip olması nedeniyle medikal turizmde önemli bir güce sahiptir. Türkiye’de medikal turizmin son yıllarda hızlı bir şekilde gelişmesiyle 3S’ten (Sea, sand, sun) sonra yeni bir “S” olan surgery kavramıyla birlikte “4S” (Sea, sand, sun, surgery) kavramı söz konusu olmuştur (Buzcu ve Birdir, 2019, s. 312).

Küresel anlamda önemi bilinen medikal turizmin ülkeler açısından etkili bir şekilde gerçekleştirilmesi bu alandaki eksikliklerin giderilmesi için bir takım çalışmalar yapılmasını gerekli hale getirmiştir. Belirtilen önemden yola çıkarak Türkiye’de Turizmin ilgi odağı olan Antalya ilinde yer alan hastanelerde medikal turizm açısından yapılan çalışmaların neler olduğu tespit edilmesini hedeflenmektedir. Araştırma Antalya’da, nitel araştırma yöntemine dayalı olarak 14 hastane yetkilisi ile görüşme tekniğiyle yapılmıştır. “Medikal turizm alanında faaliyet gösteren hastanelerdeki mevcut çalışmalar nelerdir?” araştırma sorusu üzerine odaklanılmıştır. Antalya ilindeki özel ve kamu hastanelerinde yapılan medikal turizmle ilgili çalışmaları belirlemek amacıyla yapılan bu çalışmada öncelikle medikal turizmle ilgili literatür incelendikten sonra araştırmaya ilişkin detaylar ve bulgulara yer verilmiştir. Daha sonra tartışma, sonuç ve öneriler ile çalışma sonlandırılmıştır.

2. Literatür

Hastane, hasta olanların ve yaralananların, hasta olduğunu düşünenlerin ve sağlık durumları hakkında bilgi almak isteyenlerin, ayaktan veya yatarak izleme, tanı, tedavi, rehabilite ve doğum hizmetinin verildiği kurumlardır (Onur, 2007, s. 52). Sağlık kurumları işlevlerine göre ilçe / belde hastanesi, gün hastanesi, genel hastaneler, özel dal hastaneleri ve eğitim ve araştırma hastaneleri olmak üzere beş gruba ayrılır (Yataklı Tedavi Kurumları İşletme Yönetmeliği, 2019). Mülkiyet esasına göre hastaneler; devlet hastaneleri, üniversite hastaneleri ve özel hastaneler olmak üzere üçe ayrılır (Danacı, 2010, s. 23-25).

Yukarıda sağlık kurumlarının işlevlerine ve mülkiyet esaslarına göre çeşitlerinden bahsedilmiştir. Bu bilgilerin verilmesinin amacı medikal turizm faaliyetinin gerçekleştiği kurumlar hakkında yüzeysel bilgi verilmek istenmesidir.

Sağlık turizmi, insanların sağlık hizmetleri talebini karşılamak için su, iklim, deniz, mağara, çamur vb. olanaklardan yararlanmak üzere seyahat etmeleri; sağlığı koruma, iyileştirme veya geliştirme gibi amaçlarla bir süreliğine yapılan faaliyetler bütünüdür (Ova, Biçer ve Yurcu, 2019, s. 141). Sağlık turizmi termal turizm, SPA ve Wellness turizmi, medikal turizm, yaşlı turizmi ve engelli turizmi olmak üzere dört grupta incelenir (Göktaş, 2018, s. 78).

Sağlık medeniyetinin temellerini atan ilk medeniyetin Eski Yunanlılar olduğu bilinmektedir. Asklepios (Tıp tanrısı) dünyanın ilk sağlık merkezidir. Dünyanın dört bir yanından insanların hastalıklarına çare bulmak için geldikleri tapınaklardır. M.Ö. 300 yıllarında aynı bölgede tedavi amacıyla farklı tapınaklar da yapılmıştır. Epidaurus bu tapınakların içinde en bilinenidir. Olympos Dağı'nda bulunan Delfi Tapınağı ile Zeus Sığınağı da bu önemli tıp tapınakları arasındadır (Bayram, 2019, s. 6). Sağlık turizmi çok eski bir kavramdır. Büyük İskender tarafından M.Ö. 331'de kurulan İskenderiye şehri tıp düşünce ve uygulamasının en önemli merkezlerindedir. Yunan uygarlığı, M.Ö. 900 yıllarından başlayarak Sümer ve Mısır bilgi birikiminden faydalanıp gelişmiştir. Büyük İskender'in Yunan uygarlığı ile tanışması, Doğu dünyasını egemenliği altına almasıyla başlamıştır (Altsoy, 2018, s. 25). Ortaçağda, sağlık hizmeti talepleri karşılamak üzere Müslüman ülkelerdeki sağlık tesislerinden yararlanılmıştır. Anadolu'da ilk tıp fakültesi olarak bilinen 1206 yılında yapılan Gevher Nesibe Darüşşifası ve Tıp Medresesi yakın coğrafyanın sağlık hizmeti talep noktası haline gelmiştir. Ortaçağ devri İslam Tıbbı ya da Arap Tıbbı olarak da bilinmektedir. "Arap Tıbbı" ifadesi Arapçanın bilim dili olarak kullanıldığı dil anlamına gelmektedir. "Seyahat edin sıhhat bulun" hadisi ile sağlık turizmüne dikkat çekildiği söylenebilir. Ortaçağda Japonya'da "onsen" olarak adlandırılan termal suların tedavi edici özellikleri ortaya çıkmış, savaşçı kabileler yaralarını iyileştirmek, acılarını dindirmek, kaybettikleri güçlerini toplamak maksadıyla bu termal sulardan faydalanmışlardır (Ulusoy, 2018, s. 20). Turistik gezilerin amacı 1970'li yıllara kadar denize girmek, farklı ve yeni yerleri keşfetmek veya doğal güzellikleri görmek gibi sebeplerden dolayı gerçekleştirilirken, 19. yüzyılda Avrupa'da, insanlar hastalıkları tedavi etme özelliğine sahip olduğuna inandıkları suları almak için kaplıca alanlarına seyahat etmişlerdir. 20. yüzyıl boyunca az gelişmiş ülkelerde yaşayan zengin insanlar, daha gelişmiş ülkelerdeki sağlık tesislerine sağlık hizmeti almak için seyahat etmişlerdir. 21. yüzyıla gelindiğinde ise hastalar, seyahat ettikleri ülkelerin yeraltı ve yer üstü güzelliklerinden faydalanarak tedavi olmak amacıyla diğer ülkeleri tercih etmeleri, sağlık turizmi faaliyetinin ortaya çıkmasını sağlamıştır (Ekinci, 2019, s. 35).

Sağlık hizmeti talebinin artmasıyla, ülkeler arasındaki sağlık hizmeti maliyeti farkları ve ulaşım destinasyonlarının çeşitlenmesi sonucunda sağlık turizmi hızla gelişme ortamı bulmuştur (Öğüt, Yeşilyurt ve Yurtseven, 2018, s. 59). Sağlık turizmi çeşitlerinden biri olan medikal turizmin gelişimi ülkelere ve insan ihtiyaçlarına göre farklılık göstermiştir. Bu turizmin gerçekleşmesinde ve gelişmesinde başlıca faktörler; düşük sağlık hizmeti maliyeti, gelişmiş tıbbi teknoloji, uygun ulaşım maliyetleri ve internet pazarlaması gibi faktörlerdir (Altundal Biyan, Aybaraz ve Koç, 2018, s. 54). Aslında medikal turizm, turizm endüstrisinde modern bir tür ve yeni bir bölümdür. Bu, diğer ülkelerden gelen insanların hem tatillerinin tadını çıkarabilecekleri hem de yüksek kalitede tıbbi hizmetleri rekabetçi bir fiyattan alabilecekleri bir yer aradıkları anlamına gelir. Bu sektörün turizm endüstrisindeki gelişimi, yeni niş pazarların ortaya çıkmasına neden olmuştur. Medikal turizm hareketine katılanların aldıkları hizmetler; kozmetik operasyonlar, diş tedavileri, büyük veya küçük gerekli cerrahi ameliyatlar şeklindedir (Sadeh

ve Garkaz, 2018, s. 253). Sağlık turizminde lider ülkeler; ABD, Türkiye, Hindistan, Malezya, Küba, Singapur, Tayland, Güney Kore, Macaristan, Brezilya, Arjantin, Güney Afrika, Meksika, Yunanistan, Almanya, Fransa, İtalya, Polonya, İspanya ve Birleşik Arap Emirlikleri gibi sıralanabilir (Bozça, Çiftçi Kıracı ve Kıracı, 2017, s. 158).

Sağlık turizminin özellikleri şöyle sıralanabilir (Akdu, Karakaş, Çelik, Zurnacı ve Tabu, 2018, s. 129):

- Teknik donanım ve iş gücü gerektirir,
- Hizmet veren sağlık işletmelerinin uluslararası standartlara uygun hizmet vermesi önemlidir,
- Yabancı dil bilen personelin varlığı önemlidir,
- Ekonomik açıdan önemli getiri sağlayan bir turizm çeşididir,
- Sağlık turizminde hedef pazara yönelik devlet destekli, farklı dillerde tanıtım ve pazarlama çalışmaları gereklidir.

Hastalar neden medikal turizm faaliyetini gerçekleştirir? Sorusuna farklı cevaplar verilebilir. Bazıları uzun bekleme süreleri nedeniyle yurtdışına gitmeyi tercih eder (çeşitli Avrupa ülkeleri, İngiltere ve ABD için geçerli). Bazıları, tedavilerinin özel olarak finanse edilmesi gerekiyorsa ve bu tedaviler yurtdışında çok daha ucuzsa ya da ülkelerinde ulusal bir sağlık sistemi bulunmuyorsa medikal turizm tercih edilir (Güney Afrika, Güney Asya ve Güneydoğu Asya ülkeleri için geçerli) (Kannan ve Frenz, 2019, s. 352). Hastaların medikal turizme yönelme nedenleri arasında sağlık tesislerinin çeşitliliği ve seçimi, yetersiz sağlık sigortaları veya sigortanın olmayışı, anonimlik sağlama ve mahremiyet sağlama isteği, dil, normlar, din, yemek anlamında kültürel yakınlık, en son teknolojilere ve tedavilere erişim isteği veya kendi ülkelerindeki uygun olmayan prosedürler, hastanın kendi ülkesindeki sunulan sağlık hizmetlerine güvensizliği sayılabilir (Mathijsen, 2019, s. 374). Kanadalılar acil olmayan sağlık hizmeti talepleri ve kanıtlanmamış tedaviler için de medikal turizmi tercih etmektedir (Beland ve Zarzecny, 2018, s. 3). Bunlara ek olarak Kanadalıların medikal turizmi seçme nedenleri arasında maliyetleri azaltmak, ülkelerinde uzun bekleme süreleri, sağlık sigortasının kapsamadığı veya ülkelerinde bulunmayan hizmetlere ulaşma isteği gibi sıralanabilir. ABD vatandaşları ise sağlık hizmeti maliyetlerini düşürmek için medikal turizmi tercih etmektedir (Adams, Snyder, Crooks, ve Berry, 2018, s. 3). Daha kaliteli hizmet alma isteği, yasal olmayan veya bireyin uygun olmadığı hizmetlere ulaşma isteği medikal turizmin diğer sebepleri arasındadır (Beland ve Zarzecny, 2018, s. 1).

Medikal turizmin diğer nedenleri aşağıdaki gibidir (Roy, Chatterjee, Bandyopadhyay ve Kar, 2018, s. 8):

- Sağlık altyapısının kalitesi,
- Ulaşım kolaylığı,
- Bilgi altyapısı ve dağıtım kanalları (Web tabanlı sağlık bilgisi, sosyal, yazılı ve e medya, yurtdışı ve ulusal kampanyalar, fuarlar),
- Kalifiye insan kaynakları arzı ve yeni iş kreasyonları,
- Tıbbi operatörün kalitesi ve danışma merkezleri,
- Belgelendirme ve akreditasyonlar, kültürel ve etik bakış açıları ile güçlü ortaklıklar,
- Hükümet kanunları ve politikaları sayılabilir.

Sağlık turizminin gelişimi için birtakım faktörler mevcuttur. Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili bazı çalışmalarda medikal turizm açısından önemli olduğu düşünülen ulusal ekonomik strateji, ekonomik açıklık, itibarlılık ve sağlanan sağlık hizmetlerinin güvenilirliği, sağlık turizmi ile ilgili projelere yatırım düzeyi, hükümet düzeyi gibi potansiyel faktörlerden birkaçına değinilmiştir. Ayrıca, düşük maliyetler, bekleme süresi eksikliği, sağlık hizmetlerinin kalitesi, bilgilendirici web siteleri, yüksek tıbbi teknoloji, turizm merkezleri ve coğrafi iklim, Asya ülkelerinde sağlık turistlerini çeken faktörlerdir. Sağlık turizmi faaliyetinin kolaylaşması ve yaygınlaşması açısından sağlık turistleri için vize başvurularının basitleştirilmesi etkili olabilir. Bunlara ek olarak sağlık turizminde ulaşım, sağlık tesisi ve konaklama arasında koordinasyon sağlanması da önemlidir (Zarei ve Maleki, 2019, s. 4). Medikal turistlerin varış yeri seçiminde önemli faktörler arasında, bir varış yerinin çekiciliği, belirli bir doktorun, kliniğin veya

tıbbi uygulamanın uzmanlığı da belirleyicidir. Ulus ötesi sağlık hizmetleri ülkeler açısından bölgesel kalkınma sunar, hasta hareketleri için bir araç sağlar ve ulus ötesi çalışan hastanelerin kurulmasını kolaylaştırır (Kannan ve Frenz, 2019, s. 351).

Bilgi kaynakları, seyahate çıkmadan önce gidilecek yerin seçiminde etkili bir faktör olduğu ve karar verme sürecini etkilediği kabul edilmektedir. Ayrıca, medikal turizm deneyimine başlamadan önce bilgi araştırması yapmak kritik öneme sahiptir. İnternet medikal turizmi artırdı denilebilir. Etkileşimli web siteleri, tüketicilerin hizmetleri planlamasına, cerrahlarla iletişim kurmasına, uçak bileti ve konaklama rezervasyonu yaptırmasına, turist gezileri düzenlemesine ve temel bilgileri sosyal ağlar ve bloglar aracılığıyla araçlar ve diğer potansiyel tıbbi turistlerle paylaşımlarını sağlar. Japon medikal turistler (örneğin aile, arkadaşlar, tanıdıklar ve doktorlar) seyahat acentelerinden gelen görüş ve önerilerin medikal turizm varış yeri seçiminde karar alma sürecini etkilediğini tespit etti. Bu nedenle, çevrimdışı ve çevrimiçi bilgi kaynakları medikal turizm bağlamında önem taşımaktadır (Correa ve Leiva, 2019, s. 207).

Medikal turizminin gelişimi için yapılması gerekli birtakım çalışmalar vardır. Endonezya’da medikal turizmle ilgili çalışmalar arasında iyi eğitilmiş doktorları kurumlarında tutmak, Endonezya halkı için halk sağlığına yatırım yapmak ve medikal turizm sektörüne yatırım yapmak sayılabilir (Frenz, 2019, s. 324). Medikal turizmde yapılması gereken çalışmalardan bazıları; ihtiyaç duyulan tedavi türlerini belirlemek, hem sağlık hizmeti sağlayıcılarını hem potansiyel sağlık turistlerinin sosyal ve ekonomik geçmişlerinin analiz edilmesi gerekir (Frenz, 2019, s. 322). Sağlık hizmetinin önemli bileşenleri arasında eğitilmiş, sağlıklı insan kaynakları, kurumsal standart ile doğrudan ilgili olan yerleşim ve uygulamalar, medikal turistler için medikal turizm tesisleri, sağlık tesislerinin akreditasyon çalışmaları sayılabilir (Labonte, Crooks, Valdes, Runnels, ve Snyder, 2018, s. 5). Yapılan bir çalışma medikal turizmde yedi önemli kültürel faktör olarak hastane bakımı ve hizmetleri, yiyecek, sağlık sistemi, iletişim, sağlık tesisi, din ve kültürel değerleri ortaya çıkarmıştır (Sung ve Park, 2019, s. 7). Sağlık kuruluşlarında kalite yönetiminin gözden geçirilmesi, sağlık sektöründe kaliteli araçların uygulanmasının bu kuruluşlar tarafından sağlanan hizmetlerin iyileştirilmesinde geniş kapsamlı etkileri olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu durum, medikal turizm endüstrisi için daha önemli ve elzemdir. Çünkü bu sektörün rolü ülkelerin ekonomik gelişimi üzerinde etkili olmaktadır. Medikal turizm sektöründe hasta memnuniyetinin iyileştirilmesi ile ilgili mevcut akademik çalışmalarda; fiziksel çevre kalitesi, teknik bakım, tıbbi personelin kalifiye olması, idari yönetimde kalite anlayışı, doğru ve güvenilir hizmetler, ana hizmetler, eczacılık hizmetleri, tesisler, hijyen, destek hizmetleri, uygun fiyatlar ve sonuç kalitesi ile birlikte sağlanan imkanların önemi belirtilmiştir (Sadeh ve Garkaz, 2018, s. 254). Pek çok ülke medikal turizmi ulusal stratejilerine dahil etmiş ve sektörel gelişmeyi teşvik etmek için; uluslararası pazarlama, vergi indirimleri ve vergi teşvikleri (Tayland, Singapur, Malezya ve Kore), yabancıların mülkiyet hakkı yatırımcılar (Tayland), özel tıbbi vizeler (Hindistan), tıbbi teçhizat (Hindistan), düşük ithalat vergileri (Hindistan) gibi uygulamalar geliştirilmiştir (Mathijsen, 2019, s. 374). Sağlık konusunda bilgi almak için internetin kullanılması hızla artmış, medikal turistler için internet önemli bir veri kaynağı haline gelmektedir. Sağlık işletmeleri ve hastaneler web siteleri aracılığıyla medikal turistlere sundukları hizmetler konusunda bilgi verme olanağına sahip olmaktadır. İyi planlanmış bir internet sitesi hastanın güvenini kazanma konusuna katkı sağlamaktadır (Temizkan ve Konak, 2018, s. 29).

Geçmiş araştırmalar tüketicilerin kişisel değerlendirmelerinin marka prestijini etkileyen önemli bir faktör olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna dayanarak güncel araştırmalar, medikal turistlerin deneyimlerinin hastane prestij algılarını etkilediğini vurgulamaktadır (Nikbin, Batouei, Iranmanesh, Kim ve Hyun, 2019, s. 522). Malezya’da medikal turizmle ilgili yapılan bir çalışmada, medikal turistlerle birlikte Malezya’daki sağlık tesislerine gelen refakatçileri memnun etmek, söz konusu sağlık tesisleri açısından yararlı olacağını göstermiştir. Ülkelerine dönen medikal turistler ve refakatçileri söz konusu sağlık tesisine ağızdan ağıza reklam yoluyla hasta kazandırmış olur (Mohamad, Omar ve Kassim, 2019, s. 379). Malezya’da medikal turizmle ilgili yapılan bir başka çalışmada web sitesi, online hizmetler, tanıtım broşürleri ve tanıtım görüşmelerinin önemini göstermiştir (Seow, Choong ve Chan, 2018, s. 875).

İsrail’in medikal turizmine yönelik çalışmaları aşağıdaki gibidir (Labonte vd., 2018, s. 6):

- İsraililere yönelik sağlık bakım hizmetlerinin zarar görmemesi ve ideal olarak geliştirilmesi,
- Medikal turizm yoluyla elde edilen gelirleri güçlendirmeye yönlendirmek,
- Halk sağlığı sisteminin kurulması,
- Hastaneler için veri izleme sistemleri geliştirmek, hükümetlerin ekonomik faaliyetlerini takip etmek için uluslararası hastalara bakım sağlayan hastanelerin medikal turistler tarafından alınan bakım kalitesini izlemek,
- Her hastanenin tedavi edebileceği hasta kapasitesi ve tedavi süreleri limitini belirlemek,
- Tıbbi teşvikleri ve aracı kurumları kayıt altına almak gibi sıralanabilir.

Ülkelerin gelişimi açısından önemli bir ekonomik faaliyet olan medikal turizmin gelişmesine yönelik engeller de mevcuttur. Özellikle Asya ülkelerinde medikal turizm endüstrisinin gelişmesinin önündeki engellere; maliyet, altyapı, hükümetin tutumu, politika ve düzenlemeler, terfi, uzmanlık, yatırım potansiyeli, dil ve iletişim faktörleri, tesisler ve turistik engeller olduğu belirtilmiştir. Hindistan’da medikal turizme yönelik engeller arasında yabancı düşmanlığı, psikolojik ve kültürel engeller, güvensizlik, tıbbi piyasa paydaşları arasında koordinasyon eksikliği, yetersiz sağlık hizmetleri ve tesislerin kalitesi, sigorta kapsamının yetersizliği, yoksulluk imajı ve sağlık turizmiyle ilgili etkili yasaların eksikliği gibi bazı engeller sıralanabilir (Zarei ve Maleki, 2019, s. 6). Bu engellerin ortadan kaldırılması çalışmalarına ağırlık verilmesi sağlık kurumları açısından önemli medikal turizm çalışmaları olarak değerlendirilebilir.

Türkiye’nin de gelişmiş ülkelerdeki gibi nitelikli sağlık hizmeti sunmasından ötürü, dünyanın birçok yerinden Türkiye’yi tedavi amacıyla turistler tercih etmektedir. Türkiye’de özellikle 1990 yılından sonra özel sektör sağlık hizmetlerine ciddi yatırımlar yapmıştır. Bunun sonucu olarak, Avrupa standartlarına denk olacak düzeyde özel sağlık kuruluşları artmıştır. Yüksek maliyetleri olan sağlık kuruluşlarının yurtdışı pazarlara açılması zorunlu hale gelmiştir. Türkiye Avrupa, Asya ve Afrika kıtaları arasında bulunması, ulaşım açısından avantajları, tarihi ve doğal güzellikleri, termal kaynakları, teknolojik medikal altyapısı, uluslararası düzeyde sağlık işletmelerine sahip olması, nitelikli sağlık personeli ve sahip olduğu diğer avantajları sağlık turizmi açısından önemlidir. Türkiye’nin, sahip olduğu bu potansiyeli yeterince değerlendiremediği söylenebilir (Bulut ve Şengül, 2019, s. 47).

Türkiye’yi tercih eden ülkeler aşağıdaki gibi sınıflandırılabilir (Altsoy ve Taştan Boz, 2019, s. 119):

- Almanya, Hollanda ve Belçika gibi Türklerin çoğunlukta yaşadığı ülkeler,
 - Balkan ülkeleri ve Orta Asya’daki Türki Cumhuriyetler gibi altyapı ve hekim yetersizliği nedeniyle gelişmekte olan ülkeler,
 - Almanya ve Amerika gibi sağlık hizmet maliyetlerinin yüksek olduğu ve sağlık sigorta kapsamı harici hizmet talebinde bulunan hastaların yaşadığı ülkeler,
 - İngiltere, Hollanda ve Kanada gibi uzun bekleme sırası olan ülkeler olarak sıralanabilir.
- Aşağıdaki tabloda Türkiye’deki hastaneler ve hastanelerin yatak sayıları gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 1. Türkiye’deki hastane ve hastane yatak sayıları

	Toplam		Sağlık Bakanlığı		Üniversite		Özel	
	Hastane sayısı	Yatak sayısı	Hastane sayısı	Yatak sayısı	Hastane sayısı	Yatak sayısı	Hastane sayısı	Yatak sayısı
Toplam	1.518	225.863	879	135.339	68	41.324	571	49.200

Kaynak: TÜİK, 2019.

Yukarıdaki tabloda Türkiye’de Sağlık Bakanlığı, üniversite ve özel olmak üzere toplam 1 bin 518 tane hastane ve toplamda bu hastanelerin 225 bin 863 yatak kapasitesi olduğu görülmektedir. Yukarıda verilen sayısal veriler Türkiye’nin hastane ve yatak sayısı bakımından medikal turizme elverişliliğini gösterir.

Aşağıdaki tabloda 2012-2019 yılları arasında Türkiye’ye gelen sağlık turistlerinin sayısı gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 2. 2012-2019 yılları arasındaki sağlık turisti sayıları

Yıllar	Sağlık turisti sayısı
2012	216.229
2013	267.461
2014	414.658
2015	360.180
2016	377.384
2017	433.292
2018	551.748
2019	662.087
Toplam	3.283.039

Kaynak: USHAŞ, 2020.

Yukarıdaki tabloda 2012-2019 yılları arasında Türkiye'ye gelen sağlık turisti sayıları verilmiştir. 2012 yılında 216 bin 229 sağlık turisti gelirken 2019 yılında 662 bin 087 sağlık turisti geldiği görülmektedir. Tabloda da görüldüğü üzere 2012 yılından 2019 yılına kadar gelen sağlık turisti sayılarında artış dikkati çekmektedir. 2015 yılında gelen sağlık turisti sayısında bir düşüş yaşansa da genel olarak 2012-2019 yılları arasında gelen sağlık turisti sayılarında artış eğiliminden söz edilebilir.

Aşağıdaki tabloda 2012-2019 yılları arasında Türkiye'ye sağlık ve tıbbi nedenlerle yurtdışından gelen ziyaretçilerden elde edilen turizm gelirleri gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 3. 2012-2019 yılları arasında sağlık ve tıbbi nedenlerle yurtdışından gelen ziyaretçilerden elde edilen turizm gelirleri

Yıllar	Turizm geliri (bin USD)
2012	511.923
2013	747.580
2014	956.037
2015	794.325
2016	904.160
2017	1.020.130
2018	1.110.840
2019	1.065.100
Toplam	7.110.095

Kaynak: USHAŞ, 2020.

Yukarıdaki tabloda 2012-2019 yılları arasında Türkiye'ye sağlık ve tıbbi nedenlerle yurtdışından gelen ziyaretçilerden elde edilen turizm gelirleri gösterilmektedir. 2012 yılında 511 bin 923 (USD) sağlık turizmi geliri elde edilirken 2019 yılında 1 milyon 065 bin 100 (USD) sağlık turizmi geliri elde edilmiştir. Tabloda da görüldüğü üzere 2012 yılından 2019 yılına kadar 2015 yılı ve 2019 yılı hariç sağlık turizmi gelirlerinde artış dikkati çekmektedir. 2015 ve 2019 yıllarında sağlık turizmi gelirlerinde bir düşüş yaşansa da genel olarak 2012-2019 yılları arasında sağlık turizmi gelirlerinde artış eğiliminden söz edilebilir.

Tablo 4. 2023 yılında sağlık turizminde hedeflenen turist sayısı

Yıl	Sağlık Turisti Sayısı
2019	1.000.000
2020	1.300.000
2021	1.600.000
2022	1.800.000
2023	2.000.000

Kaynak: Ögüt vd., 2018, s. 66.

Tablo 4’te 2019 yılında hedeflenen sağlık turisti sayısı 1 milyon iken 2020’de 1 milyon 300 bin sağlık turisti, 2021’de 1 milyon 600 bin sağlık turisti, 2022’de 1 milyon 800 bin sağlık turisti ve 2023’te 2 milyon sağlık turistidir.

Yukarıda Tablo 2, Tablo 3 ve Tablo 4’te verilen sayısal bilgiler göz önüne alındığında medikal turizmin Türkiye için önemi anlaşılabilir. Medikal turizm ülkelerin ekonomik açıdan gelişimi için önemli bir araçtır. Bundan dolayı bu turizm türüyle ilgilenen ülkelerde bulunan sağlık kurumlarında medikal turizmin gelişimi için birtakım çalışmalar yapılması gereklidir. Çalışmanın devamında sağlık kurumlarında medikal turizmle ilgili yapılan çalışmalara detaylı bir şekilde değinilmiştir.

3. Araştırma evreni ve yöntem

Araştırmanın evrenini Antalya’da bulunan hastanelerin sağlık turizmi departmanı sorumluları oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma kapsamında katılımcılar amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden homojen (benzeşik) örnekleme çeşidi kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Araştırma Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu’nun 18.04.2018 tarihli toplantısında alınan 04/03 numaralı kararı ile uygun görülmüştür. Araştırma, Antalya’da medikal turizm faaliyetinde bulunan 14 hastanenin sağlık turizmi departmanı sorumlusuyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmada nitel veri analizi yöntemlerinden içerik analizi tekniğinden faydalanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Bulgular yazılırken katılımcıların sorulara verdiği cevaplar yorum yapılmadan yansıtılmıştır. Katılımcıların gerçek adları kullanılmamış baş harfleriyle başlayan takma adlar oluşturularak verilerin analizinde kullanılmıştır.

4. Bulgular

Araştırmanın bulguları katılımcılara ve analiz sonuçlarına göre aşağıdaki gibidir.

Katılımcı bilgileri

Katılımcılar cinsiyetlerine göre %50’si erkek, %50’si kadın, eğitim durumlarına göre %57,14’ü lisans, %28,57’si tıp fakültesi, %7,14’ü lise ve %7,14’ü yüksek lisans mezunudur. Katılımcıların sahip olduğu tecrübeye göre %14,28’si 10 yıl ve altı tecrübeye sahip, %85,71’i 11 yıl ve üstü tecrübeye sahiptir.

Araştırmanın temaları

Araştırma bulguları; Halkla İlişkiler ve Pazarlama İle İlgili Çalışmalar, İnsan Kaynakları İle İlgili Çalışmalar, Hasta Hakları ve Etik İle İlgili Çalışmalar, Hastanenin Altyapısı İle İlgili Çalışmalar, Sağlık Turizminde Finansal Teşviklerle İlgili Çalışmalar, Sağlık Turizmiyle İlgili Diğer Çalışmalar gibi 8 ana temaya sahiptir. Aşağıda bu temalara ilişkin bulgular verilmiştir. Aşağıda bulgular yazılırken her tema kapsamında katılımcıların medikal turizm çalışmaları ile ilgili sözlerine birer örnek verilmiştir.

4.1. Halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlama ile ilgili çalışmalar

Katılımcıların halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlama ile ilgili çalışmalara verdikleri cevaplar alt temalara ayrılmıştır. Buna göre katılımcıların halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlamada kurum bazlı çalışmalar, yazılı görsel ve dijital çalışmalar, hastane dışından alınan hizmetler ve diğer çalışmalar olmak üzere çalışmalar tespit edilmiştir. *Kurum Bazlı Çalışmalar* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “broşür basımı, yabancıların üye olduğu dernekleri ziyaret etme, fuarlara katılım, yerel festivallerde tanıtım, kongrelere katılım, aracı kurumlarla görüşme, yazılı ve basılı tanıtım materyalleri” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Batuhan Bey “Hastanemizde halkla ilişkiler departmanı birkaç yolla bu işi duyurmakta. Biri bu bölgede 40.000’e yakın yabancı ikamet etmekte. Onlarla buraya geldikleri zaman ilgilenme

yoluyla ve broşür basımları, birden fazla lisanla İngilizce, Rusça, Farsça dillerinde, burada yaşayan yabancıların üye olduğu dernekleri ziyaret ederek bu yollar izlenmektedir. Yurt dışında fuarlara katılıyoruz. Sağlıkla ilgili sağlık turizmiyle ilgili soruları cevaplandırmak için bir çağrı merkezi oluşturduk 7 /24 çalışan. Oraya danışabiliyorlar, İngilizce ve Rusça dilinde, ayrıca mail oluşturduk. Onlar sorularını oraya yazabiliyor” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Yazılı, Görsel ve Dijital Çalışmalar* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “broşür basımı, yabancı dilde web sitesi, tanıtım CD’si, kataloglar, sosyal medya, radyo, televizyonun kullanımı, kartların, kitapçıkların basımı, internet reklamları” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Doruk Bey “Ürünlerimizle ilgili reklam, sosyal medyada, radyo, televizyon, internet reklamları, şimdilik altı dilde web sitemiz aracılığıyla faaliyetlerimizi gerçekleştiriyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Hastane Dışından Alınan Hizmetler* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “sigorta firmalarıyla anlaşmalar, asistan firmalarla anlaşmalar, bölgelerde ofisler, aracı kurumlarla anlaşmalar, kişilerle anlaşmalar, otellerle anlaşmalar, acentelerle anlaşmalar” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Batuhan Bey “ Uluslararası sigorta firmalarıyla anlaşmalar yapıldı onlarla beraber konsorsiyumlar kuruldu” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Diğer* çalışmalar içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “sağlık turizmi yetki belgesi alma çalışmaları, yaş gruplarına göre segment oluşturmak, hasta memnuniyeti” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Gürkan Bey “Bizim için memnun ayrılan hasta en iyi reklamdır” şeklinde açıklamıştır.

4.2. İnsan kaynakları ile ilgili çalışmalar

Katılımcıların insan kaynakları ile ilgili yapılan çalışmalara verdikleri cevaplar alt temalara ayrılmıştır. Buna göre katılımcıların insan kaynaklarında doktor seçiminde kriterler ve personel seçiminde kriterler gibi çalışmalar tespit edilmiştir. *Doktor Seçiminde Kriterler* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “ün yapmış doktor bulundurma, akademisyen bulundurma” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Yaman Bey “Bünyemizde ün yapmış doktor bulunduruyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Personel Seçiminde Kriterler* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “tercüman bulundurma, yabancı dil bilen personel bulundurma, kalifiye eleman bulundurma, sağlık turizminde eğitimi, sertifikasyonu, bilgisi ve yeteneği olan personel bulundurma, yabancı personel bulundurma, mevzuata uygun personel bulundurma (kamuda)” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Şeyma Hanım “Tercümanlarımız var; İngilizce, Arapça ve Azerice bilen. Güler yüzlü, kalifiyeli, diksiyonu düzgün personel bulunduruyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır.

4.3. Hasta hakları ve etik ile ilgili çalışmalar

Katılımcıların hasta hakları ve etik ile ilgili çalışmalara verdikleri cevaplar alt temalara ayrılmıştır. Buna göre katılımcıların hasta hakları ve etik konusunda yabancı dillerde form çalışmaları, sağlık turistlerine tercüman desteği, hastaya kendi dilinde evrak ve diğer çalışmalar tespit edilmiştir. *Yabancı dillerde form çalışmaları* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “yabancı dilde formlar ve onamlar kullanma, hastaya yapılan her işlemde form imzalatılması” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Zeynep Hanım “Bizde ameliyat, anestezi, kayıt, her şey tüm hastaların kendi dillerinde onam formları var. Emar çekerken bile onam formunu imzalıyoruz. Yasalar bunu belirliyor” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Sağlık turistlerine tercüman desteği* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “hastaya tercüman desteği, Türkçe onamların yeminli tercüman tarafından hastaya çevrilmesi” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Ayşe Hanım “Türkçe onamlar yok mu var. Onlar tercüman eşliğinde hastaya tercüme ediliyor. Hem tercüman imza atıyor hem hasta imza atıyor, hani bana tercüme edildi, ben kabul ediyorum, yazıyor, altına hem tercüman hem hasta imza atıyor” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Hastaya Kendi Dilinde Evrak* içerisinde katılımcılar “tüm raporların hastaların kendi dillerinde verilmesi” şeklinde cevap vermiştir. Örneğin katılımcılardan Kübra Hanım “Hatta yabancı hastalara imzalatılan onamlarda bizim tercümanımız “Hastaya kendi lisanında anlatılmıştır” diye Türkçe not düşüyor onama. Hastaya epikrizleri İngilizce verebiliyoruz. Faturaları yabancı dile çevirip verebiliyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Diğer* çalışmalar içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “hastanenin JCI akreditasyon belgesine sahip olması, Türk hastalarla aynı şekilde işlem yapılması, adli vakalarda adli kayıt tutma, hastanın her

işlemeden önce ayrıntılı bilgilendirilmesi, etik kurallara uymayan personelin cezalandırılması” gibi çalışmalar. Örneğin katılımcılardan Berk Bey “Hasta hakları birimiz var. Bunu biz onlarla gerçekleştiriyoruz ama hasta haklarını bildiren bir broşürümüz var. Bunu biz yabancı dile çevirdik İngilizceye. Yabancı hastalarımıza bu konuda bilgilendirmede bulunuyoruz. Fiyat bilgilendirmesini önceden hastaya biz yapıyoruz. Yani alacağı her hizmette bunu aşağı yukarı çıkartmaya çalışıyoruz. Bazen bazı durumlarda yoğun bakımda bir gece fazladan kalması gerekiyor veya bir ünite fazladan kan alması gerekiyor. Bu tarz durumlarda fiyat farklılaşıyor ama hastaya aşağı yukarı bir fiyat veriyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır.

4.4. Hastanenin altyapısı ile ilgili çalışmalar

Katılımcıların hastanenin altyapısı ile ilgili çalışmalara verdikleri cevaplar alt temalara ayrılmıştır. Buna göre katılımcıların personel bazlı çalışmalar ve hastane bazlı çalışmalar tespit edilmiştir. *Personel bazlı çalışmalar* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “dışarıdan din adamı temini, rehber bulundurma” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Ayşe Hanım “Her türlü dini hizmet veriliyor. İhtiyaç halinde bazı hastalar papaz istiyor. Daha çok kötü durumlarda onlar talep ediyor. Bizim konsolosluklarla zaten görüşmelerimiz var. Bazı din adamları, bazı kuruluşlar var. Onlarla iletişim halindeyiz. Bir hasta talep ettiği zaman arıyoruz, taleplerini karşılıyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır. *Hastane bazlı çalışmalar* içerisinde katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar “yabancı dilde yönlendirme levhaları olması, yabancı dilde TV kanalları olması, sağlık turizmi ile ilgili birimin olması, havra, şapel ve mescit olmak üzere üç semavi dinin ibadethanesinin olması, kutsal kitapların bulundurulması, refakatçiye özel alanlar olması, hastane otoparkının olması, yabancı dilde formlar, yemek menüleri, broşürler, VIP odaları, Yabancı Sigortalar Departmanının bulunması” gibi çalışmalardır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Berk Bey “Öncelikle birimiz var. Sadece Uluslararası Hasta ve Sağlık Turizmi olarak geçiyor ve onlara hizmet veriyor. Bunun haricinde sağlık turizminde kullanmak üzere VIP odalarımız var. Çünkü yabancı hastalar bunu talep edebiliyorlar. Tercümanlık hizmetimiz var. Doktorlarımız bize bir telefonla 7 gün 24 saat ulaşıyorlar ve biz hasta ile doktor arasındaki bu dil köprüsünü kuruyoruz” şeklinde açıklamıştır.

4.5. Sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerle ilgili çalışmalar

Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili finansal teşvikler şöyledir: Ekonomi Bakanlığı ve Türk Hava Yolları anlaşmaları, fuar destekleri, tercüman desteği, yol ulaşım desteği, sigorta bazlı indirimler, SGK desteği, hasta başına teşvik ve Batı Akdeniz Kalkınma Ajansının sağlık turizmiyle ilgili projeleri gibi yanıtlar verilmiştir. Örneğin katılımcılar finansal teşvik çalışmalarını ile ilgili aşağıdaki yanıtları vermiştir:

Yani bu konuda birçok teşvik var diye duyuyoruz ama hiç birini almış değiliz. Finansal teşvikleri duyuyoruz ama dosya hazırlama teşebbüslerimiz oldu ama muvaffak olamadık. Ekonomi Bakanlığı ve Türk Hava Yolları anlaşmaları vardı ve biz hiç faydalanamadık (Batuhan Bey).

Sigorta bazlı indirimler, SGK desteği, tercüman desteği, hasta başına teşvik veriliyor (Yaman Bey).

Yaptığımız reklamlar sağlık turizmiyle ilgiliyse evraklarımızı tamamlayıp teşvik için başvuruyoruz. Başvuruları biz değil merkez ofisimiz yapıyor. Biz zaten tercümanları bünyemizde bulundurduğumuz için onları teşvike sokamıyoruz. Yönetmelik değişiyor Sağlık Turizmi Departmanı kurmamızı istiyorlar. Onun üzerine muhtemelen farklı teşvikler gelişebilir. Sağlık turizmi çok popüler çünkü Türkiye bununla ün kazanmaya çalışıyor (Ayşe Hanım).

Destekler olabileceği kadarıyla var. Yeterli mi çok emin değilim. Fena değil destekler. Batı Akdeniz Kalkınma Ajansının sağlık turizmiyle ilgili bir proje kapsamında bu ofisi açtık. Yan taraftaki VIP bekleme salonunu yaptık. Fiziki olarak değişiklikler yaptık. Dört dilde video çektik. Üç dilde katalog yaptık. Dört hasta odası yaptık. Ekonomi Bakanlığının da teşvikleri var. Rehberlerin maaşlarıyla ilgili, ama kriterlere uygun olmadığımız için başvuramadık. Ekonomi Bakanlığının Katar’da bir fuarı

vardı. Onun desteğinden yararlandık. Yapılan eğitim çalışmalarına katılıyoruz yılda birkaç kez (Meltem Hanım).

4.6. Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili diğer çalışmalar

Sağlık turizmi ile ilgili diğer çalışmalar arasında katılımcıların verdikleri cevaplar arasında medikal vize, müşteri ilişkileri yönetimi çalışmaları, şikâyet değerlendirme, yabancı hastalara davetiye gönderilmesi, akademik ve teorik çalışmaların artırılması, sağlık turizminde anlık fırsatlardan yararlanma sorunu, Türkiye'nin tanıtımının iyi yapılması, hastaya aldığı hizmetin ödetilmesinde her türlü yaptırımın uygulanması gibi çalışmalar yer almaktadır. Örneğin katılımcılardan Batuhan Bey "Müşteri ilişkileri yönetimi ile ilgili bir şikâyet yönetimimiz var. Onunla ilgili de bir mail adresi oluşturduk. Müşteri potansiyelimizin elinde var. Oraya gelen şikâyetler değerlendirilip cevaplandırılıyor ve çözüme ulaştırılıyor" şeklinde açıklamıştır. Medikal vize konusunu Yaman Bey "Medikal vize olmalı ama hekim onayıyla olmalı. Fakat dikkat edilmeli, medikal vize suistimale açık bir durumdur" şeklinde açıklamıştır.

5. Tartışma, sonuç ve öneriler

Ekonomik anlamda ülkelerin gelişme ve ilerlemesine büyük katkılar sağlayan sağlık turizmi, dünya çapında da insanların rağbet ettiği bir turizm türüdür. Sağlık turizminin bir türü olan medikal turizm ise sağlık hizmeti talebi olanların başka ülkelerdeki sağlık tesislerine başvurarak tedavi olmaları olayıdır. Ülkelerin başta ekonomi olmak üzere diğer alanlarda da gelişimi ve ilerlemesi açısından önemli olan medikal turizmde tercih edilen ülkeler olmak adına bir takım çalışmalar yapılmasına ihtiyaç vardır.

Konu ile ilgili çalışmalar incelendiğinde medikal turizmde hizmet veren sağlık tesisleri çalışmalarının nasıl olması gerektiği ve sunulan sağlık hizmetlerinin niteliğine değinildiği görülmüştür. Medikal turizmde (Ünal ve Demirel, 2011, s. 107-108):

- Etik değerler çerçevesinde sağlık hizmetlerinin sunumu,
- Sağlık hizmet maliyetlerinin uygunluğu,
- Sağlık tesislerinin fiziki açıdan ulaşılabilirliği,
- Sağlık hizmeti alan ve veren arasında kültürel iletişim sağlanması (hasta ile kendi lisanında iletişim),
- Sağlık tesislerinde medikal turizme yönelik altyapı çalışmaları (Hasta odaları, refakatçi hizmetleri, hasta menüleri, kafe, otopark, hastane bahçesi, dini hizmetler, sosyal aktivite imkanları gibi),
- Yeterli tıbbi teknolojiye sahip olma,
- Ulaşım ve transfer hizmetlerinin sunulması,
- Kalifiye (yabancı dil bilgisi, tecrübe, iletişimi güçlü) personelin istihdam edilmesi,
- Hastalara sağlık sigortasından yararlanma (Sigorta şirketleri ile koordinasyon sağlanmalı),
- Sağlık tesislerinde akreditasyon çalışmaları,
- Sağlık turizminde pazarlama çalışmaları yapılması ve sağlık turizminde aracı kurumlarla çalışılması gibi sağlık hizmeti nitelikleri ve sağlık tesisleri çalışmaları sıralanabilir.

Medikal turizmle ilgili diğer bir çalışma incelendiğinde sağlık hizmetlerinde kalite kavramına değinildiği görülür. Bu çalışmaya göre sağlık hizmetlerinin kalitesinin hasta memnuniyeti üzerinde olumlu etkileri olduğu görülür. Hasta memnuniyetini belirleyen 10 temel kriter; sağlık hizmetlerine kolay erişebilme, kaynakların kullanılabilirliği, bakımın devamlılığı (hasta taburcu olduktan sonra bile hastanın sağlık tesisi tarafından takip edilmesi), bakımın çıktıları, sağlık hizmeti maliyetinin uygunluğu, sağlık personeli davranışlarının insancıl olması, hastadan bilgi toplama ve hastaya bilgi verme, hoşça gitme, kalite ve yeterlidir (Öncü, Çatı ve Yalman, 2016, s. 66).

Medikal turizmle ilgili Buzcu ve Birdir (2019) yaptığı çalışmada; tanıtımın yapılması, ortak ücret tarifesi oluşturulması ve akreditasyona önem verilmesi gibi çalışmaların yapılması gerektiğine değinilmiştir.

Ataman, Esen ve Vatan (2017) yaptığı çalışmada sağlık hizmeti sunumunda görev alan çalışanların hasta güvenliği konusunda bilgi sahibi olmaları ve bu doğrultuda hizmet vermeleri gerektiğine değinilmiştir.

Arı (2017) yaptığı çalışmada medikal turizmin geliştirilmesi amacıyla medikal turizm faaliyetini gerçekleştirmek isteyenlere vize aşamasında kolaylıklar sağlanmasının medikal turizme katkı sağlayacağına değinmiştir.

Hastaların medikal turizme yönelmesinin nedenlerinden biri de özel hayatın gizliliği ve mahremiyete saygı gösterilmesi isteğidir. Hastanın bu talebi sağlık hizmeti almak üzere sağlık kuruluşuna ilk temasıyla başlar; taburcu olduktan sonra da devam eder (Karaca Dedeoğlu, 2019, s. 1877). Buradan hareketle medikal turizmle ilgilenen sağlık tesislerinin önemle üzerinde durması gereken çalışmalardan biri de hasta hakları ve etik konusunda çalışmalar yapılması denilebilir.

Antalya'da medikal turizmle ilgilenen 14 hastanede yapılan araştırmada, hastanelerin medikal turizm çalışmaları tespit edilmiştir. Bu çalışmaların halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlama, insan kaynakları, hasta hakları ve etik, sağlık turizmiyle ilgili finansal teşvikler ve diğer çalışmalar olduğu görülmüştür.

Yapılan araştırmada medikal turizmle ilgili sağlık kurumlarında halkla ilişkiler ve pazarlama ile ilgili olarak katılımcıların yaptıkları çalışmalar şöyledir; broşür basımları yapmak, yabancıların üye olduğu dernekleri ziyaret etmek, yurt dışında fuarlara katılım sağlamak, uluslar arası sigorta firmalarıyla anlaşmalar yapmak, asistan firmalarla anlaşmalar yapmak, güncel trendleri takip etmek, ürün segmenti oluşturmak, hedef ülkeleri analiz etmek, sosyal medyada, yerel festivallerde, radyo, televizyon ve internet reklamları yapmak, hedef bölgelerde ofisler açmak, aracı kurumlarla anlaşmalar yapmak, seyahat acenteleriyle anlaşmalar yapmak, yabancı dilde web sitesine sahip olmak, kongrelere katılım sağlamak, yabancı ülkelerde tanıtım yapan merkezlerine sahip olmak, otellerle çalışmak, otellerde doktor ofisleri açmak, tanıtım CD'lerine sahip olmak, katalog, kart ve kitapçıklar basmak gibi çalışmalar tespit edilmiştir.

İnsan kaynakları ile ilgili tespit edilen çalışmalar şöyledir; Yabancı hasta departmanı kurmak, tercüman bulundurmamak, kalifiye eleman bulundurmamak, yabancı çalışan çalıştırmak (yabancı çalışanların da TÖMER'den aldığı Türkçe bilir belgesi olması), rehber bulundurmamak, ün yapmış doktor çalıştırmak, yabancı dil bilen personeller bulundurmamak, yabancı sigortalar departmanını kurmak, akademisyen çalıştırmak, personele eğitim vermek, mevzuata uygun kişileri çalıştırmak (devlet hastaneleri için), sağlık turizmi alanında sertifikasyona sahip personel çalıştırmak gibi çalışmalardır.

Hasta hakları ve etik konusunda tespit edilen çalışmalar şöyledir; Hasta hakları ve etik birimini kurmak, yabancı dillerde form usulü kullanmak, hastanede etik kurul olması, yabancı hastaların Türk hastalarla aynı haklara sahip olmaları, tercüman desteği sağlanmak, hastaya işlem yapılmadan önce aydınlatmak ve etik kurallara uymayan personele cezai yaptırım uygulanmak gibi çalışmalardır.

Hastanenin altyapısı ile ilgili tespit edilen çalışmalar şöyledir; Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili departman kurmak, yabancı dilde yönlendirme levhaları bulundurmamak, yabancı dilde TV kanalları olması, ibadethanelerin bulunması, tüm dinlerin kutsal kitaplarının olması, dışarıdan din adamı temin etmek, refakatçiler için özel alanlar bulundurmamak, odalarda iki dilli İngilizce ve Türkçe uyarılar olması, hastanenin otoparkının olması, yemek menülerinin olması, rehber bulunmak ve VIP odalarının olması gibi çalışmalardır.

Katılımcıların sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerle ilgili desteklerden haberdar olduğu fakat tümünden faydalanmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Sebep olarak teşviklerin bir kısmına başvurdukları fakat yararlanma konusunda başvurularının kabul edilmediği anlaşılmıştır. Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili katılımcıların verdiği bilgiler şöyledir: Ekonomi Bakanlığı ve Türk Hava Yolları anlaşmaları, fuar

destekleri, tercüman desteği, yol ulaşım desteği, sigorta bazlı indirimler, SGK desteği, hasta başına teşvik ve Batı Akdeniz Kalkınma Ajansının sağlık turizmiyle ilgili projeleri gibi yanlılar verilmiştir.

Sağlık turizmiyle ilgili tespit edilen diğler çalışmalar arasında medikal vize, müşteri ilişkileri yönetimi çalışmaları, şikâyet değerlendirme, yabancı hastalara davetiye gönderilmesi, akademik ve teorik çalışmaların arttırılması, Türkiye'nin tanıtımının iyi yapılması, hastaya aldığı hizmetin ödetilmesinde her türlü yaptırımın uygulanması, gibi çalışmalar bulunmaktadır.

Bu çalışma Antalya'da ulaşılabilen sağlık hizmeti sunan hastanelerle yapıldığından bu hastanelerin medikal turizm çalışmalarını genellemek doğru bir yaklaşım değildir. Sağlık turizminde Türkiye'nin hak ettiği yeri alabilmesi için bu konuya ağırlık verilmesi, konu ile ilgili akademik çalışmaların arttırılması gerekmektedir. Diğler araştırmacılara; sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerden faydalanan hastane sayısının az olduğu görüldüğünden dolayı ileride yapılacak olan çalışmalara sağlık turizminde finansal teşviklerle ilgili çalışmalar yapılması önerilebilir.

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Extended Abstract

Health tourism uses water, climate, sea, cave, mud, etc. to meet people's demand for healthcare services. travel to take advantage of the opportunities; It is a set of activities carried out for a period of time for the purposes of protecting, improving, or improving health (Ova, Biçer & Yurcu, 2019, p.141). Health tourism is examined in 4 groups as thermal tourism, SPA and Wellness tourism, medical tourism, elderly tourism, and disabled tourism (Göktaş, 2018, p.78).

This study made it necessary to carry out a number of activities in order to ensure that medical tourism, which is known to be of global importance, can be carried out effectively in terms of countries and to eliminate the deficiencies in this field. Based on the importance specified in Turkey, in Antalya province which is the focus of attention hospitals located in tourism, which is what the activities are done in terms of medical tourism is aimed to be detected. The research was conducted with an interview technique based on the qualitative research method. Within the scope of the research, a total of 14 hospital officials were interviewed in Antalya. "What are the available activities in hospitals operating in the field of medical tourism?" is focused on the research question.

The research findings, 8 main themes, and sub-themes of these themes were coded in line with the answers given by the participants. 8 main themes; activities on public relations and marketing, activities on human resources, activities on patient rights and ethics, activities on the infrastructure of the hospital, activities on financial incentives in health tourism, and other activities on health tourism.

In the research conducted on medical tourism, participants the activity of public relations and marketing in health institutions are as follows; printing brochures, visiting associations of foreigners, participating in fairs abroad, making agreements with international insurance companies, making agreements with assistant companies, following current trends, creating a product segment, analyzing target countries, social media, local festivals, radio to make television and internet advertisements, to open offices in target regions, to make agreements with intermediary institutions, to make agreements with travel agencies, to have a website in a foreign language, to participate in congresses, to have centers that promote in foreign countries, to work with hotels, to open doctor offices in hotels, activities such as owning CDs, printing catalogs, cards and booklets were determined. Activities determined regarding human resources are as follows; establishing a foreign patient department, having an interpreter, having qualified personnel, employing foreign employees (foreign employees also having a Turkish-speaking certificate from TOMER), having a guide, employing a reputed doctor, having foreign language-speaking personnel, establishing a foreign in the insurance department, employing academicians, training personnel, employing people in accordance with the legislation (for state hospitals), employing personnel with certification in the field of health tourism. Activities on patient rights and ethics are as follows; establishing a patient rights and ethics unit, using the form method in foreign languages, having an ethics committee in the hospital, providing foreign patients with the same rights as Turkish patients, providing interpreter support, enlightening the patient before the procedure and imposing penal sanctions on to personnel who do not comply with ethical rules. The activities determined regarding the infrastructure of the hospital are as follows; establishing a department related to health tourism, having direction signs in foreign languages, having TV channels in foreign languages, having places of worship, having holy books of all religions, providing clergy from outside, having special areas for accompanying persons, having 2-language English and Turkish warnings in the rooms, having a meal menu, having VIP rooms and keep a guide. It was determined that the participants were aware of the supports related to financial incentives in health tourism, but did not benefit from all of them. Among other activities determined on health tourism; medical visa, customer relationship management activities, complaints assessment, sent invitations to foreign patients, increasing the academic and theoretical work, making the presentation of Turkey, implementation of all kinds of sanctions in the payment of the service received to the patient, there are activities such as.

The determined medical tourism activities are valid only in the hospitals within the sample. Although the findings can be partially transferred to similar situations, new studies should be conducted in larger samples and different regions. In order to get the place, it deserves in Turkey's health tourism weightiness should be given to this issue, it is necessary to increase the academic studies on the subject. Since the research shows that the number of hospitals benefiting from financial incentives in health tourism is low, it may be recommended to work on financial incentives in health tourism for future studies.

*Research article***Examining the dispossession concept through market inalienability:
Mabo v Queensland (No 2)**

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Received date: 08.03.2021 **Accepted date:** 05.05.2021

Suggested citation: Erdem, F.B. (2021). Examining the dispossession concept through market inalienability: Mabo v Queensland (No 2). *Journal of Politics, Economy and Management* 4(1), 17-24.

Abstract: This article presents a critique of the contemporary capitalist system, which promotes to trade every single item in accordance with the desire of people independent of the transferability of items by scrutinizing Radin's market inalienability perspective to prevent dispossession. The applicability of the market inalienability argument in the context of the land law is argued in theory. The legal struggle of Aborigines has been considered by the Mabo case by enucleating the relationship between land and people from the historical and philosophical point of view in theory.

Keywords: Land rights, Dispossession, Market-inalienability

JEL Code: K00

“Successful theft thus presupposes a system of principles of ownership while also violating that system of principles of ownership. Therefore, thefts are incoherent expressions of freedom.”

Georg Wilhelm Friedrich HEGEL (Beiser, 1993, p. 249)

1. Introduction

This article aims to investigate the influence of the market-inalienability theory by Margaret Radin (1987) on the perception of preventing dispossession by considering the Mabo v Queensland (No 2) case (1992). A considerable amount of literature has been published on the concept of dispossession to draw a frame for several controversial issues in terms of law, economics, sociology, and philosophy. However, this study investigates the dispossession concept under general theories about land law such as Marx's primitive accumulation, Harvey's accumulation by dispossession, and Locke's labor theory of property. After defining crucial terms for a better understanding of the matter, this study will subsequently continue with a critical summary of Radin's market-inalienability concept to establish a connection with the concept of dispossession.

Radin alleges that universal commodification is playing a key role in society up to some extent with respect to market-inalienability by inspecting the essential merchantable items. This study exhaustively discusses what would have happened if land properties were not the subject of the common market. This debate is still controversial and much disputed like timeless songs. However, there has been little discussion between the acquisition of land and dispossession under market inalienability theory. The relationship between people and their rights on their lands varies across the culture of the society. One of the most well-known but unorthodox examples regarding dispossession and the lack of the land title is the Mabo Case, which addressed a truly specific connection with the

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land from the perspectives of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. Using the theory of market-inalienability might offer a solution to prevent dispossession by accepting the property as a nonmarket item under some circumstances.

Since people adopted a sedentary life, land has always been one of the main reasons for many significant events in history such as wars and poverty (Johnson & Toft, 2017). To date, there has been very little agreement on the relationship between men and land. Machiavelli accordingly gave one of the most stunning examples in his masterpiece, *The Prince*, to define the relation between the people and the property. He displayed the vague relationship between man and his property in the 16th century and he demonstrated the importance of the land for people by advising the Prince with the following sentence: "... If it is necessary to execute anyone, this should be done only if there is a proper justification and obvious reason. But, above all, he must not touch the property of others, because men forget sooner the killing of a father than the loss of their patrimony..." (Machiavelli, 1998, p. 59). From a different angle, it is safe to say that every human being has a connection with the property because they have to be at somewhere physically. Starting from this point of view, it can be established a link between dispossession and market-inalienability by considering the exigency of land. It would accordingly not be wrong to say that dispossession would likely harm both previous and existing landowners because it happens in the absence of law. In another saying, more precisely, the law as an assurance of the protection of property would likely be wangled to form a basis for dispossession practice (Fraleay, 2017, pp. 517-38; Sabri, 2012, pp. 2678-81).

2. Definitions for most visited concepts: Commodification, inalienability, and dispossession

There is a need for making clear definitions concerning the repeated terms throughout this paper regarding the terms of commodification, inalienability, and dispossession. First, the term commodification, in the simplest terms, has come to be used to refer to the transforming process of something into a commodity. It has also known as 'exchanges through which something "human" or "inalienable" becomes valued for its commodity exchange value in a market (Oliver & Robison, 2017, p. 1317).' Whereas commodification refers to the transformation process making things marketable, inalienability is a conception making unable to sell, buy or transfer things. Hence, commodification and inalienability are poles apart from each other (Block, 1999, p. 37).

The above-mentioned definitions are close to those of Radin who defined the concept of inalienability as the right the selling or transferring property by the proprietor. She accordingly defined universal commodification as a free-market exchange conducted by people's own volition (Radin, 1987, pp. 1849-1937). In this regard, Block gave a stunning example to show the danger of universal commodification by compelling people to think whether and to what extent justice is an alienable object. The richer side of the case and can judge can bargain in this context for appraising the justice (Block, 1999, p. 42). However, the main weakness of this example is the failure to address that nobody can trade anything in the absence of justice. In spite of the fact that one can easily disconfirm Block's example, it would likely be wrong to turn a deaf ear to the rationale behind his example, which is attaching blindly to the exercise of universal commodification would most probably bring along detrimental impacts.

Finally, dispossession can be defined as "what happens when populations lose their land, their citizenship, their means of livelihood, and become subject to military and legal violence (Butler & Athanasiou, 2013, p. 3)." Throughout this paper, the term dispossession in its simplest form will refer to an action of debarring people from their properties. The issue of dispossession has received considerable critical attention by the expansionist policies of governments. This was one of the significant reasons to force indigenous people in Australia to leave their land, which is the central thesis of this paper.

3. The Market-Inalienability Theory of Radin

The notion of universal commodification and market-inalienability have been scrutinized together with their contingent damages on the development of humanity by Radin to demonstrate under which circumstances universal commodification can be adopted. She accordingly stated that universal commodification would be accepted as long as all necessary conditions to protect personhood are provided by not commodifying things, which matter for humanity's development (Radin, 1987). To concretize the issue, she defined two types of property that are personal and fungible according to the characteristic of properties. Personal property exists if it has a personal attachment, and consequently, it is impossible to detach this property by not harming the personhood. As to the non-personal properties, they are fungible properties, which are enabled to be commodified.

Whether and to what extent land is a fungible object raises an issue in the literature and this paper. For example, Park defines that land as a fungible commodity in terms of dispossession in colonial America (Park, 2016, pp. 1006-35). However, on the other hand, the Mabo case shows that land is not always a fungible property. Chicago school lines up with the universal commodification by finding any legal interventions into the laissez-faire markets will be inconvenient and prima facie bad.² Many other prominent scholars from the Chicago school such as Posner and Becker accordingly highlighted that putting inalienable properties on the market would likely cause more market failures (Block, 1999, p. 41). Overall, in the literature on dispossession, the relative importance of the market-inalienability concept would presumably be subject to considerable demand.

Market-inalienability brings with a double bind. On the one hand, employing market inalienability theory would most likely hinder poor and oppressed people to reach food, shelter, and health care. However, on the other side of the coin, the lack of market-inalienability would cause oppression by entailing a competitive environment to disturb the whole balance between destitute and wealthy people. An incomplete commodification suggested by Radin would likely be one of the most persuasive solutions to this double bind. According to her pluralist view, if things are important to personhood, they should not be commodified and subjected to the market (Murray, 1987, pp. 30-38; Radin, 1987, pp. 1855-58). She examined the concept of personhood under three titles namely freedom, identity, and contextuality (Radin, 1987, pp. 1903-09). These titles which will be commented on in the following section, are necessary to develop a better understanding of what rights are required to bestow people to reflect their free wills into nature.

4. Critiques

The comments regarding the definition of the property concept have radically differed several times by now. A considerable amount of literature has been published on the property. Proudhon describes the concept of property as a robbery (Proudhon, 1947, p. 11), whereas Russell defines property as a must for security and freedom (Russell, 2004). Throughout this process, the meaning of the relationship between man and nature and between man and man have both deepened and eroded. However, in any case, access to nature by property rights should be regarded as both a physical and social need for people. That is why almost all countries secure property rights by their constitutional charters. This is also regulated by Article 1 of *Protocol 1 to the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms* as:

Every natural or legal person is entitled to the peaceful enjoyment of his possessions. No one shall be deprived of his possessions except in the public interest and subject to the conditions provided for by law and by the general principles of international law. The preceding provisions shall not, however, in any way impair the right of a State to enforce such laws as it deems necessary to control the use of property in accordance with the general interest or to secure the payment of taxes or other contributions or penalties.

² Chicago school, as a vigorous advocate of neoliberalism, asserts that there is a need to determine a market price for every commodifiable thing. See, Ertman & Williams (2005, pp. 10-11).

In fact, since the concept of property is multifaceted, it is very difficult to make an agreed standard definition. It is consequently significant to point out the historical development process of the property. The first serious discussion and analysis of the concept of property emerged in the 17th century by Lock, who pioneered the philosophy of property. Before Locke and his property theory, the general belief about the property was to be created by states. In contrast to this widespread belief, Locke claimed that property is the source of the state, and consequently, the state aims to protect property to protect itself (Locke, 1690, pp. 106-12). This argument particularly illustrates that the existence of property rights did not supervene upon the formation of states.

According to Locke, people will have the right on the property as long as they use the land by contributing their labor. He accordingly argues why people should take their share of common property for three reasons. First, as food and shelter are required to meet the right to life, people are required to have land to access food and shelter as a natural result of the right to life. Secondly, when somebody takes common property, it does not mean that the land is dispossessed because the property will become waste if it is not available for human use as people are naturally unproductive. Locke also added that the yield of a property is low for common property. To sum up, labor is the provision to have property rights on the land. Therefore, Locke removed all borders regarding property rights to secure the unlimited accumulation of the capital by emphasizing the labor on the property.

While Locke has tried to legitimize the concept of private property, Marx (2003, p 82, pp. 713-15) antithetically described private property as the most characteristic feature of capitalist society and the basic reason for alienation and restriction. The existence of the private property phenomenon is the basis of social conflict and class contradictions. From the Marxist angle, property rights bestow owners to usufructuary rights (Erdem, 2018, p. 450). When a property is an inseparable part of a person's life, it should not be put into the market issue (Sichel, 1972, pp. 355-60). Here, market-inalienability might be used to prevent dispossession to prevent commodity fetishism, which turns properties into human spiritless objects (Maurer, 1999, pp. 365-85).

The liberal economy makes it possible to earn large amounts of money to stir up people's interests in belongings. These interests are also designed by the market because again, the market decides the types of products and their prices, not customers or producers. Hence, one can assume that market dependence would obstruct freedom. This conjecture is the mainstay of Marx's opinion. Primitive accumulation began with the forced seizure of labor. It happened when the masses of the people are expelled with dispossession that results in a continuous accumulation, which is necessary to turn the wheels of capitalism (Marx, 2003, pp. 667-725).

From another perspective, Hegel defines property as a precondition for being a person who acts freely. Therefore, the property should be an alienable object on the understanding that it must be external (Maurer, 1999, pp. 365-85). As maintained by Kant, the subjective condition to use the external object of our will is property. Hence, prohibition of using land would equivalent to the restriction of freedom. It can be fairly said that Hegel and Kant both adopted a separatist strategy that includes that all detachable things from a person should be alienable.³ To sum up, the property should be regarded as a prerequisite for fulfilling the personality and representing people's will to nature.⁴

³ Kant also rejected the liberal motto of "laissez-faire et laissez-passer" by driving forward the moral rules in this regard. For further information, see Byrd and Hruschka (2006 cited by Ashgate, 2006).

⁴ The source of respect to people is the property, which is also the source of self-fulfillment. This approach is close to thoughts of Hegel, who define property as following sentences: "The rationale of property is to be found not in the satisfaction of needs but in the supersession of the pure subjectivity of personality. In his property a person exists for the first time as reason. Even if my freedom is here realized first of all in an external thing, and so falsely realized, nevertheless abstract personality in its immediacy can have no other embodiment save one characterized by immediacy." It would not be wrong to say that the term of market-inalienability is the reflection of Hegelian philosophy because the notion of personhood is put in the center of property right in either case. For further reading, see Hegel (2008, p. 58).

The ownership of the land may change in time but the acreage of the land will always remain the same. The land is not a structure that can be produced by people, but the human-made market is. The notion of the free market economy becomes increasingly charming each passing day. People would likely desire to buy and sell everything in the absence of paternalism and this would badly affect human flourishing by fostering prostitution or baby-selling practices as exemplified by Radin. Overall, basic dimensions of life should not be a part of the market by considering the market-inalienability concept. Hence, some properties should be regarded as inalienable because they may legitimize and quote a price to slavery, prostitution so on, and so forth.⁵

Polanyi (1957) identified labor, land, and money are fictitious commodities by mentioning that these cannot be commodified. However, commodification for this triad would likely be the only way to organize their supply. These three figures must be saleable and alienable to maintain continuous production as the requirement of capitalism. Lefebvre (1976) also asserted that capitalism survives through space production. Furthermore, lands were commodified because of this reason in our current system. People are even commodified and become commercial objects, for example, insurance companies insure parts of the human body and they set prices for them. Harvey's theory of accumulation by dispossession also states that capitalism constantly demolishes and creates itself as it can bring more profit (Harvey, 2005). Overall, capitalism consequently needs dispossession for accumulation.⁶

To establish the concepts of dispossession and market-inalienability, it would probably be useful to examine the process of acquiring the land. It is futile to discuss dispossession on land where has not been acquired by someone. Historically, legal ways to colonize territory throughout the 1700s are conquest, cession, and settlement.⁷ As an example, indigenous people who occupied Australia at least 50,000 years ago (Bergström et al., 2016) have a closed economic system and their relationship with the land is completely different from the European perspective because Aborigines do not need to build a house and cultivate the land. Therefore, British colonies thought that Aborigines have no sense of ownership and in this context, they confiscated the land without any payment or agreement. Afterward, they declared that Australia was nobody's land and took the land. In other words, when British invaders settled in Australia, they captured indigenous' lands by claiming the terra-nullius. Then, most of the indigenous people were dispossessed.

The land has been repeatedly occupied in this way. To iron this dilemma out, the Torrens system was used in Australia to create a clean title on land using curtains, mirrors, and insurance principles (Keenan, 2017, pp. 87-108). It provides a clean, but artificial title. Regarding the mirror principle, what has been registered as an official is undeniable for people. To put it differently, the written thing is trusted. As to the curtain principle, the current owner is protected by applying the curtain principle. Previously entitled people no longer claim a right on the land. British invaders used this source for acquiring land from Australian indigenous. Hence, applying a curtain principle means dispossession for previous owners. As to the insurance principle, the damage caused by unintended consequences is taken under protection with this principle. Under the Torrens system, the land title was to follow the ownership model applied to vessels. Through registration, moveable and landed properties could be made autonomous of their previous owners, drawing their "legal legitimacy, and

⁵ On the other side of the coin, even if slavery or prostitution would not be respectable for human flourishing, they would be efficient and acceptable in market methodology because in theory, they would likely be a chance for poor people who may suffer from starvation. From this point of view, it might be logical to allow people to sell their properties because their right of usufruct contains a right to sell.

⁶ Chakravarty and Silva cited Harvey's theory of accumulation by dispossession that neoliberal thoughts are new territories acquisition. See, Chakravarty and Ferreira da Silva 'Accumulation, Dispossession, and Debt: The Racial Logic of Global Capitalism – An Introduction' (2012).

⁷ According to Whitmore, there are five legal ways to colonialize territory that is known as the doctrine of the acquisition of territory: occupation, conquest, prescription, cession and accretion are the ways to acquire the land. See, Whitmore (1896).

thus their marketability, from the singular act of registration (Keenan, 2017).” The writing was fortified as the origin of law, including the law of property (Vismann, 2008, pp. 1-39).

The most prominent issue in the violation of indigenous people’s rights brought to the UN Human Rights Committee is the violation of the rights on the land (Ksentini, 1994). In this regard, Mabo Case will also benefit from making a brief statement for indigenous people’s rights on their lands. In 1770, British Captain Cook declared the current Australian territory as a territory belonging to the United Kingdom. It was subsequently decided to establish a colony in this new port zone as a penal colony. As a result of this, most of the indigenous people were removed from their living areas for long ages. Despite the fact that legal ties between England and Australia came to an end, indigenous people were victimized until 1992. Mabo's decision in 1992 made it possible to claim land ownership for indigenous people if they prove their historical and tribal traditional ties with their lands. Although it looks instrumental, it always contains a risk that there is a kind of recognition (Watson, 2002, pp. 253-69).⁸

If market-inalienability is accepted in terms of indigenous people’s lands, the same problems would likely be avoided in advance. As indigenous people do not properly use the concept of money, it is unfair to think that they require making payments for their land. Under this circumstance, market-inalienability might be useful to protect indigenous people’s rights on their properties. On the other hand, formal title breathes life into dead assets and transforms them into capital. This approach eschews a substantive role for the state in implementing redistribution of land and related resources, restricting the state’s role simply to that of a facilitator of transactions between willing sellers and willing buyers (Musambi, 2007, pp. 1457-78). In the opinion of Soto, if a formal property system is applied for assets, this becomes more effective and secure for the capitalist system. For capital accumulation, the relation between capital and the land must be continuous and expanded. The increase of private property relations may be a solution for underdeveloped countries by making money with this transaction (Home, 2004). From another perspective, fictitious ownership of land is just about the manipulation of paper (Pottage, 1994, p. 361). People cannot be sure of a place in which has already been taken because a title is not the legal basis of possession.

On the contrary, possession is the legal basis of title. Thus, the title would be seen as relative and unreliable. From another perspective, Park (2016, pp. 1006-35) defines that land is a fungible commodity in terms of dispossession in colonial America. In fact, by considering Locke’s labor theory based on agricultural production, dispossessions against indigenous people in the United States and Australia would probably be acceptable (Davies, 2007). They used their lands with their resources but in the perspective of Locke, they used their lands inefficiently. Hence, it can be considered that colonial powers have the right to settle for establishing plantations.

5. Conclusion

This article critically discussed the market inalienability approach of Radin and its correlation with the property. To get straight to the point, being a man of property is always risky because the value and the recognition of property are constantly changing based on numerous parameters. In this context, while the States are on the side of providing the right of property, citizens are on the side of benefiting from this right. In fact, the main aim of all legal systems is firstly to provide this assurance to establish and protect their authorities because, at the end of the day, States and their citizens share the same fate.

Land as a humanitarian need is in the essence of confusion between people and property. Even if the property right is constitutionally provided to every single citizen, walking in thorny ways is required to reach this right. Therefore, it is requisite to level the playing field to the citizens

⁸ The concept of property right is fully alienable and consequently, everybody has right to have property by using, selling or leasing it. However, having a right to property is entirely complex. It is problematic whether it is enough to put in a claim on the land by using this property or having a warranty deed.

concerning the property rights by States to ensure the development of personhood by either adopting market inalienability or another policy. Although it is hopeful to see the return of Aborigines to their lands, it seems not possible to deny the reality of the current dispossession threats imposed by the current economic system.

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Research article

The impacts of family background on children's educational attainment and earnings

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Received date: 03.04.2021 **Accepted date:** 05.05.2021**Suggested citation:** Duman, E. (2021). The impacts of family background on children's educational attainment and earnings. *Journal of Politics, Economy and Management* 4(1), 25-37.

Abstract: This study analyzes the parental schooling and income impacts on their children's outcomes that to a large extent determine the standard of living they achieve in the future: educational attainment and earnings. OLS estimations of child schooling and child earnings regressions are conducted. The results point to a strong positive relationship between children's outcomes and their family background characteristics. The estimated strong intergenerational links promise children of highly educated and wealthy parents a high standard of living while doom children of low educated and poor parents to enjoy a lower quality of life. Persistency in intergenerational links found in this study proves to be an obstacle in overall economic development which may call for the government to generate policies that break the harmful intergenerational links either through providing equal opportunity in accessing education for low-income/low educated families' children or through redistributing income across poor families that help them invest more in their children's human capital.

Keywords: Intergenerational Mobility, Human Capital, Personal Income**JEL Codes:** D31, J24, J62

1. Introduction

The intergenerational schooling and income mobility literature present evidence on the non-negligible impacts of parental characteristics on their children's educational attainment and income². Each branch mainly documents either causal relations or mere correlations between positions of parents in their income or years of schooling distributions and the corresponding positions of their children in their distributions. The intrinsic value of this effort stems from the fact that strong intergenerational schooling or income links may be detrimental to economic growth and hurt children with low educated or poor parents via limiting their chances of living a decent quality of life in the future. The findings of strong intergenerational schooling associations of Johnson and Stafford (1973) and Leibowitz (1974) combined with the implication of the human capital theory of Ben-Porath (1967), which suggests that educational attainment is a key determinant of an individual's lifetime earnings, doom unlucky children of low educated parents in terms of promising them lower levels of future earnings and in turn a lower standard of living. A similar conclusion using intergenerational income links is drawn by Mayer (2010): children of poor families achieve lower levels of schooling and earn less in their adulthood compared to children of wealthy families. The long-lasting devastating consequences of strong intergenerational education or income links require studying whether the links are persistent and causal. If a persistent pattern in intergenerational links can be depicted, then a

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² For a survey of international results on education and income mobility see Holmlund, Lindahl and Plug (2011), and Mayer (2010). For recent national education mobility estimates in Turkish context see Aydemir and Yazici (2019), and Duman (2021a). For income mobility estimates in Turkish context see Duman (2021b).

government may intervene by redistributing income among poor households to the extent that investing in their children's human capital becomes affordable or the government may directly invest in the human capital of children from vulnerable households to fight against income inequality and poverty that may arise in the future among the generation of today's youngsters.

The main empirical challenge in this context is a consistent estimation of intergenerational mobility coefficients. The estimated intergenerational schooling coefficient may be confounded by systematic differences in parental income which comoves with the education level of the parents. That is, higher educated parents may earn more than less educated parents since the skills they acquire in the school may be rewarded highly in the labor market. The higher educated parents, thanks to their higher wealth level, may invest more in their children's education and may provide suitable environments that enhance the learning processes of their children. Ability is another confounder of the intergenerational schooling relation. More able parents may obtain more years of schooling than less able parents, and in the presumption that ability is genetically transmitted from parents to their children, more able parents are more likely to have children of high intellectual capacity who eventually obtain more years of schooling than children of less able/less-educated parents. Analogously, the ability is a confounder of the intergenerational income mobility coefficient estimate. If these confounders are not accounted for, the estimated intergenerational links become merely associations. Studies that try to abstract from such confounding effects in estimating intergenerational linkages use either samples restricted to identical twin fathers (or mothers) and their children (see Holmlund, Lindahl, & Plug, 2011; Behrman and Rosenzweig, 2002), adoptee parents, and adopted children (see for a survey of results Holmlund *et al.*, 2011) or IV estimation strategies. Black, Devereux, and Salvanes (2008) are a perfect example in this context where they identify exogenous variation in parental education through instrumenting with a schooling reform that increases compulsory schooling from seven to nine years in Norwegian municipalities at different periods between 1959 and 1973. The two years increase in the schooling of parents that comply with the reform is independent of their innate ability and constitutes the exogenous part of parental schooling that is used as identifying variation. Black *et al.* (2008) estimate the null effect of father's schooling and statistically significant low positive effect of mother's schooling on offspring's educational attainment. Solon (1992) implements OLS and IV estimation techniques to bound the true intergenerational income correlation from the bottom and above, respectively. He concludes that the true correlation in the log earnings of fathers and their sons is around 0.4.

This study differentiates from the intergenerational education and income mobility literature in trying to consistently estimate the effects of both parental characteristics (schooling and income) simultaneously on each child outcome separately. A combination of empirical strategies presented in Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) and Shea (2000) is used to achieve this goal. This study also contributes to the scarce literature on the impacts of parental characteristics on their children's outcomes in the Turkish context.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes in detail the empirical methodologies of Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) and Shea (2000) that this paper benefits from in identification and provides a summary of international findings. Section 3 describes the dataset used and presents some descriptive statistics. In section 4 results are presented and lastly, section 5 concludes.

2. Literature review and estimation issues

This paper adopts largely from Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) and Shea (2000) in identification. In a nutshell, Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) focus on consistent estimation of intergenerational schooling correlations while Shea (2000) focuses on consistent estimation of intergenerational income correlations. This paper creatively combines empirical methodologies of both studies to achieve a consistent estimation of parental schooling and income effects in a context where child schooling/earnings is a function of both parental characteristics. Both studies assume that a child's unobserved schooling (earnings) endowments are stochastically determined by their parents' earnings

(schooling) endowments. The studies differ in how they account for parents' endowments: Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) regresses parental income on years of schooling and experience of the parent and takes the residual as a measure of heritable earnings endowment of the parent; Shea (2000) favors using an instrument such as union membership that captures variation in parental income that is exogenous to the parent's schooling endowments. Next, the details of their estimation strategies are explained.

Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) try to consistently estimate the intergenerational schooling impacts. They try to take care of the ability bias by making use of a sample consisting of twin fathers and their children and twin mothers and their children, respectively. To account for assortative mating³ they add both parents' years of schooling separately in the estimation equation.

$$S_{ij}^c = \gamma_1 S_j + \gamma_2 S_j^s + \mu_1 h_j + f_j + \mu_2 h_j^s + \epsilon_{ij}^c \quad (1)$$

Above is the equation that is estimated by Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) to estimate the impact of parental schooling on children's educational attainment. S_{ij}^c represents the years of schooling of the child i in family j , S_j is the mother's years of schooling in family j , S_j^s is the father's years of schooling in family j , h_j are mother's heritable earnings endowments, f_j is mother's childrearing ability, h_j^s is father's heritable earnings endowments, and ϵ_{ij}^c is an orthogonal error term.

$$H_{ij} = \beta S_{ij} + \pi E_{ij} + h_{ij} + v_{ij} \quad (2)$$

This equation represents the earnings equation of parents and is used by Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) to obtain the unobservable heritable earnings endowments that are needed in equation (1). H_{ij} is the log of earnings of individual i in family j , S_{ij} are the total years of schooling of individual i in family j , E_{ij} represents the experience of individual i in family j , h_{ij} is the heritable earnings endowments of individual i in family j and v_{ij} represents an orthogonal error term.

In equation (1) since ϵ_{ij}^c is an orthogonal error term (i.e., cannot include child's ability because child's ability is assumed to be correlated with his/her parents' education due to the genetic transmission of ability), the child's endowments must be captured by his parents' endowments and this is how Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) incorporate stochastically determined endowments assumption into their estimation equation. In this equation, the parents' schooling coefficients, when controlled for their endowments, estimate the effects of environmental inputs on their children's education. These environmental inputs include the time allocations made by parents to their children, the parental skill in parenting, and good inputs to their children's human capital.

There are two problems present in the intergenerational schooling equation that may result in biased estimates. First, a parent's schooling is correlated with his/her endowment. Unless the coefficients of parents' endowments are estimated to be zero in equation (1) omitting them would result in biased estimation of parental schooling coefficients. That is, instead of being genetically transmitted if a child's endowments are determined by a random shock, then the intergenerational schooling estimates would be unbiased. Second, a parent's schooling is correlated with the endowments of the spouse due to nonrandom matching in the marriage market. Both problems present challenges in consistently estimating the intergenerational schooling impacts.

Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) make use of a sample consisting of twin male and twin female parents and their children to consistently estimate the schooling coefficients. They have 668 identical twin pairs born in Minnesota between 1936 and 1955 of whom 424 are female twin pairs and 244 are

³ This is an assumption that says matching in marriage market is not random: people marry those who are more like them. In intergenerational education mobility context, assortative mating translates to more educated mothers marrying more educated fathers.

male twin pairs. Each one of the twins has a child at least 18 years old during the study. By differencing identical female twins' children's educational attainment regression equations, they get rid of the mother's heritable earnings endowment and childrearing ability since identical twins have the same genetic code and thus, the same endowments and in the literature, the intergenerational schooling relation is assumed to be a linear one. Still, the father's unobserved heritable earnings endowment biases the schooling coefficients of both parents. One remedy may be to include the father's income in equation (1) but Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) find it unappealing due to the strong correlation between paternal schooling and paternal income. Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) use equation (2) to find the father's heritable earnings endowments and insert the estimated paternal earnings endowment into equation (1). However, the residual obtained by subtracting the effects of schooling and experience from earnings contain both father's heritable earnings endowment h and a noise term v . If v is mostly measurement error or an independently and identically distributed shock then the residual obtained from equation (2) measures endowments with an error which leads to biases in schooling mobility coefficients (Behrman & Rosenzweig, 2002). They come up with the idea that since v is orthogonal to paternal schooling in equation (2) and in addition, is not heritable, excluding v from equation (2) would result in a residual which only captures father's unobserved heritable earnings endowments and using this residual in equation (1) does not bias the estimated effect of father's schooling on his children's schooling unless couples sort on v in the marriage market. This is the methodology being used to estimate intergenerational schooling coefficients when the sample consists of twin mothers. When twin fathers are used as the sample, a similar approach is used with a slight difference. By differencing identical male twins' children's schooling equations, they get rid of the father's heritable earnings endowments. Mother's earnings endowment can be estimated using the residual method explained before. However, a mother's childrearing ability is still not accounted for and biases the intergenerational schooling estimates. Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) suggest that if childrearing ability and paternal schooling are positively correlated in the population, then the father's schooling estimate would be upward biased. It is expected to obtain higher estimates for paternal schooling if estimated using male twins sample instead of being estimated using female twins sample (Behrman & Rosenzweig, 2002). They use this comparison as a robustness check for their results. Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) find a significant positive effect for a father's schooling and a significant negative effect for a mother's schooling. The negative significant effect for mother's schooling is what distinguishes Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) from other twin studies in the literature which find no effect for mother's schooling.

Shea (2000) tries to exploit an exogenous variation in parental income to identify a causal intergenerational income effect. He argues that a child's income depends on two variables: human capital and luck. The human capital of a child consists of things like innate ability, manual dexterity, education, work ethic, etc. Some of the components of human capital are observable like education and some are not. Shea (2000) also argues that the human capital of a child depends on the human capital and income of his/her parents.

$$Y_i = H_i + L_i \quad (3)$$

$$H_i = \rho H_{i-1} + \gamma Y_{i-1} + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

In (3), Y_i represents the child's income, H_i represents the child's human capital and L_i stands for the luck component. In (4), a child's human capital depends on parents' human capital H_{i-1} , parents' income Y_{i-1} and an orthogonal error term ε_i . In (4), Shea (2000) argues that H_{i-1} represents the genetic transmission of ability from parents to the child. Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) compare to Shea (2000) in assuming transmission of ability among generations. Shea (2000) argues that innate ability is a part of someone's human capital and a child's human capital depends on his parents' human capital via the intergenerational ability transmission channel. Therefore, equation (4) implies that a child's unobserved ability is stochastically determined by his parents' abilities and this is also in line with Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002). By combining (3) and (4) we get:

$$Y_i = \rho H_{i-1} + \gamma Y_{i-1} + L_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (5)$$

This equation tells us that a child's income depends on his parents' human capital, parental income, and the child's luck. The error term ε_i is orthogonal to parental attributes since it is orthogonal to parental attributes in equation (4). Estimating equation (5) with OLS using child's log of earnings as dependent variable and father's log of earnings as the independent variable of interest results in biases since high able parents may earn more and due to genetic transmission of ability may have high ability children who earn more as well. The correlation between a parent's unobserved heritable endowments and his/her income causes biases in all coefficients. Shea (2000) considers parental income as the only endogenous variable in her model; however, Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) argue that in addition to parental income, parental schooling which is part of parental human capital is also endogenous in this context. Shea (2000) argues that estimating (5) with OLS results in an upward bias in the estimate of parental income because parental income and parental endowments are positively correlated and parental endowments which form the endowments of children are also positively correlated with child's income.

Shea (2000) decomposes a parent's income into a parent's human capital and a parent's luck.

$$Y_{i-1} = H_{i-1} + L_{i-1} \quad (6)$$

$$H_{i-1} = \alpha_1 X_{i-1} + u_{i-1}^H \quad (7)$$

$$L_{i-1} = \beta_1 X_{i-1} + \beta_2 Z_{i-1} + u_{i-1}^L \quad (8)$$

Parent's human capital H_{i-1} consists of observable parental attributes X_{i-1} like education and experience and unobservable characteristics u_{i-1}^H like schooling endowments. The parental luck component L_{i-1} can be decomposed into observable parental attributes X_{i-1} and some other observable attributes Z_{i-1} which form the basis for the instrumental variable and an unobservable component which is denoted by u_{i-1}^L . Shea (2000) tries to capture a variation in income that is orthogonal to parent's heritable endowments. The justification of using IV estimation comes from the assumption that conditional on observables X_{i-1} , Z_{i-1} is orthogonal to the unobserved schooling endowment u_{i-1}^H that is transferred across generations. The exogenous variation in the father's income is due to factors like union, industry, and job loss that represent luck. By plugging equation (7) into equation (5), Shea (2000) achieves the final regression equation which is estimated by instrumenting parental income Y_{i-1} with Z_{i-1} :

$$Y_i = \rho \alpha_1 X_{i-1} + \rho u_{i-1}^H + \gamma Y_{i-1} + L_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (9)$$

Shea (2000) uses PSID data and focuses on the father's income as the independent variable and his children's income as the dependent variable. The bias in equation (9) arises due to the correlation between heritable father's endowment u_{i-1}^H and father's income. The estimation strategy adopted in this paper differentiates from Shea (2000) by proxying parent's schooling endowment u_{i-1}^H instead of instrumenting Y_{i-1} due to data limitations. The proxy measure is achieved by applying Behrman and Rosenzweig's (2002) method of estimating the residual from a regression of parental income on parental schooling and age. The implicit assumption in applying this strategy is a strong positive correlation between earnings and schooling endowments: high able parents with more schooling endowments are more likely to acquire more schooling, in return are more likely to create large labor market networks (i.e., high earnings endowments) that benefit them obtaining high paying jobs.

Shea (2000) concludes that the OLS estimate of intergenerational income correlation is 0.136 which is significant at 5%. IV estimate is indistinguishable from zero. The OLS estimate of father's income effect on children's total years of schooling is 0.373 and it is significant at 5% whereas IV estimate is again zero for children's schooling. Therefore, based on IV estimation results Shea (2000)

concludes that there is no impact of parental income on children's income or children's schooling when father's schooling is accounted for.

3. Data and descriptive statistics

This study exploits variation in child and parent characteristics from a nationally representative annual household survey conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute (2011) "Household Budget Survey". To increase the sample size, I pooled nine waves of the surveys covering the years 2003-2011. The surveys contain information on demographic characteristics including the last finished schooling level, current and previous employment status, earnings both in cash and in-kind from the last 12 months, expenditures, and household asset ownership. The pooled cross-sectional data set contains information on 98,568 households.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Sons Sample		Daughters Sample	
	Fathers	Sons	Fathers	Girls
Age	57.32	28.54	57.67	28.56
Annual earnings	16,350	10,720	16,770	10,136
<i>Education^a</i>				
No qualification	0.097	0.021	0.077	0.059
Low level	0.762	0.501	0.724	0.435
Middle level	0.085	0.320	0.118	0.268
High level	0.054	0.156	0.079	0.237
<i>Occupation^b</i>				
Top executive and managerial	0.163	0.069	0.180	0.039
Professional	0.020	0.053	0.029	0.152
Assistant professional	0.027	0.061	0.040	0.115
Clerical	0.022	0.058	0.032	0.196
Service and sales	0.058	0.155	0.069	0.113
Farmer and livestock workers	0.418	0.189	0.330	0.198
Craftsmen and foremen	0.100	0.179	0.123	0.055
Operatives	0.086	0.119	0.096	0.042
Unskilled labor	0.100	0.113	0.097	0.085
Married	0.97	0.45	0.97	0.10
No. of siblings	-	2.25	-	2.39

Notes: The descriptive statistics are for sons and daughters who have non-missing education and earnings information and who have fathers with non-missing education and earnings information. (a) No qualification represents illiterate individuals. The low level represents individuals who are junior high school graduates or have less than junior high school level education. The middle level represents individuals who have a high school diploma. The high level represents individuals who have a 2-year or 4-year university or master's or Ph.D. diploma. (b) Professions are categorized according to ISCO 88. Sons sample consists of 8,046 father-son pairs. The daughter sample consists of 3,890 father-daughter pairs. The descriptive statistics for sons and girls are for the oldest son and oldest daughter in the household. Annual earnings are in December 2011 Turkish Liras.

Source: Duman (2021a).

The purpose of this study is to quantify the impact of parental attributes (e.g., education and income) on their children's earnings and educational attainment. To achieve this goal, parents and their children should be identified in the sample. Since the dataset is not longitudinal, children who left their parents' households and form their own cannot be matched with their parents. However, the data set allows matching parents and children if they live in the same household. Though, the sample constructed by choosing the households where parents and their children live together may be highly selected and may not be representative of the population.

Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics for children who have non-zero earnings and non-missing information on last finished schooling level and who have fathers with non-zero earnings and non-missing information on last finished schooling level. The samples constitute sons and daughters who are between ages 25 and 34. The descriptive statistics are given for the oldest son or oldest daughter present in the household and their matched fathers. Choosing the oldest son or oldest daughter is to preserve independence across observations and to reduce potential life-cycle bias as individuals in their early ages may have fewer earnings or wages due to having less experience (Zimmerman, 1992). Annual earnings are reported in December 2011 Turkish Lira.

In both samples, the corresponding average age of sons and daughters as well the corresponding average age of fathers in sons' and fathers in daughters' samples are similar. The mean annual earnings of sons are slightly larger than the mean annual earnings of daughters. When the focus is on fathers, the pattern is reversed: fathers in the daughters' sample earn slightly more than fathers in the sons' sample. There is an improvement in educational attainment levels attained moving from the generation of fathers to the generation of their children. In the fathers-sons sample, fathers with lower secondary or less than lower secondary education constitute 76% of all fathers. 8% of the fathers have high school education and only 5% have tertiary education. Around 10% of fathers are illiterate. The illiteracy rate significantly decreases to 2.1% in the sons' generation. The share of sons with lower secondary or less than lower secondary education is around 26 percentage points less than the corresponding figure for their fathers. The high school share increases from 8% to 32% moving from fathers' generation to sons' generation. Lastly, the share of tertiary education tripled in the sons' generation. Similar patterns arise for the fathers-daughters sample with an important difference; fathers in the daughters' sample have a lower share of illiteracy and lower secondary education and have higher shares of high school and tertiary education compared to fathers in the sons' sample. In the fathers-sons sample, 42% of all fathers work as a farmer or livestock worker which most likely implies that these families are located in rural areas. The corresponding figure for the fathers-daughters sample is around 33%. Since the occupational opportunities in rural areas are not that much in number compared to urban areas and on average occupations in rural areas may pay less compared to occupations in urban areas, the fathers in the fathers-sons sample have on average lower annual earnings compared to fathers in the fathers-daughters sample. This observation necessitates controlling for the location of households in child outcome regressions. As expected, a low share of daughters is married in the fathers-daughters sample.

4. Results

In this section, a set of regressions are run to estimate the causal impacts of parental schooling and parental income on their children's schooling and income. The identification strategy depends mainly on Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) and Shea (2000). The identification differs from Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) by allowing parents' income to play a role in determining a child's human capital. This change in identification is also to test Shea's (2000) argument that a child's human capital depends on the human capital of his/her parents and his parents' income. Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) omit father's income in trying to estimate causal parental schooling impacts on children's educational attainment with the argument that father's income and father's schooling are highly correlated and may cause multicollinearity which complicates interpreting the estimated impacts. However, highly educated parents may have high earnings and therefore may invest more in their

children's human capital. In such a scenario, omitting parental income may cause upward biased parental schooling estimates. Shea (2000) controls for father's earnings in trying to estimate causal parental income impacts on children's income and omits mother's earnings. In this study, father's earnings and mother's earnings are summed up and included in the child's schooling and earnings equations because as Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) argue there is non-random matching in the marriage market and, thus father's earnings may be correlated with mother's earnings which in the case of omitting mother's earnings will cause bias in father's earnings estimates. To be able to sum up father's and mother's earnings and include them in the schooling and income equations, the necessary assumption is that there is no bargaining effect in the household which implies that the impact of any additional TL on children's outcomes is the same whether it is provided by the mother or the father. The identification strategy makes the well-known assumption that a child's endowments are stochastically determined by his/her parents' endowments. So, the schooling and income equations of the child include his/her father's and mother's endowments. To account for unobserved heritable parental endowments, the method suggested by Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002)—estimating the residuals from the father's and mother's earnings equation by subtracting the impacts of schooling and experience—is applied. Note that although in the empirical methodology of Shea (2000) consistent estimation of income mobility correlations requires accounting for unobserved parental schooling endowments, this study proxies parental schooling endowments with parental earnings endowments in child's income regressions by assuming a strong correlation between the two. The residuals obtained in this method capture father's and mother's earnings endowments and a part which is assumed to be neither i.i.d. nor measurement error. The residual obtained from the mother's earnings equation does not capture childrearing ability and there is no way to control for mother's childrearing ability. Nevertheless, omitting mother's childrearing ability in child's schooling or income equations causes biased estimates only if the father's schooling or father's income is correlated with the mother's unobserved childrearing ability. It is expected that there is a random matching in the marriage market with respect to the mother's childrearing ability because there is no obvious and observable signal for the mother's childrearing ability that can be matched on by the fathers. Therefore, omitting a mother's childrearing ability is assumed to cause no serious problems in consistently estimating parental income and parental schooling impacts.

$$O_{ij}^c = \gamma_1 S_j + \gamma_2 S_j^s + \gamma_3 I_j + \gamma_4 X_j + \mu_1 h_j + \mu_2 h_j^s + \epsilon_{ij}^c \quad (10)$$

$$I_{ij} = \beta S_{ij} + \pi A_{ij} + h_{ij} + v_{ij} \quad (11)$$

Above are the equations used to estimate the causal parental schooling and income impacts on children's outcomes. O_{ij}^c represents the outcome of the child i in family j (e.g., log of annual earnings and educational attainment), S_j is the mother's educational attainment in family j , S_j^s is the father's educational attainment in family j , I_j is the log of the total of father's and mother's earnings, X_j is a vector of covariates including a dummy indicating whether the family lives in an urban or rural area, and the number of siblings in the household, h_j are mother's heritable earnings endowments, h_j^s is father's heritable earnings endowments, and ϵ_{ij}^c is an orthogonal error term. Equation (11) is used to obtain the heritable earnings endowments of parents. I_{ij} is the log of earnings of individual i in family j , S_{ij} is the educational attainment of individual i in family j , as a proxy measure of experience A_{ij} represents the age of individual i in family j , h_{ij} is the heritable earnings endowments of individual i in family j and v_{ij} represents an orthogonal error term. The educational attainment variable for both parents and their children is an ordinal variable with 11 distinct values. Although the dependent variable in schooling regressions is not a continuous variable, the OLS estimation method was used to estimate the impact of parental characteristics. The ordered logit estimation method is another method commonly used to estimate treatment impacts when the dependent variable is an ordinal variable. However, in this context using the ordered logit estimation method complicates interpreting the coefficients.

Table 2 presents the estimates of parental schooling and parental income effects on their children's educational attainment by investigating the impacts separately for sons and daughters. The first and third columns do not try to account for genetically transmitted ability whereas the second and fourth columns try to account for the genetically transmitted ability by plugging the residuals from equation (11) for fathers and mothers into the child's schooling equation. The dependent variable is the educational attainment of the oldest son/daughter (aged between 25 and 34) in the household who has non-missing information on his/her parents' schooling and earnings. Controlling for father's and mother's endowment does not seem to change the parental schooling coefficients significantly for sons with a slight increase in both father's and mother's schooling coefficients. Controlling for heritable parental endowments slightly decreases the parental schooling estimates for daughters. This result from the daughters sample is in line with the expectation that omitted parental endowments upward biases parental schooling estimates. Nevertheless, parental schooling has a positive significant impact on a child's schooling regardless of the sex of the child. These results are consistent with the findings of Björklund, Lindahl, and Plug (2004) who, with a sample of adoptive parents and adopted children, find positive and significant impacts for father's and mother's schooling on children's schooling.

Table 2. Causal parental schooling and income impacts on children's educational attainment

Variables	Dependent variables			
	(1) son's education	(2) son's education	(3) daughter's education	(4) daughter's education
father's education	0.328*** (0.0400)	0.370*** (0.0421)	0.243*** (0.0574)	0.227*** (0.0712)
mother's education	0.213*** (0.0379)	0.232*** (0.0400)	0.185*** (0.0515)	0.165*** (0.0624)
log of total earnings	0.506*** (0.0936)	0.195 (0.176)	0.951*** (0.200)	1.181** (0.521)
rural	-0.290* (0.159)	-0.317** (0.159)	-1.404*** (0.366)	-1.401*** (0.365)
no of siblings	-0.209*** (0.0492)	-0.198*** (0.0499)	-0.148 (0.122)	-0.153 (0.124)
father's heritable endowment		0.284*** (0.109)		-0.117 (0.359)
mother's heritable endowment		0.0157 (0.0477)		-0.0998 (0.111)
control for genetically transmitted ability	No	Yes	No	Yes
observations	905	900	370	370
R-squared	0.426	0.430	0.467	0.469

Notes: The table presents the impacts of parental income and schooling on the educational attainment of the oldest son/daughter in the household. Heteroskedasticity robust standard errors in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Living in rural areas has significant negative impacts on child's schooling. This may be due to the limited educational opportunities in rural areas or due to children's responsibilities in helping their parents working in the field, taking care of their siblings while their parents are working, etc. The increase in the number of siblings by reducing the available per capita resources in the household

seems to have a long-lasting negative impact on sons (maybe they need to drop out of school to enter the labor force and provide additional income to the household) whereas girls do not seem to be affected by the increase in the number of siblings. Total parental earnings have positive significant impacts for girls whereas the positive impact becomes insignificant for sons once heritable earnings endowments of parents are controlled for. The results on positive parental income impacts on children's educational attainment are in line with Shea (2000). A potential strong correlation between parental endowments and parental earnings may lead to a large drop in statistical precision of total earnings in the sons' sample.

Table 3. Causal parental schooling and income impacts on children's earnings

Variables	Dependent variables			
	(1) son's earnings	(2) son's earnings	(3) daughter's earnings	(4) daughter's earnings
father's education	0.0266 (0.0230)	0.0419 (0.0262)	0.0123 (0.0373)	0.101* (0.0539)
mother's education	0.00496 (0.0217)	0.0166 (0.0240)	0.107*** (0.0343)	0.176*** (0.0434)
log of total earnings	0.155*** (0.0489)	0.0176 (0.124)	0.339** (0.132)	-0.656 (0.430)
rural	-0.201*** (0.0724)	-0.198*** (0.0725)	-0.222 (0.176)	-0.236 (0.173)
no of siblings	-0.0849*** (0.0234)	-0.0778*** (0.0242)	-0.203*** (0.0574)	-0.197*** (0.0580)
father's heritable endowment		0.0843 (0.0850)		0.685** (0.339)
mother's heritable endowment		0.0663** (0.0321)		0.243*** (0.0848)
control for genetically transmitted ability	No	Yes	No	Yes
observations	903	898	370	370
R-squared	0.076	0.081	0.225	0.251

Notes: The table presents the impacts of parental income and schooling on the earnings of the oldest son/daughter in the household. Heteroskedasticity robust standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table 3 presents the estimates of parental schooling and income impacts on their children's earnings by investigating the impacts separately for sons and daughters. When parental earnings endowments are not accounted for, the results suggest positive and significant correlations between total household earnings and child earnings regardless of the gender of the child. When the genetically transmitted ability is controlled for, neither parental schooling nor parental income estimates are significant for sons even though they are all positive. On the other hand, both parents' schooling estimates are significant for daughters with mothers' schooling estimates having a larger coefficient. The drop in effect size of total household earnings coefficients once the genetically transmitted ability is accounted for is in line with parental earnings endowments being positively correlated with parental income.

Table 4 presents the estimates of parental schooling and income impacts on their children's outcomes without separating the sample into sons and daughters, in addition, it is allowed for siblings to take place in the sample. Since siblings live in the same household, they may receive the same

shocks which make their errors correlated. Moulton's (1986) formula is used to address the correlated residuals among siblings. The results suggest that father's and mother's education have significant and positive impacts on children's education and earnings whereas parental earnings do not have a significant impact once genetically transmitted ability is accounted for.

Table 4. Causal parental schooling and income impacts on children's outcomes

Variables	Dependent variables			
	(1) child's education	(2) child's education	(3) child's earnings	(4) child's earnings
father's education	0.318*** (0.0351)	0.353*** (0.0463)	0.0204 (0.0176)	0.0589** (0.0232)
mother's education	0.213*** (0.0353)	0.229*** (0.0362)	0.0427** (0.0178)	0.0346* (0.0182)
log of total earnings	0.590*** (0.0889)	0.325 (0.204)	0.181*** (0.0444)	-0.00367 (0.102)
rural	-0.549*** (0.140)	-0.574*** (0.140)	-0.137** (0.0697)	-0.138** (0.0698)
no of siblings	-0.197*** (0.0465)	-0.194*** (0.0467)	-0.100*** (0.0232)	-0.0923*** (0.0233)
father's heritable endowment		0.254* (0.141)		0.104 (0.0705)
mother's heritable endowment		-0.00240 (0.0531)		0.0907*** (0.0267)
control for genetically transmitted ability	No	Yes	No	Yes
observations	1,372	1,366	1,370	1,364
R-squared	0.447	0.452	0.107	0.112

Notes: The table presents the parental earnings and education impacts on their children's outcomes. The sample includes all children within a household without restricting to the oldest child or without segregating them into boys or girls. Robust standard errors that allow for correlated residuals among siblings are presented in parenthesis. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Conclusion

This study analyzes the parental schooling and income impacts on their children's outcomes that most likely determine the standard of living they achieve in the future: educational attainment and earnings. The sample includes households in which either a son or a daughter aged between 25 and 34 with non-zero earnings and non-missing education have parents with non-zero earnings and non-missing education. Pooled cross-sections of Household Budget Surveys including years 2003-2011 being used as the data source. In main regressions, the sample is restricted to the oldest son/oldest daughter and their parents while in a robustness check the sample includes all siblings in a household. For the latter, consistent estimation of the variance-covariance matrix is achieved via clustering standard errors at the household level.

The evidence presented suggests that parental schooling has a positive significant impact on a child's schooling regardless of the sex of the child. This result is robust to the inclusion of parental earnings endowments in the regression specification. It implies that parental input into a child's human capital in the form of parenting, time allocation, and goods input is beneficial for the child in obtaining

higher levels of education. The evidence presented on the impact of parental earnings on children's outcomes is mixed due to the potential multicollinearity between parental earnings endowments and their income. When the genetically transmitted ability is omitted, parental earnings have significant positive impacts on a child's schooling and earnings. Once parental earnings endowments are accounted for, parental income effects become insignificant which suggests that omitted ability biases the parental schooling and income effects upwards. The evidence presented on the impact of parental schooling on children's earnings is in favor of girls. This may be due to the bargaining effect: with mothers having more education, they may obtain bargaining power and use it in favor of their daughters. The results on parental income and schooling effects are on par with those of Behrman and Rosenzweig (2002) and Shea (2000). Although the evidence presented is mixed, it suggests that it is more probable that higher parental schooling or higher parental income or both benefits the children than being destructive with respect to their educational attainment or earnings. However, the same phenomenon can be interpreted as family background characteristics being strong determinants of a child's two key components of future success, happiness, and prosperity. The estimated strong intergenerational links promise children of highly educated and wealthy parents a high standard of living while doom children of low educated and poor parents to live a poor quality of life in the future. Persistency in intergenerational links found in this study proves to be an obstacle in overall economic development which may call for the government to generate policies that break the harmful intergenerational links either through providing equal opportunity in accessing education for low-income/low educated families' children or through redistributing income across poor families that help them invest more in their children's human capital (Duman, 2021b).

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*Research article***Maritime piracy and its impacts on international trade**Nusret SOĞANCILAR¹

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nsrtsgnclr@gmail.com, ORCID 0000-0002-9729-5372**Received Date:** 17.05.2021 **Accepted Date:** 21.06.2021**Suggested Citation:** Suggested citation: Soğancılar, N. (2021). Maritime piracy and its impacts on international trade. *Journal of Politics, Economy and Management* 4(1), 38-48.

Abstract: Piracy is one of the burning issues that imposes additional costs on international trade and requires immediate actions from the international community for the solution. Pirate incidents such as boarding, hijacking, or firing upon the vessels of shipping companies, not only damage the crews, ships, or cargos but also cause route diversions, delays, and additional costs in international maritime trade. Therefore, both the direct and indirect cost of piracy to industry and its impact on international commerce cannot be ignored. Studies indicate that piracy imposes significant costs on the global economy. On the other hand, pirate activities result in not only economic but also humanitarian affairs. Therefore, regulations and international agreements should be made for the solution of legal issues related to piracy. Most importantly, the roots of the problem must be addressed and the factors that cause and facilitate piracy must be well comprehended.

Keywords: International trade; maritime piracy; maritime crime; maritime commerce.**JEL codes:** F18, F59.**1. Introduction**

Piracy has been an issue for traders since the day humankind commenced to carry out trade activities by the sea. Throughout human history, civilized societies that are located far away and have access to the sea have connected and traded via maritime. Although road and rail are mainly used for inland trade and transportation, they are mostly regarded as too expensive for long-distance shipping. However, even today physical goods are conveyed via maritime for long-distance international destinations despite technological developments. Nowadays, approximately 90 % of world trade is executed by maritime, and in terms of value, 25 % of the trade navigates through shipping routes in which piracy is actively taken place (Chalk, 2008; Bendall, 2010). Therefore, it is likely to consider that maritime piracy is one of the pivotal obstacles to international trade.

Contemporary trade activities by the sea in today's globalized world are exposed to piracy threats and pirate attacks. The number of pirate attacks on the vessels of shipping companies in recent years has soared and this directly increased the shipping costs and indirectly influenced international trade. Even though piracy of today is not a white screen phenomenon in Hollywood, not much study examined the effects and consequences of maritime pirate activities on international trade (Bensassi & Martinez-Zarzoso, 2012; Ece, 2015; Besley, Fetsel, & Mueller, 2015; Burlando, Cristea, & Lee, 2015; Robitaille, 2020).

Piracy can be seen as more of theft or raid on merchant ships (Aydın, Gedik, Uğurlu, & Yıldırım, 2016). The acts of pirates should not only be considered as attacking the ships. The consequences of pirates' illegal acts include kidnapping crews for ransom, damaging ship equipment, and property, or cargo theft (IMB, 2021). These illegal acts not only damage regional trade activities but also global marine transportation and commerce. Pirate attacks against vessels of shipping

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companies take place in the narrow and strategically choke points of waterways such as the Malacca or Singapore Straits, the Suez Canal, Bab el-Mandeb Strait, Gulf of Aden (Ece, 2015).

Chan and Laffargue (2020), mention that the cost of establishing a community that lives on piracy is low, and finding an investor is just as easy. Hence, the number of pirate vessels will increase, and the threat for merchant ships will become unavoidable. Bendall (2010) claims that pirate-invaded waters represent spots that vessels should stay away from and mostly divert the route so that cost of time increases and additional operating expenses are incurred. All these costs affect freight rates and consequently have negative impacts on businesses and customers. Apart from that, there are many other costs induced by security services and insurance premiums of ships navigating through pirate-invaded waters as well as costs of killed, injured, or taken hostage crews. However, it is not easy to calculate the total cost caused by pirate attacks and their impacts on international trade.

The cost of piracy to industry and the impact of pirate attacks on international trade is an undeniable fact. However, within the current literature, comprehensive studies on the economic impacts of maritime piracy are not yet available. Due to the increasing number of piracy incidents in recent years, container ships belonging to shipping companies direct their shipping routes to Cape of Good Hope instead of the Gulf of Aden and the Suez Canal. These circumstances have caused a significant increase in both monetary costs and time (Fu, Ng, & Lau, 2010). Understanding such deficiency is a critical point to start considering the impacts of maritime piracy on the global economy.

This paper aims to review the previous studies in the literature in order to find out and understand the antecedents of piracy and the effects of maritime pirate incidents on international trade. Within this context, the study firstly covers the maritime piracy problem by trying to define the concept and comprehend the motives behind pirate attacks. The next subsection presents the conspectus of piracy in 2020. Then, the study presents the results of the previous studies related to the topic in the literature. Lastly, the paper ends with concluding remarks and suggestions for practitioners.

2. Contemporary maritime piracy

The International Maritime Bureau (IMB, 2021, p.3) defines piracy as “the act of boarding any vessel with intent to commit theft or any other crime, and with an intent or capacity to use force in furtherance of that act”. Besides, one of the renowned scholars Murphy (2009, p.7), defines piracy as “unlawful depredation at sea involving the use or threat of violence, but not necessarily, involving robbery”. Hassan and Hasan (2017) claim that gaining recognition of pirate activities as a crime enables states to apply criminal laws on the seas and justify the use of power to preserve commercial activities by marine from pirate assaults.

Table 1. Piracy or armed robbery attacks

	Definition
Boarded	“An illegal act of perpetrators successfully gaining access on the ship.”
Hijacked	“An illegal act of perpetrators successfully gaining access on the ship and taking over the control of the ship from the Master and the crew.”
Fired Upon	“An illegal act of perpetrators discharging weapons towards the ship while attempting to gain access onto the ship.”
Attempted	“An illegal act of perpetrators attempting to approach a ship with possible intention to board but remain unsuccessful due to the timely actions of the crew.”

Source: IMB, 2021, p.4.

The definition of piracy was first made by the Geneva Convention on the high seas in 1958 and then it was adopted by the UN 1982 Convention (Bendall, 2010). The United Nations Convention on

the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) defines piracy in Article 101 that states “any illegal acts of violence, or detention, or any act of depredation, committed for private ends by the crew or the passengers of a private ship or private aircraft that is directed on the high seas against another ship, aircraft, or against persons or property on board such ship or aircraft” shall be regarded as piracy (IMB, 2021, p.3). Given that, Fu et al. (2010) highlight the fact that “it can be committed against a ship, people, or property in a place outside the jurisdiction of any state, maritime piracy is a typical example of universal jurisdiction”. Piracy or armed robbery incidents reported under the definition of piracy are presented in Table 1.

According to Chalk (2008, pp.5-6), three types of pirate activities are common in today’s global waters. With “anchorage attacks”, pirates target the vessels at harbors taking advantage of comfortable circumstances of ports around the world. These attacks are described by the IMB as a low-level armed robbery that targets confiscating cash and portable items from the crew. The second type of pirate activity takes place in territorial waters or on the high seas where pirates strive to looting and robbing the vessel. These assaults mounted by well-equipped pirates are described by the IMB as medium-level armed robbery involving injuries or casualties. The last type of pirate attack aims at seizing the vessels and involves converting them for illegal trading. These assaults are known as the “phantom ship” phenomenon. These pirate incidents are described by IMB as major criminal hijackings.

However, as argued by Bendall (2010), certain issues related to definition and context exist. The illegal act of piracy must be committed in a place outside the jurisdiction of any state or not subject to any state sovereignty. Hence, it can be considered that maritime piracy involves illegal activities and violence taking place in international waters. In addition to that, the same acts in national waters are regarded as maritime robberies. According to Robitaille (2020), the only difference is the location where the illegal act is committed.

As also mentioned by Hassan and Hasan (2017), domestic laws define the act of piracy differently. While the illegal act must be committed on high seas to qualify as piracy in some national laws such as the US and UK, the act in other national laws (e.g., Australia) must take place on either the high seas or in the territorial waters. Hence, to rectify this issue, several international meetings have been assembled and international treaties and regulations have tried to agree upon a uniform definition. Despite these efforts, it would not be correct to say that a conclusion has been reached.

In addition to that, the law that shall be applied is not explicit in the issues as to illegal acts of piracy. Bendall (2010) claims that the definition of piracy varies in the legal systems of states and whether international law or national law shall be applied is a vital problem for pirate incidents. The other issue is that more than 75 percent of assaults take place in the territorial waters and at ports. Hence, according to the definition of piracy under the UN 1982 Convention, these attacks are disregarded as piracy. In this respect, Bellamy (2020) discusses maritime crime and maritime security and draws attention to two different but complementary approaches. While the negative approach seeks protection against threats at sea, the positive approach emphasizes sustainable employment of the seas. In addition, it was stated that the affair calls for an interdisciplinary approach with expertise.

Even though there are definitions of maritime piracy determined by international organizations, the legal systems of sovereign states possess their definitions. What kind of illegal activity shall be deemed as piracy and whose laws shall be applied in the territory of sovereign states need to be clarified. This complexity of maritime piracy poses problems to properly combat and eradicate piracy both in territorial waters and on high seas. Therefore, it can be explicitly stated that one of the issues that the international community fails is to determine a definition regarding piracy agreed upon.

2.1. The reasons behind piracy incidents

In the literature, it has been mentioned that both economic and humanitarian roots underlie piracy incidents. Chalk (2009, pp.2-3) argues that two pivotal reasons underlie piracy incidents. These reasons consist of the magnitude of the trade volume carried out by sea and the choke points of

waterways that the vessels of shipping companies should navigate through. In addition to the main reasons, he mentions other factors that make it easier for pirates such as downsizing the number of crew thanks to the technological advancements, limited resources of states for monitoring the coastline and territorial waters, and lack of maritime police or coastal security.

Moreover, wherever maritime trade is intense and in the case in which anarchy and lack of authority and control prevail, pirate activities are a common occurrence. The main reasons for piracy can be stated as follows (Chalk, 2008, pp. 10-14; Ece, 2010, p. 4; Ece, 2015, p. 79):

- In parallel with the ascendance of the volume of international trade by sea, the marine traffic and the number of ports increase.
- The marine routes for bilateral trade pass through narrow, congested, and risky waterway choke points close to areas criminal activities prevail.
- The impacts of the financial crisis, low wages, high food prices, unemployment, etc.
- Inadequate coastal/port surveillance and inspection.
- Inadequacy and lack of the central government result in political instability and corruption, bribery, loopholes in the legal system, privileged behavior due to the civil war.
- Former fisherman and new sea bandits attacking to protect their fish resources against ships of other countries.
- Inadequacy of the naval police and security forces in the pre-mentioned areas.
- Successful attacks on vessels by using more destructive and sophisticated methods and receiving high amounts of ransom.

As in the past, it is seen that piracy incidents occur today for the same reasons and the reasons behind pirate attacks seem to remain unchanged. Although the tactics used by pirates are not cast in the same mold, it is obvious pirate attacks pose both economic and humanitarian hazards to maritime commerce. Robitaille (2020) argues that the geographical, social, or political contexts encouraging pirate activities are the reasons behind the different tactics adopted by pirates. Thus, in a different parts of the world, pirates apply different tactics and prefer to attack different types of vessels even though the reasons that drive them to involve in piracy incidents are almost identical.

Although many reasons underlie piracy activities, Chalk (2008) draws attention to the presence of choke points. Passing through these congested and narrow waterways, vessels of shipping companies become easy targets for the assaults of pirates. However, the ungoverned territories close to chocking points - where the anarchy prevails, loopholes in the legal system due to lack of central government exist, pirates can harbor, sell their loot, and repair their ships – create pirate-friendly environments and are heavens for piracy activities. 90 percent of international trade is carried out via maritime transport. The major shipping routes pass through narrow waterways such as the Strait of Malacca and the Gulf of Aden, offering pirates ideal opportunities to attack and board cargo ships with speedboats often controlled by a mothership (The Economist, 2008; 2011).

In the opinion of Chan and Laffargue (2020), the model developed in their study reveals that piracy will be minimal or removed if piracy can be established without any entry costs. The reason behind this is that pirates will not be capable of targeting big vessels and will have to attack weak and small ships on the shore. Besides, shipping companies will manage to repel the attacks, but the costs of international trade incurred by these companies will raise. It was also argued that pirates would be much more powerful if they gathered around a central authority with no competition. Therefore, pirate activities will be appealing because piracy is likely to be considered as a substitute for trade. In the light of these, authors claim that the development of international trade and inadequacy of commercial vessels in terms of defense are two underlying reasons for piracy.

Hastings (2009) claims that weak states are more problematic than failed states since they are capable of providing markets and infrastructure for piracy. Under these circumstances, pirates enjoy the perks of the black market to proceed with their activities. According to Baniela (2010), the roots of piracy activities are based upon land though the assaults are executed at sea. Therefore, international

community must take comprehensive preventive precautions not only offshore but also onshore to effectively combat piracy.

Taken all these into consideration, economic, political, and geographical reasons may be reckoned to play pivotal roles as to pirate activities. In terms of economic reasons, regions with lower GDP are likely to confront higher piracy incidents and states with higher unemployment rates will be likely to report more piracy incidents. Politically, off the coasts of weak states, the number of reported piracy incidents will be higher. Last but not least, the shorter the distance of a state to choke-points, the more piracy incidents are likely to be reported, and the higher the trade volume by sea by years, the more piracy incidents will take place.

2.2. Conspectus of piracy against vessels in 2020

According to the annual report published by ICC International Maritime Bureau, the number of piracy and armed robbery incidents that have taken place in 2020 has increased to 195, in comparison to 162 in 2019. The increase in the number of incidents is attributed to the assaults reported within the Gulf of Guinea and in the Singapore Straits. As can be seen in Table 2, approximately 45 percent of the piracy incidents are reported off the coasts of Africa. With 35 reported incidents, Nigerian coasts are by far the most intensive locations for pirate activities. 49 percent of total attacks reported in 2020 took place on four locations including Nigeria (35), Indonesia (26), Singapore Strait (23), and Benin (11), respectively (IMB, 2021).

Southeast Asia and South America tag behind Africa with 62 and 30 reported incidents, respectively. Off the East Asia coasts, there is a slight decline trend. However, despite the fluctuations in the total number of reported incidents, neither getting better nor worsening in numbers can be observed. The IMB states that these are the reported incidents and actual numbers can be doubled. That is because, in order to avoid additional insurance costs, shipping companies are inclined to conceal their losses.

Table 2. Location of actual and attempted attacks between January 2016 and December 2020

Location	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Southeast Asia	68	76	60	53	62
East Asia	16	4	7	5	4
Indian Sub-continent	17	15	18	4	10
South America	27	24	29	29	30
Africa	62	57	87	71	88
Rest of the World	1	4	-	-	1
Total	191	180	201	162	195

Source: IMB, 2021, p. 6.

Table 3. Comparison of the type of attacks between January 2016 and December 2020

Category	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Boarded	150	136	143	130	161
Hijacked	7	6	6	4	3
Fired Upon	12	16	18	11	11
Attempted	22	22	34	17	20
Total	191	180	201	162	195

Source: IMB, 2021, p. 11.

A total of 195 piracy and armed robbery incidents in 2020, 161 vessels were boarded, three ships were hijacked, 11 vessels were fired upon, and 20 attempts were made. Also, the slight decline trend regarding hijackings of ships can be seen in Table 3. Each year more than 70 percent of the vessels were boarded by pirates. IMB report explains that the average number of kidnapping incidents are over 60 nautical miles from land. Considering the increasing capability of pirates, it is advised vessels in the region remain at least 250 nautical miles from the coast (IMB, 2021).

As can be seen in Table 4, the number of kidnapped crew tends to increase. While 62 crews were kidnapped in 2016, 135 kidnapping events occurred in 2020. The number of crew kidnapped within the Gulf of Guinea accounts for over 95 percent of the total figure. Contrary to this, hostage incidents have been in a declining trend since 2018. Contemporary piracy incidents jeopardize the lives of people from different countries. In addition to injuries and deaths, the crew exposed to pirate assaults confront psychological problems and most of them never sail again (Chalk, 2009).

Table 4. Types of violence to crew between January 2016 and December 2020

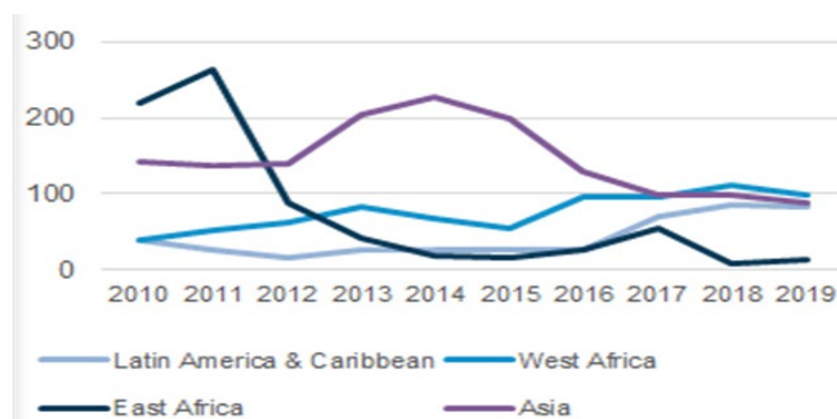
Types of Violence	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Assaulted	5	6	-	3	5
Hostage	151	91	141	59	34
Injured	8	6	8	7	9
Kidnapped/Ransom	62	75	83	134	135
Killed	-	3	-	1	-
Threatened	10	10	9	6	8
Total	236	191	241	210	191

Source: IMB, 2021, p. 11.

In 2020, 23 incidents against vessels within the Singapore Straits were reported. In 22 of these incidents, vessels were boarded, and it was reported as low-level assaults. At Indonesia ports, vessels were boarded while berthed or anchored. During these low-level incidents, one crew was injured, three were taken hostage, and four were threatened. At the South American ports, the crime of robbery was the illegal act mostly reported in 2020. 25 vessels were boarded while anchored at ports. In the meantime, two vessels were fired upon and three attempts were reported in Ecuador and Mexico (IMB, 2021).

Off the coasts of Somalia, no incidents were reported in 2020. However, IBM warns mariners that Somali pirates are capable of carrying out attacks in the Somali basin and wider Indian Ocean. Therefore, it is highly recommended that Masters and the crew must stay on alert and remain cautious while transiting these waters. The pirates were better armed than in previous years and prepared to assault and injure the crew (IMB, 2021).

Graph 1. Piracy and armed robbery of vessels between 2010 and 2019.



Source: IMB, 2021.

As can be seen in Graph 1, pirate incidents, which were common in East Africa - off the coasts of Somalia and Asia in the beginning, have spread to West Africa - the Gulf of Guinea and Latin America & Caribbean over the last decade. Trends in piracy incidents demonstrate a shift among regions. There is a huge reduction in the number of piracy incidents off the coasts of East Africa whereas a rise in the numbers off the coasts of West Africa. On the other hand, the threat of piracy and armed robbery of vessels ranges between 100 and 200 each year in the Asia region and follows an upward trend in Latin America over the last decade.

3. Consequences of maritime piracy on international trade

It has been annually estimated that the cost of piracy incidents varies at least between \$7 billion and \$12 billion. Table 5 demonstrates the estimated total cost of piracy in 2010 (Bowden, 2010, p. 25). As can be seen in table 5, cost items include ransoms, insurance premiums, costs of rerouting ships, costs for equipment necessary to provide security of vessels against pirate attacks, and costs incurred by regional economies. However, Hallwood and Micheli (2012, p. 191) state that international law has not addressed cost-sharing. Moreover, Hagemann (2010, p. 45) points out that each state covers its costs although other states take advantage of these expenditures, and some states even undertake extra costs to aid in the installment of regional enforcement facilities. According to Bendall (2010), pirate activities still involve a net cost. Piracy puts millions of dollars more burden on shipping companies' costs per year when opportunity costs are also considered.

Table 5. Maritime piracy costs

Cost factor	Value (dollars)
Ransoms: excess costs	176 million
Insurance premiums	460 million to 3.2 billion
Rerouting ships	2.4 billion to 3 billion
Security equipment	363 million to 2.5 billion
Naval forces	2 billion
Prosecutions	31 million
Piracy deterrent organizations	19.5 million
Cost to regional economies	1.25 billion
Total estimated cost	7 billion to 12 billion per year

Source: Bowden (2010, p. 25).

Fu et al. (2010) conducted their study to investigate the impact of piracy on global economic development through the Somali sample with the data obtained between 2003 and 2008. By using historical data, they applied their economic model to the container liner shipping market so that it was tried to estimate the welfare loss and efficiency loss due to the decline in trade volumes and rerouting. In their study, it was revealed the way the economic values and global development in the region were affected by pirate activities. According to the study, piracy actions cause serious losses with 30 billion us dollars annually to the economy on a global basis in the region. In addition to that, the traffic volumes along the Far East-Europe route would decline by approximately 30 % without governments' efforts. Therefore, the importance of international cooperation was emphasized to minimize the welfare and efficiency loss because of the pirate activities in the region.

Piracy incidents in certain regions of the world cause vessels of shipping companies to avoid these locations by re-routing and bear additional costs. In addition to that, vessels passing through pirate-invaded waters must pay high insurance rates to be able to cover the losses in case of assaults. In the study of Bendall (2010), it was aimed to demonstrate the economic impact of piracy on shipping lines that chose to re-route to avoid known pirate trouble spots. Based on the comparative voyage costing approach, the study shows that re-routing creates a considerable amount of costs. Study results indicate that fuel bills of vessels soar due to re-routing and millions of dollars were added to the total cost when opportunity costs were taken into consideration.

In their study, Hallwood and Micheli (2012) claim that more pirates are released than the number of pirates sued. They partly explain this situation in a way that many countries are lack national laws criminalizing piracy, and that evidence is usually insufficient to prosecute suspects. Hallwood and Miceli (2012) examined the economic role of international cooperation in combating piracy and reducing anxiety caused by piracy. In the study, international legal regulations and the effects of these regulations on the maritime economy of piracy actions in the region were examined. They emphasize that the measures taken are effective in preventing physical attacks and harms, but

that concern and anxiety are gradually increasing, and that more international cooperation is needed in this regard.

In her study, Ece (2010) studied the definition and types of piracy, its reasons, the regions, regulations, and measures taken to prevent piracy. In the study, according to the results of the relationship analysis (Chi-Square) between the years of piracy and nonparametric variables (piracy areas, the types of attack, and the type of violence applied to the crew), she found a statistically significant relationship between the years of piracy and the aforementioned non-parametric variables. As a result of her study, she gave recommendations on the measures to be taken to prevent piracy based on the statistical analysis results.

On the other hand, Martinez-Zarzoso and Bensassi (2013) examined the cost of modern piracy in their study. In the study, they established a transport cost equation by stating that piracy has a substantial and significant impact on the economy on a global basis. The fact that existence of politically and economically weak and failed states along the maritime trade route jeopardizes and threatens the trade between Europe and Asia. The downward trend in trade barriers has been proven to facilitate the entry of small firms into international markets (Chaney, 2008), and the disadvantage of high shipping costs between Europe and Asia damage European interests over their competitors in Asia's expanding markets. According to equality results, piracy severely affects trade between Europe and Asia. Again, according to the results of the study, it has been reported that piracy actions in these regions in recent years have increased significantly in terms of both impact and cost.

Campbell (2014) studied acts of piracy in the Indian Ocean. In the study, the commercial value of piracy in the Indian Ocean is explained and the historical process of piracy in this area is mentioned. Then, the region was examined in terms of the global economy and the effects of pirate activities on the economic cycle, and the ramifications of these effects were investigated. In the study, the fact that the rise and development of the Indian Ocean World (IOW) global economy have been neglected by the Eurocentric view was argued. Additionally, it is mentioned maritime commerce in this region (IOW) is characterized by a sophisticated system from Africa to the Middle East, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and the Far East. According to the author, "there appears a clear correlation between the upturns in the IOW global economy and piratical activity, but piracy also appears to have increased during downturns in that economy, possibly as a reflection of economic uncertainty". In another word, a significant relationship was found between the character and frequency of piracy acts and their economic effects.

Both in the long run and the short run, pirate attacks are highly influential on international maritime trade. Besley et al. (2015) investigated the trade flows of vessels passing through areas in which pirate activities prevail. Results of their comparison revealed that the increase in the number of pirate attacks caused an approximately 10 percent increase in the cost of shipping. It has been concluded that the increase in costs is due to the increase in insurance and security costs. Long-term impacts of pirate activities on international trade were demonstrated by Bensassi and Martinez-Zarzoso (2012). Authors state that impacts of pirate attacks proceed even after years. In their study, the trade from European Union to Asia between 1999 and 2008 was examined, and concluded that the 10 attacks were associated with an 11 percent decrease in total exports (Bensassi & Martínez-Zarzoso, 2012). Besides, Shepard and Pratson (2020) investigated the effects of piracy on tankers conveying petroleum through the Strait of Hormuz and energy exports. The results of their analysis demonstrate that there has been a decrease in tanker transit, and it has been observed that refined oil exports from Bahrain and Kuwait were significantly affected. It was stated that few significant long-term impacts were observed.

4. Conclusion

According to Murphy, "piracy is a global phenomenon but not a global problem" (2009, p.21), because "it is geography that distinguishes piracy from other crime" (2009, p.410). Most pirate attacks occur in waters under the jurisdiction of the states, rather than on the high seas. In such cases, "if the

political will to suppress or control piracy is missing for whatever reason, then piracy will continue” (2009, p.178). In addition to this view, Fu et al. (2010) acknowledge that maritime piracy is neither a static activity nor restricted within a particular area or region. In their opinion, piracy is mutually dependent on global economic development, corporate strategies, and/or government policies. Acknowledgment of the problem in this way fills the gap in the literature which mostly treated maritime piracy as a non-dynamic activity separate from the effects of developments in the global economy, institutional strategies, and government policies.

Some level of state weakness creating environments that pirates take advantage of is required for a minimum level of pirate attacks. This is because weak or failed states provide a certain level of transportation infrastructure to carry their booty and repair their vessels and guns, and a black market that enables pirates to sell a share of loots. As Hasting (2009) mentioned, weak states provide better conditions for piracy in comparison with failed states. In addition to this, Campbell (2014) argues that pirate activities require far more investment in vessels, weapons, and human resources than the indigent states can afford. Most pirate activities are funded directly by local authorities and are argued to be conducted under a command hierarchy with military discipline and organization. Besides, the pirates get a share of any loots, and the widows of the pirates killed receive compensation. Hence, the humanitarian side of pirate activities should not be ignored.

It is undeniable that pirate activities still involve a net cost. Piracy causes millions of dollars additional burden on shipping companies' costs per year when opportunity costs are taken into consideration. If the necessary precautions with pirate activities cannot be taken by both states and international organizations, and if it continues to grow, international trade and transport will confront serious ramifications for international transport and trade affecting both developed and developing economies. The cost imposed by piracy on the global economy and international trade was demonstrated by the aforementioned studies. Therefore, it is a fact that cannot be ignored.

For a decline in the number of pirate activities, leaders of states where piracy is widely reported and experienced, such as Somalia and Nigeria, must begin to successfully rule their country. These leaders must be able to better integrate their states into the global economy. The security problems posed by state weakness are something to be considered when trying to rebuild the economies and political institutions in failed or weak states (Hastings, 2009). The covid19 pandemic has affected the economies of hundreds of countries and during this time, poor people become even poorer. Economic conditions cause not only severe social unrest but also political turmoil. As can be seen from the figures for 2020 and previous years, the terror of piracy will be more severe in the following years. Therefore, the international community must take proactive precautions instead of reactive ones to terminate piracy.

In order to deal with the piracy problem, the roots of the problem should be addressed and the factors that cause and facilitate piracy should be well comprehended. It might be considered that taking precautions in the regions where piracy incidents are intense, especially in Somalia, Nigeria, and Indonesia, and where major economic problems such as political turmoil, instability, hunger, and unemployment prevail, is likely to serve the purpose of peace. Providing both financial and military aids to these regions to increase the welfare of the people and secure them will be a radical solution to end the piracy incidents. In addition, regulations and international agreements should be made for the solution of legal problems that may arise, such as which country will be held and how they will be prosecuted if pirates are caught on high seas.

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*Research article***Sağlık ekonomisi çerçevesinde yetişkinlerde obezitenin sağlık harcamaları üzerinde etkisi**Elnaz BAGHERİ NABEL¹

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Received date: 03.06.2021 **Accepted date:** 22.06.2021

Suggested citation: Bagheri Nabel, E. (2021). Sağlık ekonomisi çerçevesinde yetişkinlerde obezitenin sağlık harcamaları üzerinde etkisi [The impact of obesity on healthcare spending among adults within the framework of health economics]. *Journal of Politics, Economy and Management* 4(1), 49-58.

Öz: Günümüzde toplumların önemli bir sağlık riski olarak gözüken obezite, birçok alanda etkisini göstermektedir. Obezite verimliliği düşürerek ekonomik bir yük oluşturmaktadır. Bu dolaylı etkinin yanında bireylerin sağlık durumları üzerinde olumsuz etkisinden ötürü sağlık harcamaları şeklinde topluma dolaysız maddi yüke neden olmaktadır. Bu çalışmada 1975-2016 aralığında Türkiye'nin yıllık verileri kullanarak zaman serisi analizi yapılmıştır. Cinsiyet guruplarının kısa veya uzun dönemde farklı etkilerinin olabileceği göz önüne alınarak erkek, kadın ve her iki cinsin bulunduğu yetişkinlere ait obezite değerleri ayrı ayrı modellerde kullanılmıştır. Yetişkinlerde obezite değerleri için Dünya Sağlık Örgütü (WHO) veri bankasında aynı yılları arasındaki değerler alınmıştır. Kişi başına toplam sağlık harcamaları dolar cinsinden Ekonomik Kalkınma ve İş birliği Örgütü (OECD), kişi başına milli gelir ise Dünya Bankası (WB) veri bankasından temin edilmiştir. Obezitenin bir sağlık sorunu olarak kısa dönem ve uzun dönemde farklı etkileri olabileceğinden hem uzun dönem hem de kısa dönem etkilerinin tek bir modelde elde edilmesi amacıyla ARDL yöntemi benimsenmiştir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre obezite kısa dönemde sağlık harcamaları üzerine anlamlı bir etki yapmadığını ve hatta kısa dönemde söz konusu harcamaların azalmasına yol açmaktadır. Ancak uzun dönemde obezitedeki artışlar sağlık harcamalarının artışına neden olmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sağlık ekonomisi, Sağlık harcamaları, ARDL

The impact of obesity on healthcare spending among adults within the framework of health economics

Abstract: Obesity, which seems to be an important health risk of societies today, shows its effects in many areas. Obesity creates an economic burden by reducing productivity. In addition to this indirect effect, it causes a direct financial burden on society in the form of health expenditures due to its negative impact on the health status of individuals. In this study, time series analysis has been made using the annual data of Turkey between 1975-2016. Considering that gender groups may have different effects in the short or long term, the obesity scores of men, women, and adults of both sexes were used in separate models. Data were taken in the World Health Organization (WHO) database for adult obesity values. The total health expenditures per capita were obtained from the Economic Development and Cooperation Organization (OECD) in dollars, and the per capita national income was obtained from the World Bank (WB) data bank. Since obesity as a health problem may have different short-term and long-term effects, the ARDL method has been adopted to obtain both long-term and short-term outcomes in a single model. According to the results of this study, obesity does not have a significant effect on health expenditures

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in the short term and even leads to a decrease in the said expenditures in the short run. However, increases in obesity, in the long run, cause an increase in health expenditures.

Keywords: Health economics, Health expenditures, ARDL

JEL Codes: I15, I18

1. Giriş

Günümüzde toplumların önemli bir sağlık riski olarak görülen obezite, birçok alanda etkisini göstermektedir. Obezite verimliliği düşürerek ekonomik bir yük haline gelmektedir. Bu durum dolaylı etkinin yanında bireylerin sağlık durumları üzerinde olumsuz etkisinden ötürü sağlık harcamaları şeklinde topluma dolaysız maddi yüke neden olmaktadır.

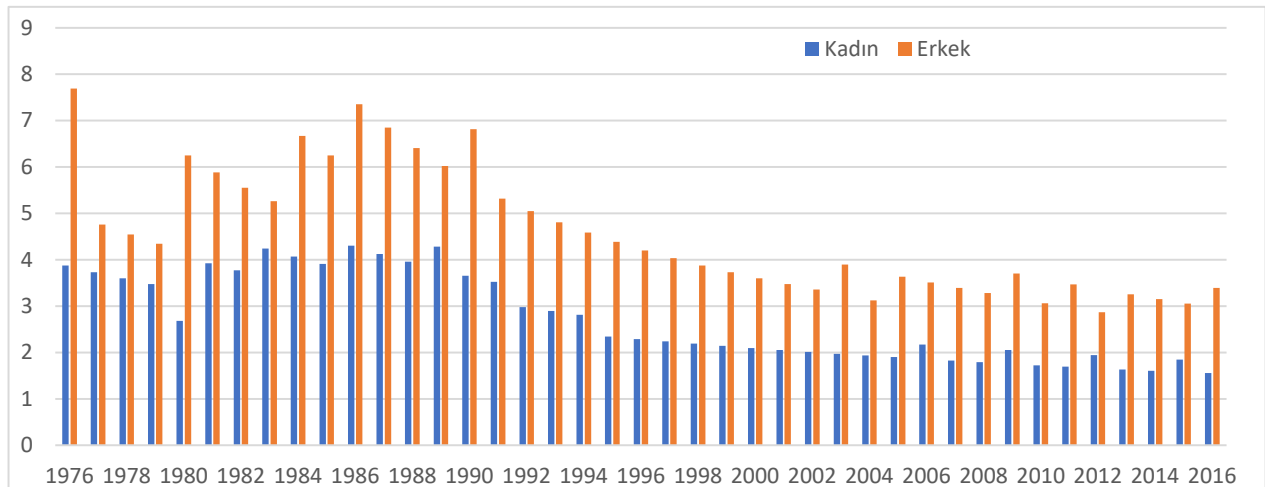
Obezitenin oluşumu ve sağlık üzerinde olası etkileri uzun dönemli bir süreç olup sağlık ekonomisi otoriteleri açısından ekonomik yükünün belirlenmesi açısından önem kazanmaktadır. Bu çalışmada kısa ve uzun dönemde yetişkinlerde görülen obezite sıklığı ile sağlık harcamaları ilişkisini mercek altına alınmaktadır. Bu amacın gerçekleştirilmesine yönelik olarak ilk önce obezite tanımı ve mevcut durumu hakkında bilgi sunulmuştur. Daha sonra amaca uygun olarak model oluşturulmuş ve bu modelin testine yönelik güvenilir veri kaynakları üzerinden Türkiye için test edilmiştir.

Dünya Sağlık Örgütü (WHO) tanımına göre aşırı kilo ve obezite; sağlık için risk oluşturan anormal veya aşırı yağ birikimidir. Normal vücut ağırlığına sahip erkeklerde ortalama vücut yağı % 15-20, kadınlarda ise % 25-30 arasındadır. Vücut yağ yüzdesini belirlemek kolay olmadığından dolayı obezite, aşırı yağdan ziyade aşırı kilo olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Satman vd., 2014).

Yetişkinlerin kilo durumu (zayıf, normal, aşırı kilolu, obez) sınıflandırmak için yaygın olarak Vücut Kitle İndeksi (VKİ) kullanılmaktadır. VKİ, bir kişinin kilogram cinsinden kilosunun metre cinsinden boyunun karesine bölünmesiyle (kg / m^2) tanımlanır. VKİ'si 30 veya daha büyük olan bir kişi obez ve VKİ'si 25 ve üstü olan bir kişi ise aşırı kilolu kabul edilmektedir (WHO, 2020).

Obeziteyi doğru bir şekilde sınıflandırmak, ona daha detaylı yaklaşılmasına yardımcı olur. Böylece obeziteye yönelik etkili müdahalelerin uygulanması ve değerlendirilmesi sağlanmış olmaktadır. Ancak Uluslararası Hastalık Sınıflanmasında, ICD-10 koduna sahip tanı konulabilir bir hastalık olarak değerlendirilmektedir (Jent, Brown, Davidson, Cruz, & Weinstein, 2017).

Grafik 1. Obezite pervelansında artış oranları



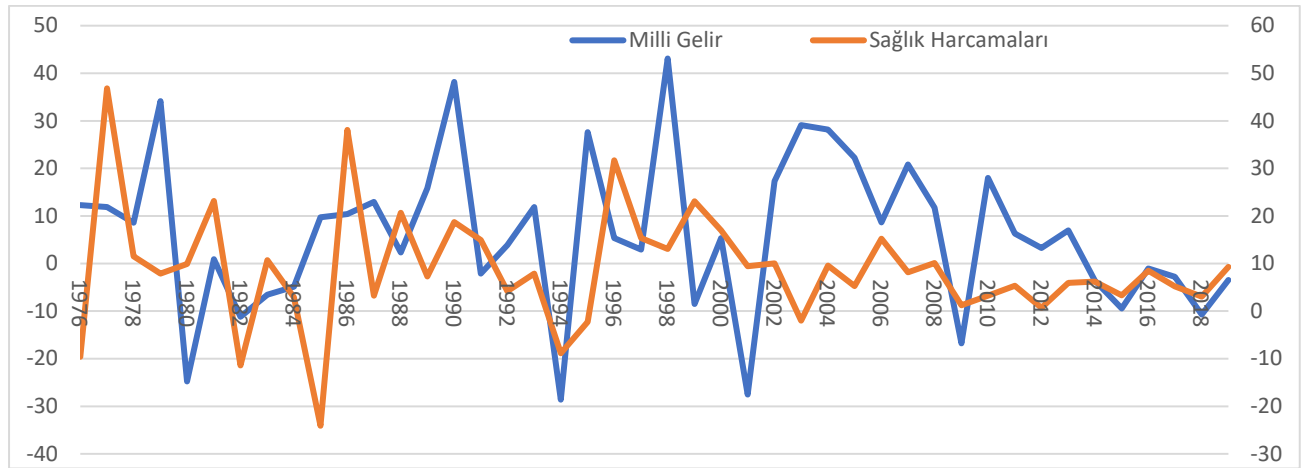
Kaynak: WHO (2020).

Obezite, yani alınan enerjinin tüketilen enerjiyi aşmasından kaynaklanan (kronik pozitif enerji dengesi) çok faktörlü kronik bir hastalıktır. Böylece fazla enerji alımı, trigliserid formunda depolanan yağ dokularının genişlemesiyle vücuttaki yağ oranının artmasına ve kilo alımına sebep olur (Chooi, Ding, & Magkos, 2019).

Dünya genelinde olduğu gibi obezite Türkiye’de de önemli bir sağlık sorunu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Türkiye’de obezite yaygınlığında (pervelansında) artış oranları Grafik 1’de verilmiştir. Bu grafiğe baktığımızda özellikle erkekler arasında obezitenin pervelansı sürekli olarak artmaktadır.

Sağlık harcamalarının en önemli belirleyicisi kişi başına milli gelirdir. Birey ve ailelerin geliri artarken sağlık harcamaları için daha fazla pay ayırmaları beklenmektedir. Grafik 2, son yıllarda kişi başına milli gelir ve sağlık harcamalarındaki artış oranlarını göstermektedir.

Grafik 2. Kişi başına milli gelir ve sağlık harcamaları büyüme oranları



Kaynak: OECD (2020), WB (2020).

2. Literatür

Obezitenin oluşumunda birçok faktör etkilidir. Sağlık ekonomisi çerçevesinden bakıldığında bireylerin geliri önemli bir etken olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Düşük gelirli ülkelerdeki gelir dağılımının alt tabakasındakiler, zayıf ve yetersiz beslenme eğilimindedirler. Diğer yandan orta gelirli ülkelerde gelir dağılımının alt tabakasındakiler ise yüksek obezite riski taşımaktadır. Paradoksal olarak, orta gelirli ülkelerdeki birçok yoksul ailelerde, beslenme yetersizliği olan çocukların obez ebeveynleri söz konusudur (Haidar & Cosman, 2011). Büyük bir ihtimalle bu ebeveynlerin obez olmaları, yanlış beslenme alışkanlıklarından (düşük fiyatlı, yüksek kalorili ve besin açısından fakir gıdaları tüketmeleri gibi) kaynaklanmaktadır.

Obezitenin sadece sağlık harcamaları üzerindeki yükü değil ekonomik verimliliği de ters yönde etkilediği ileri sürülmüştür (Cawley, 2010; Hammond & Levine, 2010). Rosin (2008) obezitenin ekonomik nedenlerini derlemiştir. Anderson, Frogner ve Reinhardt (2007) regresyon analizi yardımı ile obezitenin sağlık harcamalarını artırdığını tespit etmişlerdir. Thorpe, Florence, Howard ve Joski (2004) 1987 – 2001 yılları arasında ABD verilerini kullanarak obezitenin sağlık harcamaları üzerinde pozitif etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermiştir.. Finkelstein ve arkadaşları 1998-2006 verilerini kullanarak zaman serisi yaklaşımıyla yaptıkları inceleme sonucunda obezitenin özel ve kamu harcamaları açısından önemli bir katkısı olduğunu bulmuşlardır (Finkelstein, Trogon, Cohen, & Dietz, 2009). Obesitenin olumsuz ekonomik etkilerini işyerinden devamsızlık, özür lülük ödemeleri, düşük ücret, erken emeklilik ve yüksek işsizlik oranı olarak sıralanabilir (Brunello, Michaud, & Sanz-de-Galdeano, 2008).

John ve arkadaşlarının yaptıkları araştırmaya göre çocukluk çağı obezitesinin ekonomik yüküne ilişkin bulgular kesin değildir (John, Wolfenstetter, & Wenig, 2012). Farklı maliyet bileşenleri ve yaş grupları göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, normal kilolu akranlara kıyasla obezler için daha fazla sağlık hizmeti maliyetleri söz konusudur. Kinge ve Morris'in (2018) çalışmalarında obezitenin sağlık harcamaları üzerinde önemli katkısı olduğu ve bu durumun çocuklarda da geçerliliği gösterilmiştir. Lehnert, Sonntag, Konnopka, Riedel-Heller ve König'e (2013) göre çocukların aşırı kilolu olması kısa dönemde ilgili hastalıkların veya ebeveynlerin ekonomik verimliliğini düşürürken, uzun dönemde de yetişkinliğe ulaşan bu çocukların obeziteyle ilgili hastalıklarının maliyeti sağlık harcamalarını artırabilmektedir (Lehnert, Sonntag, Konnopka, Riedel-Heller, & König, 2013).

3. Model ve Analiz Yöntemi

Türkiye'de yetişkinlerde obezitenin kısa ve uzun dönemde toplam sağlık harcamaları üzerindeki etkisini açıklama amacıyla bu çalışmada zaman serisi analizi kullanılmıştır. Obezitenin bir sağlık sorunu olarak kısa dönem ve uzun dönemde farklı etkileri olabileceğinden hem uzun dönem hem de kısa dönem etkilerinin tek bir modelde elde edilmesi amacıyla ARDL yöntemi benimsenmiştir.

Değişkenler arasında uzun dönemde ilişkilerini incelenmesi amacıyla eşbütünleşme yaklaşımı kullanılmaktadır. Modelde mevcut olan değişkenler uzun dönemde birlikte hareket etmesi durumunda eşbütünleşme olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Eşbütünleşme tespiti için farklı yöntemler kullanılabilir.

Uzun dönemde değişkenler arasında eş bütünleşme incelemesi açısından ARDL modeli yaygın olarak kullanılmaktadır. Sınır testi Pesaran, Shin ve Smith (2001) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup diğer yaklaşımlara göre bazı avantajlara sahiptir. Bu yöntemin uygulanması için tüm değişkenlerin aynı durağanlık seviyesine sahip olmasına gerek yoktur ve birinci dereceden durağan olan seriler ileri seviyede durağan olan seriler birlikte kullanılabilir. Ayrıca tek bir tahminle kısa ve uzun dönem ilişkilerin sonuçları elde edilebilir.

Sağlık harcamalarının obeziteden uzun dönemde etkilenip etkilenmediğini gösterme açısından (1) nolu denklem kullanılmıştır. Kişi başına milli gelir kontrol değişkeni olarak modele dahil edilmiştir.

$$SH_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 OBEZ_t + \alpha_2 KMG_t + \epsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Burada SH dolar cinsinden kişi başına sağlık harcamalarını temsil etmektedir. OBEZ ile gösterilen değişken ise yetişkinler arasında BKİ > 30 üzerinde olanların prevalansını ve KMG dolar cinsinden kişi başına milli geliri ifade etmektedir. ECM (Error Correction Model) çerçevesinde (1) nolu denklem kullanılarak (2) nolu denklem oluşturulmuştur. ARDL modeli (2) nolu denklemde gösterilmiş olup kısa dönem ve uzun dönem değişkenler yan yana modelde mevcuttur.

$$\Delta SH_t = \psi + \eta_0 SH_{t-1} + \eta_1 OBEZ_{t-1} + \eta_2 KMG_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_{1j} \Delta SH_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^q \beta_{2j} \Delta KMG_{t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^m \beta_{3j} \Delta OBEZ_{t-j} + \varphi t + e_t \quad (2)$$

Burada Δ değişkenlerin farkını ve t trendi simgelemektedir. β ile gösterilen değişkenlerin katsayısı kısa dönem tahminleri temsil ederken aynı modelde uzun dönem katsayıların elde edilmesi açısından $\alpha_1 = \frac{-\eta_1}{\theta}$ ve $\alpha_2 = \frac{-\eta_2}{\theta}$ ilişkileri kullanılarak uzun dönem tahmin sonuçları bulunabilir.

4. Veriler

Yetişkinlerde obezite prevalansı için WHO (2020) veri bankasında mevcut olan 1975-2016 yılları arasındaki Türkiye verileri kullanılmıştır. Kişi başına toplam sağlık harcamaları dolar cinsinden OECD (2020) veri bankasından elde edilmiştir. Kişi başına milli gelir WB (2020) veri bankasından sağlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada tüm değişkenlerin büyüme oranları kullanılmaktadır. Tablo 1'de modelde kullanılan verilerin tanımlayıcı istatistikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 1. Değişkenlere ilişkin tanımlayıcı istatistikler

	Kişi Başına Milli Gelir Büyüme Oranı	Sağlık Harcamaları büyüme oranı	Obezite artış oranı (Erkek ve Kadın)	Obezite artış oranı (Kadın)	Obezite artış oranı (Erkek)
Ortalama	0.069531	0.090796	3.269303	2.752168	4.582395
Medyan	0.069448	0.081747	3.092784	2.290076	4.201681
Min.	-0.2861	-0.24096	1.904762	1.554404	2.870813
Maks.	0.431038	0.468254	5.691057	4.301075	7.692308
Std. Sapma	0.164557	0.126395	1.001593	0.945803	1.367572
Çarpıklık	-0.08557	0.459009	0.496333	0.367579	0.689267
Basıklık	3.014830	4.789766	2.058005	1.509889	2.243060
Jarque-Bera	0.050409	6.911950**	3.199268*	4.716514***	4.225243*

Not: *, ** ve *** sırasıyla % 10, % 5 ve % 1 anlamlılık düzeylerinde normal dağılımını göstermektedir.

Tablo 2. Birim Kök testi sonuçları

	Model	Düzye	Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF)		Phillips-Perron (PP)	
			t	p	Düzeltilmiş t	p
Kişi Başına Milli Gelir Büyüme Oranı	Sabit	Seviye	-6.755936*	0.000000	-6.755936*	0.000000
		Birinci Fark	-7.50167*	0.000000	-20.03755*	0.000100
		İkinci Fark	-11.37272*	0.000000	-18.8715*	0.000100
	Sabit ve trend	Seviye	-6.666819*	0.000000	-6.666819*	0.000000
		Birinci Fark	-7.404523*	0.000000	-19.86655*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-11.20266*	0.000000	-18.59018*	0.000000
Sağlık Harcamaları büyüme oranı	Sabit	Seviye	-8.116032*	0.000000	-7.954425*	0.000000
		Birinci Fark	-13.93131*	0.000000	-15.66633*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-5.973517*	0.000000	-39.05568*	0.000100
	Sabit ve trend	Seviye	-8.390177*	0.000000	-8.197825*	0.000000
		Birinci Fark	-13.73356*	0.000000	-15.49456*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-5.836372*	0.000300	-38.20374*	0.000000
Obezite artış oranı (Erkek ve Kadın)	Sabit	Seviye	-1.17354	0.674700	-1.10306	0.705300
		Birinci Fark	-13.30833*	0.000000	-12.92357*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-5.931872*	0.000000	-35.63524*	0.000100
	Sabit ve trend	Seviye	-3.79505**	0.028800	-4.068479**	0.014100
		Birinci Fark	-5.965839*	0.000200	-12.88888*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-5.846055*	0.000200	-34.71534*	0.000000
Obezite artış oranı (Kadın)	Sabit	Seviye	-0.75174	0.820800	-0.89565	0.779400
		Birinci Fark	-2.99563**	0.044600	-8.920419*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-9.659065*	0.000000	-21.29645*	0.000100
	Sabit ve trend	Seviye	-2.37784	0.384400	-2.46214	0.344100
		Birinci Fark	-2.96091	0.156400	-8.805081*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-9.514385*	0.000000	-20.99254*	0.000000
Obezite artış oranı (Erkek)	Sabit	Seviye	-1.02457	0.735000	-2.50339	0.122200
		Birinci Fark	-9.684889*	0.000000	-10.37035*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-9.935379*	0.000000	-32.83199*	0.000100
	Sabit ve trend	Seviye	-2.29958	0.424300	-3.644916**	0.038400
		Birinci Fark	-9.496614*	0.000000	-10.24842*	0.000000
		İkinci Fark	-9.705935*	0.000000	-36.65813*	0.000000

Not: * ve ** sırasıyla % 1 ve % 5 anlamlılık düzeylerinde durağan olduğunu göstermektedir.

5. Bulgular

Modelde kullanılan değişkenlerin birim kök içermesi sahte regresyona yol açacağından değişkenlerin bu açıdan teste tabii tutulması gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmada kullanılan ARDL yöntemi açısından modelde bulunan değişkenlerin sıfır veya birinci derecen durağan olmaları gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle ikinci veya daha yüksek dereceden durağan olan değişkenler analize dahil edilmemiştir. Tablo 2 birim kök testlerinin sonucunu göstermektedir.

Birim kök sınaması için yaygın olarak kullanılan Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) ve Phillips-Perron (PP) testlerinden faydalanmıştır. Tablo 2 sonuçlarına göre tüm değişkenlerin ileri seviyede veya birinci farkta durağan oldukları gösterilmiştir. Bu açıdan ARDL yönteminin kullanılmasında bir sorun tespit edilmemiştir.

Tablo 3’de yetişkin kadın, erkek ve her iki cinsiyetin obezite prevalans değerlerini (2) nolu denklemde kullanarak elde edilen tahmin sonuçları verilmiştir.

Tablo 3. Tahmin sonuçları

	Obezite artış oranı (Erkek ve Kadın)	Obezite artış oranı (Kadın)	Obezite artış oranı (Erkek)
Panel A: Uzun dönem sonuçları			
SH	0.01 (0.58)	0.01 (0.68)	0.03 (1.27)
KMG	42.24 (1.27)	48.78 (1.40)	48.02 (1.38)
OBEZ	-14.89 (-1.94) ***	-13.94 (-1.78) ***	-6.51 (-1.20)
Panel B: Uzun dönem standartlaştırılmış sonuçları			
Normalized KMG	-3457.06 (1.27)	-3303.31 (1.40)	-1808.02 (1.38)
Normalized OBEZ	1218.85 (-1.94) ***	944.13 (-1.78) ***	245.15 (-1.20)
Panel C: Kısa dönem sonuçları			
ΔSH_{t-1}	-0.04 (-0.25)	-0.009 (-0.05)	0.02 (0.10)
ΔKMG_t	13.99 (0.61)	15.04 (0.65)	13.31 (0.56)
$\Delta OBEZ_t$	-14.19 (-1.83) ***	0.81 (0.07)	-4.86 (-0.81)
Sabit	69.43 (2.04) **	57.30 (1.90) ***	42.89 (1.32)
Panel D: Tanı test sonuçları			
Bound F	5.43 **	5.37 **	4.45 ***
Pesaran t EC	0.007 (0.3)	0.003 (0.12)	0.02 (0.96)
Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM	0.04	0.28	1.29
Ramsey RESET Test	0.41	0.51	0.005
Cusum	S	S	S
CusumQ	S	S	S
Adjusted R ²	0.33	0.31	0.27
Jarque – Bera	1.54	1.06	0.8
Heteroskedasticity Harvey	0.58	1.43	1.36
Heteroskedasticity Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey	0.82	1.11	0.87
Heteroskedasticity ARCH	0.49	0.35	0.85

Not: *, **, *** sırasıyla % 1, % 5 ve % 10 hata payı ile boş hipotezinin reddedilmesini göstermektedir. Kısa ve uzun dönem panellerde kullanılan t dağılımının kritik değerleri 2.71, 2.02 ve 1.69 olup sırasıyla *, ** ve *** ile anlamlılıkları gösterilmiştir. Pesaran FPSS sırasıyla % 1, % 5 ve % 10 anlamlılık düzeyinde iki değişken ile (k=2), kritik değerleri 6.36, 4.85 ve 4.14 olarak belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 3 uzun dönem, kısa dönem ve tanı istatistiklerini ayrı panellerde göstermektedir. Panel A uzun dönem sonuçlarını içermektedir. Burada obezite ile sağlık harcamaları arasında negatif ilişki gözükmemektedir. Ancak sonuçlar standartlaştırıldığında durum değişmektedir. Standartlaştırılmış uzun dönem tahmin sonuçları Panel B’de verilmiştir. Söz konusu panel sonuçlarına bakıldığında obezite uzun

dönemde sağlık harcamalarını artırmaktadır. Ancak cinsiyet açısından bakıldığında erkekler için obezite anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Panel C kısa dönem tahmin sonuçlarını göstermektedir. Bu kısma baktığımızda kişi başına milli gelirin kısa dönemde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ilişkinin olmadığı göze çarpmaktadır. Ancak obezite kısa dönemde her iki cinsiyet için incelendiğinde negatif ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahip olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Panel D tanı istatistiklerini sunmaktadır. LM (Lagrange Multiplier) testi ardışık bağıntı sınaması için uygulanmıştır. Bu test bir serbestlik derecesi ile χ^2 dağılıma sahip olup % 1, % 5 ve % 10 kritik değerleri sırasıyla 6.63, 3.84 ve 2.71 olarak belirlenmiştir. RESET Ramsey testi modelleme hatasını belirleme amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Bu test de bir serbestlik derecesi ile χ^2 dağılımına sahiptir. F test Pesaran vd. (2001) tarafından geliştirilen eş bütünleşme tespit aracıdır ve iki bağımsız ($k=2$) değişken ile % 1, 5 ve % 10 anlamlılık düzeylerinde kritik değerleri sırasıyla 7.52, 5.85 ve 5.06 olarak Pesaran vd'den (2001; Table CI-Case V, s. 301) den elde edilmiştir. Cusum ve CusumQ modelin istikrarlılığını göstermektedir. Tahminler için uygulanan tanı testleri modellerin hiçbirinde istatistiksel olarak sorun bulunmamaktadır. Pesaran F testine bakıldığında kadın, erkek ve her iki cinsin bulunduğu grupta eş bütünleşme varlığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Kısa dönem veya uzun dönemde kişi başına milli gelir artış oranına bakıldığında modellerin hiçbirinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Sağlık harcamaları zorunlu bir harcama olarak bilindiğinden, herhangi bir gelir artışının söz konusu harcamaların artışına yol açması da beklenmemektedir. Analiz sonuçlarına bakıldığında, obezite artış oranı ile sağlık harcamaları artış oranı arasında uzun dönemde pozitif ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Bu da uzun dönemde yetişkinlerde obezite prevalansındaki artışın sağlık harcamalarını artıracak olduğunu göstermektedir. Obezite ile kısa dönemde sağlık harcamaları arasında ters yönde bir ilişki olduğu orta çıkmaktadır. Obezitenin sağlık üzerinde olumsuz etkisi özellikle kronik hastalıklarda görüldüğünden bu uzun dönemdeki anlamlı etkisini açıklayabilir.

6. Sonuç

Bu çalışmada Türkiye verileri kullanarak uzun dönemde yetişkinlerde görülen obezite artış oranı ile sağlık harcamaları büyüme oranı arasında doğrusal pozitif bir ilişki bulunurken uzun dönemde milli gelir artışı ile sağlık harcamaları arasında ise istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Milli gelir, sağlık harcamaları çerçevesinde kısa dönem tahmini sonuçları uzun dönem sonuçları ile aynı yöndedir. Bu durum gelir artışlarının aile ve devletin sağlık sektörüne ayırdığı payın artırmadığı olarak açıklanabilir. Obezite ve kısa dönem sağlık harcamaları arasında ters yönde bir ilişki vardır. Bu durum obezitenin sağlık üzerinde olumsuz etkisinin uzun dönemde anlamlı olacağını düşündürmektedir. Obeziteyle düzenli mücadele uzun dönemdeki sosyal ve ekonomik refahı sağlayacaktır. Ayrıca söz konusu mücadelenin bazı ekonomik krizlerin çözümünde de faydalı beklenir.

Obezite kısa dönemde etkisini ortaya koyacak bir olay değildir ve kısa dönemde sağlık harcamaları üzerine anlamlı bir etki yapmadığını ve hatta kısa dönemde söz konusu harcamaların azalmasına yol açabilir. Ancak uzun dönemde obezitedeki artışlar sağlık harcamalarının artışına neden olmaktadır. Bu durumda sağlık alanındaki politika yapımcılarının obezite konusunda çalışmalar yapmaları gerekmektedir. Ülkenin kaynaklarının obezitenin oluşturacağı zararları karşılamak için kullanmak yerine, obezitenin önlemesi için gereken adımların atılması gerekmektedir.

Bu çalışma Türkiye verileri yardımıyla yapılmıştır ve önemli sonuçlara varılmıştır. Farklı ülkelerin durumunun tespiti, ayrıca yetişkin olmayanlarda obezitenin etkisi diğer çalışmalarda incelenebilir.

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Extended Abstract

Obesity, which seems to be an important health risk of societies today, shows its effects in many areas. Obesity creates an economic burden by reducing productivity. In addition to this indirect effect, it causes a direct financial burden on society in the form of health expenditures due to its negative impact on the health status of individuals.

Many factors are influential in the formation of obesity. From the perspective of health economics, the income of individuals emerges as an essential factor. Those at the bottom of the income distribution in low-income countries tend to be undernourished. On the other hand, because of malnutrition, those in the lower strata of the income distribution in middle-income countries have a high risk of obesity.

In this study, time series analysis has been made using the annual data of Turkey between 1975-2016. Considering that gender groups may have different effects in the short or long term, the obesity scores of men, women, and adults of both sexes were used in separate models. Data were taken in the World Health Organization (WHO) database for adult obesity values. The total health expenditures per capita were obtained from the Economic Development and Cooperation Organization (OECD) in dollars, and the per capita national income was obtained from the World Bank (WB) data bank.

The cointegration approach is used to examine the long-term relationships among the variables. If the variables present in the model act together in the long run, it is defined as cointegration. Different methods can be used for cointegration detection. ARDL model is widely used in terms of cointegration analysis between variables in the long term. The bound test is developed by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith and has some advantages over other approaches. For the application of this method, all variables don't need to have the same stationarity level, and first-order stationary series can be used together with greater stationary series. In addition, the results of short and long-term relationships can be obtained with a single estimation. Since obesity as a health problem may have different short-term and long-term effects, the ARDL method has been adopted to obtain long-term and short-term effects in a single model.

According to the results of this study, obesity does not have a significant impact on health expenditures in the short term and even leads to a decrease in the said expenditures in the short term. However, increases in obesity, in the long run, cause an increase in health expenditures.

While there was a positive linear relationship between the increase in obesity in adults and the growth rate of health expenditures in the long term, no statistically significant relationship was found between the increase in national income and health expenditures in the long run. Within the framework of national income and health expenditures, the short-term estimated results are in the same direction as the long-term results. This situation can be explained as income increases do not increase the share allocated to the health sector by the family and the state. There is an inverse relationship between obesity and short-term health expenditures. This suggests that the negative impact of obesity on health will be significant in the long run. Regular fight against obesity will ensure long-term social and economic well-being. In addition, the said struggle is expected to be helpful in the solution of some economic crises.

Obesity is not an event that will reveal its effect in the short term, and it may not have a significant impact on health expenditures in the short run and may even lead to a decrease in these expenditures in the short term. However, in the long run, increases in obesity cause an increase in health expenditures. In this case, the policymakers in the field of health should work on obesity. Instead of using the country's resources to compensate for the indirect harms of obesity, necessary steps should be taken to prevent obesity.